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The Protective Role of Ethnic-Racial Socialization and Ethnic-Racial Identity on Academic Outcomes among a Diverse Sample of Emerging Adult Immigrants in the United States

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The Protective Role of Ethnic-Racial Socialization and Ethnic-Racial Identity on Academic

Outcomes among a Diverse Sample of Emerging Adult Immigrants in the United States

A Dissertation Project

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By

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Author Note

Dedication

To the emerging adult immigrants who voluntarily participated in this study. My appreciation

goes beyond words. Without your vulnerability and strength to share part of your stories, this work

would not have been possible.

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Abstract

This study sought to address an existing gap in research literature by exploring the impact of family ethnic-racial socialization and ethnic-racial identity on family separation, the length-of-time living in the United States (US), perceptions of discrimination as well as stereotype threat, and academic outcomes among young adult immigrants to the US. A sample of 96 English-speaking immigrant-origin emerging adults (aged 18-25) from ethnically diverse backgrounds completed electronic self-report questionnaires. A Pearson's correlational analysis found ethnic-racial identity to be significantly and positively related to ethnic-racial socialization, perceived stereotype threat, and academic outcomes. Additionally, a Linear regression analysis was conducted using length-of-time in the US, ethnic-racial socialization, and the interaction of both as predictor variables and academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and GPA) as dependent variables. This interaction had a significant effect only on academic self-efficacy. Also, a t-test found no significant difference in ethnic-racial identity between participants experiencing family separation and those who were not. Instead, a Person's correlational analysis found that ethnic-racial socialization predicted ethnic-racial identity regardless of family separation. In sum, findings from the current study suggest that ethnic-racial socialization experiences have a substantial impact on ethnic-racial identity, and both have a significant influence on academic outcomes; ethnic-racial socialization plays an important role in the face of family separation; and ethnic-racial identity has a critical influence on perceived stereotype threat. Also, current findings highlight the significance race and gender may have in perceived discriminatory experiences and academic self-efficacy development (respectively). Implications for research and practice are discussed.

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Chapter I: Introduction

The process of adjusting or adapting to the mainstream culture in the United States (U.S.) can be difficult and fraught but acculturation may be particularly difficult for adolescents and emerging young adults. Acculturation refers to the process of change experienced by individuals, such as immigrants or refugees, in response to the impact of the host culture (Casas & Pytluk, 1995). To acculturate into a different culture, immigrants often must learn novice lifestyles, including new interpersonal expectations, cultural parameters, and a new system of rules and beliefs (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006; Berry, 2002). Consequently, immigrants frequently are challenged to integrate the dominant culture into their own traditional cultural perspectives (Berry, 2002). There are several additional complex stressors that often characterizes the immigration process and impact the mental health, quality of life, and well-being of immigrant populations (Chung, Bemak, Ortiz, & Sandoval-Perez, 2008). During acculturation, immigrants are often forced to adjust to separation from family and exposure to ethnic-racial discrimination from the host culture, while also navigating the normative developmental challenges of adolescence and emerging adulthood, such as ethnic-racial identity development and academic achievement (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). In addition to navigating the challenging developmental stages of adolescence and emerging adulthood, immigrants frequently must navigate "between the often-conflicting values and developmental goals of their home and host cultures, in a discriminatory context" (Motti-Stefanido, 2018, p. 99).

Not all adolescent and emerging young adult immigrants, however, who are exposed to such developmental hurdles experience behavioral health difficulties. Little is known about the protective factors for adolescent and emerging adult immigrants during acculturation process in the U.S. Until recently, the unique conditions of immigrant adolescents and emerging adults have been widely ignored and research on the immigration experience is scarce (Suárez-

Orozco et al., 2006). This makes a critical need for better understanding of the protective factors, which increases probability of positive outcomes in presence of risk factors, and its mechanisms for immigrant youth and emerging young adults' well-being in our society. This study focused on whether family ethnic-racial socialization, ethnic-racial identity, and perceived ethnic-racial discrimination and negative ability stereotypes, impacts academic resilience among adolescents and emerging adults who were born in another country and immigrated to the U.S.

