# AUTOSTEREOTYPES AND ACCULTURATIVE STRESS IN HISPANIC COLLEGE STUDENTS: IMPLICATIONS ON SELF-ESTEEM AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

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This study evaluated the impact of acculturative stress and negative autostereotypes on the level of self-esteem and achievement motivation among subgroups of Hispanic college Subjects were classified by generational level as students. Second-generation (i.e., foreign-born parents), or Other (i.e., first-generation, foreign-born individuals, and third-generation, foreign-born grandparents). country/region of origin, subjects were divided into Central-Americans, Puerto-Ricans, Mexican, Mexican-Americans, and South Americans. Results showed that acculturative stress may facilitate loss of self-esteem particularly in Second-generation individuals, while negative autostereotypic attitudes may actually increase the student's level of motivation for achievement, particularly in Mexican-American individuals. Also, country/region of origin overall influenced negative autostereotypic attitudes.

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# AUTOSTEREOTYPES AND ACCULTURATIVE STRESS IN HISPANIC COLLEGE STUDENTS: IMPLICATIONS ON SELF-ESTEEM AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

This study evaluated the impact of acculturative stress and negative autostereotypes on the level of self esteem and achievement motivation among subgroups of Hispanic college students.

The last decades have seen a growing interest in ethnic minority issues. Studies indicate that Hispanics are rapidly growing in number, have become the second largest minority group, and are projected to be the largest U.S. minority group by the end of the century (Escobar, Gomez, & Tuason, 1981). Empirical studies in this area, although great in number, suffer from methodological flaws. For example, the use of non-representative samples, (e.g., atypical groups such as rural subjects, lower-class, poorly educated individuals), overgeneralization of results, and the combining of different cultures into a single group for evaluation (Casas, 1985; Fabrega, 1990) results in wrongful and inaccurate conceptualizations of Hispanics.

Among these methodological problems, researchers have found that scientific and political concern has been raised due to the use of the generic label "Hispanic" (Trevino, 1987). The term is utilized by cross-cultural researchers,

although few can agree upon its meaning. In the broadest sense, "Hispanic" is used to refer to all individuals born, or otherwise descendent, of South and Central America, Mexico, Puerto Rico and Cuba, who share Spanish as a common language. Narrowly, the term is employed with mainly Mexican-American, Puerto Rican, and/or Cuban populations. In both covert and overt methods of reporting data, the term varies with regard to which of the above groups are included in its definition.

The merit of these concerns is reflected in a body of literature which differentiates among these groups and suggests that, although Hispanics share Spanish as a common language, they are a markedly diverse population. been estimated that about 22.3 million Hispanics live in the United States. According to the Bureau of the Census (1990b) report, these groups are subdivided as: Mexican (64%), Puerto Rican (10.5%), Cuban (4.9%), other Hispanic (6.9%), and Central and South American countries (13.7%). The latter group is comprised mainly of individuals from the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Honduras, and Guatemala. These groups' immigration, migration, and acculturation processes are distinctly diverse and therefore are likely to differentially effect the level of educational attainment, socioeconomic status, cultural values, and language of preference and/or dominance of Central, South, Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Cuban American individuals (Amaro, &

Russo, 1987). For example, according to the 1990 Bureau of the Census report, 21% of Cuban-Americans, and 22.3% of Central-South-Americans, aged 25 to 34, attain postsecondary degrees (4 years or more of college). In comparison, 6% of Mexican-Americans, and 13% of Puerto-Ricans, aged 25 to 34, attain postsecondary degrees. Cuban Americans also scored higher on standardized tests than did other Hispanic subgroups, and had higher college attendance rates. (Bureau of the Census, 1990).

In an historical analysis of unpublished data from the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Bureau of the Census, and other sources, Moore and Pachon (1985) reported that of Hispanics living in the United States, 75% of Mexican and Cuban Americans are U.S.-born in contrast to 36% of Central and South Americans. Also, Cuban American women have a median age of 41 years with 12.0 years median educational level, while Mexican American women have a median age of 24 years with median education of 10.2 years (Bureau of the Census, 1990b).

Similarly, studies comparing the total annual income of Anglo families with Hispanic families, revealed that Puerto Rican families in 1989 earned 46% of reported Anglo incomes with 32% of them living below the poverty level. Mexican Americans earned 71% of Anglo incomes with 22% below the poverty line, and Cuban families earned 85% with 20% under the poverty level (Bureau of the Census, 1990b).

#### <u>Hispanic College Students</u>

With the acknowledgement of flaws in research involving Hispanics, and because of the reduced understanding of subgroups within the Hispanic population, this study targeted Hispanic college students. As with any other minority group, the vital importance of higher education to the Hispanic population cannot be overemphasized. Although there are differences within Hispanic subgroups, the majority of this growing segment of the U.S. population is not proportionately represented in higher education relative to their percentage of the total population. For example, in 1990, the total number of Hispanics in United States was 22,354,059, which constitute 9% of the total U.S. population (Digest of Education Statistics, 1992). The national average of bachelor, master, doctoral, and firstprofessional degrees awarded in 1990 stands at 20.1% of the total U.S. population (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 1992). However, only 11.1% of the Hispanic population were awarded these degrees, while 18.4% of African-American, and 15.1% of Asian-American students received them (NCES, 1992). Furthermore, 680,000 Hispanics were enrolled in U.S. institutions of postsecondary education in 1988 (NCES, 1990a). This number constitutes 5.2% of all college students in this country. However, Hispanic students' national drop out rate stands at 36%, as compared to 15% for Blacks, and 13% for Anglos (NCES, 1990).

Research efforts to examine the underrepresentation of Hispanics in higher education have focused on the psychological adaptation of Hispanic students in college settings. In addition to the stressors associated with college settings, a growing body of literature has suggested that immigrant students experience a much greater level of acculturative stress than U.S.-born immigrant descendants. Acculturation and Acculturative Stress

Numerous definitions of the term acculturation have been presented in the literature. For example, Padilla (1980) defines acculturation as a dynamically-evolving, individually-experienced process that encompasses psychological mechanisms and behavioral responses which allow the immigrant individual to adapt to a host culture. The process of acculturation has been clearly identified in the literature as a source of stress in Hispanic populations as measured by levels of depressive symptomatology (Canino, 1982; Salgado de Synder, 1987), low global self-esteem (as the best predictor of acculturative stress; Padilla, Wagatsuma, & Lindholm, 1985), alcoholism and drug use (Escovar, Karno, Burnam, Hough, & Golding, 1988; 1981; Neff, Hoppe, & Perea, 1987), child behavioral problems (Curtis, 1990), somatic symptoms and feelings of personal dyscontrol (Krause, Bennett, & Van Tran, 1989), adolescent delinquency (Szapocznik, Santisteban, Rio, Perez-Vidal, Santisteban, & Kurtines, 1989), etc.

Another measure of stress levels in Hispanic populations refers to intergenerational conflicts between foreign-born parents and American-born children (Ho, 1987).

Moore (1971) notes that, as U.S. society rapidly changes, so does the Hispanic population. This rapid social change would lead to U.S.-born children' embrace of norms and cultural values radically different from those of their foreign-born parents and thus, conflict would ensue.

Often, the immigrant culture's own system of values, cognitions and behaviors differs substantially from that of the host culture, and psychological stress ensues. Berry (1980) refers to this stress as acculturative stress, and defines it as "behaviors and experiences which are generated during acculturation and which are mildly pathological and disruptive to the individual and his group" (p. 21). Additionally, Berry and Annis (1974) describe three factors associated with high levels of acculturative stress: (a) great dissimilarity between the attitudes and behaviors of the host and the immigrant culture, (b) strong pressure to acculturate, and (c) little tolerance of diversion from the immigrants' culture.

