

ATTITUDES TOWARD DIVERSITY AND LIFE IN THE U.S. HELD BY CHILDREN OF  
HISPANIC IMMIGRANTS: DO THEIR PARENTS PLAY A ROLE?

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the Honors in the Major Program in Psychology  
in the College of Sciences  
and in The Burnett Honors College  
at the University of Central Florida  
Orlando, Florida

Fall Term, 2015

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## **ABSTRACT**

The present study explores how children of Hispanic immigrants (CHIs) perceive life in the U.S., and how they view cultural diversity. Questionnaires were given to 92 non-U.S. born CHIs and one of their non-U.S. born Hispanic immigrant parents (HIPs) who have lived in the U.S. between 1 and 17 years ( $M$  yrs = 8.43); their views of the U.S. were assessed along with their acceptance of diversity, acculturative stress, and levels of acculturation. In this study, I found that CHIs generally hold positive views of the lives in the U.S. and also hold favorable views toward cultural diversity. Furthermore, this study hypothesized that HIPs significantly influence their CHIs attitudes toward both the U.S. and toward cultural diversity. Overall, my findings validated the theoretically based expectation that demonstrates the power of parental attitudes on their children's attitudes. A significant correlation was found between HIPs' attitudes toward the U.S. and their children's attitudes, as well as, CHIs' attitudes toward the U.S. correlating significantly with their perceptions of their parents' attitudes toward the U.S. Multiple and stepwise regressions further confirmed the importance of parental attitudes toward their children's attitudes toward the U.S. and their openness to cultural diversity. Findings from this study provide implications for future research.

## **DEDICATION**

For my father, who in his early 30s, and widowed, decided to raise his two daughters on his own,  
and whose sole desire was that they become successful.

For my mother, who would have been very proud of all of my accomplishments, including this  
thesis.

For my extended family that always supports me despite the distance between us.

For Poochie, my beloved dog.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to thank my thesis chair, and constant teacher, Dr. Charles Negy. Your intellect, passion, and wisdom have taught me countless invaluable lessons beyond the walls of academics. I cannot thank you enough for helping me define this project, inspiring me with your ideas and intelligence, for your patience, honesty, and for your awesome sense of humor. I am fortunate to have been taught and guided by one of the most influential professors at the University of Central Florida. To Dr. McConnell, Dr. Alma Alarcón, and Dr. Doan Modianos, I am incredibly grateful for your support, assistance and willingness to be part of my Thesis Committee. Dr. Modianos, thank you for your advice, encouragement, and warm enthusiastic nature. Additionally, I express my sincerest gratitude to Rodrigo Velezmoro for permitting me to use data from his Doctoral dissertation. To Amanda Thayer, thank you for your mentorship, advice, encouragement, and generous support. To my supervisor, Penny Fawcett, thank you for always having the best interest in my education and for willing to flex my work schedule anytime I had academic duties to attend to. Thank you to my friends, Christian, Kelsey, Denise, and Arif. I greatly value your friendship. You all helped me stay sane one way or another through this process.

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## INTRODUCTION

The U.S. Census has been collecting data from the foreign-born population since the beginning of the mid-19th Century (Gibson & Lennon, 1999). Nearly a century and a half later, it is estimated that as of 2013, 12.9 percent of the U.S. population is made up of immigrant residents (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). Although, Williams and Jackson argue (as cited in Belizaire & Funes, 2011) that this estimation may be greater due to individuals who do not participate in the census because of their illegal status. Since the 1850's, immigration has brought new ideas, customs and languages to the U.S., thereby shifting American society to be multilingual and culturally diverse. Today, the country's most populous residents are those from the Caribbean and Asia, with the largest group being from Latin America (Foner & Bertossi, 2011; Taylor, Kochhar, Livingston, Lopez, & Morin, 2009). For the purposes of this study, I will focus on Latin American immigrants and their adaptation to the United States.

