

Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine DigitalCommons@PCOM

PCOM Psychology Dissertations

Student Dissertations, Theses and Papers

2019

The Relationship Between Health Adherence Behaviors, Level of Acculturation, Frequency of Cognitive Distortions, and Psychological Distress in Filipino Americans

Marissa R. Nuñez

Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.pcom.edu/psychology_dissertations

 Part of the [Clinical Psychology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Nuñez, Marissa R., "The Relationship Between Health Adherence Behaviors, Level of Acculturation, Frequency of Cognitive Distortions, and Psychological Distress in Filipino Americans" (2019). *PCOM Psychology Dissertations*. 521.
https://digitalcommons.pcom.edu/psychology_dissertations/521

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Student Dissertations, Theses and Papers at DigitalCommons@PCOM. It has been accepted for inclusion in PCOM Psychology Dissertations by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@PCOM. For more information, please contact library@pcom.edu.

Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine
School of Professional and Applied Psychology

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HEALTH ADHERENCE BEHAVIORS,
LEVEL OF ACCULTURATION, FREQUENCY OF COGNITIVE DISTORTIONS,
AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS IN FILIPINO AMERICANS

Marisa R. Nuñez

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Psychology

May 2019

PHILADELPHIA COLLEGE OF OSTEOPATHIC MEDICINE

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Dissertation Approval

This is to certify that the thesis presented to us by Marisa R. Nuñez on the 8th day of May, 2019, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Psychology, has been examined and is acceptable in both scholarship and literary quality.

Committee Members' Signatures:

_____, Chairperson
Dr. Bradley Rosenfield

Dr. Robert DiTomasso

Dr. Rosalinda Gabriel

_____, Chair, Department of Psychology
Dr. Robert DiTomasso

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to my committee members, Drs. Bradley Rosenfield, Robert DiTomasso, and Rosalinda Gabriel, for their support and guidance throughout the entire dissertation development. A special thank you to my chairperson, Dr. Rosenfield, for being a consistent help with resources, recommendations, flexibility, and excitement from the beginning when my dissertation was just an idea.

Next, I would like to thank my colleagues. To Tuyen and Leon, I value your imparted wisdom in helping me further understand research and statistics. Robbie, I thank you for lending your critical eye. To my fellow interns at the CBT, I genuinely appreciate the knowledge you have shared and, more importantly, the emotional support and empathy that you have offered to me throughout this process.

Last but certainly not least, I am profoundly grateful to my family for your continued support over the course of this long journey: Mom, Kuya Jason, Ate Jeana, Elle, Kuya Scott, Ate Jeka, Xavier, Cody, Dafion, and Anthony. Mom, I thank you and Dad for instilling in me a sense of hard work and connection to my Filipino heritage, and always believing in me. To my siblings and your babies, for providing a sense of humor and grounding. To Cody and Daf, for the comfort and smiles. And Anthony, I am so thankful for your steadfastness in being a source of strength and encouragement when particularly needed. My deepest thanks to you, my family, for all of the love.

Abstract

Nonadherence to medical recommendations is a prevalent concern within the U.S health care system, including among many ethnic minority groups, such as Filipino Americans. The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between health adherence behaviors, acculturation level, frequency of cognitive distortions, and psychological distress in Filipino Americans. Filipino American participants (N = 121) completed the following measures: the Health Adherence Behavior Inventory, A Short Acculturation Scale for Filipino Americans, the Patient Health Questionnaire-9th edition, the Generalized Anxiety Disorder 7-item scale, and the Inventory of Cognitive Distortions. Results indicated a significant negative relationship between anxiety symptoms and health adherence behaviors and a significant negative relationship between depression symptoms and health adherence behaviors. Further, psychological distress was found to significantly predict health adherence behaviors, with depression making a significant contribution. There was also a significant positive relationship between acculturation and anxiety, and a significant positive relationship between acculturation and frequency of cognitive distortions. Clinical implications for this population include that the more acculturated a Filipino American is to the host culture, the higher frequency of cognitive distortions. This suggests that acculturation is an important factor to consider within health care as it relates to cognitive distortions. Future recommendations would be to consider the concept of colonial mentality, protective factors, and the development of more acculturation assessment tools for Filipino Americans.

Table of Contents

| | |
|--|------|
| List of Tables | viii |
| Chapter 1: Introduction | 1 |
| Statement of the Problem..... | 1 |
| Purpose of the Study | 3 |
| Chapter 2: Literature Review | 5 |
| Health Belief Model..... | 5 |
| Nonadherence | 5 |
| Asian Americans | 7 |
| Asian American health beliefs | 8 |
| Common health problems for Asian Americans..... | 9 |
| Filipino Americans..... | 10 |
| Diaspora | 10 |
| Colonial mentality..... | 12 |
| Filipino American health beliefs..... | 13 |
| Common health problems for Filipino Americans | 15 |
| Acculturation..... | 17 |
| Criticisms of Berry’s acculturative strategies framework | 20 |
| Acculturation and health..... | 22 |
| Acculturation measures..... | 27 |
| Psychological Distress | 28 |
| Psychological distress and health..... | 28 |

| | |
|--|----|
| Psychological distress measures | 29 |
| Cognitive Distortions | 30 |
| Cognitive distortions and health | 32 |
| Cognitive distortion measures..... | 33 |
| Research Question | 33 |
| Chapter 3: Hypotheses | 34 |
| Hypothesis I | 34 |
| Hypothesis II..... | 34 |
| Hypothesis III..... | 34 |
| Hypothesis IV | 34 |
| Chapter 4: Method | 35 |
| Participants..... | 35 |
| Procedure | 35 |
| Measures | 36 |
| Socio-demographic questionnaire..... | 36 |
| Health adherence behaviors | 36 |
| Acculturation..... | 37 |
| Psychological distress | 38 |
| Cognitive distortions..... | 39 |
| Chapter 5: Results | 41 |
| Statistical Analyses | 41 |
| Demographic Information..... | 41 |
| Hypothesis I | 43 |

| | |
|---|----|
| Hypothesis II..... | 45 |
| Hypothesis III..... | 47 |
| Hypothesis IV | 48 |
| Chapter 6: Discussion | 49 |
| Significant Findings and Clinical Implications..... | 49 |
| Limitations | 53 |
| Future Directions | 55 |
| Conclusion | 56 |
| References..... | 57 |

List of Tables

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 1. Education Demographic Variables | 42 |
| Table 2. Biological Parental Ethnic-Identity Demographic Variables | 42 |
| Table 3. Immigrant Generation Demographic Variables..... | 43 |
| Table 4. Correlations for Health Behaviors, Acculturation, Anxiety, Depression, and Cognitive Distortions | 45 |
| Table 5. Model 1 Summary of the Predictor Variables (Anxiety and Depression) to the Criterion Variable (Health Adherence Behaviors) | 46 |
| Table 6. Overall Regression Analysis with Predictor Variables (Anxiety and Depression) to the Criterion Variable (Health Adherence Behaviors) | 47 |
| Table 7. Coefficients of the Predictor Variables (Anxiety and Depression) to the Criterion Variable (Health Adherence Behaviors)..... | 47 |

Chapter 1: Introduction

Statement of the Problem

With a population of approximately 3.4 million, Filipino Americans make up the second largest group of Asian immigrants in the U.S. (second only to Chinese Americans), and their numbers continue to grow (Nadal, 2011; U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Despite their large numbers, Filipino Americans remain an underserved and under-researched population regarding health care (Kuroki, 2014; Tuason, Ancheta, & Battie, 2014).

Research has shown that nonadherence to medical recommendations is a significant problem, both in the general population and among various ethnic minority groups (DiTomasso, Golden, & Morris, 2010). For the purpose of this study, nonadherence was operationalized as failure to complete recommended or commonly accepted health behaviors. Health beliefs, a general understanding of medical knowledge, and more global cognitions contribute to an individual's ability to follow through with medical recommendations (M. Cohen, Arad, Lorber, & Pollack, 2007). Asian Americans tend to have distinct health-related beliefs that may interfere with treatment adherence. Research on such adherence in this and many other populations emphasizes the importance of comfort, trust, and overall quality of the patient-professional relationship (Lim, Baik, & Ashing-Giwa, 2012). Specific barriers, such as education level, English proficiency, and perceived social norms, can also impact health adherence behaviors (Ma et al., 2013).

Huang, Calzada, Cheng, and Brotman (2012) determined that children of foreign-born Asians were more prone to poor health as compared to Caucasian children and

children of Asians born in the U.S. Baker (2011) contributed to this knowledge, stating that cancer is the leading cause of death for Asian and Pacific Islander Americans, as opposed to the general population, who are more likely to die from heart disease. Of course, health-related behaviors are influenced by culture and level of acculturation.

Acculturation may be described as a dual process psychological phenomenon of changes within an individual related to cultural patterns, such as habits, attitudes, and values, which occur when multiple cultural groups make contact. The process is dual in nature as the changes can occur bidirectionally; that is, identification with both the host and heritage cultures. This typically applies to immigrants and those who experience geographical relocation (Berry, 2005; D. Kim, B. R. Sarason, & I. G. Sarason, 2006; Torres, Driscoll, & Voell, 2012). Past research has shown a relationship between psychological stress and acculturation (D. Kim et al., 2006; G. Kim et al., 2011; Kirmayer et al., 2011). For instance, Shim and Schwartz (2008) examined Korean American immigrants and found that less acculturation was related to increased psychological distress. This was further supported by Choi, Tan, Yasui, and Hahm (2016), who examined different strategies for acculturation and how each affected anxiety or depression levels. Choi and colleagues found that an integration approach, which is when people maintain their heritage culture while participating in the host culture, correlated with better physical and psychological outcomes for participants. The article highlighted the acculturation process as one of the major challenges for Asian Americans.

Thorpe and colleagues (2006) supported the findings of a relationship between psychological distress and health adherence, indicating that higher psychological distress

was related to decreased adherence rates. For the purpose of this study, psychological distress was defined generally to include symptoms of depression and anxiety. Kagee, Steel, and Bronwyne (2014) examined the relationship between adherence, psychological distress, and health-related quality of life. The researchers found that increased barriers to compliance with health care recommendations were positively and significantly correlated to psychological distress. Similarly, Rosenfield (2004) and Yurica (2002) found that cognitive distortions contribute to levels of psychological distress, including depression, anxiety, personality disorders, and a host of other psychological and behavioral health conditions. Research has shown that cognitive distortions, or errors in thinking, are related to negative automatic thoughts as well as maladaptive schemas and can lead to dysphoria and maladaptive behavior (D. A. Clark & A. T. Beck, 2010). Additionally, such faulty thought processing impacts health beliefs, which play a role in medical decisions and can impact health adherence behaviors (Burns, 1990; Christensen, Moran, & Wiebe, 1999).

Purpose of the Study

An extensive review of current literature suggests that the level of acculturation and psychological distress influence adherence to health recommendations. Although the existing research contributes to the expanse of knowledge regarding acculturation, psychological distress, and health adherence behaviors, there remains a wide gap in the research. Additional research and analyses can be conducted among all three constructs and the hypothesized role of cognitive distortions for these important biopsychosocial phenomena. Even less is known about these issues in the Filipino American community. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between health adherence

behaviors, level of acculturation, frequency of cognitive distortions, and psychological distress in Filipino Americans. Consequently, the present research will illuminate knowledge that will benefit this rapidly growing community, as well as the broader health care population, by understanding the variables that affect health care behaviors.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a relationship exists among health adherence behaviors, acculturation, psychological distress, and cognitive distortions in Filipino Americans. The hope was that this study would help to identify potential factors that may facilitate salubrious health-related behaviors for this rapidly growing ethnic minority group. Additionally, a better understanding of these constructs could help professionals serve the Filipino American community and also improve the population's well-being through better assessment, treatment planning, psychoeducation, and treatment implementation.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Health Belief Model

Rosenstock's (1990) description of the health belief model (HBM) suggests that people make health-related decisions based on their perceptions of the possibility of illness and their expectations of treatment efficacy. This includes people's perceptions of and attitudes toward help-seeking behaviors. The HBM has served as a useful tool to help examine the factors that contribute to health adherence behaviors (J. E. Kim & Zane, 2016). Ma and colleagues (2013) identified these contributing factors, which include perceived vulnerability or threat of the health condition, perceived severity of the issue(s), perceived obstacles to following through on the health adherence behaviors, and perceived benefits of performing the behavior.

Henshaw and Freedman-Doan (2009) studied the HBM as it applied to mental health. They described the HBM as a socio-cognitive approach such that people consider how medical conditions could impact day to day living. Additionally, treatment is examined with a cost-benefit analysis perspective regarding whether health adherence behaviors are worth following through. The simplicity of this model provides a parsimonious framework to examine attitudes and thoughts about health. Further, the socio-cognitive theory facilitates a pragmatic focus for research since it can be translated into actionable steps toward improving health care (Henshaw & Freedman-Doan, 2009). The HBM was used as the theoretical framework for the current study.