Dissimilarity. Hispanic cultural values have been presumed to differ significantly from the Anglo-American culture. In an analysis of research on Hispanic childrearing practices, Escovar and Lazarus (1982) found that Hispanic families, compared to Anglo families, are

characterized by a greater emphasis on support from the family system, less emphasis on self-reliance, a more authoritarian parenting style, a closer maternal relationship, and more open expression of parental affection. Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, VannOss and Perez-Stable (1987) analyzed acculturation effects on attitudes toward familism, the strong identification, attachment, and feelings of loyalty, reciprocity and solidarity of individuals to their families (Triandis, Marin, Betancourt, Lisansky, & Chang, 1982), in 452 Hispanics from San Francisco and Miami utilizing a selfreport questionnaire. The researchers found that, regardless of national origin, Mexican-, Central-, and Cuban-Americans reported similar attitudes toward the family indicating that familism is a characteristic of the Hispanic culture. Gibson (1983) added that the concept of family goes beyond the nuclear family to include extended family, neighbors, and friends.

Pressure. During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the United States strongly pressured diverse minority ethnic groups to embrace the American "melting pot" (Mindel, Habenstein, & Wright, 1988, p. 2) ideology. The melting pot metaphor embodied the notion that "immigrants in the United States somehow fuse together, producing a new and better amalgam that combines the best cultural contributions of each ethnic group" (Mindel et al., 1988, p. 2). Racial

groups were forced to abandon their languages, customs, and native names to avoid adjustment problems (Griffith, 1983). Melting pot theories have been declining in recent years, and a new metaphor is being utilized. The "salad bowl" metaphor refers to the notion of United States as a conglomerate of "unmeltable ethnics" which coexist in a "somewhat tenuous societal pluralism" (Mindel et al., 1988, p. 3).

This change can be partly related to recent research findings. According to the melting pot (Szapocznik, Kurtines & Fernandez, 1980) or damaging culture (Buriel, Calzada, & Vasquez, 1982) hypothesis, ethnic groups who identify strongly with their native culture (i.e., are less acculturated) will experience more stress and manifest more psychological problems than those who identify more with the Anglo American culture (i.e., are more acculturated).

Although few studies during the past decades explored the validity of this contention, recent research has suggested that this hypothesis may not be valid. For example, Dressler and Bernal (1982) interviewed 67 Puerto Rican patients at a public health nursing agency, and assessed their levels of acculturative stress according to the person's length of residence in the United States. These authors found that greater levels of acculturative stress were associated with greater numbers of health and behavioral problems. Escobar, Karno, Burnam, Hough and

Golding (1988) analyzed the prevalence of psychiatric disorders in 3,125 Hispanics and Anglos from different areas of Los Angeles utilizing structured clinical interviews. The authors reported that first generation/immigrant Mexican-Americans, and those with low levels of acculturation appeared to have healthier psychological profiles (as measured by a much lower prevalence of alcohol, drug, phobic, dysthymic and other depressive disturbances) than second generation, third generation, etc. Mexican-Americans and those with high levels of acculturation.

Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, Vanoss and Perez-Stable (1987) administered a questionnaire designed to measure dimensions of familism among 452 Puerto Ricans, Mexican-, Central-, Cuban- and South-Americans. These authors found that the higher the level of acculturation, the lower the perception of family obligations and family as reference factors, which in turn creates stress and family conflict. Krause, Bennett and Van Tran (1989) found that less acculturation was associated with better mental health in a sample of 859 Mexican Americans. Buriel et al. (1982) observed significantly higher rates of self-reported delinquency in third versus second generation male Mexican American adolescents.

Furthermore, autostereotype studies have found that Hispanics hold different levels of self-perception depending on their degree of acculturation or generational level.

Autostereotypes refer to Hispanics' stereotypes of themselves (Triandis et al., 1982).

Immigrant culture. Hispanic culture promotes less autonomy from its roots than Anglo culture. For example, while American education often emphasizes the need for independence, individual development and personal success, Hispanic education encourages dependence, group achievement, and protection and guidance from figures of authority. Hispanic education also promotes sharing unique patterns of cultural values, such as the style of music which fosters a strong sense of cultural belonging, pride and loyalty (Ho, 1987).

#### Other Sources of Stress in Hispanic College Students

Factors that have been shown to influence stress levels in Hispanic college students include internal and external locus of control, generational level, self-esteem levels (Padilla, Alvarez, & Lindholm, 1986), and self-concept (Wright, 1966). Padilla, Alvarez and Lindholm (1986) administered three standardized tests and a new stress scale on 247 Asian, European, Latin American and African college students. The researchers found that students who immigrate as adolescents experience the greatest level of stress, have the lowest scores on measures of self-esteem, and are the least internally controlled compared to students who immigrate as children, or are second- or third-generation students. Further, these authors found that second-

generation students were somewhat similar in scores to the students who immigrated as adolescents. The researchers suggested that second-generation students may experience more acculturative stress due to their position between the cultural values and norms of their immigrant parents and those of their third-generation friends.

In addition, immigrant students are faced with language barriers (Babiker, Cox, & Miller, 1980), lack of social support (Arthur, Brooks, & Long, 1979), different customs and values (Arthur, et al., 1979), financial difficulties, feelings of not belonging to either culture, and indecisiveness as to whether to embrace one culture or the other (Sluzki, 1979). Also, immigrant college students feel uprooted from their secure home environments (Taft, 1977) and homesick (Smither, & Rodriguez-Giegling, 1979). Finally, Dyal and Dyal (1981) proposed that immigrant students are likely to experience stress when they cannot differentiate between positive or negative feedback from educators and peers due to either verbal or nonverbal communication barriers.

#### Stereotypes and Autostereotypes

Two variables of interest in this study which have not been analyzed previously in the literature on stress in college students are stereotypes and autostereotypes. This study suggests that Hispanic college students may face society's stereotypic attitudes which would influence the

positive or negative connotation of their autostereotypic ideations.

Stereotypes, the systematic perceptive attributional biases that characterize human cognition, have been the focus of a great deal of research in psychology (Sherman & Corty, 1984). For the most part, empirical research on stereotypes of Hispanics has utilized inappropriate instruments (i.e., nonresearch-based labels/traits checklists) which are arbitrarily chosen and presumed to be associated with Hispanics in general (Triandis et al., In addition, reports on the many qualitative factors 1982). involved in stereotyping (degree of affect, level of consensus, intensity, etc.) are lacking (Casas, Ponterotto, & Sweeney, 1987). The available studies which have used standardized assessment techniques present a fairly negative perception of Hispanics by the Anglo population (Casas et al., 1987).

For example, in education research with Mexican American students (Ramirez, 1981), teachers were less likely to show approval toward Spanish-dominant than English-dominant pupils, and were more inclined to ascribe negative personality traits to students who spoke English with an accent or use nonstandard English. Arizpe and Aguirre (1987) evaluated the accuracy of cultural content in 18 first-year college Spanish-language textbooks. The authors found that the texts portrayed the cultural backgrounds of

Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Cuban groups in the United States unfairly with inaccurate statements, stereotypes, oversimplifications, and omissions. For example, Arizpe and Aguirre (1987) note that a textbook by Chastain (1985) states that Cuba became a possession of the United States after the 1898 Spanish-American War; however, the United States has never claimed the island as its own. These authors also cited a text by Knorre (1981) who mentions that all Chicanos eat "tacos y tortillas, frijoles y arroz!" Additionally, they noted that a text by Faegin (1984) presents an image of Puerto Ricans as submissive, lazy, and lethargic.

Furthermore, several mental health professionals have shown a tendency to explain current social problems through the use of stereotypic beliefs of the Hispanic population. Carroll (1980) proposed a cultural-consistency theory of violence in American society which seeks to explain the different frequency distributions of family violence within American ethnic minorities. Carroll's (1980) theory states that differences are a function of dissimilar cultural norms and values with respect to violence, and that these norms are transmitted and perpetuated by generational links. This author contrasted Mexican-American and Jewish-American groups and concluded that physical violence was a basic and pervasive value in Mexican-American culture.

A significant number of studies dealing with attitudes, beliefs, and expectations of counselors about racial/ethnic minority clients appears to demonstrate that these variables are a reflection of societal stereotypes (Bloombaum, Yamamoto, & James, 1968). Using data obtained via standardized tests, Sandler, Holmen and Schopper (1978) compared 55 Mexican American female welfare recipients' self-described personality traits versus the traits attributed to them by five counselors. The authors found that counselors view female Mexican Americans as less competitive, less dominant, more apologetic and more docile than Blacks or Anglos; however, the subjects did not differ across ethnic groups on their autostereotypes. Cole and Pilisuk (1976) analyzed records of mental health workers in a crisis clinic for 94 clients and found that Blacks and Chicanos were less likely to receive psychotherapy and more likely to be diagnosed as psychotic or having a greater level of maladjustment than Whites.

