UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTATION OF HISPANIC YOUTH: A STUDY OF COMMUNICATION PATTERNS, FUNCTIONAL FITNESS, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

KELLY MCKAY-SEMMLER Norman, Oklahoma 2010

CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTATION OF HISPANIC YOUTH: A STUDY OF COMMUNICATION PATTERNS, FUNCTIONAL FITNESS, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

BY

Dr. Young Yun Kim, Chair

Dr. Glenn J. Hansen

Dr. Elaine Hsieh

Dr. Amy Johnson

Dr. Betty Harris

Dr. Sherry Coy

© Copyright by KELLY MCKAY-SEMMLER 2010 All Rights Reserved.

Acknowledgements

Keep away from people who try to belittle your ambitions. Small people always do that, but the really great make you feel that you, too, can become great.

-Mark Twain

This dissertation can bear only my name as a matter of record, but there are several individuals I would like to thank for their contributions to its completion. I am indebted first of all to Dr. Young Yun Kim, whose knowledge and guidance were instrumental to the study's conception and design. In addition to being an internationally-recognized scholar of intercultural communication, she is an immediate and nurturing mentor and friend. I also owe a debt to my committee members—Drs. Michael Pfau, Glenn Hansen, Amy Johnson, Elaine Hsieh, Betty Harris, and Sherry Coy—for their insights, encouragement, and assistance with all phases of the study, from its inspiration (Drs. Coy and Harris) to the details of data analysis (Drs. Pfau, Hansen, Johnson, and Hsieh).

I am also thankful for the encouragement and support I received from the many administrators, teachers, and school staff members that aided this research by opening their doors and coordinating data collection at their sites. Moreover, I owe tremendous gratitude to the participants and their families for trusting in this research and giving of their time to participate. A very special thanks is due to Ms. Balbina Valadez for her steadfast and reliable assistance with efforts to make this research linguistically equivalent in English and Spanish, and who was instrumental to recruiting and interviewing participants in both languages. Also, I owe a great debt to my colleagues in the Department of Communication Studies at the University of South Dakota for their

iv

moral and logistical support as I worked toward the completion of this study and my degree.

This study is dedicated to my family: In particular, to my father and mother, Charles and Janet McKay, from whom I learned perseverance, dedication to excellence, and any people-skills I may have; my grandparents, Burdette and Violet McKay, whose love and encouragement to continue my education brought me to graduate school; and my spouse and best friend, Shane Semmler, without whose love and example the last eight years of graduate studies would not have been possible. To my Heavenly Father, I give humble thanks for the many blessings in my life.

	Acknowledgements	iv
	Table of Contents	vi
	List of Tables	viii
	List of Figures	ix
	Abstract	x
I.	Introduction	1
	The Purpose of the Study	3
	Hispanic Youth: National and Regional Trends	5
	Terminology	9
II.	Theory and Hypotheses	11
	Approaches to the Study of Cross-Cultural Adaptation	13
	Major Theories of Cross-Cultural Adaptation	16
	Kim's Theory: A Comprehensive, Communication-Centered Approach	23
	Previous Studies among Hispanic Youth	32
	Hypotheses	44
III.	Methods and Procedures	57
	Sampling and Recruitment	58
	Sample Profile	65
	Development of the Interview Questionnaire	70
	Finalized Interview Questionnaire	76
	Interview Procedure	103
IV.	Descriptive Analysis and Findings	108

Table of Contents

	Host Communication Competence	108
	Host Interpersonal Communication	114
	Psychological Health	119
	Functional Fitness	125
	Summary of Descriptive Findings	128
V.	Findings on Relationships Between Variables and Theory-Testing	134
	Relationships among Variables	134
	Theory-Testing	146
	Case Illustrations	158
VI.	Discussion	185
	Key Descriptive Findings	185
	Key Findings with Respect to Kim's Theory	188
	Implications	190
	Limitations and Future Directions	197
	Closing Remarks	201
Refe	References	
App	bendices	216
	Appendix 1: English Interview Questionnaire	216
	Appendix 2: Spanish Interview Questionnaire	247
	Appendix 3: Interview Transcript: Alberto	278
	Appendix 4: Interview Transcript: Pedro	297

List of Tables

Table		Page
3.1	Summary of Participant Recruitment	66
3.2	Summary of Sample Profile	71
3.3	Inter-Item Correlations and Scale Reliabilities of Interpersonal Ties Scales	90
4.1	Means and Standard Deviations of English Language Ability Items	110
4.2	Means and Standard Deviations of Adaptive Motivation Items	112
4.3	Means and Standard Deviations of Behavioral Competence Items	113
4.4	Means and Standard Deviations of Contact with Non-Hispanic Americans Items	115
4.5	Central Tendency and Participants' Minimum and Maximum Estimates of Interpersonal Ties	118
4.6	Means and Standard Deviations of Belonging Items	122
4.7	Means and Standard Deviations of Satisfaction Items	124
4.8	Means and Standard Deviations of School Adjustment Items	127
4.9	Means and Standard Deviations of Academic Performance Items	129
4.10	Summary of Research Variables	130
5.1	Correlation Matrix of Background Variables	138
5.2	Correlation Matrix of Background Variables and Research Variables	139
5.3	Generational Differences on Research Variables	142
5.4	Correlation Matrix of Research Variables	147
5.5	Standardized Estimates, Significance Levels, and R^2 for the CFA Model	154

List of Figures

Figure		Page
2.1	Kim's process model of cross-cultural adaptation: The stress-adaptation- growth dynamic	27
2.2	Kim's structural model of cross-cultural adaptation	33
2.3	Proposed confirmatory factor analytic model based on Kim's structural model	56
4.1	Ethnic/racial background of participants' three closest friends	120
5.1	Confirmatory factor analytic model of cross-cultural adaptation	152

Abstract

This study examines the psychological health and functional fitness of Hispanic youth from a theoretical perspective, specifically with respect to the role of their interpersonal communication patterns in their integration and adaptation to the mainstream United States cultural milieu. Of primary interest in this study is the role of Hispanic youths' interpersonal engagement with non-Hispanics. Unlike many adult immigrant populations, who can remain relatively insulated from the larger host culture by choice or circumstance, minors are exposed to the larger culture on a regular basis as a direct result of the legal requirement they attend school. The school environment not only provides a context for frequent contact with non-Hispanic Americans, but is also an avenue for cooperative interaction through involvement in group projects and extracurricular activities, as well as for the development of friendships.

Grounded in Kim's (1979, 1988, 2001, 2005) integrative theory of cross-cultural adaptation, this study specifically examines adaptation to mainstream U.S. American culture among Hispanic youth living in the upper Midwestern United States. The study employs Kim's theory because of the advantages it offers relative to other adaptation theories: Kim's theory offers an explanation of the phenomenon, addresses a broad domain of explanatory factors, and explicitly accommodates an examination of the role of communication behaviors in adaptation. Seven hypotheses were derived to test predicted interrelationships among four theoretical constructs identified in Kim's theory: host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness. These four constructs were chosen based on their particular relevance to the study population. It was anticipated by this author that as

Х

students in the United States public education system, these four constructs would best tap into participants' daily relevancies, which include the development and maintenance of social relationships (host communication competence and host interpersonal communication) and efforts to successfully navigate the school environment (psychological health and functional fitness).

Face-to-face interviews were conducted with 112 Hispanic youth between the ages of 13 and 21 enrolled in grades 9-12. The sample was drawn from 11 participating high schools in a tri-state area encompassing northwestern Iowa, northeastern Nebraska, and southeastern South Dakota, locally referred to as the greater "Siouxland" area. The universe of public high schools in the defined sampling area was identified and categorized according to two stratifying criteria: urban-rural setting (urban, semi-urban, or rural) and the relative concentration of Hispanic students enrolled in a given school. Schools recruited to participate in this research were purposively selected on the basis of these criteria so as to maximize the sample's representation of the various school environments. Study participants from each participating high school were randomly selected from complete lists of students enrolled as Hispanic.

The study employed a multi-method approach, combining quantitative and qualitative research methods in the interest of capitalizing on the strengths of each and offsetting their individual weaknesses: whereas quantitative research is weak in understanding the lived experiences of individuals, it is difficult to generalize the findings of qualitative research. The interview questionnaire employed in this study consisted of closed-ended questions followed by open-ended questions, which were designed to solicit the personal experiences of participants in relation to the topics addressed in the closed-

xi

ended items; all participants were asked the closed-ended questions and approximately one third of these respondents were asked the follow-up open-ended questions. Respondents were able to participate in either English or Spanish for their interview.

Descriptive findings indicate participants in this study experience moderate to high levels of adjustment with respect to each of the theoretical dimensions, with the exception of the dimension of host interpersonal communication: Participants reported low to moderate levels of overall contact with non-Hispanic Americans and relatively few non-Hispanic American friends, when compared to their friendships with fellow Hispanics. In terms of host communication competence, respondents collectively reported being very comfortable using English in a variety of daily contexts and feeling confident in their communication behavioral competence overall. Moreover, on indicators of psychological health, respondents generally expressed feelings of belonging and satisfaction with respect to their lives in the United States; in terms of functional fitness, participants also reported feeling well-adjusted to the school environment and the demands placed upon them academically. In addition, the descriptive findings indicate 1) individuals who participated in this research generally view being in the United States positively; 2) participants generally express more interest in the opportunities they have in the United States than interest in adapting to the larger U.S. American cultural milieu; and 3) participants report they struggle with issues of prejudice and discrimination as a result of their ethnic background.

Results of a first-order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) indicated support for all seven hypotheses. Specifically, Hispanic youths' level of host communication competence was positively correlated with their degree of interpersonal involvement with

xii

non-Hispanics, as well as with their level of psychological health. Their psychological health, in turn, was positively correlated with their degree of interpersonal involvement with non-Hispanics. Moreover, their functional fitness to the school environment was found to be positively correlated with their level of host communication competence, their degree of interpersonal involvement with non-Hispanics, and their level of psychological health. The CFA model was found to be reasonably good fitting on several absolute and incremental fit indices. Moreover, all of the model's path coefficients were significant. These results lend empirical support to Kim's conceptualization of the dynamic and reciprocal nature of the relationships among dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation.

In addition, two case illustrations are presented, drawn from the closed- and openended responses of two individual study participants who illustrate the predicted theoretical relationships and the study's quantitative findings. The responses of "Pedro," a second generation American who is fluent in English and who experienced his primary socialization in the United States are presented alongside "Alberto's" responses, an individual who is foreign-born and who only recently arrived in the United States. The two profiles in juxtaposition provide an illustrative contrast of the high and low extremes in cross-cultural adaptation experiences, as conveyed by individual participants in this research.

Limitations of the study include the following: 1) the study relies exclusively on data that are self-report and cross-sectional; 2) due to limited amounts of time and resources, the recruitment, training, and compensation of multiple bilingual/bicultural research assistants was not feasible, thus interviews with bilingual research participants

xiii

were at times conducted in English without the presence of a bilingual/bicultural interview assistant; 3) the sample for the study was drawn randomly, but the response rate for the study was below the minimum threshold for findings to be generalizable; and 4) the sample size of the study meets only minimum recommendations for the use of structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques for statistical analysis.

The study offers several theoretical, methodological, and practical implications. Theoretically, the study extends the current boundary conditions of Kim's (2001) theory by demonstrating that the structure and process of cross-cultural adaptation found in adult populations is applicable to understanding the phenomenon in youth populations; 2) methodologically, the study offers a reliable scale to assess school adjustment as an indicator of functional fitness, and SEM techniques to simultaneously examine predicted interrelationships among theoretical constructs; and 3) practically, results highlight the fact that, as in the case of adult immigrants, Hispanic youths' contact and maintenance of interpersonal relationships with non-Hispanics is foundational to enhancing their sense of belongingness and satisfaction with life in the United States, as well as their overall fitness to meet the challenges posed by the larger cultural environment.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In a physical and social world comprised of complex and dynamic interrelationships among phenomena, it is not oxymoronic to say, change is constant. We encounter early in our studies as communication scholars axioms articulated by Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson (1967): Communication (including all communicative behavior) is neither reversible nor repeatable. It is dynamic to the extent that, when it comes to our interactions with others, one cannot step into the same proverbial river twice. Not only are our relationships with others changed through the process of communication, we ourselves are changed through our communication.

Entering an unfamiliar cultural environment is one of the most profound ways humans experience the force of change. From the micro-level intercultural interaction between two individuals, to whole cultures interfacing within a broader society, the processes and outcomes of intercultural encounters have been of interest to social and behavioral scientists since the early twentieth century (e.g., Simmel, 1908/1950; Stonequist, 1937). More specifically, much of this research has been concerned with how individuals adapt, or acculturate, to an unfamiliar social environment. While the terms cross-cultural adaptation and acculturation are commonly associated with the experiences of immigrants and sojourners entering a new country, the phenomenon is manifest at the intersection of "cultures" at any level, including the intersection of subcultures with a larger national culture. Awad (2010), for example, examined the impact of Arab/Middle Eastern Americans' acculturation and religious identification on their perceptions of

discrimination, and Kim, Lujan, and Dixon (1998) have investigated the cross-cultural adaptation of American Indians to the larger U.S. American national culture.

An increasingly important area of investigation is the adaptation experiences of youth who cross cultures. Kao (1999) observes that since the enactment of the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1965, the United States has seen a large influx of immigrants predominantly arriving from Asian and Latin American countries. While these immigrant groups have been the focus of substantial research on their experiences, most of the studies have focused on adult migrants (Kao, 1999). As a result, research on child immigrants and the children of immigrants is less comprehensive than that available on adults. Immigrant, and minority youth generally, face a myriad of unique challenges as they attempt to navigate the complexities of forming their personal and cultural identities while existing in an environment of often contradictory influences: In one world they face the expectations of their families and ethnic communities, and in another, that of their peers, school, and the larger society (Berry, Phinney, Kwak, & Sam, 2006).

Whereas it is possible for adults to choose to remain relatively less acculturated and to interact primarily with individuals who share their cultural background and values, children have much less ability to control their exposure to cultural influences as they move from one social context to another. Thus, they are more likely than their parents to acculturate more rapidly; to be exposed to a greater variety of influences across their social worlds; and to experience incompatibilities in the cultural norms, values, and expectations to which they must adapt. (Gonzales, Knight, Morgan-Lopez, Saenz, & Sirolli, 2000, p. 46)

The Purpose of the Study

In Maruyama's (1998) investigation of Western and Asian international students studying in Japanese universities, Kim's theory (2001) was tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques to examine the predicted interrelationships among three of the theory's constructs: host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, and psychological health. Maruyama's findings supported the predicted interrelationships: students' Japanese host communication competence was found to be positively associated with their level of host interpersonal communication and feelings of psychological well-being; their psychological well-being, in turn, was reciprocally related to their level of Japanese host communication competence and interpersonal communication with Japanese host nationals. Maruyama's study was the first to employ an SEM approach to testing the theory's posited dynamic and reciprocal relationships among the dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation.

The present study replicates and extends Maruyama's study in examining the adaptation of Hispanic youth, specifically with respect to the role of interpersonal communication patterns in their psychological and functional integration. The study utilizes both survey and interviewing research methods to explore the relationship between the adaptation level of Hispanic youth and their non-Hispanic host communication activities and competencies. Given the population of interest shares the daily experience of attending school and interacting with peers and teachers of different ethnic backgrounds from their own, of primary interest in this research is the role of Hispanic youths' interpersonal engagement with non-Hispanics. Unlike many adult immigrant populations, who can remain relatively insulated from the larger host culture

by choice or circumstance, minors are exposed to the larger culture on a regular basis as a direct result of the legal requirement in 23 states they attend school until the age of 16; in eight states, school attendance is mandatory until the age of 17, and in 20 states and the District of Colombia, minors must attend school until they reach adulthood at 18 years of age (Famularo, 2009). The school environment not only provides a context for frequent contact with non-Hispanic Americans, but is also an avenue for cooperative interaction through involvement in group projects and extracurricular activities, as well as for the development of friendships. Schools, perhaps more than any other social institution, operate at the grassroots level of change.

There are compelling reasons to investigate the cross-cultural adaptation experiences of Hispanic youth. Not only is the Hispanic population in the United States growing, a substantial number of this population's youth are showing signs of distress, or maladaptation to the larger cultural environment. Evidence of distress is found in both psychological and sociocultural indicators: Hispanic youth have been found to exhibit more instances of mental health issues, such as depression and low self-esteem, than non-Hispanic white and other minority youth (Knight, Virdin, & Roosa, 1994; Roberts & Sobhan, 1992); and the high school dropout rate of Hispanic students has been found to outpace that of all other ethnic and racial groups in the U.S. (Greene & Winters, 2002). Undoubtedly, as with all social phenomena, there are many factors that contribute to these trends. This study focuses on the contribution of communication as a central factor in cross-cultural adaptation that drives other indicators of this phenomenon.

Although research has found Hispanic youth to be at greater risk on several social and psychological indicators than other ethnic groups in the U.S., very few studies have

investigated these phenomena from a theoretical perspective. This chapter introduces a theoretical investigation into the structure and process of adaptation among Hispanic youth in the West North Central region of the United States, specifically, in a tri-state area recognized regionally as "Siouxland." Important national and regional trends (Iowa, Nebraska, and South Dakota) with regard to immigrant children and children of immigrants are considered, followed by clarification of terms that will be used throughout this report.

Hispanic Youth: National and Regional Trends

U.S. Department of Homeland Security and Census Bureau estimates indicate immigration flows into the United States during the 1990s exceeded those of any previous decade in the nation's history, and the rate of growth has continued since 2000. During the decade of the 1990s, between 14 and 16 million immigrants entered the U.S., compared to 10 million in the 1980s and seven million in the 1970s (Capps & Fortuny, 2006). According to a report by the Urban Institute, the share of the U.S. population that is foreign-born has more than doubled from less than 5% in 1970 to 12% in 2005. If the current rate of immigration is sustained, the foreign-born may account for more than 13% of the total U.S. population by 2010. In absolute numbers the foreign-born population is at a record high; however, as a percentage of the total population, the foreign-born share will remain slightly below the peaks of more than 14% seen during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Capps & Fortuny, 2006).

Consistently high levels of immigration have resulted in a rapid increase in the number of children in the U.S. who have immigrant parents. Between 1970 and 2005, the number of children with at least one immigrant parent more than tripled, from six to

21%. In 2005, one in eight U.S. residents was an immigrant, but their children represented one in five of the total population under the age of 18. Furthermore, immigrants have most of their children after arriving in the U.S., thus 80% of children of immigrants are native-born U.S. citizens. The number of children who are foreign-born increases with age, however. While 90% of preschool-age children (under six) are native-born citizens, among teenagers (12-17) who are children of immigrants, 68% were born in the U.S. (Capps & Fortuny, 2006).

At present, children of immigrants from Mexico and other Latin American and Caribbean countries surpass those of all other children of immigrants combined. The largest source country for immigration to the U.S. is Mexico: In 2000, 38% of foreignborn elementary children were natives of Mexico. In addition, over half of foreign-born elementary children (55%) were from Latin American countries (including Mexico) and Spanish-speaking Caribbean countries combined. The country of origin pattern is similar for older children (grades 6-12) with Mexico accounting for over one-third of foreignborn middle and high school students (Capps et al., 2005). Somewhat expectedly, in 2000, Spanish accounted for 76% of all limited English proficient (LEP) elementary school students and 72% of sixth through twelfth grade LEP students; no other language accounted for more than 3% of all LEP students (Capps et al., 2005).

As these figures portend, the Hispanic demographic is the largest and fastest growing minority group in the United States: in 2005 Hispanics made up 14% of the total population and they are projected to comprise nearly 30% of the U.S. population by 2050 (Pew Hispanic Center, 2008, February). Moreover, the approximately 16 million Hispanic children in the U.S. continues to be one of the fastest growing child populations

in the nation: The U.S. Census Bureau projects that by 2025 Hispanic children will comprise 29% of the child population, up from 9% in 1980 and 22% at present (Fry & Passel, 2009). The Hispanic demographic is also relatively young compared to other ethnic groups: 45% of Hispanics are under 25 years of age compared to 34% of the total U.S. population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007).

Although the Hispanic population in the United States predates the founding of the country (Tienda & Mitchell, 2006), it includes a large number of immigrants: In 2006, 39.9% of Hispanics were foreign-born (Pew Hispanic Center, 2008, January). However, Hispanic children and adults have substantially different generational profiles: while only 11% of Hispanics under the age of 18 were born outside of the United States, 55% of Hispanic adults were born in another country and immigrated to the U.S. (Fry & Passel, 2009). A majority (52%) of Hispanic children are second generation, meaning they are the U.S.-born children of at least one foreign-born parent, and the remaining 37% are third generation or higher, meaning they are U.S.-born children of U.S.-born parents. In other words, in 2007 some 63% of Hispanics under the age of 18 were immigrant children or children of immigrants, compared with 43% who were first or second generation immigrants in 1980 (Fry & Passel, 2009).

Thus, in the next decade a large and growing portion of the nation's youth will face the challenge of adapting to life in a host culture that operates according to rules, values, customs, and a language that may be different from those of their, or their families', culture of origin (Gonzales et al., 2000). Research suggests that these challenges present a substantial risk to the psychological health and functional well-being of Hispanic youth, as manifest in such outcomes as depression, low self-esteem,

behavioral problems, failure in school, substance abuse problems, and financial instability (Gonzales et al., 2000). By every indication, the United States of the 21st century must cultivate a greater awareness and understanding of this burgeoning demographic.

Nowhere is this more the case than in Great Plains states: According to Census 2000 data, the states with the fastest growing numbers of immigrants and children of immigrants are those located in the Southeast, Midwest, and interior West. While two-thirds of the nation's immigrants are heavily concentrated in six settlement states— California, New York, Texas, Florida, Illinois, and New Jersey—the U.S. Census Bureau designated "new growth" states as those that have experienced increases in their foreign-born populations of more than 91% between 1990 and 2000. Compared with the foreign-born in larger settlement states, immigrants arriving in new growth states "arrived more recently, are poorer, are less educated, speak English less well, and are more likely to be undocumented" (Capps & Fortuny, 2006, p. 6). As such, the newer growth states face several challenges, especially since most of them experienced little or no immigration for much of the 20th century (Capps & Fortuny, 2006).

The West North Central region of the United States is comprised of seven states in the upper Midwest: Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.). Of these seven states, three—Iowa, Nebraska, and South Dakota—experienced some of the highest percent increases in the nation of children of immigrants between 1990 and 2000: The number of elementary-age children of immigrants in these three states increased by 94%, 125%, and 101%, respectively, during the previous decade (Capps et al., 2005). It is important to note, however, the

number of school-age children of immigrants was relatively low in these states in 2000 (less than 10%) (Capps & Fortuny, 2006). More recently, the Pew Hispanic Center reports in 2008 Hispanic youth in Iowa comprised 6% of the K-12 population, and 68% of Hispanics in the state reported speaking a language other than only English at home (2010a); in Nebraska 13% of the school-aged population was of Hispanic origin, with 70% of Hispanics reporting home use of a language other than only English (2010b). Data for 2008 is unavailable for South Dakota; however, Census 2000 figures indicate Hispanic youth comprised 2% of the school-aged population in the state, with 33.8% of Hispanic residents reporting use of a language other than only English in the home (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Terminology

The term "Hispanic" is a catchall label created by the United States government in the 1970s to refer collectively to individuals of 20 nationalities from Spanish-speaking Latin America, the Caribbean, and Spain. These individuals are not "Hispanics" in their countries of origin, but become so only in the United States (Rumbaut, 2006). Similarly, the term "Latino" was introduced into the U.S. Census nomenclature in 2000 and refers to the same group, with the exclusion of those individuals of Spanish-European ancestry (Cauce & Domenech-Rodriguez, 2002). Despite substantial differences in histories, nationalities, traditions, and dialects, the population to which the terms "Hispanic" or "Latino" refer also shares many characteristics that make it an identifiable collectivity within the larger society of the United States. These characteristics include a common ancestral language (Spanish), a shared tradition of Catholic influence, and a shared history of Spanish influence (Cauce & Domenech-Rodrigues, 2002); some have argued there is also shared identification among Hispanics based on the social class disadvantages of the immigrant generation (Rumbaut, 2006). Although it is recognized by the researcher that the category of "Hispanic/Latino" represents a diverse collection of unique cultural backgrounds, for the purposes of the proposed study, use of this category allows for an initial, broad investigation of a recognizable demographic that may in future research be explored with more nuance. Since there is no consensus as to which is the more appropriate or preferred term, "Hispanic" or "Latino," among scholars or the membership of this demographic (Rumbaut, 2006), this study will use the term "Hispanic," which the researcher understands to represent the broadest conceptualization of the population of interest.

Other terms employed in this report include "youth" and "adolescents": The World Health Organization (WHO) defines adolescents as persons in the second decade of life (10-19 years of age) (n.d.); for the purposes of the present study, the upper limit of this age range was expanded to include any individual who is enrolled in grades 9-12. The terms "youth" and "adolescents" are used interchangeably throughout the study, and the designation includes individuals between the ages of 13 and 21.

In sum, the current study is a theoretically-grounded investigation into the crosscultural adaptation of youth belonging to the fastest growing ethnic minority in the United States today. There are numerous possible ways to explore the adjustment and integration of Hispanic youth. The present study relies on the self-reported perceptions of Hispanic young people in order to ascertain the relationship between their involvement with the larger society and their feelings of psychological well-being and fitness to the larger cultural environment. The chapters that follow further describe the context in

which the study is situated, the theory and specific hypotheses grounding this research, and the findings which emerged from the investigation.

CHAPTER II

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Acculturation was formally established as an area of study in the United States in the 1930s for the purpose of investigating "those phenomena which result when groups of individuals have different cultures and come into first-hand contact with subsequent changes in the original pattern of either or both groups" (Redfield, Linton, & Herskovits, 1936, p. 149). Examination of the interdisciplinary literature on the subject since its social scientific beginnings reveals that multiple approaches have been taken in effort to understand the phenomenon, and several terms have been applied to label it. Drawing from cross-cultural psychology, social psychology, communication, educational, and anthropological traditions, key terminology reflecting the general concept of interest includes: "cross-cultural adaptation," "intercultural adaptation," "adjustment," "acculturation," "assimilation," "cultural adaptation," "social mobility," "integration," and "cross-cultural transition."

Kim (2001) integrates various existing approaches, conceptualizing the phenomenon from an open-systems perspective. For this purpose she employs the systems approach concept of "adaptation" to represent the broad phenomenon to which all other specific terms, such as acculturation, deculturation, enculturation, and assimilation refer. This author employs Kim's concept of "cross-cultural adaptation" (or simply "adaptation") throughout this report. Defined as "the dynamic process by which individuals, upon relocating to new, unfamiliar, or changed cultural environments, establish (or reestablish) and maintain relatively stable, reciprocal, and functional relationships with those environments," this generic term best incorporates the concepts

underlying each of the more specific terms listed above (Kim, 2001, p. 31). Central to this conception of adaptation is "the individual goal of achieving overall 'fit' between the individual and the environment to maximize the individual's social life chances" (Kim, 2001, p. 31).

This chapter begins by reviewing some of the more influential theories that have been proposed, and introduces and justifies the theoretical perspective to which this study subscribes. Prior to addressing specific theories, however, the body of cross-cultural adaptation literature is briefly overviewed in terms of its prominent themes. The distinctions noted among theoretical approaches have emerged from the overview efforts of others, and are reported here for their usefulness in gaining a sense of the breadth of theorizing that exists on the topic.

Approaches to the Study of Cross-Cultural Adaptation

Initially of most interest to anthropologists and sociologists, the concept of acculturation/adaptation was originally understood to refer to a group-level phenomenon; more recently, social psychologists, cross-cultural psychologists, and communication researchers have become interested in the processes and outcomes of cross-cultural adaptation from the perspective of the individual (Ward, 2001). This distinction in emphasis, the group-level or the individual-level, is the basis for the first of the categories of acculturation research, *macro-level and micro-level*, as identified in Kim's (2001) review of the interdisciplinary cross-cultural adaptation literature. Anthropologists, for instance have traditionally been concerned with supra-individual, or macro-level, considerations, whereas social and cross-cultural psychologists have focused their research lenses upon individuals' mental processes. Another category is also carried over

from Kim (2001): *Long-term and short-term adaptation*. This category summarizes two different approaches traditionally taken, one which concerns itself with long-term adaptation processes of immigrants, and the other which reflects research investigating the short-term adaptation experiences of travelers, students, and other sojourners. Others have similarly noted that acculturating groups are distinguishable on three dimensions: mobility, permanence, and voluntariness (Berry & Sam, 1997; Ward, 2001).

Another important distinction among theoretical approaches to the study of crosscultural adaptation, the nature of adaptation as either *a process or a state*, is noted by Liebkind (2001), and refers to a split in the literature with regard to the proper approach to the study of adaptation. Specifically, some researchers have approached the concept of adaptation as being manifested within the continuity of a process of adjustment, and others have conceptualized a state of adaptation, reflected in the amount or extent of adjustment that an individual has attained at a given time. Research conceptualizing adaptation as a process can be further delineated according to whether adaptation is viewed as a *unilinear*, *multilinear*, *and/or a situational phenomenon*. These conceptualizations vary with regard to how adaptation is thought to occur: as a one-way gradual transformation, a reflexive process that frequently involves the creation of a complex integrated self, or as a flexible shift in identity as a function of situational factors (Liebkind, 2001). Kim (2001) and Liebkind (2001) further note there are two primary *ideological perspectives* associated with theories of adaptation, these being assimilationism and pluralism. The former emphasizes a traditional "melting pot" philosophy that predicts a linear process of assimilation, and the later emphasizes a

cultural plurality reflecting an implicit assumption that adaptation is a matter of choice on an individual's part.

Ward (2001) identifies three broad theoretical approaches that have emerged in the acculturation literature of the social sciences: (1) social identification theories, (2) the culture learning approach, and (3) the stress and coping approach. The social identity approach is concerned with "the way people perceive and think about themselves and others, including how they process information about their own group (in-group) and other groups (out-groups)" (Ward, 2001, p. 413). At the individual-level, this approach focuses on aspects of cultural identity and views acculturation as a state, rather than a process, to the extent that it is highly concerned with the definition and measurement of adaptation (e.g., Cuéllar, Arnold, & Maldonado, 1995). At the group-level of analysis, the social identity approach examines intergroup relationships, interpreting them within the context of Tajfel's (1981; Tajfel & Turner, 1986) social identity theory (e.g., Kosmitzki, 1996).

The second theoretical approach identified by Ward (2001) is the culture learning approach, which "highlights the social psychology of the intercultural encounter and the processes involved in learning the culture-specific skills required to thrive and survive in a new milieu" (p. 413). This approach is based on the assumption that the difficulties experienced by cultural strangers are the result of their struggles to manage everyday tasks and social encounters. Thus, adaptation is viewed more as a process than a state, and is manifested in the learning of culture-specific skills required to successfully negotiate the new environment (Ward, 2001).

The third approach identified by Ward (2001), stress and coping, "conceptualizes cross-cultural transition as a series of stress-provoking life changes that draw on adjustive resources and require coping responses" (p. 413). As an analytical framework for the study of cross-cultural adaptation, it broadly incorporates characteristics of the individual and of the situation that might influence adjustment to a new cultural environment. As such, this approach has been of great interest to researchers seeking to understand the psychological adjustment of cultural strangers in terms of their perceived well-being and levels of satisfaction (Ward, 2001). Research in this tradition has viewed cross-cultural adaptation from both process and state perspectives.

Major Theories of Cross-Cultural Adaptation

As evidenced by the preceding overview of approaches used to conceptualize and investigate cross-cultural adaptation, several theories have been proposed to describe, explain, and predict the phenomenon. Some of the more influential theories of cross-cultural adaptation have included the culture shock theories (Adler, 1975; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960), Ward's (1995) acculturation theory, Berry's (1970, 1990, 1997; Berry, Kim, & Boski, 1988) acculturation typology, and Kim's (1979, 1988, 2001, 2005) communication-centered theory of cross-cultural adaptation.

Culture Shock Theories

One of the most widely recognized theories of cross-cultural adaptation was originally posited by Lysgaard (1955), based upon his study of Norwegian Fulbright scholars in the United States. Observing that the individuals who experienced the most difficulty during their sojourn in the U.S. were those who had stayed for between six and

18 months, compared to those who had either stayed for less than six months, or more than 18 months, Lysgaard proposed:

Adjustment as a process over time seems to follow a U-shaped curve: adjustment is felt to be easy and successful to begin with; then follows a 'crisis' in which one feels less well adjusted, somehow lonely and unhappy; finally, one begins to feel better adjusted again, becoming more integrated into the foreign community. (p. 51)

A closely related theory was proposed by Oberg (1960), who originally coined the term "culture shock," to describe "the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse" (p. 177). An anthropologist who had observed the experiences of American missionaries in Brazil, Oberg posited a four stage process of cross-cultural adaptation that corresponds with the U-curve hypothesis: Oberg maintained that a sojourner initially experiences a "honeymoon" phase characterized by excitement and fascination with the new environment; this is followed by a period of crisis where the individual experiences feelings of distress, hostility, and a wish to withdraw from the new environment. As time progresses, however, the individual enters a transition phase and ultimately emerges in a period of adjustment, integration, and enjoyment of the new environment (Oberg, 1960). Thus, although culture shock is typically associated with negative psychological impacts, Oberg highlighted that most sojourners pass through stages of culture shock and eventually achieve satisfactory adjustment (Ward, Okura, Kennedy, & Kojima, 1998).

Building upon the U-curve hypothesis, Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) proposed the W-curve hypothesis to include the re-entry "culture shock" experienced by

individuals returning home from a sojourn. In interviews with American faculty members who had lectured abroad and students who had studied abroad, Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) found that upon returning to the United States, the faculty reported that "their evaluations of certain situations and practices had changed sufficiently as a result of their participating in alien cultural systems that they felt annoyed and frustrated by American practices they had previously accepted" (p. 39). The students' experiences were similar, when not more extreme. The authors concluded from this research: "In looking at the total exchange experience, therefore, we may speak of a W-curve rather than a U-shaped curve to characterize the temporal patterning in individual reactions to foreign settings and subsequently to their home cultures" (p. 34).

Adler (1975) offered another development in theorizing about the process and outcomes of "culture shock," positing that the difficulties encountered during the culture shock process can be "transitional experiences" (p. 14) that lead to higher levels of personality development. Adler stated:

The transitional experience is a movement from a state of low self- and cultural awareness. Although the transitional experience is, in some respects, analogous to the U and W curves of adjustment...no attempt is made to attach time sequences to each of the stages. Where the U- and W-curve hypotheses reflected the peaks and valleys of adjustment through time, they took no account of the more encompassing and progressive changes in identity which can ensue from the culture shock process. (p. 15)

Adler identified as part of the transitional experience a stage of "contact" that is akin to Oberg's "honeymoon" phase, followed by a period of "disintegration" where the

sojourner feels increasingly confused and disoriented before reaching the "reintegration" phase characterized by a rejection of the new culture. The reintegration phase is a critical juncture for the sojourner: it is here that he or she either begins a "healthy reconstruction" (p. 17) of identity that moves one "closer to a resolution of the difficulties and frustrations being encountered" (p. 17), or he or she regresses to the superficial responses of the "contact" phase; another alternative to dealing with the dilemmas presented by the new culture is to end the sojourn by returning home. In the "autonomy" and later "independence" stages, the individual acquires increasing confidence in his or her abilities to function effectively within the new culture, and finally, acquires the capacity to be fully cognitively, affectively, and operationally engaged in the second culture (Adler, 1975).

While the U- and W-curve hypotheses have proven to be heuristic to the extent that they remain popular and are intuitively appealing (Ward, 2001), these theories have demonstrated inconsistent results when applied to different research contexts, indicating their generalizability is limited (see Lysgaard, 1955 and Ward et al., 1998). Comprehensive reviews of culture shock research have concluded that support for the Uand W-curve hypotheses is limited (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Anderson, 1994) and that evidence for the theories' claims "weak, inconclusive and overgeneralized" (Church, 1982, p. 542). Lacking predictive precision (there are no formal propositions relating concepts) and explanatory power (mechanisms by which individuals progress through culture shock stages), the culture shock theories are mostly descriptive in nature.

Ward's Acculturation Theory

A major problem with the culture shock research identified by Ward (1995) is that the U- and W-curve hypotheses have been tested indiscriminately with adjustment indices that span cognitive, affective, and behavioral domains. Ward and her colleagues have proposed a more nuanced understanding of the distinction between what she refers to as the psychological and sociocultural domains of adaptation: Psychological adaptation "refers to characteristics that are internal to the individual: good mental health (i.e., few psychological problems of anxiety, depression, and psychosomatic symptoms) and a high sense of well being (i.e., self-esteem and life satisfaction)," whereas sociocultural adaptation "refers to the quality of relationships between individuals and their sociocultural contexts" (Berry, Phinney, Kwak, et al., 2006, p. 13).

In other words, Ward and colleagues theorize that psychological (emotional/affective) and sociocultural (behavioral) adaptation "are interrelated but are conceptually and empirically distinct" (Ward et al., 1998, p. 279) outcomes, as evidenced by research that indicates that the two elements of adjustment show somewhat different patterns over time (Ward et al., 1998). In general, this research suggests "that sociocultural adjustment follows a learning curve, with adaptation problems decreasing steadily, and that psychological adjustment difficulties peak in the early stages of transition and [are] more variable over time" (Ward, 1995, p. 132). Ward and Kennedy (1996), for instance, found that the sociocultural difficulties of immigrant students in New Zealand were at their highest levels during the initial period of transition, dropped sharply after six months and then gradually continued to trend downward. The students' level of depression (psychological adaptation), however, followed a reverse U-curve:

students' level of depression was highest in the initial stages of transition and again after one year of residence, with the lowest levels of depression occurring at the intermediate six month period.

Ward (1995) proposed a multifaceted model that depicts psychological and sociocultural forms of adaptation as outcomes of societal-level and individual-level variables. Included within this framework are macrolevel factors related to the sociopolitical, socioeconomic, and demographic characteristics of both the acculturating individual's society of origin and the society of settlement, as well as microlevel factors that reflect both characteristics of the acculturating individual and situational elements of the acculturative experience. The macro- and microlevel factors are depicted as influencing "the stress, disorientation, and learning deficits" experienced by cultural strangers that they must learn to manage with appropriate behavioral, cognitive, and affective responses (Ward, 1995).

While Ward's theory provides a comprehensive approach to understanding the acculturation process, the theory lacks predictive precision to the extent that the relationships among variables in the model are not formalized through the articulation of theorems or propositions. As such, while the model encompasses a broad domain of explanatory factors, it remains a largely descriptive framework. Having been derived from extensive research identifying the influence of various factors on the acculturation process across several research contexts, though, the theory is believed to be generalizable to a variety of acculturating groups.

Berry's Acculturation Theory

Berry's theory (1970, 1990, 1997; Berry et al., 1988) is a fourfold acculturation typology by which to locate the identity orientation of non-dominant individuals or groups. Focusing on how non-dominant group members answer the question of what acculturation strategy to choose, Berry identifies two central issues they confront: *cultural maintenance*, or "to what extent are cultural identity and characteristics considered to be important, and their maintenance strived for"; and contact and *participation*, or "to what extent should they become involved in other cultural groups, or remain primarily among themselves" (Berry, 1997, p. 9). How individuals resolve these issues can be charted according to four identity orientations: Assimilation, separation, integration, and marginalization. Assimilation is the acculturation strategy employed "when individuals do not wish to maintain their cultural identity and seek daily interaction with other cultures" (Berry, 1997, p. 9). Conversely, the separation strategy is apparent "when individuals place a value on holding onto their original culture, and at the same time wish to avoid interaction with others," (p. 9). The integration option is observed in individuals who choose to both maintain one's original culture, "while in daily interactions with other groups" (p. 9). Finally, "when there is little possibility or interest in cultural maintenance (often for reasons of enforced cultural loss) and little interest in having relations with others (often for reasons of exclusion or discrimination)" (p. 9) then marginalization is apparent.

Berry's theory is descriptive in nature, with its goal to provide a heuristic framework by which to locate the identity orientations of non-dominant groups or individuals in relation to the dominant host milieu. Whereas the previous theories each

conceptualized adaptation in part as a process, Berry's theory assesses the state, or location, of an individual on the orthogonal domains of home and host culture identification. While a highly generalizable framework to a variety of acculturating groups, the theory lacks identification of the mechanisms by which individuals come to choose an acculturation strategy.

Kim's Theory: A Comprehensive, Communication-Centered Approach

The theoretical approaches discussed above have been foundational to the development of an expansive and interdisciplinary body of cross-cultural adaptation research. This study of Hispanic youth employed Kim's (1979, 1988, 2001, 2005) theory of cross-cultural adaptation, which incorporates the strengths of other approaches, while additionally theorizing explicitly about the role of communication activities in the process of cross-cultural adaptation. The relevant strengths of Kim's theory for this research context will are first highlighted, followed by a full description of both the process and structural models presented in the theory.

The research question driving this study concerned the role of host interpersonal communication activities in the adaptation of Hispanic youth. Furthermore, the goals of the research were to better understand and explain the adaptation processes occurring within this population. In order to address this general question and goal, a theoretical framework was required that seeks explanation of the phenomenon, addresses a broad domain of explanatory factors, and explicitly accommodates an examination of the role of communication behaviors.

Kim's theory of cross-cultural adaptation (1979, 1988, 2001, 2005) provides a communication-centered approach to examining the multilevel factors that influence the

rate at which cultural strangers adapt to a new cultural environment. Conceptualizing adaptation as occurring at the intersection of the person and the environment, communication activities (interpersonal and mass media consumption) are identified as the mechanism by which the adaptation process occurs. Moreover, conceptualized from a systems perspective, the adaptation process is viewed as having a synergistic quality in which all parts operate together to produce an outcome greater than the sum of the parts. This means that, distinct from Ward's (1995) theory of the acculturative process in which psychological and sociocultural adaptation are modeled as outcomes of a constellation of factors, Kim's theory posits that these adaptation outcomes reflect back onto the system in a continual cycle of influence with the other factors throughout the model.

Kim's theory was employed to guide the study because of its comprehensive applicability to the research question and goal at hand: this theory identifies communication behavior as the mechanism through which adaptive change occurs, and provides an explanatory, and descriptive, framework by which to examine the relationships among factors that facilitate or impede the adaptation of Hispanic youth; moreover, it is currently the only theory of cross-cultural adaptation that explicitly theorizes about the role of interpersonal relationships and communication in the adaptation process.

Kim's theory (1979, 1988, 2001, 2005) provides a comprehensive framework from which to understand and explain how cross-cultural adaptation occurs at the level of the individual. Kim uses the term adaptation inclusively, incorporating the related concepts of assimilation, acculturation, integration, and adjustment into the more general concept of cross-cultural adaptation, which she defines as "the dynamic process by which

individuals, upon relocating to new, unfamiliar, or changed cultural environments, establish (or reestablish) and maintain relatively stable, reciprocal, and functional relationships with those environments" (2001, p. 31). This definition is consistent with the open-systems perspective, in which human adaptation is seen as a "case of 'organized complexity' and the unfolding of the natural human tendency to struggle for an internal equilibrium in the face of often adversarial environmental conditions" (Kim, 2005, p. 378). Central to this understanding of adaptation is the individual's goal of obtaining a sense of "fit" between the individual and the environment, in order to maximize one's chances for success in life (Kim, 2001).

Placing adaptation at the "intersection of the person and the environment," (Kim, 2001, p. 31) the theory highlights the centrality of the communication process to crosscultural adaptation: Communication, or message exchange, makes the intersection of the person and environment possible. From this perspective, communication between the individual and the host environment is viewed as a necessary condition for adaptation to occur (Kim, 2001): "communication is the necessary vehicle without which adaptation cannot take place, and...cross-cultural adaptation occurs as long as the individual remains in interaction with the host environment" (Kim, 2005, p. 379).

Integrative by design, the theory identifies multiple dimensions of factors that influence the process of one's adjustment to an unfamiliar environment. Incorporating numerous theoretical concepts from across social science disciplines, the theory integrates the psychological, social, and environmental contexts in which cross-cultural adaptation occurs. Drawing from a broad domain of concepts from micro- to macrolevels of influence, the theory makes possible a comprehensive understanding of how

individuals adapt to an unfamiliar environment and how they are transformed by the experience. Kim describes this theoretical approach to understanding the phenomenon of cross-cultural adaptation as follows:

This interactive, communication-based conception moves beyond the linearreductionist assumption underlying most existing models and conceptualizes cross-cultural adaptation not as an independent or dependent variable, but as the *totality* of an individual's personal and social experiences vis-à-vis the host environment in and through a complex system of communicative interfaces. (Kim, 2001, p. 32)

Two models comprise Kim's theory, addressing distinct, yet interrelated, domains of the phenomenon of cross-cultural adaptation: (1) a process model that depicts the personal evolution that occurs toward increased levels of psychological health, functional fitness, and eventually, intercultural identity; and (2) a structural model that identifies the key dimensions of factors that influence the process of adaptation, and delineates their interrelationships (Kim, 2005). The process and structural models are described in more detail below.

Kim's Process Model: The Stress-Adaptation-Growth Model

Kim's process model describes and explains the dynamic and transformative process that individuals undergo when they come into contact with an unfamiliar cultural environment. Based on the open-systems principle of stress-adaptation-growth dynamism, the process model depicts the adaptation process as occurring in a "dialectic, cyclic, and continual 'draw-back-to-leap' pattern" (Kim, 2005, p. 384) (see Figure 2.1). As individuals encounter the unfamiliar, they initially respond by seeking familiarity and

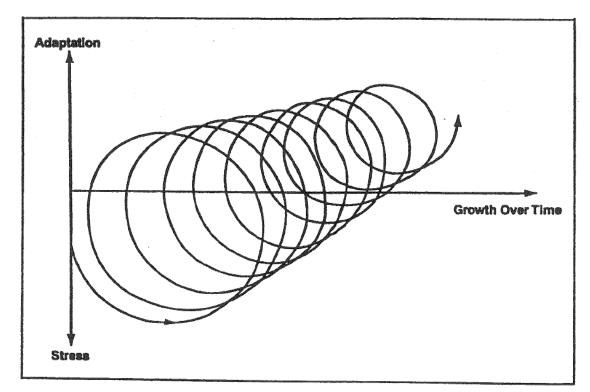


Figure 2.1. Kim's process model of cross-cultural adaptation: The stress-adaptation-growth dynamic (Kim, 2001, p. 57).

resisting change; however, as the internal dissonance created by the "push of the new culture and the pull of the old" (p. 383) mounts, these dialectical forces "produce a state of disequilibrium, manifested in emotional 'lows' of uncertainty, confusion, and anxiety" (p. 383). This state of misfit and heightened awareness compels individuals to overcome the obstacles they are experiencing through the deliberate learning of new habits in an act of adaptation (pp. 383-384).

Following the "stress-adaptation disequilibrium" (Kim, 2005, p. 383) Kim proposes that subtle developmental growth occurs. Stress subsides as individuals work out new ways to handle problems, reflecting individuals' "psychological movement in the forward and upward direction of increased chances of success in meeting the demands of the host environment" (p. 384). Kim theorizes the long-term outcome of the stressadaptation-growth process is gradual intercultural transformation. The theory identifies three interrelated facets of intercultural transformation: (1) increased levels of functional fitness in carrying out daily tasks in the new environment; (2) psychological health associated with the ability to cope in the new environment; and (3) the gradual movement from an original cultural identity to an increasingly "intercultural" identity, reflected in a broadened and more flexible sense of self and an increased awareness of others as individuals sharing universal aspects of human nature (Kim, 2001).

Kim's Structural Model: Dimensions and Factors Influencing the Cross-Cultural Adaptation Process

Kim's structural model of cross-cultural adaptation is a multidimensional framework designed to explain the differential rates at which cultural strangers adapt to a new environment. This model identifies the key factors that facilitate or impede the

intercultural transformation of cultural strangers, as manifested in their increased levels of functional fitness, psychological health, and development of intercultural identity. The individual's level of intercultural transformation, in turn, reciprocally influences all of the other dimensions identified in the model, each of which is described below.

Highlighting the centrality of communication activities, Kim delineates two interdependent dimensions that serve as the mechanisms through which adaptive change occurs in the individual: personal (or intrapersonal) communication, and host social communication (interpersonal/mass communication) (Kim, 2005). Kim defines personal communication, or host communication competence, as "The capacity of strangers to receive and process information (decoding) appropriately and effectively and to design and execute mental plans in initiating or responding to messages (encoding)" (2005, p. 385). Manifested in cognitive, affective, and operational aspects, host communication competence is viewed as the most important and direct facilitator of cross-cultural adaptation, since it "serves as an instrumental, interpretive, and expressive means of coming to terms with the host environment" (pp. 384-385).