Previous literature frequently used the term *immigrant* to describe three different groups of individuals. A "first-generation immigrant" has often been referred to as an individual who was born in another country (i.e., foreign-born) (Smith, Thelamour, & Booth, 2020; Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, & Suárez-Orozco, 2011) and "second-generation immigrant" typically indicates that the individual was born in the United States to at least one foreign-born parent (Zong & Batalova, 2016; U.S. Census Bureau, 2021). The concern in the current study is with the former. It is important to note that "first-generation immigrant" has also been used to describe an individual who is the first generation in their family to be born in the United States. Within the U.S. foreign-born population, approximately 80% are non-White and 11.7% who entered the U.S. in year 2010 or later are between the ages 18-24, which is double the percentage of those who entered before year 2000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2021). In year 2021, approximately, one-fourth of youth under the age of 17 in the U.S. were growing up in immigrant homes (U.S. Census Bureau, 2021). The representation of host countries has changed with the increasing, and often unprecedented, rates of immigration. In host countries, the highest and lowest socioeconomic societies are often represented by the immigrant population (Portes & Rumbaut, 2001). According to Motti-Stefanido (2018), this has highlighted the need to facilitate immigrants' integration into their new

communities, which is important not only for immigrants' well-being but also for host societies' prosperity and social cohesiveness.

During acculturation, immigrant youth are often forced to adjust to separation from family and exposure to ethnic discrimination from the host culture while also navigating the normative developmental tasks of adolescence, such as exploring ethnic-racial identity and achieving in academics. In early life, if one fails to adapt to life circumstances, this could potentially lead to negative future consequences (Masten, 2014).

During immigration, before arriving in the United States, numerous immigrants experience premigration trauma (Chung, Bemak, Ortiz, & Sandoval-Perez, 2008) and immigrant families often experience overwhelming transformations. For example, major stressors for Caribbean parents who immigrate to the United States include, but are not limited to, the cultural disconnection between their traditions in parenting as well as socialization and the mainstream parenting style in the host culture in the U.S.; racial marginalization; loss of parental authority of their adolescent children, conflicts in parenting styles; and their children's assimilation into the mainstream culture. Consequently, Caribbean youth, particularly adolescents, may experience increased parent-child conflict and heighted levels of distress (Roopnarine and Shin, 2003; Baptiste et al., 1997; Leo-Rhynie, 1997). Also, immigration is frequently complicated by extended periods of separation between family members, including extended and nuclear, loss of social support networks, loss of cultural and community identity, and loss of one's ability to hep financially support family members who remain in the immigrant's country of origin (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Louie, 2002; Bemak, Chung, & Pedersen, 2003).

Suárez-Orozco and colleagues (2006) described immigration as "one of the most stressful events a family can undergo. It removes family members from many of their relationships and

predictable contexts- community ties, jobs, customs, and (often) language. Immigrants are stripped of many of their significant relationships--- extended family members, best friends, and neighbors. They also lose the social roles that provide them with culturally scripted notions of how they fit into the world. Initially, without a sense of competence, control, and belonging, many immigrants will feel marginalized. These changes in relationships, contexts, and roles are highly disorientating and nearly inevitably lead to a keen sense of loss" (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006, p. 60). Given the number of challenges often endured during immigration, many immigrants experience a variety of psychological problems. For example, most frequently, immigrants experience an array of feelings ranging from mild sadness to depression to perpetual mourning regarding the cumulative losses of loved ones and familiar contexts. Some immigrants experience anxiety and disorientation from losing predictable environmental context and from the overall conflict between their traditional culture worldview and the dominant culture of the host country (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). For others, their decision to immigrate and to leave their families leave some immigrants experiencing doubts and guilt (Bemak & Chung, 2008a). In general, as a result of their pre-immigration experiences and post-immigration challenges, some immigrants have problems related to depression, anxiety, posttraumatic stress disorder, substance use, and family violence (Benmak et al., 2003; Chung & Benmak, 2007b).

The process of family reunification is a long, often painful, and disorienting ordeal for majority of immigrant youth. Data derived from the Longitudinal Immigrant Student Adaptation Study (LISA) revealed that 85 percent of the youth underwent separation from one or both parents from six months to more than 10 years (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Louie, 2002, as cited in Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). Thus, during the migratory process, family separation is a normative part. Often, if the immigrant youth becomes attached to the caretaker they were left

with in the country of origin, they will likely experience a mixture of feelings; thus, while happy about the prospect of "regaining" their parents, they might also experience significant feelings of loss when called on to join their parents and lose contact with the caretaker(s) to whom they have become attached. Consequently, during family reunification, immigrant youth may experience a low sense of belonging.

