ETHNIC IDENTITY AND MIGRANT YOUTH

by

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This study sought to examine the relationship between ethnic identity and the grade and gender of the subjects. Changes in ethnic identity over time were also analyzed. Students attending grades four through eight of the Nyssa Migrant School summer program participated in this study. One hundred twenty-four participants completed the pretest, eighty-nine completed the posttest, with a total of seventy-nine completing both the pretest and posttest. Students responded to the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure, which examined the subcategories of belonging and exploration to comprise the overall ethnic identity level.

Scores were compared by grade and by gender at pretest and at posttest. Scores were also examined in those same subgroups for a change over time in the 79 subjects completing both the pretest and posttest. Though not statistically significant, results indicated a trend for males as a whole to show a greater increase in overall ethnic identity over the course of the summer school program than their female counterparts. Results
also showed an increase (although not statistically significant) in ethnic identity for the group as a whole over the course of the six-week program, warranting further investigation into the summer program’s effectiveness for enhancing ethnic identity. This aforementioned increase was more pronounced in children in the older grades, supporting a developmental progression of ethnic identity. At both the pretest and posttest, adjusted means for belonging were statistically significantly higher than those for exploration, $F(1, 77) = 171.03, p = .000; F(1, 77) = 141.12, p = .000$, respectively. Implications of these findings for future programs and future research are discussed.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The Latino population in the United States is growing at a rapid rate. It grew by about 10 million people during the decade-long span from 1990 to 2000, contributing 38% of the nation's total population increase during that period (Llagas & Snyder, 2003). By the year 2000, Hispanics had become the most prevalent minority group among children and are currently expected to become the largest minority population in the entire nation by the year 2005. In 2002, estimates stated that one eighth of the United States population was Latino (Ramirez & de la Cruz, 2003). It has been projected that by the year 2050, Latinos will make up 25% of the country's total population (Llagas & Snyder; U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

The classification of Latino is surrounded by much debate and inconsistency. The selection of an identifying term alone invites many different opinions. Some refer to the classifications of “Hispanic” or “Spanish,” referring to the shared Spanish language or a Spanish origin. Others prefer the term “Latino” implying Latin American roots. The author also recognizes that the term “Latino” may vary, becoming “Latina,” depending upon the gender of the subject. For continuity, the remainder of this thesis will refer to the general term “Latino.”

The category of Latino encompasses enormous internal diversity. Latinos may derive their heritage from Mexico, Costa Rica, Cuba, Peru, Venezuela, or a myriad of other countries in Central and South America, as well as several island countries. The Latino skin color may vary from that of a light Argentine to that of a dark Dominican.
The term “Latino” also includes such variables as gender, age, education, social status, and cultural practices. Additionally, Latinos may also share in the hybridization of America, being the progeny of international, interracial, and/or interethnic marriages.

The United States Government views the term “Hispanic or Latino” as an ethnicity rather than a race (U.S. Office of Management and Budget, 1999). In federal measures, such as the census, respondents are to select their race(s) from a list consisting of American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, and White. Next, respondents indicate whether their ethnicity is Hispanic/Latino or Non-Hispanic/Latino. Only recently, have respondents been allowed to indicate that they are multiracial by selecting more than one race (though they cannot indicate that they are of both Latino and non-Latino ethnicity). Thus, respondents were previously forced to adopt a racial identity that was likely very different than the one they personally espoused. In the case of Latinos, one study indicated that 25% of the Latinos sampled simply did not answer the question about race (Ferdman & Gallegos, 2001). In the same study, Latinos who were asked to indicate their ethnicity before indicating their race were more likely to indicate their race as “White” than those who received the two questions in the opposite order.

Much attention has been given to the Latino population within our nation’s public education system. In the year 2000, Latino children comprised 16% of all children younger than age 18 in the nation, totaling over 11.4 million children (Llagas & Snyder, 2003). That number is expected to increase at such a rate that by the year 2020, the United States anticipates that more than one in five of the nation’s children under the age
of 18 will be Latino. School dropout rates for this population have been troublesome for more than 25 years (Hispanic Dropout Project, 1998). In 2000, the status dropout rate (those age 16 to 24 who are not attending school and have not obtained a high school diploma or its equivalent) for Latinos was 28% (Llagas & Snyder). That rate was four times that of the Caucasian population and more than twice that of the African American population. A study by the Census Bureau in 2002 found that only 57% of Latinos age 25 and older had graduated from high school, compared with 88.7% of Whites (Ramirez & de la Cruz, 2003). Furthermore, only 11.1% of Latinos in this age range had gone on to obtain a Bachelor’s degree, while 29.4% of Whites in the same age range had done so. Recognizing the dramatic and steady increase of the Latino population, and the role such an increase will play in the nation’s continual social and economic development, it becomes important to ensure that this growing population is properly equipped and prepared to positively fill that role. Judging from the educational statistics, much of the next generation of Latinos may not be.

A subset of the Latino population includes those who are migrant agricultural workers. Estimates of the number of migrant farm workers range between three and five million (National Center for Farmworker Health, 2002). Approximately 80% of this population is Latino (President’s Advisory Commission on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans, 1996; U.S. Department of Labor, 1997). The term “migrant” may include immigrants, but also includes American citizens of varying generations. These migrant workers make critical contributions to the nation’s multi-billion dollar agricultural industry, which relies on hand labor at crucial points during crop growth
(National Center for Farmworker Health). By nature of their employment, such workers must frequently move to follow the changing demands of their services across a variety of different harvests.

More than three out of five families employed as farm laborers live in poverty (U.S. Department of Labor, 1997). Families of farm laborers have a median annual income between $7,500 and $10,000. In spite of pervasive poverty, farm workers have reported low usage of social programs, though they are often eligible. Less than half of all agricultural laborers are vehicle owners, and approximately one-third do not have any assets.

Migrant workers are employed in one of the most dangerous industries (National Center for Farmworker Health, 2002). Agriculture, combined with forestry and fishing, has an occupational fatality rate well over six times that of industries in the private sector. Workers are frequently subjected to pesticides, extreme weather, and dangerous equipment. Additionally, agriculture is exempt from safety legislation applied to other industries. OSHA has produced sanitary regulations requiring employers to supply potable water, bathrooms, and hand washing facilities, though only on farms with 11 or more employees. Nevertheless, OSHA found violations in 69% of fields inspected in 1990. Furthermore, the EPA estimates that there are 300,000 cases of acute pesticide poisoning in farm workers each year. In the face of so many health risks, farm workers generally have limited access to health care as they are rarely insured and are unlikely to earn enough money to afford it on their own.
The plight of the migrant worker is not experienced strictly by adults. Of adult farm workers, about half have children 17 and younger (U.S. Department of Labor, 1997). In a 1988 survey, approximately a third of interviewed parents (employed as farm workers) reported that they had children laboring in the fields (National Center for Farmworker Health, 2002). In fact, the percentage of farm workers under the age of 17 doubled between 1989 and 1995, rising from 4% to 8% (U.S. Department of Labor). Agriculture is actually the only industry allowed to employ workers under the age of 16 (National Center for Farmworker Health). The legal limit for agricultural work is 12, though some loopholes allow for children as young as 10 to be employed.

Children in migrant families also may experience poor health. In a study conducted on the east coast, migrant children were three times more likely to have health described as fair or poor than children in the general population (National Center for Farmworker Health, 2002). Children often are exposed to pesticides transmitted to the home through their parents, or by working in the fields themselves. It is suspected that these pesticides have a more detrimental effect on children as they are physically smaller than adults, and are still developing.

Due to the traveling nature of migrant families, their children often arrive to school late in the year and frequently leave early (Diaz, 1991). Children who move repeatedly are 2.5 times more likely to require repeating a grade as opposed to those who do not move (National Center for Farmworker Health, 2002). Children in migrant families may not attend school at all, as they are commonly important contributors to their families’ economy (Diaz; National Center for Farmworker Health). These factors
put such children at additional risk. It has been estimated that only 55% of migrant children graduate from high school (National Center for Farmworker Health).

The Office of Migrant Education (OME), under the U.S. Department of Education, is charged with providing the migrant children of the United States with adequate educational services. One service the OME oversees is a summer term program. The OME’s Migrant Education Program directed approximately 1,700 summer term programs in 1998, serving an estimated 262,000 migrant students (Parsad, Heaviside, Williams, & Westat, 2000). The Migrant Education Program follows standards for service eligibility according to public law, which defines an eligible migrant child as one whose parent or guardian has moved within the past three years to obtain agricultural work as a primary source of employment (No Child Left Behind Act of 2001).

