

THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG ETHNIC IDENTITY, PSYCHOLOGICAL  
WELL-BEING, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, AND INTERGROUP COMPETENCE  
OF SCHOOL-AGE HISPANIC/LATINO YOUTH

by

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Hispanic/Latino Youth

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## DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my father, Luis Dejud, who passed away eight years ago. He had always wanted me to seek higher education. I also wish to dedicate this effort to my mother, Abelina de Dejud Valenzuela, who has long been suffering the absence of me, her youngest son. You both instilled in me a desire for knowledge and an understanding of the importance of learning.

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### ABSTRACT

The past few decades have witnessed unprecedented changes increase in the numbers of ethnic minorities in our Nations' public schools. Due to changes in demographic scene of our country, serious concerns have been raised with regards to mental health and academic achievement of school-age children from diverse ethnic backgrounds. The major purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between a set of psychological well-being variables (life satisfaction, self-esteem, and ethnic identity), mental health (depression), intergroup interactional competence, and academic achievement. A total number of 131 subjects in grades 9<sup>th</sup> through 12<sup>th</sup> were sampled to participate in the study. All sampled subjects came from low social economic status families of Mexican-American ethnic background. Seven measures were administered to each student in small groups of 10-12 students each. These measures have been found to have adequate reliability and validity in previous studies (Suzuki-Crumly & Hyers, 2004). However, the reliability of all the measures was also assessed in this study and was found to be in the moderate to high range. Implications of the study as well as recommendations for future research in this area are discussed.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

During the twenty-first century, the United States will become increasingly heterogeneous with respect to the ethnic composition of its population. Census reports predict that by the year 2050, the majority of the population will be persons of color (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1992). This prediction highlights the importance of understanding factors that promote ethnic pride across diverse groups and factors that promote positive inter-ethnic group relationships. Current research on ethnic identification emphasizes the importance of considering multidimensional and changing factors that affect ethnic identity development (Frable, 1997). For educators in particular, understanding the process through which young people come to see themselves as belonging to particular racial categories is important because it has tremendous bearing on the so-called achievement gap. One of the most vexing problems in educational achievement is the continuing stratification of academic performance by major racial and ethnic groups. Gaston Caperton, president of the College Board, a national association of educational institutions that administers major standardized tests, has observed that “chronic underachievement among minority students is one of the most critical problems facing our country today” (quoted in Wilgoren, 1999, p. 82). Since education has long been recognized as the primary route to upward mobility in American society (Lau & Duncan, 1967), racially stratified educational performance contributes greatly to the perpetuation of a racially stratified social order.

Throughout the United States, schools are characterized by increasing racial segregation and widespread racial disparities in academic achievement. Those who understand the cultures of the children they serve can be more effective. Unfortunately, few professionals, including many of those who work in schools with a high proportion of Hispanic/Latino students, are adequately prepared to meet the challenge of instructing children of a culture different from their own. It is not simply a question of cultural sensitivity, although this factor has been found to play an important role in the education of culturally diverse groups of students (Yasin & Albert, 1999).

Despite overwhelming evidence of a strong correlation between race and academic performance, there is considerable confusion among researchers about how and why such a correlation exists. There is a need for research to identify the characteristics of highly effective professionals in contributing to the educational success of Hispanic/Latino students at the preschool, elementary, and secondary school levels for the delivery of classroom instruction and for addressing cultural and linguistic differences that would provide optimal educational experiences for Hispanic/Latino students (President's Advisory Commission on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans, 2003).

From the time formal schooling emerged in this country, one function of school has been to act as a "homogenizing agent" (Mohl, 1981, p. 43) for the various ethnic differences of immigrants. This function has been to perpetuate the values, beliefs, and traditions of the mainstream, or accepted culture, through curricular content, instructional practices, and role modeling by educators. Prior to the movement toward multicultural

education, cultural differences were characterized as detrimental and seen as barriers in obtaining promising status and value in the American mainstream. For example, many Europeans changed their names to blend in with American expectations, diversities were viewed as transitory, with eventual disappearance occurring as minority populations became assimilated (Brembeck & Hill, 1973).

Ethnic background can be an important social referent for many children and youths of color (Aires & Moorehead, 1989; Phinney & Alipuria, 1990; Phinney & Rosenthal, 1992). Despite the large number of youths who must factor out their ethnic background into the construction of their social identities, ethnic identity, psychological well-being, and academic achievement, this remains a topic that has not been fully explored. As diverse cultures enter the American society, education, it is thought could help “stir the pot” to blend and acculturate these new members of society. Recently, however, we have begun to recognize that homogenization is not really occurring (Alba, 1990) and that it may not have been desirable. Cultural differences have been difficult for educators to handle and accept because they are value-laden. It is difficult to try to understand or modify a structure belief system when the cultural gaps have been viewed as deviant from the societal norm. The greater the culture gap between racial/ethnic and majority cultures, the more problems the ethnic groups will often experience. Majority groups tend to reject or devalue any cultural style that is not congruent with their own (Anderson, 1980). It is the dominant culture that provides the schools, even though the minority culture increasingly provides the students. As social institutions, schools have

generally been positioned “at convergence of cultural fault lines” (Brembeck & Hill, 1973, p. 21).

A major concern today is to improve the academic achievement of Hispanic/Latino students. Hispanics/Latinos are the fastest growing ethnic minority group in the United States (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 1998). Today, Hispanics/Latinos are the youngest population group in the United States: one-third are under 18 years of age, and they represent approximately 15% of the K-12 population. By the year 2015, Hispanics/Latinos will be the largest minority in the United States, and it is expected that by 2050, they will represent approximately 25% of the United States population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001). California, Texas, Florida, Arizona, New Mexico, Illinois, New York, and Puerto Rico serve the highest concentrations of Hispanic/Latino students, and in some school districts, they are the majority. In other states, such as Georgia, North Carolina, and Washington, the Hispanic/Latino population is increasing rapidly. Within this growing population of Hispanic/Latino school-aged children, persistent school underachievement and a high dropout rate persist (Trueba, 1998; U.S. Census Bureau, 2001). For example, about 55% of Hispanics/Latinos 25 years and older have completed high school while approximately 84% of Whites and 76% of African American 25 years and older have done so (Simmons, 2001). Thus, Hispanic/Latino students’ school achievement should be among the top priorities of educational policymakers.

While the Hispanic/Latino population continues to grow, its educational achievement continues to lag behind that of the rest of the nation. Some scholars attribute the low academic achievement among Hispanics/Latinos to segregation and neglect in a

racially stratified society (Orfield, 1998). Research indicates that minority students often encounter aesthetically unpleasant learning environments, inadequate instructional materials, ineffective teachers, and defiant peer subcultures, such as gangs. These studies specifically point to school factors such as teachers' low expectations and lack of cultural awareness, and a curriculum that does not reflect the life experiences of minority youth as contributing to low academic performance (Conchas, 1999; Gandara, 1999; McQuillan, 1998; Mehan, Villanueva, Hubbard, & Lintz, 1996).

In addition to the above-mentioned areas, recognition of the schools' role in the healthy development of children and youths have indicated that mental health among cultural groups is often affected because of the stress inherent in the ethnic identity and acculturation process (Berry & Kim, 1998). Researchers in this area have identified depression, anxiety, and psychosomatic problems as the most common mental health consequences among acculturating individuals (Berry, 1997; Berry & Sam, 1997).

Self-esteem is also considered a measure of psychological well-being and an indicator of mental health status or of psychological resilience in minority group members (Berry & Kim, 1998; Fernando, 1994; Hocoy, 1997). Although self-esteem is consistently correlated with mental health as a whole (Pilay, du-Plessis, Vawda, & Pollock, 1994), and in particular, negatively correlated with anxiety, depression, and psychosomatic symptoms (Rosenberg, 1965), there is abundant evidence that self-esteem and mental health do not necessarily co-vary in unison (Rosenberg, 1965).

In line with the perspective of the World Health Organization (WHO) on health, who defined life satisfaction as a "state of complete physical, mental and social well-

being, and not merely the absence of disease and infirmity” (WHO, 1993, p. 41), believes it is now normal to focus on positive aspects of health as well. From a socio-psychological point of view, life satisfaction is concerned with global well-being, that is, with happiness or satisfaction with life as a whole (Andrews & Robinson, 1991). In this regard, the 1999 Surgeon General’s report stated, “mental health is indispensable to personal well-being, family and interpersonal relationships, and contribution to community or society.” (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999, p. 16). The report further stated “mental health is the springboard of thinking and communication skills, learning, emotional growth, resilience, and self-esteem.” These are the ingredients of each individual’s successful contribution to community and society.

Furthermore, in July 2002, the President’s Commission on Excellence in Special Education delivered its report to the President. The report, entitled *A New Era: Revitalizing Special Education for Children and Their Families*, stated that schools should “recognize and make use of the diverse cultural and linguistic assets students bring into the classroom” (President’s Commission on Excellence in Special Education, 2003, p. 23). The educational achievement gap between Hispanic students and their non-Hispanic peers is the result of multiple factors. For example, the assets a child brings into the classroom, such as a second language, cultural values and beliefs, are not universally valued and can result in a negative impact. Finally, the report emphasized the importance of role models from a student’s own culture and racial or ethnic background.

### *Purpose of the Present Study*

Despite the rapid changes in the demographic scene of our society, there have not been studies intended to conclusively describe the relationship between ethnic identity, interracial competence, and psychological well-being of school-aged children and youth from diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Considering the rapid accelerated emergence of minority groups in our society, particularly in the public school context, it is of paramount importance for researchers to examine the relationship between ethnic identity and other human traits related to social adjustment and psychological well-being. A need for this kind of research was recently fully documented in a study conducted by Suzuki-Crumly and Hyers (2004) that pointed out a need for more generalizable data about such relationships across other cultural groups.

In addition, despite widespread recognition of the schools' role in the healthy development of children and youths, surprisingly little research has examined the relationship between ethnic identity, psychological well-being, and the academic achievement of Hispanic/Latino children. Thus, a general research question is whether self-esteem scores will differ significantly among Hispanic/Latino participants. On the basis of previous research which indicates that a positive relationship exists between ethnic identity and self-esteem, it is hypothesized that a significant positive correlation will emerge between ethnic identity and self-esteem among bilingual Hispanic/Latino adolescents.

Furthermore, traditionally, public schools have thought that students' satisfaction will follow on the heels of their academic success. In other words, children who perform

well in class will consequently feel good about themselves. But more recent educational theories have reversed this logic. They (Harter, Whitesell, & Junkin, 1998; Wiest, Wong, & Kriel, 1998) state that students must secure high self-esteem before they can hope to achieve academically. In other words, they must feel good about themselves before they can perform well in school. Thus, another research question would try to find a conclusive answer to which comes first, achievement or self-esteem? In sum, this study seeks to (a) fill the gap in the existing research on Hispanic/Latino adolescents' self-esteem and (b) replicate previous research regarding the relationship between ethnic identity and psychological well-being to provide evidence for generalizable findings in this area.

Thus, the primary purpose of this study is an attempt to examine the relationship between selected measures of psychological well-being, depression, and school-reported grade point average of Hispanic/Latino adolescents in grades 9 through 12. For the purpose of this study, the psychological well-being evaluation, will involve the obtained scores of sampled subjects on three selected measures, namely Satisfaction with Life Scale, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, and Ethnic Identity. The mental health measure will be obtained by using the Beck Depression Inventory and the measure of achievement will be the academic administration reported overall grade point average (GPA) of students in four grade levels. The study, as described above, is critically important for understanding and promoting the well-being, mental health, socialization, academic achievement, and adjustment of targeted age-level youth.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The role of ethnicity in a variety of social psychological phenomena has been receiving increasing attention in the academic and mental health sectors. This trend reflects a growing awareness of and appreciation for the diversity of the population and the contribution of ethnic identity to behavior. Despite the rapid changes in the demographic scene of our society, there have not been studies intended to conclusively describe the relationship between ethnic identity, academic achievement, intergroup competence, and psychological well-being of school-age children and youth from diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Research conducted with adolescents has begun to examine how one's sense of ethnic self and one's attitudes toward other ethnicities may influence intra and interpersonal behaviors. For example, having an achieved sense of ethnic identity has been related to such positive outcomes as increased self-esteem (Phinney & Alipuria, 1990; Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997; Phinney & Chavira, 1992) academic self-efficacy (e.g., Smith, Walker, Fields, Brookins, & Seay, 1999), and pro-social attitudes (e.g., Romero & Roberts, 1998) in multi-racial and ethnic minority adolescent samples.