In early childhood, culture factors are typically learned as common social practices that help make life predictable for an individual; however, following immigration to a new country, the flow of culture practices tends to dramatically change. When immigrant youth and parents are reunifying in new settings, mutual calibrations are required. Depending upon the duration of the separation, the family might need to get reacquainted. When the reunification process involves immigrant youth who were separated from parents during early childhood, the youth may essentially be meeting their parents and therefore the process may require more than becoming reacquainted (Suarez-Orobezco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). Moreover, during the reunification process, immigrant youth often enter new family constellations, which may consist of stepparents, stepsiblings, and siblings they have never met (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). Subsequently, after immigrating to a new country and possibly reunifying (or "meeting") with family, immigrants frequently feel culture disorientation, without a sense of cultural competence, control, and belonging (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006), which could lead to poor well-being, such as self-identity confusion and low self-confidence during adolescence and emerging adulthood.

Racial discrimination, in particular, is a psychosocial stressor, and for minority adolescents, it has significant negative impacts on their mental health and wellbeing (Clark, Anderson, Clark, & Williams, 1999; Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). Furthermore, perceived racial

discrimination, which refers to "the subjective experience of being treated unfairly relative to others based on one's race" (Sanchez, Bently-Edwards, Matthews, & Granillo, 2016, p. 285), may have detrimental effects on immigrant youth's adaptive development in the United States. Moreover, when examining Black youth and adults, the negative mental health consequences linked to perceived racial discrimination seems to be stronger for Black youth compared to Black adults (Lee & Ahn, 2013). Similarly, the Longitudinal Immigrant Student Adaptation Study (LISA) researched discrimination on the psychological well-being of immigrant youth living in the United States. Results from the study showed that 39 percent of the youth reported that they have been discriminated against in the U.S. (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006**).** Frequency of experienced discrimination was correlated with higher levels of psychological symptoms. Likewise, research indicates that it is extremely difficult for Black and Hispanic immigrant youth to identify with their ethnic-racial identity due to negative identity-related intellectual stereotypes that they often experience in the United States. To establish a healthy ethnic-racial identity, Black and Hispanic youth must resolve positive and negative messages about their ethnic identity and intelligence (Smith et al., 2020).

Academic experiences contribute to students' health and shape their attitude toward the school and toward their value of education (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). Subsequently, this could influence the degree to which students engage in health-impairing behaviors. A discouraging attitude toward school may encourage oppositional behavior, such as aggression, smoking, using alcohol, and using drugs. At the same time, a stressful school environment marked by feelings of academic pressure, danger, discrimination, and a lack of supportive relationships can have a direct impact on students' well-being, as they may begin to feel that the demands of the setting are strenuous on their ability to cope (Karatzias, Power, Flemming,

& Lennan, 2002). For example, Caribbean immigrant youth face some of the same educational problems as non-immigrant African Americans and Latinx youth. They sense discrimination based on their identification at school, where teachers have low expectations of them, which may jeopardize their academic success (Smith, Thelamour, & Booth, 2020; Jones & Neblett, 2017). In these schools, if immigrant students have limited to no English proficiency, they are often enrolled in the least demanding and competitive classes that eventually exclude them from courses needed for college. Moreover, in under-resourced schools, there is generally not an extensive offer of advanced-placement courses that are critical for entry in many of the more competitive colleges (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006).

Research shows that immigrating during adolescence places immigrant youth at a certain disadvantage in their education (Ruiz-de-Valasco, Fix, & Clewell, 2001). Thus, the needs of primary school students are typically the focus of school-based programs that are geared towards immigrant youth (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). Many immigrants who immigrate during adolescence face several often-insurmountable challenges. They are frequently denied credit for earlier course work completed in their native countries. They may enroll in schools that are not established with second-language learners in mind. For example, the school may not have accommodations for second-language learners for standardized testing. Older immigrant youth may have had lengthier gaps in their previous education and hence join school significantly behind their peers. (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). Consequently, there are concerningly high dropout rates among older adolescent immigrants (Suárez-Orozco, 2001). For those adolescent immigrants who are able to graduate secondary education, if they do not have documented status in the host country, they often face several obstacles when pursing higher education (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006).