Finally, studies based on Anglo undergraduate students have assessed their responses to ethnic labels/traits commonly associated with Chicanos, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Hispanics in general. These studies have found that Chicanos are considered ignorant and cruel (Fairchild & Cozens, 1981), lazy and pugnacious (Guichard & Connolly, 1977). The four groups are viewed as aggressive, poor, lazy and uneducated (Marin, 1984). Other studies, utilizing

standardized tests of situational attitudes with Anglo college students, have found that Whites have more negative feelings toward Hispanics and Blacks than when race was not noted, particularly in those situations where close personal contact was posed. Interestingly, Eagly and Kite (1987) found that stereotypes about Hispanics and 27 other nationalities are perceived to be more true of men than of women, the latter viewed more in terms of gender stereotypes rather than ethnicity. Moreover, Casas, Ponterotto and Sweeney (1987), utilizing comprehensive audio/videotaped interviews with 45 low-income Mexican American married couples, found that Mexican Americans perceived Anglo attitudes toward them as negative overall, with less educated subjects perceiving a greater degree of negativity.

A growing number of studies show positive elements in the Anglo population's stereotypes. Among those studies based on Anglo undergraduate students' assessments of ethnic labels/traits commonly associated with Puerto Ricans and Hispanics in general, some positive traits have been found. For example, Fairchild and Cozens (1981) showed that Hispanics were viewed as talkative and thought to love tradition. Marin (1984) in addition to the negative traits previously mentioned, found that Hispanics in general are perceived as family-oriented, proud, and hardworking, while Puerto Ricans in particular were also viewed as easygoing. Triandis, Lisansky, Setiadi, Chang, Marin, and Betancourt

(1982) utilized a sample of U.S. Navy recruits to judge the degree of likelihood of 15 traits as characteristic features of Anglo and Hispanic groups on a 10-point Likert-type scale. These researchers found that Anglos viewed Hispanics as educated, friendly, ambitious, and hardworking; although, the degree of the perception was only moderate.

Finally, a smaller number of studies have addressed Hispanic stereotypes of themselves. These autostereotype studies have found that Hispanics hold different levels of autostereotypes depending on their degree of acculturation (level of cultural change produced by continuous contact between ethnic groups) or generational level (first-, second- or third-generation in the United States). Buriel and Vasquez (1982) briefly analyzed the research literature which suggests that more acculturated Mexican American subjects have more negative views of themselves. authors concluded that autostereotypes held by Mexican Americans are more favorable in the first-generation group, but that they become increasingly less positive with later generations. To test the hypothesis that consecutive generations of Mexican Americans hold autostereotypes that increasingly parallel stereotypes held by Anglo Americans, these authors utilized a 20-item adjective checklist with 120 Mexican American high school students. Results were consistent with the hypothesis. The authors found that first-generation Mexican-descent persons agreed more about

positive autostereotypes than third-generation Mexican Americans. Furthermore, other researchers who have analyzed subject's choice of self-identifying racial level (e.g., Latin American, Mexican American, Chicano), have found that ethnic self-affiliation modifies the positive or negative direction of the autostereotype, with Latin Americans perceiving themselves very favorably (Salazar & Marin, 1977; Triandis et al., 1982). Level of education (Buriel & Vasquez, 1982; Triandis et al., 1982) also influences the autostereotypes, with more educated Hispanics having more positive perceptions of themselves.

#### Self-Esteem and Achievement Motivation

Research on autostereotypes has not analyzed variables like self-esteem levels, which has been related to acculturative stress in Hispanic college students. Studies on self-esteem suggest that this variable may be the best predictor of stress levels experienced by college students (Padilla, et al., 1986; 1985). Chan (1977) stated that "an individual becomes vulnerable to negative maladaptive stress reactions by virtue of seeing himself being of low self-esteem, and of high anxiety proneness, powerless and helpless, and...unable to cope" (p. 97). Seemingly, self-esteem is a personality dimension which relates to the person's ability to react to the environment in which he/she is immersed (Padilla et al., 1985). Padilla has suggested that, although self-esteem is considered a constant

personality dimension, it may be affected by the process of acculturation.

Other means by which students' self-esteem levels may be lowered may relate to the cultural stereotypes about Hispanic college students that are held by educators. Teachers who adopt these stereotypes are negatively affected in their expectations, tend to observe lesser degree of abilities, and expect lower levels of performance from their Hispanic students (Trujillo, 1986). For example, a study conducted by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1983) compared teachers' communication styles with Anglo and Mexican American elementary and high school students. The researchers found that teachers praised or encouraged the Anglo elementary and high school students 36% more often than the Mexican American students. The study also found that teachers elaborated from the spoken contributions of Anglo students 40% more often than from the Mexican American students, and asked Anglo students 20% more questions than they asked Mexican American students. An analysis of the research literature by the Urban Education Research Information Bulletin (1985) concluded that teachers' negative attitudes and low expectations contribute to a lesser quality classroom experience for the Hispanic student. It would be reasonable to suggest that teachers' attitudes toward and treatment of students are important in shaping the academic self-esteem of the student.

A final variable of interest to this study is achievement motivation as it relates to acculturation and acculturative stress among Hispanic college students. Although this relationship has not been examined, a scant and somewhat outdated body of literature has found that Mexican American students have little confidence in their ability to succeed in school. For example, Anderson and Evans (1976) interviewed 102 junior high school students and their families, and found that these students experienced much less independence training and did not have much autonomy in decision making. The lack of academic selfconfidence is present despite the parents' high level of educational aspiration for the children (Anderson, & Johnson, 1971). Evans and Anderson (1973) interviewed 87 Hispanic junior high school students and found that Hispanic students' underachievement was related to low levels of academic self-concept, less democratic parental independence training, and present-time orientation. However, the students also presented with high striving orientation and high parental expectations. Lastly, studies on academic achievement, as measured by grade point average, have found that Chicano students are more likely to drop out in the first six quarters of college than Anglo students (Lunneborg, & Lunneborg, 1986).

Summarizing, Hispanics are subjected to the mainstream cultural patterns of the United States, and changes in their

values, norms, attitudes, and behaviors may be expected to occur (Marin, Sobogal, VanOss, Otero, & Perez, 1987). Acculturation refers to the process of adaptation to a host culture by a minority group, and the acceptance of the minority group by the host culture as equal in all society' roles and levels. This dual process can be hindered or at the least lengthened by negative stereotypical attitudes of the majority group, and by the minority group perception and internalization of these negative stereotypes. As already mentioned, Buriel and Vasquez (1982) found that more acculturated Mexican American subjects have more negative views of themselves. These authors found that thirdgeneration Mexican Americans, whose ties with their traditional culture have weakened as a result of successive generations, are in a more vulnerable position to combat society's stereotypes than first-generation Mexican Americans. The authors suggest that, without a firm integration in their ancestral culture to provide them with Mexican a positive alternative image of their group, Americans may assimilate the majority Anglo population negative view of their ethnic group. This negative selfperception would inevitably lead to diminished feelings of personal and group self-worth. Finally, Curtis (1990) believes that failure to take into account the consequences of acculturation can contribute to further stereotyping of Hispanic families.

Hispanic college students, in addition to the negative perceptions held by the Anglo majority, are also faced with the unique stressful factors inherent in the college environment. Additionally, they confront acculturative factors which impinge on their level of self-confidence, motivational level for academic achievement, and ultimately, rate of retention in higher education settings. Therefore, this study proposed that stressors such as acculturative stress and negative autostereotypes produce a unique set of circumstances which could facilitate loss of self-esteem and decrease the student's level of motivation for achievement.

#### Purpose

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the impact of acculturative stress and negative autostereotypes on the level of self-esteem and achievement motivation among different subgroups of Hispanic college students. No research has been developed to assess both the effects of acculturative stress and autostereotypes on the level of self-esteem and achievement motivation among Hispanics college students subgroups.

#### Hypotheses

The first hypothesis examined the strength of association between country/region of origin, acculturative stress, and negative autostereotypic attitudes.