Directly intertwined with host communication competence is the cultural stranger's participation in the host social environment, both interpersonally and in the form of mass media consumption. While both forms of engagement with the host environment are predicted to facilitate adaptation, interpersonal involvement with members of the host culture provides cultural strangers both emotional support and points of reference for assessing and validating their own behaviors (Kim, 2005). Conversely, participation in host mass communication activities, such as watching television

programs and reading newspapers and magazines, provide less personalized, and thus, less meaningful involvement with host culture members (Kim, 2005).

Cultural strangers' interpersonal and mass communication activities also frequently involve their co-ethnic or co-national communities, to the extent these communities are available in the host society. Kim's theory views these communication systems as potentially adaptation-facilitating during the early stages of cultural strangers' adjustment to the host environment, but beyond initial introduction to the new environment, "ethnic social communication serves the function of original cultural identity maintenance and is negatively associated with adaptation into the host culture," (Kim, 2005, p. 387) in terms of increased functional fitness, psychological health, and the development of an intercultural identity orientation (Kim, 2001).

In addition to the personal and social communication dimensions, Kim's theory incorporates the influence of the host environment on cultural strangers' adaptation experiences. The conditions of the host environment are embodied in three key factors: Host receptivity refers to "the natives' openness toward strangers and willingness to accommodate strangers with opportunities to participate in the local social communication processes" (Kim, 2001, p. 148); host conformity pressure reflects the "extent to which the environment challenges strangers to act in accordance with the normative patterns of the host culture and its communication system" (Kim, 2005, p. 388); and ethnic group strength is an assessment of "a strangers' ethnic group's capacity to influence the surrounding host environment at large" (Kim, 2005, p. 388). For the first and second factors, a high level of host receptivity combined with conformity pressure is

conducive to cross-cultural adaptation, whereas a high level of the third factor, ethnic group strength, impedes motivation to adapt to the larger host milieu.

Kim's theory also accounts for the internal conditions of cultural strangers prior to their resettlement in the host society. The dimension of predisposition is comprised of three factors that reflect strangers' unique background characteristics, which influence their subsequent adaptation experiences. First, cultural strangers vary in their levels of preparedness to enter the new environment; that is "the mental, emotional, and motivational readiness to deal with the new cultural environment, including the understanding of the host language and culture" (Kim, 2005, p. 389). Second, ethnic proximity (or ethnic distance) reflects the "degree of similarity (or difference) of the stranger's ethnicity-based characteristics relative to the corresponding characteristics predominant in the host environment" (Kim, 2001, p. 169). Finally, the concept of adaptive personality refers to those qualities of personality that "help facilitate the strangers' adaptation by enabling them to endure challenges and to maximize new learning" (p. 84). With regard to the first factor, it is predicted in the theory that greater levels of preparedness facilitate the adaptation process, as does a greater degree of ethnic proximity to the host culture. Furthermore, having qualities associated with an adaptive personality is predicted to positively influence strangers' adaptive transition.

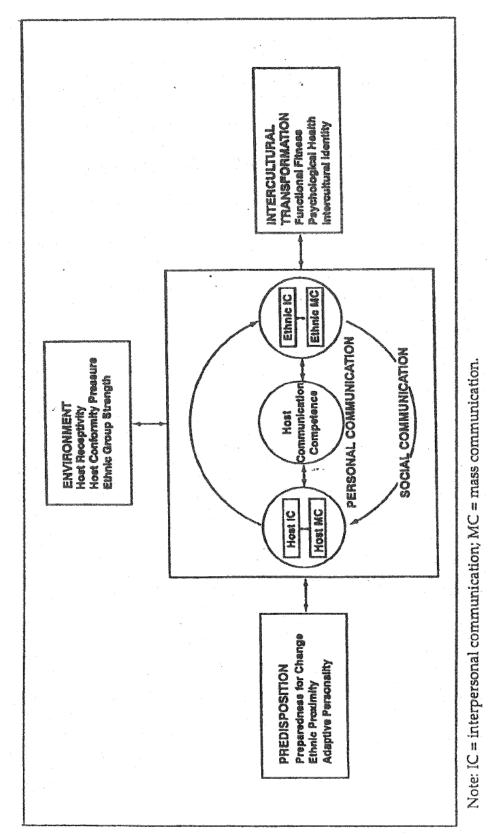
The final dimension of the structural model is the aforementioned construct of intercultural transformation, which is comprised of functional fitness, psychological health, and intercultural identity. More formally stated, functional fitness refers to "the suitability of strangers' internal capabilities to meet the external challenges of the environment" (Kim, 2001, p. 185). Well-adapted cultural strangers have achieved a

desired level of proficiency in communicating with and relating to members of the host culture, particularly with those individuals most directly involved in their daily activities (Kim, 2005). The closely related concept of psychological health, vis-à-vis the host environment, refers to the mental health and well-being of cultural strangers (Kim, 2005). Functional fitness and psychological health are accompanied by the third factor, intercultural identity, which refers to an individual's psychological movement from an ascribed mono-cultural identity based on one's cultural origins to a broader and more flexible self-concept that is increasingly intercultural in orientation (Kim, 2005, p. 391).

Kim theorizes that a cultural stranger's personal and social communication activities, combined with his or her predisposition (preparedness, ethnic proximity, adaptive personality) and the conditions of the host environment (host receptivity, host conformity pressure, ethnic group strength) reciprocally influence one another and work to facilitate or impede the intercultural transformation (functional fitness, psychological health, intercultural identity) of the cultural stranger. Intercultural transformation, in turn, helps explain and predict the status of individuals on all other dimensions identified in the theory (Kim, 2005). (See Figure 2.2).

Previous Studies among Hispanic Youth

A widely accepted way of differentiating among cross-cultural adaptation outcomes has been to distinguish between psychological and sociocultural dimensions: Psychological adaptation is an affective response and refers to "feelings of well-being or satisfaction during cross-cultural transitions" (Ward, 2001, p. 414), whereas sociocultural adaptation is behavioral and refers to "the ability to 'fit in' or execute





effective interactions in a new cultural milieu" (p. 414). Similarly, Kim (1979, 1988, 2001, 2005) delineates between factors that reflect adapting individuals' levels of psychological health and functional fitness. These concepts provide a heuristically useful structure by which to examine the empirical findings on adaptation in Hispanic youth.

While much of the research on the psychological health and functional fitness of Hispanic youth hypothesizes about the relationships among various indicators of these two broad concepts, very few studies have been conducted using a theoretical framework. Review of the empirical research is organized below according to the concepts of psychological health and functional fitness for ease of integration and interpretation of findings. The review of empirical findings concludes with observations regarding the state of cross-cultural adaptation research within the context of Hispanic youth.

Functional Fitness and Hispanic Youth

Empirical findings related to the functional fitness, or sociocultural adaptation, of Hispanic youth can be categorized into two broad areas of investigation: academic achievement and deviance/behavioral problems. The first of these, academic achievement, has generally been found to positively correlate with Hispanic youths' level of English language proficiency. Portes (1999), for example, found that the lowest achievers among a student sample comprised of multiple ethnic groups, including Hispanics, were from groups that encountered language problems in school amid other factors related to low social support and host receptivity. However, a substantial amount of research on the adaptation of minority youth has found this relationship to be reversed in the third generation (native-born children of native-born parents) and beyond. Kao and Tienda (1995), for instance, have found that native-born children of immigrant parents

(Asian, Hispanic, or black) are in the best position to succeed academically compared to both foreign-born youth and youth born of native-born parents: while foreign-born youth are at a disadvantage academically because of their limited English skills, the authors conclude that immigrant parents are better promoters of academic achievement than their native-born counterparts.

Another avenue of research pursued to better understand the relationship between English language proficiency and academic achievement has examined the effects of bilingualism on school success. Rumberger and Larson (1998) found among Mexican American students in an urban middle school that fluently bilingual students had better grades and more school credits completed by the end of the ninth grade than those students who were limited English proficient or monolingual English speakers. Stanton-Salazar and Dornbusch (1995) similarly found fluently bilingual Mexican-origin students to have an advantage over English-dominant students in gaining access to adult social capital. Whereas Spanish-dominant students have not acculturated sufficiently to be able to integrate into mainstream social networks, the authors conclude, English-dominant minorities "may be acquiring an oppositional stance toward 'the system'" (p. 132), therefore placing bilingual students in an optimal position to pursue mainstream standards of success. The authors contend "bicultural adaptation appears to lead to increases in social capital, both by lowering the risks entailed in help seeking and by increasing the likelihood of genuine support from institutional agents" (p. 132).

Academic achievement has also been found to correlate with the degree of school attachment or connection experienced by minority youth, including Hispanics. Found through qualitative analysis of interview data to consist of students' "sense of

connectedness to the school community, through school activities as well as networks of peer and faculty support" (Mouton & Hawkins, 1996, para. 25), a low level of attachment was further found to be related to negative attitudes toward school and school personnel (Mouton & Hawkins, 1996). In Marcus and Sanders-Reio's (2001) overview of the literature on school attachment as a predictor of school completion, the authors document substantial evidence that students who are attached to teachers, associate with peers who share positive attitudes about school, and who are familiar to the school community (through high attendance and minimal school transfers) are less likely to drop out before completing high school. These findings are supported by Diaz (2005), who reports higher levels of academic performance to be associated with higher levels of school attachment. Mouton and Hawkins (1996), however, found that the relationship between school attachment and academic achievement was best characterized as one of getting through school versus thriving in the school environment: As noted above, although low-attached students indicated having negative attitudes toward school and school personnel, the subjects in their study reported valuing their education and intended to finish high school, and in addition, some form of post-high school training.

A related area of research examining the relationship between students' connection to school and their level of academic achievement has focused specifically on the role of participation in extracurricular activities. For example, based on qualitative interviews with two Mexican-origin young adults who had successfully entered college and completed post-secondary degrees, Cabrera and Padilla (2004) report the importance placed by one interviewee on participation in extracurricular activities. The young Hispanic woman they interviewed explained that, although always highly motivated in

school, her time and involvement in extracurricular activities allowed her entry into the culture of college by giving her access to information that her foreign-born primary caregiver could not provide. Quantitatively, these findings are supported by survey results reported by Martinez, DeGarmo, and Eddy (2004), which showed that extracurricular encouragement by school personnel was a key protective factor in promoting academic success for Hispanic youth. Similarly, both Davalos, Chavez, and Guardiola (1999) and Brown and Evans (2002) found evidence in support of the relationship between participation in extracurricular activities and connection to school; furthermore, Brown and Evans (2002) found this relationship to be particularly strong among Hispanic American, African American, and European American students among multiple ethnic groups.

Degree of acculturation is another variable that has been correlated with the academic achievement of Hispanic youth. Manaster and Chan (1992) found that academically unsuccessful Mexican American high school students were less likely than their successful counterparts to be acculturated to North American culture, as measured in terms of attitudes toward modernity, intuitive beliefs, worldviews, and occupational decisions. Martinez et al. (2004) similarly found lower levels of acculturation to be related to less academic success for Hispanic students.

Finally, environmental factors, such as institutional bias, have been examined for their effects on the academic achievement of Hispanic youth, as has the demographic variable of socioeconomic status (SES). Battle (2002) found, for instance, that socioeconomic status, not family configuration (one- vs. dual-parent households), is the stronger predictor of academic achievement among Hispanic students. This finding is

echoed by the research of Martinez et al. (2004) which indicated that structural barriers substantially influence the school success or failure of Hispanic youth in ways not experienced by their non-Hispanic peers. These authors specifically identified difficult social- and culture-specific life circumstances, such as "low income, experiences of discrimination, and feeling unwelcome at school" (p. 145) as impacting on Hispanic academic achievement. Krashen and Brown (2005) similarly found that highsocioeconomic status English language learners (ELLs) outperform low-SES students who are fluent English speakers on tests of math, and do nearly as well on reading tests. The authors attribute this finding to the advantages that high SES is indicative of: 1) youth who come to the United States with a high SES background have usually had formal education in their primary language, which contributes to their ability to learn a second language; 2) higher SES is often associated with having caregivers who are more educated and capable of providing assistance with schoolwork; and 3) higher SES means ready access to a "richer print environment," with more books available at home and in one's surroundings (pp. 192-193).

The second area of functional fitness investigated in the context of immigrant and/or minority youth is the maladaptive emergence of both everyday behavioral problems and more socially deviant behaviors, such as drug use and crime. Many of the same factors correlated with academic achievement among Hispanic youth are also examined for their association with deviant behaviors. These factors include English language proficiency, participation in extracurricular activities, school attachment/connection, and level of acculturation. Vega, Khoury, Zimmerman, Gil, and Warheit (1995), for example, found that difficulties associated with language use were a

common and serious acculturation strain confronting both immigrant and native-born Hispanic youth in the school setting; in particular, high levels of behavioral problems were reported in instances where Hispanic youth were having trouble with cultural adjustment due to language difficulties.

School attachment/connection and participation in extracurricular activities are factors identified in the literature as able to promote adherence to social norms and standards of behavior. Jenkins (1995) and Diaz (2005) have found evidence for an inverse relationship between school attachment and acts of deviance. Jenkins reports that a decrease in school commitment among seventh and eighth graders is linked to an increase in school crime rates, misconduct, and nonattendance. Moreover, school commitment is found to mediate much of the effect of other variables impacting on school delinquency, such as personal background, family involvement, and academic ability (Jenkins, 1995). Yin, Katims, and Zapata (1999) have similarly found an inverse relationship between involvement in extracurricular activities and involvement in delinquent behaviors among Mexican American adolescents. Tying these findings together, Diaz (2005) has further found that increased levels of attachment to school and community are associated with greater levels of participation in extracurricular activities among Hispanic youth. The literature suggests that high levels of attachment are positively associated with participation in extracurricular activities, which in turn reduces the likelihood of youth participating in socially deviant behaviors.

A final factor frequently examined for its influence on behavioral problems and other more serious acts of social deviance in immigrant and/or minority youth is acculturation level. In a comprehensive overview effort conducted by Gonzales and his

colleagues (2000), the authors report the results of this body of research are mixed, and (the authors argue) potentially confounded by uncontrolled factors. This critique will be further addressed below; however, the general trend that emerges from this literature is "a pattern of increased problematic behaviors, including increased rates of delinquency and substance use among more acculturated Latino adolescents" (p. 59).

Psychological Health and Hispanic Youth

Empirical findings related to the psychological health of Hispanic youth can be categorized into two broad areas of investigation: mental depression rates and self-esteem levels. Although there is some evidence that the depression rate is higher among Hispanic youth (especially among Mexican Americans) relative to non-Hispanic whites and other minority groups (Knight et al., 1994; Roberts & Sobhan, 1992), surprisingly little research has been conducted on the topic. Measured in various ways, the factor that has consistently been examined for its relationship to depression rates in this group is acculturation level, or in some cases, acculturative stress (see Hovey and King, 1996).

Cuéllar and Roberts (1997) and Katragadda and Tidwell (1998) each examined the relationship between self-reported depressive symptoms and acculturation level of Hispanic adolescents and found little support for a link between the two variables. Although their findings indicted widespread depressive symptomatology within their sample (approximately a third [33%] of their subjects reported moderate to severe levels of depression) Katragadda and Tidwell (1998) discovered that acculturation level was not a significant predictor of depression. Low acculturation, however, was related to higher stress, which was in turn related to higher levels of depression (Katragadda and Tidwell, 1998). Similarly, Cuéllar and Roberts (1997) report that subjects' depression scores were

influenced more by gender and SES than by acculturation level. In addition, it was found that depressive symptoms were attenuated with acculturation, but only among those Mexican Americans who were assimilated (Cuéllar and Roberts, 1997). Hovey and King (1996), focusing on levels of acculturative stress rather than level of acculturation, found high levels of acculturative stress among Hispanic adolescents to be related to high levels of depressive symptoms and suicidal ideation. On the other hand, there is also evidence for a link between high levels of acculturation and depressive symptomatology: Rasmussen, Negy, Carlson and Burns (1997) found that suicidal ideation among Mexican American eighth graders was predicted by higher levels of acculturation after controlling for depression and self-esteem.

English language proficiency, often considered a dimension of acculturation, has also been found to relate to subjects' level of depression. Research conducted by Yu, Huang, Schwalberg, Overpeck, and Kogan (2003) on the health and well-being of U.S. immigrant adolescents showed that youth of all ethnic backgrounds who primarily spoke a language other than English at home were at greater risk for experiencing alienation from peers and having feelings of vulnerability and low confidence. Roberts and Chen (1995) similarly concluded from their study results that although Mexican American youths are at higher risk for depression and suicidal ideation than their Anglo peers, Mexican-origin adolescents who spoke only or predominantly English experienced lower rates of depression and suicidal ideation than those who spoke only or predominantly Spanish.

The second area of investigation related to psychological health outcomes among Hispanic youth concerns their level of self-esteem relative to non-Hispanic whites and

other minority groups. Factors examined for their relationship to self-esteem include participation in extracurricular activities, acculturation level, and cultural identity. Borden and colleagues (2006), for example, investigated the motivations reported by Hispanic youth for their participation in youth development programs, or extracurricular activities. Using categories inductively derived from the subjects, the authors report youth listed self-esteem and confidence as their primary reasons for participating; thus, the authors seem to suggest participation in youth groups stands to promote opportunities for members of at-risk groups (Hispanics) to improve their sense of well-being.

English language proficiency, which is often used either as a dimension of (or proxy for) an individual's acculturation level, has also been linked to self-esteem and related concepts, such as self-worth and self-efficacy. Kao's (1999) analysis of data on over 24,000 students surveyed in the National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS) beginning in 1988 showed that the languages young people use at home and at school are related to their levels of self-efficacy: youth whose families primarily use a language other than English at home experience lower levels of self-efficacy. In addition, "youth whose home language is not English have lower self-concept than those whose home language is exclusively English" (p. 452). Similarly, Portes and Zady (2002) demonstrated that Hispanic adolescents with greater English proficiency exhibited higher self-esteem. However, Kao (1999) also found evidence of a link between subjects' bilingualism and higher levels of self-esteem relative to their English-only peers.

Cultural identity, ethnic or mainstream, is another factor that is found to impact on the self-esteem of youth. Studies focusing on the relationship between these variables have consistently found ethnic identity and self-esteem to be positively related (Gonzales

et al., 2000). Phinney, Cantu, and Kurtz (1997), for instance, found ethnic identity to be a predictor of self-esteem among black, white, and Hispanic adolescents. For white students, ethnic identity was highly correlated with mainstream American identity, which the authors surmise explains why American identity was only a strong predictor of selfesteem among white students. However, the authors note that acculturation level was not assessed in the study, which may confound the results: Since "adolescents who are less acculturated may have poorer language skills, greater difficulty in communicating outside their own group, and fewer friendships with other group members" (p. 180), it is possible that exclusive ethnic identification is related to lower levels of acculturation, which in turn are related to lower self-esteem (see Gil, Vega, & Dimas, 1994 and Rogler, Cortes, & Malgady, 1991).

On the whole, this author concurs with Gonzalas and colleagues (2000) who have identified several limitations in the acculturation literature on Hispanic youth. These authors pointed out several conceptual and methodological weaknesses that characterize this body of literature, in general, that the current study seeks to address in its conceptualization and design. First, few of the previous studies take a multidimensional, theoretical approach to examining the adaptation of Hispanic youth. The current investigation addresses this limitation by employing Kim's (2001) theory as a framework for examining the multidimensional nature of the adaptation process within this population. Second, many of the previous studies have used samples biased toward inner-city, poor youth and have thus failed to account or control for the effects of socioeconomic status and nativity that confound our current understanding of the effects of adaptation. In light of this limitation, the present study incorporated a variety of

environmental contexts ranging from urban to rural community environments and high and low levels of Hispanic population density; in addition, the study statistically controls for the effects of generational and socioeconomic status in the data analysis. Third, Gonzalas and colleagues (2000) note the predominant use of samples with restricted ranges on the variables of primary interest; for example, only surveying or interviewing individuals who are English language proficient in order to assess their level of adaptation. This study sought to address this limitation by inclusively interviewing randomly selected participants in their dominant and/or preferred language, Spanish or English. It is the hope of this author that continuing to address the weaknesses in the current literature will contribute to our ability to make sense of what is at present a complex, confounded, and often contradictory body of literature on the adaptation of Hispanic youth to the larger U.S. American cultural milieu.

Hypotheses

While the current literature on cross-cultural adaptation among Hispanic youth has in many ways advanced our knowledge of the influence of various factors on youth adaptation, the primary critique of this body of knowledge is its limited ability to provide understanding of the larger system at work. As noted by Gonzalas and his colleagues (2000), despite widespread acknowledgment of the multidimensional nature of the adaptation process, very little research actually reflects a multidimensional approach to understanding the phenomenon. Adaptation or acculturation is frequently assessed using only language ability or preference as a proxy measure of acculturation level. Although undoubtedly a central factor in assessing one's level of competence in the host culture, language proficiency does not represent the whole of what it means to be cross-culturally

adapted (Gonzalas et al., 2000). Marín (1992) suggests that by focusing on the more superficial changes produced by adaptation (language use), researchers risk basing findings solely on highly unreliable estimates of a dynamic and important personal process. The underrepresentation of various dimensions of adaptation may result in a skewed assessment of an individual's adaptation and in an inaccurate understanding of how it relates to functional fitness and psychological health (Gonzalas et al., 2000).

A multidimensional approach to understanding cross-cultural adaptation outcomes entails recognition of the multiple layers of influence, from the individual's predispositional characteristics to environmental factors, that impact on the process (Gonzalas et al., 2000). Thus, for example, an understanding of the interaction between an individual's social communication activities (situational context) and his or her level of language ability and adaptive motivation (individual-level) will improve our understanding of the complex interplay of factors involved in predicting adaptation outcomes. The research lacking a multidimensional approach is frequently lacking a theory by which to link the independent factors in the form of predicted relationships. Gonzalas and colleagues (2000) concur much of the available literature on youth adaptation,

whether focused on emotional, behavioral, or academic outcomes, has looked for main effects and, in so doing, has been limited to an overly simplistic question: Who has more problems, more- or less-acculturated youths? Analyses to address this question have often been pursued in the absence of strong theory about how acculturation levels alone should predict poor outcomes. (pp. 67-68)

In essence, multidimensional, theoretically-driven research is needed in order for the study of cross-cultural adaptation among youth to continue to forwardly advance our present understanding of the processes and factors involved. The current investigation employs Kim's (2001, 2005) comprehensive, communication-centered approach in furthering this end. As described in detail above, Kim's theory has the unique capacity to address both the structure and process components of cross-cultural adaptation using a multidimensional, systems approach perspective. Using this theory, hypotheses were posited that allowed the present study to simultaneously examine various indicators of adjustment identified in previous research (e.g., language ability, school attachment, and depression) and analyze them within the explanatory framework of the theory.

Although Kim's (2001, 2005) theory has been used primarily in past research to examine the cross-cultural adaptation of adult immigrants and sojourners, the theory also applies to understanding the adjustment of individuals crossing subcultural lines. A subculture is defined as "as subset of a culture having some different values, norms, and/or symbols that are not shared by all members of the larger culture" (Gudykunst & Kim, 2003). Studies using Kim's theory to examine cross-cultural adaptation in subcultural groups have included Norton (1990), who examined successful aging as a cross-cultural adaptation process and Kim, Lujan, & Dixon (1997), which investigated the adaptation experiences of Native Americans in Oklahoma to the larger cultural mainstream. This study employed Kim's theory in investigating the adaptation of Hispanic youth (immigrant or native to the United States) to the larger host society, or American cultural mainstream. As such, the terms or phrases "host," "mainstream," "larger society," and "larger culture" are used synonymously.

One of the current boundary conditions of Kim's theory is its applicability to individuals who have experienced their primary socialization in one culture (or subculture) and have since moved to another, unfamiliar, culture (or subculture) (Kim, 2001). Thus, "the present theoretical domain does not directly address the situations of young children who accompany their parents to a new culture" (Kim, 2001, p. 34). This study sought to explore these boundaries, in the belief that many of the same factors influencing the adaptation outcomes of adults are applicable to understanding the adaptation outcomes of youth who are crossing cultural lines in their daily communication environments.

As previously indicated, there are two specific research objectives in this study: (1) to replicate with a Hispanic adolescent sample, the findings of Maruyama (1998), who used structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques to empirically establish the posited interrelationships among the constructs of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, and psychological health articulated in Kim's theory (2001); and (2) to test an extended statistical model that includes a fourth theoretical construct, functional fitness, as it occurs in Hispanic youth. These research objectives are addressed in the formulation and testing of the series of hypotheses that follow.

Hypotheses: Replication of Previous Findings

The present study focuses on four of the theoretical constructs identified in Kim's structural model of cross-cultural adaptation: (1) host communication competence; (2) host interpersonal communication; (3) psychological health; and (4) functional fitness. These four constructs were chosen for this study because of their centrality to an examination of the relationships between communication activities and adjustment

outcomes for Hispanic youth. Specifically, host communication competence enables Hispanic youth to engage in non-Hispanic host social communication processes, through which they are able to form casual and close interpersonal relationships with members of the non-Hispanic mainstream cultural majority. These relationships are central to building efficacy in overcoming the daily challenges presented by entering the mainstream cultural environment, as well as to developing a sense of shared identification with, and connectedness to, the larger non-Hispanic mainstream society. Manifestations of increased levels of host communication competence and host interpersonal communication include a growing degree of functional fitness and psychological health, with respect to one's life in the larger mainstream cultural environment. In turn, functional fitness and psychological health contribute to the continual improvement of an individual's host communication competence and level of social involvement with mainstream society members.

As discussed at length above, Kim identifies several other factors that influence the process of cross-cultural adaptation, including those associated with the environmental and predispositional dimensions. Although these factors are likely to further describe and explain the adaptation experiences of Hispanic youth, the present study brackets these factors for future research, in the interest of maintaining manageability of the research design and data: Given the number of variables that will be assessed and the nature of the context (young people), it is preferable to collect data of high quality on a limited number of central variables rather than overwhelm respondents with an exhaustive instrument, which is open to issues related to response fatigue (e.g. response sets, failure to complete the interview). Moreover, the dimensions and

particular factors selected for investigation in the present study were chosen for their high degree of relevance to the research population. It was anticipated that social communication activities and levels of host communication competence (personal communication) are central issues in Hispanic adolescents' daily lives. Similarly, the intercultural transformation factors of functional fitness and psychological health are of direct relevance to Hispanic youth, especially as they relate to youths' school lives and peer relations in the larger cultural environment.

Kim (2001, pp. 91-92) articulated the following interrelationships among the focal constructs of the present study, from which research hypotheses were derived:

- Theorem 1: The greater the host communication competence, the greater the host interpersonal and mass communication.
- Theorem 3: The greater the host communication competence, the greater the intercultural transformation (functional fitness, psychological health, and intercultural identity).
- Theorem 5: The greater the host interpersonal and mass communication, the greater the intercultural transformation (functional fitness, psychological health, and intercultural identity).

The findings of past research on the cross-cultural adaptation experiences of adolescents support the predictive relationships identified in the above three theorems. Specifically, Berry, Phinney, Sam, and Vedder (2006) found in their research with immigrant youth across 13 countries that national language proficiency and use was positively associated with greater contact with host society peers, as well as with an increased level of identification with the values and goals of the host society. Conversely, Kao's (1999) research on Asian, Hispanic, and black adolescent immigrants demonstrated a clear link between languages spoken at home and adolescents' selfefficacy, a measure of psychological health: youth whose families primarily used a language other than English at home were more likely to experience difficulty in their daily school lives, which contributed to feelings of helplessness. Moreover, prolonged confinement to bilingual programs during the school day physically isolated immigrant students from the rest of the student body (Kao, 1999), decreasing their opportunities for development of interpersonal relationships with host culture students. In light of findings by Chesterfield, Chesterfield, and Chavez (1982), which demonstrate that interaction with peers who speak English is more strongly associated with second-language acquisition than interaction with teachers, structural isolation impacts on development at both the interpersonal and linguistic skill levels. With regard to both low efficaciousness and social isolation, Kao found extensive use of a non-English language in the home to most affect the adaptation of Hispanic immigrant adolescents (1999).

It is important to note, however, research has further found that fully bilingual Mexican American students—those who are fluent in both English and Spanish experience greater academic success than either limited English-proficient or Englishonly Mexican American students (Rumberger & Larson, 1998). Bilingualism aside, the theory aims to address the degree to which cultural strangers' level of host communication competence influences their level of intercultural transformation. As such, whether an individual is fluent in the host culture language exclusively or in addition to other languages is not of central theoretical importance; an individual's level

of host culture language proficiency, however, is of central importance to understanding the overall picture of the cross-cultural adaptation process.

The reciprocal nature of the structural relationships among the theoretical constructs of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, and psychological health have been empirically demonstrated using SEM techniques in Maruyama's (1998) study of student sojourners in Japan. Maruyama found among Western and Asian international students studying at Japanese universities, students' Japanese host communication competence was positively associated with their level of host interpersonal communication and feelings of psychological well-being; their psychological well-being, in turn, was reciprocally related to their level of Japanese host communication competence and interpersonal communication with Japanese host nationals.

The first research objective of the present investigation was to replicate his findings with regard to the interrelationships among the three constructs using an adolescent Hispanic sample. Accordingly, the following research hypotheses were posited:

- H1: The host communication competence of Hispanic adolescents is positively associated with their host interpersonal communication.
- H2: The host communication competence of Hispanic adolescents is positively associated with their psychological health.
- H3: The host interpersonal communication of Hispanic adolescents is positively associated with their psychological health.

Hypotheses: Incorporating Functional Fitness into the Statistical Model

The second objective of the present study was to test the predicted interrelationships among the above three constructs and a fourth theoretical construct identified in Kim's (2001) structural model of cross-cultural adaptation, functional fitness. The construct is defined, in part, as the manifest suitability of a cultural stranger's internal capacities to meet the external demands of the environment (Kim, 2001). Functional fitness encompasses cognitive, affective, and behavioral domains of an individual's degree of synchrony with the larger society and its members.

Conceptualized and operationalized in various forms, functional fitness has been examined in several studies on the adaptation experiences of immigrant youth. Levels of adaptation among young immigrants have generally been measured by educational attainment, in the form of academic orientation, aspiration, and performance (Zhou, 1997). School success, in particular, has been widely identified as one of the most important indicators for assessing the degree to which young cultural strangers are able to function fluidly and comfortably within the host society. Moreover, school success, or failure, is a well-known correlate of overall physical, mental, and social well-being (Martinez et al., 2004).

Based on the knowledge that school failure and/or dropping out of school are highly related to future limited earning potential and employment opportunities, much of the research on youth adaptation has defined and measured functional fitness, or lack thereof, in terms of school adjustment. For example, Berry, Phinney, Sam, et al. (2006) partly assessed the sociocultural adaptation of immigrant youth in terms of their attitudes toward school and self-assessed competence in meeting educational expectations (see

also Bhattacharya, 2000; Scott & Scott, 1998). Others have focused on the related, but distinct construct of school attachment, which is an affective orientation toward one's particular school, rather than one's general orientation toward school, as reflected in the previous construct. Brown and Evans (2002), for instance, examine the sense of belonging individuals feel to others in the school setting, as well as their sense of commitment to, and belief in, the school as a community (see also Diaz, 2005; Johnson, Crosnoe, & Elder, 2001; Scott & Scott, 1998). One of the most extensively used measures of functional fitness in youth is grade point average (GPA). This is often assessed via self-report. Kao (1999) and Kao & Tienda (1995), for example, analyze data collected by the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988, in which the GPA of students was assessed by a series of items asking students to estimate the number of As, Bs, Cs, etc. they received in each of the four core education areas (math, science, English, and social studies) (see also Martinez et al., 2004). Kao (1999) and Kao & Tienda (1995) relate immigrant students' GPAs (as an indicator of functional fitness) to factors such as students' socioeconomic and generational statuses.

Antisocial behavior or delinquency and/or dropping out of school represent another area of conceptualization of youths' functional fitness, or lack thereof. In addition to school adjustment, Berry, Phinney, Sam, et al. (2006), also measured the sociocultural adaptation of immigrant youth by assessing the presence (self-reported) of behavioral problems, such as stealing, acts of vandalism, and quarreling with teachers (see also Simpson & McBride, 1992). Other researchers have assessed lack of fitness in the host environment as evidenced by dropping out of school before obtaining a high school diploma (Davalos et al., 1999; Driscoll, 1999). Functional fitness is an important

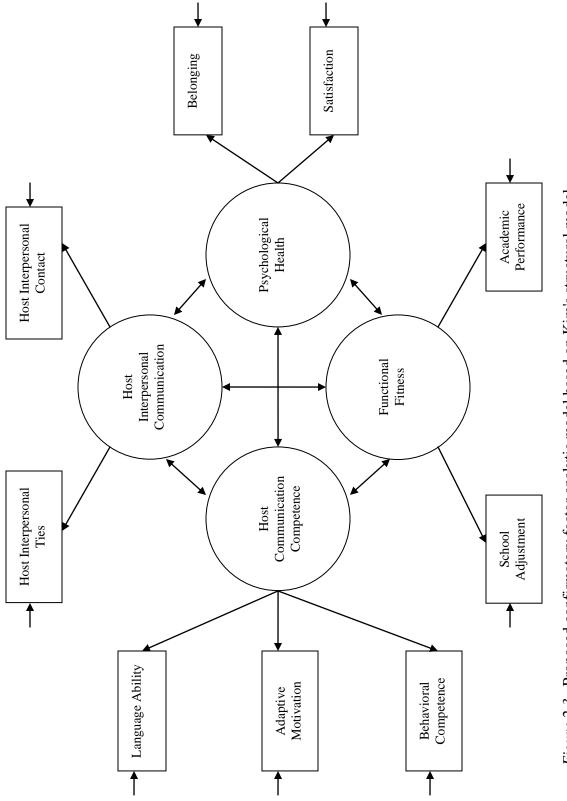
and widely investigated concept within the current literature on the adjustment of youth, but much of this research is lacking in theoretical perspective. As such, the following research hypotheses were posited:

- H4: The host communication competence of Hispanic adolescents is positively associated with their functional fitness.
- H5: The psychological health of Hispanic adolescents is positively associated with their functional fitness.
- H6: The host interpersonal communication of Hispanic adolescents is positively associated with their functional fitness.

The above four constructs (host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness) were comprehensively examined in this study using SEM techniques, specifically, first-order confirmatory factor analysis. The conceptual model depicted in Figure 2.3 is a model of the predicted interrelationships among the four selected constructs, based on Kim's structural model of cross-cultural adaptation presented in Figure 2.2. The statistical model tested in the study depicts the theoretically posited reciprocal interrelationships among the four theoretical constructs. The circles in the model denote the theoretical constructs (host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness), also known as latent constructs or variables within the SEM literature. Rectangles in the model denote indicators of the latent constructs, which are also referred to in SEM as manifest or observed variables (e.g., belonging, school adjustment, language ability).

Based upon the proposed comprehensive nature of reciprocal interrelationships among the four constructs selected for examination in the present investigation, the following research hypothesis was posited:

H7: Cross-cultural adaptation is a positively interrelated set of relationships among the factors of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness.





CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study sought to test the reciprocal relationships among the theoretical constructs of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness posited in Kim's (2001, 2005) theory of cross-cultural adaptation. More specifically, the study examined these relationships in the context of Hispanic adolescents living in a tri-state area within the West North Central region of the United States. Kim's theory has been tested in multiple adaptation contexts and with multiple cultural groups, for example, with Korean immigrants in the U.S. (Kim, 1976); Indochinese refugees in Illinois (Kim, 1980); U.S. American and Asian international university students in Japan (Maruyama, 1998); Turkish workers in Germany (Braun, 2001); and Korean workers in the U.S. compared to U.S. American workers in South Korea (Y. S. Kim, 2003). Each of the aforementioned studies examined the adaptation experiences of adults; this study is the first to test the theory as a framework for understanding the cross-cultural adaptation experiences of youth who are members of an ethnic subculture. The study hypothesized the interrelationships among the theoretical constructs predicted and observed in previous studies would be replicated among Hispanic youth attending schools in the West North Central region of the upper Midwestern United States.

The predicted interrelationships were tested using first-order confirmatory factor analysis, which is part of a family of statistical methods used to analyze the structural relationships among latent constructs. Monte Carlo simulations have provided important findings regarding the effective and fruitful use of latent variable modeling. Two of the

most important findings on obtaining good model fit are, in essence, to measure well (more than one indicator for most latent constructs in a model) and to measure often (large sample sizes) (Loehlin, 2004). Although there is no universally accepted formula for determining the sample size needed to test a latent variable model, rough guidelines have been offered in the literature: Tanaka (1987) found a 4:1 sample-size-to-freeparameter ratio produces fairly stable estimates; Hoyle and Kenny (1999) recommend a minimum sample size of 100, as does Loehlin (2004); Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggest 150; and Bentler and Chou (1987) suggest a sample-size-to-free-parameter ratio of 5:1 is sufficient when multiple indicators are used and the associated factor loadings are large. Based on the range of estimates suggested in the literature, the present study sought to obtain a sample size of between 100 to 150 participants.

Sampling and Recruitment

The sampling population for this study consisted of Hispanic adolescents enrolled in grades 9-12 (ages 13-21) at public high schools in a tri-state area at the heart of the West North Central region of the United States, locally referred to as the greater "Siouxland" area. Siouxland encompasses the city of Sioux City, Iowa and surrounding areas of northwestern Iowa, northeastern Nebraska, and southeastern South Dakota, including the city of Sioux Falls, South Dakota. This sampling population provides an important snap-shot of how Hispanic adolescents growing up in the predominantly white (and non-Hispanic) urban, semi-urban, and rural areas of this region are experiencing the cross-cultural adaptation process.

Characteristics of the Sampling Population

Previous research on the adaptation of young people has often included in the definition of "immigrant youth" children or adolescents who are either immigrants themselves or second generation immigrants; in other words, "immigrant youth" has been used to refer to both immigrant children and the children of immigrants (see Berry, Phinney, Kwak, et al., 2006; Kao, 1999). The justification for this inclusive definition is that second generation children of immigrants often struggle more than their native peers in managing two conflicting worlds: that of their parents and family and that of their peers. Moreover, despite having been born in their country of residence, children of immigrants are often perceived as immigrants in the host society (Berry, Phinney, Kwak, et al., 2006). The research design employed in the present study incorporated Hispanic youth of immigrant or any generational status in an effort to assess the full array of cross-cultural adaptation over time.

The sampling population included Hispanic youth who speak only or mostly Spanish or English, or who are bilingual. As will be further addressed in the limitations of the study, inclusion of participants who are more comfortable responding to some or all of the interview questions in Spanish is of some concern, but it is believed by the researcher that excluding these individuals would have done more harm to the legitimacy of the study than the potential pitfalls associated with including these individuals: In order to assess the full range of levels of adaptation within this population, it was determined to be necessary to include all levels of English language proficiency.

The Sampling Area

Although a nebulous designation in reality, for the purposes of this research Siouxland was defined as the geographic area encompassed by counties falling within a 50 mile radius of the centrally-located city of Vermillion, South Dakota; that is, whole counties were included in this estimation if a portion of them fell within the 50 mile radial area surrounding Vermillion. This region consists of 24 counties and 99 school districts with high schools. The decision to restrict the sampling population to this area was based on two considerations: (1) the overall representativeness of the area, in terms of important environmental contexts that are characteristic of those present throughout the region and (2) logistical matters.

With regard to the first consideration, the geographic area captured using a 50 mile radius criterion encompasses Sioux City, Iowa and Sioux Falls, South Dakota, both of Siouxland's two metropolitan statistical areas (MSA), as well as several semi-urban areas and rural communities. An MSA is defined by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) as contiguous counties that include an urban area with a population of 50,000 or more. Micropolitan counties have an urban center with a population of between 10,000 and 49,999. Noncore counties are those that are neither metropolitan nor micropolitan (Rural Policy Research Institute [RUPRI], 2009). According to the most recent OMB figures, 36 counties in the tri-state area of Iowa-Nebraska-South Dakota are part of metropolitan areas (representing 55%, 57%, and 44% of the states' populations, respectively), 50 are part of micropolitan areas (18%, 23%, and 28% of the populations, respectively), and the remaining 172 counties in these states are considered noncore counties (27%, 23%, and 29% of the populations, respectively) [RUPRI] 2009). The

geographic area I defined for the study included a representative mix of these categories: The counties falling within a 50 mile radius of Vermillion are comprised of eight metropolitan counties, five micropolitan counties, and 11 noncore counties. Therefore, in terms of type of school environment—urban, semi-urban, or rural—the defined geographic area is believed to be reasonably representative of the various school environments that Hispanic youth might be exposed to as students in this Iowa-Nebraska-South Dakota tri-state area's public school systems.

Secondly, as previewed above, there were logistical considerations involved in defining the sampling area. Due to the nature of the project (dissertation research) and budgetary issues, this research was carried out by the primary investigator, with the assistance of a bilingual/bicultural translator. In order to reasonably collect the data for this study, both the primary investigator and her translator needed to be able to travel to and from interview sites within the same day; establishing a sampling area encompassing a 50 mile radius from a central location made one day trips possible.

It is important to emphasize that while the study is not seeking to generalize to the tri-state region, or even the defined sampling population of Hispanic adolescents in Siouxland, care has been taken to define a sampling area that reflects ecologically validity with respect to the population of interest in this area of the United States. Specifically, the proposed sampling area is believed to adequately reflect the various school and community environs that Hispanic youth in Siouxland are likely to be embedded within, including urban, semi-urban, and rural environments, as well as the varying Hispanic population concentration levels of the area.

Sampling Design and Recruitment Procedure

Selection and recruitment of interview participants from the sampling population was based on a stratified random sampling design. The decision to use a stratified design, which is a form of probability sampling, stemmed from the aim to generalize from the sample drawn to the larger sampling population. The stratified design, specifically, was chosen over other probability sampling designs for its unique benefits: This design allowed for the collection of a sample that reflected the various school environments that Hispanic adolescents in the Siouxland area are embedded within, thus creating a more efficient and precise sample than could have been obtained with the same size of a sample selected by simple random sampling (Singleton & Straits, 2005).

The first step of the stratified random sampling design was to identify the universe of public high schools in the defined sampling area. In order to compile this list, a series of smaller steps were taken: first, a list was compiled of the counties falling entirely, or in part, within the predetermined 50 mile radius of the city of Vermillion, South Dakota (24 counties). From the list of counties, a complete list of school districts with high schools in the sampling area was compiled (99 districts). Finally, the universe of public high schools in the defined sampling area was obtained by identifying the public high schools in each district (104 schools).

Having obtained the list of high schools, the first stratifying criterion was introduced, urban-rural setting, which has three levels based on U.S. Census definitions: (1) urban, or those public high schools located in communities of 50,000 people or more; (2) semi-urban, or those public high schools in communities of between 2,500 to 49,999 people; and (3) rural, or those public high schools in communities of fewer than 2,500

people. Each school on the comprehensive list was categorized according to its urbanrural setting. Next, the second stratifying criterion was introduced, school-based Hispanic concentration, or population density, which has two levels based on the range exhibited in the universe of public high schools in the defined sampling area. Based on the high and low values obtained with regard to Hispanic populations at each school, each category of urban-rural setting was subsequently stratified by low to high levels of school-based Hispanic concentration.

Comprised of three urban-rural setting categories, further stratified by low to high Hispanic student concentration, the universe of public high schools in the sampling area was compiled. Next, schools falling within each of the urban-rural setting categories and from both low and high ends of the continuum of Hispanic concentration were recruited for inclusion in the study. Special effort was made to equitably represent schools in each of the stratified layers identified. A total of eleven schools participated in the research: two schools classified as urban, low Hispanic concentration (3.6% and 4% Hispanic); one urban school with the highest concentration of Hispanic students in its category (26.7% Hispanic); two schools classified as semi-urban, low Hispanic concentration (2.3% and 8.8% Hispanic); one semi-urban school with the highest concentration of Hispanic students available in the entire sampling area (47.7% Hispanic); four schools classified as rural with very few Hispanic students (1.7%, 2.7%, 4.8%, and 5.5% Hispanic); and one rural school with the highest concentration of Hispanic students in its category (46.1% Hispanic).

Next, complete lists of individual Hispanic students enrolled at each participating school were obtained. Using a simple random sampling procedure, students from each

school were selected and invited to attend an informational meeting to learn more about participating in the study. The recruitment letter advertised that students would receive a bag of M&Ms candy for attending the meeting, without obligation to participate in the study. At the informational meeting, potential participants were provided parental consent materials to take home for their parents or guardians' review and signature. All study materials were provided in both English and Spanish, and a bilingual/bicultural research assistant was present at the informational meetings. At the conclusion of the meeting, interested students provided their contact information. Potential participants were instructed to return their signed letters of parental permission to a coordinating teacher or other designated staff member at their school.

For the main study (not including the preliminary and pilot phases), upon which the subsequent findings and analyses are based, a total of 452 students were recruited across the eleven participating high schools from August 2009 to February 2010. Of the total number of students recruited, 176 (39%) elected to attend an informational meeting and provided their contact information for us to follow up with them about participating in the study. Very few students who attended an informational meeting declined to provide their contact information. Of the 176 meeting attendees, 112 students participated in an interview for a response rate of 64% of meeting attendees, and an overall response rate of 24% of those initially selected randomly for recruitment. See Table 3.1 for the distribution of participants across schools and stages of participant recruitment.

While every participant in the study was initially selected randomly, not everyone selected participated in the study: in fact, the response rate for this research is considered

well below the minimum threshold for probability sampling, which for interview surveys is approximately 70% (Singleton & Straits, 2005). There is the potential for systematic bias to exist in the sample due to the high non-response rate: those who did not participate may be systematically different from those who did. However, the ecological validity achieved by the sampling design strengthens the overall representativeness of study participants. The relatively low response rate and its implications for the generalizability of the findings, however, is a topic returned to in the discussion chapter.

Sample Profile

In total, 112 students (grades 9-12) enrolled in 11 public high schools in the Siouxland area participated in interviews for this study. Respondents ranged in age from 14 to 20 years old (M = 15.87, SD = 1.25). In the preliminary pilot study of the research, the age range for participant eligibility had been 13 to 18 years old, but was almost immediately expanded to 13-21 years old upon encountering high school students in the population of interest who were enrolled at ages 18-21. Most of the participants over the age of 18 were encountered in the preliminary pilot phase, however, where participants were recruited by ESL teachers, and thus more likely to be newcomers. In these instances, students who were 18-21 years old were seeking to fill gaps in their educational backgrounds and graduate from high school before becoming ineligible for public schooling, which for the states of South Dakota, Nebraska, and Iowa is 21 years of age. In the main study, among participants randomly selected from all Hispanic students enrolled in each school, the vast majority--97.3%--were between the ages of 14 and 18. Three participants in this sample were over 18 years old (2.7%): two were 19 at the time of their interview and one was 20.

Table 3.1

High School	Urban-Rural Setting	High-Low Hispanic Concentration	Recruited FA09-SP10	Attended Informational Meeting	Participated in an Interview
1	Urban	High	135	28	24
2	Urban	Low	50	29	15
3	Urban	Low	50	25	16
4	Semi-Urban	High	100	39	28
5	Semi-Urban	Low	39	11	6
6	Semi-Urban	Low	6	5	3
7	Rural	High	50	21	10
8	Rural	Low	9	6	2
9	Rural	Low	6	5	3
10	Rural	Low	4	4	4
11	Rural	Low	3	3	1
Total			452	176	112

Summary of Participant Recruitment

Descriptive statistics for respondents' sex, grade level, generational status, and foreign schooling show this sample to be predominately comprised of second generation Americans in grades 9-11, who have grown up in the U.S. American school system, and are slightly more female than male. A small majority of participants were female (n =65, 58%), although males were nearly equally represented in the sample (n = 47, 42%). Students enrolled in grades 9-11 comprised 86.6% of the sample, and were almost evenly distributed across these three grade levels: 30 respondents were freshmen, 32 were sophomores, and 35 were juniors. Seniors participated at the lowest rate of 13.4%, or 15 respondents. Over two-thirds of participants (n = 76, 67.9%) reported they are second generation Americans, meaning they are the children of at least one parent who is foreign born; nearly another quarter (n = 26, 23.2%) are themselves first generation immigrants, and the remaining 8.9% (n = 10) are considered third or higher generation Americans, since neither they nor their parents were born outside of the United States. Of the first generation, or foreign born participants, roughly 65% (n = 17, 65.4%) were born in Mexico, four were born in Guatemala (15.4%), two in El Salvador (7.7%), and the remaining three in Honduras, Peru, and Nicaragua. Accordingly, one quarter of respondents (n = 28, 25%) reported having had at least some foreign schooling, ranging from three months to 14 years. The vast majority (n = 84, 75%), however, had never attended school outside of the U.S. (M = 1.1, Mdn = 0.00, SD = 2.80).