Previous research examining academic outcomes among immigrant students in the United States demonstrate that when arriving in the U.S., immigrant students tend to express positive attitudes toward education (Fuligini, 1997; Kao & Tienda, 1995; Portes & Rumbaut, 2001; Steinberg, Brown, & Dornbusch, 1996; Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001). In a setting of insurmountable obstacles, identity threats, and psychological distress, it is challenging to maintain positive attitudes toward education. Given these toxic circumstances, many immigrant youth do not continue to invest in education as a means of upward mobility; and, for those who do engage in school as a method of status mobility, naturally, immigrant youth must utilize significant amounts of their psychic energy to defend against these attacks on their sense of self (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). Therefore, stress in the educational setting is a major contributor to students' health problems and psychosomatic symptoms, and it has an impact on them through a blend of individual and contextual factors (Torseheim & Wold, 2001).

On the other hand, the educational setting can provide beneficial health information and self-esteem (Karatzias et al., 2002) and social support, which can serve as protective factors for the well-being of students (Samdal, Nutbeam, Wold, Kannas, 1998). Furthermore, immigrant youth may be at risk for environmental factors such as separation from family, exposure to ethnic discrimination or identity confusion, and academic challenges during acculturation (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006); however, not all adolescent immigrants who are exposed to such factors develop mental or behavioral health difficulties. Little is known, however, about the protective factors for older adolescent immigrants during acculturation. Until recently, the unique conditions of immigrant youth have been widely ignored. Comparative research (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2006) on the immigration experience is scarce. This makes a critical need for better understanding of the protective factors, which increases probability of positive outcomes in

presence of risk factors, and its mechanisms for adolescents and emerging adult immigrants' well-being in our society.

To bridge this gap, this project explored psychological and behavioral differences among ethnic-minority emerging adult immigrants living in the United States (U.S.). In this study, *immigrant*, is defined as an individual who voluntarily migrated (Chung, Bemak, Ortiz, & Sandoval-Perez, 2008), and individuals between the ages of 18 to 25 are classified as *emerging* adults, since the development of their identity continues into emerging adulthood (Smith et al., 2020). In a study conducted by Tauriac and Liem (2012) examining divergent academic outcomes among U.S.-origin and immigrant-origin Black undergraduates, results illustrated an achievement gap between both groups that appeared to begin in high school (or earlier). During high school, immigrant-origin students demonstrated significantly higher grades, which in turn influenced college persistence. Findings suggest that giving more attention to academic experiences that occur before college is critical to enhance college perseverance. Moreover, before reaching a campus at an institute of higher education, interventions must be initiated for academically stigmatized Black students (Tauriac & Liem, 2012). Much of the research discussed in this study deals with both the experiences of adolescent (aged 14-18) and emerging adult immigrants (aged 18-25) simultaneously, since similar experiences can be applied to emerging adulthood.

The current study focuses on emerging adulthood and aims to identify protective factors that will foster an adaptive development for adolescent immigrants in the United States. Rather than taking a conventional problem-focused approach, which focuses on the risks, deficits, and vulnerabilities, the current study will utilize a strength-based approach, which concentrates mainly on protective factors, resilience, and positive outcomes, which is similar to previous research (Motti-Stefanido, 2018). Examining the relationship between family factors (i.e., ethnic-racial

socialization), self-factors (i.e., ethnic-racial identity as well as length of stay in the U.S.) and academic outcomes, as well as risk experiences (discrimination and negative ability stereotype threat) among ethnic-minority emerging adult immigrants will highlight variances in risks and well-being. Consequently, results could help identify successful prevention factors that focus on building protective factors and resilience among ethnic-minority immigrant youth living in the United States.

Chapter II: Literature Review

Socialization

Socialization refers to a process through which individuals convey implicit and explicit messages and teach children about what it means to be a member of their culture group, such as a racial and/or ethnic group (Niblett Jr, Rivas-Drake, & Umaña-Taylor, 2012). Through engagement with sociocultural relations, individuals can make meaning of their identity (Bhatia & Ram, 2001). Socialization is particularly important for youth who immigrate to the US from another country to instill positive messages about their home culture group (Lambert, Rose, Saleem, & Caldwell, 2020; Brown & Tylka, 2011). Therefore, socialization may also be described as a form of (social) support. Research shows that (social) support involves providing psychological and material resources (Cohen & Wills, 1985), which in turn, can foster self-esteem, positive affect, life satisfaction, and socio-emotional adjustment (Bush, Bean, McKenry, & Wilson, 2003; Shannon, Oakes, Scheers, Richardson, & Stills, 2013). Social support may be a buffer against stress in two main ways. For one, social support might help individuals not perceive a situation as stressful. Additionally, social support could help with problem solving, appropriately using minimization rather than catastrophizing, or promoting adaptive responses in stressful situations (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Support may have an essential role in socialization, particularly within family.