Nonadherence

Adherence to health care recommendations is a crucial aspect of health care beliefs and practices. Health adherence behaviors can be described as the extent to which

a person executes beneficial lifestyle changes, follows through on recommendations from a health care provider, and takes medications as prescribed. The model posits that professionals' health care suggestions respect the autonomy of patients and view medical and behavioral recommendations as an agreement between patient and clinician, rather than a demand (Mukhtar, Weinman, & Jackson, 2014).

Conversely, nonadherence to health care recommendations is equally important to health. Moore (2010) examined nonadherence of oral medication for breast cancer patients. There were several factors that impacted patients' adherence to their treatment, including dosing and administration requirements, memory loss within older individuals, lower education levels, adverse medication effects, cost of medication, and physical limitations. Kagee, Steel, and Bronwyne (2014) examined structural barriers that may prevent patients with HIV from following through with antiretroviral therapy. The researchers found that barriers of transportation, food insecurity, mental health treatment programs, low socioeconomic status, and low health-related knowledge influenced adherence. Moreover, these structural barriers directly impacted emotional, physical, and cognitive well-being, or psychological distress (Kagee, Steel, & Bronwyne, 2014).

In addition to the aforementioned factors, G. Kim and colleagues (2011) examined other possible barriers to adherence. The researchers studied adult Latino and Asian immigrants with psychiatric disorders and their use of mental health services, and found that language barriers could play a significant role in adherence. Particularly for the Latino population, limited English proficiency decreased the odds of mental health care utilization. The researchers did not find a significant link to English proficiency for the Asian immigrant groups, but found that Asians were least likely to use services as

compared to the general population (G. Kim et al., 2011). Further, Sun, Hoyt, Brockberg, Lam, and Tiwari (2016) conducted a meta-analysis examining predictors of psychological help-seeking attitudes for racial and ethnic minorities. These researchers found that racial minorities underutilize treatment services despite having severe psychological distress. They also posited that acculturation and enculturation, which they defined as the process in which individuals of a minority group are socialized to their cultural heritage, were predictors of help-seeking attitudes (HSAs). HSAs can be either positive or negative, and they refer to the attitudes toward seeking help for psychological problems, such as being involved with psychotherapy or counseling. For Asian Americans, negative HSAs were linked to the stigma and discomfort with self-disclosure (Sun, Hoyt, Brockberg, Lam, & Tiwari, 2016). As the previous studies have illuminated, health beliefs and attitudes are partially shaped by culture.

Asian Americans

Culture plays a crucial part of how an individual's beliefs and behaviors are shaped. Culture can impact religious views, diet, language preference, social interactions, access to health care, and health-related beliefs. According to the United States Office of Management and Budget, for the purpose of the 2010 Census, the definition of "Asian" included people with origins in the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent. This encompasses Thailand, Vietnam, the Philippines, China, Japan, Korea, Pakistan, India, Malaysia, and Cambodia. Specifically, the 2010 Census presented the race of "Asian," but also recognized reported responses of Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Vietnamese, Filipino, Asian Indian, or any other detailed entries (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

Asian American health beliefs. Lim, Baik, and Ashing-Giwa (2012) explored the relationship between cultural health beliefs, acculturation, and the doctor-patient relationship in Asian American breast cancer survivors. They also examined treatment-related decisions and health behaviors. The researchers found that the intra-interpersonal health beliefs, the doctor-patient relationship, and collaborative decision-making were positively associated with healthy lifestyle practices. It was also determined that Asian Americans have distinct health beliefs and behaviors, which vary with type of illness, specific Asian subgroups, and years in the United States (Lim et al., 2012). Asian Indians and Pakistanis in the U.S. often experience issues with disclosure of cancer due to stigma, but place importance on knowledge of information for future generations, demonstrating a collectivistic mentality (Leader, Monhanty, Selvan, Lum, & Giri, 2018). Similarly, S. B. Kim (2017) highlighted that Asian American individuals have the lowest rates of cancer screening as compared to other racial or ethnic groups.

Asian American populations tend to stigmatize certain health behaviors, such as using mental health services. J. E. Kim and Zane (2016) examined Asian American health beliefs regarding this topic. The researchers used a cross-sectional questionnaire among 395 Asian American and 261 White American college students to study how various factors could impact help-seeking behaviors. The HBM served as the framework to understand perceived severity of illness, susceptibility, benefits, and barriers. Despite having higher reported rates of psychological distress, Asian American participants were less likely to engage in help-seeking behaviors. The researchers determined that there were more perceived barriers for Asian Americans compared to White Americans, such

as stigma, with Asians being more likely to seek help for academic issues rather than emotional or interpersonal problems versus their White counterparts.

The HBM also explains how views of Asian Americans relate to barriers in health adherence. Ma and colleagues (Ma et al., 2013) studied the HBM in Vietnamese Americans as related to cervical cancer screening behaviors. The researchers highlighted specific barriers that impact women in this population, such as being younger, unmarried, living in the United States for less than 15 years, having limited English proficiency, lacking insurance, and having a female physician. Additionally, lower education level and limited knowledge of the usefulness of cervical screenings inhibited seeking this type of service. This lack of information contributed to their existing health beliefs in that they perceived lower benefits of this type of health behavior, which is a common issue for Asian Americans.

Common health problems for Asian Americans. Although there is much diversity between and within the Asian population, there are common health issues that this group faces. H. C. Yoo, Gee, and Takeuchi (2009) discussed some of the common health problems that Asian Americans commonly face, examining whether or not perceived discrimination was associated to the chronic health conditions typically shared by that particular subgroup. Although, common health problems of Asian Americans can include: HIV/AIDS; hepatitis B; tuberculosis; breast, lung, liver, and cervical cancer; type two diabetes; and suicide (Lim et al., 2012; H. C. Yoo, Gee, & Takeuchi, 2009). The 717 participants identified as Chinese, Vietnamese, and Korean. The researchers found that Asian Americans' perceptions of both racial and language discrimination had a

positive correlation with chronic health conditions (H. C. Yoo et al., 2009). Therefore, it is possible that shared experiences relate to common illnesses within this population.

Filipino Americans

According to the Census Bureau (2010), the Asian population increased at a rate that was four times faster than the total population in the United States, with Chinese being the largest specific ethnicity, followed by Filipino and Asian Indian as the second and third largest, respectively. Just as the Asian culture as a whole is immensely heterogeneous, the Philippines itself is a country that is rich in diverse culture. This archipelago has over 7,000 identifiable islands, eight ethnic groups, over 70 languages/dialects, and five religions (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The Philippines consists of 80 provinces, all of which follow a presidential republic form of government. A review of Filipino history reveals that the country was colonized by Spain in the sixteenth century, and then later by the United States in 1898. In 1942 during World War II, Japan invaded and occupied the country until 1945, at which time the Americans returned. Shortly thereafter, in 1946, the Philippines gained their independence. The different ruling countries and cultures strongly influenced the diversity of Filipino cuisine, clothing, traditions, and art. The geography, consisting of thousands of remote islands, explains the vast cultural differences between the various regions (Nadal, 2011).

Diaspora. The diaspora refers to the movement of people from one nation to another (Beller, 2008). One main contributor to the diaspora in Filipino culture is the idea of overseas Filipino workers (OFWs). An OFW is an individual who leaves his or her native country to work in another in order to send money back to his or her family. Beller (2008) discussed the concept of people who take on this position, some of the

struggles that they face, and the social cost of remittances gained. Beller noted that the impoverished economic status of the Philippines was a main impetus for people to travel overseas for work despite the possibility of facing oppressive, exploitative, and outright dangerous conditions. Beller considered the challenges between balancing personal goals of success and individual interests with the objective conditions of leaving one's country in order to support a family.

Becoming an OFW to earn an income is a significant factor that led to Filipino immigration. The Rockefeller Foundation-Aspen Institute Diaspora Program (RAD; 2014) reported that the Philippines is the third highest country that receives remittances from the U.S. RAD discussed the history of the Filipino diaspora to the U.S. The literature highlighted information such as main reasons for migration, geographic areas of relocation, and other important statistics. Filipino immigrants started moving to the U.S. in the 1900s, as influenced and made easier by colonization, since they were already considered nationals. Individuals fell under three main positions: workers, students, and military service members for the U.S.

RAD (2014) reported on the more recent trends of Filipino immigrants between the years of 2002 to 2012. They stated that the largest proportion (52%) of Filipinos were granted lawful permanent resident status as immediate relatives of citizens who already live in the U.S. The trend of worker and student positions has continued into recent immigration. Filipinos reportedly came to the U.S. 97,000 times as temporary workers and 50,000 times with student visas. Regarding relocation areas, most Filipino Americans reportedly live on the west coast of the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). California and Hawaii are the most common states for Filipino immigrants to

reside. Other than the cities of Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Honolulu, New York is another metropolitan area that Filipino Americans commonly populate.

There are high proportions of the Filipino diaspora that have earned college degrees, with 43% of those 25 years and older having at least a bachelor's degree (RAD, 2014). Regarding employment, RAD also reported that Filipino immigrants have a slightly higher possibility of working in the labor force, especially since Filipina women are also more likely to hold occupations. In relation, these immigrants are generally economically successful in the U.S. As previously mentioned, Filipino Americans have a high rate of remittance inflows that are sent to the Philippines, which has increased exponentially over the past several years.

Colonial mentality. In order to better understand the dynamics of the Filipino culture, it is important to consider all of the influences that have affected the development of Filipino history. Spain and U.S. colonization of the Philippines greatly influenced its culture and Filipinos' perceptions of themselves (Felipe, 2016; Nadal, 2009). Some scholars hold different opinions about what the traditional Filipino society was like prior to colonization (Agoncillo, 2007; Pido, 1986). There is the possibility that it was an egalitarian or even a matriarchal structure. With the invasions of Spain and the U.S., it is hypothesized that the societal view shifted to a patriarchy. In addition to the change in gender status importance in the Philippines, a hierarchy of skin color placed privilege and power with the elite, White man.

Felipe (2016) described the concept of colonial mentality (CM) as a result of the reign of the U.S., describing it as a form of internalized oppression in which a Filipino person automatically prefers and identifies more with the American colonizer, thus

rejecting anything Filipino-related. In turn, CM has been shown to be positively correlated with depressive symptoms (David, 2008; David & Nadal, 2013). Further, presence of CM is typically related to having poorer collective self-esteem as the imposed concepts of sexism and racism are internalized (David, Sharma, & Petalio, 2017).

David (2010) studied how CM is a significant factor for the mental health outcomes of Filipino Americans. CM can be examined on a covert and overt basis. The covert level deals with internal shame and feelings of embarrassment or inferiority, whereas the overt level is composed of discriminating against less Americanized Filipinos or other observable behaviors that demonstrate the desire to be seen as more American, such as having interest in the NBA, hip hop culture, and speaking English more proficiently (Agoncillo, 2007). David (2010) implemented various scales, such as the Colonial Mentality Implicit Attitude Test, to examine the relationship between CM and mental health outcomes. It was found that covert CM was predictive of depression symptoms. Additional research found that CM had a positive correlation with psychological distress, specifically depression (David, 2008; David & Nadal, 2013). These psychological factors are important considerations for Filipino American immigrants since mental health affects health adherence behaviors, which was examined in the current study.

Filipino American health beliefs. According to McBride (2002), there are several indigenous health beliefs to consider for this particular population. The concept of *timbang* emphasizes the significance of keeping balance within the body, such as being in a warm (as opposed to a hot or cold) environment to maintain ideal health. This idea

further supports having a layer of fat on one's body in order to maintain the warmth necessary for health. Health promotion beliefs are typically geared to protection of the body, including flushing toxins and impurities such as by vomiting or sweating, using a gatekeeping system to guard and distance the body from harm, and heating related to maintaining optimal warmth levels. Three models help to explain these concepts. One model is naturalistic and ranges in source from excessive stress and inappropriate food to events in nature, such as thunderstorms. The personality model attributes causes of illness to social punishment from witches, sorcerers, or evil spirits. Lastly, the mystical model ties illness to retribution from ancestors due to unfulfilled obligations.

As a response to illness, Filipino Americans traditionally cope in a variety of ways. It is historically common to seek indigenous resources within the community, as seen through use of cultural healers who offer herbs, prayers and rituals, and massage (McBride, 2002). Rather than seeking professional help, the older Filipino generation may prefer to use traditional home remedies or consult with families, friends, or spiritual counselors. Particularly with mental illness, there tends to be a significant amount of stigma and shame, which may lead to avoidance behaviors. Similarly, lack of awareness of services lends to poor health outcomes. Often with both physical and mental ailments, *tiyaga*, which means patience and endurance, may motivate people to tolerate their symptoms as much as possible. Another form of coping is to have fatalistic resignation, or *bahala na*. This is to view the sickness and suffering as the will of God and, therefore, unavoidable. (Lagman, G. J. Yoo, Levine, Donnell, & Lim, 2014; McBride, 2002). These beliefs contribute to health behaviors and outcomes.