Socioeconomic factors have an important affect on the academic performance of students; specifically, research has consistently demonstrated there is a positive correlation between SES and academic achievement (White, 1982; Lytton & Pyryt, 1998; MacSwan, 2000). High socioeconomic status (SES) has been found to offset even the effect limited English language proficiency has on academic performance (Krashen & Brown, 2005). This study employed students' academic performance as a measure of their functional fitness, and thus information on the SES of participants' families was also collected as a potentially important control variable.

This study measured the socioeconomic status (SES) of participants by asking them about their parents' occupations and level of education. The specific parental occupations reported by participants were recorded and later coded by the researcher into three categories along a continuum of non-professional to professional occupations: "unemployed or homemaker," "blue collar" and "white collar" occupations. Respondents were also able to indicate they did not know. Parents with "blue collar" jobs were defined as "employees whose job entails (largely or entirely) physical labor, such as in a factory or workshop." ("Blue collar," 2010). Specific examples of occupations coded as belonging to this category included meatpacking, factory, and construction work. Parents coded as "white collar" workers were those "whose jobs entail, largely or entirely, mental or clerical work, such as in an office...[It] refers to employees or professionals whose work is knowledge intensive, non-routine, and unstructured" ("White collar," 2010). Teachers, bankers, and nurses are examples of occupations coded as "white collar" in the current sample. The second component of SES measured was the highest level of education obtained by the participant's mother and father. Five response options were provided for participants to choose from: less than 9th grade; 9th to 12th grade; high school graduate, or GED; some college; or college graduate. Respondents were also able to indicate they did not know one or both parents' level of education.

The majority of participants in this sample are from households where parents are either unemployed, or employed in blue collar jobs. Participants' mothers are most frequently doing blue collar work (n = 67, 59.8%), followed in frequency by mothers who were described as either unemployed or homemakers (n = 23, 20.5%). Mothers working in white collar positions make up 17.9% (n = 20) of the distribution, and two participants reported they did not know their mother's employment status (1.8%). Fathers are more frequently employed in blue collar work than mothers, with a reported 74.1% (n = 83) of fathers working these types of jobs. Compared to mothers, fathers are less often employed in white collar positions (n = 12, 10.7%); 6.3% (n = 7) of fathers were described as unemployed, and 10 participants indicated they did not know their father's employment status (8.9%).

In terms of education, the majority of participants' mothers (n = 77, 64.2%) and fathers (n = 69, 59.8%) did not complete high school. The plurality attained less than a ninth grade level of education in their youth. For mothers, this figure is 44.6% (n = 50), or nearly half. For fathers this figure is slightly lower at 37.5% (n = 42). Participants reported both their mothers and fathers more frequently attended high school (grades 9-12) than graduated, or received the equivalent credential, the General Educational Development (GED) certificate: 19.6% (n = 22) and 24.1% (n = 27) of mothers and fathers, respectively, attended grades 9-12, whereas only 12.5% (n = 14) of mothers and 17% (n = 19) of fathers obtained their diploma or GED certificate. With regard to college education, whereas mothers had more often attended some college (n = 15, 13.4%) than fathers (n = 4, 3.6%), as college graduates, they are about equal: 8.9% (n =10) of participants' mothers and 9.8% (n = 11) of their fathers have earned a college degree. Only one respondent (0.9%) did not know the educational attainment of his or her mother, whereas nine (8.0%) could not report this figure for their father.

Finally, participants were asked to report the language predominantly used at home: Spanish, English, or both languages spoken about equally. A full half of participants (n = 56, 50%) reported the predominant language used at home is Spanish, 32.1% (n = 36) said the languages were used about equally, and 17.9% (n = 20) indicated English is used most often in their homes (see Table 3.2).

Development of the Interview Questionnaire

Face-to-face interviews were conducted using a standardized interview questionnaire consisting of both closed- and open-ended questions. This research method was chosen for its strengths relative to other methods, specifically with regard to the characteristics of this study population. First, unlike survey questionnaires where participants are asked to complete and return the questionnaire to the researcher (or complete the survey online), the face-to-face format allowed for the researcher and participant to interact for purposes of question clarification, as well as interpersonal rapport. The use of face-to-face interviews underscored to young participants the importance and seriousness of the research, and the importance of their contribution to it, whereas with more anonymous designs this message is far more subtle.

Second, a questionnaire with both closed- and open-ended questions was utilized in order to gather diverse forms of information from participants that could be analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The methods employed for data collection in this research reflect acknowledgment of the central premise of mixed methods research methodology: specifically, it is the combination of quantitative and qualitative

Table 3.2

Summary of Sample Profile (N = 112)

	n	М	Mdn	Mode	SD	Min.	N
Age		15.87	16.00	16	1.25	14	
Sex		.58	1.00	1.00	.50	1	
1) Female	65	.50	1.00	1.00	.50	1	
2) Male	47						
Grade level	47	10.31	10.00	11.00	1.01	9	
9th	30	10.51	10.00	11.00	1.01	7	
10th	30						
11th	35						
12th	15	1.0.6	2 00	2 00			
Generational Status		1.86	2.00	2.00	.55	1	
Generation 1	26						
Generation 2	76						
Generation 3+	10						
Foreign Schooling		1.75	2.00	2.00	.44	1	
1) Yes	28						
2) No	84						
Years of Foreign Schooling		1.13	.00	.00	2.80	0	
Mother's Education		2.20	2.00	1.00	1.39	0	
0) Don't know	1						
1) Less than 9th grade	50						
2) 9th to 12th grade	22						
3) High school graduate	14						
4) Some college	15						
5) College graduate	10						
Father's Education		2.00	2.00	1.00	1.38	0	
0) Don't know	9						
1) Less than 9th grade	42						
2) 9th to 12th grade	27						
3) High school graduate	19						
4) Some college	4						
5) College graduate	11						
Mother's Occupation	11	1.94	2.00	2.00	.68	0	
0) Don't know	2	1.74	2.00	2.00	.00	U	
	2						
1) Unemployed or homemaker	22						
	23						
2) "Blue collar"	67 20						
3) "White collar"	20	1.05	0.00	0.00		0	
Father's Occupation	10	1.87	2.00	2.00	.72	0	
0) Don't know	10						
1) Unemployed	7						
2) "Blue collar"	83						
3) "White collar"	12						
Household Language		1.68	1.50	1.00	.76	1	
1) Spanish	56						
2) Spanish/English	36						
3) English	20						

approaches which provides a more complete understanding of research problems than either approach used alone: Quantitative research is weak in understanding the unique viewpoints of individuals, which is a strength of qualitative research, but qualitative research often lacks generalizability to a larger population because of the limited number of participants that can be studied in-depth (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2005). As will be further discussed in the section below on interview procedure, while all participants were administered the closed-ended questions, only approximately one third were asked the open-ended questions. This strategy was designed to balance the benefits of incorporating qualitative methods and data with the necessity of maintaining manageability of data collection and analysis. Although the results and analysis presented here focus primarily on the numerical information provided by participants, future analyses will turn to the in-depth personal narratives participants conveyed during their interviews in order to further investigate Hispanic students' cross-cultural adaptation experiences.

As such, quantitative and qualitative analyses are not equally represented in the present analysis, as the primary focus of the dissertation study was the replication and expansion of a statistical model testing the interrelationships among factors the in cross-cultural adaptation process. Two case illustrations are presented, however, which combine each selected individual's closed- and open-ended responses to the interview questions. These case illustrations provide only a glimpse into the range of personal experiences conveyed by participants during their interviews. Nevertheless, the personal narratives provide compelling and individualized support of the statistical findings and theorized relationships.

Prior to conducting the main study, the interview questionnaire was created and tested in preliminary pilot and pilot study phases of the research. Although several of the measures included in the interview questionnaire were adapted from existing measures demonstrably reliable and valid among adult populations, their appropriateness for use in a youth population needed to be examined. Moreover, the interview questionnaire was developed in English and translated into Spanish. Important functions of the preliminary pilot and pilot study phases of the research were to ensure the linguistic equivalence of the English and Spanish language versions, and to assess the cultural relevance and age-appropriateness of questionnaire items before introducing the instrument into the field for the main study. These goals were pursued through iterative consultations with cultural informants, back-translation procedures in the creation of a Spanish language version of the questionnaire (Brislin, 1970, 1980), and pretesting of both language versions with members of the sampling population.

Cultural Informants: Bilingual/Bicultural Research Assistants

Given the primary investigator is mono-lingual English speaking, bilingual (Spanish/English) and bicultural (Latin American/U.S. American) individuals were recruited to join the research team as translators/interview assistants. Advertisements for paid positions were placed on several area community college and university employment websites, flyers were posted on bulletin boards in public spaces and on the campus of a major university in the region, and language arts faculty at the same major university were contacted for their knowledge of any bilingual/bicultural individuals who might be interested in assisting with the research. Three qualified applicants emerged from this process, all of them college students in their twenties: two of the individuals

(Hector Diaz and Nicolas Torres) are second generation Mexican Americans, and the third (Balbina Valadez) is a first generation Mexican American, having immigrated to the United States during her elementary school years. Moreover, each of them had grown up in the research area, thus had recently been members of the population of interest: All three had graduated from area high schools that participated in the research.

The three interview team members trained with me in a single two-hour session on standardized survey interviewing procedures (Fowler & Mangione, 1990). In the training, detailed instructions were provided concerning the effective practice of standardized interviewing, including neutrality in asking questions and the use of consistent techniques for posing follow-up questions to the open-ended questions in the interview schedule. Interview simulations (portions in both Spanish and English) were conducted among the trainees in the final segment of the training session. The earliest preliminary pilot phase revisions made to the interview instrument resulted from issues of flow that emerged during this training.

Although hired and trained to be translators and Spanish-language interviewers for this research, these individuals contributed invaluable insights as cultural informants at all stages of the creation and refinement of the interview questionnaire. The interview team members assisted in streamlining the overall flow of the questionnaire, and in choosing the best words and phrases to use (in Spanish and English) in order to convey the intended meaning of a question. All three individuals assisted in the preliminary pilot and first pilot study phases conducted in the spring of 2009; however, only one was able to continue to assist when data collection resumed in the fall of 2009. Ms. Valadez remained an active assistant through each of the research phases, and will remain

involved in the project as a co-author in the preparation of future manuscripts reporting our findings.

Preliminary Pilot Study

A convenience sample of nine students participated in preliminary pilot study interviews in spring 2009. The students were recruited by two English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers at participating high schools in the sampling area. ESL students were purposely chosen for this phase in order to assess the extent to which questionnaire items made sense culturally and linguistically. Interacting with the participants, as well as with three bilingual/bicultural research assistants, facilitated the refinement and improvement of both language versions of the questionnaire. In addition to answering actual questionnaire items, respondents were asked a series of probes on particular aspects of the questionnaire (Singleton & Straits, 2005), for instance, "When I asked you about 'Americans,' who did you think of as belonging to this group?" and "Can you explain in your own words the difference between casual friends and close friends?" Respondents in the preliminary pilot study were also encouraged to "think aloud" during their interview, verbally expressing their thought processes as they formed answers to questions (Singleton & Straits, 2005). In a final respondent debriefing, interviewees were asked to share any observations they had regarding the questionnaire or the interview procedure (Singleton & Straits, 2005). No statistical analyses were conducted on the preliminary pilot study data; information obtained in these interviews was qualitatively assessed in order to further refine the interview questionnaire for the pilot study.

Pilot Study

Following conceptual and linguistic refinements made to the interview questionnaire in the preliminary pilot study, the instrument was tested in a pilot study in order to ascertain information about its statistical properties. There were three primary goals for the pilot study: (1) to assess scale reliabilities; (2) to identify potential areas where the questionnaire may be streamlined by eliminating unnecessary or unreliable items; and (3) to assess the correspondence between closed-ended quantitative measures and their open-ended qualitative counterparts.

Thirty students, who had been randomly selected from participating high schools in the sampling area, participated in interviews for the first pilot study in the spring of 2009. Statistical analyses performed on pilot study data revealed weaknesses in the interview questionnaire, including several statistically unreliable scales. The questionnaire was modified with additional and re-worked items and tested again in a second pilot study in fall of 2009. Thirty-four randomly selected students participated, and data analyses revealed the statistical reliabilities of the questionnaire's scales had been substantially improved. Since no further changes to the interview questionnaire were warranted, the 34 participants in the second pilot study were automatically enrolled in the main study, which commenced in the fall of 2009 with data being collected into the spring of 2010.

Finalized Interview Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of five sections: (a) background information, including age, sex, grade, country of origin, generational status, schooling outside the United States, socioeconomic status of parents, and primary language spoken at home; (b) host

communication competence indicators; (c) indicators of interpersonal communication patterns; (d) psychological health indices; and (e) measures of functional fitness. In addition to the use of several reliable and valid preexisting Likert-type scales, the interview schedule employs open-ended questions designed to flesh out the responses provided in scale form.

Most of the instrument's quantitative scales are accompanied by an open-ended question set consisting of three parts: (1) a descriptive question asking respondents to recall a specific instance of something in their lives related to the focus of the section; (2) a magnitude, or frequency, question asking respondents to indicate how often and/or to what degree they experience the focal concept; and (3) an attributive, or explanatory, question asking respondents to assess the causes of, or explanations for, their reported successes or difficulties with regard to the focal concept. This open-ended question set design was originally developed by Kim (Kim, Izumi, & McKay-Semmler, 2008a, 2008b) and has been demonstrated to successfully elicit more in-depth information from respondents with regard to their adaptation experiences. It does so by strategically encouraging respondents to move from concrete examples of their direct experience (question 1) to more abstract descriptions of (question 2) and explanations for (question 3) their experiences. Each section of the questionnaire reflecting the theoretical framework to which the study ascribes is further described below (see Appendix 1 for the English language version of the questionnaire and Appendix 2 for the Spanish language version).

Host Communication Competence

Host communication competence is comprised of three types of interrelated components: cognitive, affective, and operational. The components interact simultaneously in an actual communication situation (Kim, 2001), but are examined here as distinct domains of the construct for the purposes of operationalization and measurement. The cognitive dimension of host communication competence is assessed in the present study as respondents' English language ability. The affective dimension is assessed in terms of respondents' adaptive motivation, or willingness/interest in participating in the host environment (Kim, 2001). The third dimension, operational competence, is assessed in terms of respondents' ability to engage in communicative interactions with host culture members "in ways that are compatible, congruent, and harmonious" (Kim, 2001, p. 115). The operationalizations of each dimension are presented in detail below.

Language ability. English language ability was measured by a modified version of the scale used in Maruyama's (1998) study, which was originally developed by Iwao and Hagiwara (1987) and revised by Takai (1991). As employed in Maruyama's (1998) doctoral study, the scale demonstrated strong reliability (Cronbach's α = .96). Modifications were made to the scale in order to make it age-appropriate and fit the context of the United States. Specifically, age-appropriate modifications included reducing the number of response categories from seven to three and changing the wording of the response categories from a continuum of "inadequate/adequate" to a more basically worded continuum of "not at all, or not very comfortable" to "very comfortable." In addition, the wording of some items was modified to correspond with

adolescents' daily activities. For example, "Ask questions and discuss problems with your professor" was modified to "How comfortable do you feel using English to talk to U.S. American friends or teachers who aren't Hispanic?" Four of the scale's original nine items were also omitted, for reasons of age-appropriateness, as well as in the interest of minimizing the overall length of the interview instrument.

The five language ability items are phrased in terms of respondents' capacity to accomplish daily communication tasks using the English language. Respondents were asked to rate on a three-point Likert-type scale (1 = "not at all, or not very comfortable"; 2 = "kind of, or somewhat comfortable"; 3 = "very comfortable") their level of comfort in being able to understand and speak English in a variety of daily contexts. The higher the respondent's composite score, the better his or her English language ability. The five items were combined to form the scale "language ability," which was found to be sufficiently reliable at $\alpha = .81$ (M = 2.72, SD = .36). The scale included the following items:

- (a) How comfortable do you feel using English to take care of simple, everyday tasks?
- (b) How comfortable do you feel using English to talk to U.S. American friends or teachers who aren't Hispanic?
- (c) How comfortable are you that you understand class lessons in English?
- (d) How comfortable do you feel using English to write a note or send an email to a U.S. American friend who is not Hispanic?
- (e) How comfortable do you feel using English to write research papers and do other homework for class?

The open-ended question set following this scale was designed to allow participants to elaborate on their perceived language ability, based on their personal experiences. The open-ended portion required the interviewer to initially assess the respondent's overall English language ability, based on his or her responses to the closedended questions. The question set was then opened with the prefix "From what you've just told us, you seem to be (researcher chooses appropriate option) a little uncomfortable using English in some or most situations / comfortable using English in most situations..." Immediately following the question prefix, the opening question of the set, the descriptive question, asked respondents either: "Can you give an example of a time when you had trouble understanding English, or you had difficulty expressing yourself to someone in English?" or "Has there ever been a time when you had trouble understanding English, or you had a hard time expressing yourself to someone in English?" If the participant responded with an example of having had language difficulty, the second question of the set assessed the self-perceived frequency and intensity of such occurrences: "How often does this happen? When do you have the most trouble with English?" If a respondent indicated that s/he could not recall a time s/he had English language difficulty, the frequency question asked was: "How long have you felt comfortable speaking, reading, and writing in English?" The third question in the openended set for language ability asked respondents to explain their English language difficulties, to the extent they have them ("What, do you think, is the hardest thing about understanding or speaking English?") or to assess the reasons they do not experience difficulties with English ("What do you think explains why you are comfortable understanding and speaking English?").

Adaptive motivation. The affective dimension of host communication competence was measured by the willingness/interest of respondents in interacting with mainstream American people and culture. The adaptive motivation scale used in the present study was drawn largely from the scale used by Maruyama (1998), which was a modification of the scale employed in Kim's (1980) research. The scale has been demonstrated to be highly reliable, with a Cronbach's alpha of .85 (Maruyama, 1998). For the present study, the scale was modified for age-appropriateness and to fit the United States context. As with previously discussed measures, response categories were modified from seven-point to three-point Likert-type scales, and one original item was replaced with a set of new items that better correspond to adolescents' experiences: "How interested are you in knowing the current political, economic, and social situations in [host society]?" was replaced with three items asking respondents to rate their level of interest in U.S. American movies, TV shows, and music. Respondents were asked to rate on a three-point Likert-type scale (1 = "not at all, or not very interested"; 2 = "kind of, orsomewhat interested"; 3 = "very interested") the degree to which they are interested in involvement with the larger American culture. The higher the respondent's composite score, the greater his or her adaptive motivation. Scale reliability for the present study was not sufficiently established, however, to justify use of these items as a composite scale ($\alpha = .62, M = 2.49, SD = .30$), and the reliability was not improved by the deletion of any original item. The eight item scale included the following items:

(a) How interested are you in making friends with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?

- (b) How interested are you in knowing how to read, speak, and writing in English?
- (c) How interested are you in understanding how U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic think, and why they do things the way they do?
- (d) How interested are you in watching U.S. American movies?
- (e) How interested are you in watching U.S. American TV shows?
- (f) How interested are you in listening to U.S. American music?
- (g) How interested are you in hanging out with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (h) How "cool" is U.S. American culture in your opinion? In other words, how interested are you in belonging to, or fitting into, the larger U.S. American culture?

The open-ended question set following this scale asked respondents to elaborate on their interest in adapting to mainstream American culture. The interviewer assessed the respondent's general interest based on his or her responses to the scale items and opened the question set with the prefix: "Based on what you've just told us, you seem (*researcher chooses appropriate option*) to like mainstream U.S. American culture / to not be very interested in mainstream U.S. American culture..." Immediately following the question prefix, the descriptive question asked respondents who were interested in American culture: "Are there things that you enjoy doing that you think are 'mainstream' U.S. American things to do? For example, playing school sports or listening to popular radio stations that aren't Hispanic stations?" If a participant indicated a desire to share interests with non-Hispanic Americans, he or she was asked in the frequency question "Overall, how much and how often do you enjoy doing things that are 'mainstream' U.S. American things to do?" Respondents indicating no interest in sharing commonalities with non-Hispanic Americans were instead asked: "Are there things you aren't interested in that you think are 'mainstream' U.S. American things to do?", followed by the frequency/intensity question: "Overall, would you say you're just not interested in 'mainstream' U.S. American culture, or do you dislike it?" Whereas those who indicated having some level of adaptive motivation were asked in the third question to explain the reason behind their motivation to adapt ("How do you feel about being part of the larger U.S. American culture? Is this something you personally want to do, or do you feel pressure from others to 'fit in' to U.S. American culture?"), those indicating a low level of adaptive motivation were about their reasons for not intentionally seeking shared interests with non-Hispanic Americans: "Why don't you want to 'fit in' to the larger U.S. American culture? What culture do you 'fit in' best with?"

Behavioral competence. Operational competence, a stranger's "internal capacity" to carry out behaviors consistent with host cultural patterns (Kim, 2001, p. 114), was measured by assessing respondents' self-reported feelings of competence when interacting with host culture members. The scale used to assess this dimension in the present study was originally developed by Tamam (1993) (Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$) and modified by Maruyama (1998) (Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$). Three of the scale's original nine items were omitted for reasons of age-appropriateness. In addition, five items were developed based upon findings from the preliminary and pilot study phases. The new items emerged from insights provided by participants in the early phases of the research as to what it means to be behaviorally competent as an adolescent or young adult. The

items address issues of understanding and being understood, being able to interact conversationally with non-Hispanics, and understanding non-Hispanic Americans' sense of humor. Finally, rather than using a seven-point scale, respondents were asked to indicate on a three-point Likert-type scale the extent to which they feel competent as communicators when interacting with non-Hispanic Americans (almost always, sometimes, almost never). Negatively and positively worded items were mixed in the scale so as to minimize the occurrence of response sets. The measure consisted of ten items combined to form the scale "behavioral competence" ($\alpha = .85$, M = 2.58, SD = .35):

- (a) Do you ever feel clumsy or unnatural talking to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (b) When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, how often do you understand what they say and mean?
- (c) Do you ever feel frustrated trying to get your point across when talking to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (d) Do you ever have difficulty, or trouble, talking to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (e) When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, how often do they understand what you say and mean?
- (f) Do you feel the conversation flows naturally when you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (g) When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, are you able to get the information you want from the conversation?

- (h) Do you feel you're a good communicator when you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (i) When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, are you able to speak comfortably and carry on a conversation?
- (j) When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, how often do you understand their jokes and sense of humor?

Host Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal involvement with the larger host culture and its members was measured as a combination of cultural strangers' number of interpersonal ties and strength of the ties. The number of host interpersonal ties, in relation to ties with fellow Hispanics or individuals from outside the U.S., was assessed in the present study by respondents' reported number of social ties with individuals belonging to each of these three categories. Tie strength was simultaneously evaluated at two levels of intimacy: casual friends and close friends. In addition to number and strength of host social ties, the present investigation further assessed the extent to which respondents are involved in daily interaction with the larger host culture and its members. Specific operationalizations for host interpersonal contact and host interpersonal ties are described below.

Host interpersonal contact. Respondents' amount of host interpersonal contact was assessed using a scale derived from measures demonstrated in previous research to be highly reliable with Cronbach's alpha = .90 (Stephan & Stephan, 1985), α = .85 (Gao & Gudykunst, 1990), and α = .85 (Maruyama, 1998). The scale was modified for age and context appropriateness for the present study by using three-point Likert-type scales (1 =

"never, or not very often"; 2 = "sometimes"; 3 = "very often") rather than seven-point scales and omitting six of the original 12 items. The six items were combined to form the composite scale "contact with non-Hispanic Americans" (α = .79, *M* = 1.97, *SD* = .54), and assessed the frequency with which respondents have contact with the larger host culture and/or its members. The scale consisted of the following items:

- (a) How often do sit with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic at lunch?
- (b) How often do you invite U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic to your house?
- (c) How often are you invited to the homes of U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic?
- (d) How often do you go out (for example, to a movie, shopping, or just driving around) with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (e) How often do you work on school projects with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (f) How often do you participate in clubs or play sports with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?

Following this scale was an open-ended question set designed to allow participants to further elaborate on their levels of social contact with non-Hispanic Americans, particularly interpersonal contact. Based on participants' responses to the scale items, the interviewer opened the question set with the prefix: "From what you've just told us, it sounds like you (*researcher chooses appropriate* option) spend time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic / don't spend much time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic..." Immediately following the question prefix, the interviewer asked respondents who had had some interpersonal contact with non-Hispanic Americans to recall either an organized activity (e.g., a school sport), or an unorganized activity (e.g., "hanging out") that they have participated in with non-Hispanic American friends or peers: "Can you tell us about an activity you've done with a U.S. American friend, or group of friends, who weren't Hispanic (club or afterschool activity)? Or do you ever just hang out together?" If respondents were able to respond to this question in the affirmative, they were subsequently asked in the frequency question to indicate how often and to what degree they are involved with non-Hispanic Americans in additional contexts: "How often do you do this? What other kinds of things do you do with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?" In the third, explanatory question they were asked to give their thoughts on what they enjoy about interpersonal contact with non-Hispanic Americans: "What do you like most about talking with, or doing things with your U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic?"

For those who indicated at the first stage of the question set (descriptive) that they do not interact interpersonally with non-Hispanic Americans, the following frequency/intensity-related question was posed: "You've told us you don't really spend time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic; do you feel okay with that?" Finally, in the follow up explanatory question respondents were asked to share their reasons as to why they do not interact with non-Hispanics: "Why is it you don't spend time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?"

Host interpersonal ties. The interpersonal network patterns of respondents were assessed in three areas: interpersonal ties with non-Hispanic Americans, interpersonal ties with people from a Latin American country, and interpersonal ties with individuals from

countries outside of Latin America. In addition, respondents were asked to indicate which relationships are casual friends or close friends. These items were not measured by Likert or Likert-type scales, but rather by asking respondents to report the number of people belonging to each category of their personal network. Thus, the number of people in each of the six domains was recorded for each respondent. These measures were used in Kim's (1976) dissertation study, and subsequently by Maruyama (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$ for composite scale, "host interpersonal ties") (1998). A modified version of the tie strength assessment (cf. Kim, Izumi, and McKay-Semmler, 2008a, 2008b) that is more appropriate for use in an orally-administered interview questionnaire was adapted for use in the present study. A final question in this section of the questionnaire also asked respondents to indicate the ethnic or racial backgrounds of their three closest friends. The seven items were the following:

- (a) About how many of your casual friends are U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (b) About how many of your casual friends are Hispanic, or still living outside the U.S. in a Latin American country, such as (*interviewer supplied examples based on respondent's home heritage*)?
- (c) About how many of your casual friends are from foreign countries other than Latin American countries, such as African, Asian, or European countries?
- (d) About how many of your close friends are U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?

- (e) About how many of your close friends are Hispanic, or still living outside the U.S. in a Latin American country, such as (*interviewer supplied examples based on respondent's home heritage*)?
- (f) About how many of your close friends are from foreign countries other than Latin American countries, such as African, Asian, or European countries?
- (g) Think about your three best, or closest, friends. What are their ethnic or racial backgrounds?

Reliability assessments were run for each of the three interpersonal ties scales: (a) "non-Hispanic American friendships;" (b) "friendships with Hispanics or Latin Americans;" and (c) "friendships with individuals from countries outside of the U.S. or Latin America." As shown in Table 3.2, however, only one of the scales, "friendships with Hispanics or Latin Americans," was found to be statistically reliable ($\alpha = .89$); however, each of the scales exhibited internally strong and highly significant correlations between casual and close friends in each demographic category (see Table 3.3).

In the present study, the variable of most interest was participants' interpersonal ties with non-Hispanic Americans. Previous investigations employing this measure have combined the levels of friendships (usually three: acquaintance, casual, and close) into a composite scale of "host interpersonal ties" (see Maruyama, 1998). Given the low reliability of the two-item measure employed in the present study, an alternative measure of host interpersonal ties was used for the statistical analyses. Respondents' raw scores on both items, casual and close non-Hispanic American friendships, were summed as a new variable, "non-Hispanic American friends." A tri-partite split was performed on the new variable in order to divide the wide range of scores equitably into three levels (low,

Table 3.3

Inter-Item Correlations and Scale Reliabilities of Interpersonal Ties Scales (N = 112)

Scale	Items	M(SD)	Mdn	r	α
Non-Hispanic American friendships	1 and 4	20.89(35.87)	8.75	.341**	.508
Friendships with Hispanics and Latin Americans	2 and 5	42.14(144.13)	15.00	.796**	.887
Friendships with individuals from outside the U.S. or Latin America	3 and 6	6.21(12.35)	2.00	.419**	.591

Note. **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed)

medium, high) for meaningful use in the structural analysis. A fourth category was then added to distinguish between those participants who reported low levels of friendships with non-Hispanic Americans and those who reported having no friendships at all with non-Hispanic Americans. The resultant single-item indicator of host interpersonal ties, the variable "non-Hispanic American friends," was used throughout the analyses.

The open-ended question set following this quantitative assessment of the number and intimacy levels of respondents' interpersonal ties asked them to further elaborate on these ties. The opening descriptive question of the question set was specified to be tailored, depending on how individuals responded to the quantitative measure. If a respondent indicated that s/he has casual and/or close non-Hispanic American friends, s/he was asked the following: "You've just told us that you have casual and/or close U.S. American friends who are not Hispanic. Please describe the relationship you have with one U.S. American friend who you feel closest to who isn't Hispanic. For example, what kinds of things do you talk about or do together? Why do you like him or her?" If, on the other hand, s/he had indicated that s/he has no casual or close non-Hispanic American friends, the interviewer followed up by asking: "You've just told us that you don't have any casual or close U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic. Have you ever had a U.S. American friend who wasn't Hispanic? If so, what was this friendship like? What happened?" If the respondent has never had, or has had very few, casual or close non-Hispanic American friends, the interviewer moved on to the second question of the set (frequency/intensity): "Do you feel okay with not having U.S American friends who aren't Hispanic? Why or why not?" Finally, the respondent was asked to share his or her thoughts on why s/he feels s/he has not formed friendships with non-Hispanic Americans: "Why is it you don't have many U.S. American friends right now who aren't Hispanic?"

Conversely, when the respondent indicated s/he has casual and/or close interpersonal relationships with non-Hispanic Americans, s/he was asked to respond to the following frequency/intensity question: "Do you feel you have a lot of U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic? Do you feel your close friendships with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic are as close as your friendships with Hispanics?" Finally, these individuals were asked in the explanatory question to reflect on how their host interpersonal relationships developed: "How did you form your friendships with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?"

Psychological Health

Intercultural transformation is comprised of three facets: psychological health, functional fitness, and intercultural identity. The present study investigated two of these facets: psychological health and functional fitness. Psychological health refers to a mental state of harmonious cognitive, affective, and operational activities; it is a phenomenon that is difficult to observe in its presence, but more apparent in its absence. A state of psychological health is manifest in "a normal, taken-for-granted state of being" (Kim, 2001, p. 187), whereas its absence is marked by symptoms of psychological illness, such as social isolation, general dissatisfaction with life, depression or hopelessness, and feelings of being a helplessness victim of circumstance (Kim, 2001). Psychological health in the present study was assessed in terms of respondents' reported level of satisfaction with their lives in the United States and the extent to which they have experienced feelings of alienation. Measures of satisfaction and alienation are commonly used in studies of cross-cultural adaptation to assess psychological aspects of strangers'

well being or adaptation (e.g. Berry, Phinney, Sam, et al., 2006; Gao & Gudykunst, 1990; Dunbar, 1992; Kao, 1999; Ruben & Kealey, 1979; Ullman & Tatar, 2001). The operationalizations of alienation and satisfaction are presented in greater detail below.

Belonging. The scale used to assess belonging was a modified version of the measure "alienation" used by Maruyama (1998), which was derived from items developed by Ruben and Kealey (1979) and Kim (1980). The scale has been demonstrated to be satisfactorily reliable with a Cronbach's alpha of .85 (Maruyama, 1998). Modifications for the present investigation included re-labeling the measure "belonging," to maintain consistency across measures (i.e., higher scores corresponding to higher levels of adaptation), reducing the number of response categories from sevenpoint Likert-type scales to three-point Likert-type scales, making the item wording appropriate to the context of the United States, and making the items appropriate for both adolescent participants who were born in the U.S. and those who were not. Three of the scale's original nine items were omitted for relevancy reasons and replaced with four new items developed from feedback in the preliminary and pilot study phases. Response order was alternated for the items in order to minimize the occurrence of response sets. The 10 items were combined to create the scale "belonging" ($\alpha = .78$, M = 2.46, SD =.34); the items included the following:

- (a) Do you feel like you "fit in" when you hang out with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (b) How often do you feel alone or left out by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (c) How connected to, or part of, the United States do you feel you are?

- (d) How often do you feel awkward, or out of place, living in the U.S.?
- (e) Do you feel that U.S. Americans around you who aren't Hispanic care about you and how you're doing?
- (f) How often do you feel sad or depressed?
- (g) Do you ever wish you could permanently leave the United States?
- (h) Do you feel the teachers in your school who aren't Hispanic like you?
- (i) Do you feel the students in your school who aren't Hispanic like you?
- (j) How often do you feel frustrated, or stressed out, being in the United States?

This scale was followed by an open-ended question set that encouraged respondents to report on the degree to which they experience a sense of belongingness in the United States. Based on participants' responses to the scale items, the interviewer opened the question set with the prefix: "From what you've just told us, it sounds like you (researcher chooses appropriate option) feel connected to the U.S. and to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic / often feel disconnected from the U.S. and U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic..." Immediately following the question prefix, respondents who indicated they feel like they belong were asked to give an example of someone or something that makes them feel accepted within the dominant culture: "Can you give an example of a time when you felt really close to U.S. Americans who weren't Hispanic, for example, teammates in a school sport or a teacher you're close to?" Respondents who felt a sense of belongingness were next asked in the frequency/intensity question: "Have you always felt that you 'fit in' in the U.S.? Have you always 'fit in' with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?" Finally, the explanatory question prompted them to reflect on what things make them feel a sense of belonging in the larger cultural

environment: "What makes you feel that you do 'fit in' and are accepted by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?"

To respondents who had experienced feelings of alienation, or not belonging, the following opening descriptive question was posed: "Can you give an example of a time when you felt like you didn't 'fit in' in the United States, or that U.S. Americans who weren't Hispanic didn't accept you?" These respondents were next asked to report how frequently this occurs ("How often do you feel this way?") and the intensity with which they experience their feelings of alienation ("Have you ever wished you could leave the U.S.? If yes, where would you go? Have you wished this recently?") In the third, explanatory question, respondents were asked to reflect on what factors directly contribute to their feelings of alienation: "What makes you feel like you don't 'fit in' here, or aren't accepted by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?"

Satisfaction. Satisfaction was assessed by asking respondents to report their current level of comfort and satisfaction with living in the United States and with their relationships with non-Hispanic Americans. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of comfort or satisfaction on three-point Likert-type scales (1 = "not at all, or not very comfortable/satisfied"; 2 = "kind of, or somewhat comfortable/satisfied"; 3 = "very comfortable/satisfied"), which was a modification of Maruyama's (1998) earlier use of seven-point Likert-type scales for this measure. The scale used for the present study was adapted from items originally drawn from Gao and Gudykunst (1990), and subsequently augmented by Maruyama (1998). The scale has demonstrated sufficient reliability in previous research (Cronbach's α = .85) (Maruyama, 1998). Maruyama used seven items for this scale, one of which was omitted for this study for reasons of age-appropriateness.

The remaining six items were modified to fit the context of the present investigation, and two new items were created for the scale based on findings from the preliminary and pilot phases of the research. The eight items were combined to form the scale "satisfaction" ($\alpha = .82, M = 2.49, SD = .38$), which consisted of the following:

- (a) How comfortable do you feel interacting with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (b) Generally, how comfortable do you feel attending this school?
- (c) How satisfied are you with your relationship to non-Hispanic U.S. Americans at your school?
- (d) How satisfied are you with the relationship, in general, between Hispanic and non-Hispanic students at your school?
- (e) How satisfied are you with your friendships with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (f) How comfortable do you feel living in the United States?
- (g) How satisfied are you with the way you're treated by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (h) How satisfied are you with living in the United States for the long term future?

The open-ended question set following this scale asked respondents to elaborate on their level of comfort and satisfaction with their relationship to the larger cultural environment. Based on the interviewer's assessment of participants' responses to the scale items, the open-ended question set began with the prefix statement: "Based on what you've just told us, it sounds like you are at least (*researcher chooses appropriate option*) somewhat satisfied with your life / somewhat dissatisfied with your life..." Participants expressing overall satisfaction were then asked to think of things they both like about living in the United States ("Can you give a specific example of something you like about living in the United States? What do you like about it?") For these participants, the descriptive question was followed up with a frequency/intensity question prompting them to elaborate on their overall level of satisfaction with being in the United States: "Do you pretty much like life in the U.S., or only some parts?" Why?" The explanatory question next asked them to assess how long they have had the feelings they describe: "How and when did you start to feel this way (either mostly like, or only somewhat like life in the U.S.?"

In those cases where participants indicated an overall sense of dissatisfaction in their responses to the scale items, the interviewer asked participants to expand on the source of their unhappiness with the larger cultural environment: "Can you give a specific example of something you don't like about living in the U.S.? What do you dislike about it?" Respondents who felt a sense of dissatisfaction or discomfort with life in the United States were next prompted in the frequency/intensity question to assess their overall feelings toward the larger host society: "Do you pretty much dislike life in the U.S., or only some parts?" Finally, as explanation for their feelings, participants were asked to address what they feel are the causes of their dissatisfaction: "Why, do you think, you've not found more to like about living in the U.S.? How and when did you start to feel this way?"

Functional Fitness

The capacity of cultural strangers to comfortably execute day-to-day activities in their society of settlement is reciprocally an *outcome* of growing host communication competence and interpersonal involvement, and a *stimulus* for further development of host communication competencies and interpersonal relationships (Kim, 2001). For children and adolescents, schools are the primary contexts of intergroup contact and acculturation, and thus school adjustment is a fundamental task and highly important outcome of the cross-cultural adaptation experience (Sam, Vedder, Ward, & Horenczyk, 2006). The extent to which a cultural stranger feels embedded in, and a part of, his or her school community (Johnson, Crosnoe, & Elder, 2001) reflects a sense of social connection indicative of his or her "increasing capacity to participate in the emotional and aesthetic experiences" of the larger society (Kim, 2001, p. 186). As an indication of functional fitness, school adjustment signals an increased congruence in meaning systems (Kim, 2001), such that cultural strangers no longer feel like outsiders as much as they feel they are becoming, or are, insiders.

Functional fitness for youth in the United States is defined by a cultural context in which education is highly valued as the mechanism of upward mobility, and as such, academic achievement is promoted by American society at large. The adaptation of youth thus largely entails adjusting to the norms, values, and rules of the American education system and manifesting progress in the form of observable academic success (earning good grades and staying in school). Specific operationalizations of these two components of functional fitness in adolescents—school adjustment and academic performance—are described in greater detail below.

School adjustment. Respondents' level of school adjustment was assessed using a series of Likert-type items created for this study. There were two reasons for creating this scale. The first reason was to ensure that the measure used in this study was appropriate and consistent with Kim's conceptualization of functional fitness. Second, although school adjustment is a widely recognized and researched sign of youth acculturation (e.g., Berry, Phinney, Sam, et al., 2006; Bhattacharya, 2000; Sam, 1994) quantitative measures have yet to be developed that assess the construct reliably. A six item scale was developed by Sam (1994) that assessed youths' feelings about attending school; how they thought their teachers evaluated their school performance in relation to the rest of the student body; whether the youth had truancy issues; youths' difficulty with concentration in class and at home while completing homework; and feelings of loneliness at school. This scale did not demonstrate adequate reliability (Cronbach's α = .60), however, and neither did a modification of the scale used by Berry, Phinney, Sam, et al. (2006) (Cronbach's $\alpha = .65$). Moreover, neither version of the scale directly corresponds with the construct of functional fitness as it was defined for the present investigation. The instrument developed by Sam (1994) and modified by Berry, Phinney, Sam, et al. (2006) focuses narrowly on feelings of alienation in the school environment rather than on a broader consideration of the relative gap between strangers' internal responses and the external demands of the host school environment (Kim, 2001). Based on these considerations, it was determined that the existing instruments were not appropriate for the proposed study.

In order to create a scale to measure school adjustment, it was necessary to identify what it entails, or what the indicators of school adjustment are. The goal was not

to create an exhaustive list of all possible indicators, but rather to establish a limited number of indicators of school adjustment that are relevant to the present investigation. One way to measure adolescents' school adjustment is to ask them to indicate how successful they are in accomplishing everyday tasks at school and how connected they feel to their school community. This approach was adopted for this study because it is consistent with the definition of functional fitness articulated by Kim and used in the present investigation. A total of twelve items were created, for which respondents were asked to indicate on three-point Likert-type scales the extent to which they are able to function according to the expectations of mainstream American society with regard to school-appropriate attitudes and behaviors.

Five items were developed to assess how successful respondents perceive themselves to be at accomplishing everyday tasks expected in U.S. American schools, which this author defined as including such tasks as the completion of homework, getting along with others, and attending class. The final scale included the following five items:

- (a) How often do you finish all of your homework?
- (b) Overall, how well do you get along with the other students at your school?
- (c) Overall, how well do you get along with your teachers?
- (d) How often do you skip classes?
- (e) Have you ever thought seriously about quitting school?

Another seven items were created to assess how connected Hispanic adolescents feel to their school communities. The final scale included the following items:

(f) Do you feel you 'fit in' at this school?

- (g) Do you enjoy actively participating in school activities, like sports, band, choir, theater or clubs?
- (h) Do you enjoy watching or attending school activities, like sports, band, choir, theater or clubs?
- (i) Generally, do you like your classes?
- (j) Is there at least one class that you really like and look forward to going to?
- (k) Do you ever feel "lost," or out of place in school?
- (l) Do you feel safe at school?

The twelve items developed and refined to assess participants' feelings of competence and connection in relation to their school environment were combined to form the scale "school adjustment" ($\alpha = .71$, M = 2.52, SD = .30).

Corresponding with this scale was a final open-ended question set, which encouraged respondents to further elaborate on their perceived level of functional fitness to their school environment. Based on an assessment of participants' responses to the scale items, the interviewer began the question set with the prefix: "Based on what you've just told us, it sounds like (*researcher chooses appropriate option*) you pretty much like your school / sometimes you don't like your school very much..." Respondents who expressed relative confidence in their fitness in the school environment were asked to provide examples of areas where they feel they do well: "Can you give an example of something you feel you're good at in school, for example, a subject area (like math or history) or a school activity (like sports or a club)?" After providing a concrete description of their personal strengths in school, highly school-adjusted participants were asked to address the intensity of their feeling of school-related efficacy and control: "Do you pretty much feel 'in control' of things at school? In other words, do you generally feel able to do the things your teachers expect you to?" The open-ended question set concluded with a request by the interviewer for the participant to explain the source(s) of his or her competence and/or confidence in the school environment: "Why do you have things 'under control' in school?" Some respondents found it helpful to treat this question as asking them what advice they would give to others who find themselves struggling in school.

For respondents who reflected a relatively low level of school adjustment in their responses to the scale items, the interviewer invited these students to talk about what areas of school confuse or overwhelm them: "Can you give an example of a time that you felt 'lost' or out of place in school? In other words, a time you felt confused or overwhelmed by what was expected from you by teachers?" Next, participants were asked to report the frequency with which these feelings occur: "How often does this happen?" The interviewer concluded with the explanatory question of the set, which asked participants occasionally struggling in school to explain, to the best of their ability, what things make school difficult for them: "What makes you feel confused or overwhelmed in school?"

Academic performance. A widely used measure of functional fitness among youth is their school achievement, most frequently assessed in terms of their grade point average (GPA) in the four core subject areas: English, math, science, and social studies (e.g. Kao, 1999; Kao & Tienda, 1995; Martinez et al., 2004). The present study utilized the school achievement measure used by the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988, in which GPA was assessed as an average of the self-reported grades in the four

core subject areas. The actual wording of the item was as follows: "For each of the subject areas that we'll ask you about, which category best describes your grades from sixth grade up till now?" The answer categories were as follows: "Mostly A's", "Mostly B's", "Mostly C's", "Mostly D's", or "Mostly below D". The four items were combined to form a single scale labeled "academic performance" ($\alpha = .73$, M = 2.69, SD = .76).

Interview Procedure

As described in detail in the above section on sampling and participant recruitment, all participants in the study were initially randomly recruited to attend an informational meeting at their school about participating in the study. The meetings lasted 20-25 minutes, and were scheduled for times during the school day when all of the invited students could meet together with the research team in a quiet and relatively private location. As primary investigator, I led each meeting, nearly always with the assistance of a bilingual/bicultural translator. On the rare occasion an assistant could not join me for a meeting, I verified with the school in advance that all potential attendees were English language proficient, and in the single instance where this was not the case, we arranged to meet with these students at a separate time when both she and I were available.

Prospective participants who attended an informational meeting were informed about the purpose of research and provided an opportunity to ask questions they had regarding participation. They were also informed interviews would occur on school premises, but could only be scheduled for times that did not interfere with content classes; as such, interviews could be scheduled during lunch or study hall periods, or for times before or after school. Interested students were provided with a dual-language

Spanish/English consent form to take home for their parents or guardians' review and signature, and students were instructed to return their signed consent forms to designated school personnel by a given date. At the conclusion of the meeting, interested students provided their contact information for us to reach them about scheduling an appointment for their interview. Students who had not returned their consent form by the specified date were contacted either by me or my assistant (depending on the participant's language preference) to follow up with them about our continued interest in talking with them. If an individual clearly indicated they were no longer interested in participating in the research, they were removed from the list of potential participants and were no longer contacted. Several students who were contacted in follow up phone calls, however, indicated continued interest in participating, but repeatedly forgot to return their consent form, or lost their original copy. Extensive efforts were made to encourage these students to return their letters through repeated phone calls and providing them with new copies of misplaced parental consent materials.

Individuals' privacy in both recruitment and in the process of participation was protected through the following means: Completion of the face-to-face interview was anonymous, to the extent that no identifying information (e.g., signed consent/assent form) is attached to the participants' completed interview questionnaires. Interviews were conducted on school grounds in quiet, private locations (e.g., an unoccupied classrooms or conference rooms). Finally, the consent and assent processes were kept separate so as to ensure the privacy of individuals in their decision whether or not to participate. Specifically, while students turned their signed parental consent forms in to

designated school personnel, they retained the option to privately (with me and translator) not assent to participate.

Participants were given several opportunities to decide which language they wished to conduct the interview in: In those cases where the respondent chose to participate in English, I conducted the interview, and in those cases where they chose Spanish, or some combination of Spanish and English (Spanglish), a bilingual/bicultural translator either led, or in the latter scenario, assisted in conducting the interview. The vast majority of interviews were conducted in English (n = 102, 91.1%), with only 9 (8.0%) respondents choosing to participate in Spanish; one interview (.9%) was conducted using a combination of both languages, or Spanglish. In this instance, the participant chose to conduct the interview in English and use Spanish when she felt compelled to do so during the open-ended portions. As primary investigator, I was present for all interviews conducted in English, Spanish, and Spanglish. Whenever possible, an assistant joined me for interviews conducted in English, so as to be available for any translation issues that could arise; however, it was at times unfeasible to arrange for all parties--the interviewee, an assistant, and myself--to be available at the same time. Great effort was made in these circumstances before, during, and after the interview to ensure that the student felt confident s/he was able to fully participate in the interview using only English. None of the participants expressed uncertainty in the completeness of their responses. As a logistical necessity with the potential to negatively impact the accuracy of the data, however, the issue of bilingual/bicultural interview assistance will be returned to in the discussion chapter.

Although the closed-ended questions were administered to all research participants, only a subset of the respondents was asked the open-ended questions. This design decision allowed for the collection of in-depth qualitative data in a mostly quantitative study while facilitating the manageability of data collection and analysis. Interviews lasted approximately 20 to 60 minutes, depending on which version--restricted (quantitative) or elaborated (quantitative and qualitative)--respondents were administered. Elaborated interviews were conducted whenever possible, since time constraints in students' schedules largely limited hour-long appointments to interviews conducted before or after school. Of a total of 112 interviews conducted, over one-third (38%), or 43respondents, participated in the elaborated version of the interview. While an array of experiences were communicated by students who participated in the elaborated interviews, the overall sample representativeness of those students who were available/willing to meet either before or after school will be addressed in the results of the study presented in chapter five.