#### *Hispanic or Latino*

Often the term "Hispanic" is used synonymously with the word "Latino," and frequently with "Latin," as they are used in the United States. Even though the terms may sometimes overlap in meaning, they are not completely synonymous. Hispanic specifically refers to Spain and to the Spanish-speaking nations of the Americas as

cultural and demographic extensions of Spain. It should be further noted that in a United States context, a Hispanic population consists of the people of Spain and everyone with origins in any of the Spanish-speaking nations of the Americas, regardless of ancestry (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001).

In the context of Spain and Latin America, a Hispanic population may consist of the people of Spain, and when regarding the inhabitants of the Hispanic America, includes only Criollos, Mestizos, Mulattos, and others with Spanish ancestry, to the exclusion of indigenous Amerindians, unmixed descendants of Black Africans and Whites, or other peoples from later migrations without any Spanish lineage. This distinction was established in the Spanish Empire in the 17th century, as an institutionalized system of racial and social stratification and segregation (Sistema de Castas) based on the person's heritage (Boricua, n. d.). However, when talking of Hispanic in a cultural and linguistic sense, the term refers to even peoples without Spanish ancestry but living in the Hispanic America who have Spanish as their mother tongue.

In regards to the term Latin, in this context it refers to the conception of "Latin America" as a region, a concept which was introduced by the French in the 1860s when they dreamed of building an empire based in Mexico. This concept of a "Latin" America was closely connected to the introduction of French positivism into the region's intellectual circles. The French understood "Latin" to include themselves and other continental European Romance speaking nations, to the exclusion of their "Anglo-Saxon"

colonial rivals in the United States (in the Americas) and the United Kingdom, as well as the Germanic and Scandinavian peoples (in Europe).

Latinos, meanwhile, is a contraction of “Latinoamericanos” and refers only to those from Spanish or Portuguese-speaking countries of Latin America, regardless of ancestry in all contexts. Those from French Canada like Haiti are very rarely included. In the cases where they are, along with residents of French Guiana, it is with some ambiguities. The confusion that arises is from the similarity between the words Latino and Latin, and between the concept of Hispanic and Latino. Latino is a shortened version of the noun Latinoamericano (Latin American). In the Spanish language, “Latín” (Latin) is the name of the language of the Romans. This means that “Latín” is not confined solely to Hispanics, Latin Americans, or Latinos, but has always included such European peoples as the Italians, French, Romanians, Portuguese, etc.

Thus, of a group consisting of a Brazilian, a Colombian, a Mexican, a Spaniard, and a Romanian; the Brazilian, Colombian, and Mexican would all be Latinos, but not the Spaniard or the Romanian, since neither Spain nor Romania is geographically situated in Latin America. Conversely, the Colombian, Mexican, and Spaniard would all be Hispanics, but not the Romanian and the Brazilian; Brazilians speak Portuguese as Brazil has evolved from the former Portuguese colony in South America. Finally, all of the above nationalities would be Latin, including the Romanian. To further clarify, a Latino is a United States citizen or resident of Latin American descent or birth (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001).

It should be noted that the categories of “Latino” and “Hispanic” are used primarily in the United States to socially differentiate people. As social categories they are not mutually exclusive and without ambiguities and cannot be seen as independent of social discrimination (socioeconomic, ethnic, or racial). These terms are not in everyday usage in the Caribbean, Central, or South America. Besides “Hispanic,” “Latino,” and “Latin” other terms are used for more specific subsets of the Hispanic population. These terms often relate to specific countries of origin, such as “Mexican,” “Mexican-American,” “Cuban,” “Puerto Rican,” or “Dominican,” etc. Other terms signify distinct cultural patterns among Hispanics which have emerged in what is now the United States, including “Chicano,” “Tejano,” “Nuyorican,” etc. (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001).

### *Ethnic Identity*

The importance of ethnic identity in coping with a variety of life situations, particularly those of a stressful nature, has been a major focus of current literature. While identity development is a complex task for all adolescents, it is particularly complicated for adolescents belonging to ethnic groups. Due to their membership, both in an ethnic group and in the mainstream culture, they face an extra problem with their own ethnic identity. Ethnic background can be an important social referent for many children and youths of color (Aires & Moorehead, 1989; Phinney & Alipuria, 1990; Phinney & Rosenthal, 1992).

Despite the large number of youths who must factor out their ethnic background into the construction of their social identities, ethnic identity, psychological well-being, and academic achievement remain topics that have not been fully explored. During

adolescence, individuals undergo several changes (e.g. physical, cognitive, and social) and encounter new experiences (e.g. new social demands) that may influence their psychological well-being in various ways. In the midst of these experiences, and given that self-esteem is commonly considered an index of psychological well-being (Kao, 1999; Phinney, 1991), understanding issues related to youths' self-esteem has been one of the most important areas of study in mental health research. Researchers have repeatedly used self-esteem as a proxy for adolescents' psychological adjustment (Phinney, 1991), psychological well-being (Benjet & Hernandez-Guzman, 2001; Kao, 1999; Martinez & Dukes, 1997), and positive mental health (Rosenberg, 1967).

The definition of ethnic identity is dependent upon theoretical context. Ethnic identity may be defined as a social psychology construct (Tajfel, 1978) in which one feels a sense of belonging and attachment to one's ethnic group (Aboud, 1977; Phinney, 1992; Phinney & Rotherman, 1987). In addition, ethnic identity can be delineated into four statuses: diffusion, moratorium, foreclosure, and achievement (e.g., high levels of ethnic identity exploration and high levels of ethnic identity commitment would denote the achievement status; Phinney, 1992). Theoretical approaches to ethnic identity (Phinney, 1989) suggest a progression to identity starting in early adolescence with a diffused or naïve state of awareness, leading perhaps to an exploration of the meaning of ethnic identity and its relation to others, and ultimately moving to a comprehensive and secure sense of self in relation to ethnicity.

As suggested by Tajfel (1974), ethnic identity is often considered to be the portion of one's overall social identity that derives from one's ethnic group membership. Helms

(1994) has more recently described ethnic identity as “a social identity based on the culture of one’s ancestors’ national or tribal group(s), as modified by the demands of the culture in which one’s group currently resides” (p. 30). Other researchers (Rotherman & Phinney, 1986, p. 215) have highlighted the complex and multidimensional nature of ethnic identity, defining it as “one’s sense of belonging to an ethnic group and the part of one’s thinking, perception, feelings, and behavior that is due to ethnic group membership.”

Among the psychological factors that may be important in the response to self-concept, there are two components: personal self-esteem and ethnic identity. Research on the role of group identity in self-esteem has focused largely on ethnic identity (Phinney et al., 1997). Ethnic identity is based on a belief that ethnicity is an unconscious norm or standard while guiding group behavior and forming group consciousness among group members. When one studies identity, it is important to relate it to other aspects of personality or the self-system, such as self-concept, self-esteem, self-motivation, cultural-self, self-aspiration, and physical-self. Self-identity is multifaceted, and it is more so in culturally and linguistically diverse adolescents, as a consequence of their own ethnic and cultural attitudes, beliefs, preferences, and behaviors (Guanapi-Ho, 1997).

According to Phinney (1992), “each group has its unique history, traditions, and values; yet, the concept of belonging to one’s own group is common to all human beings” (p. 158). From this perspective, ethnic identity is a multidimensional concept including self-identification as a group member, a sense of belonging and attachment, positive attitudes or feelings about one’s group, and participation in social activities and cultural

traditions (Phinney, 1990). Despite the large number of adolescents who must factor their ethnic background into the construction of their social identities, ethnic identity remains a construct that has not yet been fully explored. A reoccurring theme in the work of Phinney (1996) for example, is that “the norms, values, attitudes, and behaviors that are typical of an ethnic group and that stem from a common culture of origin transmitted across generations are commonly assumed to be indicative of ethnicity” (p. 920).

Ethnic identity is a multidimensional construct with many definitions across disciplines, theoretical approaches, and research methods (Phinney, 1990). For example, in a study of Hispanic students at an Ivy League university, Ethier and Deaux (1990) found that, for men, a strong sense of their cultural background was associated with a lower perceived threat to their ethnicity and with higher collective self-esteem. Furthermore, consistent with social identity theory, studies of ethnic identity have demonstrated that a strong ethnic identity is generally associated with high self-esteem (Phinney, 1989, 1992; Phinney & Alapuria, 1990). On the basis of research and theory, then, it is likely that individuals who have a strong sense of their ethnic identity have developed ways of handling threats to their ethnicity and therefore, would be less susceptible to such threats.

Uba (1994) described three distinct facets of ethnic identity. The first one is consciousness of one’s ethnic group, which entails knowledge of cultural characteristics along ideological (customs and beliefs) and behavioral (understanding of behavioral norms) bases. The second is the adoption of ethnic identity, which is achieved in varying degrees and may follow ethnic consciousness. Adoption entails incorporating ethnic

behavior, patterns, values, and beliefs into one's personality, which is accompanied by a sense of belonging. The third is the inhibition of ethnic identity, the unconscious and contextually-based inability to invoke a behavior grounded in an ethnic identity schema within a particular context. This aspect of ethnic identity often occurs in favor of other identities (i.e., gender) despite consciousness or adoption of ethnic identity.

Ethnic identity has also been primarily described in terms of objective components and intra-psychic phenomena (Deaux, 1991), rather than social interactions. Phinney (1995) contended that ethnic identity consists of factors such as self-labeling, a sense of belonging, positive evaluation, preference for the group, ethnic interest, and knowledge and involvement in activities associated with the group. Similarly, ethnic identity has been described as objective aspects including language, friendship networks, religious affiliation, and involvement in different clubs, organizations, exogamy, food preferences, and traditional celebrations (Rosenthal & Hrynevich, 1985; Ting-Toomey, 1981).

Other theorists contend that ethnic identity should be considered as an external and internal identity (Kwan & Sadowsky, 1997). Internal ethnic identity is divided into three dimensions: cognitive, moral, and affective. The cognitive dimension refers to a person's self-images and images of his or her own ethnic group as well as knowledge of the ethnic group heritage, history, and values. The moral dimension refers to a person's feelings of group obligations. The affective dimension refers to a person's feelings of attachment to his or her own ethnic group. Lastly, the external aspects of ethnic identity refer to observable social and cultural behaviors which manifest themselves in the areas

of language usage, friendships, participation in ethnic-group functions, and maintaining ethnic traditions (Yeh & Hwang, 2000).

Furthermore, ethnic identity can be defined as an individual's acquisition and retention of cultural characteristics that are incorporated into one's self-concept and development in the context of the individual belonging to a minority group within the larger society (Phinney, 1990). Ethnicity, which is an ethnic sense of self, suggests a feeling of belonging to an ethnic group. This sense of belonging is based on differentiation, how much Hispanic/Latino individuals share common characteristics that differentiate them from others in society. Much of the psychological research on ethnic identity development focuses on the relationship between positive or negative ethnic identity and a host of psychological and academic outcomes. The underlying assumption of these studies is that individuals with positive, well-developed ethnic identities are able to achieve healthy personalities and psychological well-being (Helm & Cook, 1999; Phinney & Kohatsu, 1997).

For youth of color, the development of positive identity and its role in healthy psychological functioning is closely linked with the development of ethnic identity (Menderlberg, 1986; Parham & Helms, 1985; Phinney, 1990, 1991; Phinney, Lochner, & Murphy, 1990; Plummer, 1995). The process of ethnic identity formation has been conceptualized in terms of a progression, with an individual moving from the unexamined attitudes of childhood, through a moratorium or period of exploration, to a secure achieved ethnic identity at the end of adolescence (Phinney, 1989). During adolescence, many youth, especially those from ethnic groups with lower status or power,

may become deeply involved in learning about their ethnicity. This process can lead to constructive actions aimed at affirming the value and legitimacy of their group (Brown, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1986) or to feelings of insecurity, confusion, or resentment over treatment of their group. The stages of this process are not inevitable, but rather depend on socialization experiences in the family, the ethnic community, and the larger setting (e.g. school), and not all individuals reach the stage of ethnic identity achievement.