The Latino population had become the largest minority group in the United States since 2000, currently making up 17.1 percent of the nation's total population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). In search of a better quality life that includes, but is not limited to, the freedom of expression, employment opportunities and better education, Latinos migrate to the United States to attain basic freedoms among a host of others. In some cases however, they may not assimilate to the hardships and challenges that come with adapting to a new country. Studies show that immigrants sometimes have false expectations prior to migrating to their host country, which in result causes them acculturation stress. Negy, Schwartz, and Reig-Ferrer (2009), for example, examined acculturative stress in the context of pre-migration expectations. Based on a sample of

112 Latino immigrants who had come to the U.S. within the prior five years, pre- and post-appraisals of their expectations about their prospective life in the U.S. were assessed. These appraisals were centered on four domains, specifically, ability to communicate in English, community safety, employment/finances, and racism/discrimination. Negy et al. found that discrepancies between pre-migration expectations and post-migration (actual) experiences predicted significantly the immigrants' acculturation stress level.

Beyond concerns over safety and racism being associated with poor adjustment among Latino immigrants, other research has suggested that those with higher levels of education are more likely to adapt to a new culture and be less prone to acculturative stress. Tonsing (2013) studied how demographic variables, such as educational attainment, affected South Asian immigrants' life satisfaction. Results demonstrated that level of education influenced life satisfaction, which in turn predicted adaptation outcomes to their host country. Generally, educated individuals may be more open to the flux and change that accompany immigration and may be more likely to possess the skills necessary to adapt and accept new challenges. Educated immigrants' overall attitude towards acculturation appears to be generally positive (Baek Choi & Thomas, 2009).

It bears noting that, in addition to education, employment status is another critical variable linked to immigrants' acculturation levels (Negy & Woods, 1992). Shortly after migration, some-to-many immigrants may begin to experience a decline in their overall socioeconomic status (Aycan & Berry, 1996). A decline in such status is attributed to the difficulty of securing a job right away and to lacking proficiency in English (Starr & Roberts, 1982). According to Vinokurov, Birman, and Trickett (2000), immigrants are likely to report the

greatest levels of life dissatisfaction and greatest levels of segregation, given their lowered social standing and lack of financial means. Assimilating the idea of low life satisfaction is Aycan and Berry (1996), who find that in addition to immigrants being less satisfied, they also experience negative self-concepts and face adaptation difficulties. As a result of these, it was concluded that immigrants were less likely to describe themselves as accomplished in their life.

Although research on Latino immigrants is not new, research on Latino adolescents in particular has been less prevalent, but increasing in its importance as a field of research. As previously mentioned, Hispanics (word used synonymously with Latinos) are the largest minority group in the United States, as well as the youngest (Taylor et al, 2009). To be more specific, the U.S. Census in year 2000 reported that Hispanic youth represented 16 percent of the overall United States youth population (Dinh, Roosa, Tein & Lopez, 2002).

Parallel to the difficulties adult Latinos face with acculturation, adaptation may be just as demanding on adolescent immigrants. Adolescence, an already tough phase of life, becomes more complex given resettlement into a foreign environment. With little preparedness for adaptation in most cases, and few life experiences to prepare them, Hispanic adolescents include a significant portion of those immigrants who report acculturative stress (Ko & Perreira, 2010). Nonetheless, adolescents generally are found to construct adaptive strategies to better assimilate to their new society relative to parents, though the path to improving these skills and strategies often are difficult, and increasingly stressful (Ko & Perreira, 2010; Tadmor & Tetlock, 2006).

One of the many cultural changes Latino adolescents face when migrating to the U.S. is the country's multiculturalism (Neto, 2009). Such cultural shock may happen because their country of origin is not likely to have as much ethnic diversity as does the U.S.. Thus, they might



not have ever experienced ethnic discrimination. Sirin et al. (2015) examined the effects of discrimination-related stress among Latino adolescents. Based on a three-part longitudinal study of Latino adolescents in their sophomore, junior and senior high-school years (n = 173), three symptoms, which include anxious-depressed, withdrawn-depressed, and somatic, were assessed to examine the Latino adolescents' psychological well-being. They also wanted to determine if their discrimination-related stress lead to particular psychological well-being outcomes over time, and whether immigration status (foreign born or U.S.-born) relates to the effects of psychological well-being and perceived discrimination. Siring et al. found that discrimination-related stress correlated with all three symptoms, but that they also decreased over time. They also found that U.S.-born Latino adolescents reported higher levels of discrimination-related stress compared to foreign-born Latino adolescents.