Religion plays a significant role within the Filipino culture and dictates much of the traditions, values, and beliefs. Lagman et al. (2014) reported that Roman Catholicism is the leading religion practiced in the Philippines, followed by 85% of the population. This was influenced by the colonialism of Spanish rule and also contributed to the culture's ideals of family and community. Most Filipinos who emigrate to the U.S. maintain their religious practice, and this has become an adaptive coping tool to manage daily hardships and major life events. Lagman and colleagues examined religion as it related to Filipino patients being treated for breast cancer. Through qualitative interviewing of 10 Filipina Americans, they found that prayer was a source of comfort and healing for most, promoting the idea of "leaving it to God." Although this may sometimes be seen as an adaptive way to cope with a difficult diagnosis, the researchers noted that it may also impact the way in which people address their medical issues. For example, many Filipino Americans may engage in traditional health practices, such as using faith healers. Additionally, religiosity helped participants feel more connected to their communities as sources of support. Due to a sense of familiarity, Filipino Americans reported more comfort reaching out to religious leaders as opposed to mental health professionals for personal issues (Lagman et al., 2014).

Common health problems for Filipino Americans. According to Nadal (2011), there are several highly prevalent health issues among Filipino Americans, and this subgroup tends to have higher prevalence rates of obesity, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, substance abuse, depression, and suicide as compared to the general population. Other issues include breast cancer, emphysema, and dietary issues, such as high fat,

cholesterol, and sodium levels. Similarly, hypertension is another typical health issue that is likely related to diet intake (Nadal, 2000; Tuason et al., 2014).

Tuason, Ancheta, and Battie (2014) further examined psychological health, specifically among 377 Filipino American women between the ages of 40 and 46. The researchers gathered information about participants' levels of depression, anxiety, discrimination, optimism of future outcomes, and degree of perceived control. They found that Filipina Americans had higher prevalence of hypertension compared to women from other Asian subgroups and African American women, and that Filipina Americans underutilized counseling services despite higher rates of diagnoses. They concluded that there is an interconnection between demographic, psychological, and biological variables in this population, specifically demonstrating a negative relationship such that lower income predicted higher depression and anxiety (Tuason et al., 2014).

Gee, Delva, and Takeuchi (2007) conducted a study to examine substance use among Filipino Americans. Researchers sampled 18-year-old participants in San Francisco and Honolulu. The researchers found that unfair treatment, such as discrimination and racism from Caucasian individuals, contributed to increased substance use. Another study about cyberbullying reported that Filipino and Samoan Americans were more likely than Caucasian Americans to feel poorly about themselves, which positively and significantly correlated to both substance use and suicide attempts (Goebert, Else, Matsu, Chung-Do, & Chang, 2011). Other studies suggested that Filipinos born in the U.S. were more likely than their Philippine-native counterparts to engage in heavy drinking, possibly due to higher perceived discrimination (I. Kim & Spencer, 2011; W. Kim, I. Kim, & Nochajski, 2010).

Laus (2012) further delved into the topic of substance use for Filipino Americans as it related to culture. The researcher discussed the idea of *pakikisama*, which is defined as a desire for social acceptance and approval, as it is a significant factor to identity. *Pakikisama* was considered a contributing factor to drug using behaviors as a way for people to feel connected. Nadal (2000) reported on the concept of *kapwa* or unity with a fellow being. This emphasizes the importance of connectedness for Filipino Americans to one another and to a greater society, which may explain the inclination toward popular, but maladaptive, behaviors. Both Laus and Nadal separately determined that once drug use becomes more problematic, Filipino Americans have *hiya*, or shame, which results in being secretive as opposed to seeking help in order to protect their personal and familial pride (Laus, 2012; Nadal, 2000). Laus reported that drug use was also a way for individuals to cope with financial and lifestyle stresses—using drugs to deal with issues in the home.

Acculturation

Acculturation occurs when multiple cultural groups make contact, which may occur during geographical relocation (D. Kim et al., 2006; Torres et al., 2012). Acculturation is an important consideration when examining immigrant populations, as it is a common and major experience. The original concept of acculturation was presented by Gordon in 1964, as a unidimensional model that was conceived as a linear progression from one set of cultural norms to another (as cited in Baker, 2011). Gordon's unidimensional model viewed acculturation as an outcome of choices, with the host and heritage cultures being on opposing ends of a continuum such that only one identification is possible (Schwartz, Unger, Zamboanga, & Szapocznik, 2010).

Following Gordon's model, in 1993, LaFramboise and colleagues proposed the framework of bicultural competence, which moved away from the idea of a singular identity and instead posited that people could identify with more than one identity (as cited in Schwartz et al. , 2010). In 1997, Berry proposed the acculturative strategies framework (as cited in Kuo, 2014). Using the theory of coping with stress, Berry postulated that the quality of acculturation was contingent upon the ability to cope with the differences presented by a host culture. The model suggested that an individual's strategy to acculturate was moderated by variables, such as gender, age, language use, and personal characteristics such as perceived locus of control. The different strategies include assimilation (in which an individual adopts the host culture and discards his or her heritage culture), separation (in which an individual rejects the host culture and retains his or her heritage culture), integration (in which an individual adopts the host culture and retains his or her heritage culture), and marginalization (in which an individual rejects the host culture and discards his or her heritage culture); each stage focuses on the two dimensions of host and heritage culture (Schwartz et al., 2010).

Other acculturation models have since been created. In 2010, Castro and Murray developed the resilience-based stress-appraisal-coping model, which highlighted the importance of resilience and positive outcomes of cross-cultural adaptation (as cited in Kuo, 2014). This model is also based on longitudinal consideration of one's ability to continue coping with the changes of context (as cited in Kuo, 2014). That same year, Yakushko examined the experiences of recent immigrants through qualitative studies and generated the stress and coping grounded theory. Within the theory, there are five domains: (a) causal conditions for migration, (b) the central phenomenon related to the

sources and types of stress, (c) coping patterns, (d) context of individual, family, and community, and © intervening conditions, such as the access to resources. Yakushko's theory emphasized the complexity as seen in the breadth and depth of the factors involved in the acculturation process (as cited in Kuo, 2014).

Numerous studies have demonstrated wide variance in the acculturation experience. Sun, Hoyt, Brockberg, Lam, and Tiwari (2016) investigated some of the differences among racial and ethnic minorities through meta-analysis. First, the researchers operationalized their understanding of two different terms that are often incorrectly used interchangeably: acculturation and enculturation. According to their definition, acculturation is the process of psychological changes brought on by the interaction of two or more cultures. Some of these changes include attitudes toward oneself, others, and the future; beliefs about health, locus of control, and justice; and preferences for language, cuisine, and social groups.

In contrast, Sun and colleagues (2016) described enculturation as the process of socialization into a cultural heritage, learning about the norms and characteristics of the culture through participation and observation. These researchers found between group differences, with benefits of better psychological treatment and help-seeking attitudes for Asian Americans who were acculturated, benefits for African Americans who were enculturated, and poorer outcomes for Mexican Americans who were more acculturated (Sun et al., 2016). These findings are important to the present study because they emphasized how level of acculturation can affect the health behaviors for different minority groups. Choi et al. (2016) studied 291 Korean American families in the Midwest in order to scrutinize the acculturation process. The researchers found that there

were three separate acculturation strategies utilized, including separation (no adaptation of host environment), integrated bicultural acculturation (multiple cultures were compatible), and modest bicultural acculturation (underdeveloped integrated approach). Integrated bicultural acculturation was related to the most desirable outcomes of overall well-being for Korean Americans. They reported that acculturation was a major issue that Asian Americans encounter, regardless of generational status (Choi, Tan, Yasui, & Hahm, 2016)

According to Berry (2005), acculturation is the dual process psychological phenomenon that describes the changes within an individual related to cultural patterns when exposed to other cultures. This can include changes in attitudes, values, and traditions. Berry's bidimensional model has shown to be applicable to modern experiences of immigration since it considers the range of immigrant experiences as reflected in the different acculturation strategies. Additionally, it has been a theoretical framework for scales that measure acculturation (Baker, 2011). Although there are numerous models for acculturation, there have also been several criticisms of the existing frameworks—particularly Berry's, as it is commonly used.

Criticisms of Berry's acculturative strategies framework. Rudmin (2006) touched upon the drawbacks of acculturation models. Specifically, Rudmin critiqued Berry's psychometrics, noting that research has shown people identifying with more than one strategy despite the model suggesting people identify with only one. Additionally, Rudmin highlighted the poor quality supervision that resulted in an unnoticed correlation between differing constructs, divergent validity. Rudmin also pointed out doubts regarding the marginalization construct since the strategy was equivocally related to poor

outcomes. Another criticism of current acculturation frameworks was, as Rudmin contended, that they focused on what he proposed were more superficial constructs, such as music and cuisine preference, instead of investigating more complex concepts, such as religion, child-rearing practices, and sexual norms (Rudmin, 2006). Berry and colleagues (2008) later responded to the criticism by indicating the presence of external and internal validity for the scales that were used to measure acculturative attitudes of integration. Similarly, he stated that the multiple measurement approach allowed a more comprehensive understanding of acculturation. Berry also emphasized the complexity of the acculturation process, as it can be confusing, ambiguous, and conflicting, which reflects the possible identification with more than one strategy (Berry, Phinney, Sam, & Vedder, 2008).

Despite these concerns, Berry's acculturative strategies framework has provided a strong theoretical foundation for numerous studies regarding ethnic minority well-being and health outcomes (Baello & Mori, 2007; Berry & Hou, 2016; Ea, Griffin, L'Eplattenier, & Fitzpatrick, 2008; Fox, Merz, Solorzano, & Roesch, 2013; Schwartz et al., 2010). Therefore, Berry's model was used as the theoretical foundation for the current study because it has addressed the complexities of the acculturation process, has been previously applied to a variety of cultural groups, and is commonly accepted among scholars.

D. Kim, B. R. Sarason, and I. G. Sarason (2006) posited that cultural confusion may commonly develop as the result of simultaneous exposure to numerous cultures. D. Kim and colleagues investigated the influence of parental cultural values as they pass down from one generation to the next. The researchers found that Asian Americans

experienced more complex development of their identities and attitudes compared to their European American counterparts. For example, Asian Americans experienced more cognitive dissonance regarding their heritage and host cultures. This suggested that this complexity was, in part, due to their experiences of and need to resolve prejudice and discrimination. D. Kim, B. R. Sarason, and I. G. Sarason also found that children of parents with high acculturation levels experienced less psychological distress and better adjustment.

Acculturation and health. There are several factors that tie acculturation to health outcomes. In addition to negative physical symptoms that cultural health beliefs may impact (as previously stated), mental health should also be considered. Yoon et al. (2012) conducted a meta-analysis to examine acculturation, enculturation, acculturation strategies, positive mental health outcomes (such as self-esteem and positive affect), and negative mental health outcomes (such as depression and anxiety). Yoon and colleagues used Berry's theory to develop the framework of the meta-analysis. Findings showed that acculturation was favorable over enculturation for the survival of Asian American groups as compared to African American groups. Potential reasons for this conclusion were the relatively new status of having more Asians in the United States as compared to previously, their wide range of dispersion among social classes, and the diversity between Asian subgroup cultures. Another finding was that adhering to the integrative acculturation strategy positively correlated to improved mental health compared to following other acculturation strategies.

Language use is an aspect of acculturation that relates to health outcomes. G. Kim and colleagues (2011) studied language barriers to receiving mental health. They

examined Latino and Asian immigrant adults ages 18 to 68 who were diagnosed with psychiatric disorders and found that limited English proficiency significantly diminished the likelihood that both Latino and Asian immigrants would utilize mental health care services. Overall, Asian immigrants were least likely to use the services, though additional factors may have contributed, such as mental health stigma and limited access to resources. Also, Kuroki (2014) found that Filipino Americans' better language proficiency in the United States was associated with higher probability of suicide attempt as compared to Filipinos who were less proficient in English. Additionally, Kuroki found that having a relative within a 90-minute drive was a protective factor. It is possible that this correlation was due to experiencing more perceived social support, which is an important facet of Filipino culture.