Specifically, it was hypothesized that Mexican American college students would report higher levels of acculturative

stress and greater numbers of negative autostereotypic attitudes than Central- and South-American students.

The second hypothesis examined the relationship between acculturative stress, self-esteem, achievement motivation, and generational level among Hispanic college students. Specifically, it was hypothesized that Hispanic college students characterized by higher levels of acculturative stress would have lower levels of self-esteem, lower levels of achievement motivation, and would more likely be second-generation individuals than Hispanic college students characterized by lesser levels of acculturative stress.

The third hypothesis examined the relationship between negatives autostereotypes, self-esteem, achievement motivation, and generational level among Hispanic college students. Specifically, it was hypothesized that Hispanic college students characterized by a greater number of negative autostereotypic attitudes would have lower levels of self-esteem, lower levels of achievement motivation, and would more likely be second- generation individuals than Hispanic college students characterized by fewer number of negative autostereotypic attitudes.

#### Method

#### Subjects

Subjects were one hundred five students of Hispanic origin attending the University of North Texas. Subjects ranged in age from 18 to 45 years. Due to sociocultural

differences with respect to the groups of interest, students of Caribbean, Brazilian, and Spaniard origin were excluded.

Subjects were classified by generational level and by country/region of origin. By generational level, subjects were classified as Second-generation (i.e., U.S.-born with foreign-born parents), or Other (i.e., first-generation, foreign-born individuals, and third-generation, subject and parents U.S.-born with foreign-born grandparents). By country/region of origin, subjects were divided into Central-Americans, Puerto-Ricans, Mexican, Mexican-Americans, and South Americans. Participation was voluntary, and subjects were advised that they could withdraw at any time. Extra-credit was offered to participants enrolled in psychology courses. Time of involvement in the study was approximately 40 minutes.

#### Measures

Data were obtained from a personal questionnaire (see Appendix A) and four self-administered scales developed to assess pertinent psychological and sociocultural variables (see Appendix B).

<u>Personal Questionnaire</u>. Socio-demographic information obtained from the personal questionnaire included: gender; age; marital status; education level; Hispanic subgroup affiliation; parents', grandparents' and subject's place of birth; and available family income during childhood.

Familial, Attitudinal, Social, and Environmental Stress Scale, FASE (Padilla et al., 1985). To assess level of acculturative stress, each subject completed the revised version of this scale. This instrument consists of 24 items arranged on 5-point Likert-type scales. The scale was developed to assess the types of problems and sources of stress that immigrant college students frequently confront. In addition, the scale measures the degree of difficulty that these problems create. Reliability estimates for this scale with Mexican-American college students and other immigrant groups yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of The test developers report good concurrent validity with an earlier version of the scale (the Social, Attitudinal, Familial, and Environmental Stress Scale, Original Version); however, other information regarding the validity of the scale is lacking. Thus, interpretative statements based on these results were made cautiously. For this study, scores represent the severity of those stressors only.

Autostereotyping Scale (Fantoni, 1992). To assess autostereotypic ideation, subjects was asked to complete this scale. Each individual was asked to rate his/her perception on how Anglo Americans would describe his/her ethnic group, and how he/she perceives his/her ethnic group. The rating was done on a list of 18 traits (9 with positive connotations and 9 with negative connotations) arranged on

Likert-type scales ranging from 1 ("never true") to 5 ("always true"). This scale was developed by the investigator specifically for this study and is not fully researched in terms of its reliability or validity. Items were developed from a review of the pertinent cross-cultural literature and include those traits consistently found to predict Hispanic autostereotypic attitudes. A Q-sort technique was used with 5 Anglos and 5 Hispanics blind to the purpose of the study. The technique specified the positive or negative connotation of each trait with 100% agreement on 8 traits, 90% agreement on 6, and 80% on two. Two traits were eliminated from the original scale due to low levels of consensus and to assure equal number of traits in each group (see Table 1). For this study, scores represent the number of negative stereotypic attitudes only.

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, Adult Form.

(Coopersmith, 1967). Each subject completed this scale to assess level of self-esteem. This instrument consists of 25 statements about the self to which the respondent answers "like me" or "unlike me." The inventory contains four subscales pertaining to different domains of self-esteem: personal, family, academic, and social. Extensive use of this scale with ethnic and cultural groups including Blacks and Spanish-surnamed students has yielded internal consistency coefficients ranging from .87 to .92. Test-retest reliability coefficients were originally reported to

be .82 for college students. Several studies support the convergent validity of the scale with other measures of self-esteem. Furthermore, the scale was normed primarily on Spanish-surnamed and Black students from all socioeconomic ranges. The extensive use of this scale with Hispanic college students validates the adequacy of it for the purpose of this study.

Table 1

O-Sort Scores for The Autostereotypes Scale

			RATERS									
ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	%	
Family-oriented	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	100	
Friendly	P	P	P	P	P	${f P}$	P	P	P	P	100	
Respectful	$\mathbf{P}$	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	100	
Educated	P	P	P	P	₽	P	P	P	P	P	100	
Cooperative	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	100	
Ambitious	P	P	P	$\mathbf{P}$	${f P}$	N	P	P	P	P	90	
Ethical	P	₽	P	${f P}$	P	P	P	P	P	P	100	
Hardworking	P	$\mathbf{P}$	P	P	P	P	$\mathbf{P}$	P	P	P	100	
Independent	P	P	P	P	P	P	$\mathbf{P}$	$\mathbf{P}$	P	P	100	
Proud	P	P	P	N	P	P	P	P	P	P	90	
Unethical	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	100	
Uneducated	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	P	N	N	90	
Unambitious	N	N	N	N	N	P	N	N	N	N	90	
Aggressive	N	N	P	N	N	N	N	$\mathbf{P}$	N	N	80	
Poor	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	P	N	N	90	
Authoritarian	N	N	P	N	N	N	N	P	N	N	80	
Lazy	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	100	
Dependent	N	N	N	P	N	N	N	N	N	N	90	
Emotional	P	N	P	P	N	N	P	N	N	N	60	
Old-fashioned	P	N	N	P	N	P	P	P	N	N	50	

Raters 1 through 5 = Anglo-Americans

Raters 6 through 10 = Hispanics

RATING: P = Positive connotation

N = Negative connotation

Achievement Scale of the Edwards Personal Preference
Schedule, EPPS (Edwards, 1959). To assess achievement
motivation levels, each subject completed the 28 items which
compose this scale. Split-half reliability coefficients for
this particular scale is .74. Validity studies have yielded
adequate correlation coefficients with other subscales of
achievement motivation (e.g., the Guilford-Martin Personnel
Inventory, Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (Achievement
Motivation Subscale). The scale has been used extensively
to measure levels of achievement motivation in Anglo and
other ethnic college students, such as Asian Americans.
Although the scale was normed on college students, no
available studies have utilized the scale with Hispanic
students. Thus, interpretative statements based on these
results were made cautiously.

#### Procedure

An in-campus request of participation in the study was conducted. To accommodate student preferences, each instrument was available in both English— and Spanish—speaking versions. English version scales were translated into Spanish through the double-translation procedure (Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973) with the help of two translators blind to the purpose of the study. The Spanish versions were also reviewed by Spanish—speakers from different nationalities to eliminate parochial wording. A consent form was included with each instrument (Appendix C).

#### <u>Analyses</u>

To test the hypothesis concerning country/region of origin, a 3 x 2 Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was performed on the independent variable groups (Mexican-Americans, Central-Americans, South-Americans) across mean scores for the following dependent variables: negative autostereotypes and acculturative stress.

To test the hypotheses concerning relationships between psychological and sociocultural variables, multiple regression analyses were performed using the following criterion variables: acculturative stress and negative autostereotypes. For each of these the predictor variables were self-esteem, achievement motivation, generational level, and marital status. For each regression analysis marital status was constrained to be entered into the equation first, and the remaining variables were allowed to enter in the order of the magnitude of their unique shared variance with the criterion.

#### Results

## Characteristics of the Second and Other (First- and Third-) Generation Groups

Significant differences were found on marital status, with the second generation group being predominantly single  $\underline{t}(79) = 1.95$ ,  $\underline{p} = .05$ . Sixty nine percent of the subjects were single ( $\underline{n} = 72$ ), and living with roommates or parents, while 23% were married ( $\underline{n} = 24$ ).