At the beginning of each interview, the interviewer informed respondents of their rights as research participants and obtained their signed consent (if 18 years and older), or assent (under 18 years old) to participate. In these conversations, participants were reminded of the purpose of the research and the confidentiality of their responses. Permission to audio-record the open-ended portions of the interview was obtained first from parents in the parental consent form, and then obtained directly from participants prior to beginning an elaborated interview. All respondents (and their parents) in the main study who were available to participate in elaborated interviews consented to audio-recording of their open-ended responses.

Small tokens of appreciation were provided to interview participants for their contributions to the research. At the end of their interview, participants were able to select from a variety of items, such as pens/pencils, notebooks, folders, and other desk supplies. Additionally, at the informational meeting, potential participants were given the opportunity to select colors, words, and special beads that this author combined to create custom-made key chains that were given to participants at the time of their interview. These gestures of appreciation were intended to thank participants with a tangible reward, without producing undue influence and/or coercion to participate in the study.

CHAPTER IV

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This chapter provides a description of the characteristics of participants' collective cross-cultural adaptation experiences in terms of the study's research variables. Descriptive findings on the three research variables employed to operationalize the theoretical construct of host communication competence are presented first: These three variables are English language ability, adaptive motivation, and behavioral competence. Descriptive findings with respect to the second theoretical construct, host interpersonal communication, are presented next and include the variables of contact with non-Hispanics and non-Hispanic friends. Third, descriptive findings are presented on the theoretical construct of psychological health, which was operationalized with two variables, belonging and satisfaction. Following consideration of the descriptive findings related to the final theoretical construct, functional fitness, which was operationalized with the variables of school adjustment and academic performance, the chapter concludes with a summary of the descriptive findings.

Host Communication Competence

Communication competence in the host environment consists of cognitive, affective, and operational components: In the present study, the extent to which Hispanic youth are comfortable with the English language, self-identify with elements of the national culture, and feel as though their communication behavior with non-Hispanic Americans is comfortable and natural are each indicative of their overall comfort with communicating with members of the larger national culture. The construct of host communication competence was operationalized with three variables in the current investigation: "language ability" (cognitive dimension), "adaptive motivation" (affective dimension), and "behavioral competence" (behavioral or operational dimension).

English Language Ability

Five items were used to assess English language ability. Table 4.1 provides a descriptive summary of the language items (M = 2.72, SD = .36). Examination of the five-item scale for normality indicated a significant negative skew and a significantly leptokurtic distribution: The bulk of respondents reported high levels of English language ability, skewing the distribution of scores toward the high end of the continuum; respondents' collective high level of English language ability also produced a "peaked" distribution of the curve, with most respondents reporting to be very comfortable using English in most situations and few respondents reporting they are less than very comfortable. The data were analyzed for outliers potentially producing undue influence on the distribution; however, only two outliers were identified and both reflected genuine variability within the sampling population. As the means and standard deviations on individual scale items indicate, respondents by and large reported feeling very comfortable using English in a variety of situations. The two outlying cases in this distribution represent individuals who legitimately reported they struggle with the use of English in their daily lives, and therefore these cases were retained as part of the sample distribution.

Adaptive Motivation

Eight items were employed to measure adaptive motivation, or interest in "mainstream" American culture. The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 4.2 for each of the items used to assess the adaptive motivation of participants

Means and Standard Deviations of English Language Ability Items (N = 112)

Item		М	SD
(1)	How comfortable do you feel using English to take care of simple, everyday tasks?	2.78	.44
(2)	How comfortable do you feel using English to talk to U.S. American friends or teachers who aren't Hispanic?	2.68	.51
(3)	How comfortable are you that you understand class lessons taught in English?	2.70	.48
(4)	How comfortable do you feel using English to write a note or send an email to a U.S. American friend who is not Hispanic?	2.76	.47
(5)	How comfortable do you feel using English to write research papers and do other homework for class?	2.68	.52

Note. Items are scaled on three-point Likert-type scales: (1 = "not at all, or not very comfortable"; 2 = "kind of, or somewhat comfortable"; 3 = "very comfortable").

(M = 2.49, SD = .30). Although these items were not included in the statistical analyses later reported in the results of the study, examination of the items nevertheless reveals interesting trends. Participants reported being highly motivated to know how to read, speak, and write well in English, and they are very interested in U.S. American movies. In general, participants showed a moderately high level of interest in American entertainment forms (movies, TV, and music), and in interacting with non-Hispanic Americans. However, their overall interest/motivation to interact interpersonally with Americans outside their ethnic group (i.e., "understanding," "making friends," and "hanging out" with non-Hispanics) was revealed to be slightly lower than their overall interest in U.S. American entertainment forms. The lowest mean score was on the item which most directly asked participants about their interest in "fitting into" the larger U.S. American culture (M = 2.18, SD = .63) (see Table 4.2).

Behavioral Competence

Participants responded to 10 questions asking them to assess their self-perception of their communication skills when interacting with non-Hispanics. Table 4.3 provides a summary of the means and standard deviations of each of the 10 items. Normality was assessed for the composite scale, and the scale was found to be sufficiently mesokurtic (bell-shaped), but slightly negatively skewed. The ratio of skew to its standard error indicated the skew of the scale is marginally acceptable, however, as being close enough to zero to be considered normal: The distribution of scores was slightly skewed toward the high end of the continuum of behavioral competence, although not significantly so.

Means and Standard Deviations of Adaptive	Motivation Items	(N =	112)
---	------------------	------	------

Item		М	SD
(1)	How interested are you in making friends with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.55	.57
(2)	How interested are you in knowing how to read, speak, and write in English?	2.71	.53
(3)	How interested are you in understanding how U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic think, and why they do things the way they do?	2.22	.63
(4)	How interested are you in watching U.S. American movies?	2.71	.51
(5)	How interested are you in watching U.S. American TV shows?	2.56	.60
(6)	How interested are you in listening to U.S. American music?	2.58	.56
(7)	How interested are you in hanging out with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.43	.60
(8)	How "cool" is U.S. American culture, in your opinion? In other words, how interested are you in belonging to, or fitting into, the larger U.S. American culture?	2.18	.63

Note. Items are scaled on three-point Likert-type scales (1 = "not at all, or not very interested"; 2 = "kind of, or somewhat interested"; 3 = "very interested").

Means and Standard Deviations of Behavioral Co	ompetence Items ($N = 112$)
--	-------------------------------

Item		М	SD
(1)	Do you ever feel clumsy or unnatural talking to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.49	.60
(2)	When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, how often do you understand what they say and mean?	2.77	.44
(3)	Do you ever feel frustrated trying to get your point across while talking to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.46	.58
(4)	Do you ever have difficulty, or trouble, talking to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.62	.52
(5)	When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, how often do they understand what you say and mean?	2.64	.52
(6)	Do you feel the conversation flows naturally when you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.61	.53
(7)	When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, are you able to get the information you want from the conversation?	2.59	.53
(8)	Do you feel you're a good communicator when you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.54	.60
(9)	When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, are you able to speak comfortably and carry on a conversation?	2.63	.52
(10)	When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, how often do you understand their jokes and sense of humor?	2.46	.66

Notes. Items are scaled on three-point Likert-type scales. Response order varied to prevent response sets, and items 2, 5, 7, 9, and 10 were reverse coded. Level of behavioral competence increases as scale score increases.

In general, as evidenced by the slightly negative skew, participants collectively reported feeling moderately high levels of communication behavioral competence across all of the items. Participants indicated they are most comfortable they can understand what non-Hispanic Americans say and mean (M = 2.77, SD = .44), but are somewhat less confident that non-Hispanics understand them (M = 2.64, SD = .52). When it comes to understanding non-Hispanics' sense of humor, and dealing with feelings of clumsinessand frustration in getting one's point across while communicating with non-Hispanics, respondents reported their lowest levels of behavioral competence (M = 2.46, SD = .66; M = 2.49, SD = .60; M = 2.46, SD = .58, respectively). The scale "behavioral complete the operationalization of host communication competence in this study.

Host Interpersonal Communication

The amount of regular contact Hispanic students have with non-Hispanic Americans, and the casual and close friendships they maintain with Americans outside their ethnic group paint a picture of these students' daily communication activities. The construct host interpersonal communication was operationalized in this study with two measures "contact with non-Hispanic Americans" and "non-Hispanic American friends."

Contact with Non-Hispanic Americans

Six items were used to assess the amount of contact participants have with non-Hispanics. Table 4.4 provides a summary of the means and standard deviations of each of the items (M = 1.97, SD = .54). An examination of the scale to assess characteristics of its distribution revealed the scale to be adequately normally distributed, or mesokurtic without significant skew: The mean, median, and mode of the

Means and Standard Deviations of Contact with Non-Hispanic Americans Items
(N = 112)

Item		M	SD
(1)	How often do sit with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic at lunch?	1.89	.88
(2)	How often do you invite U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic to your house?	1.78	.78
(3)	How often are you invited to the homes of U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic?	2.01	.75
(4)	How often do you go out (for example, to a movie, shopping, or just driving around) with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	1.85	.76
(5)	How often do you work on school projects with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.14	.70
(6)	How often do you participate in clubs or play sports with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.15	.80

Note. Items are scaled on three-point Likert-type scales (1 = "never, or not very often"; 2 = "sometimes"; 3 = "very often").

distribution of scores were not significantly different from one another, half of the scores fell above and below the mean, and the distribution of scores was symmetrical.

Participants' responses on the interpersonal contact items indicated that interaction with non-Hispanic Americans does not occur often, especially outside of organized school activities. Respondents were least likely to have invited non-Hispanic American friends to their homes (M = 1.78, SD = .78), hung out with them outside of school (M = 1.85, SD = .76), or sat with them during lunch period (M = 1.89, SD = .88). The highest levels of contact with non-Hispanics came from involvement (both voluntary and involuntary) in organized school and community activities: Collectively, participants reported their contact with non-Hispanic Americans mostly occurred in the context of working on school projects (M = 2.14, SD = .70) and in participating in clubs or sports activities together (M = 2.15, SD = .80).

Non-Hispanic American Friends

Three types of friendship network patterns were assessed in this research: (a) friendships with non-Hispanic Americans; (b) friendships with Hispanics or Latin Americans; and (c) friendships with individuals from countries outside of the U.S. or Latin America (e.g., Africans, Asians, or Europeans). These friendships were further explored at two intimacy levels: "casual" and "close" friends. Previous studies with adults have included three levels of intimacy, adding "acquaintances" as another category by which respondents can organize the description of their friendship networks (Kim, Y. S., 2003; Maruyama, 1998). However, given the youthful age of participants in this study, it was decided to simplify the distinctions to "close" friends and "casual" friends, or those individuals respondents feel they are friendly with, but who are not as important

to them as their best or closest friends. Thus, the number of people in each of these six designations was recorded for each participant.

Table 4.5 provides a summary of the central tendency of each item (mean and median), as well as the range of raw estimates reported by individuals (minimum and maximum). Unlike previous questionnaire items described above, respondents' interpersonal ties were not measured using Likert-type scales, but rather by recording specific numbers reported by participants as they estimated the composition of their friendship networks. Estimates ranged widely, thus examining the median score is more informative than the mean for these measures. In both casual and close friendships, respondents reported Hispanics and Latin Americans make up a greater proportion of their friends (Mdn = 20, SD = 114.56 for casual; Mdn = 5, SD = 188.59 for close) than do either non-Hispanic Americans (Mdn = 14, SD = 66.71 for casual; Mdn = 3, SD = 12.09 for close) or individuals from countries outside of the U.S. and Latin America (Mdn = 3, SD = 18.36 for casual; Mdn = 0, SD = 10.52 for close).

Given the low reliability of the two-item measure employed in the present study, respondents' raw scores on both items, casual and close non-Hispanic American friendships, were summed to create the variable "non-Hispanic American friends," and the scores were split into four levels: no non-Hispanic American friendships, low, medium, and high levels of non-Hispanic American friendships. The four levels respondents were divided into are as follows: two respondents reported having zero non-Hispanic American friends (1.8%), 40 respondents reported having between 1 and 10 non-Hispanic American friends (35.7%), 35 respondents reported between 11 and 32 non-Hispanic American friends (31.3%), and the remaining 35 participants reported

Item		М	Mdn	SD	Min.	Max.
(1)	About how many of your casual friends are U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	35.17	14.00	66.71	0	500
(2)	About how many of your casual friends are Hispanic, or still living outside the U.S. in a Latin American country, such as (<i>interviewer supplied examples based on respondent's home heritage</i>)?	56.26	20.00	114.56	0	1000
(3)	About how many of your casual friends are from foreign countries other than Latin American countries, such as African, Asian, or European countries?	9.46	3.00	18.36	0	100
(4)	About how many of your close friends are U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	6.62	3.00	12.09	0	78
(5)	About how many of your close friends are Hispanic, or still living outside the U.S. in a Latin American country, such as (<i>interviewer supplied examples based on respondent's home heritage</i>)?	28.02	5.00	188.59	0	2000
(6)	About how many of your close friends are from foreign countries other than Latin American countries, such as African, Asian, or European countries?	2.96	0.00	10.52	0	100

Central Tendency and Participants' Minimum and Maximum Estimates of Interpersonal Ties (N = 112)

Note. Respondents reported raw numbers.

between 33-505 non-Hispanic American friends (31.3%); the mean of the single-item indicator was 1.92 and the standard deviation was .86. Normality was assessed for the variable, and its distribution was found to be unskewed, but slightly platykurtic. The ratio of kurtosis to its standard error indicates the somewhat platykurtic nature of the distribution remains marginally close enough to zero to be considered normal, however. In other words, the division of respondents into four categories produced a distribution of scores with a slightly "flat" quality that is, nonetheless, still considered normally distributed. The single-item indicator, "non-Hispanic American friends," joins the previously described composite scale, "contact with non-Hispanic Americans," to complete the operationalization of host interpersonal communication in the current investigation.

In addition to estimating the overall composition of their friendship networks, respondents were asked to report the racial or ethnic backgrounds of their three closest friends, which were then coded by the researcher into categories used by the U.S. Census. Friendships with individuals from countries outside of the U.S. were also recorded. Information on the ethnic backgrounds of respondents' friends was not collected for inclusion in any statistical analyses, but for descriptive purposes. As shown in Figure 4.1, Hispanics were most frequently represented among participants' three best friends, followed by non-Hispanic whites and Latin Americans. Other ethnic backgrounds reported included African- and Asian Americans and American Indians among others; four respondents indicated having fewer than three identifiably "best" or "closest" friends.

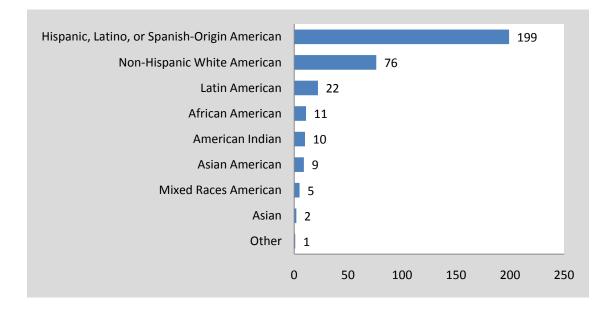


Figure 4.1. Ethnic/racial background of participants' three closest friends.

Psychological Health

Psychological health refers to a mental state of being in which one has a sense of belongingness, is generally at ease, and is mostly happy and satisfied with daily life. The psychological health of Hispanic youth was operationalized in this study with two variables, "belonging" and "satisfaction." These two measures are commonly used in cross-cultural adaptation research to assess respondents' overall feelings of psychological health and well being.

Belonging

Ten items were used to assess respondents' feelings of belongingness with respect to non-Hispanics and American society. Table 4.6 provides a summary of the 10 items (M = 2.46, SD = .34). The scale was examined to assess the normality of its distribution of scores, and it was found to be sufficiently mesokurtic and not significantly skewed: The mean, median, and mode of the distribution of scores were not significantly different from one another, half of the scores fell above and below the mean, and the distribution of scores was symmetrical.

The mean scores on scale items ranged from 2.34 to 2.59, where higher scores correspond to a stronger sense of belongingness, indicating respondents in this study generally do not experience strong feelings of alienation from the larger U.S. American society. As previously noted, the vast majority of participants in this study (91.1%) are first or second generation Americans, and most have relatives still living in their families' country of origin who they travel to visit regularly. Despite their families' relative "newness" to U.S. American society, respondents' overall sense of belongingness was

Means and Standard Deviations of Bel	longing Items	(N =	112)
--------------------------------------	---------------	------	------

Item		М	SD
(1)	Do you feel like you "fit in" when you hang out with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.34	.65
(2)	How often do you feel alone, or left out by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.49	.57
(3)	How connected to, or part of, the United States do you feel you are?	2.35	.58
(4)	How often do you feel awkward, or out of place, living in the U.S.?	2.51	.59
(5)	Do you feel that U.S. Americans around you who aren't Hispanic care about you and how you're doing?	2.35	.60
(6)	How often do you feel sad, or depressed?	2.48	.61
(7)	Do you ever wish you could permanently leave the United States?	2.54	.53
(8)	Do you feel the teachers in your school who aren't Hispanic like you?	2.59	.53
(9)	Do you feel the students in your school who aren't Hispanic like you?	2.50	.52
(10)	How often do you feel frustrated, or stressed out, being in the United States?	2.46	.55

Notes. Items are scaled on three-point Likert-type scales. Response order varied to prevent response sets on items, and items 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 were reverse coded. Level of belongingness increases as scale score increases.

consistent across measures. The mean scores were among the highest on "awkwardness living in the U.S." (M = 2.51, SD = .59), and desire to "permanently leave the U.S." (M = 2.54, SD = .53), again, corresponding to a strong sense of belongingness; however, their mean score on the item "How connected to, or part of, the United States do you feel you are?" was among the lowest of means, indicating a level of psychological distance from the U.S. (M = 2.35, SD = .58). Given that many of the respondents are currently living their lives in both worlds, due to the geographical proximity of their families' home cultures, this finding is unsurprising, and will be considered in more depth in the discussion of the study's results.

Interpersonally, participants reported experiencing the strongest sense of belonging from their teachers (M = 2.59, SD = .53). With regard to their non-Hispanic American peers, they also reported they feel "liked" (M = 2.50, SD = .52) and "included" (M = 2.49, SD = .57), although slightly less confident they "fit in" when hanging out with non-Hispanic Americans (M = 2.34, SD = .65).

Satisfaction

Eight items were employed to assess participants' level of comfort and satisfaction with life in the U.S., or how happy they felt with their lives at the time of their interview. A summary of the means and standard deviations of the eight items is provided in Table 4.7 (M = 2.49, SD = .38), which was examined to assess the normality of its distribution of scores. The distribution of the scale was found to be sufficiently mesokurtic, although slightly negatively skewed. The ratio of skew to its standard error indicates the skew of the scale is marginally acceptable, however, as close enough to zero to be considered normal: Respondents collectively reported high levels of satisfaction, skewing the

Means and Standard Deviations of Satisfaction	n Items	(<i>N</i> = 112)
---	---------	-------------------

Item		М	SD
(1)	How comfortable do you feel interacting with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.53	.54
(2)	Generally, how comfortable do you feel attending this school?	2.52	.66
(3)	How satisfied are you with your relationship to non- Hispanic U.S. Americans at your school?	2.47	.60
(4)	How satisfied are you with the relationship, in general, between Hispanic and non-Hispanic students at your school?	2.28	.67
(5)	How satisfied are you with your friendships with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.52	.55
(6)	How comfortable do you feel living in the United States?	2.70	.46
(7)	How satisfied are you with the way you're treated by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?	2.38	.57
(8)	How satisfied are you with living in the United States for the long term future?	2.56	.58

Note. Items are scaled on three-point Likert-type scales (1 = "not at all, or not very comfortable/satisfied"; 2 = "kind of, or somewhat comfortable/satisfied"; 3 = "very comfortable/satisfied").

distribution slightly toward the high end of the satisfaction scale, although the skew was minimal enough that the distribution is still considered normal.

Participants reported feeling generally satisfied and comfortable in their daily interactions with non-Hispanic Americans and the larger U.S. American cultural environment. Specifically, respondents indicated feeling very comfortable living in the United States (M = 2.70, SD = .46), and remaining in the U.S. for the long term future (M = 2.56, SD = .58). They are mostly satisfied with their relationship to non-Hispanic American peers at school (M = 2.47, SD = .60), and even more satisfied with their personal friendships with non-Hispanic Americans (M = 2.52, SD = .55). They are slightly less satisfied, however, with the relationship, in general, between the Hispanic and non-Hispanic students in their schools (M = 2.28, SD = .67), which had the lowest mean score of the eight items. Again, although moderately high levels of satisfaction were reported across the scale items, relative to other items in the scale, respondents indicated less satisfaction with the way they are treated by non-Hispanics (M = 2.38, SD = .57), which had the second lowest mean score of the items. The scale "satisfaction" joins the previously described composite scale, "belonging," to complete the operationalization of psychological health in the present investigation.

Functional Fitness

Functional fitness was the fourth construct examined in the present study. Fitness to the host environment can be operationalized in a multitude of ways, depending on the context. Given the age of respondents and the related societal expectations for their daily activities—attending school—this study operationalized the construct in a way believed to best address the daily tasks and stresses they must meet and overcome. Functional

fitness was operationalized in the present study with two variables, "school adjustment" and "academic performance."

School Adjustment

Twelve items were developed and refined to assess participants' feelings of competence and connection in relation to their school environment. Table 4.8 provides a summary of the items, their means, and standard deviations (M = 2.52, SD = .30). The scale was examined to assess the normality of its distribution of scores, and it was found to be sufficiently mesokurtic and unskewed to be considered normally distributed: The mean, median, and mode of the distribution of scores were not significantly different from one another, half of the scores fell above and below the mean, and the distribution of scores was symmetrical.

Participants reported moderate to high levels of school adjustment across the scale items with mean scores ranging from 2.30 to 2.77. On indicators of their motivation to attend class (M = 2.77, SD = .44), and their perceived abilities to complete homework (M = 2.59, SD = .65) and graduate (M = 2.69, SD = .55), they reported high levels of adjustment to U.S. American cultural expectations. Similarly, they reported their attachment and involvement in school to be moderately high: Respondents generally indicated they feel accepted (M = 2.52, SD = .61) and safe (M = 2.63, SD = .55) at school, and were frequently able to identify a class, or classes, they enjoy attending (M = 2.45, SD = .61). The lowest mean scores were on items which asked participants to indicate their level of interest in actively participating in school-sponsored activities (M = 2.30, SD = .84), as well as attending such activities as spectators (M = 2.32, SD = .76).

Means and Standard Deviation	s of School Adjustment Item	s (N =	112)

Item		М	SD
(1)	Do you feel you "fit in" at this school?	2.52	.61
(2)	How often do you finish all of your homework?	2.59	.65
(3)	Overall, how well do you get along with the other students at your school?	2.51	.52
(4)	How often do you skip classes?	2.77	.44
(5)	Overall, how well do you get along with your teachers?	2.43	.50
(6)	Have you ever thought seriously about quitting school?	2.69	.55
(7)	Do you enjoy actively participating in school activities, like sports, band, choir, theater, or clubs?	2.30	.84
(8)	Do you enjoy watching or attending school activities, like sports, band, choir, theater, or clubs?	2.32	.76
(9)	Generally, do you like your classes?	2.36	.66
(10)	Is there at least one class that you really like and look forward to going to?	2.45	.61
(11)	Do you ever feel "lost," or out of place, in school?	2.67	.49
(12)	Do you feel safe at school?	2.63	.55

Note. Items are scaled on three-point Likert-type scales. Level of school adjustment increases as scale score increases.

Academic Performance

The second component of functional fitness in the present investigation assessed respondents' academic performance in terms of their self-reported grades in the four core content areas: English, math, science, and social studies. Table 4.9 provides the means and standard deviations of each subject area as reported by participants (M = 2.69, SD = .76), which was found to meet standards of normality with a sufficiently mesokurtic and unskewed distribution of scores: The mean, median, and mode of the distribution of scores were not significantly different from one another, half of the scores fell above and below the mean, and the distribution of scores was symmetrical. Scores for each item mirror the calculation of grade point average (GPA), which ranges from 0.00 - 4.0; thus, the mean scores for participants in each of the subject areas indicate a B/C grade average. The scale "academic performance" joins the previously described composite scale, "school adjustment," to complete the operationalization of functional fitness in the present investigation.

A total of seven composite scales and one single-item indicator were ultimately employed to test the interrelationships among theoretical factors in the process of crosscultural adaptation. Table 4.10 provides a summary of the distributional qualities and scale reliabilities of the research variables.

Summary of Descriptive Findings

In overview, the descriptive findings with respect to the research variables indicate participants in this study have high levels of host communication competence overall, generally experience feelings of psychological well-being, perform relatively well in school, and interact to some degree with non-Hispanics. Mean scores on each of

Item		М	SD
(1)	English	2.64	1.03
(2)	Math	2.72	.95
(3)	Science	2.58	1.00
(4)	Social Studies	2.83	1.08

Means and Standard Deviations of Academic Performance Items (N = 112)

Note. 4 = "Mostly As"; 3 = "Mostly Bs"; 2 = "Mostly Cs"; 1 = "Mostly Ds"; 0.5 = "Mostly below Ds"

Summary of Research Variables (N = 112)

Research Variable	Min.	Max.	M(SD)	Skew /SE	Kurtosis /SE	α
Language ability	1.00	3.00	2.72(.36)	-7.06	7.79	.81
Behavioral competence	1.60	3.00	2.58(.35)	-3.20	-0.77	.85
Non-Hispanic American friends ^a	0.00	3.00	1.92(.86)	-0.07	-2.85	NA
Contact with non-Hispanic Americans	1.17	3.00	1.97(.54)	1.54	-1.89	.79
Belonging	1.60	3.00	2.64(.34)	1.10	-1.44	.78
Satisfaction	1.38	3.00	2.49(.38)	-2.21	-0.98	.82
School adjustment	1.75	3.00	2.52(.30)	-1.31	-1.72	.71
Academic performance	0.75	4.00	2.69(.76)	-1.18	-0.73	.73

Note. ^aThis variable is a single-item indicator; all others are composite scales.

the scales tended to fall between participants feeling moderately to highly adjusted on each of the theoretical dimensions, with the exception of the two scales used to assess the dimension of host interpersonal communication. In the latter case, participants reported low to moderate levels of overall contact with non-Hispanic Americans and relatively few non-Hispanic American friends, when compared to their friendships with fellow Hispanics.

The English language ability and behavioral competence of participants was found to be particularly strong with both measures reflecting some degree of negative skew, indicating the bulk of participants were highly adjusted on these indicators of cross-cultural adaptation. With respect to the affective measure of host communication competence, adaptive motivation, a pattern of responses emerged that seemed to indicate respondents hold greater affinity for artifacts of U.S. American culture than they do direct interpersonal contact and relationships with members of the cultural mainstream. Specifically, mean scores indicating higher levels of interest were associated with U.S. American media forms, including movies, television, and music, as well as interest in English language fluency. Relative to these items, mean scores on questions asking participants to indicate their level of interest in pursuing contact and friendships with non-Hispanic Americans were slightly lower.

Relatively lower levels of interest in interacting with non-Hispanics were also reflected in responses to scale items employed to assess host interpersonal communication. The descriptive findings indicate Hispanic and Latin American friends make up a greater proportion of respondents' casual and close friendships than either non-Hispanic Americans or individuals from countries outside of the U.S. and Latin America.

In addition, Hispanics comprised the vast majority of participants' reported three closest friendships: In this sample, Hispanic best friends outnumbered respondents' friendships with all non-Hispanic Americans combined (white, African-, Asian-, mixed races, and Native American) by nearly two to one. In terms of overall contact with non-Hispanic Americans, results indicated interaction does not occur often, especially outside of organized activities, such as participating in group projects at school or involvement in extracurricular activities.

On the psychological health measures, results indicated moderate to high levels of overall satisfaction and feelings of belongingness. Looking internally at individual scale items reveals interesting response patterns, however. Respondents' reported feelings of belongingness, with respect to the larger national culture, suggest that although collectively they do not wish to permanently leave the United States (this item had the second highest mean score on the scale), the lowest mean scores on this scale indicated participants simultaneously feel a sense of psychological distance from the U.S. and U.S. Americans who are not of Hispanic background. Perhaps relatedly, on scale items assessing satisfaction, respondents collectively reported that although they feel generally satisfied with life in the United States, the lowest mean scores on this scale reflected lower levels of collective satisfaction with the relationship, in general, between Hispanic and non-Hispanic students at their school, and they way they feel they are treated by non-Hispanic Americans. In essence, in terms of belongingness and satisfaction, respondents collectively seemed to indicate a desire to be in the U.S., but also a sense of disconnect, and even discord, in their relationship with the larger national culture and its members. It is important to note, however, respondents reported relatively high mean scores on

feelings of belongingness and satisfaction when asked to think of individuals (e.g., peers, teachers, friends), rather than non-Hispanic Americans in aggregate.

On the functional fitness measure of school adjustment, participants also reported moderate to high levels of adjustment to the behavioral expectations they encounter in the school environment. Moreover, respondents' collective academic performance was found to be average, with mean scores falling in the B to C grade average range. Of particular interest with respect to patterns in participants' school adjustment is the finding that the two lowest mean scores corresponded to items asking respondents' about the level of enjoyment they experience from actively participating in school activities, and/or passively participating as spectators, such as at school sporting events or concerts. This relatively low level of involvement in extracurricular activities corresponds with other findings detailed above, which seem to indicate an overall reticence to engage in interaction with non-Hispanic Americans. As noted above, most interpersonal contact between Hispanic and non-Hispanic youth in this study is reported to occur within the context of organized activities, most often in connection to school.

The descriptive findings with respect to the research variables reveal tentative patterns of relationships that are more comprehensively explored in the next chapter, which examines the structural relationships hypothesized to exist among the theoretical constructs investigated in the study.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS ON RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VARIABLES AND THEORY-TESTING

The purpose of the study was to test the theoretical interrelationships posited by Kim (2001) among the constructs of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness in the context of Hispanic youth. Pursuit of this purpose entailed collecting data from participants that included characteristics of their background, assessed their cross-cultural adaptation experiences as an aggregate, and supplemented the aggregated data with the personal experiences of individuals. The hypotheses posited in chapter two delineate the predicted interrelationships among the theoretical constructs tested comprehensively using first order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) procedures (Byrne, 1998, 2001; Loehlin, 2004). The chapter first describes the relationships found to exist among background variables and research variables. Following simple correlational analyses and one-way analysis of variance, the results of the CFA model and of each hypothesis test are reported. The chapter concludes with two case illustrations drawn from the closed- and open-ended responses of two individual study participants whose communication and adaptation patterns reflect the predicted theoretical relationships observed in the study's statistical findings.

Relationships among Variables

The only variables in the study with missing data were the four background variables used to assess the SES of respondents' families. Of the 112 cases, two individuals reported they did not know their mother's employment status, and 10 did not

know the employment status of their fathers. On the variables assessing the highest level of education obtained by parents, one respondent reported s/he did not know the educational attainment of his/her mother and nine reported not knowing this information about their fathers.¹

T-test examinations indicated that none of the four variables' missing values were systematically missing in conjunction with responses given on the eight research variables.² Although currently the simplest and most popular method of dealing with missing data is listwise deletion, or excluding from the analysis any case with a missing value for any of the variables in the data, this method has substantial disadvantages: It results in a loss of information and decreases statistical power, especially in studies with small sample sizes (Byrne, 2001). Another popular method of dealing with incomplete data is to use mean imputation, whereby missing values are replaced by the average observed score on an item. As Schafer and Graham (2002) explain, this method preserves the average of the variable, "but other aspects of its distribution--variance, quantiles, and so forth--are altered with potentially serious ramifications" (p. 159). Because structural equation modeling, including CFA, is based on variance and covariance information, mean imputation is not recommended (Byrne, 2001).

Schafer and Graham (2002) detail "state of the art" approaches in dealing with missing data, including Bayesian multiple imputation (MI) procedures. With this

¹ The percentage of total values missing was calculated by PRELIS to be 4.91%. Anything less than 5% is considered small, and the cases are usually deleted listwise (Garson, 2009).

² The four variables were recoded into 0 = missing, 1 = not missing. Independent sample t-tests were performed to determine if significant differences existed between the groups on each of the research variables. Non-significant t-test results provided indication that the missingness of data was nonsystematic. On the variable "father's occupation" t-test results ranged from t(110) = -.78 - ..136, $p \ge ..18$; on "father's education" t-test results ranged from t(110) = -.78 - ..136, $p \ge ..18$; on "father's ranged from t(110) = -1.54 - ..140, $p \ge ..13$; on "mother's occupation" t-test results ranged from t(110) = -1.36 - ...358, $p \ge .07$; and on "mother's education" t-test results ranged from t(110) = -1.37 - ...126, $p \ge ..18$.

method, "missing values for each participant are predicted from his or her own observed values, with random noise added to preserve a correct amount of variability in the imputed data" (p. 167). The missing values in the four SES variables used in this study were imputed using MI procedures. The imputation was performed using the PRELIS application for multiple imputations in the LISREL 8.80 Student Edition statistical analysis software. Missing values were imputed using the Expectation-Maximization (EM) algorithm method, which Lin (2010) describes:

The Expectation Maximization is a two-step iterative approach...It finds maximum likelihood estimates by repeating Expectation (E-step) and Maximization (M-step) steps in parametric models for incomplete data. An Estep finds the distribution for the missing data based on the known values for the observed data and the current estimates of the parameters; and the M-step substitutes the missing data with the expected values. (p. 279)

In essence, this method of dealing with missing data fills in each missing value by estimating the missing score based on the known values in a given case and the current estimates of a given variable's parameters, such as its mean and standard deviation. The complete data set (with missing values imputed, or no longer missing) was exported into SPSS 18.0 statistical analysis software for the following statistical analyses.

Relationships among Background Variables

As Table 5.1 shows, generational status is significantly and positively correlated with mother's occupation (r = .45, p < .01) and level of education (r = .29, p < .01), while these correlations for respondents' fathers are positive, but not significant. In sum, as generational status increases, mothers (women) appear to stay in school longer, and move

into and upward within the workforce. Strong correlations are also observed among parents' occupations and levels of education (see Table 5.1). Moreover, household language (1 = "Spanish," 2 = "equal Spanish and English," 3 = "English") is significantly and positively correlated with generational status (r = .34, p < .01), mother's (r = .45, p < .01) and father's (r = .29, p < .01) level of education, and mother's occupation (r = .24, p < .01). Finally, significant inverse relationships are observed among mother's (r = .24, p < .05) and father's (r = .39, p < .01) level of education and the Hispanic population density of the school districts in which their children are enrolled: The significant inverse relationships with parents' education levels, in combination with other negative relationships (non-significant) observed among the background variables and Hispanic population density make sense to the extent that many newcomers initially settle where there are strong ethnic communities.

Relationships among Background Variables and Research Variables

The background characteristics were found to be significantly correlated with several of the research variables. Particularly strong and consistent relationships were observed between the research variables and background variables related to SES and respondents' generational status. Most notably, participants whose parents had more education tended to report higher levels of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and school adjustment than did respondents whose parents had comparatively low levels of education. Also, those whose families have been in the United States longer tended to report higher levels of adjustment on each of these dimensions, except functional fitness (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.1

	Urban-Rural Setting	Hispanic Density	Age	Sex	Grade	Generation	Mother's Occupation ^a	Father's Occupation ^b	Mother's Education ^c	Father's Education ^d	Household Language
Urban-Rural Setting	.76										
Hispanic Density	128	.50									
Age	126	140	1.25								
Sex	.016	.110	019	.50							
Grade	151	060	.816**	006	1.01						
Generation	022	037	.011	057	048	.55					
Mother's Occupation	127	023	.063	106	.046	.453**	.63				
Father's Occupation	.041	121	.047	.004	.074	.148	.285**	.41			
Mother's Education	160	241*	.012	092	.042	.291**	.375**	.286**	1.37		
Father's Education	011	393**	.114	062	.082	.132	.178	.429**	.500**	1.27	
Household Language	074	167	.106	074	.096	.340**	.239*	.132	.454**	.291**	.76

Note. Values on the diagonal are standard deviations. ^{a-d}Missing cases were imputed using the Bayesian multiple imputation (MI) EM-algorithm method. *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

Table 5.2

	Urban-Rural Setting	Hispanic Density	Age	Sex	Grade	Generation	Mother's Occupation ^a	Father's Occupation ^b	Mother's Education ^c	Father's Education ^d	Household Language
Language Ability	050	085	040	083	032	.328**	.082	.109	.231*	.232*	.321**
Behavioral Competence	040	083	080	019	020	.299**	.138	.155	.237**	.287**	.196*
Non- Hispanic American Friends	.053	294**	.132	249**	.163	.241*	.128	.112	.213*	.212*	.111
Contact with Non- Hispanic Americans	210*	276**	.021	259**	.033	.272**	.217*	.268**	.515**	.404**	.256**
Belonging	068	142	109	094	022	.178	.044	.194*	.256**	.316**	.098
Satisfaction	118	084	075	012	.005	.226*	.102	.223*	.268**	.236*	.106
School Adjustment	207*	088	072	006	033	.063	004	.264**	.193*	.248*	.061
Academic Performance	153	.126	117	.158	.024	142	.000	.041	.134	.125	.080

Correlation Matrix of Background Variables and Research Variables

Note. ^{a-d}Missing cases were imputed using Bayesian multiple imputation (MI) EM-algorithm method. *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

More specifically, participants whose parents had attended some college, or at minimum completed high school, reported the highest mean scores on English language ability, behavioral competence, belongingness, and satisfaction. Table 5.2 shows mother and father's highest level of education correlated significantly with participants' English language ability (mother: r = .23, p < .05; father: r = .23, p < .05), behavioral competence (mother: r = .24, p < .01; father: r = .29, p < .01), number of non-Hispanic American friends (mother: r = .21, p < .05; father: r = .21, p < .05), overall contact with non-Hispanics (mother: r = .52, p < .01; father: r = .40, p < .01), feelings of belongingness (mother: r = .26, p < .01; father: r = .32, p < .01) and satisfaction (mother: r = .27, p < .01; father: r = .24, p < .05), and their level of school adjustment (mother: r = .19, p < .05; father: r = .25, p < .05). The occupations of their mothers and fathers were also positively related to participants' overall contact with non-Hispanic Americans (mothers: r = .22, p < .01; fathers: r = .27, p < .01). Moreover, their father's occupation also correlated significantly with their sense of belonging (r = .19, p < .05), satisfaction (r = .22, p < .05), and level of school adjustment (r = .26, p < .01). In other words, as parents moved into the workforce and into increasingly skilled employment, participants' scores on these measures increased.

Generational status was also highly correlated with several research variables, including English language ability (r = .33, p < .01), behavioral competence (r = .30, p < .01), number of non-Hispanic American friends (r = .24, p < .05), overall contact with non-Hispanics (r = .27, p < .01), and satisfaction (r = .23, p < .05). Respondents who were third or higher generation Americans had the highest mean scores on English language ability (M = 2.98, SD = .06) and behavioral competence (M = 2.74, SD = .23). Similarly, with regard to interpersonal ties with non-Hispanics, third or higher generation respondents reported having the most overall contact with non-Hispanics (M = 2.67, SD = .43), and the most friendships with Americans outside their ethnic group (M = 2.50, SD = .53). Finally, satisfaction with life was also highest among third or higher generation participants (M = 2.70, SD = .27). Generational status was not significantly correlated with respondents' sense of belonging, or either of the functional fitness measures.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to further explore the effects of generational status on the research variables. Omnibus tests of the main effect of generational status were statistically significant for the four research variables associated with the theoretical constructs of host communication competence and host interpersonal communication: English language ability, F(2, 109) = 6.61, p < .01; behavioral competence, F(2, 109) = 5.66, p < .01; non-Hispanic American friends, F(2, 109) = 3.69, p < .05; and contact with non-Hispanic Americans, F(2, 109) = 10.60, p < .01. There were no significant omnibus tests of the main effect of generational status on the four research variables associated with the theoretical constructs of sychological health or functional fitness (see Table 5.3).

Other significant correlations were found between research variables and the background variables of urban-rural setting, high school Hispanic population density, sex, and predominant household language. Significant inverse relationships were observed between urban-rural setting (rural, semi-urban, urban) and the research variables of contact with non-Hispanic Americans (r = -.21, p < .05) and level of school adjustment (r = -.21, p < .05); in sum, contact with non-Hispanics corresponded with

Table 5.3

DV	1 st Generation		2 nd Generation		3 rd + Generation		<i>F</i> , <i>P</i>	
	М	SD	М	SD	М	SD		
Language Ability	2.54	.38	2.74	.35	2.98 ^{a,b}	.06	6.61, <i>p</i> < .01	
Behavioral Competence	2.39	.38	2.62 ^a	.34	2.74 ^a	.23	5.66, <i>p</i> < .01	
Non-Hispanic American Friends	1.65	.94	1.93	.84	2.50 ^{a,b}	.53	3.69, <i>p</i> < .05	
Contact with Non-Hispanic Americans	1.89	.56	1.91	.49	2.67 ^{a,b}	.43	10.60, <i>p</i> < .01	
Belonging	2.38	.38	2.47	.32	2.61	.31	1.83, <i>p</i> = .17	
Satisfaction	2.37	.42	2.51	.37	2.7	.27	2.98, <i>p</i> = .06	
School Adjustment	2.52	.28	2.50	.30	2.64	.28	.98, <i>p</i> = .38	
Academic Performance	2.86	.78	2.66	.76	2.46	.69	1.12, <i>p</i> = .33	

Generational Differences on Research Variables

Note. Games-Howell MCP used to test significant differences among groups. ^a significantly differs from first generation, p < .05. ^b significantly differs from second generation, p < .05.

attending schools in smaller community environments, as did participants' level of school adjustment. Moreover, the density or concentration of Hispanic students within a high school was found to be negatively correlated with both measures of host interpersonal communication: number of non-Hispanic friends (r = -.29, p < .01) and overall contact with non-Hispanic Americans (r = -.28, p < .01). In other words, as the percentage of Hispanic students in a school increased, participants' amount of interpersonal communication with non-Hispanics decreased. Negative relationships were also observed between the two host interpersonal communication measures and the demographic variable of sex. Specifically, males reported having more overall contact (males: M = 2.13, SD = .57; females: M = 1.85, SD = .49) and friendships (males: M = 2.17, SD = .84; females: M = 1.74, SD = .83) with non-Hispanic Americans than female participants. Finally, English language ability, behavioral competence, and contact with non-Hispanic Americans were found to be positively related to the predominant language used in participants' homes: with increasing use of English in the home, English language ability (r = .32, p < .01) and behavioral competence increased (r = .20, p < .05), as did participants' amount of contact with non-Hispanic Americans (r = .26, p < .01).

In summary, several of the background characteristics were found to correlate significantly with the research variables. In particular, generational status was found to be positively related to respondents' English language ability, behavioral competence, number of non-Hispanic American friends, amount of overall contact with non-Hispanic Americans, and level of satisfaction with life in the U.S. Interestingly, generational status was not found to be significantly correlated with either of the functional fitness

measures—school adjustment and academic performance—or the second psychological health variable, which assessed participants' sense of belongingness with respect to mainstream American society. In fact, one-way analysis of variance revealed there were no significant differences between the three groups—first, second, or third and higher generation Americans—on any of the four psychological health or functional fitness variables. This finding is supported by both the theory and previous empirical investigations, which contend cross-cultural adaptation is not a simple function of generational status.

Consistent relationships were also observed among several research variables and background characteristics related to the SES of participants' families. In particular, higher levels of parental education (both mother's and father's) were found to be positively related to participants' English language ability, behavioral competence, number of non-Hispanic American friends, amount of overall contact with non-Hispanic Americans, feelings of belonging and satisfaction, and level of school adjustment. Battle (2002), Krashen and Brown (2005), and Martinez and colleagues (2004) observed similar relationships between SES and indicators of cross-cultural adaptation: Krashen and Brown (2005) attribute this relationship to the adaptation advantages that high SES is indicative of: 1) youth who come to the United States with a high SES background have usually had formal education in their primary language, which contributes to their ability to learn a second language; 2) high SES is often associated with having caregivers who are more educated and capable of providing assistance with schoolwork; and 3) high SES means easier access to a "rich print environment," with more books available at home and in one's surroundings (pp. 192-193).

Other statistically significant relationships of note observed among the research and background variables can be summarized as follows:

- The amount of contact Hispanic youth have with non-Hispanics is related to the background variables of urban-rural setting and concentration of Hispanics in the student body population. Smaller community environments where there are relatively few Hispanics in the student body population are associated with greater levels of contact between the Hispanic students and non-Hispanics. Hispanic students' number of non-Hispanic American friends also increases as the relative number of Hispanic students in a school decreases.
- The host communication competence variables are related to the predominant household language of participants. Higher levels of English language ability and communication behavioral competence are associated with households where English is used more often than Spanish.
- 3. The host interpersonal communication variables are related to respondents' sex. Male Hispanic students report having more overall contact than females with non-Hispanics. Moreover, males report having more friendships than females with non-Hispanics. This finding may reflect culturally prescribed gender roles in which boys are socialized to be more active outside of the home than girls, thus having more opportunities to interact with non-Hispanics in the contexts of sports and work, and having more general freedom to socialize away from home (Mayo & Resnick, 1996; Wainryb & Turiel, 1994).

Theory-Testing

Of central interest to the current investigation is the theory-based examination of the cross-cultural adaptation of Hispanic youth. The descriptive findings related to the research variables presented in the previous chapter provide an overview of participants' responses to the individual scales in isolation from one another. Conversely, the following analyses constitute theory-testing, in that the hypothesized relationships among the research variables are examined. Results of simple correlational analyses between the individual scales are presented, followed by the results of a confirmatory factor analysis conducted to test the structure of relationships among the theoretical constructs. This section concludes with the results of the study's hypothesis tests.

Relationships among Research Variables

The research variables were found, for the most part, to be significantly and highly correlated. All correlations were in the predicted directions (see Table 5.4). Specifically, the host communication competence scales were found to be highly correlated with one another (r = .537, p < .01); the host interpersonal communication scales were also highly correlated (r = .592, p < .01), as were the scales measuring psychological health (r = .771, p < .01), and those used to assess respondents' functional fitness (r = .456, p < .01).

With regard to the relationships among the four theoretical constructs (i.e., host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness), the first three were found to be significantly correlated with each other. Specifically, the two host communication competence variables were individually correlated with both of the host interpersonal communication variables and both of the

Table 5.4

Correlation Matrix of Research Variables

	Host Communication Competence			rpersonal nication	Psycho Hea		Functional Fitness	
	Language Ability	Behavioral Competence	Non-Hispanic American Friends	Contact with Non-Hispanic Americans	Belonging	Satisfaction	School Adjustment	Academic Performance
Language Ability	.36	.537**	.198*	.309**	.396**	.417**	.151	.092
Behavioral Competence		.35	.338**	.341**	.621**	.546**	.330**	.336**
Non-Hispanic American Friends			.86	.592**	.401**	.275**	.254**	.163
Contact with Non-Hispanic Americans				.54	.524**	.462**	.436**	.136
Belonging					.34	.771**	.558**	.337**
Satisfaction						.38	.656**	.266**
School Adjustment							.30	.456**
Academic Performance								.76

Note. Values on the diagonal are standard deviations. *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

psychological health variables. The variables measuring the construct of functional fitness were correlated in the predicted directions with the variables from each of the other theoretical dimensions; however, these relationships were not found to be consistently significant.

Specifically, although "behavioral competence" is significantly correlated with both functional fitness measures, "school adjustment" (r = .33, p < .01) and "academic performance" (r = .34, p < .01), "language ability" is not. "School adjustment" was found to be significantly related to both host interpersonal communication variables, "non-Hispanic American friends" (r = .25, p < .01) and "contact with non-Hispanic Americans" (r = .44, p < .01), but "academic performance" was not significantly related to either of these host interpersonal communication variables. However, both psychological health variables are significantly correlated with the functional fitness variables. The psychological health variable of "belonging" was found to be positively related to "school adjustment" (r = .56, p < .01) and "academic performance" (r = .34, p < .01); "satisfaction," the second component of psychological health, was also positively correlated with "school adjustment" (r = .66, p < .01) and "academic performance" (r = .27, p < .01).