Hall and Yee (2012) addressed the neglect of research and mental health treatment for Asian Americans, despite the high need for it. The authors posited that there are several myths—such as Asian Americans being a small and successful group that does not experience problems generally or behaviorally—that perpetuate these help-seeking behaviors. In addition to these myths, Asian Americans actually experience a significant amount of acculturative stress and discrimination that contribute to psychological distress. Hall and Yee contended that federal mental health policies neglect this population, as they are a group that tends to fall low in importance to policy makers and researchers due to their underrepresentation in government. Additionally, the aforementioned myths perpetuate the neglect of Asian Americans. Hall and Yee emphasized the importance of continued research and development to garner more awareness and attention for this underserved group. Further, H. C. Yoo, Gee, and

Takeuchi (2009) noted that there is much heterogeneity within Asian Americans regarding language, history, and traditions, thus highlighting the need to study various subgroups.

Another important consideration is the relationship between acculturation and substance use. Toleran et al. (2012) examined substance use among Chinese, Filipino, and Vietnamese adult men in California. They found that Filipino Americans had higher rates of alcohol, cigarette, marijuana, and cocaine use compared to the other Asian subgroups. Sociodemographic factors were likely contributors to drug risk, including immigrant status, social isolation, education level, and poverty. According to another study on drug usage, Filipino Americans had a strong desire to fit in and belong, which may lead to peer pressure and acceptance-seeking through using different substances (Laus, 2012). Shih and colleagues (2015) reported that substance use is also a growing issue for adolescents, with Filipino Americans having the highest initiation behavior rates in comparison to other Asian subgroups. Further, Park, Anastas, Shibusawa, and D. Nguyen (2014) studied the relationship between acculturation and stress for the Asian American population. They examined Chinese, Vietnamese, and Filipino Americans who were born outside of the U.S. and determined that Filipino Americans drank more than Chinese and Vietnamese Americans, and Asian Americans drank more than the general population; however, the overall importance of the study was to highlight the possible relationship between acculturative stress and alcohol use for these subgroups, such that those who were more acculturated tended to drink alcohol more (Park, Anastas, Shibusawa, & D. Nguyen, 2014).

Different levels of acculturation may also tie to the accessibility and use of health care resources. Mena, Padilla, and Maldonado (1987) studied college students who immigrated to the United States from the Philippines, and found that higher levels of acculturation indicated higher use of resources for coping, such as psychotherapy, psychoeducation, and pharmacology. Additionally, Filipino Americans who were more acculturated than not were more likely to accept cognitive restructuring, which demonstrated an openness to mental health techniques. Similarly, Chataway and Berry (1989) found that lower levels of acculturation correlated to higher amounts of stress within the same population. In 2005, H. C. Yoo and Lee also studied Asian American college students and their experiences with racial discrimination. The researchers determined that a stronger, more secure sense of ethnic identity related to less perceived discrimination.

Racial identity has been studied as it relates acculturation and mental health issues; however, there are discrepancies in findings among different ethnic and racial groups. For example, Settles et al. (2010) conducted a study of racial identity among 379 African American women. Racial identity was examined through level of racial centrality (the degree to which race defines a person's self-concept), private regard (personal judgment of race), and public regard (perception of others' judgment of one's race). The researchers found that there was a positive correlation between all aspects of racial identity and depression. Research has shown that coping is associated directly with acculturation and various mental health outcomes, as seen in the aforementioned studies as well as meta-analyses of the topic (Yoon et al., 2012).

The acculturation process is something that can contribute to the physical and mental health of immigrants, as well as their children. Huang, Calzada, Cheng, and Brotman (2012) compared children of foreign-born Asians and U.S.-born Caucasians. They found that there was little support for the myth of Asians being the “model minority,” as they experienced greater risk for poor social relationships, internalizing problems, and poorer physical health. Ruzek, D. Q. Nguyen, and Herzog (2011) examined Asian American college students’ acculturation and psychological distress. A regression analysis found that the more acculturated participants were to European values, the less likely they were to experience psychological distress.

As the research indicates, acculturation may correlate with both positive and negative health-related outcomes. Dela Cruz, Padilla, and Agustin (2000) reported that some Latinas who are more acculturated are more likely to smoke cigarettes. Conversely, this same population may also have more accurate knowledge of sexual education related to condom use and lower likelihood of obesity, with higher levels of acculturation. Dela Cruz, Padilla, and Agustin reported that Latino and Hispanic Americans had more personalized measurements at the time, which helped to explain the differences in acculturation outcomes. Despite the growing number of Filipino Americans, the researchers stated that there was a lack of acculturation scales specific to this group. Dela Cruz and colleagues emphasized the importance of individual scales respective to specific cultural groups, which led to their development of A Short Acculturation Scale for Filipino Americans (ASASFA; dela Cruz, Padilla, & Agustin, 2000).

Acculturation measures. There are numerous scales that aim to measure acculturation. Some scales, such as Ward and Kennedy's (1994) Acculturation Index, Stephenson's (2000) Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale, and Zea and colleagues' (2003) Abbreviated Multidimensional Acculturation Scale, were developed to examine multiple groups for acculturation. Other scales were created that narrow the focus to Asian Americans, such as Kim, Atkinson, and Yang's (1999) Asian Value Scale; Flannery and colleagues' (2001) Asian American Acculturation Inventory for Asian Americans; Rudmin, Ahmadzadeh Wolfe, and colleagues' (2001) European American Value Scale for Asian Americans; Chung, Kim, and Abreu's (2004) Asian American Multidimensional Acculturation Scale; Ryder and colleagues' (2000) Vancouver Index of Acculturation; Suinn, Ahuna, and Khoo's (1992) Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation Scale; and the ASASFA (dela Cruz et al., 2000).

Although all of the aforementioned scales would adequately measure acculturation, dela Cruz, Padilla, and Agustin's (2000) ASASFA is the only valid assessment that specifically targets Filipino Americans and, as such, was used for the current study. Additionally, its brevity of 12 items lends to easier participant use. The ASASFA is based on A Short Acculturation Scale for Hispanic Americans (ASASH), which is psychometrically sound and has been supported in numerous validation studies (as cited in Marin, Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, & Perez-Stable, 1987). Further, the ASASFA is offered in both English and Tagalog, the official national language of the Philippines. In order to accurately convert the scale to Tagalog, the researchers used multiple translators, back translators, experts, and tests to review the translation throughout various steps of the process.

The ASASFA targets Filipino Americans within three dimensions of acculturation: (a) language use and preference at home, work, and socially; (b) language use and preference in media; and (c) preferred ethnicity of individuals within interpersonal relationships. The specificity of the scale lends to a more accurate approach in examining Filipino Americans than acculturation scales that measure all Asian groups.

Psychological Distress

Psychological distress can be described as general conditions of anxiety and depressive symptoms that negatively affect well-being (Kessler et al., 2003). For the purpose of this study, psychological distress was defined generally to include symptoms of depression and anxiety. Specifically, it was operationally defined as scores of 10 or higher on the Generalized Anxiety Disorder 7-Item Scale (GAD-7; Spitzer, Kroenke, Williams, & Lowe, 2006), which measures anxiety, and Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9; Kroenke, Spitzer, & Williams, 2001), which measures depression.

Psychological distress and health. Several researchers have examined the relation of psychological distress to health issues. Huang et al. (2012) examined physical and mental health in children of Asian immigrants and found that children of Asian parents, relative to White children, experienced poorer physical health, less interpersonal skills, and more internalizing problems, such as anxiety and depression. Kagee, Steel, and Bronwyne (2014) examined structural barriers to health adherence behaviors. They defined structural barriers as broad forms of social construction that may prevent the activities in which people typically engage. These barriers can include institution-related, environmental, poverty-related, legal, cultural, and political factors. The researchers studied 291 HIV-positive participants in South Africa to examine the relationship

between antiretroviral therapy adherence, psychological distress, and health-related quality of life. They found that psychological distress mediated the relationship between structural barriers to pill taking and physical well-being. Merz, Malcarne, Roesch, Riley, and Sadler (2011) found that depression was a great cause of illness, disability, and death among English- and Spanish-speaking Latinas. Consequently, they recommended screening for depression to reduce the impact of depression on public health on a global scale.

Regarding anxiety, Sun et al. (2016) conducted a meta-analysis on racial minorities, treatment-seeking, and psychological distress. They determined that this particular population suffered from more severe psychological distress compared to the majority population. Additionally, individuals who had stronger racial and gender identities were likely to experience more stigma as compared to those who had less developed identities. This stigma was related to having higher levels of anxiety as well.

Social support can help to mitigate psychological distress related to life stressors. M. Cohen, Arad, Lorber, and Pollack (2007) examined psychological distress, life stressors, and social support among 56 HIV-positive Jewish immigrants from Ethiopia to northern Israel. The researchers found that acculturation influenced the expression of psychological distress, which related to life stressors and less perceived social support. It was also noted that personal beliefs about their health influenced their decisions about their medical approaches to wellness.

Psychological distress measures. There are numerous scales that aim to measure psychological distress, or different aspects of it. For example, the Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K10; Kessler & Mroczek, 1994), Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale

(HADS; Snaith, 2003), Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI; A. T. Beck & Steer, 1993), Beck Depression Inventory-Second Edition (BDI-II; A. T. Beck, Steer, & Brown, 1996), Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS-21; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995), Penn State Worry Questionnaire (PSWQ; Meyer, Miller, Metzger, & Borkovec, 1990), Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale (HARS; Hamilton, 1959), Clinically Useful Depression Outcome Scales (CUDOS; Zimmerman, Chelminski, McGlinchey, & Posternak, 2008), and the Quick Inventory of Depressive Symptomatology (QIDS; Rush et al., 2003) are all scales that measure various facets of psychological distress. For the purpose of this study, the GAD-7 (Spitzer et al., 2006) and PHQ-9 (Kroenke et al., 2001) were used due to their brevity, validity, reliability, cross-cultural application, and preference within medical settings.

Cognitive Distortions

Cognitive distortions can also impact medical decisions, as they have been described as inaccurate ways of thinking. The term cognitive distortion was first introduced by A. T. Beck (1967) as a predictable manner of processing information that can lead to identifiable errors in thinking. He originally developed six distortions: (a) absolutist/dichotomous thinking, (b) arbitrary inference, (c) minimization and magnification, (d) overgeneralization, (e) personalization, and (f) selective abstraction. Burns (1999) later added more cognitive distortions to his checklist of cognitive distortions: (a) overgeneralization, (b) mental filter, (c) jumping to conclusions, (d) all-or-nothing thinking, (e) magnification or minimization, (f) labeling, (g) emotional reasoning, (h) should statements, (i) personalization and blame, and (j) discounting the positives.

Three more major distortions were also presented: (a) perfectionism, (b) comparison, and (c) externalization of self-worth (Freeman & DeWolf, 1992; Freeman & Oster, 1999).

Although these are commonly accepted, this is not a comprehensive list, as there have been additional distortions identified and proposed over time. For instance, Knouse and Mitchell (2015) added to the list of cognitive distortions while examining the comorbidity of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) with depression and anxiety. One example is positively-valenced cognitive avoidance, which describes an overly optimistic automatic thought that decreases an individual's likelihood of using coping skills.

T. Beck (1976) applied the concept of cognitive distortions to the cognitive triad and illustrated how faulty thinking could influence a negative view of the self, the world or other people, and the future. This sort of faulty information processing reinforces negative automatic thoughts, perceptions, and interpretations of events that contribute to the development of a maladaptive schema and resultant distress and impairment (A. T. Beck, Freeman, Davis, & Associates, 2006; D. A. Clark & A. T. Beck, 2010). J. Beck (2011) further studied the impact of cognitive distortions on psychological well-being. She found that there was a strong connection between the presence of distortions to higher levels of depressive symptoms. This supported A. T. Beck's earlier work with the cognitive model of depression, which reported the crucial role of distortions in the development and maintenance of depression. Similarly, research has shown that cognitive distortions implicated the presence of other forms of psychological issues, including anxiety (D. A. Clark & A. T. Beck, 2010; Rosenfield, 2004). The etiology and maintenance of anxiety symptoms, as related to distortions, may stem from the misperception of threat to the self, world, or future (A. T. Beck, 1976).

Cognitive distortions and health. Cognitive distortions can impact emotion and behavior. Burns (1980) reported that cognitive distortions directly affect every aspect of the cognitive model, as the world and events may be perceived as neutral, positive, or negative events based on their influence on automatic thoughts, which impact mood and behavior. Burns further proposed that specific cognitive distortions, such as minimization, could impact health-related behaviors (Burns, 1990). For example, minimization of a health problem may decrease the perceived importance of seeking a medical screening.

Christensen, Moran, and Weibe (1999) further supported this idea when they found that cognitive distortions could lead to misperceptions of significant health behaviors and predict maladaptive of decisions and behaviors. For example, an individual who has symptoms of colorectal cancer may minimize the frequency and severity of the signs, which may inhibit the action of obtaining a screening. Uhl (2007) supported this finding with research that concluded that increased frequency of cognitive distortions was tied to negative behavioral and psychological risk factors as defined by the Millon Behavioral Medicine Diagnostic. Specifically, Uhl found that those with higher occurrence of cognitive distortions were less satisfied with themselves and their life situations. Similarly, Stankiewicz (2008) reported that there was a significant positive correlation between scores on the Inventory of Cognitive Distortions (ICD; Yurica & DiTomasso, 2002) and Health Adherence Behavior Inventory (HABIT; DiTomasso, 1997). The conclusions from Stankiewicz's findings also implicated that cognitive factors may be related to race and diversity, as the sample population was primarily African American (Stankiewicz, 2008).