Recognizing the migrant Latino population as an at-risk population, it becomes imperative that research addresses the well-being of this group. Just as this population faces risks from a variety of sources, it may also be strengthened through a variety of interventions, each aimed at a specific threat. Information obtained through research may then be implemented in an assortment of programs, each ultimately aimed at removing this population from jeopardy. Action must be taken, not only because of the social problems that will be incurred as this population continues to grow, but also because of the immense capacity for social contribution that will remain latent as long as these risks and disparities are ignored.
One method of improving outcomes for migrant, Latino children may be found through the enhancement of their ethnic identities. Research has shown several links between the development of ethnic identity in minority children and positive outcomes including higher self-esteem, better adjustment, favorable academic performance, and security in the face of discrimination (DuBois, Burk-Braxton, Swenson, Tevendale, & Hardesty, 2002; Phinney, 1992; Phinney & Chavira, 1993; Phinney, Horenczyk, Liebkind, & Vedder, 2001). The purpose of this study was to investigate the topic of ethnic identity development. More particularly, the purpose was to examine ethnic identity development in migrant, Latino youth, a less frequently studied population due to its itinerant status. Therefore, this study examined whether there was a relationship between age and ethnic identity and/or gender and ethnic identity for migrant, Latino youth. It also investigated whether the ethnic identity of migrant, Latino youth changed over time while attending a migrant summer program, which contained a cultural education component.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Ethnic identity is more than simply a person’s ethnic label. Ethnic identity refers to how people define and perceive their own ethnicity (Phinney, 1996). There are two main components of ethnic identity: the feeling of ethnic affirmation and belonging, and the engagement in the developmental process of ethnic identity exploration (Roberts & Phinney, 1999). Ethnic identity refers to a person’s sense of fitting into one’s ethnic group along with that individual’s attitudes, behaviors, and perspectives regarding that group (Rotheram & Phinney, 1987). Ethnic identity involves people’s knowledge regarding their own ethnicity and their personal perception of themselves as members (Bernal, Knight, Ocampo, Garza, & Cota, 1993). The following literature review will further examine the development of ethnic identity in adolescents, with particular focus on how ethnic identity development might benefit migrant, Latino youth.

Theoretical Framework

Ego identity development. Erikson (1950) put forth eight stages or crises in the human lifespan. According to this model, the primary concern during adolescence is with the establishment and development of identity. It is during this stage that adolescents become acutely aware of and concerned with the way they are perceived by others and how those perceptions align with their perceptions of self (Erikson, 1950, 1968).
Marcia expanded upon Erikson's model by developing four statuses within the identity stage (Marcia, 1966). In the achieved status, one has gone through a crisis period and has explored and committed to an identity. One experiencing the moratorium status is experiencing the identity crisis and actively seeking to commit. Within the foreclosed status, one has not explored, but has made a commitment. This subject often lives up to and even depends upon parental expectations. The diffused subject experiments widely but demonstrates no commitment. These statuses more explicitly describe and characterize the status of identity development, though the stages are not static and are subject to change (Marcia, 1976).

*Social identity theory.* Based on social identity theory, in order to be a member of a group, one must not only be perceived by others to be such, but more importantly, must perceive one's self as a member of that group as well (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Individuals gain a personal sense of their identity within society, based on their group memberships. Their group identity then becomes a part of their personal concepts of self. Once a group perceives themselves as joint-members, they also share in the development of their group's definition and evaluation. Individuals desire to acquire a social identity that is viewed positively in the overall society. This evaluation takes place in light of comparisons of their own groups with other social groups. When people are dissatisfied with their social identity, they will work to improve the perception of their current group or they will make an effort to leave that group and become part of a group that is viewed more positively. This social grouping serves as a tool to aid in the organization of the social environment.
Phinney's Model for Ethnic Identity Development

In creating a model for the development of ethnic identity, Jean Phinney (1989, 1993, 1996) sought to merge earlier models of ethnic and racial identity development (Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1983; Cross, 1978, 1991; Helms, 1990; Kim, 1981) in a way that would be applicable across ethnicities. Moreover, she aimed to present them in a model that would be compatible with the theory of ego identity development as presented by Erikson (1950, 1968), as well as with the statuses of ego identity proposed by Marcia (1966).

Phinney added empirical evidence to this framework after interviewing 91 American-born tenth graders from Asian-American, Black, Latino, and White backgrounds regarding their examination of, commitment to, and feelings about their ethnicity (Phinney, 1989). Responses were coded to reflect their correspondence with the four identity statuses presented by Marcia (1966). The lowest two stages (diffused and foreclosed) could not be differentiated during the coding of responses, thus a three stage model for ethnic identity development was utilized, including an initial stage, a moratorium stage, and an achieved ethnic identity. This model was applicable to all subject groups except the group of White subjects. Phinney (1996) later proposed that ethnic identity development for Whites and for minorities in the United States is different due to the differences of power and the history of race relations. Consistent with the focus of this thesis, the development of ethnic identity for minorities will be discussed.

The first or initial stage is one of an unexamined identity (Phinney, 1993, 1996). It is indicated by the absence of exploration of one’s ethnicity and its meaning. This
The initial stage includes two subcategories, diffused and foreclosed (Phinney, 1993). The diffused subcategory describes an attitude of apathy, the lack of desire to investigate one's ethnicity. The foreclosed subcategory applies to one who generally adopts the perspectives and expectations present in the immediate environment, especially the family environment. This may lead to either a negative view or a positive view, depending upon those observed by the individual. As indicated before, the difference between the two subcategories has been difficult to perceive in interviews (Phinney, 1989).

The second stage reflects a moratorium, or an ethnic identity search (Phinney, 1993, 1996). It is during this stage that the individual experiences confusion or conflict and has a desire to learn about and understand the significance of ethnicity for one's self. This stage may be stimulated by the overall development of ego identity in adolescence wherein individuals become increasingly concerned with self-perception and its congruence with how they are perceived by others (Erikson, 1950, 1968). It has also been suggested that this stage may be initiated by prejudice and discrimination experienced as individuals become more exposed to a wider world (Phinney, 1993, 1996). This stage may therefore be accompanied by a sense of anger and injustice (Cross, 1991; Kim, 1981; Phinney, 1996).

Ethnic identity achievement appears in the third stage of the model (Phinney, 1993, 1996). It is in this stage that the individual maintains a strong, positive, and practical sense of ethnicity as it pertains to one's self. At this stage, anger and outrage toward the majority group recedes, though in personal associations the individual may
either seek harmonious integration or favor respectful separation (Cross, 1991; Phinney, 1996).

The three stages presented do not imply a rigid, universal progression, but are used as a guide or a tool to organize the developmental process (Phinney, 1996). Ethnic identity is a changeable construct and will vary across time as well as between different individuals and environments.

**Influential Factors in Ethnic Identity Development**

While it is accepted that there are many different factors that influence ethnic identity development, there remains a need for further scientific documentation of specific factors (Phinney, 1996). One of the most evident influences is that of family. In a study by Phinney, Romero, Nava, and Huang (2001), cultural maintenance by parents, language proficiency, and social interactions with peers with similar ethnicities were examined for their role in ethnic identity development in adolescents from immigrant families with Armenian, Vietnamese, or Mexican backgrounds. Two hundred sixteen adolescents and their parents from an ethnically diverse area in Los Angeles were included in the study. Most parents were foreign born, while all adolescents were either born in the U.S. or received all of their schooling there. The mean age of the adolescents was 14.86 years.

Parents were given a Likert-type measure created by the researchers to examine their cultural maintenance. Statements referred to such activities as discussing ethnicity with their children and involving their children in cultural practices. Adolescents were given the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) (Phinney, 1992), as well as a four
question measure developed to assess their ethnic language proficiency, and a six item measure created to examine the amount of social involvement the adolescents had with members of their own and other ethnic groups.

The ethnic identity of the adolescents was significantly and positively correlated with their parents' cultural maintenance as well as with ethnic language proficiency and interactions with same-group peers (Phinney, Romero et al., 2001). These findings were consistent across all three ethnicities, implying that there may be similar processes in ethnic identity development in spite of cultural differences. Correlations from this study are shown in Table 1.

In reviewing ethnic identity formation, Phinney (2000) cited the influence of strong and appealing role models in laying the groundwork for ethnic identity development. These role models could be found as part of the family or through other close contacts. Phinney also suggests the importance of contextual experiences and opportunities.

Table 1

*Correlation of Adolescent Ethnic Identity with Studied Factors*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Parental cultural maintenance</th>
<th>Ethnic language proficiency</th>
<th>Interaction with in-group peers</th>
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<tr>
<td>Armenian</td>
<td>.59***</td>
<td>.49***</td>
<td>.63***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.55***</td>
<td>.52***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.22*</td>
<td>.26*</td>
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*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001*
In addition to family, school may be another context wherein students find role models or other experiences of ethnic awakening. Phinney and Tarver (1988) conducted a study involving 48 Black and White eighth-grade students, interviewing them about their experiences, feelings, and future aspirations within the context of their ethnicities. All of the subjects were born in the U.S., described as middle class, and attending an integrated junior high school.

When asked about factors influencing their thinking about ethnicity, many students found it difficult to answer (Phinney & Tarver, 1988). Those who did answer cited several school experiences as causing them to consider and explore the topic of ethnicity. These experiences included discussing racial topics in class, finding themselves in a minority situation, or simply being encouraged by faculty. After the open-ended interview, responses were coded for the subjects’ levels of ethnic search and commitment. No significant difference was found between races, though there was a trend toward higher search in Black subjects, especially for females.

School programs may also be specifically geared toward the development of ethnic identity. In a summary of studies (as cited in Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974) mention was made of several school programs, all focused on fostering dual ethnic and cultural identities in its Mexican American students. These programs accentuated the Spanish language and Mexican/Mexican American heritage and culture. Consistent with findings regarding ethnic identity (DuBois et al., 2002; Roberts & Phinney, 1999), the programs produced higher self-esteem and better adjustment as well as higher
standardized test scores for the Mexican-American students involved when compared with pretests as well as control groups.

Research on ego identity development also suggests that educational programs may be able to influence identity development (Markstrom-Adams, Ascione, Braegger, & Adams, 1993). In this two-part study of college-age subjects, it was found that a 4-week program consisting of a total of eight sessions of perspective training produced significant differences in several of the treatment groups when compared with the control groups. In the first part of the study, a significant difference was found between groups for ideological achievement $F(2,43) = 5.95, p = .005$. Subjects in a social perspectives-taking group ($x = 35.25, SD = 0.92$) and those in as ideological perspectives-taking group ($x = 33.49, SD = 0.95$) obtained identity scores that were significantly higher than those in the engaged control group ($x = 30.33, SD = 1.01$). A marginally significant difference was also found in a subscale of ideological achievement $F(2,46) = 2.53, p = .09$ between an experimental group ($x = 36.58, SD = 1.21$) and a control group ($x = 32.83, SD = 1.23$) in the second part of the study. While results of this study are meager and were unable to be replicated, the findings of this study do support further research on identity development interventions.