No significant differences between the two groups were found with respect to income, gender, age, or education level. Median income for the total sample was \$32,757. Fifty-six subjects of the total population are males (44 other, and 12 second-generation), and 49 are females (33 other, and 16 second-generation). The mean age of the other group was 25.3 years ( $\underline{n} = 77$ ,  $\underline{S.D.} = 5.3$ ). The mean age of the second generation group was 23.5 years ( $\underline{n} = 28$ ,  $\underline{S.D.} = 4.7$ ). Mean education level for the total population was junior.

Within the other group, 8 were Central-Americans, 1 was Cuban, 15 were Mexicans, 20 were Mexican-Americans, 8 were Puerto-Ricans, and 25 were South-Americans. Within the second-generation group, 5 were Central-Americans, 7 were Mexicans, 9 were Mexican-Americans, 1 was Puerto-Ricans, and 6 were South-Americans.

#### Statistical Analyses

Prior to the regression analyses, a preliminary covariance matrix was obtained for the total population, and correlation values were calculated for the following variables: acculturative stress, negative autostereotypes, achievement motivation, self-esteem, marital status, and generational level. Results revealed a low degree of interrelationship with the exception of acculturative stress and degree of self-esteem,  $\underline{r} = -.39$ ,  $\underline{p} = .0005$ , one tailed. Also, marital status was significantly correlated with level

of achievement motivation,  $\underline{r} = -.19$ ,  $\underline{p} = .03$ , one tailed, and with generational level,  $\underline{r} = -.15$ ,  $\underline{p} = .05$ . Generational level had strong association with acculturative stress only.

To assess the first hypothesis a 3 x 2 Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was utilized. The MANOVA was performed on the independent variable groups (Mexican-Americans, Central-Americans, South-Americans) across mean scores for the following dependent variables: negative autostereotypes and acculturative stress. Bartlett's test of homogeneity yielded a significant effect for negative autostereotypes,  $\mathbf{F}$  (2, 76) = 4.0,  $\mathbf{p}$  = .01. To examine where these differences lay, subsequent t-tests were computed. No significant differences were found for the three groups. Although not statistically significant, Central-American subjects presented with higher mean scores on both variables than Mexican- and South-American groups, in this order (see Tables 2 and 3).

To assess the second hypothesis a multiple regression was utilized. As predicted, second-generation subjects with the greatest level of acculturative stress showed the lowest level of self-esteem,  $\underline{R} = -.37$  ( $\underline{t} = -3.94$ ),  $\underline{p} = .0001$ , one-tailed. (see Table 4). Multiple regression coefficients for achievement motivation, marital status, or Other generation were not significant.

Table 2

<u>T-Tests for Mean Scores across Ethnic Groups of</u>

<u>Acculturative Stress</u>

	Central	Mexican	South
	American	American	American
Central	<u>M</u> 33.00	<u>t</u> .64	<u>t</u> 1.11
American	<u>SD</u> 24.25	<u>p</u> .52	p .27
		<u>df</u> 41	<u>df</u> 42
Mexican		<u>M</u> 28.27	<u>t</u> .64
American		<u>SD</u> 21.25	<u>p</u> .52
			<u>df</u> 59
South			<u>M</u> 24.71
American			<u>SD</u> 21.84

#### 2 tailed p values

To assess the third hypothesis a multiple regression was utilized. Multiple regression coefficients measuring negative autostereotypes with degree of self-esteem, achievement motivation, and marital status were not significant for second- or Other-generation levels. (see Table 5).

Table 3

<u>T-Tests for Mean Scores across Ethnic Groups of Negative Autostereotypes</u>

	Central American	Mexican American	South American
Central	<u>M</u> 21.08	<u>t</u> .86	<u>t</u> 1.05
American	<u>SD</u> 2.36	<u>p</u> .39	<u>p</u> .30
		<u>df</u> 41	<u>df</u> 42
Mexican		<u>M</u> 20.30	<u>t</u> .59
American		<u>SD</u> 2.84	g .55
			<u>đf</u> 59
South			<u>M</u> 19.74
American			<u>SD</u> 4.32

#### 2 tailed p values

Due to the fact that the classification variable ethnicity was discrete, regression analyses of the total sample could hinder the probability of finding a significant result. In addition, multiple regression analyses consider all the countries/regions of origin simultaneously, instead of taking into account differences present in each country or region. For these reasons, subsequent regression

Table 4

Regression Coefficients for Acculturative Stress, Degree of

Self-Esteem, Achievement Motivation, Generational Level, and

Marital Status

Variable	beta	t	Sig t
Generation	.39	4.5	.0020
Self-Esteem	37	-3.9	.0001
Achievement	07	<b>~.</b> 75	.4565
Marital	01	11	.9130

Table 5

Regression Coefficients for Negative Autostereotypes,

Degree of Self Esteem, Achievement Motivation, Generational

Level, and Marital Status

Variable	beta	t	Sig t
Self-Esteem	05	45	.6512
Achievement	.07	.68	.4986
Marital	001	02	.9850
Generation	01	13	.8949

Note. Generation variable coded "1" for First- and Thirdgenerations combined, and "2" for Second-generation. analyses were performed to further investigate the second and the third hypotheses of this study by country/region of origin. To maintain consistency with the first hypothesis, only Mexican-American, Central-American and South-American groups were analyzed.

#### Mexican-Americans

As hypothesized, multiple regression coefficients for Mexican-American subjects with greater levels of acculturative stress and lower level of self-esteem were significant,  $\underline{R} = -.29$ ,  $\underline{p} = .05$ , one-tailed. Additionally, a significant positive coefficient was found between levels of acculturative stress and levels of achievement motivation for Mexican-American subjects,  $\underline{R} = .35$ ,  $\underline{p} = .05$ .

As hypothesized, multiple regression coefficient values for Mexican-American subjects with greater numbers of negative autostereotypic attitudes and lower levels of self-esteem were significant,  $\underline{R} = -.28$ ,  $\underline{p} = .05$ , one-tailed. A significant positive coefficient was found between number of negative autostereotypic attitudes and levels of achievement motivation for Mexican-American subjects,  $\underline{R} = .47$ ,  $\underline{p} = .005$ . South-Americans

As hypothesized, coefficient values for South-American subjects with greater levels of acculturative stress and lower level of self-esteem were significant, R = -.64, p = .0005, one-tailed.

#### Central-Americans

No significant regression coefficients were found for Central-American subjects on any of the variables.

#### Discussion

The present study evaluated the impact of acculturative stress and negative autostereotypes on the level of self-esteem and achievement motivation among different subgroups of 105 Hispanic college students. The first hypothesis was minimally supported (i.e., country/region of origin influenced negative stereotypic attitudes). However, country/region of origin did not influence acculturative stress, and no significant differences were found for the three groups. Furthermore, Central-American subjects presented with higher mean scores on both variables than Mexican— and South—American groups, in this order. Although not significantly different from Mexican—Americans and South—Americans on these variables, it may be that the small number of Central—American subjects ( $\underline{n} = 13$ ) may have attenuated the impact of the variable in this study.

The second hypothesis was suported. Multiple regression coefficients measuring acculturative stress and level of self-esteem showed that self-esteem is the best predictor of acculturative stress, particularly among second-generation subjects. The same was true in Mexican-and South-American students. These results are consistent with findings from previous research on Hispanic college

students. For example, Padilla, Alvarez and Lindholm (1986) found that second-generation students have greater levels of stress and lower scores on measures of self-esteem than third-generation and early immigrant students. As these researchers suggested, it may be that second-generation students experience more acculturative stress due to their position between the cultural values and norms of their immigrant parents and those of their third-generation Interestingly, this study also found that Mexican friends. American students with greater levels of acculturative stress presented with greater levels of achievement motivation. These results are consistent with findings from previous research on achievement motivation. For example, Evans and Anderson (1973) found that there is considerable agreement on the notion that Hispanic students, particularly Mexican-American students, tend to underachieve in academic settings. They also found however, that the students presented with high striving orientation to achieve academically. These findings may imply that second- and third-generation Mexican-American students may find themselves between conflicting cultural values but also have internalized the need for individual achievement characteristic of the Anglo population. It is important to emphasize that motivation to achieve does not necesarily imply actual academic achievement. Although Mexican-American students may have internalized the Anglo need for

individual achievement, they nevertheless present with the highest U.S. dropout rate of all minority subgroups. It may be that their need to achieve academically conflicts with their perception of their self- and group-worth. This may be compounded by extreme level of acculturative stress which they experience. Ultimately, these factors may severely hinder the Mexican American student's ability to cope efectively with the demands of academic settings, and precipitate their premature departure from school.