In general, the predicted interrelationships were observed among the four theoretical constructs of interest in the present investigation: Increased levels of host communication competence were found to be associated with greater amounts of host interpersonal communication, and stronger feelings of psychological health and functional fitness. The simple correlational analysis among the research variables, however, does not account for the influence background variables were demonstrated to

have on respondents' answers to the questionnaire items. The background variables considered in the previous section of this chapter showed several significant correlations with the research variables examined in the study. Thus, as potential confounds to the observed relationships among the research variables, the background variables were controlled for statistically in the final confirmatory factor analysis of the predicted interrelationships among the theoretical constructs.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Correlational analyses provided initial support for the predicted interrelationships among the theoretical constructs. In effort to explore the relationships more thoroughly and comprehensively, a structural equation modeling (SEM) approach was used in the specification of a first-order CFA model. SEM was selected as a statistical methodology because of its several advantages over other statistical methods, including the ability to comprehensively examine predicted relationships in a complete and simultaneous test, and the ability to analyze relationships among factors free of random measurement error. The conceptual model presented in Figure 2.3 is consistent with Kim's theory, which posits that cross-cultural adaptation is a system of reciprocal and interactive relationships among contributing factors. The statistical model is comprised of four inter-correlated latent constructs corresponding to the four theoretical constructs of Host Communication Competence, Host Interpersonal Communication, Psychological Health, and Functional Fitness. Each latent construct reflects, or predicts, the observed variables in the model, which correspond to the measures employed in the current study.

As previously noted, several background characteristics of participants (e.g., generational status, SES) were found to correlate significantly with the research

variables. Thus, background effects were controlled for statistically in the confirmatory factor analytic model. Controlling for their effects allows for interpretation of the predicted relationships absent the variability introduced into the model by these extraneous factors. Standardized regression residuals were obtained by regressing each of the research variables (e.g., language ability) onto the 11 control variables. The standardized residuals were then used to produce a correlation matrix that controlled for background effects.

The correlation matrix was analyzed using LISREL 8.80 Student Edition via the software's SIMPLIS command procedures. Latent constructs are source variables in a confirmatory factor analytic model and are scaled by setting their variance equal to 1.0, since the model is estimated from the correlation matrix produced from the raw data (Loehlin, 2004), or in this case, the residualized data. Thus, paths from observed variables to their respective latent constructs were freely estimated, as were the error variances of each of the observed variables. A negative error variance for the variable "school adjustment" resulted with the first specification of the model, which exhibited an otherwise acceptable global fit. Negative error variances can be the result of several factors, including multicollinearity, small sample sizes, outliers, and having fewer than three observed variables per latent construct (Garson, 2009). The research variables were examined for multicollinearity, and this explanation was ruled out: Tolerance values less than .10 are considered problematic, and none of the research variables exhibited less than .30 on this common collinearity diagnostic. The other possible explanations for initially obtaining a negative error variance will be addressed in the discussion chapter.

The hypothesized relationships in the study concern the predicted intercorrelations among the theoretical (latent) constructs, not the relationships among the individual observed variables. Thus, it was determined that modifying the model by standardizing and combining the two observed variables "school adjustment" and "academic performance" into a single composite scale to measure the latent construct Functional Fitness was a reasonable modification to make in effort to eliminate the negative error variance associated with "school adjustment." The new observed variable "functional fitness" ($\alpha = .78$) was regressed on the control variables to obtain standardized residuals, which were entered into the correlation matrix in place of the two original measures of this latent construct. The error variance for the single composite measure "functional fitness" was fixed to the variable's variance times one minus the reliability estimate for the variable (Bollen, 1989).

The statistical model (see Figure 5.1) was overidentified with nine degrees of freedom, and maximum likelihood (ML) was employed as the method of estimation in fitting the model. The resulting model was found to be reasonably good fitting on several absolute and incremental fit indices. The specified model was not rejected in the χ^2 goodness-of-fit test, χ^2 (df = 9, N = 112) = 16.09, $p = .065^3$. In addition, the SRMR was below the recommended ceiling of $\leq .05$ as indicative of good model fit (SRMR = .036). Incremental indices also indicated reasonably good fit of the model: the Tucker-Lewis (NNFI), the CFI, and the IFI were each above the fit criterion of $\geq .95$ (NNFI = .953, CFI = .980, IFI = .980). Finally, the population-based index RMSEA, which estimates how well the model would fit beyond this particular sample, indicated a "mediocre" to "reasonable" fit (RMSEA = .0842): The originator of the fit index considers values less

³ A significant chi-square in latent variable modeling indicates lack of satisfactory model fit.

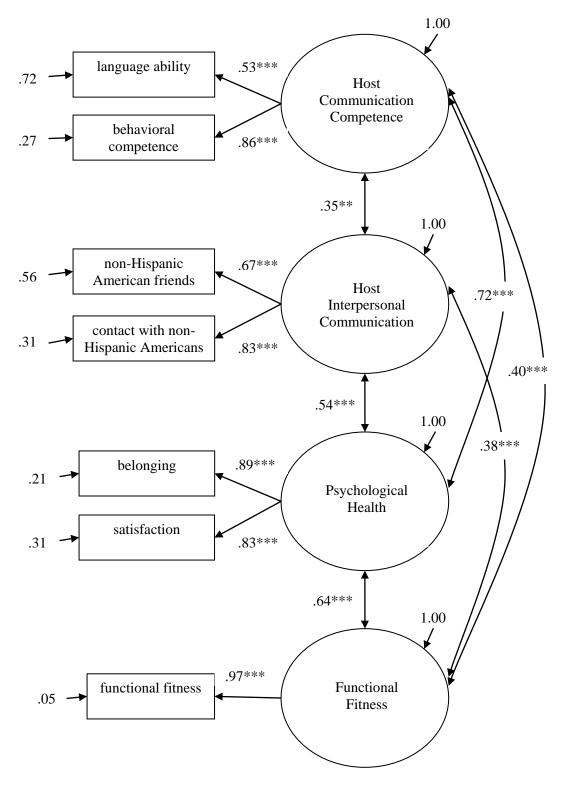


Figure 5.1. Confirmatory factor analytic model of cross-cultural adaptation. χ^2 (*df* = 9, *N* = 112) = 16.09, *p* = .065, SRMR = .036, NNFI = .95, CFI = .98, IFI = .98, RMSEA = .084. **p* < .05, two-tailed. ***p* < .01, two-tailed. ***p* < .001, two tailed.

than .10 to be "good" and values less than .05 to be "very good" (Steiger, 1989, p. 81). Others contend, however, less than .08 is a reasonable fit, between .08 and .10 a mediocre fit, and anything exceeding .10 is unacceptable (Brown & Cudeck, 1993). Examination of the standardized residuals revealed none of the residuals exceed three standard deviations from the mean.

All of the model's path coefficients were found to be significant. As indicated in Table 5.5, each of the factor loadings of observed measures on their respective latent constructs were found to be significant at the p < .001 level. The latent construct Host Communication Competence was shown to be a good predictor of language ability ($\beta = .53$, p < .001) and behavioral competence ($\beta = .86$, p < .001). Similarly, Host Interpersonal Communication was a good predictor of the number of non-Hispanic American friends respondents reported having ($\beta = .67$, p < .001) and their overall level of contact with non-Hispanic Americans ($\beta = .83$, p < .001). Psychological Health was also a good predictor of respondents' feelings of belonging ($\beta = .89$, p < .001) and satisfaction ($\beta = .83$, p < .001). Finally, the latent construct of Functional Fitness was found to be a good predictor of the composite measure of functional fitness ($\beta = .97$, p < .001), which represented the combined values of respondents' academic performance and adjustment to the school environment.

Hypothesis Testing

There are two specific research objectives this study aimed to accomplish: First, to replicate with a Hispanic adolescent sample, the findings of Maruyama (1998), who used SEM techniques to empirically establish posited interrelationships among the constructs of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, and

Table 5.5

	β	<i>p</i> -value	R^2
language ability	.532	.0001	.282
behavioral competence	.855	.0001	.732
non-Hispanic American friends	.666	.0001	.444
contact with non-Hispanic Americans	.829	.0001	.688
belonging	.887	.0001	.787
satisfaction	.831	.0001	.691
functional fitness	.974	.0001	.949

Standardized Estimates, Significance Levels, and R^2 for the CFA Model

psychological health articulated in Kim's (2001) theory; secondly, to test an extended statistical model that included a fourth theoretical construct, functional fitness, as it exists for Hispanic youth. Hypotheses 1 - 3 addressed the replication of Maruyama's findings with a new study population. Hypotheses 4 - 6 posited the integration of the functional fitness construct into the existing constellation of constructs examined using latent variable modeling techniques. Finally, hypothesis 7 posited the four theoretical constructs would operate as a system of positively interrelated relationships. Due to the advantages previously detailed, SEM statistical methods were used to test the hypothesized relationships, specifically, first-order CFA.

Replication of previous findings. Hypotheses 1 - 3 predicted positive interrelationships among the theoretical constructs of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, and psychological health within the context of Hispanic youth. Each of the hypotheses was supported by the results of the first-order CFA model. The host communication competence of Hispanic youth in this sample was found to be positively and significantly correlated with their host interpersonal communication (r = .35, p < .01), and their psychological health (r = .72, p < .001) (hypotheses 1 and 2). The host interpersonal communication of Hispanic adolescents was also found to be significantly and positively correlated with their psychological health (r = .54, p < .001) (hypothesis 3).

Incorporating functional fitness into the statistical model. Hypotheses 4 - 6 predicted positive interrelationships among each of the previously examined theoretical constructs and the additional construct of functional fitness. Results of the first-order CFA supported each of these hypotheses. The functional fitness of Hispanic adolescents

was found to be positively and significantly correlated with their host communication competence (r = .40, p < .001) (hypothesis 4), their psychological health (r = .64, p < .001) (hypothesis 5), and their host interpersonal communication (r = .38, p < .001) (hypothesis 6).

Hypothesis 7 predicted all four cross-cultural adaptation constructs (i.e., host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness) would constitute a network, or system, of positive interrelationships. Hypothesis 7 was also supported by the results of the CFA model. Positive and significant correlations were observed among each of the latent variables, which were specified in the CFA model to represent the theoretical constructs (see Figure 5.1). The four-factor model fitted in this study showed a slight improvement in global fit over Maruyama's (1998) three factor CFA model, based on reported fit indices.⁴

In summary, the first three hypotheses addressed replicating Maruyama's (1998) findings with a Hispanic youth population. Maruyama's three factor CFA model included the theoretical constructs of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, and psychological health. The CFA results in the present study supported the three hypotheses: The host communication competence of Hispanic adolescents was demonstrated to be positively associated with their levels of host interpersonal communication (hypothesis one) and psychological health (hypothesis two); and their host interpersonal communication was found to be positively associated with their level of psychological health (hypothesis three).

⁴ Maruyama (1998) reported GFI = .933, AGFI = .858, CFI = .924, and NNFI = .875 (N = 171). These values for the present model were: GFI = .960, AGFI = .876, CFI = .980, and NNFI = .953 (N = 112).

The second set of hypotheses predicted positive interrelationships among each of the previously examined theoretical constructs and a fourth construct of functional fitness. The CFA results supported each of the three hypotheses in this set. Specifically, results indicated Hispanic students' English language ability and behavioral competence contributes to their overall functional fitness to the U.S. American school environment (hypothesis four). Second, their functional fitness to the school environment is further facilitated by having contact and friendships with non-Hispanics (hypothesis five). Third, feelings of belonging and satisfaction with life in the United States among Hispanic youth contribute to their overall functional fitness to the school environment (hypothesis six). Importantly, these relationships are reciprocal: higher levels of functional fitness to the school environment further support the development of English language ability and behavioral competence; enhance their amount of contact and number of friendships with non-Hispanics; and contribute to the psychological well-being of Hispanic youth, in terms of enhancing feelings of belonging and satisfaction with life in the United States.

The final hypothesis addressed the system of relationships posited to exist among all four theoretical constructs. Results of the CFA model supported hypothesis seven. Thus, the present study's empirical findings lend support to Kim's (2001, 2005) theory, which conceptualizes cross-cultural adaptation as an interactive and reciprocal process among factors of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness.

Case Illustrations

As described in detail in chapter three, of a total of 112 interviews conducted, 43 respondents (38%) participated in the elaborated version of the interview, which included both closed- and open-ended questions. The open-ended question sets were designed to solicit from participants their personal experiences related to the quantitative measures assessed in the study. While an array of experiences were communicated by students who participated in the elaborated interviews, t-test examinations revealed significant differences existed between those students who participated in an elaborated interview and those who did not. Participants who had several non-Hispanic friends, t(110) = 2.41, p = .02, and a high level of overall contact with non-Hispanics, t(110) = 3.28, p = .001, were significantly more likely to be willing/able to participate in an elaborated interview. In addition, participants who scored high on their level of school adjustment, t(110) = 2.46, p = .02, and academic performance,

t(110) = 2.50, p = .01, were also significantly more likely to participate in the elaborated version. No significant differences were found between the groups on any of the host communication competence or psychological health variables. In sum, the sub-sample of students who participated in an elaborated interview was biased towards individuals who exhibited higher levels of host interpersonal communication and functional fitness. However, this is not indication these perspectives were missed entirely; it is only indication those low in host interpersonal communication and functional fitness were underrepresented within the sub-sample.

Two cases were selected from the 43 elaborated interviews to be presented as individual illustrations of the low and high ends of the cross-cultural adaptation

continuum. The two cases were selected by first examining the patterns of participants' quantitative responses to identify those individuals with the most consistently lowest and highest levels of adaptation, as measured by each of the research variables (e.g., language ability). After identifying three candidates each from the low and high ends of the continuum, the transcripts of these individuals' open-ended responses were reviewed to select the two (one low, one high) cases that were most clearly and fully articulated. These illustrations are not presented as representative of the sample, but are intended only to be vivid accounts of two participants' lived experiences in sharp relief, with respect to the theoretical constructs examined in the study.

The term case illustration is employed here to refer to the participant profiles, and should not be equated with the scope and intent of the qualitative methodology commonly referred to as case analysis, or case study. Orum, Feagin, and Sjoberg (1991) describe the case study methodology as one which reflects an in-depth, multifaceted investigation using qualitative research methods to explore a single social phenomenon. Case studies display great detail and often rely on the use of several data sources (p. 2), multiple follow-up interviews, and in-depth analysis of the environmental and situational context in which a given case is imbedded. In comparison, the case illustrations presented here provide an outline of an individual's experiences, absent the many features and contours which would be explored in a full case analysis. Each case illustration is intended only to highlight the dynamic interplay of the theoretical factors within the unified experience of an individual.

Alberto: Low-Level Cross-Cultural Adaptation

Alberto (pseudonym) is a twenty year old male completing his senior year at a high school located in a semi-urban environment with a thriving Hispanic community. Alberto was born and raised in Mexico, attending school there for nearly 14 years. Before coming to the United States, he had completed high school in Mexico and one semester of university study. Upon applying to attend college in the United States, however, he learned he would have to meet additional high school requirements to be admitted. He had been in the United States for less than a year at the time of his interview. Alberto's parents are both Mexican: his father farms and his mother is a homemaker; neither completed high school. The interview was conducted in Spanish, and later transcribed and translated by the same bilingual/bicultural research assistant (see Appendix 3 for the full interview transcript in both Spanish and English).

Host communication competence. Although Alberto reported Spanish and English are spoken equally at home, he experiences difficulty with English, especially when he is nervous and not among people he is close to. As he explained to the interviewer about a presentation he had to give in economics class, "when I try to present the works [his work] I don't know how to begin. I don't know what is the right word, how is the appropriate way to say it, and that's when I get nervous and I take more time." On the five item English language ability scale (M = 1.80),⁵ he indicated he feels only somewhat comfortable using English in daily contexts such as talking to non-Hispanics, taking care of everyday tasks, and doing school work. He reported feeling not at all, or not very comfortable using English to communicate with non-Hispanic Americans

⁵ Means provided in parentheses in this section are an individual's mean score on a composite scale. All scales range from 1-3, with the exception of academic performance, which is on a scale of F = .5 to A = 4.00.

informally in notes or emails. Asked to explain what he feels is the hardest thing about understanding or speaking English, Alberto stated both are difficult: understanding requires the mental effort "to relate each word with your own language," and with speaking, "not knowing how to begin...I want to say everything at once, but I don't have the right words to say it and then it gets complicated. I get frustrated more than anything."

On average, he reported feeling somewhat confident in his communication-related behavioral competence, assessed in this study using a ten item scale (M = 2.00). In the extremes of this measure, Alberto indicated he is almost always able to get the correct information when talking with non-Hispanic Americans, and he almost never feels clumsy or unnatural talking with them. However, he also indicated he almost never feels like a truly good communicator when interacting with non-Hispanic Americans, and almost never understands their jokes and sense of humor.

Like many of the interviewees in this study, Alberto expressed slightly more interest in U.S. American media and knowing English well than in cultivating interpersonal relationships with non-Hispanic Americans. On questionnaire items asking respondents to indicate to what extent they are motivated to "hang out" or make friends with non-Hispanics, Alberto indicated he is only somewhat interested. In his open-ended responses, he expressed his perception of non-Hispanics to be standoffish: "...the North Americans have, they are well, most of them a lot different. They are a little colder in general; they are not that charismatic..." He reported being very interested, however, in U.S. American movies, television, and music.

When asked to elaborate on activities he is interested in that he considers "mainstream" U.S. American activities, he relayed a strong motivation to play sports, particularly school soccer. His interest and motivation are frustrated by his age, however: "...in regards to playing sports, I'm trying to take the opportunities that I'm getting, but unfortunately, due to my age I can't play for this school and that's something that, well, if no one gets to see how I play it's something that interferes with getting an opportunity to play for a school [college], and that," he concludes, "would prevent me from returning to Mexico," which is his long term goal.

Alberto reported being somewhat interested in "fitting into" the larger U.S. American culture. Asked to explain whether his feelings about fitting in were the expression of his personal interests or pressure from others, he noted he feels no pressure to fit into "mainstream" society: "No I don't feel pressure, in fact, I feel normal and it's because there is a lot of Latinos here." Although not a focus in the present study, this finding is consistent with Kim's theory, which posits in host communication environments where ethnic group strength is high, ethnic group members will experience less motivation (internal and/or external) to adapt to the host environment.

Host interpersonal communication. With the exception of school projects and other activities where he is brought together with non-Hispanics to accomplish a task, Alberto indicated he rarely interacts with non-Hispanic Americans. On the six item scale assessing interpersonal contact (M = 1.50), Alberto reported he never, or very rarely, sits with non-Hispanic Americans at lunch, or "hangs out" with them outside of school. He also reported never, or very rarely, inviting them to his house, or being invited to theirs.

He described how interacting with non-Hispanic Americans makes him feel in the context of a couple examples:

Well, the only time that it [host interpersonal contact] happens was when my brother's friends invited me to a party and I also went and there were only North Americans, and well, I felt embarrassed. I couldn't talk, or I didn't want to, simply because. My brother told me that I should feel comfortable to say whatever I wanted, they wouldn't laugh at me or would not look at me weird, but it was a little hard...Also, when I just to go to the stores and someone would come up to me and would ask if I need something in particular, but because I was nervous, I would forget. I don't understand what they even ask, so I just tell them that I'm okay or I just pretend that I didn't hear.

Alberto reported most of his casual and close friends are Hispanic, or currently living in a Latin American country. Among his casual friendships, he estimated twenty are Hispanic or Latin American friends, five are non-Hispanic Americans, and three of his casual friends are from foreign countries outside of Latin America. In terms of his close friends, he indicated three are Hispanic or Latin American and two are non-Hispanic Americans. When asked about the racial or ethnic backgrounds of his three closest friends, Alberto identified two of them as being Mexican (in Mexico) and one being Mexican-American. In the open-ended question set associated with this topic, however, he contradicted himself by stating he does not really include any non-Hispanic Americans among his friends. When asked if he feels okay with not having any non-Hispanic American friends, Alberto stated he was satisfied:

If I feel good without them? Yes, because, simply because I haven't really been with them and also because of my age I don't think it's really necessary and also because I don't think I will spend that much time here. So, in the meanwhile I try to get away because I am not planning to stay here for a long time. I think that in a certain point, I don't know, I don't really care.

When pressed by the interviewer to further expound on why he hasn't formed any friendships with non-Hispanic Americans, Alberto cited his age and interests as factors:

I don't know. Because I don't really share the same things as them, we don't have the same likes, things to do. In regards to going out, like on the weekend, prom and homecoming are around the corner, and nothing close to what I like, it's very boring compared to what I am used to. It's a dramatic change. I was an adult in Mexico, but in here I'm still, well I get treated like a kid; I have more restrictions.

Psychological health. On closed-ended measures to assess respondents' sense of belonging and satisfaction with their lives in the U.S., Alberto expressed feeling somewhat alienated and only kind of satisfied/comfortable with his life in the United States. Specifically, on the ten item scale used to assess belonging (M = 2.00), he reported almost always feeling alone or left out by non-Hispanic Americans, as well as awkward and out of place living in the U.S. He also reported feeling kind of connected to, or part of the United States, and that he sometimes feels liked and fits in when "hanging out" with non-Hispanic peers. He is sometimes depressed and wishes he could permanently leave the United States, although he reports he almost always feels that non-Hispanic Americans care about him and how he's doing, particularly his teachers.

As is intimated throughout his interview, Alberto is very interested in soccer and confident in his abilities in this sport. The relative lack of interest in soccer he perceives exists among non-Hispanics is, for Alberto, a source of feeling alienated, and even discriminated against:

And in school, American football, they treat them too good, and in fact the majority of people that play sports such as basketball, American football-different from soccer--get treated really good. I don't know why, but some people have told me examples in which the basketball or football player will get food after practice. They would get cookouts, grilled meat, or any other food, and soccer players will get the leftovers. No one cares for them. There is more attention where there are more American students. It hasn't been that much time since I've been here, but I agree with that idea.

Asked by the interviewer to build from his soccer example in order to explain, in general, the attitudes or behaviors of non-Hispanics that make him feel unaccepted, Alberto described negative stereotypes he believes are held by non-Hispanic Americans about Hispanics:

More than anything is the way they think about us: Because "they" are Mexicans and because of the way "they" are, their family sells drugs or supposedly their family has kidnapped someone or they have killed someone. Always, it seems they [non-Hispanics] already have a fear, it's not admiration, but a fear of how "they" are, or where "they" are from, but they don't really bother to know that information. Not many Americans want to learn, and in fact, it's only the modest

[of means], because the ones that have money don't even bother to say hello, nothing.

On the eight item scale assessing satisfaction with life in the United States (M = 2.13), Alberto reported feeling very satisfied with his relationship to non-Hispanic American peers at school, and with the relations, in general, between Hispanic and non-Hispanic American students at school. He was only somewhat satisfied, however, with his personal friendships with non-Hispanic Americans and other items, including his level of comfort attending his particular school and with living in the United States. He expressed being not at all, or not very satisfied with living in the U.S. for the long term future. In his open-ended responses, Alberto identified material reasons for somewhat liking life in the United States, although he recognizes a trade off:

It would be only because you live better. Well, you live better, but with more restrictions. Because if you live better, that means you work more; if you work more, that means you don't spend much time with your family or with other friends. So, it's very, you incarcerate yourself and don't spend much time with people and I don't like it.

Asked by the interviewer to explain why it might be he hasn't found more to like about living in the United States, Alberto returned to the fundamental issue of host communication competence as a source of his dissatisfaction and daily frustrations:

Well, not speaking the language because that closes many doors. Like, I want to go to the store and I go alone, but I don't even know what to ask, who to ask, or how to ask him or her, and that changes a lot. How can I tell you? I'm not self-

sufficient in this country. It was a different story in Mexico, but not here. It's the language more than anything.

Functional fitness. On 16 closed-ended questions used to assess respondents' feelings of adjustment and competence in school, Alberto reported high levels of school adjustment (M = 2.75) and an A-B average in his GPA (M = 3.25). Specifically, he reported being highly adjusted to meeting school expectations, such as finishing homework, getting along with fellow students and teachers, not skipping school, and generally liking his classes. He also reported sometimes feeling lost, or out of place, in school, however. Moreover, he indicated being only somewhat interested in actively participating in school activities and not at all or not very interested in watching or attending school activities. In the content areas of English, math, and science, Alberto reported having a B-average; in social studies, his reported average was an A. When asked by the interviewer to give an example of something he feels he is good at in school, he identified sports and history as his strengths: "The only two that grab my attention the most are history and sports. In sports it's soccer, and in history more than everything because I liked what happened in World War II a lot, that's like my specialty. I know more about that, so it's easier to relate to it and I like it more."

Alberto reported that motivation is more of an issue for him than ability in school: When asked if he feels pretty much "in control" of things at school, or generally able to do the things his teachers expect him to, he replied:

Yes. It's because, in general, they [school tasks] are not hard, and in fact I have the time to get them done, it only depends on my decision. But sometimes I don't do them, like reading a book or studying for a test. I really don't study for the

exams...I trust myself. It's under my capacities and so I don't have to exceed more than what I need to get them done. I don't feel behind.

Although Alberto's high level of functional fitness in school does not correlate as predicted with his overall low levels of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, and psychological health, his open-ended comments suggest there are other areas of the host environment aside from school where he does not feel his internal capabilities meet the external challenges of the environment (Kim, 2001) (e.g., his statement that he is "not self-sufficient in this country [the U.S.]"). In general, Alberto's cross-cultural adaptation experiences provide an outline of an individual who is relatively low in his level of adaptation to the dominant U.S. American cultural milieu.

Pedro: High-Level Cross-Cultural Adaptation

Pedro (pseudonym) is a fifteen year old sophomore in high school, living in an urban area with a small Hispanic population. He is a second generation American, the son of parents who emigrated from El Salvador. His mother and father are both high school graduates, and his mother has also completed some college. Both of Pedro's parents have managerial/supervisory employment positions at an area meat packing facility. Pedro's interview was conducted in English and later transcribed by the primary investigator (see Appendix 4 for the full interview transcript).

Host communication competence. Pedro reported the predominant language used in his home is English, although in his open-ended responses he noted his parents are more fluent in Spanish than they are in English. On the five item scale assessing English language ability (M = 3.00), he indicated feeling very comfortable using English in each of the situations presented to him in the questions. In his open-ended responses,

he relayed that he has spoken both Spanish and English all of his life: "...it's [English] been a part of my whole life. Since I was a little kid I was learning how to speak English, too. And Spanish. So, it's just been there the whole time." When asked in a follow up question who he learned English from before he was in school, Pedro reported: "I'm guessing the TV at first. And my parents, and then preschool, if that counts." Pedro was in ESL for a short time in elementary school, and "after that," he reported, "it's been good." His overall confidence in his communication-related behavioral competence was also strong (M = 2.90): Although he indicated sometimes feeling clumsy or unnatural talking to non-Hispanic Americans, on the remaining nine items assessing behavioral competence he indicated the highest level of confidence in his abilities, for example, in comfortably carrying on conversation, feeling like a good communicator, and understanding non-Hispanic Americans' jokes and sense of humor.

On questionnaire items asking respondents to indicate to what extent they are motivated to adapt to the mainstream cultural environment, Pedro indicated a moderately high level of interest in both cultivating relationships with non-Hispanics and in enjoying U.S. American media forms. Specifically, he reported being very interested in "hanging out" and making friends with non-Hispanic Americans, and also very interested in U.S. American movies and television. When asked in the open-ended question set if he could think of examples of things he does or enjoys, that he considers to be "mainstream" U.S. American, Pedro reported he enjoys playing sports, among other things:

Yeah, I like playing sports a lot. And I play soccer and I'm doing track, too. And I also listen to radio stations besides Hispanic ones. Also I, wearing clothing, I don't know, somehow the Hispanic students wear different clothing. I wear like, I

go to [inaudible, but names a popular brand clothing store] and buy polos and like, classy clothes...not to make them [Hispanics] mad, but sometimes they wear their shorts all the way down to their legs and have baggy clothes. Nothing against them, I'm just, I don't wear...I just wear casual clothes.

When asked to estimate how frequently he participates in "mainstream" American cultural behaviors and activities, Pedro reported: "I have to say a lot during the whole week. Not every day, but mostly a lot." Cultural activities related to his Salvadorian heritage, he noted, mostly occur in conjunction with the Hispanic church his family attends. Finally, when asked how interested he is in belonging to, or fitting into, the larger U.S. American culture, Pedro indicated he is very interested, and underscored in his open-ended comments the naturalness with which he experiences fitting in: "I don't feel no pressure at all. I just feel like I fit in."

Host interpersonal communication. On each of the six closed-ended items used to assess respondents' amount of contact with non-Hispanics, Pedro reported interacting with non-Hispanics very often, both inside and outside of school (M = 3.00). These contexts include sitting with non-Hispanic Americans at lunch, working with them on school projects or as teammates in a sport, and "hanging out" with them informally. When asked in the open-ended question set if he could give an example of an activity he does with U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic, Pedro listed several sports he has been involved in, often times with mostly non-Hispanic teammates:

I used to play basketball when I was younger, and I was the only Hispanic kid on the team. Full of Americans, got along. Played good as a team. We didn't win, but it was fun. And soccer, too, well there's a couple Hispanic other kids, just me

and two other ones...we got along with everybody else. And then I also used to play tennis. I was the only one, and got along with everybody, no complications.

Aside from participation in school-sponsored athletics, Pedro described what he and his non-Hispanic American friends do outside of school: "We just play video games, a lot. Or just work out and...they're in my club team for soccer, too. We also go practice together and then just hang out..." Pedro also added to the list of activities the weekly poker games he and his non-Hispanic friends play on weekends.

Pedro reported having approximately equal numbers of non-Hispanic American friends and friends who are Hispanic or Latin American. Among his casual friendships, he estimated 60 are Hispanic or Latin American friends, 50 are non-Hispanic U.S. Americans, and 20 of his casual friends are from foreign countries outside of Latin America. In terms of his close friends, he indicated 15 are Hispanic or Latin American and 10 are non-Hispanic Americans. He also reported having 10 close friends from foreign countries outside of Latin America. Pedro identified the racial or ethnic backgrounds of his three closest friends as being Caucasian, South African American, and Greek American. Asked in a follow up question if he has Hispanic friends he feels as close to as the top three non-Hispanic friends he listed, Pedro clarified he has Hispanic cousins who he considers to be his very close friends also. In his open-ended responses, Pedro described the relationship he has with one of his close non-Hispanic friends:

Well, my friend, my good friend, he's my neighbor, too, couple blocks down the street. And we always hang out every summer since kindergarten, I'm guessing. And then every time we go watch the movies coming out, like a movie I remember we could go watch was *Transformers*, the first time ever watching that.

And then we go around on our bikes and play this game called the curb game where we ride our bikes on the curb and if you fall off you lose...yeah, it's a good relationship between us two. And then, now we can drive so we give each other rides to school every day. Carpool. And then we just hang out when we have the chance, and we also play the same club, too; we're in the same club team for soccer, we both played in high school soccer, too. And then, we've been through a lot, the whole childhood.

Finally, when asked how he formed his friendships with non-Hispanics, Pedro explained the importance of having contexts for intercultural contact:

By doing activities. Like for example, playing sports, just like talking, and then get close from there. And also, since elementary school we've been going, I go to the same school as they do and then we become good friends. And also from like, activities, or just meet someone you just want to meet and talk to them.

Psychological health. Pedro expressed mostly feeling a sense of belonging and satisfaction with life in the United States. For example, on the ten item scale used to assess belonging (M = 2.70), he reported almost always feeling like he fits in "hanging out" with non-Hispanics, feels connected to the U.S., and feels liked by his non-Hispanic American teachers and peers. Although he sometimes feels awkward, or out of place, living in the U.S., he indicated never, or almost never, feeling depressed or excluded by non-Hispanics.

Similar to Alberto, soccer is very important to Pedro. Unlike in Alberto's experience, however, Pedro's interest and skill in the sport have given him opportunities

to bond with non-Hispanics in a superordinate task: winning with his team. In Pedro's open-ended responses, he relayed a specific time he remembers feeling this bond:

We were in this tournament in Des Moines [Iowa] and we were, it's like soccer, so we're down two to one. We needed one more goal to tie it to go into overtime. I got this perfect ball, like it came right to me, passed, defended, and I shoot it and it goes in. And all the non-Hispanic players came to me and just, we celebrated when that goal was scored, and I felt like, wow, very comfortable, like I feel great around these people. Yeah. Yeah, and then the parents, too, they were just excited, happy, giving me high fives, hugs too. So it was a very nice feeling.

Asked to expand on his comments and to explain, in general, the attitudes or behaviors of non-Hispanics that make him feel accepted, Pedro described an attitude of dignity and respect he perceives non-Hispanic Americans feel toward him:

The way they treat me, like, they don't treat me like I'm dumb or anything. They treat me like an average person. They don't read slow for me, they actually put me at a higher pace because they expect great things out of me. And which I like that because I want to be challenged, show them that a Hispanic person can be better than an average American, which I like to do.

On the eight item scale assessing satisfaction with life in the United States (M = 2.63), Pedro reported feeling very satisfied with his relationship to non-Hispanic American peers at school, his friendships with them, and with the relations, in general, between Hispanic and non-Hispanic American students. He also reported feeling very comfortable interacting with non-Hispanic Americans, as well as attending his particular

school. In his open-ended responses, Pedro identified economic security and social stability as reasons he is satisfied with life in the United States:

Well, I like about the U.S. is that, when I went to El Salvador, the economy over there is not great. Living there is not great. Can't really trust people as much as here in the U.S. Like, you couldn't go outside. My grandparents don't even go outside because you can't trust no one down there in El Salvador, because sometimes it gets just too crazy. People bring guns and start shooting. I had an experience with my uncle. We were playing basketball down in El Salvador at a basketball court. Two guys came out with guns, luckily we walked away because we saw the gun. We walked away as fast as we could. And I knew it was a bad place to live. But here in the U.S., in my neighborhood, you know everybody, you can trust them. You know they're good people. And you can play outside, which is a good thing. And you can know your little brothers are out there perfectly fine. But sometimes there's some bad people, but it's not as bad as El Salvador.

On the closed-ended items assessing satisfaction, Pedro expressed feeling only somewhat comfortable, however, with living in the U.S., and only somewhat satisfied with the way he is treated by non-Hispanics. Asked in an open-ended question if he mostly likes life in the U.S. or only some parts, Pedro cited racism as a factor personally affecting his overall satisfaction with life in the U.S.:

I like it [life in the U.S.] a lot, it's just...the racism here in the U.S. can be very bad, which I don't like. I just want everybody to see everybody equal. There's nothing wrong with your skin color or where you come from. Sometimes people

look at me and they see me as a Mexican, which I am not. And I just want to be known as a Latino, a Latino American. I just, sometimes they make racial slurs,

too, which I, it's around the world, too, but it's pretty bad in the U.S., too. In his open-ended responses, Pedro described personal experiences he has had with racism in the United States:

I went to Omaha and there's this racial [sic] group, I'm guessing, playing basketball. And they wouldn't let us on the court. I don't know why. We just wanted to play basketball, but they said go back to Mexico and stop crossing the border. And I was devastated from it, but I just realize that's the people, people like that in the U.S.

In a separate example, he described another instance, which occurred in the town where he lives:

It [racism] happens here a couple of times. This one time I went to a gas station this old guy thought I was stealing something, for some reason. And then my friend told me it's because I'm Hispanic, and probably right, too, because he didn't say anything to my friend...and then I told him I had nothing in my pocket, and he's like, oh yeah, go back to Mexico. You Mexicans stop stealing our economy and stuff like that, which upset me a little bit, but I said something bad, too, which I'm not proud of, but yeah. It's the way people are, I'm guessing.

Asked if there were other things about life in the United States he was uncomfortable or dissatisfied with, Pedro concluded the dissatisfaction he feels is limited to the racist attitudes of some U.S. Americans: "Just the racism, that's it. Everything else is good."

Finally, Pedro indicated he is only somewhat satisfied with the prospect of living in the United States for the long term future. In his open-ended responses, he explained that although he mostly likes life in the U.S., in part, his desire to become a professional soccer player compels him to consider moving to a European country, specifically Spain:

I would like to move to Europe, because I heard they like, the economy's better than here in the U.S. right now...and that, also for the soccer, because soccer...pro [professional] for soccer is higher over there than the U.S. because soccer's not really a big sport here.

Although beyond the scope of the present investigation, Pedro's comments may reflect a developing sense of intercultural personhood (Kim, 2001, 2005), an observation that will be more fully considered below.

Functional fitness. On 16 closed-ended questions used to assess respondents' feelings of adjustment and competence in school, Pedro reported high levels of school adjustment (M = 2.83) and a B average in his GPA (M = 3.00). Specifically, he reported being highly adjusted to meeting school expectations, such as finishing homework, getting along with fellow students and teachers, not skipping school, and enjoying both active and passive participation in school activities. In the content areas of English and math, Pedro reported having a B-average. In science, his reported average is a C, and in social studies it is an A. When asked to give an example of something he feels he is good at in school, he identified sports and several academic strengths:

... for sports, soccer, I made the varsity team sophomore year, and I started, too.

And then for classes, algebra, I do algebra. For some reason I like to, I like numbers and I get them crunched down. I don't know how you explain it, but I just like it. And then Spanish III I can be good at...And then biology, oh, it's amazing. I like to learn about how life works and everything. It's easier for me to understand that instead of like physical science. I don't really like to learn about rocks and stuff, I just find that boring. Not the best grade I ever got in that class, but you just got to work hard in every class.

Pedro expressed in his open-ended comments a sense of competence and selfefficacy in school, which he attributes to his ability to control his response to stress. When asked if he feels pretty much "in control" of things at school, or generally able to do the things his teachers expect him to, he replied:

Yeah, I do feel comfortable and I can do what they tell me to do. If they tell me, write a one page essay due the next day, I'll do it. Or just tell me to, I got a group assignment to do, I'll work with the other kids and hopefully we all can work together and get a good grade...You have to be calm about everything. You can't panic. If you do panic, you're going to get messed up. You're not going to do well. You always have to be calm, that's what I like to think. Everything just be calm, then have a good day. Make the best out of nothing.

Pedro's cross-cultural adaptation experiences provide an outline of an individual who is relatively advanced in his level of adaptation to the dominant U.S. American cultural milieu. As a second generation American who is fluent in English and who experienced his primary socialization in the United States, Pedro's level of adjustment is predictably higher than Alberto's, who is foreign born and who only recently arrived in the United States.

The two case profiles in juxtaposition provide an illustrative contrast of the high and low extremes in cross-cultural adaptation experiences, as conveyed by participants in this research. Furthermore, they illustrate the dynamic interplay among the four theoretical constructs, and highlight other important theoretical factors not examined in the present investigation. Alberto and Pedro were purposively selected from the 43 individuals who participated in the elaborated version of the interview to provide distinct outlines of individuals currently at opposite ends of the cross-cultural adaptation continuum, with respect to the theoretical constructs examined in the present study.

On the cross-cultural adaptation dimension of host communication competence, Alberto both numerically and qualitatively reported feeling less confident than Pedro in his communication abilities with non-Hispanics; he also expressed less interest in adapting to, or fitting into, the larger U.S. American culture. Alberto reported feeling only somewhat comfortable using English in most situations, and at times, feeling not at all or not very comfortable. In his open-ended responses, he explained his frustrations with speaking English: "not knowing how to begin... I want to say everything at once, but I don't have the right words to say it and then it gets complicated. I get frustrated more than anything." Conversely, U.S. American English comes relatively easily to Pedro, who is bilingual in Spanish and English, and rated his English language ability and behavioral competence to be very strong. In Pedro's open-ended comments, he explained he has been bilingual for as long as he can recall: "...it's [English] been a part of my whole life. Since I was a little kid I was learning how to speak English, too. And Spanish." With respect to adaptive motivation, the emotional dimension of host communication competence, whereas Alberto limited his reported interest in U.S. American culture to

American media and learning English, Pedro's interest extended beyond mass communication and language to include interest in maintaining interpersonal relationships with non-Hispanics.

On the cross-cultural adaptation dimension of host interpersonal communication, Pedro reported having more contact and more friendships with non-Hispanics than Alberto reported. Specifically, Pedro indicated interacting with non-Hispanics very often in a variety of contexts, both inside and outside of school. Moreover, he identified roughly half of his casual and close friendships as being with non-Hispanics. In his openended responses, Pedro listed several extracurricular activities he has participated in with non-Hispanics and several activities he enjoys doing outside of school with his non-Hispanic friends. Asked to explain how he formed his friendships with non-Hispanics, Pedro attributes his diverse network to participation in activities and the ability to spark up conversations: "By doing activities. Like for example, playing sports, just like talking and then get close from there...or just meet someone you want to meet and talk to them."

Conversely, Alberto indicated rarely interacting with non-Hispanics voluntarily, and reported having almost no relationships with non-Hispanics he would consider to be friendships. In Alberto's open-ended responses, he describes contact with "North Americans" as uncomfortable and embarrassing, primarily because of his low English language ability: Relaying an example of shopping at a store, Alberto stated: "I don't understand what they even ask [sales associates], so I just tell them I'm okay or I just pretend that I didn't hear." Asked why he hasn't formed any friendships with non-Hispanics, Alberto expressed feeling as though, aside from the language barrier, there are

no shared interests between non-Hispanics and himself: "...I really don't share the same things as them, we don't have the same likes, things to do..."

On the cross-cultural adaptation dimension of psychological health, Alberto expressed feeling more alienated and less satisfied with life in the United States than did Pedro. Alberto expressed his feelings of alienation, or not belonging to the mainstream culture around him, with respect to his interest in soccer. Specifically, he noted that compared to other sports played in his school, "soccer players will get the leftovers. No one cares for them. There is more attention where there are more American [non-Hispanic] students." He also indicated feeling he is regularly stereotyped by non-Hispanics in negative ways: "Always, it seems, they [non-Hispanics] already have a fear [of Hispanics], it's not admiration, but a fear of how 'they' [Hispanics] are, or where 'they' are from...not many Americans want to learn, and in fact, it's only the modest [of means], because the ones that have money don't even bother to say hello, nothing." In terms of his level of satisfaction with life in the United States, Alberto indicated he is satisfied to the extent he is able to "live better" in the U.S., but recognizes this as a trade off for working more than spending time with the people he cares about. Ultimately, he reported being not at all, or not very satisfied with living in the United States for the long term future, and expressed his intentions to eventually return to Mexico.

Comparatively, Pedro expressed a sense of belonging to the larger U.S. American cultural milieu, and a deeper level of satisfaction with life in the United States, despite what he identifies as the racist attitudes of some U.S. Americans. Similar to Alberto, soccer is very important to Pedro, but unlike in Alberto's experiences, soccer has provided a context by which Pedro has formed bonds with non-Hispanics. In his open-

ended responses, Pedro relayed the story of a time he scored an important goal in a soccer game and felt a deep sense of belonging with respect to his teammates and their parents: "And all the non-Hispanic players came to me and just, we celebrated when that goal was scored, and I was like, wow, very comfortable, like I feel great around these people. Yeah. Yeah, and then the parents, too, they were just excited, happy, giving me high fives, hugs, too." While suggesting in his open-ended comments that most non-Hispanics make him feel accepted, there are instances he recalls where the racist actions of some have lessened his level of satisfaction with life in the United States. Despite these occurrences, Pedro appears to attribute the racist actions to the people, and not to U.S. Americans in aggregate, as evidenced by his comments concluding the retelling of each instance: "...I just realize that's the people, people like that in the U.S." and "It's the way people are, I'm guessing." Like Alberto, Pedro envisions leaving the United States someday; unlike Alberto, however, he reported being at least somewhat satisfied with the prospect of staying in the U.S. for the long term future. Moreover, rather than sharing Alberto's desire to return to his family's county of origin (El Salvador), Pedro expressed a desire to move to Europe, specifically Spain. The potential implications of this finding will be further considered below.

Finally, on the cross-cultural adaptation dimension of functional fitness, Pedro indicated slightly higher levels of school adjustment, but slightly lower levels of academic performance than Alberto reported. Specifically, Pedro indicated feeling well adjusted to meeting the expectations placed on him in the school environment, and that he enjoys actively participating in school activities, as well as watching or attending them. In his open-ended responses he noted both extracurricular and academic strengths

and expressed a sense of competence and self-efficacy in school, which he attributed to his ability to control his response to stress: "I do feel comfortable and can do what they tell me to do...You have to be calm about everything. You can't panic. If you do panic, you're going to get messed up. You're not going to do well..."

On the numerical measures of functional fitness, Alberto reported only slightly lower levels of school adjustment than Pedro, and a slightly higher GPA (academic performance). Like Pedro, he indicated feeling well adjusted to meeting school expectations, although he reported lower overall interest in participating in extracurricular activities. Motivation, Alberto reported, is more of a challenge for him than ability in school: "...in general they [school tasks] are not hard, and in fact I have time to get them done, it only depends on my decision...It's under my capacities and so I don't have to exceed more than what I need to get them done. I don't feel behind." As previously noted, although Alberto's high level of functional fitness to the school environment does not correspond as predicted with his overall low levels of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, and psychological health, his open-ended responses indicated there are other areas of the host environment aside from school where Alberto does not feel his internal capabilities meet the external challenges of the environment (Kim, 2001) (i.e., he does not feel functionally fit). Specifically, when asked to explain the source of his overall dissatisfaction with life in the United States, Alberto expressed experiencing frustration in routine kinds of interaction due to the language barrier, "I'm not self-sufficient in this county. It was a different story in Mexico, but not here..."

No single operational definition can fully capture the meaning of a theoretical construct (Chaffee & Berger, 1987), and in this study, the operational definition of functional fitness was narrowly defined as fitness within the school environment. As Alberto's case indicates, there are clearly areas of the host environment aside from school that Hispanic youth must navigate on a regular basis, for example, work environments and the marketplace. Future research with school-aged participants might benefit by broadening this operational definition of functional fitness to include contexts outside of school. It is worth noting in the present case, however, Alberto had already graduated from high school in Mexico; his age (20) and possible previous exposure to the academic content he was learning in his U.S. American high school are potential confounds to observing the connection between adaptation and fitness to the school environment as it exists for most young people; the statistical findings in the present study, in fact, support the significance of this relationship.

In addition to illustrating the four theoretical constructs examined in the present study, the case illustrations also highlighted other important theoretical constructs identified in Kim's (2001, 2005) theory. Specifically, Alberto's profile highlighted the influence of ethnic group strength on the process of cross-cultural adaptation: In response to an open-ended question asking him if he feels any pressure to fit into mainstream U.S. American culture, Alberto reported "No, I don't feel pressure, in fact, I feel normal and it's because there is a lot of Latinos here." Alberto's comment is consistent with Kim's (2001) construct of ethnic group strength and related constructs of institutional completeness (Breton 1964, 1991) and ethnolinguistic vitality (Giles, Bourhis, & Taylor, 1977), which suggest in host environments where ethnic group strength is high, ethnic

group members will experience less motivation (internal and/or external) to adapt to the host environment.

Pedro's profile provided another observation with theoretical implications: Pedro's comments reflected a developing sense of intercultural personhood, which Kim (2001, 2005) describes as emerging from the simultaneous development of individualization and universalization of personal identity. In essence, Pedro's comments (e.g., "they're just good people," "that's the way people are," "there's some bad people") and his desire to pursue his goal of being a professional soccer player in a third culture that is neither his family's country of origin (El Salvador) nor his native born culture (U.S.) may indicate, despite his youth, Pedro is more than adapted to any single cultural context and is "becoming intercultural" in his identity (Kim, 2001). Each of these areas of theoretically-relevant findings from the two case illustrations provide a platform for potentially fruitful future research with immigrant and minority youth.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The present study sought to determine if the cross-cultural adaptation processes observed in previous research among adult populations apply to immigrant and minority Hispanic youth adjusting to the mainstream U.S. American cultural milieu. The study examined the interrelationships among four theoretical constructs in Kim's (1979, 1988, 2001, 2005) theory of cross-cultural adaptation, including host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness. Previous research (Maruyama, 1998) examined the interrelationships among the first three of the above constructs utilizing an SEM approach: In addition to testing the theory in a youth context, the present investigation introduced the fourth construct, functional fitness, into the confirmatory factor analytic model. Seven hypotheses were tested and supported in the study. In addition, two case illustrations were provided as examples of the dynamic interplay of the four theoretical factors within the unified experiences of individuals. The study's findings lend empirical support to Kim's (1979, 1988, 2001, 2005) theory of cross-cultural adaptation and suggest fruitful areas of future investigation.

Key Descriptive Findings

Prior to examining the structural relationships among the four theoretical constructs investigated in this study, descriptive findings with respect to the research variables were presented in Chapter Four. Among the descriptive findings were patterns observed among participants' collective responses to individual scale items that further explicate their cross-cultural adaptation experiences. Three key descriptive findings can

be distilled from the data: 1) individuals who participated in this research generally view being in the United States positively; 2) participants generally express more interest in the opportunities they have in the United States than interest in adapting to the larger U.S. American cultural milieu; and 3) participants report they struggle with issues of prejudice and discrimination as a result of their ethnic background.