Self-esteem is the most studied correlate of a positive ethnic identity. For example, students who reported higher levels of ethnic pride felt a sense of belonging to their ethnic group also they demonstrated higher levels of self-esteem (Phelps, Taylor, & Gerard, 2001; Phinney & Alipuria, 1990; Phinney & Chavira, 1992). These findings hold true across ethnic groups, as the positive association between ethnic identity and self-esteem has been found to be true for Latinos/as, African Americans, Whites, and Asian Americans (Phinney & Alipuria, 1990; Phinney et al., 1997). Finally, a secure ethnic identity has been linked to positive attitudes toward members of other ethnic groups (Romero & Roberts, 2003). On the other hand, underdeveloped or negative ethnic identities are believed to be indicative of poor psychological functioning (Roberts & Phinney, 1999; Romero & Roberts, 2003).

In a scale developed to measure ethnic identity, Phinney (1992) identified four components of ethnic identity: self-identification, ethnic behaviors and practices, affirmation and belonging, and ethnic identity achievement. According to Phinney (1992), self-identification is based on the individual's nationality, language spoken, skin color, culture, and other factors. Ethnic behaviors and practices focus on how involved an

individual is with ethnic social activities and cultural practices (e.g., music, food). The third component, affirmation and belonging to the ethnic group, focuses on the individual's feeling of pride and attachment to his/her group (Phinney, 1992). Having high ethnic affirmation and belonging also suggests that one has positive feelings about one's ethnic membership.

Ethnic identity, achievement, and feelings of security about one's membership in the group mean that one has a clear sense of importance of ethnic background. In general, prior studies (Wright & Littleford, 2002) have used ethnic identity as an all-encompassing term to refer to ethnic self-identification, ethnic behaviors, ethnic affirmation, belonging, and ethnic identity achievement. Finally, whereas the importance of a strong ethnic identity on reducing psychological distress has been examined (Carter, 1991; Martinez & Dukes, 1997), the impact of the separate components has not been explored. Having secure ethnic identity and a strong feeling of pride in one's ethnic group may buffer the negative impact of discrimination on one's academic achievement and psychological well-being.

#### *Ethnic Identity and Academic Achievement*

Studies exploring the role of ethnic identity and academic achievement suggest that a bicultural orientation is conducive to better school performance (Portes & Rumbaut, 1990). For example, Portes and Schaufler (1994) reported that among Hispanic students in South Florida, fluent bilingualism was associated with higher educational achievement and more ambitious plans for the future. School performance may be enhanced when ethnic identity includes achievement as an aspect of that identity

(Oyserman, Gant, & Ager, 1995; Taylor, Casten, Flickinger, Roberts, & Fulmore, 1994). Researchers agree that there is a positive relationship between self-esteem and grades, although the causal order between psychological well-being and grade performance is unclear (Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995). For instance, Covington (1989) argued that the lower academic performance of some minority youth stems from their lower self-esteem. Thus, in order to improve their academic performance, school intervention programs must focus on raising the self-esteem of minority students. He posited that, while there is some reciprocal influence between performance and self-esteem, the primary causal mechanism is that performance leads to changes in self-esteem.

### *Self-esteem*

Literature on self-esteem among Hispanics has tended to focus on the group-image component, or how the individual feels about his or her group identity. Self-esteem refers to an abiding set of beliefs about one's own worth, competence, and abilities to relate to others (Vaughan & Oldham, 1997). Self-esteem also has been conceptualized as buffering the individual from adverse life events. Emotional well-being is often associated with a slightly positive, yet realistic outlook (Alloy & Abramson, 1988). The opposite outlook is characterized by pessimism, demoralization, or minor symptoms of anxiety and depression. One seminal aspect of self-esteem has garnered much research attention: self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy is defined as confidence in one's own abilities to cope with adversity, either independently or by obtaining appropriate assistance from others. Self-efficacy is a major component of the construct known as

resilience (i.e., the ability to withstand and overcome adversity). Resiliency can be facilitated by having adequate social support (Beardslee & Vaillant, 1997).

Indisputably, self-esteem has been one of the most widely studied aspects of the self. Various theorists (James, 1980; Rosenberg, 1979) have defined this construct and, while varying definitions exist, all refer to individuals' personal feelings of worth. Self-esteem is usually defined as "the extent to which one prizes, values, approves, or likes oneself" or "the overall affective evaluation of one's own worth, value, or importance" (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991, p. 115). Self-esteem is widely acknowledged to be an important factor in adolescent development. It has been found to be positively associated with general psychological well-being, and negatively correlated with depression and hopelessness among adolescents (Harter, 1993). Because of psychological importance of self-esteem, a considerable amount of research has been devoted to understanding its sources (Baumeister, 1993; Rosenberg, 1986).

Self-esteem of ethnic minority youth has been a subject of great interest. Self-esteem is clearly implicated in the achievement process and variations in self-esteem are closely related to different reasons for learning. Some students are motivated to overcome an impending sense of failure as a person. They struggle to establish and maintain a sense of worth and belonging in a society that values competency and doing well. They combine a sense of obligation to achieve, often stemming from family expectations. A global feeling of self-esteem is widely recognized as a central aspect of the self-concept, of psychological functioning and well-being (Greenwald, Belezza, & Banaji, 1988;

Taylor & Brown, 1988), and is strongly related to many other variables (Kaplan, 1982; Rosenberg, 1985), including general satisfaction with one's life (Veenhoven, 1984).

Research of self-esteem has for the most part focused on individual competence and interpersonal experiences as the basis of self-esteem (Harter, 1993). The notion of self-esteem can refer to the overall evaluation of oneself as a person, or how one feels about oneself in a comprehensive sense it can also refer to the evaluation of specific aspects of the self, such as ethnic identity; global personal self-esteem, and ethnic self-esteem (Verkuyten, 2001). Rosenberg (1979) defined self-esteem as a self-reflexive attitude that results from conceiving the self as an object of evaluation. Brown (1998) defined self-esteem as feelings of affection for oneself. He argues that there is a basic human need to feel good about ourselves and suggested that although people across time and cultures may approach this need differently, it is universal. In the current study, self-esteem refers to a positive or negative orientation toward the self (Rosenberg, 1979). That is, self-esteem refers to a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individuals hold toward themselves.

### *Depression*

In the United States, depression is the most common mental health disorder (National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH), n. d.). Each year it affects 17 million people of all age groups, races, and economic backgrounds. As many as 1 in every 33 children may have depression; in teens, that number may be as high as 1 in 8 (NIMH, n. d.). Depression during adolescence comes at a time of great personal change when boys and girls are forming an identity distinct from their parents, grappling with

gender issues and during emergence of their sexuality, making decisions for the first time in their lives. A child with depression may pretend to be sick, refuse to go to school, cling to a parent, or worry that a parent may die. Older children may sulk, get into trouble at school, be negative and irritable, and feel misunderstood. Depression in adolescence frequently co-occurs with other disorders such as anxiety, disruptive behavior, eating disorders or substance abuse (NIMH, n. d.). Since these signs may be viewed as normal mood swings typical of children as they move through developmental stages, it may be difficult to accurately diagnose a young person with depression.

#### *Depression and Academic Achievement*

Academic failure has consistently been found to be associated with depression (Fauber, Forehand, Long, & Burke, 1987). Similar studies have also reported that depressive mood is associated with academic problems or low academic achievement (Hilsman & Garber, 1995; Kaslow, Rehm, & Siegel, 1984). For example, in a longitudinal study, Chen et al. (1995) found academic achievement to be significantly correlated with depression. In particular, results indicated that depressed youth had more academic problems than their non-depressed counterparts contemporaneously and two years later. Despite the high prevalence of depression in Hispanic/Latino adolescents, there is little known about the relation among academic achievement and depressive symptoms in this population (Castaneda, 1994; Foster & Martinez, 1995; Roberts & Chen, 1995; Robert & Sobhan, 1992). Depression has become more prevalent in recent years, and rates have increased between 10% and 15% in school-age population (Abela & D'Alessandro, 2002; Nolen-Hoeksema, Girgus, & Seligman, 1992). These results

indicate that youths are likely to have moderate to severe depression at least once on a lifetime.

Failure to achieve academic goals may be due to the stress factor that creates a proclivity for depression, particularly if failure is long lasting (Sideridis, 2005). In their pursuit for academic achievement, students generally attempt to gain a sense of meaning, purpose, and direction, and failure to achieve this goal can lead to feelings of futility and despondency and a feeling of inadequacy (Bandura, Pastorelli, Barbaranelli, & Caprara, 1999). Researchers have suggested that academic achievement and strivings for success are facilitators for psychological growth, subjective well-being, and life satisfaction (Sheldon, Kasser, Smith, & Share, 2002). Furthermore, failure to achieve the desired academic achievement goals can lead to a series of aversive experiences that may a potential cause for susceptibility to depression. Particularly for young children and adolescents, failure to approach desired outcomes in school can be debilitating and can lead to feelings hopelessness, depression, and a generalized sense of lack of control (Abramson, Metalsky, & Alloy, 1989).

During adolescence depression (Dotan, 1990) and self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1967) are two such variables that have an impact on achievement. While there is some evidence in the literature on how depression and self-esteem affects academic achievement (Blechman, McEnroe, Carella, & Audette, 1986; Harter, 1983; Learner & Kruger, 1997), limited research exists on the relationship between academic achievement and aspects of mental health such as depression and self-esteem in adolescents.

### *Psychological Well-being*

Subjective well-being (SWB) or psychological well-being is a field of psychology that attempts to understand people's evaluation of their lives (Diener, 1997). These evaluations may be primarily cognitive or may consist of the frequency with which people experience pleasant emotions (e.g. joy, as measured by the experience sampling technique) and unpleasant emotions (e.g. depression). Diener and his colleagues have proposed that subjective well-being is composed of satisfaction with life, positive affect, and (a lack of) negative affect (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Myers & Diener, 1995). Although discussions from this perspective often appear to equate subjective well-being with happiness (Diener et al., 1999; Myers & Diener, 1995), this perspective also appears to occasionally conceptualize happiness as an affective sub-component of the broader construct of subjective well-being. Furthermore, within this model, self-esteem (i.e., satisfaction with self) might be conceptualized as a component of overall satisfaction with life, and thus as a sub-component of subjective well-being. Researchers in the field strive to understand, not just undesirable clinical states, but also differences between people in terms of positive levels of long term well-being. Life satisfaction among youth is pervasively associated with the presence of desirable psychological characteristics (e.g., self-esteem, resiliency, hope, self-reliance, and pro-social behavior) and the absence of negative characteristics (anxiety, loneliness, depression, school discipline problems, and violence) (Myers & Diener, 1995).

*Ethnic Identity and Self-esteem*

There has been considerable research on ethnic identity and self-esteem. Both social psychological and developmental approaches support the view of a positive relationship between these two constructs. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) suggests strong links between group identification and self-concept. Individuals strive to achieve or maintain a positive social identity, thus boosting their self-esteem. Research studies on racial groups have long documented that a solid sense of ethnic identity may be important for maintaining a sense of well-being. Ethnic identity may be especially important to the psychological functioning of minority group members (Phinney, 1990). Helms (1990) and Cross (1991) have posited that a positive relationship exists between ethnic identity and self-esteem, and such a relationship has been demonstrated (Cross & Strauss, 1998; Hyers, 2001).

More specifically, it has been argued that denial of one's ethnic heritage may lead to a negative self-concept (Phinney, 1989; Helms, 1990). Children are also influenced, however, by messages received from the family and community (Knight, Bernal, Garza, Cota, & Ocampo, 1993). Parental socialization regarding ethnicity plays an important role in the content and meaning children attach to their own ethnicity (Bernal, Knight, Garza, Ocampo, & Cota, 1990; Thornton, Chatters, Taylor, & Allen, 1990). Children are influenced as well by messages from other adults and the ethnic community. A vital ethnic community provides a context in which children can form a positive sense of their group (Rosenthal & Hrynevich, 1985; Liebkind & Jasinskaya-Lahti, 2000). Furthermore, an achieved ethnic identity involving a secure sense of one's ethnicity and resolution of

conflicts about one's group is assumed to include positive feelings about one's group and to be a source of personal strength and positive self-evaluation (Phinney, 1989; Phinney & Kohatsu, 1997).