The racial context in which one resides also influences the development of ethnic identity. In a study examining the influence of a shifting racial composition on ethnic identity, researchers found significant relationships (French, Seidman, Allen, & Aber, 2000). The sample included a total of 144 Black, White, and Latino students from a poor, urban background. The mean age before the transition to high school was 13.97.
The sample contained more girls than boys, 102 compared to 42, respectively. The students' ethnic identity was measured using seven items adapted from the MEIM (Phinney, 1992), targeting group esteem and exploration. Perceived social transactions were also measured, including academic hassles, social support, and involvement and participation in school activities. These student measures were administered before and after the transition from junior high to high school. Racial congruence was measured by finding the percentage of the student body and staff sharing each individual's ethnicity. The original score was then subtracted from the transition score, providing the change in racial congruence. Negative numbers indicated that congruence went down, while positive numbers indicated that congruence increased.

When examining the aspect of group esteem, racial congruence with staff had a significant positive association for White students ($F = 4.09, p < .01, Beta = .27; \text{French et al., 2000}$). Conversely, racial congruence with staff had a marginally significant negative association with Black students' group esteem ($F = 3.20, p < .10, Beta = -.57$). In the area of exploration, White subjects displayed a significant negative association between racial congruence with peers and exploration ($F = 6.07, p < .05, Beta = -.33$). Racial congruence had no significant relationship with exploration for Black students. While significant results were observed for both the Black and White populations in the area of group esteem and for White populations in the area of exploration, no significant relationships were found for Latino students in either group esteem or exploration. This difference may be due to inherent ethnic differences, a small sample size, or the fact that when students of color are considered as a group, Latinos and Blacks were actually the
peer majority in the contexts of their schools. Semons (as cited in French et al., 2000) further explained that difference in ethnicity was more relevant in interactions between Blacks and Whites, due to their combined history in the United States. Latinos, however, demonstrated more ethnic significance when associating within their ethnic group. This may be due to their shared language.

Previous research has shown that those in a minority within the context of specific situations tend to be more aware of ethnicity than those in the majority in these situations (Phinney & Tarver, 1988). This awareness may serve as a catalyst in the development of ethnic identity. Conversely, a study discussed previously demonstrated that interactions with peers from one’s own ethnic group has a significant, positive relationship with ethnic identity (Phinney, Romero et al., 2001). Discussion of the latter study also implied that a larger proportion of a minority population may actually serve to strengthen that population’s ethnic identity. The combination of these proposals is suggestive of a curvilinear relationship between minority status and ethnic identity. Perhaps finding oneself with others of a similar ethnicity in a social situation helps to build ethnic identity to a point. Once that ethnicity becomes the majority, however, the topic of ethnicity may become irrelevant, suppressing the questioning and exploration that are a part of ethnic identity development. Similarly, Social Identity Theory requires that a viable comparison group be present to perpetuate group differentiation (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Inasmuch as ethnic identity has displayed connections with ego identity (Phinney, 1989), it seems logical that ethnic identity development would show an increase with age. In research regarding ego identity development, a progression with age has been found in
several investigations (Archer, 1982; Meilman, 1979; Rosenthal, Gurney, & Moore, 1981). One study based on this premise demonstrated that Mexican-American children ranging from ages 6 to 10 showed significant increases with age on several measures of ethnic identity components (Bernal et al., 1993). The 45 children involved in the study participated in a five-part ethnic identity questionnaire. The first part examined ethnic self-identification using five tasks, which included correct ethnic label ($r = .10, p = ns$), number of correct ethnic labels ($r = .43, p < .01$), correct ethnic grouping of others ($r = .41, p < .01$), correct ethnic self-grouping ($r = .26, p < .05$), reason for self-grouping ($r = .46, p < .001$). The remaining four parts examined perceptions of ethnic constancy ($r = .31, p < .05$), participation in ethnic role behaviors ($r = .06, p = ns$), ethnic knowledge ($r = .50, p < .001$), and ethnic preferences ($r = .34, p < .05$). A developmental progression was supported on all parts of the measure, except participation in ethnic role behaviors, which showed no significant correlation with age. The authors of the study suggested that the increase may have been due to cognitive development.

Age also had a significant and direct effect on ethnic identity in a study of 8th and 11th graders (Phinney, Ferguson, & Tate, 1997). The MEIM (Phinney, 1992) and developed measures examining in-group and out-group attitudes were administered to 162 eighth graders and 385 eleventh graders in two ethnically diverse school systems. Participating students were Black, Latino, and Asian. Ethnic identity was found to be directly influenced by grade. The increase of ethnic identity with grade further substantiates the developmental perspective of ethnic identity.
One exception to this premise showed no significant correlation between age and ethnic identity as measured by the MEIM (Phinney, 1992) for 5,496 adolescent subjects identifying over 20 different groups. The authors (Roberts & Phinney, 1999) conceded however, that their findings may have been compromised by a small age span, using only sixth through eighth grade subjects. A later study by DuBois et al., (2002) examined 350 students in grades 5 through 8 from Black and White ethnic groups. In this study, differences between the races on the MEIM (Phinney, 1992) were found only for the older group (grades 7 and 8) and not for the younger group (grades 5 and 6). This finding is suggestive of a developmental progression of ethnic identity development.

Thus it seems that a developmental perspective of ethnic identity development has been supported, but further research in a variety of contexts is warranted. The proposed study addressed fourth through eighth grades. Therefore, results from this research may add to the body of research addressing the question of developmental progression in the development of ethnic identity.

The variable of gender has been examined in research on ego identity development (Archer, 1989; Rosenthal et al., 1981; Schiedel & Marcia, 1985), as well as in relation to ethnic identity development (DuBois et al., 2002). Such studies have yielded interesting results. In research on ego identity development, an examination of 320 ninth graders and 302 eleventh graders in Melbourne produced higher mean identity scores (based on the Erikson Psychosocial Inventory Scale) for males than for females (Rosenthal et al., 1981).
A study by Schiedel and Marcia (1985) found no significant differences between genders in the results of a semistructured interview on identity. The groups consisted of 40 males and 40 females from an undergraduate psychology class. The age of participants ranged from 18-24 and the mean age was 19.6. The authors acknowledged, however, that the female subjects were older than the male subjects. The age difference, coupled with the males' steady increase in identity with age and the high scoring females' propensity to remain constant across age, suggests that the males could have eventually demonstrated higher identity status compared to females.

Another investigation, comprised of three separate studies, found similar identity development processes for both genders (Archer, 1989). All three studies used semistructured interviews relating to ego identity. The subjects were comparable groups of males and females in two separate cross-sectional studies in grades 6, 8, 10, and 12, and one longitudinal study spanning the junior and senior years of high school. Overall, these studies did not demonstrate significant differences between genders in identity statuses, and the genders were concluded to follow comparable processes. Males in one of the studies, however, were significantly more prone to be foreclosed. Differences were also found within the specific identity domains of family roles and political ideology in two respective studies.

The examination of gender's relationship to ethnic identity development has been equally inconclusive, and the need for more research on the topic has been recognized (Phinney, 1993). One study mentioned previously, found no significant difference between genders, though only black females in the study rated high in the area of ethnic
search, a component of ethnic identity development (Phinney & Tarver, 1988). Another study established a significant relationship between ethnic identity and gender identity (DuBois et al., 2002). The study established a positive and significant relationship between ethnic identity and self-esteem as well as gender identity and self-esteem. Thus the correlation between ethnic identity and gender identity may be indirect. Incidentally, that same study discovered stronger gender identities for early adolescent boys than for girls, though significant gender identity differences were not found for pre-adolescents.

As has been previously stated, ethnic identity has both implied and substantiated connections to many variables. Context, age, gender, and cultural differences may all be related to ethnic identity development, though specific relationships and influences remain inconclusive. Just as many researchers have stated (DuBois et al., 2002; Phinney, 1996; Roberts & Phinney, 1999), continued research in a variety of contexts and across a variety of populations is needed to clarify this specific developmental process.

Implications of Ethnic Identity Development

Healthy development of ethnic identity has several implications for adolescents in multi-ethnic environments. Through the International Comparative Study of Ethnocultural Youth, a study was conducted involving young immigrants moving to the U.S. from Mexico, Vietnam, and Armenia; to Israel from Russia and Ethiopia; to Finland from Vietnam and Turkey; and to the Netherlands from Turkey, Surinam, and the Antilles (as cited in Phinney, Horenczyk et al., 2001). Data gathered from these groups through the use of the MEIM (Phinney, 1992), as well as data from other existing research reviewed in the article, supported the notion that adolescents with a strong ethnic
identity as well as a strong national identity displayed the most favorable and healthy psychological adaptation in their new settings.

Ethnic identity may also offset the impact of prejudice, as minority subjects with a strong and secure ethnic identity have been shown to be more likely to view themselves and their ethnicity positively in the face of negative stereotyping of their ethnic group (Phinney & Chavira, 1993). Phinney and Chavira collected self-esteem and ethnic identity data from 109 ninth graders in a predominately Latino neighborhood using the Coopersmith Inventory (Coopersmith, 1981) and the MEIM (Phinney, 1992). Based on the data, the subjects were divided into two comparable groups. One group viewed a video promoting the negative stereotyping of Latinos. The control group viewed a video portraying neutral views.