Overall, the Hispanic youth who chose to participate in this research reported generally liking life in the United States. Mean scores on the research variables tended to fall between participants feeling moderately to highly adjusted on the theoretical dimensions of host communication competence, psychological health, and functional fitness. Mean scores on scale items related to these dimensions were generally highest on items pertaining to enjoyment of U.S. American entertainment forms (e.g., movies, television, music), the opportunity to learn English, and feeling comfortable living in the United States for both the short- and long-term future. High scores were also observed among items related to participants' positive interactions with non-Hispanic American peers at school, their teachers, and their personal friendships with non-Hispanic Americans. This finding observed from the aggregated data was also highlighted in the open-ended comments contributed by Pedro in his interview, in which he relayed his overall feelings of safety and stability with respect to life in the United States:

...here in the U.S., in my neighborhood, you know everybody, you can trust them, you know they're good people. And you can play outside, which is a good thing. And you can know you're little brothers are out there perfectly fine. But sometimes there's some bad people, but it's not as bad as El Salvador.

Although respondents generally reported liking life in the United States, they tended to express more interest in the opportunities they have in the U.S. than interest in adapting to the larger U.S. American cultural milieu. On the same scales identified in the previous paragraph, mean scores were often lowest on items related to participants' level of interest in "fitting into" the larger national culture and interest in pursuing interpersonal contact and developing friendships with non-Hispanic Americans. In their open-ended comments, both Alberto and Pedro noted utilitarian, or practical, interests with respect to living in the United States. Asked what things he likes about life in the U.S., Alberto echoed Pedro's sentiments highlighted above with regard to stability:

It would be only because you live better. Well, you live better but with more restrictions. Because if you live better that means you work more. If you work more, that means you don't spend much time with family or with other friends...and I don't like it.

Moreover, Pedro's comments seem to reflect an ambivalence toward U.S. American culture: While Pedro is highly adapted to the U.S. American cultural mainstream, he is aware of, and distances himself from, the racist attitudes held by some U.S. Americans. Moreover, "because soccer's not really a big sport here [U.S.]," Pedro envisions himself one day moving to Europe, where he perceives more people share his interest in the sport.

Both Pedro and Alberto's case illustrations also lend support to descriptive findings in the study related to participants' reported struggles with issues of prejudice and discrimination as a result of their ethnic background. As examined in detail in the previous chapter, both case illustrations make reference to experiences they have had with racist or discriminatory behavior either personally or vicariously through others as a

result of their Hispanic ethnic heritage. Descriptive findings on the aggregated data reveal these experiences to be shared by several others in the sample. Specifically, mean scores on the satisfaction scale were lowest on participants' collective satisfaction with the relationship, in general, between Hispanic and non-Hispanic students at their school, and they way they feel they are treated by non-Hispanics.

Key Findings with respect to Kim's Theory

The primary focus of this research is to examine the phenomenon of cross-cultural adaptation among Hispanic youth from a theoretical perspective. With respect to Kim's (1979, 1988, 2001, 2005) theory, two key theoretical findings emerging from the current investigation are as follows: 1) the present study lends further support to Kim's conceptualization of adaptation as a function of communication, and not a simple function of generational status; and 2) the present study lends further empirical support to the posited dynamic and reciprocal relationships among the theoretical constructs of host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health and functional fitness.

First, as part of the background information collected on participants in the present investigation, the generational status of respondents was analyzed in order to ascertain if significant differences existed among the groups (foreign born, second generation, and third or higher generation) on the indicators of adaptation employed in the study. A key finding from this analysis is that there were no significant differences based on the generational status of Hispanic youth on any of the four psychological health or functional fitness variables. Although adaptation occurs over the course of generations, and generational status is therefore often correlated statistically with

indicators of adaptation, generational status is merely a proxy of the processes occurring that are producing change within individuals. Generational status is not a theoretical explanation to the extent that it does not explain why change occurs. Placing adaptation at the intersection of the person and the environment, Kim's theory conceptualizes adaptation as a process that occurs through communication activities. Without communication, adaptation cannot take place; moreover, adaptation will occur as long as individuals remain in interaction with the host environment (2005). That generational status was found to correlate positively with host communication competence and host interpersonal communication variables, but no significant differences were exhibited among the generations on psychological health or functional fitness, is indicative that generation is operating only indirectly on the process of cross-cultural adaptation. In essence, regardless of their generational status, if Hispanic youth do not communicatively engage with members of the larger U.S. American culture, psychological adjustment and functional fitness to the mainstream environment are not facilitated.

Second, the host communication competence of Hispanic adolescents was demonstrated to be positively associated with their levels of host interpersonal communication (hypothesis one) and psychological health (hypothesis two); and their host interpersonal communication was found to be positively associated with their level of psychological health (hypothesis three). In other words, higher levels of English language ability and behavioral competence were found to facilitate having contact and making friends with non-Hispanics. Reciprocally, these interpersonal relationships further contribute to Hispanic students' development of host communication competencies. In addition, as predicted in hypothesis three, interpersonal relationships

with non-Hispanics contribute to Hispanic youths' sense of belongingness and satisfaction with life in the United States.

Furthermore, Hispanic students' English language ability and behavioral competence were found to contribute to their overall functional fitness to the U.S. American school environment (hypothesis four). Their functional fitness to the school environment, in turn, is further facilitated by having contact and friendships with non-Hispanics (hypothesis five). Finally, feelings of belonging and satisfaction with life in the United States among Hispanic youth were found to contribute to their overall functional fitness to the school environment (hypothesis six). Importantly, these relationships are reciprocal: higher levels of functional fitness to the school environment further support the development of English language ability and behavioral competence; enhance their amount of contact and number of friendships with non-Hispanics; and contribute to the psychological well-being of Hispanic youth, in terms of enhancing feelings of belonging and satisfaction with life in the United States.

These findings support the theoretical proposition that communication drives psychological and sociocultural change within an individual, and in turn, these changes influence our communication patterns and behaviors.

Implications

There are several theoretical, methodological, and practical implications stemming from this research. In overview, the study explored current boundary conditions of Kim's (2001, 2005) theory, examining cross-cultural adaptation among Hispanic youth from a theoretical perspective. Methodologically, the study developed and tested a scale to assess school adjustment as an indicator of functional fitness,

fruitfully utilized the face-to-face interview method, employed SEM techniques to simultaneously examine predicted interrelationships among theoretical constructs, and incorporated case illustrations to further demonstrate the dynamic interplay among the constructs. Finally, some practical implications of the research are offered.

Theoretical Implications

Kim's (2001, 2005) theory has been primarily used in previous research to examine the cross-cultural adaptation of adult immigrants and sojourners, although the theory also applies to understanding the adjustment of individuals crossing subcultural lines (see Kim, Lujan, & Dixon, 1997; Norton, 1990). However, one of the current boundary conditions of the theory is its applicability to individuals who have experienced their primary socialization in one culture (or subculture) and have since moved to another, unfamiliar, culture (or subculture) (Kim, 2001). Thus, "the present theoretical domain does not directly address the situations of young children who accompany their parents to a new culture" (Kim, 2001, p. 34). This study explored these boundaries, demonstrating the same factors influencing the adaptation outcomes of adults are applicable to understanding the adaptation outcomes of youth who are crossing cultural lines in their daily communication environments.

Specifically, the study found empirical support for the proposition that communication with non-Hispanics plays an important role in the psychological and sociocultural adjustment of Hispanic youth to the larger U.S. American society. Structural analysis found host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, psychological health, and functional fitness to be significantly intercorrelated. Moreover, one-way analysis of variance demonstrated psychological health

and functional fitness are not simply a function of generational status; rather, as posited by the theory, psychological and sociocultural adjustment appear to be driven by communicative exchange with the larger cultural environment. Regardless of generational status, those participants who reported the most contact and interpersonal involvement with members of the larger U.S. American culture also reported stronger feelings of psychological well-being and feelings of functional fitness to the larger cultural environment.

While much of the research on the psychological and sociocultural adjustment of Hispanic youth has hypothesized about the relationships among various indicators of these two broad concepts, very few studies have been conducted using a theoretical framework. Prediction without explanation misses the mark of scientific inquiry, however, and contributes very little to our understanding of the phenomena observed. This study provides a theoretically-based explanation for the observed relationships among indicators of adaptation, or adjustment. In essence, a strength and implication of the present study is its ability to explain the why and how of the various relationships observed among indicators of cross-cultural adaptation.

The findings of this study contribute to the extensive body of interdisciplinary research investigating the phenomenon of cross-cultural adaptation. First, the findings lend further support to Kim's (2001) comprehensive theory, which has been tested in a variety of research contexts. The results of this study are consistent with findings from Maruyama's (1998) research, which found support for the predicted interrelationships within the context of international students studying in a non-Western culture (Japan), and with findings from Kim, Lujan, and Dixon (1998), which demonstrated the theory's

applicability to understanding the adjustment of a subcultural group to a larger national culture in the context of American Indians in Oklahoma. The current investigation similarly demonstrated the theory's broad applicability in the context of understanding the adaptation process as it occurs in a subcultural youth population, specifically Hispanic adolescents in the upper Midwestern United States.

Second, this study's findings contribute to the growing body of research specifically concerned with investigating the adaptation of immigrant youth. In addition to demonstrating support for a viable theoretical framework from which to further study cross-cultural adaptation in youth populations, the present study has further contributed to the development and refinement of a school adjustment scale to assess youth sociocultural adjustment, or functional fitness. Previous investigations by Sam (1994) and Berry, Phinney, Sam, et al. (2006) have made failed attempts to develop a sufficiently reliable measure of school adjustment ($\alpha \ge .70$) (Nunnally, 1978) in their studies of youth undergoing cross-cultural transition in societies around the world; the present study brings such efforts a step closer to further refinement of a concise and reliable scale.

Methodological Implications

In addition to theoretical implications, the present study has several methodological implications. First, the use of a structural equation modeling (SEM) approach has been further demonstrated to be an effective and compelling means by which to test Kim's (2001, 2005), and other theories. When the phenomenon of interest is complex and multidimensional, SEM is the only analysis that can accomplish complete and simultaneous tests of all predicted relationships. SEM uniquely evaluates global fit

(the model as a whole) via various goodness-of-fit indices, and local fit (individual relationships within the model) via correlational and regression statistics. Moreover, SEM has the unique advantage of extracting measurement error from the model. Thus, the calculated parameters reflect the "true" relationships that exist among the latent constructs absent the unreliability within the indicators used to measure the variables of theoretical interest (latent constructs). With the exception of Maruyama (1998), previous research examining this theory has relied on statistical techniques that can only test the theory piece by piece (e.g., correlation, ANOVA, and regression). This study extended the CFA model by incorporating another dimension of the theory, functional fitness, into the latent factor analysis.

Second, this study underscores the desirability of face-to-face interviews, especially in research with young people. Unlike survey questionnaires where participants are asked to complete and return the questionnaire to the researcher (or complete the survey online), or where surveys are handed out for participants to complete individually in class, the face-to-face format allowed for the researcher and participant to interact for purposes of question clarification, as well as interpersonal rapport. The use of face-to-face interviews underscored to young participants the importance and seriousness of the research, and the importance of their contribution to it, whereas with more anonymous designs this message is far more subtle. Although more labor intensive as a method of data collection, the benefits for this study included complete data for all participants on the research variables, with no cases identified as outliers due to careless completion of the questionnaire (e.g., response sets).

Third, the scale developed for this study to assess school adjustment proved to be reliable and effective as a measure of functional fitness in a youth population. The scale included items designed to assess how successful respondents perceive themselves to be at accomplishing everyday tasks expected in school, as well as items to assess how connected students feel to their school communities. The measures can be easily adopted for studies of youth from other ethnic backgrounds and cross-ethnic comparisons in the United States, as the measures are not culture-specific.

Fourth, although the current study focused on theory testing using quantitative methods, the study also incorporated a qualitative component to "flesh out" the relationships among theoretical constructs through the unique experiences of individual participants. Methodologically, the use of multiple methods in research helps to mitigate the disadvantages of any single method used alone, while capitalizing on their various strengths: whereas quantitative analysis is weak in understanding the lived experiences of individuals, qualitative research is weak in generalizing findings to larger groups (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). A multi-method approach allows the researcher to view phenomena from general and specific vantage points. Future research would benefit from further combining quantitative and qualitative forms of data collection and analysis in order to more comprehensively capitalize on the unique strengths of each.

Practical Implications

Perhaps the most important practical implication of the study is its re-affirmation that the U.S. American educational system is uniquely situated at the intersection of cultural diversity and the cultural mainstream. Often among the very first of American institutions immigrant families interface with, and charged with the responsibility of

preparing all students to be successful members of the larger society, American schools face unique and significant challenges. It is this researcher's hope that the present study offers helpful insights into easing and facilitating intercultural communication and cross-cultural adaptation within youth populations.

To begin, the results of the study underscore the importance of communication as the fundamental mechanism through which adjustment to the cultural environment occurs. Specifically, the present study found the amount of interpersonal contact Hispanic youth have with non-Hispanics correlates more consistently with other indicators of cross-cultural adaptation than any other measure. Contact, via contexts such as working on group projects together in school and participating in extracurricular activities, was found to be a stronger correlate to adaptation than even the number of non-Hispanic friends participants reported having. Moreover, this study found that much of the contact that occurs between Hispanic and non-Hispanic youth occurs in the school environment. The descriptive analysis showed Hispanic students' interaction with non-Hispanic students does not occur often, especially outside of organized school activities. Respondents were least likely to have invited non-Hispanic friends to their homes or hung out with them outside of school. The highest levels of contact with non-Hispanics came from involvement (both voluntary and involuntary) in organized school and community activities.

With respect to Hispanic youth themselves, the practical implications of the study's findings include awareness of the relationship found to exist between host interpersonal communication and host communication competence, psychological health, and functional fitness to the larger U.S. American cultural environment. In essence,

contact and maintenance of interpersonal relationships with non-Hispanics is foundational to enhancing one's sense of belongingness and satisfaction with life in the United States, as well as one's overall fitness to meet the challenges posed by the larger cultural environment. The descriptive analysis indicated Hispanic youth are more inclined toward involvement with U.S. American culture via its media forms (movies, television, and music) than through direct interpersonal contact with U.S. American cultural members. Based on the findings of the present study, Hispanic youth seeking to develop their competencies to more successfully operate within the larger U.S. American cultural environment, should seek out opportunities to interact directly with members of the cultural mainstream. Over time, direct interpersonal communication facilitates the development of one's linguistic skills and communication behavioral competence, which in turn, enhances one's sense of belonging and satisfaction, as well as confidence to meet the external challenges of the environment.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study provides a snapshot of the cross-cultural adaptation experiences of Hispanic youth in the Siouxland area, but limitations accompanied its design and implementation. First, the data collected are self-report and cross-sectional. Future research would benefit from the incorporation of other sources of information, such as the perceptions of teachers, parents, and/or non-Hispanic American peers with regard Hispanic youths' level of adaptation to the larger cultural milieu. Moreover, ethnographic descriptions of the school and community environments would provide valuable information about the contexts in which Hispanic youth are acculturating, and allow for more informed interpretation of findings. Relatedly, the study is cross-sectional in

design; although the snapshot approach to adaptation research can provide valuable insights into the social and psychological processes occurring across levels of adaptation, future research using a longitudinal design would allow for the corroboration of crosssectional findings.

Second, the variables examined and the measures used to assess them were selected from among a wide variety of factors and measures that could have been used to look at the acculturation of youth. Even important dimensions of factors in Kim's theory were bracketed in order to facilitate manageability of data collection and analysis. The specific variables chosen and the measures used to assess them likely influenced the study's findings. An important goal for future projects will be the testing of other variables within the model in order to form a more complete picture of how the theoretical constructs relate to one another in a variety of research contexts.

Third, due to limited amounts of time and resources, the recruitment, training, and compensation of multiple bilingual/bicultural research assistants was unfeasible for the present study. As such, study participants were given several opportunities between the time of their recruitment and their interview appointment to choose which language they wished to participate in: Spanish, English, or some combination (Spanglish). The single bilingual/bicultural assistant on staff led all interviews conducted in Spanish; in those cases where participants chose English, every effort was made to arrange for the assistant to be in the interview with the primary investigator, in case a translation issue emerged. While she attended several interviews conducted in English, it was not always logistically possible to coordinate the schedules of three people (mine, hers, and the participant's). In English-language interviews where she was not present, participants were asked at the

end of their interview if they had experienced any difficulty during the interview fully expressing themselves in English; none reported having any trouble. Nevertheless, as the majority of participants were bilingual, there is the possibility the absence of a bilingual/bicultural assistant may have hindered someone's ability to accurately and completely express themselves. Thus, future research efforts should strive to employ multiple assistants so that all interviews are conducted with a bilingual/bicultural assistant present.

Fourth, while everyone who participated in the study was initially selected randomly, not everyone who was randomly selected decided to participate in the study: in fact, the response rate for this research is considered well below the minimum threshold for probability sampling. Thus, there is the potential for systematic bias to exist in the sample due to the high non-response rate. However, the ecological validity achieved by the stratified sampling design strengthens the overall representativeness of the study participants as Hispanic students enrolled in schools throughout the Siouxland area. Nevertheless, the sample in the present study was likely biased toward more highly adapted students in all strata. Future research with Hispanic youth might fruitfully incorporate non-probability sampling designs, such as snowball sampling, in order to gain greater access to segments of the sample population that are difficult to successfully recruit without personal contacts.

Finally, SEM is considered a large sample technique, although samples as small as 50 have been found to produce stable parameter estimates in simple models with highly reliable measures (Hoyle & Kenny, 1999). The sample size for the present study (N = 112) was on the low end of the recommended minimum of 100 to 200 research

participants, and as noted in chapter four, the language ability scale was nonnormally distributed. Individually or in combination, these factors may have produced a CFA model with unstable parameter estimates, although Monte Carlo simulations suggest that "if distributions are close to multivariate normal, sample sizes of 100 were sufficient to yield reasonably accurate model rejection" (Loehlin, 2004, p. 59). The sample size obtained for the present study met Bentler and Chou's (1987) recommended 5:1 sample-size-to-free-parameter recommendation, however, future research employing SEM techniques should collect larger samples (N > 150) in order to more confidently report parameter estimates. Given the similarity of the parameter estimates obtained in this study to those found by Maruyama (1998) with a sample size of 171, the estimates are presented cautiously but with reasonable confidence as to their stability.

This study's findings contribute to the diverse body of interdisciplinary research that has examined the adaptation process. More specifically, the study is a continuation of the work of communication scholars who have identified and theorized about the central role communication plays in how we understand ourselves, our relationships, and our environment. Grounded in Kim's conceptualization of adaptation as occurring at the communicative intersection of the person and the environment, this study found support for the theoretical proposition that communication drives psychological and sociocultural change within an individual, and in turn, these changes influence communication patterns and behaviors. Moreover, the present investigation found these processes to occur in much the same way for youth crossing cultural or subcultural boundaries as they occur for adults. More research is needed to further examine the multidimensionality of the

adaptation process (e.g., environmental conditions, predispositional factors), especially as it occurs among immigrant youth in the United States.

Closing Remarks

In the summer of 2009, the Pew Hispanic Center conducted a nation-wide survey of over 1,200 Hispanic youth ages 16 to 25. As the largest and youngest minority group in the United States, the report noted, "by force of numbers alone, the kinds of adults these young Latinos become will help shape the kind of society America becomes in the 21st century" (2009, p. 1). The Pew report presented mixed findings as to how young Hispanics are coming of age in the United States: Those surveyed reported they "are satisfied with their lives, optimistic about their futures, and place a high value on education, hard work and career success." Yet, the report found, "[Hispanics] are much more likely than other American youths to drop out of school and to become teenage parents. They are more likely than white and Asian youths to live in poverty. And they have high levels of exposure to gangs" (2009, p. 1). A study jointly conducted by the Population Reference Bureau and the National Council of La Raza recently reported similar findings, concluding the obstacles Hispanic youth face today "may hinder the broader integration of Latinos into U.S. society if left unattended" (as cited in Roberts, 2010, para. 1): Among its findings, the study found most Hispanic youth are growing up in low-income households and in neighborhoods that are "socially and economically isolated" from middle- and upper-income families (Roberts, 2010, para. 4).

The findings of these studies suggest Hispanic youths' expressed aspirations of upward social mobility are frustrated by barriers to full participation in the mainstream cultural environment. For instance, the Pew report notes that while nearly 90% of

Hispanic youth and older adults agree with the statement that "a college degree is important for getting ahead in life," just under half of young Hispanics ages 18-25 report they plan to get a college degree. The reasons given include financial pressures to support family, poor English language ability, and a dislike of school (2009, p. 10). Furthermore, although the high school completion rate and college enrollment rate for second generation Hispanics are similar to those of non-Hispanic whites, second generation Hispanics who attend college are only about half as likely as their non-Hispanic white peers to complete a bachelor's degree (Fry, 2002).

Consistent with the literature on the role of social networking in the integration of immigrant and minority youth, the findings of these studies point to a lack of access among many Hispanic youth to the social capital necessary to successfully pursue their expressed academic and career aspirations. Cabrera and Padilla (2004), for instance, found that involvement in extracurricular activities provides an avenue for cross-cultural learning: One female Hispanic college student they interviewed explained that, although always highly motivated in school, her time and involvement in extracurricular activities allowed her entry into the culture of college by giving her access to information that her foreign-born parents could not provide. These findings are supported by Martinez et al. (2004), who found extracurricular encouragement from school personnel to be a key protective factor in promoting academic success among Hispanic youth. In essence, the literature on immigrant and minority youth involvement in extracurricular activities points to a more general relationship between cross-cultural learning and meaningful engagement with members of the mainstream cultural milieu (e.g., peers, teachers, and coaches).

What is missing from these and similar compelling reports concerned with the psychological and sociocultural adjustment of Hispanic youth is an explanatory framework from which to examine and interpret the empirical findings. Absent a theoretical framework, the interpretation of isolated survey results is limited to after-the-fact observation and speculation. It is through theoretically-grounded research that we are able to examine and understand systematically the process of cross-cultural adaptation and the various factors influencing it. This study, in part derived from insights gained via previous atheoretical, descriptive studies, has been an initial effort to move forward with theoretically-grounded research into the adaptation experiences of Hispanic youth. The findings of the study lend support to the theoretical relationship between communication with members of the larger national culture and adaptive outcomes, such as academic achievement and feelings of belongingness.

Never before in the history of the United States has a minority ethnic group comprised so large a share of the nation's youngest citizens (Pew Hispanic Center, 2009). Their successful integration, according to Janet Murguía, president of the National Council of La Raza, should be a national public policy priority. As she observes, "Latino youngsters are household and community influencers who--given their potential Englishlanguage fluency, familiarity with American culture and institutions and exposure to mainstream media--are poised to lead the successful integration of Latinos into U.S. society" (Roberts, 2010, para. 21). This study demonstrates these competencies correspond to frequent and open lines of communicative contact with members of the larger national culture.

203

References

- Adler, P. S. (1975). The transitional experience: An alternative view of culture shock. *Humanistic Psychology*, 15, 13-23.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 10, 411-423.
- Anderson, L. E. (1994). A new look at an old construct: Cross-cultural adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 18*, 293-328.
- Awad, G. H. (2010). The impact of acculturation and religious identification on perceived discrimination for Arab/Middle Eastern Americans. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology 16*, 59-67.
- Battle, J. (2002). Longitudinal analysis of academic achievement among a nationwide sample of Hispanic students in one- versus dual-parent households. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 24, 430-447.
- Bentler, P. M., & Chou, C. P. (1987). Practical issues in structural modeling. Sociological Methods Research, 16, 78-117.
- Berry, J. W. (1970). Marginality, stress and ethnic identification in an acculturated aboriginal community. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1, 239-252.
- Berry, J. W. (1990). Psychology of acculturation: Understanding individuals moving between cultures. In R. W. Brislin (Ed.), *Applied cross-cultural psychology* (pp. 232-253). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Berry, J. W. (1997). Immigration, acculturation, and adaptation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 46(1), 5-68.
- Berry, J. W., Kim, U., & Boski, P. (1988). Psychological acculturation of immigrants. In Y. Y. Kim & W. B. Gudykunst (Eds.), *Cross-cultural adaptation: Current approaches* (pp. 62-89). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Berry, J. W., Phinney, J. S., Kwak, K., & Sam, D. L. (2006). Introduction: Goals and research framework for studying immigrant youth. In J. W. Berry, J. S. Phinney, D. L. Sam, & P. Vedder (Eds.), *Immigrant youth in cultural transition: Acculturation, identity, and adaptation across national contexts* (pp. 1-14). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Berry, J. W., Phinney, J. S., Sam, D. L., & Vedder, P. (Eds). (2006). Immigrant youth in cultural transition: Acculturation, identity, and adaptation across national contexts. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Berry, J. W., & Sam, D. (1997). Acculturation and adaptation. In J. W. Berry, M. H. Segall, & C. Kagitcibasi (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology: Vol. 3. Social behavior and applications* (pp. 291-326). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bhattacharya, G. (2000). The school adjustment of South Asian immigrant children in the United States. *Adolescence*, *35*, 77-85.
- Blue collar. (2010). In *BusinessDictionary.com*. Retrieved from http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/blue-collar.html
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Borden, L. M., Perkins, D. F., Villarruel, F. A., Carleton-Hug, A., Stone, M. R., & Keith, J. G. (2006). Challenges and opportunities to Latino youth development: Increasing meaningful participation in youth development programs. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 28, 187-208.
- Braun, V. E. (2001). Intercultural communication and psychological health of Turkish workers in an American-German workplace in Germany. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK.
- Breton, R. (1964). Institutional completeness of ethnic communities and the personal relations of immigrants. *American Journal of Sociology*, 70, 193-205.
- Breton, R. (1991). *The governance of ethnic communities: Political structures and processes in Canada*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.
- Brislin, R. W. (1970). Back-translation for cross-cultural research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1(3), 185-216.
- Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology: Vol. 1* (pp. 389-444). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Brown, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen and J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 136-162). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Brown, R., & Evans, W. P. (2002). Extracurricular activity and ethnicity: Creating greater school connection among diverse student populations. *Urban Education*, 37, 41-58.
- Byrne, B. M. (1998). *Structural equation modeling with LISREL, PRELIS, and SIMPLIS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Byrne, B. M. (2001). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cabrera, N. L., & Padilla, A. M. (2004). Entering and succeeding in the "culture of college": The story of two Mexican heritage students. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 26, 152-170.
- Capps, R., Fix, M., Murray, J., Ost, J., Passel, J. S., & Herwantoro, S. (2005). *The new demography of America's schools: Immigration and the No Child Left Behind Act.* Retrieved from http://www.urban.org/UploadedPDF/311230_new_demography.pdf
- Capps, R., Fortuny, K. (2006, January). Immigration and child and family policy. In O. Golden, & K. A. Moore (Moderators), *The Urban Institute and Child Trends roundtable on children in low income families*. Symposium conducted as part of the Urban Institute's Assessing the New Federalism project, Washington, DC.
- Cauce, A. M., & Domenech-Rodriguez, M. (2002). Latino families: Myths and realities. In J. M. Contreras, K. A. Kerns, & A. M. Neal-Barnett (Eds.), *Latino children and families in the United States: Current research and future directions* (pp. 3-25). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Chaffee, S. H., & Berger, C. R. (1987). What communication scientists do. In C. R. Berger & S. H. Chaffee (Eds.), *Handbook of communication science* (pp. 99-122). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Chesterfield, K. B., Chesterfield, R. A., & Chavez, R. (1982). Peer interaction, language proficiency, and language preference in bilingual preschool classrooms. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *4*, 467-486.
- Church, A. T. (1982). Sojourner adjustment. Psychological Bulletin, 91, 540-572.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2005). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cuéllar, I., Arnold, B., & Maldonado, R. (1995). Acculturation rating scale for Mexican Americans-II: A revision of the original ARSMA scale. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 17, 275-304.
- Cuéllar, I., & Roberts, R. E. (1997). Relations of depression, acculturation, and socioeconomic status in a Latino sample. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *19*, 230-238.
- Davalos, D. B., Chavez, E. L., & Guardiola, R. J. (1999). The effects of extracurricular activity, ethnic identification, and perception of school on student dropout rates. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 21, 61-77.

- Diaz, J. D. (2005). School attachment among Latino youth in rural Minnesota. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 27, 300-318.
- Driscoll, A. K. (1999). Risk of high school dropout among immigrant and native Hispanic youth. *International Migration Review*, *33*, 857-875.
- Dunbar, E. (1992). Adjustment and satisfaction of expatriate U.S. personnel. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 16, 1-16.
- Famularo, L. (2009). Raise the age, lower the dropout rate? Considerations for policymakers (Document No. 8146). Retrieved from the Education Commission of the States website: http://www.ecs.org/html/Document.asp?chouseid=8146
- Fowler Jr., F., & Mangione, T. (1990). Standardized survey interviewing: Minimizing interviewer-related error. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Fry, R. (2002). *Latinos in higher education: Many enroll, too few graduate*. Retrieved from Pew Hispanic Center website: http://pewhispanic.org/files/reports/11.pdf
- Fry, R., & Passel, J. S. (2009). Latino children: A majority are U.S.-born offspring of immigrants. Retrieved from Pew Hispanic Center website: http://pewhispanic.org/files/reports/110.pdf
- Furnham, A., & Bochner, S. (1986). *Culture shock: Psychological reactions to unfamiliar environments*. London: Methuen.
- Gao, G., & Gudykunst, W. B. (1990). Uncertainty, anxiety, and adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14, 301-317.
- Garson, D. G. (2009). Structural equation modeling. Retrieved from http://faculty.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/PA765/structur.htm
- Gil, A. G., Vega, W. A., Dimas, J. M. (1994). Acculturative stress and personal adjustment among Hispanic adolescent boys. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 22, 43-54.
- Giles, H., Bourhis, R. Y., & Taylor, D. (1977). Towards a theory of language in ethnic group relations. In H. Giles (Ed.), *Language, ethnicity, and intergroup relations* (pp. 307-348). London: Academic Press.
- Gonzales, N. A., Knight, G. P., Morgan-Lopez, A. A., Saenz, D., & Sirolli, A. (2000). Acculturation and the mental health of Latino youths: An integration and critique of the literature. In J. M. Contreras, K. A. Kerns, & A. M. Neal-Barnett (Eds.), *Latino children and families in the United States: Current research and future directions* (pp. 45-74). Westport, CT: Praeger.

- Greene, J. P., & Winters, M. A. (2002, November). *Public school graduation rates in the United States* (Civic Report No. 31). New York: Center for Civic Innovation.
- Gudykunst, W. B., & Kim, Y. Y. (2003). *Communicating with strangers: An approach to intercultural communication* (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gullahorn, J. T., & Gullahorn, J. E. (1963). An extension of the U-curve hypothesis. *Journal of Social Issues, 19*, 33-47.
- Hovey, J. D., & King, C. A. (1996). Acculturative stress, depression, and suicidal ideation among immigrant and second-generation Latino adolescents. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 35(9), 1183-1192.
- Hoyle, R. H., & Kenny, D. A. (1999). Sample size, reliability, and test of statistical mediation. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Statistical strategies for small sample research* (pp. 195-222). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Iwao, S., & Hagiwara, S. (1987). Nihon de manabu rygukusei. [International students in Japan]. Tokyo, Japan: Simul.
- Jenkins, P. H. (1995). School delinquency and school commitment. *Sociology of Education*, 68, 221-239.
- Johnson, M. K., Crosnoe, R., & Elder, G. H., Jr. (2001). Students' attachment and academic engagement: The role of race and ethnicity. *Sociology of Education*, 74, 318-340.
- Kao, G. (1999). Psychological well-being and educational achievement among immigrant youth. In D. J. Hernandez (Ed.), *Children of immigrants: Health, adjustment, and public assistance* (pp. 410-477). Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Kao, G., & Tienda, M. (1995). Optimism and achievement: The educational performance of immigrant youth. *Social Science Quarterly*, 76, 1-19.
- Katragadda, C. P., & Tidwell, R. (1998). Rural Hispanic adolescents at risk for depressive symptoms. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28(20), 1916-1930.
- Kim, Y. S. (2003). Host environment, communication, and psychological health: A study of cross-cultural adaptation comparing Korean expatriates in the United States with American expatriates in South Korea. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK.
- Kim, Y. Y. (1976). Communication patterns of foreign immigrants in the process of acculturation: A survey among the Korean population in Chicago. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, Evanston, IL.

- Kim, Y. Y. (1979). Toward an interactive theory of communication-acculturation. In B. Ruben (Ed.), *Communication yearbook 3* (pp. 435-453). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books.
- Kim, Y. Y. (1980). Research project report on Indochinese refugees in Illinois: Vol. 1. Introduction, summary, and recommendations. Vol. 2. Methods and procedures. Vol. 3. Population characteristics and service needs. Vol. 4. Psychological, social, and cultural adjustment of Indochinese refugees. Vol. 5. Survey of agencies serving Indochinese refugees. (Based on a grant from the Department of Health, Education and Welfare Region V, pp. 95-549). Chicago: Travelers Aid Society of Metropolitan Chicago.
- Kim, Y. Y. (1988). *Communication and cross-cultural adaptation: An integrative theory*. Cleventon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Kim, Y. Y. (2001). *Becoming intercultural: An integrative theory of communication and cross-cultural adaptation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kim, Y. Y. (2005). Adapting to a new culture: An integrative communication theory. In W. B. Gudykunst (Ed.), *Theorizing about intercultural communication* (pp. 375-400). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kim, Y. Y., Izumi, S., & McKay-Semmler, K. (2008a). Face-to-face and computermediated interpersonal communication in the context of cross-cultural adaptation: A study of educated foreign-born residents in the United States. Paper presented at the 2008 International Communication Association Conference in Montreal, Canada.
- Kim, Y. Y., Izumi, S., & McKay-Semmler, K. (2008b). Social Engagement and Cross-Cultural Adaptation: An Analysis of Educated Non-Natives' Interpersonal Communication Patterns. Paper presented at the 2008 National Communication Association Conference in San Diego, CA.
- Kim, Y. Y., Lujan, P., & Dixon, L. D. (1998). "I can walk both ways": Identity integration of American Indians in Oklahoma. *Human Communication Research*, 25, 252-274.
- Knight, G. P., Virdin, L., & Roosa, M. (1994). Socialization and family correlates of mental health outcomes among Hispanic and Anglo-American families. *Child Development*, 65, 212-224.
- Kosmitzki, G. (1996). The reaffirmation of cultural identity in cross-cultural encounters. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 22, 238-248.*

- Krashen, S., & Brown, C. L. (2005). The ameliorating effects of high socioeconomic status: A secondary analysis. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 29, 185-196.
- Liebkind, K. (2001). Acculturation. In R. Brown & S. L. Gaertner (Eds.), *Blackwell handbook of social psychology: Intergroup processes* (pp. 386-406). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Lin, T. H. (2010). A comparison of multiple imputation with EM algorithm and MCMC method for quality of life missing data. *Qual Quant, 44, 277-287.*
- Loehlin, J. C. (2004). *Latent variable models: An introduction to factor, path, and structural equation analysis* (4th ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Lysgaard, S. (1955). Adjustment in a foreign society: Norwegian Fulbright grantees visiting the United States. *International Social Science Bulletin*, 7, 45-51.
- Lytton, H., & Pyryt, M. (1998). Predictors of achievement in basic skills: A Canadian effective schools study. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 23(3), 281-301.
- MacSwan, J. (2000). The threshold hypothesis, semilingualism, and other contributions to a deficit view of linguistic minorities. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences* 22(1), 3-45.
- Manaster, G. J., & Chan, J. C. (1992). Mexican-American migrant students' academic success: Sociological and psychological acculturation. *Adolescence*, 27, 124-138.
- Marcus, R. F., & Sanders-Reio, J. (2001). The influence of attachment on school completion. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *16*, 427-444.
- Marín, G. (1992). Issues in the measurement of acculturation among Hispanics. In K. F. Geisinger (Ed.), *Psychological testing of Hispanics*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Martinez, C. R., Jr., DeGarmo, D. S., & Eddy, J. M. (2004). Promoting academic success among Latino youths. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 26, 128-151.
- Maruyama, M. (1998). Cross-cultural adaptation and host environment: A study of international students in Japan. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK.
- Mayo, Y. Q., & Resnick, R.P. (1996). The impact of machismo on Hispanic women. Journal of Women and Social Work, 11(3), 257-277.
- Mouton, S. G., & Hawkins, J. (1996). School attachment: Perspectives of low-attached high school students. *Educational Psychology*, *16*, 297-305.

- Norton, M. L. (1990). *Communication and successful aging: A cross-cultural adaptation approach*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK.
- Nunnally, J. (1978). Psychometric theory. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Oberg, K. (1960). Culture shock: Adjustment to new cultural environments. *Practical Anthropology*, *7*, 177-182.
- Orum, A.M., Feagin, J.R., & Sjoberg, G. (1991). Introduction: The nature of the case study. In J.R. Feagin, A.M. Orum, & G. Sjoberg (Eds.), A case for the case study (pp. 1-25). University of North Carolina Press.
- Pew Hispanic Center. (2008a). *Statistical portrait of Hispanics in the United States*, 2006. Retrieved from http://pewhispanic.org/factsheets/factsheet.php?FactsheetID=35
- Pew Hispanic Center. (2008b). U.S. population projections: 2005-2050. Retrieved from http://pewhispanic.org/reports/report.php?ReportID=85
- Pew Hispanic Center. (2009). *Between two worlds: How young Latinos come of age in America*. Retrieved from http://pewhispanic.org/files/reports/117.pdf
- Pew Hispanic Center. (2010a). *Demographic profile of Hispanics in Iowa, 2008*. Retrieved from http://pewhispanic.org/states/?stateid=IA
- Pew Hispanic Center. (2010b). *Demographic profile of Hispanics in Nebraska, 2008*. Retrieved from http://pewhispanic.org/states/?stateid=NE
- Phinney, J. S., Cantu, C. L., & Kurtz, D. A. (1997). Ethnic identity as predictors of selfesteem among African American, Latino, and white adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 26, 165-185.
- Portes, P. R. (1999). Social and psychological factors in the academic achievement of children of immigrants: A cultural history puzzle. *American Educational Research Journal*, *36*(3), 489-507.
- Portes, P. R., & Zady, M. F. (2002). Self-esteem in the adaptation of Spanish-speaking adolescents: The role of immigration, family, conflict, and depression. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 24, 296-318.
- Rasmussen, K. M., Negy, C., Carlson, R., & Burns, J. M. (1997). Suicide ideation and acculturation among low socioeconomic status Mexican American adolescents. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 17(4), 390-407.

- Redfield, R., Linton, R, & Herskovits, M. (1936). Outline for the study of acculturation. *American Anthropologist, 38*, 149-152.
- Roberts, S. (2010, April 27). Study finds young Hispanics face obstacles to integration. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com
- Roberts, R. E., & Chen, Y. W. (1995). Depressive symptoms and suicidal ideation among Mexican-origin and Anglo adolescents. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 34(1), 81-90.
- Roberts, R. E., & Sobhan, M. (1992). Symptoms of depression in adolescents: A comparison of Anglo, African, and Hispanic Americans. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *21*, 639-651.
- Rogler, L. H., Cortes, D. E., & Malgady, R. G. (1991). Acculturation and mental health status among Hispanics. *American Psychologist*, *46*, 585-597.
- Ruben, B. D., & Kealey, D. J. (1979). Behavioral assessment of communication competency and the prediction of cross-cultural adaptation. *International Journal* of Intercultural Relations, 3, 15-47.
- Rumbaut, R. G. (2006). The making of a people. In M. Tienda & F. Mitchell (Eds.), *Hispanics and the future of America* (pp. 16-65). Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.
- Rumberger, R. W., & Larson, K. A. (1998). Toward explaining differences in educational achievement of Mexican American language-minority students. *Sociology of Education*, 71, 69-93.
- Rural Policy Research Institute. (2009). Rupri state demographic & economic profiles. Retrieved from http://www.rupri.org/dataresearchviewer.php?id=6
- Sam, D. L. (1994). School adaptation of young Vietnamese refugees in Norway. Migration: European Journal of International Migration and Ethnic Relations, 24, 219-242.
- Sam, D. L., Vedder, P., Ward, C., & Horenczyk, G. (2006). Psychological and Sociocultural adaptation of immigrant youth. In J. W. Berry, J. S. Phinney, D. L. Sam, & P. Vedder (Eds). *Immigrant youth in cultural transition: Acculturation, identity, and adaptation across national contexts* (pp. 117-141). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Schafer, J. L., & Graham, J. W. (2002). Missing data: Our view of the state of the art. *Psychological Methods*, 7, 147-177.
- Scott, R., & Scott, W. A. (1998). Adjustment of adolescents: Cross-cultural similarities and differences. New York: Routledge.

- Simmel, G. (1950). The stranger. In K. Wolff (Ed. and Trans.), *The sociology of Georg Simmel*. New York: Free Press. (Original work published in 1908).
- Simpson, D. D., & McBride, A. A. (1992). Family, friends, and self (FFS) assessment scales for Mexican American youth. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 14, 327-340.
- Singleton, R. A., Jr., & Straits, B. C. (2005). *Approaches to social research* (4th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Stanton-Salazar, R. D., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1995). Social capital and the reproduction of inequality: Information networks among Mexican-origin high school students. *Sociology of Education*, 68, 116-135.
- Steiger, J. H. (1989). *EzPATH: Causal modeling*. Evanston, IL: SYSTAT Inc.
- Stephan, W. G., & Stephan, C. (1985). Intergroup anxiety. *Journal of Social Issues*, 41, 157-166.
- Stonequist, E. (1937). The marginal man. New York: Scribner's.
- Tajfel, H. (1981). *Human groups and social categories*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel & W. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations* (2nd ed.) (pp. 7-24). Chicago: Nelson-Hall.
- Takai, J. (1991). Host contact and cross-cultural adjustment of international students in Japan: Assessment instruments and some descriptive statistics. *Research in Higher Education—Daigaku Ronshu*, 20, 195-228.
- Tamam, E. (1993). The influence of ambiguity tolerance, open-mindedness, and empathy on sojourners' psychological adaptation and perceived intercultural communication effectiveness. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK.
- Tanaka, J. S. (1987). How big is big enough?: Sample size and goodness of fit in structural equation models with latent variables. *Child Development*, 58, 134-146.
- Tienda, M., & Mitchell, F. (2006). Introduction: E pluribus plures or e pluribus unum? In M. Tienda & F. Mitchell (Eds.), *Hispanics and the future of America* (1-15). Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.

- Ullman, C., & Tatar, M. (2001). Psychological adjustment among Israeli adolescent immigrants: A report on life satisfaction, self-concept, and self-esteem. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *30*, 449-463.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d). Census regions and divisions of the United States. Retrieved from http://www.census.gov/geo/www/us_regdiv.pdf
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2000). Fact sheet: South Dakota in 2000. Retrieved from http://factfinder.census.gov/
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2007, May 17). Annual estimates of the resident population by race, age and sex for the United States: April 1, 2000 to July 1, 2006. Retrieved from http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/tables/08s0008.pdf
- Vega, W. A., Khoury, E. L., Zimmerman, R. S., Gil, A. G., & Warheit, G. J. (1995). Cultural conflicts and problem behaviors of Latino adolescents in home and school environments. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 23, 167-179.
- Wainryb, C. & Turiel, E. (1994). Dominance, subordination, and concepts of personal entitlements in cultural contexts. *Child Development*, 65, 1701-1722.
- Ward, C. (1995). Acculturation. In D. Landis & R. S. Bhagat (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training* (2nd ed.) (pp. 124-147). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ward, C. (2001). The A, B, Cs of acculturation. In D. Matsumoto (Ed.), *The handbook of culture & psychology* (pp. 411-445). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1996). Crossing cultures: The relationship between psychological and sociocultural dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment. In J. Pandey, D. Sinha, & D. P. S. Bhawuk (Eds.), Asian contributions to crosscultural psychology (pp. 289-306. New Delhi: Sage.
- Ward, C., Okura, Y., Kennedy, A., & Kojima, T. (1998). The U-curve on trial: A longitudinal study of psychological and sociocultural adjustment during crosscultural transition. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 22, 277-291.
- Watzlawick, P., Beavin, J., & Jackson, D. (1967). *Pragmatics of human communication*. New York: Norton.
- White collar. (2010). In *BusinessDictionary.com*. Retrieved from http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/white-collar.html
- White, K. (1982). The relation between socioeconomic status and academic achievement. *Psychological Bulletin*, *91*, 461-481.

- World Health Organization (n.d.) Guidelines for research on reproductive health involving adolescents. Retrieved from http://www.who.int/reproductive-health/hrp/guidelines_adolescent.html
- Yin, Z., Katims, D. S., & Zapata, J. T. (1999). Participation in leisure activities and involvement in delinquency by Mexican American adolescents. *Hispanic Journal* of Behavioral Sciences, 21, 170-185.
- Yu, S. M., Huang, Z. J., Schwalberg, R. H., Overpeck, M., & Kogan, M. D. (2003). Acculturation and the health and well-being of U.S. immigrant adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 33, 479-488.
- Zhou, M. (1997). Growing up American: The challenge confronting immigrant children and children of immigrants. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 23, 63-95.

APPENDIX 1:

ENGLISH INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

SU (2) R (1) LHC (1) HHC (2) U(3)

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

START TIME:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this interview. We hope that you'll think of the interview as a conversation in which you're free to be completely honest; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers to any of these questions. Some of the topics that we'll talk about are your friendships, how comfortable you are with English, how much you like school, and what you think of mainstream United States (U.S.) American culture. Your honest answers to these questions will help us better understand what it's like being a young person with a Hispanic background in this part of the country. Try not to overthink your answers to the questions; just tell us honestly what you think and feel. First, we'd like to get some background information about you.

Section A: Background Variables

- How old are you? _____ years old 1.
- 2. Female (1) _____ Male (2) _____
- What grade are you in? _____ grade 3.
- What country were you born in? 4.
- What country, or countries, were your parents born in? 5.
- Have you gone to school in a country other than the United States? ; If yes, 6.

where? ; and for how long (in years)?

7. What kind of work do your mother and father do? What are their jobs?

Mother _____ Father _____

What is the highest level of education obtained by your mother? 8.

- _____ Respondent does not know
- less than 9^{th} grade 9^{\text{th}} to 12^{th} grade
- _____ high school graduate (or GED)
- _____ some college
- _____ college graduate

- 9. What is the highest level of education obtained by your father?
 - Respondent does not know
 less than 9th grade
 9th to 12th grade
 high school graduate (or GED)
 some college
 college graduate
- 10. At home, which is spoken more often, Spanish or English, or are they spoken about the same amount?

Spanish (1) _____ English (3) _____ Equal (2) _____

Section B: Host Communication Competence

(Language Ability)

Now we're going to ask you some questions about how comfortable you feel using English in different situations. To each question you can answer in 3 different ways: that you don't feel comfortable at all using English, that you feel somewhat comfortable, or that you feel completely comfortable using English. Ready?

- 1. How comfortable do you feel using English to take care of simple, everyday tasks?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very comfortable
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat comfortable
 - (3) very comfortable
- 2. How comfortable do you feel using English to talk to U.S. American friends or teachers who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very comfortable
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat comfortable
 - (3) very comfortable

- 3. How comfortable are you that you understand class lessons taught in English?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very comfortable
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat comfortable
 - (3) very comfortable
- 4. How comfortable do you feel using English to write a note or send an email to a U.S. American friend who is not Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very comfortable
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat comfortable
 - (3) very comfortable
- 5. How comfortable do you feel using English to write research papers and do other homework for class?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very comfortable
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat comfortable
 - (3) very comfortable

Good. Now we're going to ask you some questions that we'd like for you to answer in your own words. Please share your thoughts honestly; remember, there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

(HCC—Language Ability)

- a. (Description) From what you've just told us, you seem to be (choose one) a little uncomfortable using English in some or many situations / comfortable using English in most situations...
 - (1) English difficulty
 - Can you give an example of a time when you had trouble understanding English, or you had a hard time expressing yourself to someone in English?
 - (2) English proficiency
 - Has there ever been a time when you had trouble understanding English, or you had a hard time expressing yourself to someone in English?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) English difficulty
 - How often does this happen? When do you have the most trouble with English? For example, listening in class or talking to teachers or other students who only speak English?
- (2) English proficiency
 - How long have you felt comfortable speaking, reading, and writing English?

- (1) English difficulty
 - What, do you think, is the hardest thing about understanding or speaking English?
- (2) English proficiency
 - What, do you think, explains why you are comfortable understanding and speaking English?

(Adaptive Motivation)

Next, we're going to ask you some questions about how you feel about mainstream U.S. American culture. To each question you can answer in one of 3 ways: that you aren't at all interested in this part of mainstream U.S. American culture, that you're kind of interested, or that you are very interested. Okay?