A review of the literature on ethnic identity and self-esteem concluded that the "relationship between ethnic identity and self-esteem only holds among those who identify themselves as ethnic group members and for whom ethnicity is salient" (Phinney, 1991, p. 205). However, this review was based primarily on mono-ethnic minority adolescents. Studies conducted since Phinney's review have consistently found a positive relationship between ethnic identity and self-esteem (i.e., Brown, 2001; Martinez & Dukes, 1997; Phinney, 1992; Phinney & Alipuria, 1996; Roberts, Phinney, Masse, Chen, & Roberts, 1999; Smith, Walker, Fields, Brookins, & Seay, 1999). For instance, higher self-esteem was found in multiethnic high school and college students who scored higher on measures of ethnic identity (Phinney, 1992; Phinney & Alipuria, 1996). In summary, social, psychological, and developmental perspectives suggest that a strong, secure ethnic identity makes a positive contribution to psychological well-being. Research provides support for this view; maintenance of a strong ethnic identity is generally related to psychological well-being among members of an ethnic group (Liebkind, 1996; Nesdale, Rooney, & Smith, 1997; Phinney et al., 1997).

#### *Self-esteem and Academic Achievement*

The argument that school failure can be attributed to low self-esteem and school success to high self-esteem has received some empirical support (Harter, Whitesell, & Junkin, 1998; Wiest, Wong, & Kriel, 1998; Filozof, Alberrin, & Jones, 1998). Self-

esteem is clearly implicated in the achievement process and variations in self-esteem are closely related to different reasons for learning. Some students are motivated to overcome an impending sense of failure as a person. Therefore, they might struggle to establish and maintain a sense of worth and belonging in a society that values competency and doing well. For these children, the issue is less one of language than of a social context in which these children, their families, and their communities are undervalued. Instead of reinforcing children's self-confidence and self-esteem, school compromises the learning potential by rejecting their language and culture (Bowman, 1993).

Feelings of self-esteem and self-worth are necessary precursors for helping students strive toward academic excellence (Goode & Watson, 1992). For instance, in a study using multiple regression analysis, Witherspoon, Speight, and Thomas (1997) reported that both immersion attitudes and academic self-concept are reliable predictors of high school academic achievement. They found that immersion attitudes were negatively associated with self-concept and grade point average. Additionally, internalization attitudes were correlated, although not significantly, in a positive direction with grade point average and academic self-concept. Other researchers (Rosenberg, Schooler, & Schoenbach, 1989) argued that grades have a stronger effect on self-esteem than self-esteem has on grades. For example, when schools represent an Anglo-centric and middle-class viewpoint, minority students and their families often feel devalued. This experience is common to many Spanish-speaking children. According to Tharp (1989) when children and youth are not required to renounce their cultural heritage, school achievement improves markedly.

### *Ethnic Identity and Intergroup Competence*

Ethnic identity is pride in one's racial and cultural identity (Sue, 1981) and it is important in that it shapes individuals' attitudes about themselves and their ethnic background, attitudes about individuals from other ethnic groups, and attitudes about individuals from the majority group (Poston, 1990). Intergroup competence refers to the ability to effectively interact with people of different ethnic backgrounds. Research studies show that individuals who have more intergroup experience are less likely to experience anxiety during intergroup contact situations (Hyers & Swim, 1998; Stephan & Stephan, 1985a), and voluntary intergroup experience is more common for people of bicultural ethnic heritages than it is for mono-cultural individuals. Yet, biracial individuals are not necessarily more competent in their intergroup relations; instead, competence may come from having a biculturally identified orientation.

### Academic Achievement and Social Identity Theories

#### *Social Cognitive Theory*

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) combines four ideas to explain why a child will succeed or fail at a task. This include: self-observation, self-judgment, self-reaction, and self-efficacy (Bandura, 2001). The key to this theory seems to be self-efficacy. Without a positive self-efficacy, the child will not believe he can succeed in a challenge, and for that reason, will not work to do so. However, if the child does have a positive self-efficacy in regards to the problem at hand, that child will react in a way to overcome his or her problem (self-reaction to the self-judgment that there is a problem). Self-efficacy can not only be built by positive experiences, but it can be built by witnessing the

positive experiences of others, by having your talents convinced to you by a positive teacher, parent or peer, and lastly, self-efficacy can be built by the physiological arousal that often accompanies new tasks (Bandura, 1995; Pajares & Schunk, 2001).

### *Attribution Theory*

Attribution theory (AT) is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how this relates to their thinking and behavior. Weiner (1974) focused his attribution theory on achievement. He identified ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck as the most important factors affecting attributions for achievement. Ability is seen as an internal, stable, and uncontrollable attribute. His theory has been widely applied in education, law, clinical psychology, and the mental health domain. Attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do, and attribute causes to behavior (Weiner, 1986). A person seeking to understand why another person did something may attribute one or more causes to that behavior.

Attribution theory has been used to explain the difference in motivation between high and low achievers (Weiner, 1986). According to attribution theory, high achievers will approach rather than avoid tasks related to succeeding because they believe success is due to high ability and effort which they are confident of, while failure is thought to be caused by bad luck or a poor exam. Thus, failure does not affect their self-esteem but success builds pride and confidence. On the other hand, low achievers avoid success-related chores because they tend to doubt their ability, and/or assume success is related to luck or to “who you know” or to other factors beyond their control. Weiner (1980) states: “causal attributions determine affective reactions to success and failure” (p. 85). For

example, students with higher ratings of self-esteem and with higher school achievement tend to attribute success to internal, stable, uncontrollable factors such as ability, while they contribute failure to either internal, unstable, controllable factors such as effort, or external, uncontrollable factors such as task difficulty.

### *Achievement Goal Theory*

Achievement goal theory (AGT) posits that individuals strive to achieve for different purposes, and these purposes are associated with different outcomes (Urdan, 2004). It proposes that students' motivation and achievement-related behaviors can be understood by considering the reasons or purposes they adopt while engaged in academic work (Ames, 1992; Urdan, 1997). Achievement goal theory assumes students' perceptions of the goal structures emphasized by schools, teachers, and parents are reflected in the achievement goals students adopt in the classroom. The two most common goals emphasized in achievement goal theory are mastery and performance goals. It is believed that when students emphasize a performance goal they are concerned to demonstrate their ability relative to others (Ames & Archer, 1988). Students who focus on performance goals enjoy learning when they can prove themselves or receive recognition for their high grades or performance. However, if the student fails to achieve high marks, that student, because his focus is on the praise he will not receive, is more liable to fall victim to learned helplessness and become discouraged in the future.

Most goal theory research has found a positive constellation of outcomes associated with the pursuit of mastery goals, including relatively high intrinsic motivation, the use of deep cognitive and self-regulatory strategies, persistence in the

face of failure, positive feelings about school and school work, and self-efficacy (Elliot, 1997; Urdan, 1997). Students who focus on mastery goals enjoy learning for learning's sake. Because their focus is not on their grades, they do not risk negative consequences of not being praised or receiving recognition when their work is not as good as others. Because they enjoy learning, these students often enjoy challenging materials and practice better and more permanent study habits. Mastery goals are considered superior and they are focused on learning, self-improvement, and effort (Urdan, 2004). Thus, mastery goals can be thought of as learning or task-focused goals while performance goals can be viewed as ego-focused goals.

Achievement goal theory also proposes that the goal structure of an environment might affect students' motivation, cognitive engagement, and achievement within that setting (Ames & Archer, 1988). Goal structure describes the type of achievement goal emphasized by the prevailing instructional practices and policies within a classroom, school, or other learning environment. For instance, the types of tasks assigned, the grading procedures, the degree of autonomy students are provided, and the ways students are grouped are thought to affect the achievement goals students adopt, and thus embody the classroom goal structure (Ames, 1992; Kaplan, Middleton, Urdan, & Midgley, 2002; Urdan, 1997).

### *Social Identity Theory*

Personal self-concepts theories (Rosenberg, 1986; Rosenberg et al, 1989) and social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) propose that self-esteem is a basic human need and that individuals respond to threats to their identity in a variety of ways that

enable them to maintain in a positive view of themselves and their own reference group. Social Identity Theory (SIT) also provides a useful framework for understanding how ethnic identities develop within a context of racial and social stigmatization. The central proposition of SIT is that people by nature categorize themselves and others into groups and that they want their own group's identification to be a positive one (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986).

SIT proposes that individuals gain part of the self-concept from memberships in social groups (Tajfel, 1978). Social identity is "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1978, p. 63). The values and emotions associated with that social group create shared identity. Consequently, individuals strive to view their own groups positively because this influences their own self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). SIT is important because it examines the relationship between individual cognitive processes and larger scale group dynamics (Brown & Capozza, 2000). SIT combines cognitive and motivational processes into a consistent theoretical framework, and provides for analysis of intergroup behavior simultaneously with individual psychological processes (Turner, 1987).

The basic assumption of Tajfel's (1978) theory is that people strive for a positive social identity. As social identity is derived from membership in groups, a positive social identity is the outcome of favorable social comparisons made between the in-group and other social groups (Druckman, 1994). As long as membership in a group enhances one's self-esteem, one will remain a member of that group. But, Tajfel argues if the group fails

to satisfy this requirement, the individual may try to change the structure of the group (social change), seek a new way of comparison which would favor his/her group, and hence, reinforce his/her social identity (social creativity); or leave/abandon the group with the desire to join the better one (social mobility). Tajfel then asserts that it is difficult for a member of a minority group to achieve a positive social identity, given that minorities almost always have an inferior status in comparison with the majority. So minority groups usually do not contribute to their members' self-esteem (Turner, 1982).

As previously mentioned, social identity theory seeks to explain intergroup relations in general and social conflict in particular. The theory incorporates three main points: 1) people are motivated to maintain a positive self-concept, 2) self-concept derives from group identification, and 3) people establish positive social identities by favorably comparing their in-group against an out-group (Operario & Fiske, 1999). As such, social identity theorists assume that internal social comparison processes drive intergroup conflict, even in the absence of explicit rivalry or competition between groups.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

This chapter is devoted to providing detailed information about various aspects of methodologies that were utilized to substantiate eight research hypotheses. More specifically, the chapter will contain information about basic sampling procedures, hypotheses to be tested, instruments used, procedures employed, and statistical techniques used to analyze obtained information.

#### *Hypotheses to be Tested*

In concert with the overall purpose of this study, the following null hypotheses were tested at a .05 level of statistical significance:

1. There will be no significant relationships between life satisfaction measures, depression, and academic achievement as measured by GPA for subjects in all selected grade levels.
2. There will be no significant relationships between self-esteem measures, depression, and academic achievement as measured by GPA for subjects in all selected grade levels.
3. There will be no significant relationships between ethnic identity, depression, and academic achievement as measured by GPA for subjects in all selected grade levels.
4. There will be no significant relationships between intergroup interactional competence, depression, and academic achievement as measured by GPA for subjects in all selected grade levels.

5. The measures of life satisfaction, multi-ethnic identity measure, self-esteem, and intergroup interactional competence will not significantly predict depression and GPA.
6. There will be no difference by gender in the prediction of depression and academic achievement by predictive variables of life satisfaction, multi-ethnic identity, self-esteem, and intergroup interactional competence.
7. There will be no significant difference in the measure of academic achievement and depression for subjects with high and low levels of psychological well-being.
8. Measures of psychological well-being will not be significant predictors of intergroup interactional competence for males and female subjects.

### *Sample*

One hundred thirty one students from a large urban school district in a southwest U.S. state were randomly selected from the school district's database to participate in the study. This district was comprised of five middle schools and two high schools with over 880 students. The district encompassed 93.6 square miles and included a population of approximately 16,389 persons. The population was comprised of 87.7% Hispanic (14,804), 5.6% Caucasian (952), 2.1% African American (353), 0.5% Asian (91), and 4.1% Native American (687) students (Sunnyside School District, n. d.). Participants were included in this study if they: 1) were Hispanic/Latino youth enrolled in public school, grades 9<sup>th</sup> through 12<sup>th</sup>; 2) were 14 to 18 years old; 3) were male or female; 4) had a Hispanic/Latino surname; 5) had been exposed to the language and cultural values of the targeted group; 6) were from parents of Hispanic/Latino descent, and 7) had a certain

level of oral as well as written fluency in both English and Spanish languages. Participants' demographic information is summarized in Table 1. Students not meeting these criteria were excluded from the study. The sample closely approximated the demographic characteristics of the school district with respect to ethnicity and social economic status (SES). Students were not matched on the basis of SES because of the modest size of the normally achieving (NA) sampling. It is noteworthy that demographic variables in general, including race and SES, have demonstrated modest relationships at best to adolescent life satisfaction reports in previous studies (Gilman & Huebner, 2003; Huebner, Drane, & Valous, 2000).