Ko and Perreira (2010) studied Latino adolescent immigrants (between the ages 14-18) and examined emotional difficulties and adaptive strategies they developed during the three phases of migration (pre-migration, migration, and post-migration) to the United States. The results indicated that adolescents face separation from their parents, and experience changes in their social status in the first stage of migration. For instance, cases were reported in which, after the adolescents' parents moved to the U.S. and had left the adolescents in their country of origin, some moved in with extended relatives, whereas some moved in with neighbors or friends. In the second stage (the migration stage of the adolescents themselves), the adolescents experienced separation again from the extended relatives, neighbors or friends with whom they had grown accustomed. At this stage, the adolescents also reunited with their parents. The final migration experience was that of post-migration, which is when adolescents were excited and motivated to

settle in their host country (i.e., learning a new language, adapting to a new culture, awareness of their ethnicity, etc.), but also experienced feelings of disillusion due to the notable change in social status. In this same stage, however, they become resilient. Moreover, it was observed that the process of acculturation was stressful for the adolescents and only 45% of them reported being happier living in the United States than in their home country.

It is evident that parents' decisions to migrate have a powerful impact on the emotional adjustment of their children and on their children's adaptation process to the host country. Another factor, however, that may impact the adjustment of adolescents is their parents' attitude toward change. Based on a sample of 102 children of immigrant parents (51 U.S.-born and 51 foreign born), Aronowitz (1992) examined how the children dealt with acculturation and to what degree they were influenced by their parents. Aronowitz hypothesized a positive correlation between parental acculturation attitudes and the children's adjustment in school for both foreign- and U.S.-born children. He also hypothesized that parental acculturation attitudes would influence foreign-born children more than U.S.-born children. Aronowitz found that there was a positive correlation between parental acculturation attitudes and the adjustment in school of both foreign-born and U.S.-born children. His second hypothesis was not supported.

Given the increase in Latino immigrants in the U.S., and the myriad challenges related to acculturation to the U.S. that has been documented, it seems critical to explore how Latino immigrant adolescents, including emerging adults, view life in the U.S. No published study I could find has examined how Latino immigrant minors perceive life in the U.S., including whether or not they anticipate having a positive future in the U.S. Moreover, given that the U.S. generally is more ethnically diverse than most Latin American countries, another area in need of

investigation is how Latino immigrants adolescents and young adults view multiculturalism and living among diverse cultural groups within the U.S. My study represents an effort to address these gaps in the literature.

My research questions are: (1) Do children of Hispanic immigrants (CHIs) hold generally positive views toward life in the U.S.? (2) What are CHIs' attitudes toward cultural diversity? And (3) Do Hispanic immigrant parents (HIPs) influence their children's views of the U.S. and their attitudes toward cultural diversity?

In light of the continuous flow of immigrants who choose to live in the U.S., which likely reflects a perceived higher quality of life in the U.S. relative to their countries of origin, I expect—but do not formally hypothesize—that CHIs will, on average, hold positive views of their life in the U.S. I also expect that CHIs will hold positive and open attitudes toward cultural diversity given the likelihood that many of them may live in or attend schools that are ethnically diverse. Finally, I formally hypothesize that HIPs significantly influence their children's attitudes toward both the U.S. and toward cultural diversity. This last hypothesis is based on research that demonstrates the power of parental attitudes on their children's attitudes (Arnett, 2000; Aronowitz, 2002; Bandura & Walters, 1963; Dinh et al, 2002; Maccoby, 1992).