- 1. How interested are you in making friends with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very interested
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat interested
 - (3) very interested
- 2. How interested are you in knowing how to read, speak, and write in English?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very interested
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat interested
 - (3) very interested
- 3. How interested are you in understanding how U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic think, and why they do things the way they do?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very interested
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat interested
 - (3) very interested

- 4. How interested are you in watching U.S. American movies?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very interested
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat interested
 - (3) very interested
- 5. How interested are you in watching U.S. American TV shows?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very interested
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat interested
 - (3) very interested
- 6. How interested are you in listening to U.S. American music?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very interested
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat interested
 - (3) very interested
- 7. How interested are you in hanging out with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very interested
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat interested
 - (3) very interested

- 8. How "cool" is U.S. American culture, in your opinion? In other words, how interested are you in belonging to, or fitting into, the larger U.S. American culture?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very interested
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat interested
 - (3) very interested

Good. Again, we're going to ask you some questions for you to answer in your own words. Remember to share your thoughts honestly; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

(HCC—Adaptation Motivation)

- a. (Description) Based on what you've just told us, you seem (choose one) to like mainstream U.S. American culture / to not be very interested in mainstream U.S. American culture...
 - (1) Motivated to adapt
 - Are there things you enjoy doing that you think are "mainstream" U.S. American things to do? For example, playing school sports or listening to popular radio stations that aren't Hispanic stations?
 - (2) Unmotivated to adapt
 - Are there things you *don't like doing* that you think are "mainstream" U.S. American things to do? For example, playing school sports or listening to popular radio stations that aren't Hispanic stations?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Motivated to adapt
 - Overall, how much and how often do you enjoy doing things that are "mainstream" U.S. American things?
- (2) Unmotivated to adapt
 - Overall, would you say you're just not interested in "mainstream" U.S. American culture, or do you dislike it?

- (1) Motivated to adapt
 - How do you feel about being part of the larger U.S. American culture? Is this something you personally want to do, or do you feel pressure from others to "fit in" to U.S. American culture? From whom and in what ways?
- (2) Unmotivated to adapt
 - Why don't you want to "fit in" to the larger U.S. American culture? What culture do you "fit in" best with?

(Behavioral Competence)

All right. Next we're going to ask you some questions about how comfortable you feel communicating with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic. For each statement, you can respond in one of 3 ways: almost always, sometimes, or almost never. Okay?

- 1. Do you ever feel clumsy or unnatural talking to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost always feel clumsy or unnatural
 - (2) sometimes feel this way
 - (3) almost never feel this way
- 2. When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, how often do you understand what they say and mean?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost always understand
 - (2) sometimes understand
 - (3) almost never understand
- 3. Do you ever feel frustrated trying to get your point across while talking to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost always feel frustrated
 - (2) sometimes feel this way
 - (3) almost never feel this way

- 4. Do you ever have difficulty, or trouble, talking to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost always have difficulty
 - (2) sometimes have difficulty
 - (3) almost never have difficulty
- 5. When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, how often do they understand what you say and mean?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) they almost always understand what you say and mean
 - (2) sometimes they understand
 - (3) they almost never understand what you say and mean
- 6. Do you feel the conversation flows naturally when you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost never feel the conversation flows naturally
 - (2) sometimes feel it flows naturally
 - (3) almost always feel the conversation flows naturally
- 7. When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, are you able to get the information you want from the conversation?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost always able to get the right information
 - (2) sometimes able to do this
 - (3) almost never able to get the right information

- 8. Do you feel you're a good communicator when you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost never feel like a good communicator
 - (2) sometimes feel like a good communicator
 - (3) almost always feel like a good communicator
- 9. When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, are you able to speak comfortably and carry on a conversation?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost always able to speak comfortably and conversationally
 - (2) sometimes able to do this
 - (3) almost never able to speak comfortably and conversationally
- 10. When you talk to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic, how often do you understand their jokes and sense of humor?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost always understand
 - (2) sometimes understand
 - (3) almost never understand

Section C: Host Interpersonal Communication

(Host Interpersonal Contact)

Okay. Now we'd like to ask you some questions about your everyday communication activities. To each question you can answer in one of 3 ways: never, or not very often; sometimes; or very often. Ready?

- 1. How often do sit with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic at lunch?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) never, or not very often
 - (2) sometimes
 - (3) very often
- 2. How often do you invite U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic to your house?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) never, or not very often
 - (2) sometimes
 - (3) very often
- 3. How often are you invited to the homes of U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) never, or not very often
 - (2) sometimes
 - (3) very often

- 4. How often do you go out (for example, to a movie, shopping, or just driving around) with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) *Respondent does not know*(1) never, or not very often
 (2) sometimes
 (3) very often
- 5. How often do you work on school projects with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) never, or not very often
 - (2) sometimes
 - (3) very often
- 6. How often do you participate in clubs or play sports with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) never, or not very often
 - (2) sometimes
 - (3) very often

Again, we're going to ask you some questions that we'd like for you to answer in your own words. Remember to share your thoughts honestly; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

(HIC—Host Interpersonal Contact)

- a. (Description) From what you've just told us, it sounds like you (choose one) spend time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic / don't spend much time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic...
 - (1) Host interpersonal contact
 - Can you tell us about an activity you've done with a U.S. American friend, or group of friends, who weren't Hispanic (club or after school activity)? Or, do you ever just "hang out" together?
 - (2) Limited host interpersonal contact
 - Have you ever been involved in an activity with U.S. Americans who weren't Hispanic (club or after school activity)? Or, have you ever just "hung out" together? If yes, what was this experience like for you?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Host interpersonal contact
 - How often do you do this? What other kinds of things do you do with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (2) Limited host interpersonal contact
 - You've told us you don't really spend time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic; do you feel okay with that?

- (1) Host interpersonal contact
 - What do you like most about talking with, or doing things with your U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic?
- (2) Limited host interpersonal contact
 - Why is it you don't spend time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?

(Host Interpersonal Ties)

Next, we'd like to ask you to think about your friends, both casual friends and close friends.

First, we'll ask you about your <u>casual friends</u>. These are people who you are friendly with, but who are not as important to you as your close, or best, friends. Be sure to include in your thoughts your casual friends who may not be living near you right now.

1. About how many of your casual friends are U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?

_____ persons (one number, please—not a range)

2. About how many of your casual friends are Hispanic, or still living outside the U.S. in a Latin American country, such as ______ (*fill in family's home country*)?

_____ persons (one number, please—not a range)

3. About how many of your casual friends are from foreign countries other than Latin American countries, such as African, Asian, or European countries?

_____ persons (one number, please—not a range)

Now, please think only about those individuals you consider to be your <u>close</u>, or <u>best</u>, <u>friends</u>. Again, please include those close friends who may not be living near you right now.

1. About how many of your close friends are U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?

_____ persons (one number, please—not a range)

2. About how many of your close friends are Hispanic, or still living outside the U.S. in a Latin American country, such as ______ (*fill in family's home country*)?

_____ persons (one number, please—not a range)

3. About how many of your close friends are from foreign countries other than Latin American countries, such as African, Asian, or European countries?

_____ persons (one number, please—not a range)

4. Think about your three best, or closest, friends. What are their ethnic or racial backgrounds?

A)_____B)_____C)____

Good. Now we're going to ask you some more questions for you to answer in your own words. Please share your thoughts openly, remembering there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

(HIC—Host Interpersonal Ties) a. (Description) REFERENCE QUANTITATIVE RESPONSES ABOVE:

(1) Host interpersonal ties:

You've just told us that you have casual and/or close U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic. Please describe the relationship you have with one U.S. American friend who you feel closest to that isn't Hispanic. For example, what kinds of things do you talk about or do together? Why do you like him or her?

(2) No host interpersonal ties:

You've just told us that you don't have any casual or close U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic. Have you ever had a U.S. American friend who wasn't Hispanic? If so, what was this friendship like? What happened?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Host interpersonal ties:
 - Do you feel you have a lot of U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic? Do you feel your close friendships with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic are as close as your friendships with Hispanics?
- (2) No host interpersonal ties:
 - Do you feel okay with not having U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic? Why or why not?

- (1) Host interpersonal ties:
 - How did you form your friendships with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
- (2) No host interpersonal ties:
 - Why is it you don't have any U.S. American friends right now who aren't Hispanic?

Section D: Psychological Health

(Belonging)

Next, we want to know how you feel living in the United States of today. For these questions, again, you'll have 3 answer choices to pick from. Okay?

- 1. Do you feel like you "fit in" when you hang out with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) don't fit in at all, or not very well
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat fit in
 - (3) fit in very well
- 2. How often do you feel alone, or left out by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost never feel left out
 - (2) sometimes feel left out
 - (3) almost always feel left out
- 3. How connected to, or part of, the United States do you feel you are?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very connected
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat connected
 - (3) very connected

- 4. How often do you feel awkward, or out of place, living in the U.S.?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost never feel out of place
 - (2) sometimes feel out of place
 - (3) almost always feel out of place
- 5. Do you feel that U.S. Americans around you who aren't Hispanic care about you and how you're doing?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost never feel they care
 - (2) sometimes feel they care
 - (3) almost always feel they care
- 6. How often do you feel sad, or depressed?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost never feel depressed
 - (2) sometimes feel this way
 - (3) almost always feel depressed
- 7. Do you ever wish you could permanently leave the United States?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost always wish to leave the U.S.
 - (2) sometimes wish this
 - (3) almost never wish this

- 8. Do you feel the teachers in your school who aren't Hispanic like you?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost always feel liked by non-Hispanic teachers
 - (2) sometimes feel liked
 - (3) almost never feel liked by non-Hispanic teachers
- 9. Do you feel the students in your school who aren't Hispanic like you?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost never feel liked by non-Hispanic students
 - (2) sometimes feel liked
 - (3) almost always feel liked by non-Hispanic students
- 10. How often do you feel frustrated, or stressed out, being in the United States?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost never feel stressed out
 - (2) sometimes feel stressed out
 - (3) almost always feel stressed out

Now, we have more questions for you to answer in your own words. Please share your thoughts honestly, remembering there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

(PH—Belonging)

- a. (Description) From what you've just told us, it sounds like you (*choose one*) feel connected to the U.S. and U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic / often feel disconnected from the U.S. and U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic ...
 - (1) Belongs
 - Can you give an example of a time when you felt really close to U.S. Americans who weren't Hispanic, for example, teammates in a school sport or a teacher you're close to?
 - (2) Alienated
 - Can you give an example of a time when you felt like you didn't "fit in" in the United States, or that U.S. Americans who weren't Hispanic didn't accept you?
- b. (Frequency and intensity)
 - (1) Belongs
 - Have you always felt that you "fit in" in the U.S.? Have you always "fit in" with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - ➤ How often do you feel this way?
 - (2) Alienated
 - Have you ever wished you could leave the U.S.? If yes, where would you go? Have you wished this recently?

- (1) Belongs
 - What makes you feel that you do "fit in" and are accepted by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic? What things tell you this?
- (2) Alienated
 - What makes you feel like you don't "fit in" here, or aren't accepted by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?

(Satisfaction)

Next, we're going to ask you some questions about how comfortable or satisfied you feel living in the United States. In other words, how happy with your life you feel right now. For these questions, again, you'll have 3 answer choices to pick from. Okay?

- 1. How comfortable do you feel interacting with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very comfortable
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat comfortable
 - (3) very comfortable
- 2. Generally, how comfortable do you feel attending this school?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very comfortable
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat comfortable
 - (3) very comfortable
- 3. How satisfied are you with your relationship to non-Hispanic U.S. Americans at your school?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very satisfied
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat satisfied
 - (3) very satisfied

- 4. How satisfied are you with the relationship, in general, between Hispanic and non-Hispanic students at your school?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very satisfied
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat satisfied
 - (3) very satisfied
- 5. How satisfied are you with your friendships with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very satisfied
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat satisfied
 - (3) very satisfied
- 6. How comfortable do you feel living in the United States?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very comfortable
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat comfortable
 - (3) very comfortable
- 7. How satisfied are you with the way you're treated by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very satisfied
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat satisfied
 - (3) very satisfied

- 8. How satisfied are you with living in the United States for the long term future?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very satisfied
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat satisfied
 - (3) very satisfied

Again, we're going to ask you questions for you to answer in your own words. Remember to share your thoughts openly; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

(PH—Satisfaction)

a. (Description) Based on what you've told us, it sounds like you are at least (choose one) somewhat satisfied with your life / somewhat dissatisfied with your life...

- (1) Satisfied:
 - Can you give a specific example of something you like about living in the United States? What do you like about it?
- (2) Dissatisfied:
 - Can you give a specific example of something you dislike about living in the United States? What do you dislike about it?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Satisfied:
 - > Do you pretty much like life in the U.S., or only some parts? Why?
- (2) Dissatisfied:
 - > Do you pretty much dislike life in the U.S., or only some parts? Why?

- (1) Satisfied:
 - How and when did you start to feel this way (either mostly like or only somewhat like life in the U.S.)?
- (2) Dissatisfied:
 - Why, do you think, you've not found something to like about living in the U.S.? How and when did you start to feel this way?

Section E: Functional Fitness

(School Adjustment)

All right. Now we're going to ask you about how much you like your school and the people there. For these questions, again, you'll have 3 answer choices to pick from. Ready?

- 1. Do you feel you "fit in" at this school?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) no, or not very much
 - (2) sometimes
 - (3) yes, very much
- 2. How often do you finish all of your homework?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) almost never, or not very often
 - (2) sometimes
 - (3) almost always
- 3. Overall, how well do you get along with the other students at your school?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not very well
 - (2) sometimes get along and sometimes don't
 - (3) very well

- 4. How often do you skip classes?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) regularly, or very often
 - (2) sometimes, but not often
 - (3) never, or very rarely
- 5. Overall, how well do you get along with your teachers?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not very well
 - (2) some better than others
 - (3) most or all teachers pretty well
- 6. Have you ever thought seriously about quitting school?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) yes, often
 - (2) once in awhile, but not recently
 - (3) never, or almost never
- 7. Do you enjoy actively participating in school activities, like sports, band, choir, theater, or clubs?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very much
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat
 - (3) very much

- 8. Do you enjoy watching or attending school activities, like sports, band, choir, theater, or clubs?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) not at all, or not very much
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat
 - (3) very much
- 9. Generally, do you like your classes?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) no, or not very much
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat
 - (3) yes, very much
- 10. Is there at least one class that you really like and look forward to going to?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) no, not one
 - (2) yes, at least one
 - (3) yes, more than one

If yes, which class(es): _____

11. Do you ever feel "lost," or out of place, in school?

- (0) Respondent does not know
- (1) no, or not very often
- (2) sometimes
- (3) yes, very often

- 12. Do you feel safe at school?
 - (0) Respondent does not know
 - (1) no, or not very safe
 - (2) kind of, or somewhat safe
 - (3) yes, very safe

We are getting close to the end of the interview and this will be the last time we'll ask you questions to answer in your own words. As always, please remember to share your thoughts honestly; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

(FF—School Adjustment)

- a. (Description) Based on what you've just told us, it sounds like (choose one) you pretty much like your school / sometimes you don't like your school very much...
 - (1) Functionally fit:
 - Can you give an example of something you feel you're good at in school, for example, a subject area (like math or history) or a school activity (like sports or clubs)?
 - (2) Not functionally fit:
 - Can you give an example of a time that you felt "lost" or out of place in school? In other words, a time you felt confused or overwhelmed by what was expected from you by teachers?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Functionally fit:
 - Do you pretty much feel "in control" of things at school? In other words, do you generally feel able to do the things your teachers expect you to?
- (2) Not functionally fit:
 - ➤ How often does this happen?

- (1) Functionally fit:
 - ➤ Why do you have things "under control" at school?
- (2) Not functionally fit:
 - > What makes you feel confused or overwhelmed in school?

(Academic Performance)

Next, we'd like to talk with you generally about how you're doing in school. Sometimes it can be hard to talk about grades, but it's very important for us to know this information so that the findings of this study are based on the truth. Please remember, no one but the 3 of us here right now will ever know what you specifically said in your interview. Everybody's interview in this study, that's about 200 people, will be put together in one report and nobody's real name will be used in the report. We think you're great no matter what grades you get; we're just happy you're doing an interview with us!

So, for each of the subject areas that we'll ask you about, which category best describes your grades from sixth grade up till now?

1. English:

	Mostly A's (4)	_ Mostly B's (3)	_Mostly C's (2)	
	Mostly D's (1)	Mostly below D (.5)	NA((0)
2.	Math:			
	Mostly A's (4)	_ Mostly B's (3)	_Mostly C's (2)	
	Mostly D's (1)	Mostly below D (.5)	NA((0)
3.	Science:			
	Mostly A's (4)	_ Mostly B's (3)	_Mostly C's (2)	
	Mostly D's (1)	Mostly below D (.5)	NA((0)
4.	Social Studies:			
	Mostly A's (4)	_ Mostly B's (3)	_Mostly C's (2)	
	Mostly D's (1)	_ Mostly below D (.5)	NA((0)

APPENDIX 2:

SPANISH INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

U (3) SU (2) R (1) LHC (1) HHC (2)

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

START TIME:

Gracias por participar en esta entrevista. Esperamos que pienses en esta entrevista como una conversación en la que eres libre de ser completamente sincero; no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas" a ninguna de estas preguntas. Algunos de los temas de los que hablaremos son de tus amigos, qué tan cómodo te sientes con el inglés, qué tanto te gusta la escuela y que piensas de la cultura estadounidense. Tus respuestas sinceras a estas preguntas nos ayudarán a entender mejor que implica ser un adolescente de origen hispano en esta parte del país. Trata de no pensar mucho tus respuestas; sólo coméntanos con sinceridad qué piensas y sientes. Primero, nos gustaría conocer algunos de tus antecedentes.

Section A: Background Variables

- 1. ¿Cuántos años tienes? ______ años de edad
- 2. Mujer (1) _____ Hombre (2) _____
- 3. ¿Qué grado cursas? _____ grado
- 4. ¿En qué país naciste? _____

5. ¿En qué país o países nacieron tus padres? _____

6. ¿Has ido a la escuela en un país distinto a los Estados Unidos? _____; Si contestaste que sí,

¿dónde? _____; y por cuanto tiempo (en años)_____

7. ¿Qué tipo de trabajo tienen tus padres? ¿En qué trabajan?

Madre _____ Padre _____

8. ¿Cuál es el nivel más alto de estudios de tu madre?

- _____ El entrevistado no sabe
- ____ menor al 9° grado
- _____ del 9° al 12° grado
- _____ graduada de la escuela secundaria (o GED)
- _____ algunos estudios universitarios
- _____ graduada de la universidad

- 9. ¿Cuál es el nivel más alto de estudios de tu padre?
 - El entrevistado no sabe menor al 9° grado del 9° al 12° grado graduado de la escuela secundaria (o GED) algunos estudios universitarios graduado de la universidad
- 10. ¿En casa, qué idioma se habla con más frecuencia, el español o el inglés, o se hablan los dos idiomas con la misma frecuencia?

Español (1) _____ Inglés (3) _____ Igual (2) _____

Section B: Host Communication Competence

(Language Ability)

Ahora te vamos a hacer unas preguntas sobre qué tan cómodo te sientes usando el inglés en diferentes situaciones. Puedes responder cada pregunta de tres formas distintas: que no te sientes nada cómodo usando el inglés, que te sientes algo cómodo o que te sientes completamente cómodo usando el inglés. ¿Listo?

- 1. ¿Qué tan cómodo te sientes usando el inglés para enfrentar tus actividades cotidianas?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nada o no muy cómodo
 - (2) Más o menos cómodo o algo cómodo
 - (3) Muy cómodo
- 2. ¿Qué tan cómodo te sientes usando el inglés para hablar con amigos o maestros estadounidenses que no son hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nada o no muy cómodo
 - (2) Más o menos cómodo o algo cómodo
 - (3) Muy cómodo

- 3. ¿Qué tan cómodo te sientes de tu comprensión de las clases impartidas en inglés?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nada o no muy cómodo
 - (2) Más o menos cómodo o algo cómodo
 - (3) Muy cómodo
- 4. ¿Qué tan cómodo te sientes usando el inglés para escribir una nota o enviar un correo electrónico a un amigo estadounidense que no es hispano?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nada o no muy cómodo
 - (2) Más o menos cómodo o algo cómodo
 - (3) Muy cómodo
- 5. ¿Qué tan cómodo te sientes usando el inglés para escribir ensayos de investigación y para hacer otras tareas de la clase?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nada o no muy cómodo
 - (2) Más o menos cómodo o algo cómodo
 - (3) Muy cómodo

Bien. Ahora vamos a hacerte unas preguntas que queremos que respondas usando tus propias palabras. Por favor comparte tu opinión con sinceridad; recuerda no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?

(HCC—Language Ability)

- a. (Description) De acuerdo a lo que nos has dicho, al parecer (*elegir una opción*) te sientes un poco incómodo usando el inglés en algunas o en muchas situaciones / te sientes cómodo usando el inglés en la mayoría de las situaciones...
 - (1) English difficulty
 - ¿Nos puedes dar un ejemplo de alguna vez en donde tuviste problemas para entender el inglés, o cuando tuviste alguna dificultad para expresarte en inglés?
 - (2) English proficiency
 - ¿Alguna vez tuviste problemas para entender el inglés, o tuviste alguna dificultad para expresarte en inglés?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) English difficulty
 - ¿Con qué frecuencia pasa esto? ¿Cuándo tienes más problemas con el inglés? ¿Por ejemplo, al poner atención en clase o al hablar con los maestros o con otros alumnos que sólo hablan inglés?
- (2) English proficiency
 - ¿Hace cuánto tiempo que te has sentido cómodo hablando, leyendo y escribiendo en inglés?

- (1) English difficulty
 - ¿Qué crees que sea lo más difícil de aprender o hablar inglés?
- (2) English proficiency
 - ¿Cuál crees que sea la razón de por qué te sientes cómodo entendiendo y hablando inglés?

(Adaptive Motivation)

A continuación vamos a hacerte unas preguntas sobre cómo te sientes en la cultura estadounidense predominante. Puedes responder cada pregunta en una de estas tres formas: que no estás interesado en esta parte de la cultura estadounidense predominante, que tienes un cierto interés, o que estas muy interesado. ¿Listo?

- 1. ¿Qué tan interesado estás en hacer amigos con estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy interesado o no muy interesado
 - (2) Más o menos o algo interesado
 - (3) Muy interesado
- 2. ¿Qué tan interesado estás en saber como leer, hablar, y escribir en inglés?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy interesado o no muy interesado
 - (2) Más o menos o algo interesado
 - (3) Muy interesado
- 3. ¿Qué tan interesado estás en aprender cómo piensan los estadounidenses que no son hispanos y por que asen las cosas de esa manera?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy interesado o no muy interesado
 - (2) Más o menos o algo interesado
 - (3) Muy interesado

- 4. ¿Qué tan interesado estás en ver películas estadounidenses?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy interesado o no muy interesado
 - (2) Más o menos o algo interesado
 - (3) Muy interesado
- 5. ¿Qué tan interesado estás en ver shows estadounidenses en la televisión?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy interesado o no muy interesado
 - (2) Más o menos o algo interesado
 - (3) Muy interesado
- 6. ¿Qué tan interesado estás en escuchar música estadounidense?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy interesado o no muy interesado
 - (2) Más o menos o algo interesado
 - (3) Muy interesado
- 7. ¿Qué tan interesado estás en pasar tiempo con estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy interesado o no muy interesado
 - (2) Más o menos o algo interesado
 - (3) Muy interesado

- 8. ¿En tu opinión, que tan excepcional es la cultura estadounidense? En otras palabras que tan interesado estas en pertenecer o ser aceptado en la cultura estadounidense?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy interesado o no muy interesado
 - (2) Más o menos o algo interesado
 - (3) Muy interesado

Bien. Nuevamente vamos a hacerte unas preguntas para que las respondas en tus propias palabras. Recuerda compartir tu opinión con sinceridad; no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?

(HCC—Adaptation Motivation)

- a. (Description) Basándonos con lo que nos as dicho, parece que te (*elegir una opción*) agrada la cultura estadounidense predominante / no estás muy interesado en la cultura estadounidense predominante...
 - (1) Motivated to adapt
 - ¿Existen cosas que disfrutas hacer que consideras forman parte de las cosas "predominantes" de la cultura estadounidense? ¿Por ejemplo, practicar deportes escolares o escuchar estaciones de radio populares que no son estaciones hispanas?
 - (2) Unmotivated to adapt
 - ¿Existen cosas que no te gusta hacer que consideras forman parte de las cosas "predominantes" de la cultura estadounidense? ¿Por ejemplo, practicar deportes escolares o escuchar estaciones de radio populares que no son estaciones hispanas?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Motivated to adapt
 - En general, cuanto o que tan seguido disfrutas hacer cosas que son cosas "predominantes" de la cultura estadounidense?
- (2) Unmotivated to adapt
 - En general, ¿dirías que no estás interesado en las cosas "predominantes" de la cultura estadounidense, o que realmente te desagradan y estás en contra?

- (1) Motivated to adapt
 - ¿Cómo te sientes de formar parte de la cultura estadounidense más extensa? ¿Es algo que personalmente quieres hacer, o te sientes presionado por los demás para pertenecer en la cultura estadounidense? ¿Por quién te sientes presionado y en que forma?
- (2) Unmotivated to adapt
 - ¿Por qué no quieres ser aceptado en la cultura estadounidense más extensa? ¿En que cultura te sientes mejor aceptado?

(Behavioral Competence)

Muy bien. A continuación vamos a hacerte unas preguntas sobre qué tan cómodo te sientes comunicándote con los estadounidenses no hispanos. Puedes responder cada pregunta en una de estas tres formas: casi siempre, a veces, o casi nunca. ¿Listo?

- 1. ¿Te sientes torpe o incómodo hablando con estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi siempre me siento torpe o incómodo
 - (2) A veces me siento de esta forma
 - (3) Casi nunca me siento así
- 2. ¿Cuándo hablas con estadounidenses no hispanos, qué tan seguido entiendes lo que dicen o se refieren?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi siempre entiendo lo que dicen
 - (2) A veces entiendo lo que dicen
 - (3) Casi nunca entiendo lo que dicen
- 3. ¿Te sientes frustrado tratando de manifestar tu opinión cuando hablas con estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi siempre me siento frustrado
 - (2) A veces me siento de esta forma
 - (3) Casi nunca me siento así

- 4. ¿As tenido dificultad o problemas ablando con estadounidenses que no son hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi siempre tengo dificultad
 - (2) Alguna veces tengo dificultad
 - (3) Casi nunca tengo dificultad
- 5. ¿Cuando hablas con estadounidenses que no son hispanos, que tan seguido entiendes lo que dicen y tratan de decir?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Ellos casi siempre entienden lo que dices o tratas de decir
 - (2) Algunas veces entienden
 - (3) Ellos casi nunca entienden lo que digo y trato de decir
- 6. ¿Cres que la conversación fluye naturalmente cuando hablas con estadounidenses que no son hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi nunca siento que fluya la conversación naturalmente
 - (2) Algunas veces siento que fluye naturalmente
 - (3) Casi siempre siento que la conversación fluye naturalmente
- 7. ¿Cuando hablas con estadounidenses que no son hispanos, se te ase posible entender la información que quieres de la conversación?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi siempre se me ase posible entender la información correcta
 - (2) Algunas veces se me ase posible hacer esto
 - (3) Casi nunca se me ase posible obtener la información correcta

- 8. ¿Sientes que eres un buen comunicador cuando hablas con estadounidenses que no son hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi nunca me siento como un buen comunicador
 - (2) Algunas veces me siento como un buen comunicador
 - (3) Casi siempre me siento como un buen comunicador
- 9. ¿Cuando hablas con estadounidenses que no son hispanos, puedes hablar cómodamente y mantener una conversación?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi siempre puedo hablar agradablemente y convencional
 - (2) Algunas veces puedo hacer esto
 - (3) Casi nunca puedo hablar agradablemente y convencional
- 10. ¿Cuando hablas con estadounidenses que no son hispanos, que tan seguido entiendes sus bromas y su sentido del humor?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi siempre entiendo
 - (2) Algunas veses entiendo
 - (3) Casi nunca entiendo

Section C: Host Interpersonal Communication

(Host Interpersonal Contact)

Está bien. Ahora nos gustaría hacerte unas preguntas sobre tus actividades de comunicación cotidianas. Puedes responder cada pregunta en una de estas tres formas: nunca, o no muy seguido; a veces; o frecuentemente. ¿Listo?

- 1. ¿Qué tan seguido te sientas con estadounidenses no hispanos a la hora del almuerzo?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nunca, o no muy seguido
 - (2) A veces
 - (3) Frecuentemente
- 2. ¿Qué tan seguido invitas a tu casa a tus amigos estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nunca, o no muy seguido
 - (2) A veces
 - (3) Frecuentemente
- 3. ¿Qué tan seguido te invitan a las casas de tus amigos estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nunca, o no muy seguido
 - (2) A veces
 - (3) Frecuentemente

- 4. ¿Qué tan seguido sales (por ejemplo, a una película, de compras, o nada mas dar la vuelta manejando) con estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nunca, o no muy seguido
 - (2) A veces
 - (3) Frecuentemente
- 5. ¿Qué tan seguido trabajas en proyectos escolares con estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nunca, o no muy seguido
 - (2) A veces
 - (3) Frecuentemente
- 6. ¿Qué tan seguido participas en grupos o practicas deportes con estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nunca, o no muy seguido
 - (2) A veces
 - (3) Frecuentemente

Nuevamente vamos a hacerte unas preguntas que queremos que respondas usando tus propias palabras. Recuerda compartir tu opinión con sinceridad; no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?

(HIC—Host Interpersonal Contact)

- a. (Description) De acuerdo a lo que nos has dicho, al parecer (*elegir una opción*) pasas tiempo con estadounidenses no hispanos / no pasas tiempo con estadounidenses no hispanos...
 - (1) Host interpersonal contact
 - ¿Puedes contarnos de una actividad que hayas realizado con un amigo estadounidense o con un grupo de amigos estadounidenses no hispanos (club o actividad extraescolar)? ¿O alguna vez han pasado tiempo juntos?
 - (2) Limited host interpersonal contact
 - ¿Alguna vez te has involucrado en alguna actividad con estadounidenses no hispanos (club o actividad extraescolar)? ¿O alguna vez han pasado tiempo juntos? Si es así, ¿cómo fue esta experiencia para ti?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Host interpersonal contact
 - ¿Con qué frecuencia haces esto? ¿Qué otras cosas haces con estadounidenses no hispanos?
- (2) Limited host interpersonal contact
 - Nos comentaste que realmente no pasas tiempo con estadounidenses no hispanos; ¿te sientes bien respecto a esto?

- (1) Host interpersonal contact
 - ¿Qué es lo que te gusta más de hablar o hacer cosas con tus amigos estadounidenses no hispanos?
- (2) Limited host interpersonal contact
 - ¿Por qué no pasas tiempo con los estadounidenses no hispanos?

(Host Interpersonal Ties)

A continuación nos gustaría que pensaras en tus amigos, tanto en tus amigos casuales como en tus amigos cercanos.

Primero te preguntaremos de tus <u>amigos casuales</u>. Ellos son personas con los que eres amable, pero que no son tan importantes para ti como tus amigos cercanos o tus mejores amigos. Asegúrate de incluir en tu opinión a tus amigos casuales que no viven cerca de ti actualmente.

1. ¿Aproximadamente cuántos de tus amigos casuales son estadounidenses no hispanos?

_____ personas que numero, (por favor—no un estimado)

2. ¿Aproximadamente cuántos de tus amigos casuales son hispanos, o aún viven fuera de los EE.UU. en un país de Latinoamérica, tal como ______ (llena en país de origen de tu familia)?

_____ personas (por favor—no un estimado)

3. ¿Aproximadamente cuántos de tus amigos casuales son de países extranjeros distintos a los países de Latinoamérica, tal como países Africanos o Asiáticos?

_____ personas (por favor—no un estimado)

Ahora, por favor piensa en esas personas que consideras como <u>amigos cercanos o como</u> <u>tus mejores amigos</u>. Nuevamente, por favor incluye a aquellos amigos cercanos que no viven cerca de ti actualmente.

1. ¿Aproximadamente cuántos de tus amigos cercanos son estadounidenses no hispanos?

_____ personas (por favor—no un estimado)

2. ¿Aproximadamente cuántos de tus amigos cercanos son hispanos, o aún viven fuera de los EE.UU. en un país de Latinoamérica, tal como ______ (llena en país de origen de tu familia)?

_____ personas (por favor—no un estimado)

3. ¿Aproximadamente cuántos de tus amigos cercanos son de países extranjeros distintos a los países de Latinoamérica, tal como países Africanos o Asiáticos?

_____ personas (por favor—no un estimado)

4. Piensa en tus tres mejores amigos. ¿Cuál es su origen étnico o racial?

A)_____ B)____ C)____

Bien. Ahora vamos a hacerte otras preguntas para que las respondas usando tus propias palabras. Por favor comparte tu opinión abiertamente, recordando que no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?

(HIC—Host Interpersonal Ties) a. (Description) REFERENCE QUANTITATIVE RESPONSES ABOVE:

(1) Host interpersonal ties:

Acabas de comentarnos que tienes amigos estadounidenses no hispanos casuales y/o cercanos. Por favor describe la relación que tienes con un amigo estadounidense no hispano al cual consideras cercano. Por ejemplo, ¿de qué tipo de cosas hablan o qué cosas hacen juntos? ¿Por qué te agrada?

(2) No host interpersonal ties:

Acabas de comentarnos que no tienes ningún amigo estadounidense no hispano casual o cercano. ¿Alguna vez tuviste un amigo estadounidense que no fuera hispano? Si es así, ¿cómo era su amistad? ¿Qué ocurrió?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Host interpersonal ties:
 - ¿Sientes que tienes muchos amigos estadounidenses no hispanos? ¿Sientes que tus amistades cercanas con estadounidenses no hispanos son tan cercanas como tus amistades con hispanos?
- (2) No host interpersonal ties:
 - Te sientes bien sin tener amigos estadounidenses no hispanos? ¿Por qué si o por qué no?

- (1) Host interpersonal ties:
 - ¿Cómo hiciste amistades con estadounidenses no hispanos?
- (2) No host interpersonal ties:
 - ¿Actualmente por qué no tienes amigos estadounidenses no hispanos?

Section D: Psychological Health

(Belonging)

A continuación, queremos saber cómo te sientes viviendo en Estados Unidos. Nuevamente tendrás tres opciones de respuesta para estas preguntas. ¿Listo?

- 1. ¿Sietes que eres aceptado cuando sales con estadounidenses que no son hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No me siento nada aceptado, o no muy bien
 - (2) Me siento un poco aceptado o algo
 - (3) Me siento bien aceptado
- 2. ¿Qué tan seguido te sientes solo, o fuera de lugar por estadounidenses que no son hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi nunca me siento fuera de lugar
 - (2) Algunas veces me siento fuera de lugar
 - (3) Casi siempre me siento fuera de lugar
- 3. ¿Qué tan relacionado o vinculado a los Estados Unidos sientes que estás?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No me siento relacionado o no muy relacionado
 - (2) Más o menos o algo relacionado
 - (3) Muy relacionado

- 4. ¿Qué tan seguido te sientes raro, o fuera de lugar, viviendo en los Estados Unidos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi nunca me siento fuera de lugar
 - (2) A veces me siento fuera de lugar
 - (3) Casi siempre me siento fuera de lugar
- 5. ¿Sientes que los estadounidenses no hispanos que te rodean se preocupan por ti y cómo te va?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi nunca siento que se preocupan por mi
 - (2) A veces siento que se preocupan por mi
 - (3) Casi siempre siento que se preocupan por mi
- 6. ¿Cada cuanto te sientes triste, o deprimido?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi nunca me siento deprimido
 - (2) algunas veces me siento asi
 - (3) Casi siempre me siento deprimido
- 7. ¿Alguna vez deseaste que podrías irte de los Estados Unidos por siempre?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi siempre deseo irme de los Estado Unidos
 - (2) algunas veses deseo esto
 - (3) Casi nunca deseo esto

- 8. ¿Sientes que les agradas a los *maestros* que no son hispanos en la escuela?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi siempre me siento querido por maestros no hispanos
 - (2) Algunas veces me siento querido
 - (3) Casi nunca me siento querido por maestros no hispanos
- 9. ¿Sientes que les agradas a los *estudiantes* que no son hispanos en la escuela?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi nunca siento que les agrado a estudiantes no-hispanos
 - (2) Algunas veces siento que les agrado
 - (3) Casi siempre siento que les agrado a estudiantes no-hispanos
- 10. ¿Qué tan seguido te sientes frustrado, o estresado, estando en los Estados Unidos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi nunca me siento estresado
 - (2) Algunas veces me siento estresado
 - (3) Casi siempre me siento estresado

Ahora tenemos más preguntas para que las respondas usando tus propias palabras. Por favor comparte tu opinión con sinceridad, recordando que no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?

(PH—Belonging)

- a. (Description) De acuerdo a lo que nos has dicho, al parecer (*elegir una opción*) te sientes relacionado a Estados Unidos y a los estadounidenses no hispanos / frecuentemente no te sientes relacionado a Estados Unidos ni a los estadounidenses no hispanos...
 - (1) Belongs
 - ¿Puedes darnos un ejemplo de alguna vez en la que te hayas sentido muy cercano a estadounidenses no hispanos, por ejemplo, compañeros de equipo en algún deporte de la escuela o algún maestro que consideres cercano?
 - (2) Alienated
 - ¿Puedes darnos un ejemplo de alguna vez cuando sentiste que no eras aceptado en Estados Unidos, o que los estadounidenses no hispanos no te aceptaron?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Belongs
 - ¿Siempre sentiste que eras aceptado en los Estados Unidos? ¿Siempre te sentías aceptado con estadounidenses no hispanos?
- (2) Alienated
 - ¿Con qué frecuencia te sientes así?
 - ¿Alguna vez deseaste salir de Estados Unidos? Si es así, ¿a dónde irías? ¿Has deseado esto recientemente?

- (1) Belongs
 - ¿Qué te hace sentir que no eres aceptado por los estadounidenses no hispanos? ¿Qué cosas te dicen esto?
- (2) Alienated
 - ¿Qué te hace sentir que no eres aceptado aquí, o que no eres aceptado por los estadounidenses no hispanos?

(Satisfaction)

A continuación vamos a hacerte unas preguntas sobre qué tan cómodo o satisfecho te sientes viviendo en Estados Unidos. En otras palabras, qué tan feliz te sientes con tu vida actualmente. Puedes responder cada pregunta en una de estas tres formas: que no estás satisfecho con esta parte de tu vida, que te sientes algo satisfecho, o que te sientes muy satisfecho con esta parte de tu vida. ¿Listo?

- 1. ¿Qué tan cómodo te sientes conviviendo con estadounidenses que no son hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nada cómodo o no muy cómodo
 - (2) Más o menos o algo cómodo
 - (3) Muy cómodo
- 2. ¿Generalmente, que tan cómodo te sientes atendiendo a esta escuela?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nada cómodo o no muy cómodo
 - (2) Más o menos o algo cómodo
 - (3) Muy cómodo
- 3. ¿Qué tan satisfecho estas con tu amistad con estadounidenses no hispanos en tu escuela?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy satisfecho o no muy satisfecho
 - (2) Más o menos o algo satisfecho
 - (3) Muy satisfecho

- 4. ¿Qué tan satisfecho estas con la relación en general entre estudiantes hispanos y no hispanos en la escuela?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy satisfecho o no muy satisfecho
 - (2) Más o menos o algo satisfecho
 - (3) Muy satisfecho
- 5. ¿Qué tan satisfecho estás con tu relación con estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy satisfecho o no muy satisfecho
 - (2) Más o menos o algo satisfecho
 - (3) Muy satisfecho
- 6. ¿Qué tan cómodo te sientes viviendo en los Estados Unidos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Nada cómodo o no muy cómodo
 - (2) Más o menos o algo cómodo
 - (3) Muy cómodo
- 7. ¿Qué tan satisfecho estás con el trato que te dan los estadounidenses no hispanos?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy satisfecho o no muy satisfecho
 - (2) Más o menos o algo satisfecho
 - (3) Muy satisfecho

- 8. ¿Qué tan satisfecho estas con el vivir en los Estados Unidos por un termino largo en el futuro?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No estoy satisfecho o no muy satisfecho
 - (2) Más o menos o algo satisfecho
 - (3) Muy satisfecho

Nuevamente vamos a hacerte unas preguntas para que las respondas usando tus propias palabras. Recuerda compartir tu opinión abiertamente; no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?

(PH—Satisfaction)

a. (Description) En base en lo que nos has dicho, al parecer al menos te sientes (elegir una opción) algo satisfecho con tu vida / algo insatisfecho con tu vida...

- (1) Satisfied:
 - ¿Puedes darnos un ejemplo específico de algo que te gusta de vivir en Estados Unidos? ¿Qué te gusta de eso?
- (2) Dissatisfied:
 - ¿Puedes darnos un ejemplo específico de algo que no te gusta de vivir en Estados Unidos? ¿Qué no te gusta de eso?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Satisfied:
 - ¿Te gusta mucho tu vida en Estados Unidos, o sólo algunas cosas? ¿Por qué?
- (2) Dissatisfied:
 - ¿No te gusta mucho tu vida en Estados Unidos, o sólo algunas cosas? ¿Por qué?

- (1) Satisfied:
 - ¿De qué forma y cuándo te empezaste a sentir así (ya sea que te gusten la mayoría de las cosas o sólo algunas cosas de tu vida en Estados Unidos)?
- (2) Dissatisfied:
 - ¿Por qué piensas que no has encontrado algo mas que te guste de vivir en Estados Unidos? ¿De qué forma y cuándo te empezaste a sentir así?

Section E: Functional Fitness

(School Adjustment)

Muy bien. Ahora vamos a preguntarte sobre qué tanto te gusta tu escuela y las personas allí. Nuevamente tendrás tres opciones de respuesta para estas preguntas. ¿Listo?

- 1. ¿Sientes que "perteneces" a esta escuela?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No, o no mucho
 - (2) A veces
 - (3) Sí, mucho
- 2. ¿Qué tan seguido terminas todas tus tareas?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Casi nunca, o no muy seguido
 - (2) A veces
 - (3) Casi siempre
- 3. En general, ¿qué tan bien te llevas con los otros alumnos de tu escuela?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No muy bien
 - (2) A veces me llevo con ellos y a veces no
 - (3) Muy bien

- 4. ¿Qué tan seguido faltas a clases?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Regularmente, o con mucha frecuencia
 - (2) A veces, pero no muy seguido
 - (3) Nunca, o rara vez
- 5. En general, ¿qué tan bien te relacionas con tus maestros?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No muy bien
 - (2) Con algunos me relaciono mejor que con otros
 - (3) Me relaciono muy bien con todos o con la mayoría de mis maestros
- 6. ¿Alguna vez has pensado seriamente en abandonar la escuela?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) Si, frecuentemente
 - (2) De vez en cuando, pero no recientemente
 - (3) Nunca, o casi nunca
- 7. ¿Disfrutas participar activamente en actividades escolares, como deportes, banda, coro, teatro, o clubs?
 - 0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - 1) No, o no mucho
 - 2) Más o menos o algo
 - 3) Mucho

- 8. ¿Disfrutas atender o ver actividades escolares como deportes, banda, coro, teatro o clubs?
 - 0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - 1) No, o no mucho
 - 2) Más o menos o algo
 - 3) Mucho
- 9. En general ¿te gustan tus clases?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No, o no mucho
 - (2) Más o menos o algo
 - (3) Sí, mucho
- 10. ¿Ay almenos una clase que enverdad te guste y que esperes por ir?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) no, ninguna
 - (2) Sí, almenos una
 - (3) Sí, mas de una

Si es si, cual clase(s):

11. ¿Te as sentido "perdido," o fuera de lugar, en la escuela?

- (0) El entrevistado no sabe
- (1) No, o no con mucha frecuencia
- (2) A veces
- (3) Si, frecuentemente

- 12. ¿Te sientes seguro en la escuela?
 - (0) El entrevistado no sabe
 - (1) No, o no muy seguro
 - (2) Algo, o un poco seguro
 - (3) Si, muy seguro

Nos acercamos al final de la entrevista y ésta es la última vez que te pediremos que respondas usando tus propias palabras. Como siempre, recuerda compartir tu opinión con sinceridad; no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?

(FF—School Adjustment)

- a. (Descripción) En base a lo que nos has dicho, al parecer (*elegir una opción*) te gusta mucho tu escuela / a veces no te gusta mucho tu escuela...
 - (1) Functionally fit:
 - ¿Puedes darnos un ejemplo de algo en lo que te consideres bueno en la escuela, por ejemplo, una materia (como matemáticas o historia) o una actividad escolar (como deportes o clubes)?
 - (2) Not functionally fit:
 - ¿Puedes darme un ejemplo de una vez en la cual te as sentido "perdido" o fuera de lugar en la escuela? ¿En otras palabras, una ocasión en la que te sentiste confundido o agobiado por lo que los maestros esperaban de ti?

b. (Frequency and intensity)

- (1) Functionally fit:
 - ¿Te sientes "en control" de las cosas que pasan en la escuela? En otras palabras, ¿generalmente te sientes capaz de hacer las cosas que los maestros esperan de ti?
- (2) Not functionally fit:
 - Con qué frecuencia pasa esto?

c. (Explanation)

- (1) Functionally fit:
 - ¿Por qué tienes las cosas "bajo control" en la escuela?
- (2) Not functionally fit:
 - ¿Qué te hace sentir confundido o agobiado en la escuela?

(Academic Performance)

De lo siguiente que queremos hablar contigo es de cómo vas en la escuela en general. A veces es difícil hablar de las calificaciones, pero es muy importante para nosotros conocer esta información, para que los hallazgos de este estudio se basen en la verdad. Por favor recuerda que nadie más además de nosotros 3 sabra específicamente que dijiste en tu entrevista. Todas las entrevistas en este estudio, que se realizarán a cerca de 200 personas, se pondrán todas juntas en un informe y no se usará el nombre verdadero de nadie en el reporte. Además recuerda que te apreciamos y que pensamos que eres genial sin importar que calificaciones obtengas. Estamos muy felices de que hayas decidido hablar con nosotros hoy.

¿Muy bien, para cada una de las materias de las que te preguntaremos, ¿qué categoría describe mejor a tus calificaciones del sexto grado al presente?

1. Inglés

Principalmente A's (4) _____ Principalmente B's (3) _____ Principalmente C's (2) _____

Principalmente D's (1) _____ Principalmente menor a D (.5) _____ NA ____(0)

2. Matemáticas:

Principalmente A's (4) _____ Principalmente B's (3) _____ Principalmente C's (2) _____

Principalmente D's (1) _____ Principalmente menor a D (.5) _____ NA ____(0)

3. Ciencias:

Principalmente A's (4) _____ Principalmente B's (3) _____ Principalmente C's (2) _____

Principalmente D's (1) _____ Principalmente menor a D (.5) _____ NA ____(0)

4. Estudios sociales:

Principalmente A's (4) _____ Principalmente B's (3) _____ Principalmente C's (2) _____

Principalmente D's (1) _____ Principalmente menor a D (.5) _____ NA ____(0)

APPENDIX 3:

INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT: ALBERTO

Question Set 1: English Language Ability

Balbina: Good. Now we're going to ask you some questions that we'd like for you to answer in your own words. Please share your thoughts honestly; remember, there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

[Balbina: Bien. Ahora vamos a hacerte unas preguntas que queremos que respondas usando tus propias palabras. Por favor comparte tu opinión con sinceridad; recuerda no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?]

Balbina: Can you give an example of a time when you had trouble understanding English, or you had a hard time expressing yourself to someone in English? [Balbina: ¿Nos puedes dar un ejemplo de alguna vez en donde tuviste problemas para entender el inglés, o cuando tuviste alguna dificultad para expresarte en inglés?]

I91: Yes, when I try to present the works, I don't know how to begin, I don't know what is the right word; how is appropriate way to say it, and that when I get nervous and I take more time.

[191: Si cuando trato de exponer los trabajos, no sé cómo empezarlos, no se cual es la palabra correcta, como debería de decirlo, y es cuando me pongo nervioso y tardo mas.]

Balbina: Can you give an example of a time where something happened to you for example...

[Balbina: Puedes darme como un ejemplo de alguna vez que te haiga pasado algo como cuando...]

I91: The presentation in Economics' class. [191: La exposición del la clase de economía.]

Balbina: Can you tell me more about that? [Balbina: Platícame más de eso.]

I91: It was when...um, we had to give our point of view about a problem that we had to fix in South Sioux and we already had the theme, but when I try to explain the theme I didn't know what to say; I didn't know how to begin.

[191: Fue cuando... uum, tuvimos que dar nuestro punto de vista sobre de un problema que teníamos que solucionar en South Sioux y ya aviamos escogido el tema pero cuando trate de dar al conocer el tema ya no sabía ni que decir; no sabía cómo empezarlo.]