### *Procedures*

Permission to conduct the study in the school district was granted by the Director of Research and Evaluation for the district (See Appendix B). The Human Subjects Protection Program at the University of Arizona approved the study prior to the recruitment of participants (See Appendix C). Prior to beginning the study, the primary investigator (PI) obtained collaboration and support of the administrators at each high school. The PI discussed the evaluation questionnaires, evaluation protocol, and the procedures for completing questionnaires. English teachers were contacted by the PI to explain the purpose of the study and to request their help in soliciting student participation. English teachers were selected because middle and high school students were required to take English to graduate, thus increasing the probability of obtaining samples representative of the school district. In addition, students were given flyers highlighting the goals and activities of the program and consent forms presenting the

goals, objectives, and evaluation protocol of the program (including the right to opt out of taking the questionnaire) to interested families. Parental and student consent forms were obtained and returned to the PI.

After obtaining parental consent (See Appendix A), participants completed the surveys via paper and pencil. Participants were verbally informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that they were free to leave if they chose not to participate. In addition, participants were assured that all of their responses would remain confidential and be used for research purposes only. The participants were selected from among all those who complete the questionnaires if they identified themselves as members of the target population. Demographic data (i.e., age, gender, race, and grade) were obtained from the *Background Questionnaire* form located at the front of each packet of questionnaires. SES data was obtained through the district's Research and Evaluation Office records indicating whether the students receive reduced/free lunch. To decrease the possibility of socially desirable responses, students were informed that their names would be replaced with number codes prior to the PI's examination of questionnaires. Instructions regarding the completion of measures were read aloud to all students. The PI was available to answer questions throughout testing. The duration of the entire testing lasted 20-30 minutes. All questionnaires and measures were coded prior to distribution to protect confidentiality.

Table 1

*Demographic Information of Participants*

Demographic	<i>n</i> ( <i>N</i> = 131)	<i>P</i>
Gender		
Male	66	50.4
Female	65	49.6
Age Group		
14	10	7.6
15	30	22.9
16	26	19.8
17	35	26.7
18	28	21.4
19	2	1.5
Grade		
9 <sup>th</sup>	32	24.4
10 <sup>th</sup>	31	23.7
11 <sup>th</sup>	33	25.2
12 <sup>th</sup>	35	26.7
High School		
#1	94	71.8
#2	37	28.2
Self-Report Ethnicity		
Hispanic/Latino	73	55.7
Mexican American	31	23.7
Mexican	16	12.2
Other (e.g., Salvadorian)	9	6.9
Dominant Language		
English	70	53.4
Spanish	37	28.2
Both	24	18.3
Primary Language in the Home		
English	42	32.1
Spanish	42	32.1
Both	47	35.9

### *Survey Instruments*

Various surveys and questionnaires were utilized. Measures included the *Multi-Group Ethnic Identity Measure* (MEIM), the *Beck Depression Inventory-Short Form* (BDI-S), the *Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale* (RSES), the *Satisfaction with Life Scale* (SWLS), the *Background Questionnaire*, and the *Intergroup Interactional Competence* (IIC) measure for Hispanics, Native Americans, African Americans, Caucasians, and Asian-Pacific Islanders. Given the ethnicity of this sample, the primary investigator (PI) administered the Phinney's MEIM measure to assess ethnic identity, which has a reported reliability of alpha .81 with high school students (Phinney, 1992). The MEIM is a 14-item scale that assesses the ethnic identity of individuals regardless of their ethnic group membership. The measure contains three subscales: (a) Affirmation and Belonging, which assesses one's feelings of attachment and belonging and positive feelings and pride toward one's ethnic group; (b) Ethnic Identity Achievement, which measures one's awareness, interest, and (c) Ethnic Behavior, which measures one's sense of security in relationship to own ethnic background. The items are rated on a 4-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4). Sample items include statements such as: "I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to," and "I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership." An ethnic identity score is derived by reversing the scales of negatively worded items, summing across the 14 items, and obtaining a mean score. A high mean score indicates a strong ethnic identity (Phinney, 1992; Phinney, Horenczyk, Liebkind, & Vedder, 2001).

Participants' psychological well-being was measured with three constructs used in other research on ethnic identity and psychological well-being (Crocker, Luhtanen, Blaine, & Broadnax, 1994). As such, the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale, the Satisfaction with Life, and the MEMI were administered. In addition, the BDI-S was used to measure participants' mental health. The Short Form of the BDI contains 13 items. Each BDI-S item contains four statements, and participants will be instructed to select one statement that best represents how they have been feeling in the past few days. The BDI is a widely used instrument designed to measure the severity of cognitive, behavioral and physiological symptomatology in depression over the last week. For each item, four alternative statements reflecting differential severity regarding functioning are provided. Although the full version has 21 items, the short form (BDS-S; Beck & Beck, 1972) was selected for use in the present study. The psychometric properties of this instrument (both forms) are strong, and there is a high concordance between the BDI and the BDI-S. Beck and colleagues (Beck & Beck, 1972; Beck, Rial, & Ricketts, 1974) reported correlations of .89 to .97 between the two forms. The short form has also been found to correlate well with clinicians' ratings of depression (Beck & Beck, 1972; Beck et al., 1974; Scogin, Beautler, Corbishley, & Hamblin, 1988). The internal consistency of the BDI-S is good, as alpha coefficients have been reported to range from .74 to .90 (Beck & Beamesdorfer, 1974; Foelker, Shewchuk, & Niederehe, 1987; Gould, 1982; Leahy, 1992; Scogin, Beutler, Corbishley, & Hamblin, 1988; Vredenberg, Krames, & Flett, 1985). Although the initial use of the BDI-S dictated a uni-dimensional solution, other researchers have

reported the existence of two factors (Leahy, 1992; Foelker et al., 1987; Reynolds & Gould, 1981; Volk, Pace, & Parshman, 1993).

Participants' self-esteem was assessed by using the RSES (Rosenberg, 1965). The RSES ( $\alpha = .87$ ) consists of 10 measuring levels (5 items are worded positive and the remainder are worded negative) used to obtain a global measure of an individual's self-respect, self-acceptance, and feelings of personal worth. Participants responded to a five-point Likert scale that measured the extent to which they agreed with the statements. Examples of the items include: "I feel that I have a number of good qualities" and "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself." Subjects indicated strong agreement, agreement, disagreement, or strong disagreement with each item. Participants responded to all questions on the basis of how they "now feel" and "not as they usually feel." Scores of two or less were defined as low self-esteem, three as medium, and four or five as high for this study. Higher scores reflect more positive levels of self-esteem on this measure. The RSES has moderately strong alphas, with coefficients ranging from .80 to .88 with ethnically diverse samples (Carlson, Uppal, & Prosser, 2000; Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997). Previous studies supported its validity with various groups, as it has been positively correlated with ethnic identity among samples of African Americans (Carlson et al., 2000; Phinney, Ferguson, & Tate, 1997; Roberts et al., 1999), Latino (Carlson et al., 2000; Phinney et al., 1997; Roberts et al., 1999), and Asian American (Lee, 2003) adolescents.

Participants also were asked to complete the SWLS, a measure of life satisfaction developed by Ed Diener and colleagues (Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985). Life

satisfaction is one factor in the more general construct of subjective well-being. Theory and research from fields outside of rehabilitation have suggested that subjective well-being has at least three components: positive affective appraisal, negative affective appraisal, and life satisfaction (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Life satisfaction is distinguished from affective appraisal in that it is viewed to be more cognitively, than emotionally, driven. Life satisfaction can be assessed specifically to a particular domain of life (e.g., work, family) or globally. The SWLS consists of five-items completed by the individual whose life satisfaction is being measured. Diener and other authors (1985) have consistently shown correlation coefficients of .80 and higher for short-term (two weeks to two months) test-retest methods. Long-term test-retest results (ten weeks and four years) have shown fairly good results, with correlations of .50 and .54, respectively (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Initial validity testing of the SWLS was promising. Diener's two-month test-retest of 176 undergraduates from the University of Illinois showed a correlation coefficient of .82, and the coefficient alpha was .87 (Diener et al., 1985). More recent analyses involving the SWLS continued to show good results. For example, Pavot, Diener, Colvin and Sandvick (1991) compared the SWLS to other related scales and found it to be valid and reliable for use with a variety of age groups and applications. Pavot et al. (1991) also found a high level of convergence on self and peer reported measures on subjective well-being and life satisfaction.

The IIC was used to measure intergroup anxiety and competence. Intergroup anxiety refers to "anxiety stemming from contact with out-group members" (Stephan & Stephan, 1985a, p. 158). Intergroup anxiety frequently occurs when members of different

ethnic groups interact. However, those who are more intergroup competent tend to have lower anxiety levels. The intergroup measure is adapted from Gudykunst (1998) and is a 10-item scale on which participants estimate their reactions to an intergroup encounter on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = almost never, 5 = always). Statements on the scale measure frustration and composure when communicating with other racial/ethnic groups. High scores indicate increased anxiety when interacting with other groups (Gudykunst, 1998). For the intergroup competence measure, each participant group was given five measures that asked them to consider interacting with their own corresponding majority group (“majority measure”), minority group (“minority measure”), and interacting with an ethnic group other than one’s own (“other measure”). Alphas for the majority measure have been found to be .89 and .90. Alphas for the minority measure were found to be .95 and .94, respectively. In addition, alphas for the “other” measure were .80 and .86, accordingly (Gudykunst, 1998).

The Background Questionnaire is a 13-item designed to gather information about the participants’ demographic information. Participants provide information about race, ethnicity, age, gender, year classification, cumulative grade average (GPA), general composition of their high school (e.g., “To the best of your knowledge, what percentage of Hispanics attend your school?”), primary language spoken at home, and general composition of their neighborhood. The race and ethnicity variables were all coded as dichotomous, with items coded as “0” if a respondent did not belong to the race or ethnicity in question and “1” if the respondent did belong to that category.

The measure of grade point average (GPA) or academic achievement was the average of the grades participants received on the previous academic year and reported by the school administration.

### *Debriefing*

Following completion of data collection procedures, students, parents, and school administrators were debriefed verbally and in writing regarding the nature of their participation in this research study. This researcher's contact information was made available to the parents, students, and administrators to answer additional questions regarding their participation and findings of the study.

### *Statistical Analysis*

Consistent with the hypothesis of this study, the obtained data were analyzed using three separate, but somewhat related, statistical paradigms. The *Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows 15.0* (SPSS, 2006) was used for the data analyses. First, a set of descriptive statistical indices will be obtained for all independent and dependent measures (Life Satisfaction, Multi-Ethnic Identity Measure, Self-Esteem Scale, and Intergroup Interactional Competence). Means, standard deviations, and other measures of central tendency, such as the medians and modes were computed. In order to consider a covariate relationship among various variables, a commonly used *product moment covariate coefficient* procedure was employed. The significance of obtained correlation coefficient as well as the statistical effect size, determined the degree to which the obtained correlation coefficient diverged from the expectations specified in the

corresponding null hypotheses. Effect sizes were used to determine the practical significance of obtained coefficient of correlations.

A second set of statistical analysis involved the use of standard multiple regression analyses to predict the dependent variables of depression and GPA. Life Satisfaction, Multi-Ethnic Identity Measure, Self-Esteem, and Intergroup Interactional Competence were entered into the standard multiple regression analyses to examine how well any or all of the variables contributed to the prediction of the dependent variables. The regression analysis was also employed to examine the predictive affect of global life satisfaction by gender and grade level.