After the videos were viewed, data were again collected, using the Private Collective Self-esteem Scale, and an adjective rating scale to determine the subjects subsequent perceptions of their own ethnic group (Phinney & Chavira, 1993). A manipulation check was also employed. The students’ gender and ethnic identity prior to the video predicted their ethnic self-concept after the video, but the video itself had no effect on the ethnic self-concept. Thus, those demonstrating a stronger ethnic identity before watching the videos maintained more positive perceptions of selves as members of their ethnic group in spite of prejudice and discrimination. However, there was a small but significant difference in the adjective ratings, with those watching the negative video producing more negative ratings of their ethnic group. Overall, the study supports the concept that ethnic self-concept is more stable than specific perceptions of ethnic groups.
Furthermore, the development of ethnic identity has been shown to have a positive effect on attitudes towards one's own group, which has then predicted positive attitudes towards those in other ethnic groups (Phinney et al., 1997).

The benefits of ethnic identity extend beyond an ethnic context, influencing overall well-being. Ethnic identity has been shown to have positive correlations with components of psychological health, such as coping, optimism, happiness, mastery, and self-esteem (Roberts & Phinney, 1999). It has been suggested that ethnic identity development contributes positively to adolescent adjustment, perhaps by way of its beneficial influence on self-esteem (DuBois et al., 2002). As another indicator of its role in healthy psychological development, a strong and positive sense of ethnic identity has demonstrated a negative relationship with loneliness and depression (Roberts & Phinney). In light of such research, the notion that ethnic identity development provides additional protection for at-risk minority youth is strongly supported.

Factors of ethnic identity have been connected with behaviors as well. In a study of 330 adolescents in an inner-city middle school, conducted by Arbona, Jackson, McCoy, and Blakely (1999), ethnic identity, as measured by three items from the MEIM (Phinney, 1992), appeared to be predictive of nonfighting attitudes in adolescent African Americans, even when influences of parents and peers had been controlled. Initially, ethnic identity and nonfighting attitudes appeared to have the same relationship for Latinos, though regression analysis failed to show ethnic identity as contributing unique variance. Latinos did, however, demonstrate a significant, negative relationship between
negative peer behaviors and ethnic identity. This finding was not significant for African American subjects.

Kulis, Napoli, and Marsiglia (2002) conducted a study involving 434 urban American Indian youth, examining the connection between ethnic pride and drug abuse. A self-report Likert-type survey was used asking the students about their perceptions of drug norms and ethnic pride (a component of ethnic identity). Ethnic pride was significantly and positively correlated with subjects’ certainty that they would refuse drugs \((b = .30, p < .05)\) and also to their reports that the use of alcohol, cigarettes, and marijuana is not appropriate for their age \((b = .24, p < .01)\). This same study found that subjects displaying negativity about their ethnicity were significantly less likely to be against the use of inhalants and other hard drugs \((b = -.13, p < .05)\). Moreover, these students with ethnic negativity perceived their parent’s disapproval of drug use to be less while also estimating drug use to be more common among their school peers than did subjects who did not display ethnic negativity.

Research shows that ethnic identity has positive effects on the psychosocial well-being and behaviors of adolescents and preadolescent children, though studies specific to the intentional promotion of ethnic identity development are mixed and deficient. Contextual factors, such as cultural programs in schools, have produced promising research (Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974) but is missing from more recent research. Research has also addressed the variables involved in the development of ethnic identity, though results have been somewhat inconclusive as to the relationship between ethnic identity and age and gender. Furthermore, research on ethnic identity development as it
pertains specifically to migrant, Latino youth is virtually nonexistent. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to contribute to the knowledge base of ethnic identity development as it pertains to the variables of age and gender within the context of a cultural education program, particularly as these variables apply to migrant, Latino youth. Thus the research questions are as follows:

1. (a) Do mean levels of pretest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on grade of child?
   (b) Do mean levels of posttest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on grade of child?

2. (a) Do mean levels of pretest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on gender of child?
   (b) Do mean levels of posttest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on gender of child?

3. (a) In general, is there a difference between pre- and posttest scores (overall ethnic identity, belonging, and exploration)?
   (b) Is there a difference between pre- and posttest scores based on grade of child (overall ethnic identity, belonging, and exploration)?
   (c) Is there a difference between pre- and posttest scores based on gender of
child (overall ethnic identity, belonging, and exploration)?
This study used a purposive, convenience sample of migrant children. All participants were attending the Migrant Summer School program in Nyssa, Oregon, operated by the Nyssa School District. The town of Nyssa is agriculturally based with a population of 3,163. Data from the 2000 census indicate that approximately 59% of the total population in the Nyssa School District under the age of 18 was Hispanic or Latino (National Center for Education Statistics, 2001). These data also show that during the 2000-2001 school year, the school district consisted of 1,163 total students, approximately 53% of whom were migrant students. Moreover, during the 2001-2002 school year, 54.4% of the students in the district qualified for English as a Second Language programs, compared to 9.1% for the state of Oregon as a whole (Oregon Department of Education, 2002).

The Migrant School accepted students based on their migrant status, regardless of race. The vast majority of students, however, were Latino. The program included grades K-8, although only students in grades 4-8 participated in this study. This was done in order to make a comparison of the students’ attitudes and perspectives in the progressive grade levels. The grade levels specify the grades the students had just completed in the previous school year. Thus, students in grade 4 for the summer program would be enrolling in grade 5 the month following the program’s completion. Migrant School
records indicated the potential for over 200 students within this grade range. Due to non-compulsory attendance, however, the actual number of students present for both the pretest and posttest was greatly reduced. Demographic information is detailed in Table 2.

Grade 4 had a greater number of subjects than the other grades for all testing categories, though the youngest grade also experienced a greater total number of subject attrition. Grade 4 had 11 pretested subjects missing from the posttest while grade 5 was missing a total of 12. Grades 6 and 7/8 lost 7 and 5, respectively. More girls than boys completed the measure at the pretest without completing the posttest. At the same time, more girls than boys took the posttest without being present for the pretest. Subject gender appears to be fairly evenly split for matched sets of questionnaires, except for grade 6, which had substantially more matched questionnaire sets for girls than for boys. This imbalance led to more matched sets for girls than boys overall.

Table 2

Demographic Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th></th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I = Pretest, II = Posttest, M = Matched sets
Program

The Nyssa Migrant School program ran for six weeks. Days began at 7:45 and ended at 3:00. Children were fed breakfast, lunch, and a snack. The curriculum employed was standardized, focusing on reading and math skills, though other subjects, such as science, art, and PE were frequently included at the teachers’ discretion. Instruction was provided primarily in English. The majority of teachers came from within the district, though some taught in positions different from their assignments during the regular school year. A few teachers came from neighboring districts or were newly certified teachers. Both Latino and Caucasian teachers and aides were involved in the program. A few teachers and aides were also bilingual. Two female teachers from Mexico also served as members of the faculty as part of a cultural exchange program. These exchange teachers taught in Spanish about the history and culture of Mexico.

Measurement

The revised Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992) was used in this study, as was its Spanish translation (see Appendices A and B). Jean Phinney, the developer of the measure, has published extensively in the area of ethnic identity (Phinney, 1992; Phinney & Chavira, 1993; Roberts & Phinney, 1999). Though other methods of measuring ethnic identity are available and have been utilized, the MEIM is widely used and recognized for measuring ethnic identity. The MEIM is unique in that it is able to measure ethnic identity of individuals within a diverse group. By not requiring different measures to be distributed to an ethnically diverse group, researchers are able to
avoid segregation in a school setting and are aided in the reduction of response bias.
While the majority of the children attending the migrant program were of Latino origin, there was ethnic diversity among the group. Thus, the multigroup aspect created the best fit for this study.

The MEIM is a paper-pencil measure originally containing 14 statements, which have subsequently been reduced to 12 for the current version (Roberts & Phinney, 1999). The 12 questions are rated on a four point, Likert-type scale, ranging from 1: *Strongly disagree* to 4: *Strongly agree*. For purposes of this study, an additional question was added to the measure to indicate subject gender. Because not all participants in the current study were native English speakers, all materials were provided in both English and Spanish, and subjects were encouraged to respond in the language most comfortable for them.

The questionnaire statements stem from two concepts: belonging (seven items such as, “I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.”) and ethnic identity exploration (five items such as, “I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.”; Roberts & Phinney, 1999). Respondents receive a mean score ranging from 1 to 4, with higher scores indicating stronger ethnic identity. Subscores can also be calculated for belonging (mean of 7 items, ranging from 1 to 4) and for ethnic identity exploration (mean of 5 items, ranging from 1 to 4), higher scores being indicative of belonging and exploration, respectively. The measure takes approximately 30 minutes to administer.
The MEIM is published both in English and Spanish. Although the Spanish translation of the MEIM does not yet have established data on reliability, the English version has encouraging reports of reliability and validity (Roberts & Phinney, 1999). When administered to students in grades 6-8, a Cronbach’s alpha of .84 was obtained. The measure has also yielded expected positive correlations both with a single-item measure of ethnic salience and with four measures of psychological well-being. These measures included the Rosenberg (1986) scale for self-esteem, a coping scale developed from the work of Rosenbaum (1980) and Folkman and Lazarus (1980), optimism, as measured by a revision of the Life Orientation Test from Scheier and Carver (1985), and a measure for mastery from the work produced by Pearlin (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). Expected negative correlations were also found between the MEIM and measures of loneliness (RULS-8; Roberts, Lewinsohn, & Seeley, 1993) and depression (DSM-IV; Roberts, Roberts, & Chen, 1997). These correlations have established strong evidence for construct validity for the measure. Furthermore, a factor analysis confirmed two main themes in the measure: affirmation/belonging and exploration. These two themes support the theoretical background consisting of social identity theory (affirmation/belonging) and ego identity development (exploration).