Cognitive distortion measures. There are several scales that can be used to measure general cognitive distortions, as opposed to distortions that correspond to specific diagnoses, including the Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire (ATQ; Hollon & Kendall, 1980), Cognitive Errors Questionnaire (CEQ; Lefebvre, 1981), Cognitive Distortions Scale (CDS; Briere, 2000), Dysfunctional Attitude Scale (DAS; Weissman & A. T. Beck, 1978), and the ICD (Yurica, 2002; DiTomasso & Yurica, 2011). Although all of the aforementioned scales are psychometrically sound tools, the ICD has been validated with both depressed and anxious populations, and has been used to measure health adherence behaviors (Rosenfield, 2004; Stankiewicz, 2008; Uhl, 2007). As such, the 11 factor analyzed cognitive distortions measured by the ICD and defined by Yurica (2002) were utilized for the purposes of this study: (a) externalization of self-worth, (b) fortune-telling, (c) magnification, (d) labeling, (e) perfectionism, (f) comparison to others, (g) emotional reasoning, (h) arbitrary inference/jumping to conclusions, (i) minimization, (j) mind-reading, and (k) emotional reasoning and decision-making.

Research Question

An answer to the following question was sought through the current study: Are health adherence behaviors related to level of acculturation, psychological distress, and frequency of cognitive distortions in Filipino Americans?

Chapter 3: Hypotheses

Four hypotheses were developed after reviewing the literature.

Hypothesis I

It was hypothesized that a number of variables would correlate significantly with the health adherence behaviors (as measured by the HABIT). More specifically, acculturation (as measured by the ASASFA) was hypothesized to relate positively to health adherence behaviors, and anxiety symptoms (as measured by the GAD-7) depression symptoms (as measured by the PHQ-9), and cognitive distortions (as measured by the ICD) were hypothesized to relate negatively to health adherence behaviors.

Hypothesis II

It was hypothesized that level of psychological distress (as measured by the GAD-7 and PHQ-9) would predict health adherence behaviors in a significant and negative direction, such that those who endorse higher levels of psychological distress would be less likely to exhibit health adherence behaviors.

Hypothesis III

It was hypothesized that acculturation would significantly and negatively correlate with anxiety symptoms.

Hypothesis IV

It was hypothesized that acculturation would significantly and negatively correlate with the frequency of cognitive distortions.

Chapter 4: Method

Participants

Data were collected from 121 adult participants of an online survey. Completed data were included if the participant was between 18 and 85 years of age and identified as Filipino in ethnicity, such that at least one biological parent also identified with that ethnicity. Additionally, participants had to be residents of the United States and able to read English at an eighth-grade reading level. Further demographic questions were included to assess for gender, geographical location, immigrant generation, education level, the presence of a religious/spiritual identity, and involvement with any type of Filipino American group or community.

Participants were excluded from the study if they were outside of the age criterion, did not have parents who identify as being Filipino/a, Pilipino/a, Pinoy, or Pinay, were not residents of the United States, and were unable to read English at an eighth grade reading level.

Procedure

Data were collected through the internet to obtain a sufficiently large sample of Filipino Americans. Participants were recruited via social media and e-mail. The demographic questionnaire and self-report measures were collected online through SurveyMonkey. The first step was to determine the copyrights of the measures and the ability to transfer them onto the SurveyMonkey platform. Then, the final link for the study was advertised on social media through the researcher's personal account and collegiate-level and community-level Filipino organization pages (such as the Filipino Intercollegiate Dialogue Network and Fil-Am of Centre County Group), as well as sent

through various academic and professional listservs (such as the Penn State Filipino Association and Asian American Psychological Association). A snowball sampling strategy in which eligible persons recruit other persons for participation was utilized.

Interested persons were screened via SurveyMonkey for the above criteria. Qualified persons who met inclusion criteria were invited to complete the questionnaires. Those who did not meet inclusion criteria were brought to the final page, which thanked them for their time. Participants were not compensated for their participation.

Measures

Socio-demographic questionnaire. A socio-demographic questionnaire assessed age, gender, marital status, geographic location, immigrant generation, highest level of education, ability to read in English, status as a United States resident and years in the country, involvement with any type of Filipino American group or community, and religious identification.

Health adherence behaviors. Each participant's level of health adherence was assessed with the HABIT, which consists of 50 dichotomous items (True = 1, False = 0) that describe health-related behaviors, typically found in primary care settings (DiTomasso, 1997). For example, "I try to sleep 8 hours each night (True or False)." The sum score is calculated among 47 items, with 3 items requiring reverse scoring. A higher score indicates that individuals endorsed more health-related behaviors and less overall health risks, since a high score predicts adherence to physician recommended behaviors (DiTomasso, 1997). The HABIT has been tested in comparison to other reliable measures, such as the Health Risk Assessment, and was found to be reliable ($\alpha = .71$; Parke, 2004). Additionally, the HABIT has construct validity in determining poor

health outcomes as a result of nonadherence and other problematic behaviors ($p = .01$; Parke, 2004).

Acculturation. In order to assess for level of acculturation, ASASFA was used. The scale was initially validated itself with 165 first-generation Filipino Americans and originally based on another accepted and psychometrically sound measure, the ASASH (Marin et al., 1987). The ASASFA development followed the guidelines of recommended procedure for cross-cultural research. The ASASFA consists of 12 items measured on a 5-point Likert-scale, offered in both the English and Tagalog languages (dela Cruz, Padilla, & Butts, 1998). For example, “In what language(s) are the TV programs you usually watch? (1) Only Philippine language(s), (2) More Philippine language(s) than English, (3) Both equally, (4) More English than Philippine language(s), (5) Only English.” To ensure the validity of the translation into Tagalog, experts tested both forward and backward translation between the two languages, which also addressed adaptability of cultural differences through conceptual, semantic, experiential, content, and technical equivalence (dela Cruz et al., 1998).

The 5-point Likert-scale responses for each item correspond to a value. For example, “(5) Only English” equals a value of 5 for that item. The sum value is totaled, with a possible range of scores from 12 to 60. The mean score is calculated, which ranged from 1 to 5. A lower mean score indicates a lower level of acculturation, whereas a higher score indicates a higher level of acculturation. This also allows individuals to identify as bicultural, such that they have preferences for both Filipino and American cultures. The tool measures three factors regarding language use, media language

preference, and ethnic social relations. The ASASFA has demonstrated internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$; dela Cruz et al., 1998).

Psychological distress. To assess for psychological distress, two measures were distributed. The first measure, the PHQ-9 is a 9-item scale that is used to assess depression over the last two weeks (Kroenke et al., 2001). Each item is scored from 0 (not at all) to 3 (nearly every day) and added together, which provides a severity score ranging from 0 to 27. For example, “Over the past 2 weeks, how often have you been bothered by poor appetite or overeating? (0) Not at all, (1) Several days, (2) More than half the days, (3) Nearly every day.” Cutoff scores of 5, 10, 15, and 20 represent mild, moderate, moderately severe, and severe depression, respectively. The scale was originally tested with 6,000 clinic patients, which showed good internal consistency ($\alpha = .83$) and test-retest reliability (Spitzer, Williams, Kroenke, Hornyak, & McMurray, 2000). The validity was established within eight primary care and seven obstetrical clinics and showed that scores greater than or equal to 10 had a sensitivity and specificity of 88% major depression. Scores on the PHQ-9 have been shown to correlate positively and significantly with scores on the BDI-II (Spitzer et al., 2000). The PHQ-9 also has been widely used for cross-cultural purposes (de Lima Osorio, Mendes, Alexandre Crippa, & Loureiro, 2009; Kohrt, Luitel, Acharya, & Jordans, 2016; Lotrakul, Sumrithe, & Saipanish, 2008; Zhong, Gelaye, Fann, Sanchez, & Williams, 2014). To take extra precaution for the item regarding suicidal ideation (i.e., thoughts that the respondent would be “better off dead” or of thoughts of hurting himself or herself in some way), a page was included that provided support resources (e.g., National Suicide Prevention

Lifeline [1-800-273-8255] and Crisis Hotline [775-784-8090]) to participants who endorsed the item.

The second measure of psychological distress, the GAD-7 was included to assess for anxiety levels over the last two weeks (Spitzer et al., 2006). Each item is scored from 0 (not at all) to 3 (nearly every day) and added together, which provides a severity score of 0 to 21. For example, “Over the last 2 weeks, how often have you been bothered by trouble sleeping? (0) Not at all, (1) Several days, (2) More than half the days, (3) Nearly every day.” Cutoff scores of 5, 10, and 15 represent mild, moderate, and severe anxiety, respectively. The scale was validated with primary care patients and has been validated across multiple cultures (Garcia-Campayo et al., 2010; Spitzer et al., 2006). The psychometrics of the GAD-7 demonstrate good internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .93$). The measure has convergent, construct, criterion, factorial, and procedural validity (Lowe et al., 2008; Mills et al., 2014; Stewart, Hays, & Ware, 1988).

Cognitive distortions. The ICD consists of 69 statements that represent how people feel/think about certain things (Yurica & DiTomasso, 2002). Each item is rated through a Likert scale in terms of frequency. For example, “I tend to discount the good things about me. N = never, R = rarely, S = sometimes, O = often, and A = always,” with each item being scored from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Cognitive distortions included in the ICD are based on a factor analysis, which determined 10 identified factors: externalization of self-worth, magnification, comparison to others, emotional reasoning, mind-reading, minimization, jumping to conclusions, fortune-telling, labeling, perfectionism, and decision-making (Yurica & DiTomasso, 2002).

The scale has been validated with nonclinical samples as well as clinical samples within psychiatric and medical settings (S. Cohen, Kamarack, & Mermelstein, 1983; Weissman, & A. T. Beck, 1978; Uhl, 2007). Correlating the ICD with the disorders assessed on the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory, 3rd edition (MCMI-III; T. Millon, Davis, & C. Millon, 1997), Rosenfield (2004) determined that the frequency of cognitive distortions, as measured by the ICD, accounted for half of the variance in both the number and severity of most clinical syndromes and personality disorders. Additional research has shown that frequency of cognitive distortions, as measured by the ICD, correlate with behavioral and psychological risk factors (Uhl, 2007). This suggests that those who experienced more cognitive distortions were also more likely to engage in risky behaviors, as well as be more prone to having mental health challenges. Uhl (2007) determined that those with higher occurrence of cognitive distortions were less satisfied with themselves and their life situations. The criterion and content validity of the ICD has been tested and considered valid with a high test-retest reliability (Roberts, 2015) and with very high internal consistency ($\alpha = .99$; Yurica & DiTomasso, 2002).

Chapter 5: Results

Statistical Analyses

This section presents demographic data and statistical analyses. Pearson correlation analyses and a multiple linear regression analysis were performed to determine the relationships between health adherence behaviors, acculturation, psychological distress, and cognitive distortions.

The variables of interest were examined through SPSS 24.0. The first power analysis was conducted for Pearson correlation analysis at 80% power at the .05 level of significance for a medium effect size, yielding a need for 107 participants. The analysis included a medium effect size of 0.30, which is a conventional standard (Cohen, 1992).

Demographic Information

A total of 183 individuals completed the screening questions in the survey. Of the 183 people, 121 participants met the inclusion criteria and completed every item in the questionnaires. These 121 participants all identified as Filipino American, reported that they were within the age range of 18 to 85 (with the mean age of 29 and standard deviation of 9.4), could read English, and were current residents of the United States. As such, their data met inclusion criteria and were included in the data analysis (N = 121).

Participants identified as 61.9% (n = 75) female, 36.4% (n = 44) as male, and 1.7% (n = 2) as other. Further, 49.6% (n = 60) of the participants identified as being single, 41.3% (n = 50) as married, and 9.1% (n = 1) as cohabiting with their partners. As seen in Table 1, 47.1% (n = 57) of the participants in the sample reported having completed a college education.

Table 1

Education Demographic Variables

| Education Level | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------|-----------|---------|
| High School | 3 | 2.5 |
| Some College | 12 | 9.9 |
| College | 57 | 47.1 |
| Master's Level | 24 | 19.8 |
| Doctoral Level | 25 | 20.7 |
| Total | 121 | 100.0 |

Table 2 indicates that 100% of the participants indicated Filipino ancestry, with the majority, 86.8% (n = 105), of the participants reporting two biological parents who identify as Filipino Americans and the remaining 13.2% (n = 16) reporting one parent who identifies as Filipino American.