The data from which I endeavor to answer these research questions were collected as part of a larger study that had focused primarily on resiliency and emotional regulation among Hispanic immigrants (see Velezmoro, 2013). Thus, these results are based on archival data.

## METHOD

### Participants

Participants ( $N = 184$ ) were 92 CHIs (59 females, 33 males) and one of their HIPs. To be included in the study, the CHIs had to (a) self-identify as Hispanic or Latino/a, (b) be non-U.S. born, (c) have non-U.S. born parents who also self-identified as Hispanic/Latino/a, and (d) be within the ages of 13 and 21. The 13-21 age range was chosen in order to find individuals mature enough to fill out the questionnaires and who likely were still influenced by their parents. The families had lived in the U.S. from 1 to 17 years ( $M$  yrs. = 8.43,  $SD = 4.12$ ). The CHIs' mean age = 17.60 ( $SD = 2.45$ ). Their average level of education was reported to be comparable to a high school degree ( $M = 11.98$ ,  $SD = 2.33$ ). The majority indicated speaking Spanish at home (76.6%), and the majority elected to complete the questionnaires in English (68.5%). The preponderance of participants was from the following countries: Cuba ( $n = 20$ ; 21.7%), Colombia ( $n = 18$ ; 19.6%), Puerto Rico ( $n = 13$ ; 14.1%), and Peru ( $n = 8$  (8.7%).

Regarding the HIPs, their mean age = 45.18 ( $SD = 6.67$ ). Mothers filled out the questionnaires ( $n = 73$ ) more than fathers ( $n = 19$ ). Most indicated being married ( $n = 64$ ; 69.6%). Their level of education was comparable to "some college" or vocational school ( $M$  yrs. of education = 14.84,  $SD = 3.28$ ). The majority of the HIPs indicated speaking Spanish at home (93%) and the majority (81.5%) elected to complete the questionnaires in Spanish.

### Measures

The questionnaires were available in both English and Spanish and were translated consistent with the Brislin's (1970) technique for translating questionnaires into a new language.

**Demographic Sheet** Participants indicated their age, gender, ethnicity, religious affiliation, and current residential status (i.e., with whom they live). Participants also indicated their general satisfaction level toward the U.S. and their country of origin.

**Attitudes towards United States** In order to assess views of the United States, a 10-item scale was developed by Velezmoro (2013). Participants responded to statements using a 5-point Likert-type scale with response options ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). Scores were averaged with higher scores reflecting more positive attitudes. An example item is, “Life in the United States is generally good.” Based on data from the current sample, the reliability of this scale was adequate (Cronbach alphas = .86 for CHIs, and .80 for HPis, respectively).

**Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale-Short Form** (*M-GUDS-S*; Fuertes, Miville, Mohr, Sedlacek, & Gretchen, 2000). In order to assess participants’ relative appreciation of differences, diversity of contact, and their comfort with differences, this 15-item scale was utilized. This scale is an abbreviated version of the original version (Miville et al., 1999). Participants responded to statements using a 6-point Likert-type scale with response options ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). Scores were averaged and range from 1 to 6, with higher scores indicating more acceptance of diversity. An example question is, “Knowing how a person differs from me greatly enhances our friendship.” Based on the current sample, the reliability of this scale was adequate (Cronbach alpha = .83 for CHIs, and .82 for HPis, respectively).

**Multidimensional Acculturative Stress Inventory** (*MASI*; Rodriguez, Myers, Mira, Flores, Garcia-Hernandez, 2002). In order to assess the acculturative stress experienced by

participants, this 25-item scale was utilized. The MASI measures acculturative stress in the following domains: Spanish competency pressures, English competency pressures, pressures to acculturate, and pressures against acculturation. Participants responded to statements using a 3-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (Does not apply) to 3 (Extremely successful). Scores were averaged and range from 0 to 3, with higher scores indicating greater acculturative stress. An example question is, "I have pressure to learn English." Based on the current sample of CHIs, the reliability of this scale was adequate (Cronbach alpha = .90).