Procedures

As part of the summer school program for migrant children, Nyssa School District was interested in exploring their students' ethnic identities to guide future school programs. The researcher was employed as a teacher with the Migrant School during the
summer program and offered to help with this examination of ethnic identity. Consistent with district policy, notes of passive consent were sent to all parents of students attending grades 4-8 in the program. These notes were printed in both Spanish and English, and briefly explained the measure. The notes also explained that a full copy of the measure was available at the school office for examination, and that any parents who preferred their children not participate could contact the school (see Appendix C). A phone number for the school was provided for contact in case of any questions or concerns. No child was withdrawn per parental request, though it is unknown whether any parents simply kept their children home on the days the measure was administered. As students were not required to attend Migrant School, attendance was sporadic for some students. Therefore, it is difficult to ascertain from attendance records whether or not students were kept home to avoid participating in the study. Of students in grades 4-8 attending more than 5 days over the course of the summer, 15 students were absent from school on the day of the pretest. Eight of those absences were from a single class, and all eight of those children were absent at least one other day during that week. Information regarding attendance on the day of the posttest was not made available to the researcher.

Teachers administered the measure to the students in their classes during both the second (pretest) and final (posttest) weeks of the 6-week summer program. Prior to data collection, all teachers were informed of the study's purpose and background and trained in the administration of the measure. The teachers were given copies of the measure, so that the directions could be recited during the administration of each measure. Additional directions were also given to the teachers, to give consistency in the responses to
potential questions from students. An example of the teacher instructional handout is included in Appendix D. Students were given the opportunity to receive a Spanish measure. Written Spanish directions for responding to the measure were also included with the Spanish measure. Five students took the Spanish measure during the pretest, and only one of those students completed a matched posttest (also in Spanish).

Prior to administration, measures were prepared and coded with numbers in order to allow for a comparison between pretest and posttest forms without compromising confidentiality. Measure administrators were given the coding key and instructed to ensure that students received the measure with the numbers corresponding to their individual names. If a student chose to complete the measure in Spanish, teachers were to transfer the student’s corresponding code to the Spanish version. Following the completion of this study, the key and original measures will be destroyed.

Ethical Issues

This study posed no risks to the children involved. The cultural exposure component was included in the overall summer school program based on its educational merit, independent from the study. Parents were informed and given the opportunity to have their children excused from responding to the measure. Though the current study focused primarily on Latino youth, all students within the studied grade levels were included in all aspects of the program and measures regardless of race. This ensured all students were treated equally and were not singled out based upon ethnicity.
Research Design

This study follows a correlational, within groups, cross-sectional design. The measure was administered once at the beginning of the program and once at the end. Between distributions of the measure, all subjects participated in a summer migrant program, which included a cultural learning component.
CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

The major findings of this study, in addition to descriptive statistics, are outlined in this chapter. First, reliability analyses are described. Then, using a variety of statistical analyses, each of the respective research questions is addressed.

Reliability

Cronbach’s alpha was used to assess the internal consistency of pretest and posttest responses to the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992). Pretests and posttests were analyzed separately for the overall measure, as well as for the subscores of belonging and exploration. In this study, the MEIM yielded respectable reliability results. Analysis of overall pretest and posttest scores produced Cronbach’s alphas of .79 and .80, respectively. The analysis of belonging pretest and posttest scores resulted in reliability scores of .76 and .80. The lowest reliability scores were on the exploration pretest, .52, and posttest, .62.

Interestingly, for all groups of scores, exploration scores were the lowest percentage of possible points when compared to overall and belonging scores. Lower reliability scores on the exploration section may be due in part to differences in the interpretation of those questions, which ask about participation in cultural practices as well as various interactions with others based on their ethnic groups. Based on individual experiences and cognitive levels, some subjects may perceive similar events (such as eating ethnic foods or participating in ethnic celebrations) as being ethnically motivated
or influenced, while others may view them simply as a normal parts of their lives. It is also interesting to note that reliability for each section of the measure was higher for posttests than pretests. This could be because fewer respondents participated in the posttest, due to attrition and inconsistent attendance in the program. Those who remained in the program to its end may be similar in other ways which also contributed to their responses to the posttest having less variation than was observed in the pretest when they were part of a larger group.

Research Questions

Question 1

Question 1a. Do mean levels of pretest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on grade of child?

Question 1b. Do mean levels of posttest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on grade of child?

Review of pretest scores (Table 3) shows fairly consistent mean pretest scores across the grades for all three parts of the measure. There were, however, slightly higher scores for the younger grades (4th and 5th) than for the older grades (6th and 7th/8th), on all three parts.

With regard to the posttest (also illustrated in Table 3), mean scores were fairly consistent across the grade levels, although the overall mean score was highest for the oldest grade level (7th/8th), as was the belonging posttest mean score. Grade 6 had the lowest scores on all three parts of the measure for both the pretest and posttest. This may
Table 3

Mean Pretest and Posttest Scores by Grade Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>% of possible total&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>% of possible total&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>38.64</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>38.81</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>80.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>39.07</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>38.39</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>79.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>36.67</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37.50</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>78.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7/8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>37.65</td>
<td>6.75</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>38.86</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>80.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belonging</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>23.89</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23.92</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>85.43%</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24.63</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24.28</td>
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<td>86.71%</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>23.33</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.50</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>83.93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7/8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23.77</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24.57</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>87.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>14.74</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>14.89</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>74.45%</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.43</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14.11</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>70.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>70.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7/8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13.88</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14.29</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>71.45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Possible total scores: Overall, 48; Belonging, 28; Exploration, 20
have been due to the fact that grade six also had the smallest group size. Interestingly, the youngest grade, grade 4, had the highest scores for exploration on both the pretest and posttest. For both parts of Question 1, one-way ANOVAs were used to analyze the data. The analyses were chosen because the questions examine only one independent variable (grade), while comparing the means of several groups. No statistically significant differences emerged between the grades for overall, belonging, and exploration pretest or posttest scores. This was likely affected by the small sample size employed in this study.

For the pretest, $F(3, 120) = 1.12, p = .343$ for the overall measure; $F(3, 120) = .76, p = .521$ for the belonging section; and $F(3, 120) = 1.73, p = .164$ for the exploration section.

For the posttest, $F(3, 85) = .29, p = .835$ for the overall measure; $F(3, 85) = .40, p = .753$ for the belonging section; and $F(3, 85) = .68, p = .567$ for the exploration section.

Therefore, it was found that ethnic identity pretest and posttest scores did not differ based on grade of child.

**Question 2**

**Question 2a.** Do mean levels of pretest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on gender of child?

**Question 2b.** Do mean levels of posttest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on gender of child?

In reviewing the pretest scores (Table 4), females showed slightly higher mean scores on all three parts of the measure than did the males. Conversely, on the posttest
(Table 4) males produced mean scores that were slightly higher than their female counterparts on the overall measure, as well as on the exploration section.

For both parts of Question 2, $t$ tests were used to analyze the data. The analyses were chosen because the questions examine only one independent variable (gender), while comparing the means of only two groups. No statistically significant results were found for any parts of Question 2. For the pretest, $t(122) = -1.37, p = .174$ for the overall measure; $t(122) = -1.06, p = .291$ for the belonging section; and $t(122) =$

Table 4

**Mean Pretest and Posttest Scores by Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
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<tr>
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<td>$N$</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>52</td>
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<td>Female</td>
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<td>38.74</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
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<td>52</td>
<td>13.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>14.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Possible total scores: Overall, 48; Belonging, 28; Exploration, 20
Question 3

Question 3a. In general, is there a difference between pre- and posttest mean scores for overall ethnic identity, or for subscores of belonging and exploration?

Question 3b. Is there a difference between pre- and posttest scores based on grade of child (overall ethnic identity, belonging, and exploration)?

Question 3c. Is there a difference between pre- and posttest scores based on gender of child (overall ethnic identity, belonging, and exploration)?

For all parts of Question 3, only the seventy-nine subjects with matching data for both the pretest and posttest were included in the analyses. For Question 3a, t tests were used to analyze the data. The analyses were chosen due to the comparison of two means (pretest means and posttest means). To analyze Questions 3b and 3c, repeated measures ANOVA’s were used to determine whether statistically significant changes had occurred over time between the various groups.

Pretest and posttest means for Question 3a were statistically similar, although posttest scores were slightly higher than pretest scores on all three parts of the measure. A comparison of pretest and posttest means is displayed in Table 5. No statistically significant differences were found for the three components of Question 3a. For the overall measure, \( t(78) = -0.95, p = 0.344 \); for the belonging section, \( t(78) = -0.98, p = 0.330 \);
and for the exploration section, \( t(78) = -0.67, p = .508 \). Therefore, there was no difference found between pretest and posttest mean scores, nor for pre and posttest means of the subscores, belonging and exploration.

For Question 3b, pretest and posttest means were examined for a change over time, based on grade (Table 6). Overall mean scores were fairly consistent over time for the younger two grades (4, 5), though slight increases were observed in the older two grade levels (6, 7/8). Grade 6 showed an increase in overall mean score by just less than one point, while grade 7/8 showed an increase of slightly more than two points.

Mean belonging scores also remained consistent over time, though once again grade 7/8 showed an increase of a little more than one and one-half points. Interestingly, grade 6 was the only group to show a decrease in their mean belonging scores over time.