Table 2

Biological Parental Ethnic-Identity Demographic Variables

| Parent(s) | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Both | 105 | 86.8 |
| Mother | 12 | 9.9 |
| Father | 3 | 2.5 |
| One Parent (not identified) | 1 | 0.8 |
| Total | 121 | 100.0 |

The average years spent living in the United States was reported as 29.31, ranging from a minimum of 3 to a maximum of 55 years. As shown in Table 3, the majority of the participants, over 60% (n = 73), identified as being second-generation immigrants.

Table 3

Immigrant Generation Demographic Variables

| Generation | Frequency | Percent |
|------------|-----------|---------|
| First | 41 | 33.9 |
| Second | 73 | 60.4 |
| Third | 6 | 4.9 |
| Unknown | 1 | 0.8 |
| Total | 121 | 100.0 |

Of the 121 participants, the majority, 59.5% (n = 72) reported that they were not involved in any type of Filipino American group activities, in contrast to 40.5% (n = 49) reported such involvement. A majority, 73.6% (n = 89), of the participants reported having some form of religious identity. Among those with religious identity, approximately 56.2% (n = 68) of the participants identified as being Roman Catholic and 17.6% (n = 12) of that Roman Catholic group reported being involved with religious communities. Some of the religious communities in which participants reported being involved were Roman Catholic (81.0%), Christian (12.7%), Episcopalian (1.3%), Methodist (2.5%), and Pentecostal (2.5%).

Hypothesis I

To examine whether health adherence behaviors (as measured by the HABIT) were significantly positively correlated with acculturation (as measured by the

ASASFA), and significantly negatively correlated with anxiety symptoms (as measured by the GAD-7), depression symptoms (as measured by the PHQ-9), and frequency of cognitive distortions (as measured by the ICD), six Pearson product-moment correlations were conducted. Upon review, the assumptions of the Pearson product-moment correlations were met. A histogram indicated a normal distribution without any significant outliers, and a visual inspection of a normal probability plot indicated a lack of significant multicollinearity or homoscedasticity.

Results also indicated that there was no significant linear relationship between acculturation and health adherence behaviors ($r(121) = -.043, p = .321$). Further results showed that there was a significant negative linear relationship between anxiety symptoms and health adherence behaviors ($r(121) = -.192, r^2 = .0368, p = .018$) and a significant negative relationship between depression symptoms and health adherence behaviors ($r(121) = -.375, r^2 = .1406, p = .000$). This indicated that 3.68% of the variance in health adherence behaviors can be explained by anxiety, and 14.06% of the variance in health adherence behaviors can be explained by depression. Additionally, there was no significant relationship between frequency of cognitive distortions and health adherence behaviors ($r(121) = -.148, p = .052$). Correlation coefficients are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4

Correlations for Health Behaviors, Acculturation, Anxiety, Depression, and Cognitive Distortions

| | Health Behaviors | Acculturation | Anxiety | Depression | Cognitive Distortions |
|-----------------------|------------------|---------------|---------|------------|-----------------------|
| Health Behaviors | ----- | -.043 | -.192* | -.375** | -.148 |
| Acculturation | -.043 | ----- | .175* | .094 | .251** |
| Anxiety | -.192* | .175* | ----- | .760** | .564** |
| Depression | -.375** | .094 | .760** | ----- | .584** |
| Cognitive Distortions | -.148 | .251** | .564** | .584** | ----- |

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Hypothesis II

To identify whether the severity of psychological distress (as measured by the GAD-7 and the PHQ-9) predicted health adherence behaviors in a significant and negative direction, a multiple linear regression was conducted using anxiety symptoms (as measured by the GAD-7) and depression symptoms (as measured by the PHQ-9) as the predictor variables, and health adherence behaviors (as measured by the HABIT) as the criterion variable. Tests of assumptions and multiple linear regressions were met. The Durbin-Watson statistic was equal to 1.557, indicating acceptable levels of autocorrelation.

The collinearity diagnostics demonstrated that for psychological distress, the predictor variables of anxiety and depression, there was no evidence of multicollinearity. The tolerance statistics were equal to .422. As such, multicollinearity was not a problem for these variables. Field (2009) posits that tolerance statistics with values below 0.2

suggest concern and values below 0.1 suggest serious concern. Further, the variance inflation factor was equal to 2.370. According to Field, values of 10 suggest problems with multicollinearity. As such, there was further evidence that this assumption was met.

The results of the multiple linear regression analysis revealed a multiple correlation of $R = .402$ with a coefficient of determination of $.162$ ($R^2 = .162$). This indicated that 16.2% of the variance observed could be attributed to psychological distress (depression and anxiety). Table 5 presents the results of the multiple linear regression analysis. Table 6 presents the overall regression analysis. This revealed a significant regression ($F(2,120) = 11.377, p = .000$). This suggests that the combination of the anxiety and depression (predictor variables) made a significant contribution to the prediction of health adherence behaviors; however, as shown in Table 7, further analysis through an independent examination of each predictor variable revealed that only one predictor, depression (as measured by the PHQ-9), made a significant contribution to the prediction of health adherence behaviors and in a negative direction.

Table 5

Model 1 Summary of the Predictor Variables (Anxiety and Depression) to the Criterion Variable (Health Adherence Behaviors)

| Model | R | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Std. Error of Est. | R ² Change | F Change | df1 | df2 | Sig. F Change |
|-------|------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------|-----|-----|---------------|
| 1 | .402 | .162 | .147 | 6.166 | .162 | 11.377 | 2 | 118 | .000* |

*Denotes significance

Table 6

Overall Regression Analysis with Predictor Variables (Anxiety and Depression) to the Criterion Variable (Health Adherence Behaviors)

| Model | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|--------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------|
| 1 Regression | 865.069 | 2 | 432.535 | 11.377 | .000* |
| Residual | 4486.220 | 118 | 38.019 | | |
| Total | 5351.289 | 120 | | | |

*Denotes significance

Table 7

Coefficients of Predictor Variables (Anxiety and Depression) to the Criterion Variable (Health Adherence Behaviors)

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|--------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 (constant) | 35.121 | .857 | | 41.002 | .000* | | |
| Anxiety | .310 | .181 | .222 | 1.712 | .090 | .422 | 2.370 |
| Depression | -.764 | .182 | -.544 | -4.194 | .000* | .422 | 2.370 |

*Denotes significance

Hypothesis III

A Pearson correlation was conducted to determine whether there was a significant relationship between acculturation and anxiety symptoms. Upon review, the assumptions of the Pearson product-moment correlation were met. A visual inspection of the histogram indicated a normal distribution without any significant outliers, and assumptions for linearity and homoscedasticity were demonstrated by a normal

probability plot. Results indicated that acculturation positively and significantly correlated with anxiety symptoms ($r(121) = .175$, $r^2 = .0306$, $p = .028$), indicating approximately 3.06% of the variance in anxiety can be explained by acculturation. As such, contra to the original hypothesis, the results found a significant, positive relationship between acculturation and anxiety symptoms.

Hypothesis IV

A Pearson correlation was conducted to determine whether there was a significant relationship between acculturation and frequency of cognitive distortions. In reviewing the data, the assumptions of the Pearson product-moment correlation were met. A visual inspection of the histogram indicated a normal distribution without any significant outliers, and acceptable levels of linearity and homoscedasticity were demonstrated by a normal probability plot. Results indicated that acculturation positively and significantly correlated with frequency of cognitive distortions ($r = .251$, $r^2 = .063$, $p = .003$), indicating approximately 6.30% of the variance in frequency of cognitive distortions can be explained by acculturation. As such, the hypothesis of a negative relationship was not supported, but the results found that a positive relationship was significant.

Chapter 6: Discussion

This study examined the relationship between health adherence behaviors of Filipino Americans and acculturation, frequency of cognitive distortions, and psychological distress. Previous research found significant relationships between health behaviors and these various factors in the general population (Huang, Calzada, Cheng, & Brotman, 2012; Lagman et al., 2014; Lim et al., 2012; Yoon et al., 2012). The findings from this study provided more information and support existing research regarding this particular under-researched population. Additionally, it raised further questions that future researchers may be able to examine.

Significant Findings and Clinical Implications

Results of the current study found several significant findings. There was a significant negative relationship between psychological distress and health adherence behaviors such that psychological distress could predict lower levels of adherence to medical recommendations. This supports previous findings, which would suggest that the presence of anxiety and depression symptoms impede health-related behavior because they decrease the likelihood of following through on medical recommendations (Kagee et al., 2014; Merz, Malcarne, Roesch, Riley, & Sadler 2011). This connection was important, as ethnic minority populations tend to experience heightened levels of anxiety and depression symptoms in comparison to their Caucasian counterparts, and these results indicate that these symptoms can directly affect health adherence behaviors in Filipino Americans (Settles, Navarette, Pagano, Abdou, & Sidanius, 2010; Sun et al., 2016).

The current study also examined the relationship between acculturation and anxiety. A significant positive relationship was found between anxiety and acculturation. This suggests that the more acculturated Filipino American participants were to American culture, the more likely they were to experience higher levels of anxiety symptoms. These results were surprising and did not support the hypothesis, which posited that individuals who were more acculturated to American culture would likely experience lower levels of anxiety.

It is possible that this finding is related to the theory of attachment anxiety. Brennan, C. L. Clark, and Shaver (1998) described the concept of attachment anxiety as fear of abandonment and the desire for obtaining reassurance from others. When discussing the societal views of Americans and Filipinos, the former Western culture tends to be more individualistic as compared to the latter collectivistic Eastern culture. It is possible that the collectivistic view that a more Filipino-culture oriented individual has serves as a protective factor in terms of having better perceived social support (W. Kim et al., 2010). It may be that a relative lack of perceived social support, less common to the Filipino culture in contrast to American culture, may be more salient for immigrants and first-generation Americans and may, thus, may be more profound. In other words, attachment anxiety in conjunction with an individualistic culture lends a potential explanation of the current study's findings: the more Americanized Filipino Americans are, the more anxious they may feel due to a perceived lack of social support. Interestingly, there is a gap in the research about this relationship, especially as it pertains to the Filipino American population.

Other possible explanations involve recognizing the discrepancies that may coincide with the sample population. Both the PHQ-9 and the GAD-7 are self-report measures that were norm-referenced to a sample primarily comprised of Caucasians (Kroenke et al., 2001; Spitzer et al., 2006). As such, they might not be as valid and reliable as assessment tools for anxiety and depression in Filipino Americans. Additionally, Filipino Americans specifically, and Asian Americans generally, are more likely to discuss their mental health symptoms in more physical terms (J. E. Kim & Zane, 2016). Due to the stigma of mental health concerns, these groups tend to have their symptoms manifest in more somatic ways (Sun et al., 2016).

Additionally, although the findings did not support the hypothesis of a negative relationship between level of acculturation and frequency of cognitive distortions, a significant positive relationship was determined. This indicated that participants who identified more with American culture experienced errors in thinking more often than those who identified as more Filipino, which was not hypothesized. A study regarding people with multicultural backgrounds found the experience of balancing more than one cultural context is related to increased stress levels and disruption of cognitive processes (D. Kim et al., 2006). It is possible that this multicultural experience, alone, is related to increased frequency of cognitive distortions.

Other studies have examined the concept of positive cognitive distortions, which can be defined as thinking errors that serve as coping mechanisms for individuals until they are capable of dealing with actual threats. They found that these types of cognitive distortions can be functional in regard to serving as a protective factor for people (Kendall, 1992; Kuroki, 2014; Taylor & Brown, 1988). An example of this is when a

parent receive news that his or her child has been in an accident at school, so he or she uses minimizing of the negative situation in order to arrive at the school and take appropriate action for his or her child's well-being. The cognitive distortion of minimizing in this particular situation might have been protective in the sense that the parent was able to safely and calmly do what was necessary to take care of his or her child. Another example is when a student occasionally uses a mental filter regarding grades for the purpose of striving for higher scores in order to be successful in being valedictorian. It may be that the ICD inadvertently measured these distortions as well. Although these studies demonstrated possible explanations of the current findings, there is a notable gap in the literature regarding Filipino Americans and how their cultural experiences may contribute to their frequency of cognitive distortions.

Another possible explanation for the positive relationship between acculturation and frequency of cognitive distortions could stem from the idea of *bahala na*. This is the concept that addresses the Filipino attitude of leaving everything according to God's plan (McBride, 2002). As such, Filipino individuals may experience fewer distortions or thought disruptions if they are able to apply an external locus of control to whatever situations they may find themselves in.