**Psychological Acculturation Scale (PAS;** Tropp, Erkut, Garcia Coll, Alarcon, Velasquez Garcia, 1999). To assess participants' levels of acculturation toward the larger, U.S. (White) culture, they completed the PAS. This 10-item scale is responded to using a 5-item Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Only Hispanic/Latino) to 5 (Only Anglo/White American). Scores are averaged and range from 1 to 5, with higher scores reflecting higher levels of acculturation. Based on the current sample of CHIs, the reliability of this scale was adequate (Cronbach alpha = .79).

## **Procedure**

A group of bilingual, bicultural (English-Spanish) research assistants approached the Hispanic community and found participants who; (1) were Hispanic immigrants, (2) had arrived in the United States within 20 years and (3) had a child between the ages of 13-21. Research assistants explained the study and obtained participants' informed consent. Research assistants gave the participants the study materials to take home for completion and made appointments and collected the questionnaires at participants' homes. Participants were instructed that the target child (who met study criteria) was to complete a set of questionnaires, and one parent of

that child (who also met study criteria) was to complete a similar set of questionnaires, independent of each other. Materials were available in both English and Spanish. Participants were given a \$10 gift card for their participation after the study materials were collected.

## RESULTS

### **Do Children of Hispanic Immigrants (CHIs) Hold Positive Views Toward Life in the U.S.?**

Table 1 (see Appendix A) shows the means and standard deviations of study variable scores for CHIs and HIPs. Possible scores on the Attitudes toward the U.S. scale ranged from 1 to 5, with higher scores reflecting relatively positive views of the U.S. Although scores on this scale obtained by CHIs ranged from 1 to 5, on average, CHIs reported generally positive views of their lives in the U.S. ( $M = 4.12$ ,  $SD = .62$ ).

To examine if CHIs' views of the U.S. varied as a function of their levels of acculturation toward the U.S. and acculturative stress, zero-order correlation analyses were performed between these variables. Although those who were relatively more acculturated toward the U.S. culture tended to have more positive views of the U.S. ( $r = .17$ ), the correlation was not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ). By contrast, views toward the U.S. correlated negatively and significantly with acculturative stress ( $r = -.49$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

### **What are CHIs' Attitudes toward Diversity and Living in a Multicultural Society?**

Possible scores on the M-GUDS-SF ranged from 1 to 6, with higher scores reflecting relatively open and positive views toward cultural diversity. Scores obtained on this scale by CHIs ranged from 1 to 6. On average, CHIs held favorable views toward diversity ( $M = 4.73$ ,  $SD = .09$ ). To examine if CHIs' attitudes toward cultural diversity varied as a function of their levels of acculturation toward the U.S. and acculturative stress, zero-order correlation analyses were performed between these variables. Neither their acculturation nor acculturative stress levels correlated significantly with attitudes toward diversity ( $r_s = .08$  and  $.01$ ,  $p_s < .05$ , respectively).



## **Do Hispanic Immigrant Parents (HIPs) Influence their Children's Views of the U.S. and Attitudes toward Cultural Diversity?**

To examine this question, various analyses were performed. First, I conducted a zero-order correlation analysis between attitudes toward the U.S. held by HIPs and their children. In general, HIPs' attitudes toward the U.S. correlated significantly with those of their children ( $r = .30, p < .01$ ). CHIs' attitude toward the U.S. also correlated significantly with their perceptions of their parents' attitudes toward the U.S. ( $r = .47, p < .001$ ).

I then conducted two multiple regression analyses, predicting CHIs' attitudes toward the U.S. and their openness to cultural diversity, respectively. Predictor variables were HIPs' attitudes toward the U.S., openness to cultural diversity, acculturation, and acculturative stress levels. Taken together, the variables predicted significantly CHIs' attitudes toward the U.S. (*Multiple R*<sup>2</sup> = .13,  $F [4, 86] = 3.10, p < .05$ ). The individual predictor variable that approached, but did not achieve statistical significance was HIPs' attitudes toward diversity ( $\beta = .216, t = 1.96, p = .054$ ). Taken together, the variables predicted significantly CHIs' openness toward cultural diversity (*Multiple R*<sup>2</sup> = .14,  $F [4, 85] = 3.36, p < .05$ ). The individual predictor variable that achieved significance was HIPs' openness toward cultural diversity ( $\beta = .336, t = 3.07, p < .01$ ). Table 2 (see Appendix B) shows the results of the two multiple regressions.