The third hypothesis was not suported (i.e., negative autostereotypic attitudes did not yield significant results for the total population). However, Mexican American subjects with the greatest number of negative autostereotypic attitudes presented the lowest level of self-esteem, as predicted. Interestingly, Central and South-American students presented with opposite results. These differential attitudes may reflect the divergence of generational level and ethnic self-affiliation among these three groups. Mexican-American students are mainly third generation individuals, whereas South- and Central-American students are primarily immigrants, and, to a lesser extent, second-generation individuals. As Buriel and Vasquez (1982) suggested, it may be that third-generation Mexican Americans, whose ties with their traditional culture have weakened as a result of successive generations, may incorporate the majority Anglo population negative view of

their ethnic group. This negative self-perception would lead to diminished feelings of personal and group selfworth. Thus, it may be that Hispanic subgroups need frequent and regular contact with their ancestral culture to maintain a positive alternative image of their group. Furthermore, other researchers have found that ethnic selfaffiliation modifies the positive or negative direction of autostereotypes, with Latin Americans perceiving themselves very favorably (Salazar & Marin, 1977; Triandis et al., This study also found that South-American students overall hold fewer number of negative autostereotypic attitudes than Central- and Mexican-American students (see Table 6). However, Central-Americans presented with greater number of negative autostereotypic attitudes than the other two groups. It may be that their countries' political state of insurgence, their refugee status, abrupt separation from their families, novel contact with the US. culture, etc. may likely increase their stress levels and may facilitate psychological distress of these subjects. Finally, this study found that Mexican-American students with greater numbers of negative autostereotypic attitudes presented with greater levels of achievement motivation. As previously mentioned, it may be that Mexican American students have incorporated the majority's negative view of their ethnic group, but also have internalized the need for individual achievement characteristic of the Anglo population.

However, greatest number of negative autostereotypic attitudes may also contribute to the psychological struggle already mentioned and thus, may further hinder the Mexican American student's ability to cope efectively with the demands of academic settings.

The remaining two groups (Puerto-Ricans and Mexicans) were examined in exploratory analyses. Puerto-Rican students consistently showed lesser levels of acculturative stress and fewer number of negative autostereotypic attitudes than all other groups (see Tables 6 and 7). Also, Puerto-Rican students presented with greater levels of self-esteem and achievement motivation than all other This group was also the least acculturated. In contrast, Mexican students first and Central-American students second showed the greatest levels of acculturative stress and the largest number of negative autostereotypic attitudes of all groups. Also, Mexican and Central-American students presented the lowest levels of self-esteem and achievement motivation of all groups. Finally, as expected, Mexican-American students were the most acculturated group.

In general, the findings have important implications for the body of knowledge related to cultural differences which affect the psychological processes of different Hispanic college student subgroups in the United States. The identification of levels of acculturative stress according to country and region of origin, and the degree of

Table 6

Negative Autostereotypes, Means and Standard

Deviations according to Regional Ethnicity

GROUP	M	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>
Central	21.08	2.36	13
American			
Mexican	21.14	3.82	22
Mexican	20.41	2.82	29
American			
Puerto	19.00	2.96	9
Rican			
South	19.74	4.32	31
American			

significance of different negative autostereotypic
perceptions in Hispanic college students, could help expand
the groundwork for future studies of Hispanic student
subgroups that are at risk for dropping-out. Such knowledge
will be beneficial to educators, political activists, and
government spheres interested in increasing the level of
minority group representation in higher education, and may
prove useful in discriminating those at risk for leaving

Table 7

Acculturative Stress, Means and Standard Deviations
according to Regional Ethnicity

GROUP	<u>M</u>	SD	<u>n</u>
Central	33.00	24.25	13
American			
Mexican	35.55	23.51	22
Mexican	29.17	21.03	29
American			
Puerto	21.22	10.19	9
Rican			
South	24.71	21.84	31
American			

school, particularly Mexican-American students. It may also give an overall understanding of sociocultural influences impinging upon Hispanic college students and the population in general. Within the larger social context, a deeper understanding of the influence exerted by negative autostereotypes may increase social awareness about the need for early-childhood educational programs which promote learning and understanding of ethnic diversity.

In conclusion, this investigation has shown that achievement motivation is a strong predictor for levels of acculturative stress, and for number of negative autostereotypic attitudes in Mexican-American students, while generational level and self-esteem are best predictors of acculturative stress for the three subgroups. However, studies in this area usually contained greater samples such as two-hundred and forty seven (Padilla et al., 1985) and two-hundred and fourteen (Mena et al., 1987). A greater sample population that includes a larger variety of ethnic backgrounds, would assure sharper differentiation among the groups.

Interpretative statements based on these results were made cautiously. This study was conducted in Texas, one of the five states where Hispanics have traditionally concentrated, and thus, a state where their investigation becomes of primary importance. However, due to their geographical location, these results could be more indicative of unique regional differences than of generational level. Nevertheles, since differences were not found between the groups on age, education levels, gender, and income levels, it would appear that the above results are more largely attributable to generational levels and country/region of origin.

# APPENDIX A PERSONAL QUESTIONNAIRE

				ID#	_
Date:		Age:			
Gender: M	F (	circle on	e)		
What is you	r ethnic i	dentifica <sup>.</sup>	tion ?	(circle one)	
<ul><li>b. Cuba</li><li>c. Cuba</li><li>d. Mexi</li><li>e. Mexi</li></ul>	n n-American can can-Americ		Country:		***************************************
g. Sout	to Rican h American		Country:		
What is you	ır marital	status ?			
roomm b. Marri c. Divon	nate led cced ng with som		th parent	s/relatives,	or with
Do you have	e children	?			
a. Yes b. No	How mar	ny ?			
How long ha	ave you bee	n living	in the U	nited States	?
	s, mor				
How long a	re you plan	nning to s	stay in U	nited States	?
a. Year b. I'm	s, mon staying for	nths r life	<b></b>		
You are a:	(ci:	ccle one)			
	omore or or uate stude		age Insti	tute student	

ID#\_\_\_\_\_

You are enrolled at the university as a: (circle one)	
<ul><li>a. International student</li><li>b. Permanent Resident</li><li>c. American citizen (naturalized)</li><li>d. American citizen (U.S. born)</li></ul>	
What is the highest level of education you are planning attain?	to
<ul><li>a. Associate degree</li><li>b. Bachelor degree</li><li>c. Master/Doctoral degree</li><li>d. Post doctorate</li></ul>	
Please respond to the following questions about members your family	of
1. What is the ethnic identification of your mother:	
a. Central American Country: b. Cuban c. Cuban-American d. Mexican e. Mexican-American f. Puerto Rican	-
g. South American Country: h. other Country:	
2. Does your mother lives in United States ?	
a. yes then, How long ? b. no then, Country:	
3. What is the ethnic identification of your father:	
a. Central American Country:  b. Cuban  c. Cuban-American  d. Mexican  e. Mexican-American  f. Puerto Rican	
g. South American Country: h. other Country:	

			ID#
4.	Does your father 1	ives in United States	; ?
	a. yes then, b. no then,	How long ?	- -
5.	What is the ethnic	e identification of yo	our grandmother:
	a. Central Americand. Cuban-Americand. Mexican e. Mexican-Americang. South American	n can	
	h. other	Country:	
6.	What is the ethnic	c identification of y	our grandfather:
	<ul> <li>a. Central America</li> <li>b. Cuban</li> <li>c. Cuban-America</li> <li>d. Mexican</li> <li>e. Mexican-America</li> <li>f. Puerto Rican</li> </ul>		
	g. South American		
	h. other	_	
7.	Do your grandpare	nts live in United St	ates ?
		w long ? untry:	
	Please estimate you income (use the hour this question)	our parent's/caregive ousehold you lived in	r's combined annual before you were 14
	1. \$0 - \$6,00 2. \$7,000 - \$12,0 3. \$13,000 - \$20,0 4. \$21,000 - \$35,0 5. \$36,000 - \$50,0 6. > \$50,000.	00 00 00 00	)