Family Socialization

Family and school are two important agents of socialization for shaping adolescent development. These agents are a few of the interrelated settings adolescents are connected to, and subsequently interact to influence adolescence (Rose, McDonald, Von Mach, Witherspoon, & Lambert, 2019). Parent-child connections are critical in shaping adolescents' development of a healthy sense of self, mastery, and competence (Erikson, 1968). Therefore, family is an important source of connectedness during adolescence (Grusec, 2011). Research demonstrates that family

connectedness has been linked to several positive developmental outcomes, such as wellbeing, fewer risk behaviors, greater satisfaction with life, mastery, and social cheerfulness (Jose, Ryan, & Pryor, 2012; Ackard, Neumark-Sztainer, Story, & Perry, 2006; Fadda, Scalas, & Meleddu, 2015).

Rose and colleagues (2019) utilized data from the National Survey of American Life-Adolescent (NSAL-A) to examine patterns of social connectedness and psychosocial wellbeing among African American and Caribbean Black Adolescents. The sample was composed of 1170 Black adolescents ages 13- 17. The results indicated that the well-connected profile, characterized by connection to family, peer, school, religion, and neighborhood settings, had significantly higher life satisfaction, self-esteem, mastery, and coping, and lower perceived stress compared to the unconnected and minimal connection profiles, and lower depressive symptoms than the unconnected profile. The youth in the unconnected profile had significantly lower self-esteem and mastery and significantly higher depressive symptoms than the minimally connected youth. The results indicate that social connectedness among Black Caribbean youth can influence psychosocial wellbeing. Consistently, previous research suggested that among Black adolescents, support is related to the decrease of depressive symptoms, social anxiety, and loneliness (Margolin, 2006).

Prior research also has shown that parents can serve as buffers against the difficulties related to immigration and assist with protecting their children from the development of mental health problems (Alegría, Sribney, Woo, Torres, & Guarnaccia, 2007; Mendo- za, Javier, & Burgos, 2007; Qin, 2006; Suárez- Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001 as cited in Suárez-Orozco, Onaga, & Lardemelle, 2010). Family separation during immigration can be a painful process for some youth, contributing to high reports of depressive symptoms (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, &

Louie, 2002). Direct and indirect messages from parent, loves ones, and caretakers, or family socialization, play a critical role in the way immigrant youth makes meaning of the separation from family and the separation being more manageable (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006).

In addition to supporting with adapting to family separation during the acculturation process, research demonstrates that the family socialization process can also impact immigrant youth's response to stress. Goosby and colleagues (2012) examined ways that family processes in response to stress differ interracially in African-American and Black Caribbean families living in the U.S. Findings suggested that Black Caribbean youth may be socialized to rely on other interpersonal relationships when their parents are facing stress to maintain psychological well-being. Furthermore, findings highlighted the value in a positive family socialization for Black Caribbean youth living in the U.S. In an family environment characterized by tension around youth acculturation, findings indicated that Black Caribbean youth may be especially vulnerable to depressive symptoms. For example, Georgiades and colleagues' (2007) research suggested that in West Indian immigrant families, conflict about cultural beliefs and values between parents and children led to hostile parenting and youth maladjustment. Black Caribbean adolescents' perceived-stress often increases and ineffective parenting in depressed parents is higher when experiencing inter-generational conflict about values and beliefs, frequently leading to increased depression symptoms among adolescents (Goosby, Caldwell, Bellatorre, & Jackson, 2012). In addition, Crockett and colleagues (2007), examined the relationship between acculturative stress, social support, and coping among 148 college students who identified as Mexican or Mexican American origin or decent. Included in the measurement of social support was parental support, which assessed components of companionship, instrumental help, intimacy, affection, and enhancement of worth. Also, the active coping measure reflected topics similar to self-efficacy,

such as positive reframing. Findings indicated that parental support and active coping buffered the effects of high acculturative stress on anxiety symptoms and depressive symptoms.