Balbina: How often does this happen? [Balbina: Con qué frecuencia pasa esto]

I91: Umm... (Thinking) [I91: Umm... (Pensando)] Balbina: When do you have the most trouble with English? It says here umm...for example, listening in class or talking to teachers or other students who only speak English? How you said in a moment that in the presentation, do you think is more of putting attention or expressing yourself.

[Balbina: ¿Cuándo tienes más problemas con el inglés? Umm... dice aquí que por ejemplo, al poner atención en clase o al hablar con los maestros o con otros alumnos que sólo hablan inglés? Como dijiste tú ahorita que en la presentación, crees que sea más poner atención o expresarte.]

I91: Express myself. [191: Al expresarme.]

Balbina: Expressing yourself and that happens umm...with the teachers or with students or both?

[Balbina: Al expresarte y eso pasa umm...con maestros, estudiantes o con los dos?]

I91: With both I think. [191: Con los dos puede ser.]

Balbina: Yes? [Balbina: Si?]

I91: Yes, with both. [191: Si, con los dos son.]

Balbina: How often does this happen? [Balbina: ¿Con qué frecuencia pasa esto?]

I91: Umm...not much recently, but yes...sometimes it's hard (laugh). [191: Umm...últimamente no mucho, pero si...resulta algunas veces que me resulta muy difícil(risa).]

Balbina: Umm... What, do you think, is the hardest thing about understanding or speaking English? [Balbina: Umm...; Qué crees que sea lo más difícil de aprender o hablar inglés?]

I91: Understanding is...that you have to relate each word with your own language and the other one was to write?

[I91: El aprenderlo es...que tengas que relacionar las palabras con tu propio idioma, y el otro es escribirlo]

Balbina: To speak? [Balbina: Hablarlo?] I91: To speak; not knowing how to begin, you have, I have for example that I want to say everything at once but I don't have the right words to say it and then it gets complicated; I get frustrated more than anything.

[191: Hablarlo; el no saber cómo empezar, tienes, tengo, de ejemplo tengo que quiero decirlo todo pero no tengo las palabras necesarias para poderlo decir y se me traba antes de; me desespero más que nada.]

Balbina: Okay. Anything else? [Balbina: Okay. Algo más]

I91: No (laughter). [I91: No (sonrisa).]

Balbina: And what do you think is harder to speak or to learn? [Balbina: Y tú qué crees que sea más difícil hablar o aprender]

I91: To speak it. [191: Hablarlo.]

Balbina: Why do you think is harder? [Balbina: Y porque crees que sea más difícil]

I91: For me because I'm timid yes (laughter), yes I'm not very sociable, well it depends if they are very close people.[191: Para mí porque soy un poco tímido si (sonrisa), si no soy sociable, bueno depende si son personas de confianza.]

Balbina: Okay. [Balbina: Okay.]

I91: I'm not very open with people. [191: No soy muy abierto a las personas.]

Balbina: Okay. Anythig else? [Balbina: Okay. Algo más?]

I91: No, it's ok. [I91: No, está bien.]

Question Set 2: Adaptive Motivation

Balbina: Good. Again, we're going to ask you some questions for you to answer in your own words. Remember to share your thoughts honestly; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

[Balbina: Bien. Nuevamente, vamos a hacerte unas preguntas que queremos que respondas usando tus propias palabras. Recuerda compartir tu opinión con sinceridad; no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?]

Balbina: Based on what you've just told us, you seem to like mainstream U.S. American culture. Are there things you enjoy doing that you think are "mainstream" U.S. American things to do? For example, playing school sports or listening to popular radio stations that aren't Hispanic stations?

[Balbina: Basándonos con lo que nos has dicho, parece que te agrada la cultura estadounidense predominante ¿Existen cosas que disfrutas hacer que consideras forman parte de las cosas "predominantes" de la cultura estadounidense? ¿Por ejemplo, practicar deportes escolares o escuchar estaciones de radio populares que no son estaciones hispanas?]

I91: What do I think about it? [191: Que opino de ella?]

Balbina: Yes. [Balbina: Si.]

Balbina: If there are things? I will repeat the question. Are there things you enjoy doing that you think are "mainstream" U.S. American things to do?

[Balbina: Que si existen cosas? Te voy a repetir la pregunta. ¿Existen cosas que disfrutas hacer que consideras forman parte de las cosas "predominantes" de la cultura de la cultura estadounidense?]

I91: What I like is sports; the importance on sports and that when opportunities come into play for the student.

[191: Lo que me agrada de aquí es el deporte; la importancia que le tienen al deporte y surgen muchas oportunidades para el alumno.]

Balbina: Like what kind of opportunities? [Balbina: Como que tipo de oportunidades?]

I91: I like soccer in general and in fact due to my age I should...; if they think I'm good I should of sign off for a school and that would help me a lot and I wouldn't be struggling about what school to attend or what to do about school and I wouldn't struggle that much. [191: En general me gusta el soccer y de hecho por mi edad por lo menos ya debería de estar...; si me consideran bueno ya debería haber firmado con alguna escuela y eso ya me hubiera ayudado muchísimo y ya no tendría que estar batallando que escuela o como le podría hacer para la escuela y no batallaría tanto.]

Balbina: And what other things about that you consider to be...that they reflect "mainstream" U.S. American things to do? It can be sports, it's says radio stations or other activities?

[Balbina: Y que otras cosas aparte de eso que tu consideres forman parte...que en este caso reflejen la cultura estadounidense? Puede ser deportes, dice aquí pueden ser estaciones de radio o otras actividades?]

191: They are very patriotic (laughter). [191: Son muy patrióticos (sonrisa).]

Balbina: What do you mean by that? [Balbina: A que te refieres?]

I91: They love their country and love...and so, they are proud of what they are and what they do and they feel good about themselves and that's not the same thing that happens in Mexico.

[191: Aman mucho a su país y aman... y ósea son muy orgullosos de lo que son y de lo que hacen y se sienten bien con ellos mismos que no es lo mismo que pasa en México.]

Balbina: Why? What do you mean by that? [Balbina: Porque? A que te refieres?]

I91: No, because the majority of people here trust their government and you think that everything is going well and in Mexico never...it's not the same untruth, how much money they would get, how...what they would steel, anything as always there is disadvantages.

[191: No, porque las mayorías de las personas aquí confía en su gobierno y piensas que las cosas están bien y en México nunca...no pasa lo mismo, siempre es la misma desconfianza, cuánto dinero van a agarrar, cuanto...de que roban, cualquier cosa siempre hay muchas desventajas.]

Balbina. Okay. Anything else? [Balbina: OKay. Algo más?]

I91: (Shaking head, thinking) [I91: (Moviendo la cabeza y pensando)]

Balbina: Or another example? [Balbina: U otro ejemplo?]

I91: No (laughter). [I91: No (sonrisa).]

Balbina: Overall, how much and how often do you enjoy doing things that are "mainstream" how often? [Balbina: En general, cuanto o que tan seguido disfrutas hacer las cosas que son cosas que tu consideres "predominantes" que tan seguido?] 191: Well, I tried to do it most of the time. For example in regards to playing sports, I'm trying to take the opportunities that I'm getting, but unfortunately due to my age I can't play for this school and that's something that...well, if no one gets to see how I play it's something that interferes with getting an opportunity to play for a school and that would prevent me from returning to Mexico.

[191: Pues, trato de hacerlo lo mayor de tiempo, por ejemplo lo que es practicar el deporte, estoy tratando de aprovechar las oportunidades que me están dando, aunque lamentablemente por mi edad ya no puedo jugar para la escuela y eso es algo que...pues algo de lo que interviene pues para que pueda que alguien pueda ver como juego y también de alguna oportunidad de aquí mismo y no tener que regresar a México.]

Balbina: Okay. Anything else? [Balbina: Okay. Algo más?]

I91: No. [*I*91: No.]

Balbina: How do you feel...Um How do you feel about being part of the larger "mainstream" U.S. American culture? Is this something you personally want to do, or do you feel pressure from others to "fit in" to U.S. American culture um... and if yes from whom and in what ways?

[Balbina: Como te sientes...Um ¿Cómo te sientes de formar parte de la cultura estadounidense más extensa? ¿Es algo que personalmente quieres hacer, o te sientes presionado por los demás para pertenecer en la cultura um... y si es así por quien te sientes presionado?]

I91: Because I'm Latino here? [I91: Por ser Latino aquí?]

Balbina: Yes. How do you feel about being part of the larger U.S. American culture, do you feel pressure or do you do it voluntarily?

[Balbina: Si. Dice como te sientes de formar parte la cultura predominante más extensa, te sientes tu presionado o lo haces voluntariamente?]

I91: No. No I don't feel pressure, in fact I feel normal, and it's because there is a lot of Latinos here.

[191: No. No me siento nada presionado, de hecho me siento normal, más que nada porque hay mucho Latino aquí.]

Balbina: Okay. [Balbina: Okay.]

I91: So, then... [*I*91: Entonces no...] Balbina: Do you thing that it would change, if there wasn't any Latino? [Balbina: Crees que eso cambiaria si no hubiera mucho Latino?]

I91: Yes. [191: Si.]

Balbina: Do you think that you would feel pressure than? [Balbina: Crees que sentirías entonces la presión?]

I91: Yes of course, it would change a lot. *[I91: aah claro, cambiaria demasiado.]*

Balbina: In which ways? [Balbina: En qué forma?]

I91: How to speak to other people, because the North Americans have...; they are well, most of them a lot different...They are a little colder in general; they are not that charismatic and I don't know they don't...I wouldn't have so many friends, it will be harder.

[191: De cómo platicar con la demás gente porque los Norteamericanos tienen una...; son muy diferentes pues son por la mayoría...por lo general son un poco más fríos, no son tan carismáticos y no se no me...no sería tendría tantos amigos, seria mas difícil.]

Balbina: Okay. Anything else? [Balbina: OKay. Algo más?]

I91: No. [*I*91: No.]

Question Set 3: Host Interpersonal Contact

Balbina: Again, we're going to ask you some questions that we'd like for you to answer in your own words. Remember to share your thoughts honestly; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay? From what you've just told us, it sounds like you don't spend much time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic...Have you ever been involved in an activity with U.S. Americans who weren't Hispanic (club or after school activity)? Or, have you ever just "hung out" together? If yes, what was this experience like for you? [Balbina: Nuevamente vamos a hacerte unas preguntas que queremos que respondas usando tus propias palabras. Recuerda compartir tu opinión con sinceridad; no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo? De acuerdo a lo que nos has dicho, al parecer no pasas tiempo con estadounidenses no hispanos...;Alguna vez te has involucrado en alguna actividad con estadounidenses no hispanos (club o actividad extraescolar)? ¿O alguna vez han pasado tiempos juntos? Si es así, ¿cómo fue esta experiencia para ti?]

I91: Well the only time that it happens was when my brother's friends invited me to a party and I also went and there were only North Americans, and well, I felt embarrassed. I couldn't talk or I didn't want to simply because. My brother told me that I should feel comfortable to say whatever I wanted, they wouldn't laugh at me or would not look at me weird, but it was a little hard.

[191: Pues la única vez que ha pasado fue cuando un amigo de mi hermano me invito a su fiesta y ya fui yo también y eran puros Norteamericanos y no me sentía como en vergüenza no podía hablar o no quería simplemente pero mi hermano me decía que con ellos tenía la confianza de decir lo que quiera no se iban a burlar de mi o me iban a mirar mal pero fue un poco muy difícil.]

Balbina: And what do you think...well like you say that you felt nervous or that you couldn't talk. What do you think...

[Balbina: Y porque crees tú...bueno como dices tú que te daban nervios o que no querías hablar. Porque crees tu que...]

I91: Because I didn't know the people. [191: Porque no conocía a las personas.]

Balbina: Okay. You don't think that is because of the language, is just that you get nervous?

[Balbina: Okay. No crees que sea por el idioma si no porque te daban nervios?]

I91: Yes... [191: aja...]

Balbina: Okay. Anything else? [Balbina: Okay. Algo mas?]

I91: Also we went to one of my brother's friend and we were at his baseman, when we were watching football but American football well he would try to talk to me, but I would only answer yes and no only. So, I will try to explain; simply no. Also when I just to go to the stores and someone would come up to me and would ask(laughter) If I needs something or something in particular, but because I was nervous I would forget. I don't understand what they even ask so, I just tell them that I'm ok or I just pretend that I didn't hear (laughter).

[191: Fuimos una vez también a la casa de un amigo de mi hermano y estuvimos en su baseman cuando estábamos viendo un partido de futbol pero Americano. Pues el a veces me trataba de platicar pero pues solamente le decía si o no corto...respuestas muy cortas. No trataba de explicarle; simplemente no. No también el cuándo iba a las tiendas que se acercaban a preguntarme (sonrisa) que, que quería o algo así, pero por los nervios se me olvidaba. No les entiendo ni que me preguntaban, mejor les digo estoy bien o me voy o me hago que no les escucho (sonrisa).] Balbina: So, you think is more of being nervous when you are there or do you think is the language also?

[Balbina: Entonces crees que sea por los nervios de estar allí o crees que sea el idioma también?]

I91: More than everything is the lang(didn't finish word)... is the...nerves. It's simple I know what they ask.

[191: Mas que nada es el idio(no termino palabra) es el...los nervios. Porque hay preguntas simples que se que es lo que me preguntan pero cuando estoy cerca de alguien no...para nada.]

Balbina: You've told us you don't really spend time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic; do you feel okay with that?

[Balbina: Nos comentaste que realmente no pasas tiempo con estadounidenses no hispanos; ¿te sientes bien respecto a esto?]

191: Yes, no I think that...I at least... I'm not saying I don't care. I don't think that it will affect me that much, because there is a lot of Latinos more than everything and they speak English also. What I mean is that there is more fluent to speak to them. [191: Si, no creo que...por lo me menos a mi no es que no me interese. No creo que me afecte tanto. Porque más que nada hay mucho Latino y pues ellos también hablan Ingles, ósea que es más fluido hablar con ellos.]

Balbina: Do you think that it would change if you moved to a different place where there are more North Americans?

[Balbina: Crees que si te movieras a otra parte y hubiera mas Norteamericanos esto cambiaria?]

I91: Yes, that would change a lot. *[I91: Si, cambiaria demasiado.]*

Balbina: So, would this change the way you feel? Would you feel bad instead of feeling good?

[Balbina: Y entonces cambiaria tu opinión de cómo te sientes? Te sentirías mal envés de que te sientas bien?]

I91: I would feel better now because I would change a little, because I would have more contact with them and that would help understand how they are, their sense of humor, and what do they do every day because its different from what we do. In general Latinos, we at least try to dress up really nice, and they don't really care as long as they feel good, they are not judgmental like us. They don't criticized that much, everyone is in their own world and they go along.

[191: Me sentiría mejor ya porque ya cambiaria un poco, porque tendría más contacto con ellos y ya seria más fácil ver como son ellos, su sentido del humor, y que es lo que hacen cotidianamente ellos porque es mucho muy diferente a lo que nosotros hacemos. Por lo menos en general los Latinos tratamos de vestirte bien y a ellos no les importa mientras ellos se sientan bien ellos no son tan criticones como nosotros. No critican tanto, cada quien en su mundo y ahí se la llevan.]

Balbina: Okay. Anything else? [Balbina: Okay. Algo más?]

I91: No. [*I*91: No.]

Balbina: Thank you. Umm why is it you don't spend time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic? For example how you said before...

[Balbina: Gracias. Umm ¿Por qué no pasas tiempo con los estadounidenses no hispanos? Por ejemplo lo que me avías platicado...]

I91: More than anything because I don't feel the necessity and the worried to be with them. I see them as somebody else. More than anything because of the Latino influence here.

[191: Mas que nada porque ahorita no siento la necesidad ni la preocupación de estar con ellos. A ellos los veo como alguien más. Más que nada por la influencia de que hay tanto Latino aquí.]

Balbina: What do you mean by they are somebody else? [Balbina: Y a que te refieres con que son alguien más?]

I91: Umm, it's not that I don't know it; but I don't think it's weird. Its familiar, but I won't deal with it; I won't cross a word with them.

[191: Umm, pues no es que lo conozca pero; no se me hace extraño verlo. Me es familiar pero nunca lo voy a tratar no voy a tratar de cruzar palabra con él.]

Balbina: Anything else? [Balbina: Algo más?]

I91: Well, in fact the first day when I got here, I did felt a little, I would judge them from first sight, how they look, from what they laugh or it depends if you are a senior, because sophomores and freshman get treated more like garbage; they don't care. It's more if seniors deserved respect or that you would have to have respect. And back home I saw everything normal, I would get along with everyone. If you are a senior and you hang around with freshman you may get picked on. And in fact when I got here; that's when I didn't spoke to anybody and well there where people from my native town that I hang around because I already knew them. The first day that I was here I was with somebody from Michoacán (Mexico) and in fact I would never separate from him. When we were at lunch I felt overwhelmed because there was so many people and even people that I don't know. I felt a little...I wanted school to be over and I wanted to get home and do my things that all.

[191: Pues de hecho el primer día cuando llegue aquí, si me sentí un poco de que los juzgaba mucho a la primera vista, de cómo los veían, de que se burlaban o tiene mucho que ver cuando eres senior, que a los demás a los sophomores, a los freshmans los tratan casi como basuras es que no les interesa o como si te debieran respeto o te tendrían que tener y yo aya lo veía normal yo me juntaba con cualquiera. Si eres senior y te juntas con freshman te hacen la burla y de hecho fue cuando entre a la escuela y no me juntaba con nadie y luego fue que mucha gente que es de mi pueblo y entonces unos ya los conocía y trataba de estar con ellos y el primer día estuve aquí estuve con alguien de Michoacán y de hecho no me separaba del, cuando estábamos en el desayuno yo me sentía abrumado por tanta gente y no me gusta estar donde hay mucha gente y menos que no conozco si me sentía un poco; quería que ya se terminara la escuela, llegar a la casa y hacer lo mío es todo.]

Balbina: Anythning else? [Balbina: Algo mas?]

I91: No. [*I*91: No.]

Question Set 4: Host Interpersonal Ties

Balbina: Good. Now we're going to ask you some more questions for you to answer in your own words. Please share your thoughts openly, remembering there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay? You've just told us that you don't have any casual or close U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic. Have you ever had a U.S. American friend who wasn't Hispanic? If so, what was this friendship like? What happened? [Balbina: Bien. Ahora vamos a hacerte otras preguntas para que las respondas usando tus propias palabras. Por favor comparte tu opinión abiertamente, recordando que no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?Acabas de comentarnos que no tienes ningún amigo Estadounidense no Hispano. Alguna vez tuviste un amigo Estadounidense no Hispano y si es así como fue esa, esa amistad, que ocurrió?]

I91: Americans? In fact he was Mexican. [I91: Americano? De hecho era mexicano.]

Balbina: But American, not Hispanic? [Balbina: Pero Americano, que no sea Hispano?]

I91: No, if it's only American than no. *[I91: No, que sea solamente Americano no.]*

Balbina: Okay. Do you feel okay with not having any U.S. American friends who are not Hispanic, why or why not? [Balbina: Okay. Te sientes bien sin tener amigos Estadounidenses no Hispanos porque si o porque no?]

I91: If I fell good without them? Yes, because, simply because I haven't really being with them and also because of my age I don't think it's really necessary and also because I don't think I will spend that much time here. So, In the meanwhile I try to get away because I am not planning to stay here for a long time. I think that in a certain point...I don't know...I don't really care.

[191: Que si me siento bien sin tenerlos? Sí, porque, porque simplemente no he convivido mucho con ellos y aparte por mi edad ya no creo que sea necesario y más que nada porque no pienso durar mucho aquí, entonces mientras, no trato de mantenerme más alejado porque mis planes no son de estar mucho tiempo aquí no. Yo quiero que... a cierto punto...no se no me interesa no sé.]

Balbina: Anything else? [Balbina: Algo más?]

I91: No. [*I91: No.*]

Balbina: Why is it you don't have any U.S. American friends right now who aren't Hispanic? [Balbina: Actualmente porque no tienes amigos Estadounidenses no Hispanos?]

I91: Well friends, good friends?
[I91: Pues amigos, amigos?]

Balbina: Now. [Balbina: Actualmente.]

I91: I don't know, because I don't really share the same things as them, we don't have the same likes, things to do. In regards to going out, like on the weekend prom and homecoming are around the corner and nothing close to what I like, it's very boring compare to what I am just to. It's a dramatic change. I was an adult in Mexico, but in here I'm still, well I get treated like a kid; I have more restrictions. There are more laws, you can't really do much, in fact I never liked it, because I just to come for vacations, I didn't like it because you always have to have a car. In Mexico you could walk anywhere you wanted and the weird thing is that is a small time here.

[191: No se, pues porque no comparto lo mismo que ellos, no tenemos los mismos gustos; cosas que hacer. Al salir, lo que es el fin de semana se harca el prom y el homecoming nada que ver con migo, muy aburrido pues al ambiente que yo traigo. Un cambio muy drástico, En México ya era mayor de edad y aquí si lo soy pero todavía no me tratan como un, bueno no que me traten como un niño pero tengo más restricciones. Hay mucha ley, casi no puedes hacer nada de hecho nunca me a gustado. Por que cuando venía de vacaciones no me gustaba porque siempre tienes que tener carro y pues allá en México caminabas y pues ya en cualquier parte estabas y eso que es un pueblo chico aquí. Todo en carro no, porque tienes que depender mucho de alguien si no tienes carro pues eso me limita un poco, lo que quiero hacer o lo que me gustaría hacer.]

Balbina: Anything else? [Balbina: Algo más?]

I91: No. [*I91: No.*]

Question Set 5: Alienation

Balbina: Now, we have more questions for you to answer in your own words. Please share your thoughts honestly, remembering there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay?

[Balbina: Ahora tenemos más preguntas para que las respondas usando tus propias palabras. Por favor comparte tu opinión con sinceridad, recordando que no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo?]

I91: Yes. [*I91: Si.*]

Balbina: Puedes darnos un ejemplo de alguna vez que no eras aceptado en los Estados Unidos o que a los estudiantes no Hispanos no te aceptaron?

Balbina: Can you give an example of a time when you felt like you didn't "fit in" in the United States, or that U.S. Americans who weren't Hispanic didn't accept you? [Balbina: Basándonos, con lo que nos has dicho al parecer, te sientes frecuentemente no te sientes relacionado a Estados Unidos ni a los estadounidenses no hispanos... Balbina: From what you've just told us, it sounds like you often feel disconnected from the U.S. and U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic...]

191: Umm, the first time was when we lived with my family, we went to the garage sales and we entered and there was a sign that said "garage sale" and we went and there wasn't anything. So, when we got there the people left, I felt bad; like inferior. And in school, American football; they treat them too good and in fact the majority of people that play sports such as Basketball, American football different from soccer get treat really good I don't know why but...some people have told me examples in which the basketball or football player will get food after practice; they would get cookouts, grilled meat or any other food and soccer players will get the leftovers. No one cares for them. There is more attention where there are more American students. It hasn't being that much time since I've been here, but I agree with that idea.

[191: Umm, la primera vez fue cuando vinimos con mi familia, fuimos a los que es las ventas de cochera y ya entramos y allí estaba el cartelón que era venta de cochera y fuimos y no había nada entonces en cuanto llegamos nosotros la gente se retiro me sentí un poco mal; un poco como inferior ante ellos. Aquí en la escuela con el Futbol Americano los tratan muy bien y de hecho a la mayoría de los que practican deportes como basketball, futbol Americano muy diferente a lo que es soccer los tratan muy bien no se porque sea pero... a mi me han contado ejemplos de que cuando termina la práctica de basketball o futbol les llevan de comer, les hacían parrilladas; como carne asada o cualquier comida y a los de soccer les daban las sobras. Nunca les ponen caso. Tienen más apoyo a donde, pienso yo donde hay más alumnos americanos. Pero ha sido poco el tiempo que he estado aquí pero no, si comparto esa idea.]

Balbina: Anything else? [Balbina: Algo más?]

I91: Well, no. [*I91: Pues, no.*]

Balbina: Thank you. How often you feel like this? [Balbina: Gracias. Con que frecuencia te sientes así?]

I91: Umm, not much frequently, but the times I have felt like that have been umm... I really don't like them but have been a lot.

[191: Umm, frecuentemente no mucho, pero las veces que me he sentido así han sido umm... no me gustan para nada pero ya no han sido mucho.]

Balbina: What makes you feel like you don't "fit in" here, or aren't accepted by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic?

[Balbina: ¿Qué te hace sentir que no eres aceptado aquí, o que no eres aceptado por los estadounidenses no hispanos?]

I91: More than anything is the way they think about us, because they are Mexicans and because of the way they are; their family sells drugs or supposedly their family has kidnapped someone or they have kill someone. Always, it seems they already have a fear, it's not admiration, but a fear of how they are, or where are they from, but they don't really bother to know that information. Not many Americans want to learn and in fact it's only the modest, because the ones that have money don't even bother to say hello, nothing.

[191: Mas que nada la forma que tienen de pensar sobre nosotros, porque son Mexicanos y por la manera que tienen de seguro; su familia vende droga o según su familia secuestra a alguien o a quien ya a matado el allá. Siempre ósea, como ya le tienen un cierto miedo no diría admiración si no miedo de que de donde será o como será pero ellos no muestran mucho interés de saber de eso. Son muy pocos los Americanos y de hecho son los más humildes porque los que tienen dinero ni siquiera molestan en saludarte, nada.]

Balbina: Okay. Anything else? [Balbina: Okay. Algo más?]

I91: No. [*I*91: No.]

Question Set 6: Satisfaction

Balbina: Again, we're going to ask you questions for you to answer in your own words. Remember to share your thoughts openly; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay? Based on what you've told us, it sounds like you are at least somewhat dissatisfied with your life...Can you give a specific example of something you dislike about living in the United States?

[Balbina: Nuevamente vamos a hacerte unas preguntas para que las respondas usando tus propias palabras. Recuerda compartir tu opinión abiertamente; no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo? En base en lo que nos has dicho, al parecer al menos te sientes algo insatisfecho con tu vida...; Puedes darnos un ejemplo específico de algo que no te gusta de vivir en Estados Unidos?]

I91: Family. [I91: La familia.]

Balbina: Can you tell me more about that? [Balbina: Platícame mas de eso?]

I91: Umm, to begin with it was a bit drastic when I got here. Everything, it took time to assimilate it. You begin to missed things such as detail at night, like not being with your mom, or my girlfriend or being with my family, share time with friends; I spend much of my time with them and everything changes. It's a colder environment; it's not nice to be here. Sadly, you have to get used to it, because if it was for me I wouldn't be here in the first time.

[191: Umm... para empezar fue muy drástico cuando llegue. Todo, tarde tiempo para asimilarlo. Empiezas a extrañar cuando son detalles en la noche o que estar con tu mama, o la novia o estar con la familia, compartir con los amigos que en eso estaba mucho más tiempo y cambia más. Es un ambiente muy frio no es muy agusto estar aquí. Lamentablemente te tienes que acostumbrar pero si de por mi fuera yo nunca hubiera llegado para acá.]

Balbina: Anything else? [Balbina: Algo más?]

Balbina: Do you pretty much dislike life in the U.S., or only some parts? [Balbina:¿No te gusta mucho tu vida en Estados Unidos, o sólo algunas cosas?]

I91: Only somethings. [191: Solo algunas cosas.]

Balbina: What things? [Balbina: Que son las cosas?]

191: It would be, only because you live better. Well, you live better but with more restrictions. Because If you live better that means you work more, If you work more

that means you don't spend much time with your family or with other friends. So, it's very...you incarcerate yourself and don't spend much time with people and I don't like it. [191: Seria, simplemente que vive uno mejor. Pues vive uno mejor pero con más restricciones pues. Porque si vives mejor significa que trabajas mucho, si trabajas mucho no tienes tiempo libre significa que no compartes mucho con la familia o con tus amigos. Entonces es muy... como que te encierras mucho no compartes mucho con la gente y no me agrada.]

Balbina: Thank you very much. Anything else? [Balbina: Muchas gracias. Algo más?]

I91: No. [*I*91: No.]

Balbina: Why, do you think, you've not found something to like about living in the U.S.? How and when did you start to feel this way?

[Balbina: ¿Por qué piensas que no has encontrado algo más que te guste de vivir en Estados Unidos? ¿De qué forma y cuándo te empezaste a sentir así?]

I91: That I don't like it here?
[I91: Que no me gusta estar aquí?]

Balbina: Why you haven't found something that you like...you told me that you haven't found something that you like? Why do you think that you haven't, what is stopping you? [Balbina: Porque no has encontrado algo que te guste de...me dijiste tu que no has encontrado algo que te gusta? Pero qué crees que no te, que te detenga en realidad?]

191: Well, not speaking the language because that closes many doors. Like I want to go to the store and I go alone, but I don't even know what to ask, who to ask or how to ask he or she and that changes a lot, how can I tell you, I'm not self-sufficient in this country. It was a different story in Mexico, but not here. It's the language more than anything. [191: No, hablar el idioma porque así se me sierran muchas puertas. Como de quiero ir a la tienda voy solo, pero no sé ni que preguntarle, a quien dirigirme o como dirigirme hacia el o hacia ella y cambia mucho no estoy como te diré, no estoy autosuficiente en este país. En México sería otra cosa pero aquí no. Más que nada es por el idioma.]

Balbina: Anything else? [Balbina: Algo más?]

I91: No. [*I91: No.*]

Question Set 7: Functional Fitness

Balbina: We are getting close to the end of the interview and this will be the last time we'll ask you questions to answer in your own words. As always, please remember to share your thoughts honestly; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Okay? Based on what you've just told us, it sounds like you pretty much like your school...Can you give an example of something you feel you're good at in school, for example, a subject area (like math or history) or a school activity (like sports or clubs)?

[Balbina: Nos acercamos al final de la entrevista y ésta es la última vez que te pediremos que respondas usando tus propias palabras. Como siempre, recuerda compartir tu opinión con sinceridad; no hay respuestas "correctas" o "incorrectas". ¿Listo? En base a lo que nos has dicho, al parecer te gusta mucho tu escuela...; Puedes darnos un ejemplo de algo en lo que te consideres bueno en la escuela, por ejemplo, una materia (como matemáticas o historia) o una actividad escolar (como deportes o clubes)?]

I91: The only two the grab my attention the most are History and sports. In sports its soccer and in History more than everything because I liked what happen in World War II a lot; that like my specialty. I know more about that, so it's easier to relate to it and I like it more; I really don't know why like it more from the World War II. In regards to soccer well, since I was a child I have liked it and there seems to be more opportunities and its easier here, since they take it more seriously.

[191: Las únicas dos que me han llamado mucho la atención son Historia y deportes. El deporte es el soccer y de Historia más que nada porque me gusta mucho lo que pasó en la segunda guerra mundial, eso es fuerte como quien dice. De eso se, ya sé como relacionarlo y me agrada mas; no sé porque me gusta mucho mas sobre la segunda guerra mundial. Acerca del soccer pues de niño siempre he jugado y aquí lo toman un poco mas enserio y hay más facilidades y hay más oportunidades para ello.]

Balbina: Okay. Anything else? [Balbina: Okay. Algo más?]

Balbina: Do you pretty much feel "in control" of things at school? In other words, do you generally feel able to do the things your teachers expect you to? [Balbina: ¿Te sientes "en control" de las cosas que pasan en la escuela? En otras palabras, ¿generalmente te sientes capaz de hacer las cosas que los maestros esperan de ti?]

I91: Yes. It's because in general they are not hard and in fact I have the time to get them done, it only depends on my decision, but sometimes I don't do them. Like reading a book or study for a test; I really don't study (laughter) for the exams.

[191: Si. Por lo general si porque no son muy difíciles y de hecho tengo el tiempo para hacerlas es nada más decisión mía pero enveses no las hago. Como leer un libro o que me dejen estudiar para un examen; casi no estudio (sonrisa) para el examen.]

Balbina: And so, why do you think that in this case... why do you have things "under control"?

[Balbina: Y por qué piensas en este caso que...; Por qué tienes las cosas "bajo control"?]

I91: Because I trust myself; it's under my capacities and so, I don't have to exceed more than what I need to get them done. I don't feel behind.

[191: Porque tengo confianza a mi mismo; esta dentro de mis capacidades pues, no me tengo que exceder un poco más para poderlas hacer. No me siento muy atrás de ellas.]

Balbina: Okay. Anything else? [Balbina: Okay. Algo más?]

I91: No. [*I91: No.*]

Balbina: Thank you. [Balbina: Gracias.] APPENDIX 4:

INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT: PEDRO

Question Set 1: English Language Ability

Kelly: Okay. Now I'm going to ask you some questions I'd like for you to answer in your own words. Please share your thoughts honestly. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers. So based on what you've just told me, you seem to be quite comfortable using English in most situations. Has there ever been a time when you had trouble understanding English, or you had a hard time expressing yourself to someone in English?

I34: Nope. It's been easy my whole life.

Kelly: Okay. Do you speak Spanish?

I34: Yeah, not fluently, but I can speak it well.

Kelly: Okay. So you were born in the United States, were you ever in any ESL classes, anything?

I34: Uh, elementary school they put me in that to work on my speech. Yes, when I started speaking I sort of had like the little Spanish of it too. I added some Spanish parts, then, for example, like "they", [inaudible] make me use my tongue. After that it's been good.

Kelly: Okay. So what was your first language as you were, before school?

I34: I would go with English.

Kelly: And you parents both speak English fluently?

I34: Uh, sort of, yeah.

Kelly: Sort of with English?

I34: Yeah, sort of with English. Fluent with Spanish.

Kelly: Okay. Anything else at all to add there?

I34: Nope. That's it.

Kelly: Alright. How long, just building on that question then, how long have you felt comfortable speaking, reading, and writing English, all forms?

I34: Uh, it's been good. I'm very comfortable with it.

Kelly: Yeah, since as early as you can remember?

I34: Yeah.

Kelly: And what do you think explains why you are comfortable understanding and speaking English?

I34: Well, because it's been part of my whole life. Since I was a little kid I was learning how to speak English too. And Spanish. So, it's just been there the whole time.

Kelly: Who were you learning English from before you were in school?

I34: I'm guessing the TV at first. And my parents, and then preschool if that counts. Yep.

That's when I began learning English.

Kelly: Okay. Anything else to add there?

I34: No. That's it.

Question Set 2: Adaptive Motivation

Kelly: Good. Again more questions to answer in your own words. Remember to share your thoughts honestly, no right or wrong answers. So based on what you've just told me, you seem to be quite comfortable and you like mainstream U.S. American culture to some extent. Are there things that you enjoy doing that you think are mainstream U.S. American things to do, for example, playing school sports or listening to popular radio stations that aren't Hispanic stations?

I34: Yeah. I like playing sports a lot. And I play soccer and doing track, too. And I also listen to radio stations beside Hispanic ones. Also I, wearing clothing, I don't know, somehow the Hispanic students wear different clothing. I wear, like, go to [inaudible, but popular clothing brand stores] and buy polos and like, classy clothes.

Kelly: Okay. How would you describe more Hispanic clothing?

I34: Uh, not to make them mad, but sometimes they wear their shorts all the way down to their legs and have baggy clothes. Nothing against them, I'm just, I don't wear, I don't wear like that. I just wear casual clothes.

Kelly: Sure. Okay. Anything else you can think of that you consider to be a mainstream American way to...

I34: Uh, not really.

Kelly: Any you mentioned you play school sports?

I34: Yeah.

Kelly: Is soccer with the school, or is it outside the school?

I34: Well, it's not a sanctioned sport. Yeah. But I'm guessing my senior year, that's what I've been told, when it's sanctioned, so.

Kelly: Okay. So right now it's a club sport?

I34: Yep.

Kelly: Anything else to add there?

I34: No, that's it.

Kelly: Okay. Overall, how much and how often do you enjoy doing things that are these kind of mainstream U.S. American things to do?

I34: I enjoy it.

Kelly: How often would you say you participate in these types of activities?

I34: I have to say a lot during the whole week. Not every day but mostly a lot.

Kelly: Do you do any activities that you would consider to be from your El Salvador heritage?

I34: Uh, well, we go to church. And then I help out over there all the time.

Kelly: Help out at church?

I34: Yeah.

Kelly: Is it a lot of Hispanics in the church you go to?

I34: Yeah. I go to [inaudible] Guadalupe, it's a Hispanic church down in Sioux Falls.

Kelly: Oh, okay. Anything else to add there?

I34: No, that's it.

Kelly: How do you feel about being part of the larger U.S. American culture? Is this something that you personally want to do, or do you feel pressure from others to fit into U.S. American culture?

I34: I don't feel no pressure at all, I just feel like I fit in.

Kelly: Okay. Anything else to add?

I34: That's it. Question Set 3: Host Interpersonal Contact

Kelly: Okay. Again more questions for you to answer in your own words. Remember to share your thoughts honestly. There are no right or wrong answers. So from what you've just told me, it sounds like you spend a significant amount of time with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic in background. Can you tell us about an activity you've done with a U.S. American friend, or group of friends, who weren't Hispanic, such as a club or after school activity? Or do you ever just hang out together?

I34: Uh, yeah. For example, I used to play basketball when I was younger and I was the only Hispanic kid on the team. Full of Americans, got along. Played good as a team. We didn't win, but it was fun. And soccer, too, well there's a couple Hispanic other kids, just me and two other ones. And then, we got along with everybody else. And then I also used to do tennis. I was the only one, and got along with everybody, no complications. And that's it.

Kelly: And track?

I34: Track, there's a ton.

Kelly: It's what?

I34: There's a ton of Hispanic students, so, I, nothing wrong with that either.

Kelly: Do you have friends that aren't Hispanic that you just ever hang out with, outside of sports?

I34: Yeah. Yeah, I do.

Kelly: Okay. What kinds of things do you do?

I34: Ah, we just, play video games, a lot. Or just work out and then we also go, well they're in my club team for soccer, too. We also go practice together and then just hang out, that's it.

Kelly: Okay. Anything else to add there?

I34: Nope.

Kelly: How often do you do this, and what other kinds of things do you do with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic? Maybe that aren't fellow students, but do you have a job and things?

I34: Uh, I don't have a job. But we go like every weekend we play poker and then we just hang out, that's it.

Kelly: Alright. So what do you like most about talking with or doing things with your U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic?

I34: Uh, I like to do many things they like to do. If they just want to hang out, I hang out, if they want to go play some poker, we play some poker, and then if they want to play sports, I play sports. I play football, soccer, track, tennis, even ping pong. Yep. And that's it.

Kelly: Okay. Anything else to add about what you like about having them as friends?

I34: Um, yeah. They're just good people. That's it.

Question Set 4: Host Interpersonal Ties

Kelly: Okay. More questions for you to answer in your own words. Please share your thoughts openly, remembering there are no right or wrong answers. So you've just told us that you do have both casual and close U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic in background. Please describe the relationship you have with one U.S. American friend you feel closest to who isn't Hispanic. For example, what kinds of things do you talk about and do together? Why do you like him or her?

I34: Well, my friend, my good friend, he's my neighbor too, couple blocks down the street. And we always hang out every summer during since kindergarten I'm guessing and then every time we go watch the new movies coming out, like a movie I remember we could go watch was Transformers, the first time ever watching that. And then, we go around on our bikes and play this game called the curb game where we ride our bikes on the curb and if you fall off you lose. You see how many times you can. This one time he was riding his bike on the curb, I just pushed him off. I thought it was funny. He didn't think so, but. The next day we did that game again and there's a tree, he pushed me to the trees and so, yeah, it's a good relationship between us two. And then, now we can drive so we give each other rides to school every day. Carpool. And then we just hang out when we have the chance, and we also play the same club, too. We're in the same club team for soccer, we both played in high school soccer, too. And then, we've been through a lot, the whole childhood.

Kelly: Sure. And he goes to school here?

I34: Yeah.

Kelly: What's his personality like, what do you like about him?

I34: Uh, he's an outgoing guy. He's not afraid to take risks too. Some people say he's a little bit crazy. [laughs] I agree with them, too, he can be a little bit crazy, but he also

knows like the boundaries, when to stop, when enough is enough. And he's, we're good friends. For some reason we connect like that.

Kelly: Okay. Anything else to add there?

I34: No. He's just a good guy.

Kelly: Do you feel you have a lot of U.S. American friends who aren't Hispanic?

I34: Yeah. I do feel like that. I have a lot of not Hispanic friends, that are Americans.

Kelly: Do you feel that your close friendships with U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic are as close as your friendships with Hispanic friends?

I34: Yeah. I do feel like that.

Kelly: I noticed that none of the friends that you listed in the top three are of Hispanic background. Do you have friends that are Hispanic that you feel close to?

I34: Uh, well, I guess family. Does family count?

Kelly: Sure.

I34: Yeah, then, I do have family that are friends that are Hispanic.

Kelly: Is this like immediate family?

I34: Yeah.

Kelly:...or is this cousins...

I34: Uh, cousins. They go to, they're in Sioux Falls, too, they live here, but they go to different schools. I'm really close with them, too. We hang out every weekend we can.

Kelly: And do you feel they're equally close, both types of friendships?

I34: Yep. I see them more as friends instead of family. Yeah.

Kelly: Anything else to add there?

I34: No.

Kelly: Okay. How did you form your friendships with non-Hispanic Americans?

I34: Uh, by doing activities. Like for example, playing sports, just like talking and then get close from there. And also, since elementary school, uh, we've been going, I go to the

same school as they do and then we become good friends. And also from like activities, or just meet someone you just want to meet and talk to them.

Kelly: So would you say these activities are mostly in school, or out of school?

I34: Um, both.

Kelly: Anything else to add there?

I34: No. That's it.

Question Set 5: Alienation

Kelly: Good. More questions for you to answer in your own words. Please share your thoughts honestly, remembering there are no right or wrong answers. So from what you've just told me, it sounds like you feel pretty connected to the U.S. and to U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic. Can you give an example of a time you felt really close to U.S. Americans who weren't Hispanic? For example, teammates in a school sport or a teacher that you're close to.

I34: Uh, okay. Yeah. Teammates. I think everyone uh, we're in a club. Sorry, there's this club here in south Sioux Falls called Dakota Alliance now, it used to have been called the Dakota Goal, it's a soccer club. And we were in this tournament in Des Moines and we were, uh, it's like soccer so we're down two to one, we needed one more goal to tie it to go into overtime. I got this perfect ball, like it came right to me, passed, defended, and I shoot it and it goes in. And all the non-Hispanic players came to me and just, we celebrated when that goal was scored, and I felt like, wow, very comfortable, like I feel great around these people. Yeah. Yeah, and then the parents, too, they were just excited, happy, giving my high fives, hugs, too. So it was a very nice feeling. And then teachers, all the time I ask them politely what to do, never be mean to them, and I get the same response back. They're always good with me. I just never feel, like, I'm not hated.

Kelly: Okay. Anything else at all to add there?

I34: No, that's it.

Kelly: Have you always felt that you fit in the U.S. Have you always fit in with Americans who aren't Hispanic?

I34: [laughs] Well, I have my stories sometimes. I went to Omaha and there's this racial group, I'm guessing, playing basketball. And they wouldn't let us on the court. I don't know why. We just wanted to play basketball, but they said go back to Mexico and stop crossing the border. And I was devastated from it, but I just realize that's the people, people like that in the U.S., so. Yep.

Kelly: Anything else to add?

I34: No, that's it.

Kelly: What makes you feel that you do fit in and are accepted by U.S. Americans who aren't Hispanic? What things tell you this?

I34: Uh, the way they treat me, like they don't treat me like I'm dumb or anything. They treat me like an average person. They don't read slow for me, they actually put me at a higher pace because they expect great things out of me. And which I like that because I want to be challenged, show them that a Hispanic person can be better than an average American. Which I like to do.

Kelly: Anything else at all there?

I34: No, that's it.

Question Set 6: Satisfaction

Kelly: Okay. Again, more questions for you to answer in your own words. Based on what you've told me, it sounds like you are a least somewhat satisfied with your life. Can you give a specific example of something you like about living in the United States? What do you like about it?

I34: Well, I like about the U.S. is that, when I went to El Salvador, the economy over there is not great. Living there is not great. Can't really trust people as much as here in the U.S. Like, you couldn't go outside. My grandparents don't even go outside because you can't trust no one down there in El Salvador, because sometimes it gets just too crazy. People bring guns and start shooting. I had an experience with my uncle. We were playing basketball down in El Salvador at a basketball court. Two guys came out with guns, luckily we walked away because we saw the gun, we walked away as fast as we could. And I knew it was a bad place to live. But here in the U.S., in my neighborhood, you know everybody, you can trust them, you know they're good people. And you can play outside, which is a good thing. And you can know your little brothers are out there perfectly fine. But sometimes, there's some bad people, but it's not as bad as El Salvador.

Kelly: Anything else to add there?

I34: Uh, no. That's it.

Kelly: Okay. Do you pretty much like life in the U.S. or only some parts?

I34: Uh, I like it a lot, it's just the racial, the racist, the racism here in the U.S. can be very bad. Which I don't like. I just want everybody to see everybody equal. There's nothing wrong with your skin color or where you come from. Sometimes people look at me and they see me as a Mexican, which I'm not. And I just want to be known as a Latino, a

Latino American. I just, sometimes they make racial slurs, too. Which I, it's around the world, too, but it's pretty bad in the U.S., too.

Kelly: Do you think that's everywhere, or do you feel like when you went to Omaha, you said you had that one experience. Does that happen here ever?

I34: It happens here, a couple of times. This one time I went to a gas station this old guy thought I was stealing something, for some reason. And then my friend told me it's because I'm Hispanic, and probably right, too, because he didn't say nothing to my friend, which he's non-American [intended non-Hispanic], and then I told him I had nothing in my pocket, and he's like oh yeah, go back to Mexico. You Mexicans stop stealing our economy and stuff like that. Which upset me a little bit, but I said something bad, too, which I'm not proud of, but yeah. It's the way people are, I'm guessing.

Kelly: Anything else to add there? Other things you don't particularly like about life in the United States?

I34: Just the racism, that's it. Everything else is good. Kelly: How and when did you start to feel this way, that you mostly like it despite these parts that are...

I34: Uh, it started when I was little. I liked it, everything's good. You've got your education, which you need, then you got medicine, and uh, you got your insurance, which by the way, insurance it way too much over here. Uh, but besides that, everything's good.

Kelly: Now you mentioned in some of your closed-ended questions that you're kind of or somewhat satisfied with staying in the U.S. for the long term future. Do you envision yourself going somewhere else, or will you stay here?

I34: Yeah. I would like to move to Europe, because I heard they like, the economy's better than here in the U.S. right now, and hopefully it's going to be better over there, too. And that, also for soccer, because soccer, more getting chances to, pro for soccer is higher over there than the U.S. because soccer's not really a big sport here.

Kelly: So is that a direction you're looking for going, is pro?

I34: Yeah. Spain. That's where I want to go is Spain.

Kelly: Okay. Anything else to add there?

I34: No, that's it.

Question Set 7: Functional Fitness

Kelly: Okay, we're getting close to the end of the interview and this will be the last time I'll ask you questions to answer in your own words. As always, remember to share your thoughts honestly, there are no right or wrong answers. So based on what you've just told me, it sounds like you pretty much like your school. Can you give an example of something you feel you're good at in school, for example, a subject area like math or history, or a school activity, like a sport or a club?

I34: Well, for sport club, soccer. I made the varsity team my, well actually, this is my first year going to Roosevelt, last year I went to O Goreman. So, uh, for sports, soccer, I made the varsity team sophomore year, and I started, too. And then, uh, for classes, algebra, I do algebra. For some reason I like to, I like numbers and I get them crunched down, I don't know how you explain it, but I just like it. And then Spanish three, I can be good at. And I can be lazy sometimes in that class. Which was a little bit affecting my grade but then I decided to step it up and bring back my grade up. Which has been good. And then biology. Uh, it's amazing. I like to learn about how life works and everything. It's easier for me to understand that instead of like physical science. I don't really like to learn about rocks and stuff, I just find that boring. Not the best grade I ever got in that class, but you just got to work hard in every class.

Kelly: Anything else to add there, things you feel like you're good at?

I34: Uh, no, that's it.

Kelly: Do you feel pretty much in control of things at school? In other words, generally able to do the things your teachers expect you to do?

I34: Yeah. I do feel comfortable and I can do what they tell me to do. If they tell me write one page essay due the next day, I'll do it. Or just tell me to, I got a group assignment to do, I'll work with the other kids and hopefully we all can work together and get a good grade.

Kelly: Building on that, how do you explain that? Why do you have things under control at school?

I34: Because you have to be calm about everything. You can't panic. If you do panic you're going to get messed up. You're not going to do well. You always have to be calm, that's what I like to think. Everything just be calm, then have a good day. Make the best out of nothing.

Kelly: Anything else to add?

I34: That's it.