The current study strengthened the existing research linking psychological distress to both health adherence behaviors and cognitive distortions. Previous research examined the relationship between the ability to follow through with medical recommendations and levels of anxiety and depression, and found that health adherence behaviors were significantly decreased when psychological distress levels were heightened, as occurs with anxiety and depression (Kagee et al., 2014; Thorpe et al.,

2006). Similarly, previous researchers found that the frequency of cognitive distortions was directly related to the increased presence of anxiety, depression, and even personality disorder symptoms (D. A. Clark & A. T. Beck, 2010; Rosenfield, 2004; Yurica, 2002). Therefore, the current findings corroborated the results of previous studies, demonstrating the central role of cognition in psychological well-being. This study helped to better define the relationship between health-related behaviors, cognitive distortions, psychological distress and culture in Filipino Americans. When applying the HBM to this particular participant demographic, findings from the current study contribute to the notion that psychological distress factors, such as anxiety and depression, are strongly tied to behavioral outcomes in Filipino Americans.

Limitations

It is important to note various limitations of the current study. First, participants were gathered primarily online through convenience sampling, which narrowed the participant pool to those who had access to internet and were capable of using it. Similarly, the majority of the participants in the sample reported having completed a college education, which may limit the generalizability to the Filipino American community overall. Additionally, geographic location was primarily constrained to the Northeastern U.S. This may have impacted participants' responses to certain questions regarding acculturation and psychological distress because certain areas have larger Filipino American communities, which may model the acculturation process or provide less acculturated avenues of support. For example of the latter, there is higher residency of Filipino Americans in particular cities, such as San Francisco, California and Jersey City, New Jersey as compared to Jackson, Mississippi (RAD, 2014). Having

membership or availability to join a local ethnic community may offer protection factors to distress, such as support, acceptance, and unity, thereby influencing acculturation (I. Kim & Spencer, 2011; W. Kim et al., 2010; Kirmayer, et al., 2011).

A second identified limitation was the lack of options for a psychometrically validated acculturation scale specifically for Filipino Americans. The ASASFA is the only assessment tool of its kind in the literature that examines acculturation for Filipino Americans. Although its specificity of addressing this particular Asian subgroup benefitted the current study, the ASASFA only examined language use and preference at home, work, socially, and in media, and the preferred nationality of individuals within interpersonal relationships. It does not include ethnicity of individuals; rather, it only addresses nationality. Further, the measure does not examine specific values, beliefs, or traditions. Additionally, the tools within the study were self-report measures, which may have lent to the potential of subjective bias.

Although this variable was not assessed, a final potential limitation of this study was the awareness of the possible influence of colonial mentality (CM). Because the existing literature supports the relationship between CM and depression symptoms (David, 2008; David & Nadal, 2013; David et al., 2017), actual utilization of a CM measure would have contributed to a better understanding of how CM manifests in Filipino Americans and influences the variables under study. In this way, CM might be a mediating factor for health beliefs and adherence to health behaviors and may have explained the unexpected finding regarding depression. Similarly, the current study did not examine more traditional alternative health beliefs of Filipino Americans, which could have lent to a better understanding of the participants in the study and how that

may relate to health adherence behaviors for those in the U.S. Although these limitations were present, the current study offered insight that is relevant to acculturation, psychological distress, frequency of cognitive distortions, and health adherence behaviors in Filipino Americans.

Future Directions

As integrated health care continues to become more popular, increasing knowledge of behavioral health and information linking mental and physical health will allow clinicians to better serve their patients. Additionally, it is important to continue expanding the knowledge regarding growing ethnic minority populations, such as Filipino Americans. In moving forward, there are several ideas that can be examined. Researchers may consider taking a more in-depth look at the health status related to heterogeneity within Filipino Americans, including traditional, alternative health beliefs that they may hold. With the Philippines' vast diversity of ethnicity, religion, language, traditions, and cuisine—as influenced by the varying geography of the 7,000 islands—there is likely notable diversity linked to health behaviors and outcomes in its immigrants (Nadal, 2011; U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

Also, future studies may examine CM as it relates to health behaviors. Similarly, it might be beneficial to examine CM, well-being, and help-seeking behaviors for Filipino Americans as previous research has suggested the possible link between well-being, perceived access to health care, and likelihood of seeking mental health treatment (David & Nadal, 2013; Fung & Wong, 2007).

Conclusion

The current study found that Filipino Americans who identified as more acculturated to American culture also had a higher frequency of cognitive distortions and experienced higher levels of anxiety. Additionally, this study supported existing research indicating that higher levels of anxiety and depression predict lower adherence to health recommendation behaviors in the vibrant and burgeoning Filipino American community.

References

- Agoncillo, T. A. (2007). *Introduction to Filipino history*. Manila, Philippines: Radiant Star Publishing
- Baello, J. & Mori, L. (2007). Asian values adherence and psychological help-seeking attitudes of Filipino Americans. *Journal of Multicultural, Gender, and Minority Studies*. 1(1), 1-14.
- Baker, D. (2011). Conceptual parameters of acculturation within the Asian and Pacific Islander American populations. *Nursing Forum*, 83-93.
- Beck, A. T. (1967). *Depression: Clinical, experimental, and theoretical aspects*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Beck, A. T. (1976). *Cognitive therapy and the emotional disorders*. New York, NY: International Universities Press.
- Beck, A.T., Freeman, A., Davis, D. D., & Associates. (2004). *Cognitive therapy of personality disorders* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Beck, J. S. (2011). *Cognitive behavior therapy: Basics and beyond*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Beller, J. (2008). Iterations of the impossible: Questions of a digital revolution in the Philippines. *Postcolonial Studies*, 11(4), 435-450.
- Berry, J. W. (2005). Acculturation: Living successfully in two cultures. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 29, 697-712.
- Berry, J. W., & Hou, F. (2016). Immigrant acculturation and wellbeing in Canada. *Canadian Psychology*. 57(4), 254-264.

- Berry, J. W., Phinney, J. S., Sam, D. L. & Vedder, P. (2008). Response to Rudmin's book review of *Immigrant Youth in Cultural Transition*. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 39(4), 517-521.
- Brennan, K. A., Clark, C. L., & Shaver, P. R. (1998). Self-report measurement of adult romantic attachment: An integrative overview. In J. A. Simpson & W. Rholes (Eds.), *Attachment theory and close relationships* (p. 46-76). New York, NY: Guildford Press.
- Burns, D. D. (1980). *Feeling good: The new mood therapy*. New York, NY: The Penguin Group.
- Burns, D. D. (1990). *The feeling good handbook*. New York, NY: Plume Books.
- Burns, D. D. (1999). *The feeling good handbook* (Revised ed.). New York, NY: Plume Books.
- Chataway, C. J., & Berry, J. W. (1989). Acculturation experiences, appraisal, coping, and adaptation: A comparison of Hong Kong Chinese, French, and English students in Canada. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science / Revue canadienne des sciences du comportement*, 21(3), 295-309. doi.org/10.1037/h0079820
- Choi, Y., Tan, K. P. H., Yasui, M., & Hahm, H. C. (2016). Advancing understanding of acculturation of Asian immigrants: Person-oriented analysis of acculturation strategy among Korean American youth. *Journal of Youth Adolescence*, 45(1), 1380-1395.
- Christensen, A. J., Moran, P. J., & Wiebe, J. S. (1999). Assessment of irrational health beliefs: Relation to health practices and medical regimen adherence. *Health Psychology*, 18(2), 169-176. doi:10.1037/0278-6133.18.2.169

- Clark, D. A., & Beck, A. T. (2010). Cognitive theory and therapy of anxiety and depression: Convergence with neurobiological findings. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 14*, 218-224.
- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin, 112*(1), 155-159. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.112.1.155>
- Cohen, M., Arad, S., Lorber, M., & Pollack, S. (2007). Psychological distress, life stressors, and social support in new immigrants with HIV. *Behavioral Medicine, 33*(2), 45-54.
- Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., & Mermelstein, R. (1983). A global measure of perceived stress. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 24*, 385-396.
- David, E. J. R. (2008). A colonial mentality model of depression for Filipino Americans. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 14*(2), 118-127.
- David, E. J. R. (2010). Testing the validity of the Colonial Mentality Implicit Association Test and the interactive effects of covert and overt colonial mentality on Filipino American mental health. *Asian American Journal of Psychology, 1*(1), 31-45.
- David, E. J. R., & Nadal, K. (2013). The colonial context of Filipino American immigrants' psychological experiences. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 19*(3), 298-309.
- David, E. J. R., Sharma, D. K. B., & Petalio, J. (2017). Losing kapwa: Colonial legacies and the Filipino American family. *Asian American Journal of Psychology, 8*(1), 43-55.
- Dela Cruz, F. A., & Galang, C. B. (2007). The illness beliefs, perceptions, and practices

- of Filipino Americans with hypertension. *Journal of the American Academy of Nurse Practitioners*, 20, 118-127
- Dela Cruz, F. A., Padilla, G. V., & Agustin, E. O. (2000). Adapting a measure of acculturation for cross-cultural research. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing*, 11(3), 191-198. doi:10.1177/104365960001100305
- Dela Cruz, F. A., Padilla, G. V., & Butts, E. (1998). Search and research: Validating a short acculturation scale for Filipino-Americans. *Journal of the American Academy of Nurse Practitioners*, 10(10), 453-460.
- .De Lima Osorio, F., Mendes, A. V., Alexandre Crippa, J., & Loureiro, S. R. (2009). Study of the discriminative validity of the PHQ-9 and PHQ-2 in a sample of Brazilian women in the context of primary health care. *Perspectives in Psychiatric Care*, 45(3), 216-227.
- DiTomasso, R. A. (1997). Health Adherence Behavior Inventory.
- DiTomasso, R. A., Golden, B. A., & Morris, H. J. (Eds.). (2010). *The comprehensive handbook of cognitive-behavioral approaches in primary care*. New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company.
- DiTomasso, R.A., & Yurica, C. L. (2011). Inventory of Cognitive Distortions Manual. In publication.
- Ea, E. E., Griffin, M. Q., L'Eplattenier, N., & Fitzpatrick, J. J. (2008). Job satisfaction and acculturation among registered nurses. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 40(1), 46-51.
- Felipe, L. C. S. (2016). The relationship of colonial mentality with Filipina American

- experiences with racism and sexism. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, 7(1), 25-30.
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (3rd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Fox, R. S., Merz, E. L., Solorzano, M. T., & Roesch, S. C. (2013). Further examining Berry's model: The applicability of latent profile analysis to acculturation. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 46(4), 270-288.
- Freeman, A., & DeWolf, R. (1992). *The 10 dumbest mistakes smart people make and how to avoid them*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.
- Freeman, A., & Oster, C. (1999). Cognitive behavior therapy. In M. Hersen & A. S. Bellack (eds.). *Handbook of interventions for adult disorders* (2nd ed.), (pp. 108- 138). New York, NY: Wiley and Sons.
- Fung, K., & Wong, Y. R. (2007). Factors influencing attitudes towards seeking professional help among east and southeast Asian immigrant and refugee women. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 53(3), 216-231.
- Garcia-Campayo, J., Zamorano, E., Ruiz, M.A., Pardo, A. Perez-Paramo, M., Lopez-Gomez, V., . . . Rejas, J. (2010). Cultural adaptation into Spanish of the Generalized Anxiety Disorder-7 (GAD-7) Scale as a screening tool. *Health Quality of Life Outcomes*, 8, 8.
- Gee, G. C., Delva, J., & Takeuchi, D. T. (2007). Relationships between self-reported unfair treatment and prescription medication use, illicit drug use, and alcohol dependence among Filipino Americans. *American Journal of Public Health*, 97(5). 933-940.

- Goebert, D., Else, I., Matsu, C., Chung-Do, J., & Chang, J. Y. (2011). The impact of cyberbullying on substance use and mental health in a multiethnic sample. *Maternal and Child Health Journal, 15*, 1282-1286.
- Hall, G. C. N., & Yee, A. (2012). U.S. mental health policy: Addressing the neglect of Asian Americans. *Asian American Journal Psychology, 3*(3), 181-193.
- Henshaw, E. J., & Freedman-Doan, C. R. (2009). Conceptualizing mental health care utilization using the health belief model. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice, 16*(4), 420-439.
- Huang, K., Calzada, E., Cheng, S., & Brotman, L. M. (2012). Physical and mental health disparities among young children of Asian immigrants. *The Journal of Pediatrics, 160*, 331-336.
- Kagee, A., Steel, H., & Bonwyne, C. (2014). The relationship between structural barriers to adherence to antiretroviral therapy, psychological distress, and health-related quality of life. *South African Journal of Psychology, 44*(2), 170-179.
- Kendall, P. C. (1992). Healthy thinking. *Behavior Therapy, 23*(1), 1-11.
[doi.org/10.1016/S0005-7894\(05\)80304-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0005-7894(05)80304-1)
- Kessler, R. C., Berglund, P., Demler, O., Koretz, D., Merikangas, K. R., Rush, A. J., Walters, E. E., Wang, P. S. (2003). The epidemiology of major depressive disorder: results from the National Comorbidity Survey Replication (NCS-R). *The Journal of the American Medical Association, 289*(23), 3095-3105. doi:
[10.1001/jama.289.23.3095](https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.289.23.3095)
- Kessler, R., & Mroczek, D. (1992). *An update of the development of mental health*

screening scales for the US national health interview study. Ann Arbor, MI: Survey Research Center of the Institute for Social Research. University of Michigan.