Research shows that family socialization can also influence academic outcomes among immigrant youth. A study focusing on parental involvement in youth's education found that students' engagement, performance, and adaptation to school is remarkably influenced by parents' involvement in their schooling (Henderson & Mapp, 2002). In a study that examined the influence of significant relationships on academic outcomes among newcomer immigrant youth, family relationships, overall, were identified as essential in supporting academic performance (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009). In particular, many of the participants reported that their relationship with their family influenced their academic and behaviors decisions (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009). Similarly, a study examined data from the Longitudinal Immigrant Student Adaptation Study (LISA), which focuses on the patterns of adaptation of 407 recently arrived ethnic-minority immigrant youth over the course of five years. The findings suggest that supportive relationships significantly mediate the academic engagement and outcomes of immigrant youth (Suárez-Orozco, Rhodes, & Milburn, 2009).

Peer Socialization

Peers are also an important source of socialization during the acculturation process for adolescents and young adults. Peers can provide emotional, informational, and instrumental support for students (Crockett, Iturbide, Stone, McGinley, Raffaelli, & Carlo, 2007), indicating that part of the developmental process of adolescence and emerging adulthood is to focus on peer relationships. Furthermore, social referencing may be heightened among emerging adults who immigrated from another country and are trying to learn the norms of the new culture. Kanno and Varghese (2010) findings indicated that social referencing is an important form of social capital

among English as a second language (ESL) college students. It was through social referencing that many of their ESL participants learned which courses to take, where to get financial aid information, and how to navigate the university system. In addition, peers tend to set the "norms" of academic engagement given that peers value certain academic outcomes and model specific academic behaviors (Berndt, 1999); therefore, immigrant youth who are trying to learn the norms of the host society may have an increased susceptibility to peer influence.

In a study that examined the association between acculturative stress and psychological functioning among a sample of college students who identified as Mexican or Mexican American origin or decent, findings suggested that peer support moderated the relation between acculturative stress and anxiety symptoms (Crockett et al., 2007). Similarly, Suárez-Orozco et al. (2009) examined the influence of significant relationships on academic outcomes among newcomer immigrant youth. Peer relationships, overall, were identified as having a positive impact on academic outcomes (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009). In particular, "peers were often described as providing an emotional sense of belonging and acceptance, as well as tangible help with homework assignments, language translations, and orientation to school" (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009, p. 730). In addition, newcomer immigrant students reported that establishing relationships with peers in their school not only helped them acclimate to school culture, but served as important sources for support, guidance, and protection. Similar to other studies, findings from the study indicated that peer relationships served as buffers to loneliness and embarrassment and bolstered self-confidence and self-efficacy among newcomer immigrant students (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009). Furthermore, peer relationships in academic settings can support the development of critical psychosocial developments.

Although many immigrant youths described peer socializations as beneficial for creating

norms in the academic setting and serving as an example of good academic behavior (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009), results showed that peer socialization distracted other immigrant youth from accomplishing optimal academic performance. Three of the most commonly aspects cited by immigrant youth regarding negative peer influence on academic performance were the following: being invited to skip classes, encouraged to use illicit substances, as well as the pressure from being teased for their desire to study (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, et al., 2009). The findings indicate that peer-socialization may encourage substance use, promote maladaptive school behavior, and deter academic engagement. Furthermore, peers can play a significant role in creating dangerous school and community settings. Such environments can impair students' ability to focus, their sense of safety, and their ability to develop trustworthy relationships in school (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, et al., 2009). Similar results have been found regarding acculturative stress and social support among college students. Crockett and colleagues (2007) examined psychological adjustments among Latino college students and the findings suggested that support from parents compared to peer support is more likely to buffer the impact of acculturative stress. Though peer-socialization can promote positive academic behavior and foster adaptive academic norms, it can also distract immigrant youth from achieving optimal academic outcomes; therefore, it is essential to have family socialization that can support immigrant youth with navigating peer-socialization in the host-culture as well as encourage academic achievements.

Ethnic-Racial Socialization

'Community forces' broadly refers to the study of factors that influence how minorities view and respond to academia (Ogbu & Simons, 1998). Community forces, such as parents, family, or community leaders, influence youth's comparison of schools, their beliefs about the

value of school, the way they perceive their relation with school, and their symbolic beliefs about schooling (Ogbu et al., 1998). Variations in community forces may be the fundamental factor that determines the differences among minority students' academic performance. One component of community forces may be ethical-racial socialization (ERS). Literature often describes ERS as the messages, including verbal and non-verbal (i.e., socialization behaviors), that parents/caregivers convey or teach to youth about the significance and meaning of race and ethnicity (Lambert, Rose, Saleem, & Caldwell, 2020; Neblett Jr., Chavous, Nguyen, & Sellers, 2009; Hughes, Rodriguez, Smith, Johnson, Stevenson, & Spicer, 2006). To assist in their children's psychosocial development and equip them with the tools they need to cope with the realities of racial discrimination, ethnic minority parents are known to use ERS as a vital parenting technique (Lambert et al., 2020).