As a means to further clarify these findings, I repeated these regression analyses, but used stepwise regressions. At step 1, HIPs' openness to diversity predicted significantly CHIs' attitudes toward the U.S. (*Multiple R*<sup>2</sup> = .06,  $F [1, 89] = 5.45, p < .05, \beta = .240, t = 2.33, p < .05$ ). No other variable contributed to the prediction equation. For the second stepwise regression, at step 1, HIPs' openness to diversity predicted significantly CHIs' openness toward cultural

diversity (*Multiple*  $R^2 = .08$ ,  $F [1, 88] = 7.68$ ,  $p < .01$ .  $\beta = .283$ ,  $t = 2.77$ ,  $p < .01$ ). No other variable contributed to the prediction equation.

## DISCUSSION

On average, my study found that both CHIs and HIPs are relatively satisfied with their lives in the U.S. Possible explanations for this outcome may be due to the stability they experienced in the U.S. CHIs may believe that the chances of realizing their dreams are more likely to occur in the U.S., a country that provides opportunities for success, such as better education, freedom of expression, advanced technology and exposure to diversity, and the advantage they now have of being bilingual. Depending on their neighborhood, they may also notice that there is less crime and less gangs than they would encounter in their home country. HIPs may be satisfied with the overall stability in the U.S., the myriad economic opportunities, better quality of life and also opportunities for advancement in their own education if desired. My findings are consistent with those of the global research and consulting firm, Gallup. Based on a sample of 6,383 participants, 18 years and older, (1,000 were Hispanics, 1,010 were non-Hispanic Blacks, and 4,373 were non-Hispanic Whites), Gallup (2013) asked, “Overall, how satisfied are you with your life – are you very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, somewhat dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied”? It was found that the overwhelming majority are satisfied generally with their lives in the U.S. Their survey also revealed that as years residing in the U.S. increased, positive feelings of life satisfaction in the U.S. also increased for Hispanics and Blacks (Whites reported, by contrast, that their lives were satisfactory consistently across time). In addition, in a 2003 survey, Gallup asked 266 Hispanic adults (among a total sample of 1,385 participants), “Looking back over the last 10 years, do you think the quality of life for Hispanics has gotten better, stayed about the same or gotten worse”? 70% of Hispanics reported “gotten better,” whereas 24% reported “stayed about the same,” and 5% reported “gotten worse.” Based

on these two studies by Gallup, it appears that as the years residing in the U.S. increase, Hispanics' feelings of life satisfaction in the U.S. also increases.

In my study, it was hypothesized that HIPs significantly influence their children's attitudes toward both the U.S. and toward cultural diversity. Overall, the results supported my hypothesis, showing a correlation between CHIs' attitudes toward the U.S. and their parents' attitudes. CHIs' attitudes toward the U.S. also correlated significantly with their perceptions of their parents' attitudes toward the U.S. Moreover, the more positive HIPs were toward cultural diversity, the more positive their children were toward cultural diversity. Additional regression analyses revealed the particular importance of HIPs' openness to diversity, which was found to singly predict both CHIs' attitudes toward the U.S. and openness to diversity. Parents with positive views of the U.S. and toward cultural diversity probably convey such views to their children directly and in subtle ways. As examples, HIPs who appreciate living in a country that likely offers relatively more employment opportunities and safer neighborhoods compared to their countries of origin possibly remind their children of these benefits intermittently. Those parents may also encourage their children to excel in school in order to ascend in society later as adults. By contrast, HIPs who hold negative views of life in the U.S. equally may communicate their dissatisfaction with their lives to their children. There may be myriad reasons why some HIPs are displeased with their lives in the U.S. Perhaps some struggle with economic difficulties (Vinokurov, et al., 2000; Aycan & Berry, 1996), immigration issues, or separation from families (Cavazos-Rehg, Zayas, & Spitznagel, 2007; Suarez-Orozco, Todorova, & Louie, 2002). Nonetheless, given that the data indicate overwhelmingly positive attitudes toward the U.S. by