Kim, D., Sarason, B. R., & Sarason, I. G. (2006). Implicit social cognition and culture: Explicit and implicit psychological acculturation, and distress of Korean-American young adults. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 25*(1), 1-32.

Kim, G., Loi, C. X. A., Chiriboga, D. A., Jang, Y., Parmelee, P., & Allen, R. S. (2011). Limited English proficiency as a barrier to mental health service use: A study of Latino and Asian immigrants with psychiatric disorders. *Journal of Psychiatric Research, 4*, 104-110.

Kim, I., & Spencer, M. S. (2011). Heavy drinking, perceived discrimination, and immigration status among Filipino Americans. *Substance Use & Misuse, 46*, 1256-1264.

Kim, J. E., & Zane, N. (2016). Help-seeking intentions among Asian American and White American students in psychological distress: Application of the health belief model. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 22*(3), 331-321.

Kim, S. B. (2017). Unraveling the determinants to colorectal cancer screening among Asian Americans: A systematic literature review. *Journal of Racial and Ethnic Health Disparities*. doi.org/10.1007/s40615-017-0413-6

Kim, W., Kim, I., & Nochajski, T. H. (2010). Risk and protective factors of alcohol use disorders among Filipino Americans: Location of residence matters. *The American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, 36*, 214-219.

Kirmayer, L. J., Narasiah, L., Munoz, M., Rashid, M., Ryder, A. G., Guzker, J., . . .

Pottie, K. (2011). Common mental health problems in immigrants and refugees: General approach in primary care. *Canadian Medical Association Journal, 183*(12), E959-E967.

Knouse, L. E., & Mitchell, J. T. (2015). Incautiously optimistic: Positively-valenced cognitive avoidance in adult ADHD. *Cognitive Behavioral Practice, 22*(2), 192-202.

Kohrt, B. A., Luitel, N. P., Acharya, P., & Jordans, M. J. (2016). Detection of depression in low resource settings: Validation of the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9) and cultural concepts of distress in Nepal. *BMC Psychiatry, 16*(1), 1-15.

Kroenke, K., Spitzer, R., & Williams, W. (2001). The PHQ-9: Validity of a brief depression severity measure. *Journal of General Internal Medicine, 16*, 606-616.

Kuo, B. C. H. (2014). Coping, acculturation, and psychological adaptation among migrants: A theoretical and empirical review and synthesis of the literature. *Health Psychology & Behavioural Medicine, 2*(1), 16-33, Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/21642850.2013.843459>

Kuroki, Y. (2014). Risk factors for suicidal behaviors among Filipino Americans: A data mining approach. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 85*(1), 34-42.

Lagman, R. A., Yoo, G. J., Levine, E. G. Donnell, K. A., & Lim, H. R. (2014). "Leaving it to God:" Religion and spirituality among Filipino immigrant breast cancer survivors. *Journal of Religious Health, 53*, 449-460.

- Laus, V. (2012). An exploratory study of social connections and drug usage among Filipino Americans. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health, 15*(6), 1096-1106.
- Leader, A. E., Monhanty, S., Selvan, P., Lum, R., & Giri, V. N. (2018). Exploring Asian Indian and Pakistani views about cancer and participation in cancer genetics research: Toward the development of a community genetics intervention. *Journal of Community Genetics, 9*, 27-35. Retrieved from <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s12687-017-0312-x>
- Lim, J. Baik, O. M., & Ashing-Giwa, K. T. (2012). Cultural health beliefs and health behaviors in Asian American breast cancer survivors: A mixed-methods approach. *Oncology Nursing Forum, 39*(4), 388-397.
- Lotrakul, M., Sumrithe, S., & Saipanish, R. (2008). Reliability and validity of the Thai version of the PHQ-9. *BMC Psychiatry, 8*(1), 1-7.
- Lowe, B., Decker, O., Muller, S., Brahler, E., Schellberg, D., Herzog, W., & Herzberg, P. Y. (2008). Validation and Standardization of the Generalized Anxiety Disorder Screener (GAD-7) in the general population. *Medical Care, 46*(3), 266-274.
- Ma, G. X., Gao, W., Fang, C. Y., Tan, Y., Feng, Z., Ge, S., & Nguyen, J. A. (2013). Health beliefs associated with cervical cancer screening among Vietnamese Americans. *Journal of Women's Health, 22*(3), 276-288.
- Marin, G., Sabogal, F., Marin, B. V., Otero-Sabogal, R., & Perez-Stable, E. J. (1987). Development of a short acculturation scale for Hispanics. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 9*(2), 183-205. doi/10.1177/07399863870092005

- McBride, M. (2002). Health and health care of Filipino American elders. *Stanford Geriatric Education Center, Stanford University School of Medicine*. Retrieved from <http://www.stanford.edu/groups/ethnoger/filipino.html>
- Mena, J., Padilla, F., Maldonado, A. (1987). Development of a short acculturation scale for Hispanics. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 9(2), 183-205. doi/10.1177/07399863870092005
- Merz, E. L., Malcarne, V. L., Roesch, S. C., Riley, N., & Sadler, G. R. (2011). A multigroup confirmatory factor analysis of the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 among English- and Spanish-speaking Latinas. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 17(3), 309-316. doi:10.1037/a0023883
- Millon, T., Davis, R., & Millon, C. (1997). *MCMI-III manual* (2nd ed.). Minneapolis, MN: National Computer Systems.
- Mills, S. D., Fox, R. S., Malcarne, V. L., Roesch, S. C., Champagne, B. R., & Sadler, G. R. (2014). The psychometric properties of the Generalized Anxiety Disorder-7 scale in Hispanic Americans with English or Spanish language preference. *Cultural Diversity Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 20(3), 463-468.
- Moore, S. (2010). Nonadherence in patients with breast cancer receiving oral therapies. *Clinical Journal of Oncology Nursing*, 14(1), 41-47.
- Mukhtar, O., Weinman, J., & Jackson, S. H. D. (2014). Intentional non-adherence to medications by older adults. *Drugs & Aging*, 31, 149-157.
- Nadal, K. L. (2000). F/Pilipino American substance abuse: Sociocultural factors and methods of treatment. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education*, 1, 26-36.

- Nadal, K. L. (2009). *Filipino American psychology: A handbook of theory, research, and clinical practice*. Bloomington, IN: AuthorHouse.
- Nadal, K. L. (2011). *Filipino American psychology: A handbook of theory, research, and clinical practice*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
doi:10.1002/9781118094747
- Park, S., Anastas, J., Shibusawa, T., & Nguyen, D. (2014). The impact of acculturation and acculturative stress on alcohol use across Asian immigrant subgroups. *Substance Use & Misuse, 49*, 922-931.
- Parke, D. E. (2004). *Development and validation of an instrument to predict nonadherence to medical treatment regimens* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine Digital Commons.
- Pido, A. J. (1986). *The Pilipinos in America: Macro/micro dimensions of immigration and integration*. New York, NY: Center for Migration Studies.
- Roberts, M. (2015). *Inventory of cognitive distortions: Validation of a measure of cognitive distortions using a community sample* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine Digital Commons.
- Rockefeller Foundation-Aspen Institute Diaspora Program. (2014). The Filipino diaspora in the United States. *Migration Policy Institute, 1*, 1-13.
- Rosenfield, B. M. (2004). *Relationship between cognitive distortions and psychological disorders across diagnostic axes* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine Digital Commons.
- Rosenstock, I. M. (1990). The Health Belief Model: Explaining health behavior through expectancies. *Health Behavior and Health Education, (pp. 41-59)*.

- Rudmin, F. W. (2006). Debate in science: The case of acculturation. *AnthroGlobe Journal*. Retrieved from http://malinowski.kent.ac.uk/docs/rudminf_acculturation_061204.pdf
- Ruzek, N. A., Nguyen, D. Q., & Herzog, D. C. (2011). Acculturation, enculturation, psychological distress and help-seeking preferences among Asian American college students. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, 2(3), 181-196.
- Schwartz, S. J., Unger, J. B., Zamboanga, B. L., & Szapocznik, J. (2010). Rethinking the concept of acculturation: implications for theory and research. *American Psychology*, 65(4), 237-251. doi:10.1037/a0019330.
- Settles, I. H., Navarette, C. D., Pagano, S. J., Abdou, C. M., & Sidanius, J. (2010). Racial identity and depression among African American women. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 16(2), 248-255.
- Shih, R. A., Tucker, J. S., Miles, J. N. V., Ewing, B. A., Pedersen, E. R., & D'Amico, E. J. (2015). Differences in substance use and substance use risk factors by Asian subgroups. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, 6(1), 38-46.
- Shim, Y. R., & Schwartz, R. C. (2008). Degree of acculturation and adherence to Asian values as correlates of psychological distress among Korean immigrants. *Journal of Mental Health*, 17(6), 607-617.
- Spitzer, R. L., Kroenke K., Williams J. B. W., & Lowe B. (2006). A brief measure for assessing generalized anxiety disorder. *Archive of Internal Medicine*, 166, 1092-1097.
- Spitzer, R. L., Williams, J. B. W., Kroenke, K., Hornyak, R., & McMurray, J. (2000). Validity and utility of the Patient Health Questionnaire in assessment of 3000

obstetrics-gynecologic patients. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 183, 759-769.

Stankiewicz, C. C. (2008). *Examination of health adherence behaviors and cognitive distortions in patients with chronic illness* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine Digital Commons.

Stewart, A. L., Hays, R. C., & Ware, J. E. Jr. (1988). Reliability and validity in a patient population. *Medical Care*, 26(7), 724-735.

Sun, S., Hoyt, W. T., Brockberg, D., Lam, J., & Tiwari, D. (2016). Acculturation and enculturation as predictors of psychological help-seeking attitudes (HSAs) among racial and ethnic minorities: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 63(6), 617-632.

Taylor, S. E. and Brown, J. D. (1988). Illusion and well-being. A social psychological perspective on mental health. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103, 193-210.

Thorpe, J. M., Kalinowski, C. T., Patterson, M. E., & Sleath, B. L. (2006). Psychological distress as a barrier to preventative care in community-dwelling elderly in the United States. *Medical Care*, 44(2), 187-191.

Toleran, D. E., Tran, P. D., Cabangun, B., Lam, J., Battle, R. S., & Gardiner, P. (2012). Substance use among Chinese, Filipino, and Vietnamese adult men living in San Jose, Daly City, and San Francisco, and its implications on ATOD prevention services. *Journal of Ethnicity in Substance Abuse*, 11, 86-99.

- Torres, L., Driscoll, M. W., & Voell, M. (2012). Discrimination, acculturation, acculturative stress, and Latino psychological distress: A moderated mediation model. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 18*(1), 17-25.
- Tuason, M. T. G., Ancheta, I. B., & Battie, C. A. (2014). What impacts the psychological health of Filipino American women? *Asian American Journal of Psychology, 5*(4), 307-315.
- Uhl, J. K. (2007). *Relationship between cognitive distortions and psychological and behavioral factors in a family medicine outpatient sample* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine Digital Commons.
- United States Census Bureau. (2010). *2010 Census summary file 1* [data file]. Retrieved from <http://2010.census.gov/news/press-kits/summary-file-1.html>.
- United States Census Bureau. (2012). *The Asian population: 2010*. Retrieved from www.census.gov/prod/cen2010/briefs/c2010br-11.pdf
- Weissman, A. N., & Beck, A. T. (1978). *Development and validation of the dysfunctional attitude scale: A preliminary investigation*. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Toronto.
- Yoo, H. C., Gee, G. C., & Takeuchi, D. (2009). Discrimination and health among Asian American immigrants: Disentangling racial from language discrimination. *Social Science & Medicine, 68*, 726-732.
- Yoon, E., Chang, C. T., Kim, S., Clawson, A., Cleary, S. E., Hansen, M., Bruner, J. P., Chan, T. K., & Gomes, A. (2012). A meta-analysis of acculturation/enculturation and mental health. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 60*(1), 15-30.

Yurica, C. (2002). *Inventory of cognitive distortions: Validation of a psychometric test for the measurement of cognitive distortions* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine Digital Commons.

Yurica, C., & DiTomasso, R. (2002). *Inventory of Cognitive Distortions*.

Zhong, Q., Gelaye, B., Fann, J. R., Sanchez, S. E., & Williams, M. A. (2014). Cross-cultural validity of the Spanish version of PHQ-9 among pregnant Peruvian women: A Rasch item response theory analysis. *Journal of Affective Disorder, 158*(1), 148-153.