Generally, mean exploration scores showed little change over time, though grade 6

Table 5

*Pretest and Posttest Means for Matched Sets*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( N )</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>79</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belonging</td>
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<td>23.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>14.13</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Possible total scores: Overall, 48; Belonging, 28; Exploration, 20
Table 6

Pretest and Posttest Means by Grade for Matched Sets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Posttest</th>
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<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>% of possible total</td>
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<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38.70</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>80.63%</td>
<td></td>
<td>38.60</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>80.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>38.12</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>79.42%</td>
<td></td>
<td>38.12</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>79.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.57</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>76.19%</td>
<td></td>
<td>37.50</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>78.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>37.28</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>77.67%</td>
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<td>39.39</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>82.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belonging</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>30</td>
<td>23.83</td>
<td>3.05</td>
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<td>2.96</td>
<td>85.36%</td>
</tr>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>3.04</td>
<td>85.71%</td>
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<td>24.12</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>86.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>23.50</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>83.93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23.44</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>83.71%</td>
<td></td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>89.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.87</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>74.35%</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.70</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>73.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.12</td>
<td>2.09</td>
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<td>14.00</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>70.00%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>1.73</td>
<td>64.65%</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>70.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>69.15%</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.39</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>71.95%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Possible total scores: Overall, 48; Belonging, 28; Exploration, 20
displayed an increase of slightly more than one point and grade 7/8 showed an increase of about half a point, while the younger grades both showed a slight decrease.

Generally, there appeared to be more of a trend for mean scores to increase for children in older grades over time, than for children in younger grades. However, no statistically significant results were found for any of the three parts of Question 3b. This suggests that there were no statistically significant differences between pre- and posttest scores, based on grade of child, for this sample, for the overall measure, $F(3,75) = .62, p = .587$; for the belonging section, $F(3, 75) = .92, p = .435$; or for the exploration section, $F(3, 75) = .66, p = .579$.

The examination of differences in mean scores over time, based on gender, yielded interesting results (Table 7). For all parts of the measure, females showed pretest means that were greater than those of males. At the posttest, however, males scores were higher than those of females. On the overall mean scores, males showed an increase of more than two points, while females showed a slight decline by about half a point. This difference between genders over time was not found to be statistically significant, $F(1, 77) = 2.92, p = .092$.

On each of the subscores of belonging and exploration, males continued to show increases in mean scores over time by about one point, while females again showed subtle declines. However, the results comparing the subscores of males and females over time were not statistically significant, which may be due to the small sample size. For the belonging section, $F(1, 77) = 2.05, p = .156$, and for the exploration section, $F(1, 77) = 2.40, p = .125$. Therefore, there is no difference between overall ethnic identity pre- and
posttest scores based on gender. Though the results were not statistically significant, it is interesting to note that on all parts, males show an increase over time while females decline.

Due to the disparity between belonging and exploration scores throughout the results, ANOVA’s were employed to compare those two factors (belonging and exploration). Given that belonging and exploration contain a different number of questions (7 and 5 respectively), adjusted means were used to make the scores

Table 7

*Pretest and Posttest Means by Gender for Matched Sets*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>% of possible total</th>
<th>Posttest Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>% of possible total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36.79</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>76.65%</td>
<td>38.67</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>80.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>46</td>
<td>38.65</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>80.52%</td>
<td>38.35</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>79.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belonging</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>82.68%</td>
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<td>2.86</td>
<td>86.36%</td>
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<td>24.17</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>86.32%</td>
<td>24.09</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>86.04%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2.41</td>
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<td>14.48</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>72.40%</td>
<td>14.26</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>71.30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Possible total scores: Overall, 48; Belonging, 28; Exploration, 20*
comparable. Using the data from the matched sets, the ANOVAs compared the adjusted means for belonging and exploration at the pretest as well as at the posttest, and tested for interactions with gender and grade. At both the pretest and posttest, adjusted means for belonging were statistically significantly higher than those for exploration, $F(1, 77) = 171.03, p = .000; F(1, 77) = 141.12, p = .000$, respectively (Table 8).

For the pretest data, a statistically significant interaction of belonging and exploration with grade was found, $F(3, 75) = 4.74, p = .005$. This shows that when examining the difference between belonging and exploration from one grade to the next, they differed in significantly different ways. As shown in Table 9, belonging scores stay rather constant with only a slight decline from the younger grades to the older grades. Exploration scores on the other hand, drop steadily from grade 4 to 5, with the lowest point being grade 6. There is then a rise at the oldest grade (7/8). Therefore, the difference between belonging scores and exploration scores is much less for grade 4 than for grade 6. A significant interaction was not found for grade at the posttest, however, $F(3, 75) = 2.99, p = .037$.

For both pretest and posttest scores, no interaction of belong and explore with gender was found, $F(1, 77) = 2.18, p = .144$ for pretest, $F(1, 77) = .026, p = .873$ for the posttest (Table 10). Therefore, as stated previously the difference between belonging and exploration scores were significant, however they did not vary significantly according to gender.
Table 8

*Pretest and Posttest Adjusted Means for Matched Sets*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adj. mean</td>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belonging</td>
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<td>.48</td>
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<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>.52</td>
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</table>

Table 9

*Pretest and Posttest Adjusted Means by Grade for Matched Sets*

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Grade</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adj. mean</td>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>3.40</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
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<td>6</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/8</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.64</td>
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<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
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<td>7/8</td>
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<td>.63</td>
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Table 10

*Pretest and Posttest Adjusted Means by Gender for Matched Sets*

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
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<th></th>
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<th>Posttest</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Adj. mean</td>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>Adj. mean</td>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>3.46</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.45</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.56</td>
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<td>.49</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>.47</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to contribute to the knowledge base of ethnic identity development, by examining the relationship between ethnic identity and the grade and gender of subjects participating in a summer program with a cultural education component. Changes in ethnic identity over time were also analyzed. Students attending the Nyssa Migrant School summer program participated in this study. One hundred twenty-four participants responded to the pretest, 89 to the posttest, with a total of 79 responding to both the pretest and posttest. Students responded to the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (Phinney, 1992), which examined the subcategories of belonging and exploration to comprise the overall ethnic identity level.

Question 1 asked if mean levels of pretest or posttest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on the grade of child. While the analysis of Question 1 did not yield statistically significant results, the pretest did show a trend towards higher ethnic identity for the younger grades (fourth and fifth) than for the older grades. This is contrary to the premise that ethnic identity follows a developmental progression, showing an increase with age (Bernal et al., 1993; Phinney et al., 1997). The results may have been compromised, however, by the small age span and the young ages used, similar to the results found by Roberts and Phinney (1999) when they studied a group of subjects spanning sixth through eighth grades. Children’s posttest responses with regard to Question 1 did offer some support for the developmental progression of ethnic identity as
the oldest group (seventh/eighth) produced the highest overall ethnic identity scores and belonging scores of any of the groups.

One finding contrary to the developmental progression was the fact that the youngest grade, grade 4, had the highest scores for exploration on both the pretest and posttest. Interestingly, a previous study of children ages 6 to 10 supported a developmental progression of ethnic identity with the exception of participation in ethnic role behaviors, showing no correlation with age (Bernal et al., 1993). This study’s authors postulated that for the young children involved in the study, activities and behaviors tend to be determined more so by their families than by themselves, and therefore would not show a correlation with age within a young sample. Similarly, this study used a sample of young participants, whose participation in customs and ethnic behaviors, as well as in ethnic social groups, is likely controlled in large part by their parents. Questions regarding involvement in such activities comprise a part of the measure’s exploration component. Inasmuch as this participation is likely determined by parents, rather than the actual subjects, the exploration scores may be a reflection of those parents, rather than of the subjects they represent.

Question 2 examined whether mean levels of pretest or posttest ethnic identity (overall scores, belonging scores, and exploration scores) for migrant, Latino youth differ based on gender of child. In examining Question 2, females showed a slightly higher ethnic identity than their male counterparts at the time of the pretest. At the posttest, however, the margin was even smaller, with males scoring higher than females on the overall measure, as well as on the exploration section. Though results were not
statistically significant, this trend supports the notion that males and females may follow similar processes in the development of overall identity, and there may be no statistically significant differences between their statuses, though differences within specific domains may appear (Archer, 1989). For example, a male and a female may show no difference in overall identity status, while at the same time showing marked differences in their political ideologies or family roles.

Question 3a asked if there is a difference between pre- and posttest mean scores for overall ethnic identity, or for subscores of belonging and exploration. Though not statistically significant, there was a slight increase in overall ethnic identity as well as the subscores of belonging and exploration over time for the group as a whole. This suggests that participation in the summer school may have had a positive influence on ethnic identity development, similar to the positive outcomes found in other cultural programs in schools (Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974). A greater effect may have been found had the program been more long-term and/or intense.

The increase was more pronounced for the older grades. Such an outcome was similarly produced in a previous study, which found racial differences in ethnic identity only for the group of subjects in grades 7 and 8, but not for younger subjects in grades 5 and 6 (DuBois et al., 2002). This lends support to the developmental progression of ethnic identity (Bernal et al., 1993; Phinney et al., 1997). This progression with age may be due to cognitive development (Bernal et al.), or a result of the older subjects having more opportunities to participate and observe a wider, more diverse world (Phinney, 1993, 1996). The results may also suggest that the older group of adolescents were more
susceptible to the summer school program’s influence, perhaps due to their increased awareness of self and the progression of overall identity development (Erikson, 1950). This responds to Question 3b, which asked if there is a difference between pre- and posttest scores for overall ethnic identity, belonging, or exploration, based on grade of child.