The third set of statistical analyses involved a *factorial analysis of variance* design with measures of Life Satisfaction, Multi-Ethnic Identity, Self-Esteem Scale, and Intergroup Interactional Competence. These variables were entered into the analysis as independent variables, while depression and GPA were entered into the analysis as dependent measures. The obtained scores on independent variables were divided into high and low by using median score as separating the two groups. A two by two *factorial analysis of variance* (two levels of life satisfaction and two levels of depression) ANOVA analyses was conducted for the example. The obtained *F*-ratios were examined to determine effect sizes. The effect size analyzed in the study will look at both standardized differences in effect size as well as variance-accounted-for effect size.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS OF THE STUDY

This chapter is devoted to examine the obtained findings in light of major hypotheses as stated in Chapter 3. In order to describe the findings, each hypothesis will be re-stated and results of the statistical analyses associated with each hypothesis will be described. The findings of the present study, therefore, examined and tested eight hypotheses at .05 alpha levels.

#### *Relationship among Life Satisfaction, Depression, Self-esteem, and Achievement*

With regards to the nature of bivariate relationship among all the variables in the study, four hypotheses were developed. To test Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4, a Pearson product-moment correlation analyses was performed to find if there was a significant relationship among the different measures and academic achievement. The results of the first hypothesis that addresses the relationship between life satisfaction, depression, ethnic identity and academic achievement are summarized in Table 2.

As evident from the findings presented in Table 2, variables of life satisfaction and depression produced correlations of .07 ( $r^2 = .00049$ ) and .01 ( $r^2 = .0001$ ), respectively. These results suggest that the life satisfaction and depression are not significantly correlated to academic achievement as measured by the students' grade point average data obtained from cumulative folder as archived in school district data pool. Therefore, the first null hypothesis with regards to the variable was accepted, suggesting no relationship between GPA, life satisfaction, and depression.

The second hypothesis aimed at exploring the relationship between self-esteem measures with academic achievement. An inspection of findings in regards to this hypothesis indicates that the correlation between self-esteem and achievement was found to be at .14 ( $r^2 = .0196$ ). Therefore, approximately only 2% of the relationship is accounted for by the variables of self-esteem and GPA. Similarly, the measures of depression did not correlate significantly with GPA ( $r^2 = .0001$ ) and the relationship only accounted for less than 1% of variance which led to the acceptance of hypothesis two as well.

Table 2

*n x n Correlation Matrix*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. GPA	-	.136	.036	.069	.009	-.033	.119
2. RSES	.136	-	.168	.452	-.478	-.253	.775
3. MEMI	.036	.168	-	.157	-.111	-.152	.599
4. SWL	.069	.452	.157	-	-.347	-.014	.797
5. BDI	.009	-.478	-.111	-.347	-	.202	-.478
6. IIC	-.033	-.253	-.152	-.014	.202	-	-.204
7. PWB	.119	.775	.599	.797	-.478	-.204	-

*Note.* GPA = Grade Point Average, RSES = Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, MEMI = Multi-Ethnic Identity Measure, SWL = Satisfaction with Life, BDI = Beck Depression Inventory, IIC = Intergroup Interactional Competence, PWB = Psychological Well-being.

The hypothesis three was to examine the relationship among ethnic identity, depression, and academic achievement for the sampled subjects of Hispanic/Latino

background. The correlation coefficients as contained in Table 2 indicated an extremely weak relationship among these variables that led to the acceptance of this hypothesis, indicating no significant relationship. The correlation between ethnic identity and GPA was found to be .04 ( $r^2 = .0016$ ), while a correlation coefficient of .01 ( $r^2 = .0001$ ) was found between depression and achievement. These findings, therefore, clearly indicated that academic achievement as measured by GPA did not correlate significantly with either the identity or depression measure and the relationship accounted for by these bivariate relationships was exceedingly minute.

The objective of the fourth hypothesis was to examine, particularly, the relationship between intergroup interactional competencies with academic achievement. The correlation between these two variables was found to be -.033 ( $r^2 = .001089$ ). This weak relationship indicated that intergroup interrelationship competence accounted only for an insignificant and not meaningful degree of variance in academic achievement of Hispanic/Latino students who participated in this study. It should be noted that the major focus of this first four hypotheses was to look at bivariate relationship between individual variables and academic achievement.

Hypothesis five was intended to look at the predictability of GPA and depression by using all the independent variables (life satisfaction, self-esteem, ethnic identity, and intergroup interactional competencies) entering as predictors in the regression equation. Multiple regression analyses were employed to address this hypothesis. Regression analyses were performed with two objectives in mind: (1) to develop an equation for predicting values on the dependent variable of academic achievement for all members of

the population, whereas, (2) the secondary purpose for this analysis was to use regression analyses as means of explaining causal relationship among predictor and criterion variables.

With regard to hypothesis five, standard multiple regression procedures revealed that the combination of self-esteem, ethnic identity, and life satisfaction significantly predicted depression ( $R^2 = .283$ ,  $R^2_{adj.} = .256$ ,  $F(4, 108) = 10.64$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Tables 3, 4, and 5 display the summaries of each independent variable's unique contribution to the prediction of depression. Results indicated both the self-esteem and life satisfaction measures contributed significantly in predicting depression, whereas multi-group identity did not.

Table 3

*Regression Coefficients - Model Summary*

Model	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{adj.}$	$SE$
1	.532	.283	.256	3.926

*Note.* Adjusted R-squared =  $R^2_{adj.}$

Table 4

*ANOVA Summary of Regression Analysis*

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Regression	4	10.636	.000
Residual	108		
Total	112		

Table 5

*Summary of Standard Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Depression*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Life Satisfaction	-.393	.138	-.275	-2.844	.005
Ethnic Identity	-.022	.065	-.027	-.332	.740
Self-esteem	-.308	.098	-.309	-3.130	.002
Intergroup Interactional Competence	.027	.025	.091	1.075	.285

In contrast, standard multiple regression procedures found that the combination of self-esteem, ethnic identity, and life satisfaction did not predict GPA ( $R^2 = .020$ ,  $R^2_{adj.} = -.012$ ,  $F(4, 122) = .62$ ,  $p = .65$ ). Tables 6, 7, and 8 display the summaries of each independent variable's unique contribution to the depression of GPA. Findings demonstrate that self-esteem, life satisfaction, and multi-group identity measures did not contribute independently to the prediction of GPA. Consequently, hypothesis five is accepted, suggesting that independent variables do not predict academic achievement.

Table 6

*Regression Coefficients - Model Summary*

Model	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{adj.}$	$SE$
1	.141	.020	-.012	.6535

Note. Adjusted R-squared =  $R^2_{adj.}$

Table 7

*ANOVA Summary of Regression Analysis*

Source	$df$	$F$	$p$
Regression	4	.615	.653
Residual	122		
Total	126		

Table 8

*Summary Regression Coefficients for Variables Predicting GPA*

Variable	$B$	$SE B$	$\beta$	$t$	$p$
Life Satisfaction	.003	.021	.017	.164	.870
Ethnic Identity	.001	.010	.011	.116	.908
Self-esteem	.017	.015	.124	1.144	.255
Intergroup Interactional Competence	-.001	.004	-.016	-.175	.862

Hypothesis six aimed at exploring gender differences in predicting depression and academic achievement by using the independent variables of life satisfaction, ethnic identity, self-esteem, and intergroup interactional competencies. The outcomes of predictability of depression for males by use of independent variables are summarized in the following tables (Tables 9, 10, and 11). These findings, as evident by model summary (Table 9) and the ANOVA summary (Table 11), indicated that the independent variables used in this study significantly predicted depression for the male subjects ( $R^2 = .268$ ,  $R^2_{adj.} = .208$ ,  $F(4, 49) = 4.481$ ,  $p = .004$ ). However, a review of the beta analysis in Table 11 suggested that only one of the variables, life satisfaction ( $\beta = -.286$ ,  $t(53) = -1.84$ ,  $p = .072$ ), significantly contributed to the model in predicting depression.

Table 9

*Regression Coefficients - Model Summary*

Model	Male				Female			
	<i>R</i>	$R^2$	$R^2_{adj.}$	<i>SE</i>	<i>R</i>	$R^2$	$R^2_{adj.}$	<i>SE</i>
1	.518	.268	.208	3.978	.530	.281	.228	4.037

*Note.* Adjusted R-squared =  $R^2_{adj.}$

Table 10

*ANOVA Summary of Regression Analysis*

Source	Male			Female		
	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Regression	4	4.481	.004*	4	5.270	.001*
Residual	49			54		
Total	53			58		

*Note.* \*  $p < .01$

Table 11

*Summary of Regression Coefficients for Variables Predicting Depression*

Variable	Male				Female			
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>p</i>
SWL	-.439	.239	-.286	.072	-.362	.181	-.261	.051
Ethnic Identity	-.034	.111	-.038	.758	-.010	.084	-.014	.908
Self-esteem	-.263	.164	-.259	.115	-.333	.129	-.340	.013
IIC	.021	.038	.070	.590	.038	.037	.122	.312

*Note.* SWL = Satisfaction with Life, IIC = Intergroup Interactional Competence.

Additional findings were also noted for the female subjects and are summarized in the following tables (Tables 9, 10, and 11). The data contained in the previous tables indicated that the overall model of independent variables also significantly predicted depression for the female subjects ( $R^2 = .281$ ,  $R^2_{adj.} = .228$ ,  $F(4, 54) = 5.270$ ,  $p = .001$ ).

However, a review of the beta weights in Table 11 indicate that only self-esteem variable ( $\beta = -.340, t(58) = -2.580, p = .013$ ) contributed significantly to the model. Therefore, with regards to the gender differences for the predictability of depression, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicating the predictability of depression for male as well as for female subjects. However, it should be noted that independent variables predicting depression in male and female subjects are not the same.

With regards to predictability of academic achievement for males and females, the results obtained from multiple regression analysis are summarized in the following table (Tables 12, 13, and 14). The findings as contained in Table 12 (model summary) and Table 13 (ANOVA summary) indicated that overall model of independent variables failed to predict grade point average as a measure of academic achievement for both the males ( $R^2 = .022, R^2_{adj.} = -.044, F(4, 59) = .338, p = .851$ ) and females ( $R^2 = .031, R^2_{adj.} = -.036, F(4, 58) = .466, p = .761$ ). Similarly, the review of beta weights confirmed that none of the independent variables made unique significant contributions to the model.

Table 12

*Regression Coefficient - Model Summary*

Model	Male				Female			
	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> <sub>adj.</sub>	<i>SE</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> <sub>adj.</sub>	<i>SE</i>
1	.150	.022	-.044	.678	.176	.031	-.036	.651

*Note.* Adjusted R-squared =  $R^2_{adj.}$

Table 13

*ANOVA Summary of Regression Analysis*

Source	Male			Female		
	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Regression	4	.338	.851	4	.466	.761
Residual	59			58		
Total	63			62		

Table 14

*Summary of Regression Coefficients*

Variable	Male				Female			
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>p</i>
SWL	.016	.035	.075	.657	-.007	.028	-.036	.808
Ethnic Identity	.007	.017	.054	.684	-.003	.013	-.027	.840
Self-esteem	.004	.025	.027	.875	.026	.020	.193	.194
IIC	-.003	.006	-.071	.602	.001	.006	.029	.829

*Note.* SWL = Satisfaction with Life, IIC = Intergroup Interactional Competence.

The regression analysis outcomes for female subjects were found to be incongruent with the findings obtained for the male counterparts (refer to Tables 12, 13, and 14). The findings as summarized in the previous three tables suggest that the overall model of independent variables did not significantly predict academic achievement for female subjects ( $R^2 = .031$ ,  $R^2_{adj.} = -.036$ ,  $F(4, 58) = .466$ ,  $p = .761$ ). A review of the beta

weights in Table 14 similarly suggested that none of the independent variables made any unique and significant contributions to the model. Consequently, with regards to predictability of academic achievement, no gender differences were noted. Therefore, the null hypothesis with regards to gender differences for predicting academic achievement was accepted.

It should be noted that the variable of psychological well-being was of special interest in this study because the psychological well-being has been reported of minority students in particular, in social, emotional, and academic functioning of the individual (Suzuki-Crumly & Hyers, 2004). In concert with this objective, hypothesis seven intended to examine the impact of different levels of psychological well-being on achievement and depression measures of sampled subjects. The obtained measures of psychological well-being were divided into high and low levels of psychological well-being by using the median criteria for creating of two psychological well-being categories is summarized in Table 15. Subjects scoring above median were considered to have a high level of psychological well-being, whereas the subjects scoring below the median were identified as having a lower level of psychological well-being.