APPENDIX B

1. What is your preferred ethnic identification? (Mexican-American, Colombian, etc.)

2. Using your pref think Anglo-Americ (Circle the number please rate every	ans wo that	uld descr	ibe vour	etnnic gr	շաբ։
_ Ne	ever		True		Always
tamily-oriented	cue	true	3	true	true 5
ramily-oriented					
Proud				4	
Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5
Poor	1	2	3	4	5
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5
Educated	1	2	3	4	5
Old-fashioned				4	
Authoritarian	1	2	3	4	5
Lazy	1	2	3	4	5
Cooperative	1	2	3	4	5
Independent	1	2	3	4	5
Emotional	1	2	3	4	5
Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5
Ethical	1	2	3	4	5
Hardworking	1	2	3	4	5
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5
Unethical	1	2	3	4	5
Uneducated	1	2	3	4	5
Dependent	1	2	3	4	5
Unambitious	1	2	3	4	5

3. Given your preferred ethnic identification, how would you describe your ethnic group? (Circle the number that best describe your opinion, and please rate every item)

	Never true	true		true	Always true
Family-oriented		2			
Proud	1	2	3	4	5
Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5
Poor		2			
Friendly		2			
Educated	1	2	3	4	5
Old-fashioned		2			
Authoritarian	1	2	3	4	5
Lazy	1	2	3	4	5
Cooperative	1	2	3	4	5
Independent	1	2	3	4	5
Emotional	1	2	3	4	5
Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5
Ethical	1	2	3	4	5
Hardworking	1	2	3	4	5
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5
Unethical	1	2	3	4	5
Uneducated	1	2	3	4	5
Dependent	1	2	3	4	5
Unambitious	1	2	3	4	5

A. English 1. In genera	l, what lan	guage(s) do	you read	and speak?
1	2	3	4 :	5
Only	Spanish better than English	Both Equally	English better	Only English
2. What was	the languag	ge(s) you us	ed as a ch	nild?
1	2	3	4	5
Only Spanish	Mara	Both	More	onia
3. What land	guage(s) do	you usually	speak at	home?
1	2	3	4	5
Only Spanish	More Spanish than English	Both Equally	More English than Spanish	Only English
4. In which	language(s	) do you usu	ally thin	k?
1	2	3 :	4	5
Onlv	More	Equally	MOTE	Olling
5. What lan	guage(s) do	you usually	y speak wi	th your friends?
1	2	3	4	5
Only Spanish	More Spanish than English	Both Equally	More English than Spanish	Only English

watch?	ranguage(s)	are the 1.v	• programs	you abadary
1	2	3	4	5
0-1	More Spanish than English	Both Equally	More	Onlv
7. In what listen to?	language(s)	are the rad	io programs	s you usually
1	2	3	4	5
Only	More Spanish than English	Both Equally	More	Only
8. In generation programme 8.	ral, in what rams you <u>pre</u> :	language(s) <u>fer</u> to watch	are the mo	ovies, T.V. and n to?
1	2	3	4	5 :
Only Spanish	More	Both Equally	More English than Spanish	Only English
9. Your cle	ose friends	are:		
1	2	3	4	5
All Latinos/	More	About Half &	More Americans than Latinos	All Americans
10. You prothe people		o social gat	herings/pa	rties at which
1	2	3	4	5
All Latinos/	More	About Half & Half	More Americans	All Americans

11. The persons you visit or who visit you are:

1	2	3	4	5
All Latinos/ Hispanics	More Latinos than Americans	About Half & Half	More Americans than Latinos	All Americans

12. If you could choose your children's friends, you would want them to be:

1	2	3	4	5
All Latinos/ Hispanics	More Latinos than Americans	About Half & Half	More Americans than Latinos	All Americans

#### 1531

## FAMILY, ATTITUDE, SOCIAL, AND ENVIRONMENT STRESS SCALE

#### Amado M. Padilla Stanford University

Please read each of the following statements carefully.
On the 6-point scale shown beside each statement, indicate how stressful each item is for you by circling the appropriate number for each.

Furthermore, write the letter of or at most two of the coping strategies you use to help overcome this situation. If not applicable, please leave blank.

#### Coping Strategy

#### Stress Scale

0. Not applicable

2. Barely stressful

3. Somewhat stressful

4. Moderately stress-

5. Extremely stress-

1. Not stressful

ful

ful

- A. I try to actively find out more about the situation and I take positive, planned action.
- B. I talk with others about the problem (friends, relatives).
- C. I don't worry about it. Everything will probably work out fine.
- D. I become involved in other activities in order to keep my mind off the problem.
- E. I pray and/or consult a priest or a minister.
- F. I seek professional advice (physician, psychologist, counselor).
- G. I draw upon my past experiences; perhaps similar situations might help.
- H. I seek support from members of my cultural group.
- I. I try to reduce tension (e.g., drink, eat, drugs, smoke more, exercise).

	<u>Statements</u>	Coping Answers	Sti	cess	<u>Ar</u>	1SW	ers	<u> </u>
1.	It bothers me to think that so many people use drugs		0	1	2	3	4	5
2.	My family doesn't want me to move away but I would like to		0	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Close family members and I have conflicting expectations about my future		0	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I often think about my cultural background		0	1	2	3	4	5
5.	It's hard to express to my friends how I really feel		0	1	2	3	4	5

6.	I have more barriers to over-		-	2			5 [54]	
7.	I don't have any close friends	 0	1	2	3	4	5	
8.	I have trouble understanding others when they speak	 0	1	2	3	4	5	
9.	It bothers me that I cannot be with my family	 0	1	2	3	4	5	
10.	It bothers me that I have an accent	0	1	2	3	4	5 .	
11.	People look down upon me if I practice customs of my culture	0	1	2	3	4	5	
12.	People think I am unsociable when, in fact, I have trouble communicating in English	0	1	2	3	4	5	
13.	It is difficultfor me to "show off" my family	0	1	2	3	4	5	
14.	I don't feel at home	0	1	2	3	4	5	
15.	Loosening the ties with my country is difficult	 0	1	2	3	4	5	
16.	Because I am different, I don't get enough credit for the work I do	0	1	2	3	4	5	
17.	It bothers me that family members I am close to don't understand my new values	 0	1	2	3	4	5	
18.	Many people have stereotypes about my culture or ethnic group and treat me as if they are true	0	1	2	3	4	5	
19.	Because of my ethnic back- ground, I feel that others exclude me from participating in their activities	0	1	2	3	4	5	
20.	I often feel that people actively try to stop me from advancing	0	1	2	3	. 4	5	

•

	In looking for a good job, I sometimes feel that my ethnicity is a limitation		0	1	2	3	4	5 [55]
22	I often feel ignored by people who are supposed to assist me		0	1	2	3	4	5
23.	It bothers me when people pressure me to assimilate				2			
24.	I feel uncomfortable when others make jokes about or put down people of my ethnic background	-	0	1	2	3	4	5

•

1	What is the ethnic background of your closest friend?  Anglo(1) Other (specify)(0)
2	What is the ethnic background of the majority of your good friends? Anglo(1) Other (specify)(0)
3	Do you prefer to socialize with? Anglo(1) Other (specify)(0)
4	What ethnic group members do you prefer to date? Anglo(1) Other (specify)(0)
5	How would you identify yourself? American (1) Other (specify) (0)
6	If someone were to insult the U.S., would you feel offended? Yes(1) No(0)
7	If someone were to insult Americans, would you feel offended? Yes(1) No(0)
8	Do you prefer to be with those who share your cultural heritage? Yes(1) No(0)
9	Do you prefer to eventually marry a person of your own ethnic origin? Yes(1) No(0)
10.	-In what language(s) do you speak to your closest friend? English(1) Other (Specify)(0)
11.	-In what language(s) does she/he speak to you? English(1) Other (Specify)(0)
12.	-In what language(s) do you speak to the majority of your friends?  English(1) Other (Specify)(0)
13.	- What language(s) is/are often spoken where you live? English(1) Other (Specify)(0)