Question 3c examined the differences between males and females in the program, over time. Similar to the literature previously reviewed (Archer, 1989; Phinney & Tarver, 1988; Schiedel & Marcia, 1985), no substantial or conclusive gender influence was found, though there were interesting differences. Over the course of the program, males showed an increase in ethnic identity, while the females showed a slight decline (Table 7). At the pretest, females showed scores almost four percentage points higher than those of males on all three parts of the measure. At the posttest however, males scored higher than females on all parts of the measure, though by a much smaller margin, about one percentage point or less. This may suggest that males are more receptive to the influences of the summer school program. It is possible, that males may not spend as much time as their female counterparts in examining and participating in cultural activities on their own, therefore, the cultural exposure in the program would have had a more profound effect on them. Further research could substantiate or nullify such a hypothesis.

It is interesting to note that, throughout the study, the percentage of possible scores for the exploration subcategory appear to be lowest across all groupings, in comparison to the overall and belonging scores. The difference between exploration and
belonging subscores was found to be statistically significant for the matched sets at both the pretest and the posttest. The trend for relatively low exploration in this population may be due to the fact that the Latino students, while a minority in a national sense, were not a minority in their school setting, and were a definite majority in the program setting. This high racial congruence with their peers and in their social situations may have prevented the “awakening” of exploration and search that often occurs when adolescents are exposed to a wider, more diverse world (French et al., 2000; Phinney, 1993, 1996). In a more diverse setting, the increased conflict and resulting exploration may create a situation conducive to the second stage of ethnic identity development, a moratorium or search, whereas the current lack of exploration is more likely to result in the first, unexamined stage of ethnic identity development (Phinney, 1993, 1996).

Additionally, the interaction of belonging and exploration with grade was found to be statistically significant for matched groups at the pretest. While adjusted means for belonging scores across the grades remained fairly consistent (.08 difference), the adjusted means for exploration scores varied much more (.41 difference). This difference occurs as exploration scores drop from the highest point at grade 4 to the lowest point at grade 6. Scores then regain at grade 7/8. Therefore, grade 6 had belonging scores comparable to those of grade 4, but exploration scores for the groups were quite different. This shows that for this sample, the factors of belonging and exploration, while they combine to produce the overall ethnic identity score, develop independently of one another. This finding is similar to that of Archer (1989), showing that specific domains
within identity development may produce significant differences while the overall development may not.

Limitations

There are limitations to be considered in this study. One limitation is that participants were selected for this study by convenience, rather than by random selection. Therefore, findings in this study cannot be generalized to other populations. Additionally, this study was limited by the small sample size available. This became more evident as the sample was divided into subgroups for examination by age and gender. Furthermore, subgroups varied considerably in size. A larger overall sample, with larger, more homogeneously-sized subgroups may have produced different results.

This study was also limited in that the program served students only up to the 7/8 grade level. Including older students, and consequently a wider range of grades, may have also yielded different results. The program was not compulsory, which is evident in the large difference between pretest and posttest sample size. More consistent attendance may have influenced the sample size, and likely the results. Other program changes, such as longer program duration or a more intense cultural component, may have produced different results.

Finally, subjects may have been influenced by responding to the pretest at the beginning of the program. For example, questions such as, “I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership,” may have instigated such thinking in a subject who had not previously contemplated the notion. Therefore the pretest
questions may have sensitized the subjects and influenced their responses to the same questions in the posttest.

Due to the fact that there were no control groups, both history and maturation are threats to the internal validity of this study (Jones, 2001). Results of this study could have been affected by extraneous events, such as personal experiences or current events. If the community had recently celebrated a “Hispanic Heritage Week” for example, the results of the MEIM may be affected (Phinney, 1992). During the course of the Summer School, the principal of the Middle School during the regular school year died suddenly. This could have led to further introspection in some students than others, thereby possibly influencing the responses to the measure. The results could also have been influenced by factors changing the subjects themselves as imposed by the time of day or personal circumstances surrounding the administration of the measures. This could include personal factors such as fatigue, hunger, or stress regarding assignments or relationships. It may even be affected by students’ feelings regarding the person by whom each was sitting while completing the measure or the teacher administering those measures.

Pretest sensitization was also a threat to this study as the exact same measure was completed by the subjects at the beginning and end of the program. Additionally, because the measure was administered twice, statistical regression was also a threat to the internal validity of this study (Vogt, 1999). Statistically, the subjects’ responses were more likely to regress toward the mean when the measure was taken the second time.

As this study does not follow a between-groups design, differential attrition and selection differences were not threats to the internal validity (Jones, 2001). All students
participated in the cultural program, as it was a part of the overall Summer School program. Exclusion of any students from the program would have led to ethical concerns. Attrition, however, presents a likely threat as students not completing the measure at the pretest and the posttest may do so for a myriad of reasons. These reasons may be as varied as a lack of parental permission, illness, leaving the program, skipping class, suspension, no desire to participate, or insufficient interest and/or attention.

Experimental confounds and experimenter expectancy effects are not threats to the internal validity of this study, because it is a correlational study and not a true experiment (Jones, 2001). On the other hand, demand characteristics may pose a threat to the internal validity as the students may respond to the measures in ways they perceive to be most socially desirable, or in ways describing themselves as they wished they were. For example, students may realize that the MEIM is examining their ethnic identity. Those who wish to prove they are “not white” may answer “always true” to statements such as, “To learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic background,” though in fact they have not (Worrell, 2000).

Directions for Future Research

While this study shows both interesting trends and statistically significant differences, both give insight to promising avenues for future research. Further research involving older groups, such as high school students, could provide a continued look at ethnic identity development along the lines of age and gender. Ethnic identity development continues throughout life, and appears to progress with age (Bernal et al.,
Continuing research with subjects who represent older adolescents, from higher grades could show a more complete picture of the progression of ethnic identity by grade and gender.

Similarly, developing longitudinal research, which follows subjects throughout adolescence and early adulthood, would offer a poignant look at the development of ethnic identity by age/grade and gender in a more continuous manner. By following individuals through an extended period of their ethnic identity development, a more extensive perspective of ethnic identity development could be obtained.

An experimental design, examining the influence of specific aspects of programs on the development of ethnic identity in comparison with control programs, could also produce interesting results. Variables such as program content, structure, time, and the ethnic composition of participants and/or staff could be studied. The study of such variables could further clarify the factors that may be involved in the significant differences found between belonging and exploration adjusted means. This applied research could assist educators and social groups in developing programs aimed at promoting ethnic identity development in specific ethnic, gender, and age groups.

Another aspect that could be examined in future studies is the saliency and consistency of ethnic self-identification. In this study, students gave themselves ethnic labels simply for the purpose of identification, not as part of a research question. In reviewing the data, however, it was found that there were many different terms used within the Latino group, such as “Mexican American,” “Hispanic,” and “Chicana.” Some students wrote “Mexican American,” and then crossed out or erased the
“American” portion, leaving “Mexican” as their final label. At times, students labeled themselves differently on the pretest and posttest. For example, one student identified herself as “Mexican and White” on the pretest, but as simply “Mexican” on the posttest. Another student labeled herself as “Hispanic,” though she later indicated that her father’s ethnicity was African-American. Further research could be directed at ethnic self-labeling and its relationship to ethnic identity.

Implications

This basic research was conducted with the intended purpose of contributing to the overall understanding of the nature of ethnic identity development. The theories on ethnic identity development are relatively new, and it is hoped that any study of this topic will contribute to the continued development and understanding of these theories.

In this study, one trend that surfaced was that males in this program showed an increase, albeit not statistically significant, in ethnic identity over the course of the program, while females showed a slight decline. Additional research could further clarify why males may have responded to this particular program with an increase in ethnic identity. Such research could provide suggestions for improving program efficacy for both genders.

Furthermore, participants in this program showed an overall, but again not statistically significant, trend for an increase in ethnic identity over the course of the program. This trend appeared to be more pronounced for the older grades (sixth through eighth). While this supports the implementation of similar programs for this same age
grouping, it does not negate the possible benefits for younger grades as well. Such programs that foster ethnic identity development in younger grades may show longitudinal effects. Additionally, inasmuch as significant increases in ethnic identity with age have been found in children as young as 6 to 10 years old (Bernal et al., 1993), it is valuable to promote ethnic identity development even in the younger grades.

The factors studied herein could be utilized specifically in the Nyssa School District to design and fund future programs that will effectively promote the development of ethnic identity, and in turn, promote additional positive outcomes (DuBois et al., 2002; Roberts & Phinney, 1999), for target populations. As mentioned earlier, literature supports the benefits of cultural learning experiences for youth (Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974), similar to that provided as a part of the summer program. However, children also appear to benefit from social interactions in a racially heterogeneous group, where individuals may at times find themselves in the racial minority (French et al., 2000). Such a grouping was not found in the summer program, but may serve to prompt further self-examination and identity development. More specifically, heterogeneous grouping may also prompt an increase in ethnic identity exploration, which was found in this study to be statistically significantly lower than belonging. The combination of elements such as homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping as well as cultural learning in a summer program may provide students with an enriched experience, fostering ethnic identity development along with those positive outcomes with which it has been correlated (DuBois et al.; Roberts & Phinney).
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Appendix A. English Measure
The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM)

The MEIM was originally published in the following article:


It has subsequently been used in dozens of studies and has consistently shown good reliability, typically with alphas above .80 across a wide range of ethnic groups and ages. On the basis of recent work, including a factor analysis of a large sample of adolescents*, it appears that the measure can best be thought of as comprising two factors, ethnic identity search (a developmental and cognitive component) and affirmation, belonging, and commitment (an affective component). Two items have been dropped and a few minor modifications have been made. Attached is the current revision of the measure, without the measure of Other-group orientation. The two factors, with this version, are as follows: ethnic identity search, items 1, 2, 4, 8, and 10; affirmation, belonging, and commitment, items 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12. (None of the items are reversed.) The preferred scoring is to use the mean of the item scores; that is, the mean of the 12 items for an over-all score, and, if desired, the mean of the 5 items for search and the 7 items for affirmation. Thus the range of scores is from 1 to 4.
The suggested ethnic group names in the first paragraph can be adapted to particular populations. Items 13, 14, and 15 are used only for purposes of identification and categorization by ethnicity.