Table 15

## ANOVA Summary

Variable	SWL	Depression		GPA	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Gender					
Male	Below median	4.476	4.874	2.387	.614
	Above median	1.806	3.995	2.675	.669
	Total	2.885	4.522	2.545	.656
Female	Below median	4.969	4.526	2.385	.531
	Above median	2.808	4.499	2.607	.737
	Total	4.000	4.604	2.486	.636
Total	Below median	4.774	4.627	2.386	.565
	Above median	2.263	4.422	2.644	.696
	Total	3.473	4.579	2.515	.644

*Note.* SWL = Satisfaction with Life, Dependent Variables = Depression and Grade Point Average (GPA).

As such, a two separate (high and low levels of psychological well-being) by two (achievement and depression) factorial analysis of variance was performed. Results in Table 16 indicate that the main effect of gender on the dependent variable of depression was found not to be statistically significant ( $F = .785, df = 1, p = .378$ ). The main effect of life satisfaction, a measure of psychological well-being was however found to be significant ( $F = 7.817, df = 1, p < .01$ ). These findings suggest that the subjects that scored high on life satisfaction measures scored low on the depression ( $M = 2.26$ ,

$SD = 4.22$ ) as compared to subjects scoring low on life satisfaction measures ( $M = 4.78$ ,  $SD = 4.63$ ) was found not to be statistically significant.

Table 16

*A 2 x 2 (gender x psychological well-being) ANOVA Summary based on Depression*

Source	Experimental Method		
	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	1	.785	.378
Psychological well-being	1	7.820	.006*
2-way interactions (gender and psychological well-being)	1	.088	.768

Note. Dependent variable = Depression.

\*  $p < .01$

The impact of psychological well-being of subjects upon GPA was similarly examined by a 2 x 2 ANOVA with two levels of gender and two levels of multi-ethnic identity measures entered as independent variable and depression measures entered as dependent measure. The results of the analysis are summarized in Table 17 as follows:

Table 17

*A 2 x 2 (gender x psychological well-being) ANOVA Summary based on GPA*

Source	Experimental Method		
	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	1	.090	.764
Psychological well-being	1	4.879	.029*
2-way interactions (gender and psychological well-being)	1	.081	.777

*Note.* Dependent variable = Grade Point Average (GPA).

\*  $p < .05$

With regard to the effect of well-being, similar results were found for the dependent variable of GPA. As evident from the results summarized in Table 17, subjects scoring high on well-being measures also had a high GPA as compared with their low scoring counterparts on psychological well-being measure ( $F = 4.879$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis with regards to significant differences in the measure of achievement and depression for subjects with high and low levels of psychological well-being was rejected.

With regard to hypotheses eight, two simple linear regression analyses were performed to predict intergroup interactional competence as indicated by the findings contained in the following tables, intergroup interactional competence was not significantly predicted by well-being measures for female subjects ( $F = .95$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p = .333$ ). The results of the linear regression analysis, in which well-being measures

entered as independent variables and intergroup interactional competence as a dependent variables are summarized in the following Tables 18, 19, and 20. Therefore, the null hypothesis with regards to psychological well-being predicting intergroup interactional competence for females was accepted.

Table 18

*Regression Coefficient - Model Summary of Female Participants*

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>SE</i>
1	.124	.015	4.238

*Note.* Dependent Variable = Intergroup Interactional Competence.

Table 19

*ANOVA Summary of Regression Analysis*

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Regression	17.065	1	17.065	.950	.333
Residual	1095.406	61	17.957		
Total	1112.471	62			

*Note.* Dependent Variable = Intergroup Interactional Competence.

Table 20

*Summary of Regression Coefficients for Female Participants*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Psychological well-being	-.482	.494	-.124	-.975	.333

*Note.* Dependent Variable = Intergroup Interactional Competence.

In contrast to the predictability of intergroup interactional competence for female subjects, the well-being measures for males were found to be significant in predicting intergroup interactional competence ( $F = 7.254$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The results of the linear regression analysis, in which well-being measures entered as independent variables and intergroup interactional competence as a dependent variables are summarized in the following Tables 21, 22, and 23. Therefore, the null hypothesis with regards to psychological well-being predicting intergroup interactional competence for males was rejected.

Table 21

*Regression Coefficient - Model Summary of Male Participants*

Model	<i>R</i>	$R^2$	<i>SE</i>
1	.324	.105	4.053

*Note.* Dependent Variable = Intergroup Interactional Competence.

Table 22

*ANOVA Summary of Regression Analysis*

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Regression	119.144	1	119.144	7.254	.009*
Residual	1018.268	62	16.424		
Total	1137.412	63			

*Note.* Dependent Variable = Intergroup Interactional Competence.

\*  $p < .01$

Table 23

*Summary of Regression Coefficients for Male Participants*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Psychological well-being	-1.324	.491	-.324	-.269	.009*

*Note.* Dependent Variable = Intergroup Interactional Competence.

\*  $p < .01$

In addition to results related to the eight basic hypotheses, there appears to be some additional information about the relationship between psychological well-being and other variables. As an example, a significant relationship between psychological well-being and self-esteem was found to be significant ( $r = .775$ ,  $r^2 = .601$ ,  $p < .01$ ). This expected pattern of relationship suggests that sampled subjects scoring high on psychological well-being had also high self-esteem. Similarly, psychological well-being

was found to be significantly correlated with ethnic identity ( $r = .599, r^2 = .359, p < .01$ ). Additionally, life satisfaction measures were found to be positively correlated with psychological well-being ( $r = .797, r^2 = .635, p < .01$ ). A correlation coefficient of  $-.478$  was however, found between self-esteem and depression ( $r = -.478, r^2 = .229, p < .05$ ) indicating that subjects with lower level of self-esteem, were likely to have higher levels of depression scores. Such relationships were also examined for male and female subjects were found to be similar to the findings obtained for the entire sample.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents a review of the overall purpose of the study, analysis, and summary of the results. In addition, a discussion of how these findings relate to the current research literature, implications and limitations of the study are addressed in this chapter. As stated earlier, the major purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between a set of psychological well-being variables (life satisfaction, self-esteem, and ethnic identity), mental health (depression), intergroup interactional competence, and academic achievement (GPA). A total number of 131 subjects in grades 9<sup>th</sup> through 12<sup>th</sup> were sampled to participate in the study. All sampled subjects came from low social economic status families of Mexican-American ethnic background. Seven measures were administered to each student in small groups of 10-12 students each. These measures have been found to have adequate reliability and validity in previous studies (Suzuki-Crumly & Hyers, 2004). However, the reliability of all the measures was also assessed in this study and was found to be in the moderate to high range.

#### *Summary of Findings*

With regard to the relationship of psychological well-being and mental health variable with achievement, it was noted that none of the variables correlated significantly with academic achievement as measured by GPA. Although the relationship of achievement was not found to be significant with any of the mental health and psychological well-being measures, the generalizability of such relationship to the population of Mexican-American high school students as well as to students from other

ethnic groups should be interpreted with caution, as academic achievement was measured by the GPA. Results found that GPA measure had a restricted range in this study ( $SD = .641$ ). The limited variability in GPA, therefore, might have had the impact of lowering the correlation coefficient between GPA and psychological well-being and mental health variables. In order to understand the impact of low variations in GPA for sampled students, a statistical correction for the range restriction was made which resulted in higher correlation coefficients between life satisfaction measure and GPA. Based on this information, future studies need to employ better measures of achievement, particularly in the areas of reading and arithmetic to better understand the relationship between psychological well-being and academic achievement. It should also be noted that even though the importance of this relationship was the major focus of the study, limitations with regard to obtaining permission for administering more comprehensive measures of achievement was the primary reason for using GPA instead of more sophisticated method of achievement (McNemar, 1969). In addition, certain subject background variables such as social economic status, bilingualism, and limited English proficiency (LEP) might have had also impacted the low level of variance in GPA for the sampled subjects.

With regard to the mental health of the subjects, regression analyses did find that variables such as multi-ethnic identity, satisfaction with life, and self-esteem measures predicted mental health status as measured by the Beck Depression Inventory scores. Such a finding is suggestive of the fact that psychological well-being and depression measure similar construct. The results of this study indicate that Hispanic/Latino male

students' psychological well-being is positively associated with their intergroup interactions, and this finding has key implications. Because social support is generally found to increase self-esteem (Creed, Hicks, & Machin, 1998; Smoll, Smith, Barnett, & Everett, 1993), there is a reason to believe that increasing social interaction with individuals from other ethnic groups will result in positive psychological well-being of which self-esteem is a measure.

#### *Limitations of the Study*

A limitation is that sample was composed entirely of 9<sup>th</sup> through 12<sup>th</sup> grade students. However, developmental psychologists have noted that the ages of 16-25 are critical period of "emerging adulthood" in which individuals must resolve the questions of "Who am I?" and "How do I want to act in the world?" (Arnett, 2002). Given the developmental stage of this age group, it would seem that high school students are an ideal sample to explore the questions raised in this study.

A further limitation was the length of time students had been in the United States and generational status were not taken into account in this study. Future research studies might more closely examine issues related to group identity processed among ethnically diverse Hispanic/Latino populations for students who had been in the United States for different time periods. Further investigations are needed to better understand generational status and how it affects individual's academic performance (i.e. Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 1998), ethnic identity and psychological well-being.

Another limitation to this study could be related to the selection process of the sampled subjects. The participants represented a very homogeneous group in terms of

their ethnicity, linguistic, and cultural background. In addition, the study relied on self-report of ethnicity. Data were not collected on country of origin, which would allow a more accurate determination of Hispanic/Latino subgroups membership. However, this data was collected in a Southwestern state with the majority of the Latinos/Hispanics in the area being of Mexican descent.

Even though the sample size of this study was sufficiently large to produce findings with medium statistical power, a larger sample size would be more desirable to enhance the statistical power as well as generalizability of these findings. The present study was limited by the unavailability of data to examine within-group differences among the members of the Hispanic/Latino racial group. More specifically, this study was unable to ascertain whether other demographic characteristics of the sample (i.e., country of origin) matched those of the overall student population.

Another limitation of this study was the ability to examine inter-ethnic similarities or differences with regards to the impact of psychological well-being variables on other mental health construct such as anxiety. It would, therefore, be desirable to study relationships among psychological well-being, mental health, and academic variables by utilizing multi-racial samples for producing more ethnically identified samples (Root, 1992).

### *Implications for Research*

Despite the fact that Hispanic/Latino students are known to be fairly diverse attitudinally and culturally, the Hispanic/Latino students in this study were treated as one group. This procedure limited the generalizability of the results to specific

Hispanic/Latino subgroups such as Mexican, Cuban, or Puerto Rican Americans. Future research in this area should examine the effect of individual differences within racial groups on the above-mentioned concerns by obtaining a larger national sample of diverse Hispanic/Latino students that can be segmented into key Hispanic/Latino subgroups for further analysis.

Future studies examining differences among ethnically diverse Hispanic/Latino students may find responsive variations based on socioeconomic status. There was no measure of parent education as one indicator of social economic status (SES) with other variables of SES, such as parental income and occupation. If SES was considered, the study may have yielded different results. It, therefore, appears necessary to replicate similar studies with more heterogeneous groups with regard to their ethnicity, social economic status, and age.

Additionally, future research should focus on studying ethnic groups with differing generational status. Such research would particularly important for further understanding ethnic identity for bi-racial individuals. For instance, ethnic identity may be less salient among first-generation immigrants who have not been socialized in an ethnic-conscious society such as the United States and have not been introduced to the concepts of race and ethnicity (Umaña-Taylor & Shin, 2007).

Furthermore, future studies should examine differences among ethnically diverse Hispanic/Latino students to find variations in responses based on socioeconomic status. There was no measure of parent education which can be used as one indicator of social economic status (SES). Other variables of SES, such as parental income and occupation,

may have yielded different results. It therefore appears necessary to replicate similar studies with more heterogeneous groups with regard to their ethnicity, social economic status, and age.

The use of different measures of psychological well-being, intergroup competence, and academic achievement may result in different outcomes. Future research should consider the use of other measures. Lastly, with an increasing number of biracial individuals in our society, more work in this regard by use of biracial samples needs to be done in order to explore the unique effects of their ethnic identity and their implications for their psychological well-being, mental health, and academic achievement.