both CHIs and HIPs, these findings suggest that HIPs' positive views on life in the U.S. may predispose CHIs to perceive their own lives in the U.S. in favorable terms.

I also explored how CHIs perceive life in the U.S. as a function of their levels of acculturation toward the U.S. and acculturative stress. There was a trend toward those who were more acculturated to the U.S. to have more positive views of the U.S. I note that that observed trend did not achieve statistical significance. These results are somewhat inconsistent with the findings reported by Mahmud and Schölmerich (2001), who found a positive relation between immigrants' cultural adaptation to Germany and their outlook towards life in Germany. If my findings were to be considered from a traditional statistical perspective (i.e., a non-significant finding), the data suggest that CHIs' acculturation levels do not play a major role in their views of the U.S.; they tend to hold positive views toward the U.S. irrespective of acculturation level. As Aronowitz (1992, p.106) suggested, "The fact of migration and relocation may be less important for children's adjustment than the way in which such experiences are mediated to the children by their parents."

My findings also indicated that views toward the U.S. correlated negatively and significantly with acculturative stress. Specifically, the more stress CHIs experienced related to pressures to acculturate, the less favorable their views were of the U.S. Previous research has produced similar findings. For example, Ko and Perreira (2010) found that 45% Hispanic adolescent immigrants reported being happier in their home country, compared to their life in the U.S., due to their acculturative stress. However, the correlational nature of these findings raises various questions. Do CHIs who yearn for their life in their country of origin struggle more to

acculturate, and thus are more sensitive to pressures to acculturate? Or by contrast, do pressures to acculturate cause CHIs to miss their pre-U.S. lives? These data do not clarify these questions.

Given that Hispanic adolescents living in the U.S. may attend schools that are ethnically diverse, perhaps such exposure minimizes Hispanic adolescents' struggle to acculturate in a multicultural society. Corroborating this idea are Juvonen, Nishina and Graham (2006) who reported that Latino/a and African American adolescents on average hold favorable views toward multiculturalism. Those two groups of ethnic students reported a sense of belonging, held feelings of social satisfaction and felt less intimidated in both the school and classroom environment, compared to students who were in a mono-cultural environment. In a similar study (Geel & Vedder, 2010), it was observed that immigrant students and native-born students in a diverse environment held more positive attitudes toward multiculturalism than those who were in a mono-cultural environment. More interestingly, immigrant students reported more appreciation for multiculturalism than native-born students did. Both of these studies reflect results similar to my results, whereby CHIs in general hold positive views toward cultural diversity. I also extended this research by examining if adolescent attitudes toward cultural diversity varied as a function of their levels of acculturation toward the U.S. and acculturative stress. Neither variable correlated significantly with attitudes toward cultural diversity.

A possible explanation to as to why CHIs have a positive attitude toward multiculturalism, regardless of their levels of acculturation and acculturative stress, could be due to the duration of time they have lived in the U.S. For example, when the results from my study were collected, my sample of CHIs had reported living in the U.S. for a mean number of 8.43 years. This could indicate that within that time span, CHIs learned to appreciate the diversity that

comes with living in a multicultural society, given that their early childhood was likely to have been relatively mono-cultural in their country of origin. Through their life progression in the U.S., CHIs not only were exposed to a new culture, but may—depending on their specific community—have been exposed to a melting pot of ethnicities, languages, customs and beliefs that can be found in the U.S. Because most of my sample of CHIs was in the adolescence stage, this might suggest that at this point in their lives, they have formed their own values which may tilt in a liberal direction. Moreover, CHIs' positive views toward diversity may reflect that adolescents, in general, hold more unconventional values than their parents (Rampell, 2012).