	What is the ethni friends?		-					
	Anglo	_(1)	Other	(speci	Lfy)	······································	······································	(0)
	What language doe father?	<del>-</del>			_		_	
	Anglo	(1)	Other	(speci	ify)		·····	(0)
3	What language doe children?	es you	r mothe	er use	to spe	ak to	her	
	Anglo	_(1)	Other	(spec	ify)		····	(0)
4	What language doe friends?	es you	r mothe	er use	to spe	ak to	her	
	Anglo	_(1)	Other	(spec	ify)			(0)
5	What language doe mother?	_			_		_	
	Anglo	(1)	Other	(spec	ify)	<del> </del>		(0)
6	What language doe children?	_			_			
	Anglo	(1)	Other	(spec	ify)			(0)
7	What language doe friends?	es you	r fathe	er use	to spe	ak to	his	
	Anglo	(1)	Other	(spec	ify)			(0)
8 Engl		vatch	televis	sion p	rograms	in a	non-	
	language?	(1)	Voc			(0)		
	110	( <del>-</del>	162			(0)		

#### DIRECTIONS

This schedule consists of a number of pairs of statements about things that you may or may not like; about ways in which you may or may not feel. Look at the example below.

- A I like to talk about myself to others.
- B I like to work toward some goal that I have set for myself.

Which of these two statements is more characteristic of what you like? If you like "talking about yourself to others" more than you like "working toward some goal that you have set for yourself", then you should choose A over B. If you like "working toward some goal that you have set for yourself" more than you like "talking about yourself to others," then you should choose B over A.

You may like both A and B. In this case, you would have to choose between the two and you should choose the one that you like better. If you dislike both A and B, then you should choose the one that you dislike less.

Some of the pairs of the statements in the schedule have to do with your likes, such as A and B above. Other pairs of statements have to do with how you feel. Look at the example below.

- A I feel depressed when I fail at something.
- B I feel nervous when giving a talk before a group.

Which of these two statements is more characteristic of how you feel? If "being depressed when you fail at something" is more characteristic of you than "being nervous when giving a talk before a group", then you should choose A over B. If B is more characteristic of you than A, then you should choose B over A.

If both statements describe how you feel, then you should choose the one which you think is more characteristic. If neither statement accurately describes how you feel, then you should choose the one which you consider to be less inaccurate.

Your choice, in each instance, should be in terms of what you like and how you feel at the present time, and not in terms of what you think you should like or how you think you should feel. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Your choices should be a description of your own personal likes and feelings. Make a choice for every pair of statements; do not skip any.

The pairs of statements on the following pages are similar to the examples given above. Read each pair of statements and pick out the one statement that better describes what you like or how you feel.

FOR EACH NUMBERED ITEM DRAW A CIRCLE AROUND THE A OR B TO INDICATE THE STATEMENT YOU HAVE CHOSEN.

- 1 A I like to help my friends when they are in trouble.
  - B I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.
- 2 A I like to find out what great men have thought about various problems in which I am interested.
  - B I would like to accomplish something of great significance.
- 3 A Any written work that I do I like to have precise, neat, and well organized.
  - B I would like to be a recognized authority in some job, profession, or field of specialization.
- 4 A I like to tell amusing stories and jokes at parties.
  - B I would like to write a great novel or play.
- 5 A I like to be able to come and go as I want to.
  - B I like to be able to say that I have done a difficult job well.
- 6 A I like to solve puzzles and problems that other people have difficulty with.
  - B I like to follow instructions and to do what is expected of me.
- 7 A I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.
  - B I like to tell my superiors that they have done a good job on something, when I think they have.
- 8 A I like to plan and organize the details of any work that I have to undertake.
  - B I like to follow instructions and to do what is expected of me.
- 9 A I like people to notice and to comment upon my appearance when I am out in public.
  - B I like to read about the lives of great men.
- 10 A I like to avoid situations where I am expected to do things in a conventional way.
  - B I like to read about the lives of great men.

- 11 A I would like to be a recognized authority in some job, profession, or field of specialization.
  - B I like to have my work organized and planned before beginning it.
- 12 A I like to find out what great men have though about various problems in which I am interested.
  - B If I have to take a trip, I like to have things planned in advance.
- 13 A I like to finish any job or task that I begin.
  - B I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk or workspace.
- 14 A I like to tell other people about adventures and strange things that have happened to me.
  - B I like to have my meals organized and a definite time set aside for eating.
- 15 A I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.
  - B I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk or workspace.
- 16 A I like to be able to do things better than other people
  - B I like to tell amusing stories and jokes at parties.
- 17 A I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.
  - B I like to talk about my achievements.
- 18 A I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly and without much change in my plans.
  - B I like to tell other people about adventures and strange things that have happened to me.
- 19 A I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.
  - B I like to be the center of attention in a group.
- 20 A I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.
  - B I like to use words which other people often do not know the meaning of.
- 21 A I like to accomplish tasks that others recognize as requiring skill and effort.
  - B I like to be able to come and go as I want to.

- 22 A I like to praise someone I admire.
  B I like to feel free to do what I want to do.
- 23 A I like to keep my letters, bills, and other papers neatly arranged and filed according to some system.

  B I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.
- 24 A I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.
  - B I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.
- 25 A I get so angry that I feel like throwing and breaking things.
  - B I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.
- 26 A I like to be successful in things undertaken. B I like to form new friendships.
- 27 A I like to follow instructions and to do what is expected of me.
  - B I like to have strong attachments with my friends.
- 28 A Any written work that I do I like to have precise, neat, and well organized.
  - B I like to make as many friends as I can.

### **ADULT FORM**

SEI

### Coopersmith Inventory

Stanley Coopersmith, Ph.D. University of California at Davis

Please Print	
Name	Age
Institution	Sex: M F
Occupation	Date
Directions	
On the other side of this form, you feelings. If a statement describes he column "Like Me." If a statement	ow you usually feel, put an X in the

feel, put an X in the column "Unlike Me." There are no right or wrong answers. Begin at the top of the page and mark all 25 statements.

x4 =



Like Me	Unlike Me	
	1.	Things usually don't bother me.
	2.	I find it very hard to talk in front of a group.
	3.	There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.
	4.	I can make up my mind without too much trouble.
	<u> </u>	I'm a lot of fun to be with.
	<u> </u>	I get upset easily at home.
	7.	It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.
		I'm popular with persons my own age.
	9.	My family usually considers my feelings.
	<u> </u>	I give in very easily.
	<u> </u>	My family expects too much of me.
	<b>1</b> 2.	It's pretty tough to be me.
	<u> </u>	Things are all mixed up in my life.
	<u> </u>	People usually follow my ideas.
	<u> </u>	I have a low opinion of myself.
	<u> </u>	There are many times when I would like to leave home.
	17.	I often feel upset with my work.
	<b>18</b> .	I'm not as nice looking as most people.
	<u> </u>	If I have something to say, I usually say it.
	<b>2</b> 0.	My family understands me.
	<u> </u>	Most people are better liked than I am.
	<u> </u>	I usually feel as if my family is pushing me.
	<b>23.</b>	I often get discouraged with what I am doing.
	<u> </u>	I often wish I were someone else.
	<u> </u>	I can't be depended on.

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APPENDIX C
CONSENT FORM

Dear student:

I am asking for your help. Please take a minute to read this cover letter.

I am a third year doctoral student in the department of Psychology of the University of North Texas and I am currently involved in a university wide study of Hispanic college students. This research project constitute my Master thesis. The purpose of this study is to attempt to understand how Hispanic college students adapt to college life in the United States.

Enclosed with this cover letter is a group of questionnaires that asks a variety of questions about your attitudes toward college life. I am asking you to look over the questionnaires and, if you choose to do so, to complete the questionnaires and return them to me. I will provide you with a signed extra-credit points card. Do not write your name on the questionnaire. I do not need to know who you are. The results of my thesis will be analyzed, summarized and appropriate people with the University will be given the final copy. I guarantee that your responses if you do participate will not be identified with you personally.

I hope you will take a few minutes to complete these questionnaires and I thank you for reading this letter.

Cordially,

Patricia M. Fantoni

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