ERS often influences youth's racial and ethnic identity (Neblett Jr, Rivas-Drake, & Umaña-Taylor, 2012). Meaning, the way caregivers transmit messages about the importance and meaning of race and ethnicity, teach children about what it means to be a member of their racial or ethnic group, and help youth learn to cope with discrimination and overcome stressful situations (Neblett Jr., et al., 2012). For example, findings from a study showed that African American males who experienced more messages from their primary caregivers about racial pride and barriers reported that they have persisted more in difficult school tasks than boys who received very little race socialization or negative socialization (Neblett Jr. et al., 2009). Race tends to become more noticeable during adolescence (Fisher, Wallace, & Fenton, 2000), so to prepare youth for experiencing and coping with racism, ERS is a significant parenting strategy needed or important to consider for developmental outcomes during adolescence (Umaña-Taylor & Hill, 2020; Lambert et al., 2020; Fisher et al., 2000).

Also, studies are finding that parental socialization may have a significant impact on the academic achievement of young people (Brown, Linver, Evans, & DeGennaro, 2009; Huynh & Fuligni, 2008; Neblett Jr. Philip, Cogburn, & Sellers, 2006). In particular, parent racial socialization may mitigate adverse racism encounters, impact academic motivation, and contribute to enhanced academic performance (Hughes, Rodriguez, Smith, Johnson, Stevenson, & Spicer, 2006). For example, racial socialization appears to have a critical role in enhancing the negative effect of racial discrimination experiences on academic outcomes among African American adolescents (Neblett et al., 2006).

Although researchers have discussed many ways that parents educate their ethnic-minority children about race, a few themes appear common. There are four common ERS messages that families of color often report conveying to their youth: (1) *cultural socialization* (racial pride messages), (2) *preparation for bias* and *promotion of mistrust* (racial barriers messages), (3) *egalitarianism socialization*, (4) *self-worth messages*, and (5) *negative* messages (Hughes, et al., 2006; Neblett Jr. et al., 2009; Lambert et al., 2020). The findings from empirical research varies regarding the effect ERS has on youth's development, depending on the kind of ERS message. A recurrent finding, however, is that messages about cultural socialization protect against racial discrimination while also building resilience (Brown & Tylka, 2011; Brown, 2008) and self-esteem (Constantine & Blackmon, 2002; Davis & Stevenson, 2006; Hughes, Witherspoon, Rivas-Drake, et al., 2009; Harris-Britt, Valrie, & Kurtz-Costes, et al., 2007) for Black adolescents and young adults (Lambert et al., 2020). In a study that examined whether associations between ERS messages and psychosocial adjustment vary by ethnicity and perceived neighborhood quality in a sample of Black adolescents who participated in the National Survey of American Life Adolescent supplement study, the findings suggested that types of ERS messages has varying effects on youth

development (Lambert et al., 2020). Messages preparing youth for bias were correlated with less self-esteem, mastery, and John Henryism active coping (JHAC). Interestingly, the promotion of mistrust messages was associated with mastery and JHAC for Caribbean Black adolescents but not for African American adolescents. Lastly, the research demonstrated positive associations between egalitarianism and youth self-esteem and mastery, indicating that egalitarianism messages are connected with positive adjustment among youth.

In contrast, other empirical research yielded results that highlighted different effects of specific ethnic-racial socialization messages. Neblett Jr. and colleagues (2009) utilized longitudinal data to examine parent racial socialization, racial discrimination, and subsequent academic achievement outcomes among a sample of 144 African American males, ages 12 to 17 years old. The racial socialization scale utilized consisted of five subscales to reflect the common types of racial socialization messages (i.e., racial pride, racial barriers, egalitarian, self-worth, and negative) in addition to another subscale to measure racial socialization behavior (e.g., parents buying their child books about their racial group). Findings indicated that parents who convey messages that are a balance between racial heritage and racial barriers as well as self-worth messages may be helping their male adolescent feel more capable of mastering academic challenges and become less hopeless when experiencing difficulty, and subsequently obtain higher school achievement. On the other hand, parents who convey very little socialization or negative socialization messages (e.g., "learning about Black history is not that important") may be contributing to more negative adjustment. As notable as the findings are, they are only applicable to African American adolescents, males at that, and therefore cannot be generalized to the emerging adult immigrant population.