## **STUDY LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

The results of my study should be viewed in light of various limitations. The data reported herein were correlational. Consequently, although I have interpreted the correlation between CHIs' and HIPs' attitudes toward the U.S. as the parents likely influencing their children's attitudes, it is just as likely that the children may be influencing their parents' attitudes toward the U.S., or both. Also, there likely are many variables not included in this study that influence immigrants' attitudes toward a host country. Moreover, participants for this study resided in Florida. HIPs and CHIs residing in other states, and possibly from other Latin American subgroups, may have responded to the questionnaires differently than those who participated in this study.

In future studies, researchers ought to inquire what specific characteristics of the U.S. do Hispanic immigrants point to that cause them to view their lives in the U.S. so favorably. Similarly, researchers ought to inquire about the characteristics that cause other Hispanic immigrants to report unfavorable appraisals of their lives in the U.S. Given that this particular ethnic group is expected to continue growing in the U.S. well into the 22<sup>nd</sup> century, it behooves myriad entities (e.g., government officials, school districts, researchers, etc.) to address challenges encountered by immigrants that impede their full participation in society. Satisfied citizenry logically should translate into more productive and contributing citizenry. Finally, future studies should include other variables that might influence or relate to attitudes toward the U.S. that were not included in this study. Such variables might be level of contact with family members, perceptions of discrimination, fear of crime, self-efficacy, and so on.



## **APPENDIX A**

Table 1

*Means and Standard Deviations of Study Variables by Population (CHIs vs. HIPs)*

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VARIABLE	POPULATION	
	CHIs ( <i>n</i> = 92)	HIPs ( <i>n</i> = 92)
Attitudes toward U.S. <i>Mean (SD)</i>	4.12 (.62)	3.97 (.59)
Openness to Diversity <sup>a</sup>	4.73 (.69)	4.67 (.68)
Acculturation <sup>b</sup>	4.23 (1.35)	3.42 (1.32)
Acculturative Stress <sup>c</sup>	.69 (.67)	.97 (.85)

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Notes:

<sup>a</sup> Measured by *M-GUDS-SF* (Fuertes et al., 2000).

<sup>b</sup> Measured by *PAS* (Tropp et al., 1999).

<sup>c</sup> Measured by *MASI* (Rodriguez et al., 2002)

## **APPENDIX B**

Table 2

*Regression of HIP Study Variables on CHIs' Attitudes Toward the United States (n = 92)*

VARIABLE	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	t-test value	Significance
HIPs' Attitude toward U.S	.17	.11	.17	1.46	<i>ns</i>
HIPs Openness to Diversity <sup>a</sup>	.20	.10	.22	1.96	<i>ns</i>
HIPs' Acculturation <sup>b</sup>	-.05	.05	-.11	-1.06	<i>ns</i>
HIPs' Acculturative Stress <sup>c</sup>	-.11	.08	-.14	-1.34	<i>ns</i>

Multiple  $R^2 = .13$  ( $F [4, 86] = 3.09, p < .05$ ).

*Regression of HIP Study Variables on CHIs' Openness Toward Cultural Diversity (n = 92)*

VARIABLE	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	t-test value	Significance
HIPs' Attitude toward U.S	.12	.13	.10	.97	<i>ns</i>
HIPs Openness to Diversity <sup>a</sup>	.34	.11	.34	3.07	$p < .01$
HIPs' Acculturation <sup>b</sup>	-.06	.06	-.12	-1.10	<i>ns</i>
HIPs' Acculturative Stress <sup>c</sup>	.14	.09	.17	1.57	<i>ns</i>

Multiple  $R^2 = .14$  ( $F [4, 85] = 3.36, p < .05$ ).

NOTES:

<sup>a</sup> Measured by M-GUDS.

<sup>b</sup> Measured by PAS.

<sup>c</sup> Measured by MASI.

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