APPENDIX A  
CONSENT FORM

APPROVED BY UNIVERSITY OF AZ IRB  
THIS STAMP MUST APPEAR ON ALL  
DOCUMENTS USED TO CONSENT SUBJECTS.  
DATE: 1-16-07 EXPIRATION: 1-16-08

### Informed Consent

#### The Relationship Among Ethnic Identity, Psychological Well-being, and the Academic Achievement of Hispanic/Latino Students.

#### Introduction

You are being invited to take part in a research study. The information in this form is provided to help you decide whether or not to take part. Study personnel will be available to answer your questions and provide additional information. If you decide to take part in the study, you will be asked to sign this consent form. A copy of this form will be given to you.

#### What is the purpose of this research study?

The importance of personal, cultural, and ethnic identity for psychological development and well-being of children and youth has been amply documented in psychological literature (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003; Conchas, 2001; Ryan & Delci, 2000; Porter & Washington, 1993). Despite the abundance of literature about the importance of ethnic identity, there is a significant shortage of empirical research data to particularly examine the importance of ethnic identity, its influence of psychological development, personal and social adjustment, and academic achievement of school children and youth, in particular from diverse ethnic and cultural background.

Considering the rapid accelerated emergence of minority groups in our society, particularly in the public school context, it is of paramount importance for researchers to examine the relationship between ethnic identity and other human traits related to social adjustment and psychological well-being. A need for this kind of research was recently fully documented by a study conducted by Crumly and Hyers (2004) that pointed out a need for more generalizable data about such relationship across other cultural groups.

The proposed study is an attempt to address such needs in the field and is designed to examine the relation of ethnic identity with psychological well-being and the inter-relational competence of school-age children and youth of Hispanic/Latino background.

#### Why are you being asked to participate?

You are being invited because considering the rapid accelerated emergence of Hispanic/Latino groups in our society, particularly in the public school context, it is of paramount importance for researchers to examine the relationship between ethnic identity and other human traits related to social adjustment and psychological well-being.

#### How many people will be asked to participate in this study?

Approximately 100 persons will be asked to participate in this study.

Version Date:

Page 1 of 4

Subject's Initials \_\_\_\_\_

### What will happen during this study?

The Principal Investigator will meet with school Principal in order to answer any questions regarding the research study. Individuals will be contacted to participate in the study via recruitment flyer sent out to student's homeroom. Teachers will receive a letter that explains the research study. They will be asked to encourage student participation. Those students who might be interested in participating in the research study will receive further details. Students who wish to participate in the study will be sent home with a parent permission form to be signed before any initial screening. Once the form has been signed by parent(s), research participant(s) will read and sign the Assent and Informed Consent forms. Participants will be informed of the study, their rights to withdraw at any time, and the confidentiality of any and all material. Students will be given a copy of their rights.

All participants will complete a demographic form to determine their ethnic background and dominant language. Participants for this study must meet the following criteria: 1) be bilingual (oral and written proficiency in English and Spanish), and 2) be of Hispanic/Latino background.

Prospective participant's academic achievement will be based on information gathered from their cumulative file (school records) for the last two years. School district administrator has given permission and full cooperation on reviewing participant's file.

The questionnaires to be used in this study will be placed in folders to be given to each participant (see Appendix – Form(s) D). This packet includes a demographic information form and five measuring scales: a) the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSES), b) the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), c) the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) Short Form, and d) the Multi-group Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM). All the forms are short survey questionnaires and will be completed by participants.

The Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSE) is a 10-item scale that is intended to measure each participant's level of self-esteem. It is scored a single aggregate value, comprising the raw scores of positively worded questions and inverted scores of negatively worded, low-esteem questions.

The Multi-group Ethnic Identity Scale (MEIM) is a 15-item instrument that looks at two concepts "Ethnic Identity Search" and "Affiliation, Belonging, and Connectedness." There are 12 major items associated with the instrument. The final three items are demographic questions that are geared to capture the student's perception of his affiliation and ask for the ethnicity of the youth and his or her mother and father.

The Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) is a 21 item self-report scale measuring supposed manifestations of depression. The BDI takes approximately 10 minutes to complete. Participants require a fifth – sixth grade reading level to adequately understand the questions. There will be no deception in this study.

**How long will I be in this study?**

About 20-30 minutes time will be needed to complete this study.

**Are there any risks to me?**

The things that you will be doing have no risk. Although we have tried to avoid risks, you may feel that some questions we ask will be stressful or upsetting. If this occurs you can stop participating immediately. We can give you information about individuals who may be able to help you with these problems.

**Are there any benefits to me?**

You will not receive any benefit from taking part in this study. Benefits of this study will broaden the importance to elementary, high school teachers and parents on understanding the relationship among ethnic identity, psychological well-being, and academic achievement of bilingual Hispanic/Latino students.

**Will there be any costs to me?**

Aside from your time, there are for taking part in the study.

**Will I be paid to participate in the study?**

There will be no monetary compensation for participants. No monetary or material compensation will be given. However, the principal investigator will convey his immense appreciation to participants' help in the study.

**Will video or audio recordings be made of me during the study?**

No.

**Will the information that is obtained from me be kept confidential?**

The only persons who will know that you participated in this study will be the research team members: Carlos Dejud, Principal Investigator, and Dr. Shitala P. Mishra, Dissertation Advisor. Your records will be confidential. You will not be identified in any reports or publications resulting from the study.

**May I change my mind about participating?**

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decide to not begin or to stop the study at any time. Your refusing to participate will have no effect on your student status. You can discontinue your participation with no effect on your student status. Also any new information discovered about the research will be provided to you. This information could affect your willingness to continue your participation.

**Whom can I contact for additional information?**

You can obtain further information about the research or voice concerns or complaints about the research by calling the Principal Investigator Carlos Dejud, Ed. S., Ph.D. Candidate at (520) 626-7947. If you have questions concerning your rights as a research participant, have general questions, concerns or complaints or would like to give input about the research and can't reach the research team, or want to talk to someone other than the research team, you may call the University of Arizona Human Subjects Protection Program office at (520) 626-6721. (If out of state use the toll-free number 1-866-278-1455.) If you would like to contact the Human Subjects Protection Program by email, please use the following email address <http://www.irb.arizona.edu/suggestions.php>.

**Your Signature**

By signing this form, I affirm that I have read the information contained in the form, that the study has been explained to me, that my questions have been answered and that I agree to take part in this study. I do not give up any of my legal rights by signing this form.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name (Printed)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Participant's Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date signed

**Statement by person obtaining consent**

I certify that I have explained the research study to the person who has agreed to participate, and that he or she has been informed of the purpose, the procedures, the possible risks and potential benefits associated with participation in this study. Any questions raised have been answered to the participant's satisfaction.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of study personnel

\_\_\_\_\_  
Study personnel Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date signed



APPENDIX B  
PERMISSIONS



**Sunnyside** Unified School District  
Research, Assessment & Evaluation  
2238 East Ginter Road Tucson AZ 85708

December 7, 2004

Carlos Dejud  
Department of Special Education, Rehabilitation & School of Psychology  
College of Education, Room 313b  
P. O. box 210069  
Tucson AZ 85721-0069

**RE: Research Project – Ethnic Identity, Psychological Well-Being & the Academic Success of Bilingual Hispanic/Latino Students**

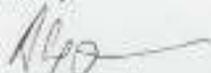
Dear Mr. Dejud:

We are pleased to inform you that your request to do research in the Sunnyside Unified School District has been approved.

Please share this letter with Mr. Hanson prior to beginning your project, and be sure to gain his approval before proceeding.

Finally, please provide the Research, Assessment & Evaluation Department with one copy of the final report. If I can be of further assistance, feel free to call me at (520) 545-2082.

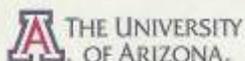
Sincerely,



Alex Duran, Ph.D.  
Director of Research, Assessment & Evaluation

/et

APPENDIX C  
HUMAN/ANIMAL SUBJECTS APPROVAL



Human Subjects  
Protection Program

1235 N. Mountain Ave.  
P.O. Box 245137  
Tucson, AZ 85724-5137  
Tel: (520) 626-6721  
<http://hrb.arizona.edu>

23 July 2007

Carlos Dejud, Ed.S.  
College of Education, Room 313b  
SERSP  
PO Box 210069

RE: **BSC B07.007** *THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ETHNIC IDENTITY,  
PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, AND INTER-GROUP  
COMPETENCE OF SCHOOL-AGE HISPANIC/LATINO YOUTH [NEW TITLE]*

Dear Mr. Dejud:

We received your amendment form dated 17 July 2007 for the above referenced project. Permission is requested to:

- revise the study title to *THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ETHNIC IDENTITY, PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, AND INTER-GROUP COMPETENCE OF SCHOOL-AGE HISPANIC/LATINO YOUTH.*

These changes do not impact subject safety. Approval of these changes is granted effective 23 July 2007.

The Human Subjects Committee (Institutional Review Board) of the University of Arizona has a current *Federal Wide Assurance* of compliance, number *FWA00004218*, which is on file with the Department of Health and Human Services and covers this activity.

Approval is granted with the understanding that no further changes or additions will be made either to the procedures followed or to the consent form(s) used (copies of which we have on file) without the knowledge and approval of the Human Subjects Committee and your College or Departmental Review Committee. Any research related physical or psychological harm to any subject must also be reported to each committee.

Sincerely yours,

Theodore J. Glatke, Ph.D.  
Chair, Social and Behavioral Sciences Human Subjects Committee

TJG:md

cc: Departmental/College Review Committee



Human Subjects Protection Program

THE UNIVERSITY OF  
**ARIZONA**  
 TUCSON, ARIZONA

1350 N. Viate Avenue  
 P.O. Box 245157  
 Tucson, AZ 85724-5157  
 (520) 626-6721  
<http://www.ihf.arizona.edu>

January 16, 2007

Carlos Dejud, Ed.S.  
 College of Education, Room 313b  
 SERSP  
 P.O. Box 210069

BSC: B07.007 THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG ETHNIC IDENTITY, PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING, AND THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF HISPANIC/LATINO STUDENTS

Dear Carlos Dejud:

We received your research proposal as cited above. The procedures to be followed in this study pose no more than minimal risk to participating subjects and have been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) through an Expedited Review procedure as cited in the regulations issued by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services [45 CFR Part 46.110(b)(1)] based on their inclusion under *research* category 7. As this is not a treatment intervention study, the IRB has waived the statement of Alternative Treatments in the consent form as allowed by 45 CFR 46.116(d)(2). Although full Committee review is not required, a brief summary of the project procedures is submitted to the Committee for their endorsement and/or comment, if any, after administrative approval is granted. This project is approved with an **expiration date of 16 January 2008**. Please make copies of the attached IRB stamped consent documents to consent your subjects.

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Arizona has a current *Federabwide Assurance* of compliance, *FWA00004218*, which is on file with the Department of Health and Human Services and covers this activity.

Approval is granted with the understanding that no further changes or additions will be made to the procedures followed without the knowledge and approval of the Human Subjects Committee (IRB) and your College or Departmental Review Committee. Any research related physical or psychological harm to any subject must also be reported to each committee.

A university policy requires that all signed subject consent forms be kept in a permanent file in an area designated for that purpose by the Department Head or comparable authority. This will assure their accessibility in the event that university officials require the information and the principal investigator is unavailable for some reason.

Sincerely yours,



Theodore J. Glantz, Ph.D.  
 Chair, Social and Behavioral Sciences Human Subjects Committee

TJG/rkd

Cc: Departmental/College Review Committee

Human Subjects Protection Program  
<http://www.irb.arizona.edu>



1350 N. Vine Avenue  
P.O. Box 245137  
Tucson, AZ 85724-5137  
(520) 626-6721

### MEMORANDUM

TO: Carlos Dejud  
Bilingual School Psychology Project  
PO Box 210069

FROM: Rebecca Dahl, Ph.D.  
Director, Human Subjects Protection Program

DATE: September 30, 2004

SUBJECT: Human Subjects Training Program

On September 23, 2004, you successfully completed the Social & Behavioral Sciences Test, "Protection of Humans Who Participate in NonMedical Research." Therefore, you have met the criterion required by the University of Arizona to be certified in human subjects protection.

*This is the only notification you will receive. Please give a copy of this memo to your department head and keep this memo in your files.*

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