The Other-group orientation scale, which was developed with the original MEIM, is not included, as it is considered to be a separate construct. It can, of course, be used in conjunction with the MEIM.

Translations of the measure into Spanish and French now exist and are available, but we currently have no information on their reliability.

No written permission is required for use of the measure. However, if you decide to use the measure, please send me a summary of the results and a copy of any papers or publications that result from the study.

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In this country, people come from many different countries and cultures, and there are many different words to describe the different backgrounds or ethnic groups that people come from. Some examples of the names of ethnic groups are Hispanic or Latino, Black or African American, Asian American, Chinese, Filipino, American Indian, Mexican American, Caucasian or White, Italian American, and many others. These questions are about your ethnicity or your ethnic group and how you feel about it or react to it.

Please fill in: In terms of ethnic group, I consider myself to be ______________________

Use the numbers below to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

(4) Strongly agree  (3) Agree  (2) Disagree  (1) Strongly disagree

1- I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.
   4 3 2 1

2- I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group.
   4 3 2 1

3- I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me.
   4 3 2 1

4- I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership.
   4 3 2 1

5- I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.
   4 3 2 1

6- I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.
   4 3 2 1

7- I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.
   4 3 2 1

8- In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked
to other people about my ethnic group.

4 3 2 1

9- I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group.

4 3 2 1

10- I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.

4 3 2 1

11- I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group.

4 3 2 1

12- I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.

4 3 2 1

13- My ethnicity is
   (1) Asian or Asian American, including Chinese, Japanese, and others
   (2) Black or African American
   (3) Hispanic or Latino, including Mexican American, Central American, and others
   (4) White, Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic
   (5) American Indian/Native American
   (6) Mixed; Parents are from two different groups
   (7) Other (write in): ____________________________

14- My father's ethnicity is (use numbers above) ____________

15- My mother's ethnicity is (use numbers above) ____________

16- (Circle one.) I am a boy girl
Appendix B. Spanish Measure
MULTIGROUP ETHNIC IDENTITY MEASURE (MEIM): Spanish translation

The MEIM was originally published in the following article:


Two Spanish versions of the MEIM are attached. The first is based on the original version, published in the above article. The original English version of the MEIM has been used in dozens of studies and has consistently shown good reliability, typically with alphas above .80 across a wide range of ethnic groups and ages.

The second version is based on the revised MEIM, consisting of 12 items. Two items were dropped from the original scale and a few minor modifications were made. On the basis of a factor analysis of a large sample of adolescents*, we find that the measure can best be thought of as comprising two factors, ethnic identity search (a developmental and cognitive component) and affirmation, belonging, and commitment (an affective component). The two factors, with this version, are as follows: ethnic identity search, items 1, 2, 4, 8, and 10; affirmation, belonging, and commitment, items 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12. (None of the items are reversed.) The preferred scoring is to use the mean of the item scores; that is, the mean of the 12 items for an over-all score, and, if desired, the
mean of the 5 items for search and the 7 items for affirmation. The original scale used a 4-point response scale, with a range of scores is from 1 to 4. However, we are currently using a 5-point scale that gives a neutral midpoint, so that scores range from 1 to 5. For comparison across studies, be sure that the same response range is been used.

We have not personally used the Spanish translation and do not have reliability data on it. If you use the Spanish version, please send us a copy of your results and any reports or publications resulting from its use. We are particularly interested in reliability information with samples from various geographical areas and age groups.

The Other-group orientation scale, which was developed with the original MEIM, is not included in the revision, as it is considered to be a separate concept. It can, of course, be used in conjunction with the MEIM.

No written permission is required for use of the measure. However, if you decide to use the measure, please send me a summary of the results and a copy of any papers or publications that result from the study.

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En este país, la gente viene de diferentes culturas y países. En este cuestionario usamos la palabra “grupo étnico” para referirnos a esas diferentes culturas de origen. Algunos nombres de estos grupos étnicos son, por ejemplo, Mexicanos-Americanos, Hispanos, Negros, Asiáticos-Americanos, Indios-Americanos, Anglo-Americanos, y Blancos.

El pertenecer a uno o a varios grupos étnicos, y los sentimientos que tenemos al respecto, tienen una influencia en diferentes áreas de nuestra vida. Las siguientes frases tienen el propósito de definir cuáles son tus actitudes y pensamientos en referencia a tu grupo étnico.

Por favor llena el siguiente cuestionario:

En términos de grupos étnicos, yo me considero: ___________________________

Usa los números que se encuentran abajo para calificar cada frase de acuerdo tu opinión al respecto:

4 = muy de acuerdo 3 = un tanto de acuerdo
2 = un tanto en desacuerdo 1 = muy en desacuerdo

1. He dedicado tiempo para averiguar más acerca de mi grupo étnico, como la historia, tradiciones y costumbres.
   4 3 2 1

2. Estoy activo en organizaciones o grupos sociales en los cuales la mayoría de sus miembros son de mi propio grupo étnico
   4 3 2 1

3. Tengo una idea clara de lo que es mi grupo étnico y lo que significa para mí.
   4 3 2 1

4. He pensado bastante en cómo mi grupo étnico influye en mi vida.
5. Me siento contento de pertenecer a mi grupo étnico.

6. Me siento muy identificado con el grupo étnico al que pertenezco.

7. Entiendo claramente lo que significa pertenecer a mi propio grupo étnico.

8. Para aprender más acerca de mis raíces étnicas, he hablado con otros acerca de mi grupo étnico.

9. Estoy orgulloso/a de mi grupo étnico.

10. Participo en actividades culturales de mi propio grupo étnico como, por ejemplo, comidas especiales, música y costumbres.

11. Siento un gran afecto hacia mi grupo étnico.

12. Me siento a gusto con mi herencia cultural y étnica.

13. Mi etnicidad es:

   1. Asiático/a, Asiático/a-Americano/a, o Oriental
   2. Negro/a o Afro/a-Americano/a
   3. Hispano/a o Latino/a
   4. Europeo/a, Caucásico/a, Blanco/a (No Hispano/a)
   5. Indio/a-Americano/a
6. Mexicano/a
7. Mexicano/a-Americano/a
8. Mixto/a; mis padres son de dos diferentes grupos étnicos
9. Otros (escribalo): ____________________________

14. El grupo étnico de mi padre es (use los números de arriba para contestar esta pregunta): ________________

15. El grupo étnico de mi madre es (use los números de arriba para contestar esta pregunta):

______________________________

16. (Marque uno.) Yo soy un(a) muchacho muchacha
Appendix C. Parent Letter
Dear Parents,

As a part of my master’s thesis, I will be collecting data through a short questionnaire administered to students in grades 4-8 of the Nyssa Migrant School. The measure will be administered once this Thursday (June 20) and again at the end of the summer program. The questionnaire asks students to agree or disagree with statements regarding their feelings of belonging and their exploration of their individual ethnicities. Individual results will be kept confidential and results may be used by the Nyssa School District for program implementation, grant writing, or other purposes. A complete copy of the questionnaire may be obtained by visiting the Nyssa Migrant School office. If you have any questions or concerns or if you would prefer that your child not participate in the study, please contact the Nyssa Migrant School office. Thank you for your assistance.

Amanda Pratt

Nyssa Migrant School

541-372-2961
Estimados Padres,

Como parte de mi tesis de maestría, estare colectando datos por medio de un corto cuestionario administrado a estudiantes en grados 4-8 de la Escuela de Verano Migrante de Nyssa. El cuestionario sera administrado una ves este Jueves (20 de Junio) y de nuevo al final del programa de verano. El cuestionario pregunta a estudiantes que si están de acuerdo o desacuerdo con declaraciones tocante a sus sentimientos de pertenecer y sus exploraciones de sus etnicidad (raza) individual. Resultados individuales serán mantenidos confidencial y los resultados podrán ser usados por el Distrito Escolar de Nyssa para implementación del programa, escritura de becas, otros propositos. Una copia completa de este cuestionario puede ser obtenida por visitando la oficina de la Escuela Migrante de Nyssa. Si tiene alguna pregunta o preocupación, o si prefiere que su hijo/hija no participe en este estudio, por favor contacte a la oficina Escolar Migrante de Nyssa. Gracias por su asistencia.

Amanda Pratt

Escuela Migrante de Nyssa

541-372-2961
Appendix D. Teacher Instructions
A Few Notes.....

- Make sure students receive the questionnaires with the numbers that correspond with their names.
- Remind the students they are not to write their names on the measures.
- Let the students know that the information is confidential and will be used for academic research and perhaps for designing and implementing programs in this school district.
- Encourage the students to answer honestly.
- Read aloud as the students read their own copies of the measure.
- If the students have questions, direct them to the answers within the measure. Avoid influencing their responses in any way.
- Return the entire contents of your packets to me. Packets may be placed in the slot just inside my room.