While prior research helps clarify conditions under which types of ERS messages may be advantageous or detrimental for youth psychosocial adjustment (i.e., self-esteem and mastery), it has not examined the impact ERS messages has on the relationship between racial-ethnic identity and academic outcomes, especially for emerging adult immigrants. In general, socialization (e.g., family and peer) significantly contributes to the development of an individual. Positive socialization, particularly from family, loved ones, and caretakers, can foster adaptive development and optimal academic outcomes for adolescent immigrants, who often undergo family separation, negative peer influence from the host-culture, and face conflicting values and developmental goals of their home and host cultures. In particular, ethnic-racial socialization from family may have a critical role as older adolescent immigrants explore their identity.

Ethnic and Racial Identity

Identity development is hypothesized to be a lifelong process (Marcia, 2010), or at least extending into emerging adulthood (Smith et al., 2020), which has been described as a new understanding of the development period from the late teens through the twenties, with an emphasis on ages 18–25 (Arnett, 2000). The process of developing one's identity can be fraught when it involves acculturation, which is characterized by frequent changes in one's social and personal identity (Schwartz, Montgomery, & Briones, 2006). Given that both adolescence and emerging adulthood are still a time of exploring and achieving identity-related beliefs and behaviors (Jensen & Arnett, 2012), identity formation is correlated with psychological well-being for both adolescents and young adults aged 18-25 (Arnett, 2000; Smith & Silva, 2011).

Racial identity can be defined as the way an individual perceives the cultural norms of their racial group, as well as the thoughts and level of commitment they have towards it (Sanchez, Bentley-Edwards, Matthews, & Granillo, 2016). In addition, one's attitudes toward and

comprehension of one's ethnicity are referred to as ethnic-racial identity (Smith et al., 2020). According to Phinney (1992), ethnic identity refers to the meaning an individual gives to belonging and committing to specific ethnic or cultural group (as cited in Smith et al., 2020; Espinosa, Anglin, & Pandit, 2020). Ethnic identity development across racial and ethnic groups have been described as a bidimensional process, according to contemporary ethnic identity models. The model proposes that adolescents are more likely to commit to and accept group membership in a specific ethnic group the more they learn about their ethnic heritage (Smith et al., 2020). This commitment and acceptance to an ethnic identity, after thorough exploration and gaining understanding of their ethnicity, is known as ethnic identity achievement (Smith et al., 2020). Furthermore, when an individual has optimistic feelings about being a member of one's ethnocultural group, this is known as positive ethnic-racial affect, which consist of concepts such as affirmation and belonging (Phinney, 1992).

Empirical research on the experiences of immigrant adolescents has identified two dimensions of the ethnic identity process- affirmation and belonging, or an individual's attachment style to their ethnic group (Phinney, 1992), as well as identity achievement (Smith et al., 2020). Subsequently, the current study focused on ethnic-racial family socialization, which may be a component of ethnic-identity affirmation, and racial-ethnic identity achievement. It is imperative to examine affirmation/belonging when assessing the impact of ethnic-identity on the relation between cultural stress and psychological adjustment in immigrant emerging adult samples in the United States (Thibeault, Stein, & nelson-Gray, 2018).

Ethnic and Racial Identity Risks

Research indicates that an underdeveloped ethnic identity can be linked to poor mental health outcomes. Tummala-Narra (2015) studied the association between ethnic identity and

depressive symptoms, the association between perceived social support and depressive symptoms, and the association between sociodemographic factors and depressive symptoms. In this study, the sample consisted of 341 culturally diverse 9th and 10th grade foreign born ($n = 14$) and U.S. born ($n = 200$) students. Consistent with prior research, the results indicated that a weak ethnic identity was negatively associated with depressive symptomatology in the overall sample. The findings suggest that a less positive or a weaker developed ethnic identity (e.g., generally, negative messages connected to one's ethnic identity; identity of one's ethnicity is not developed) could contribute to symptoms of depression. Young adults who are first- or second-generation immigrants suffer particular acculturation problems as they negotiate two or more cultures, and these difficulties are linked to detrimental mental health consequences (Berry, 2006), such as severe identity confusion.

In the United States, many racial- and ethnic-minority immigrants come from societies that embrace a collectivistic perspective (Bemak et al., 2003), which are cultures that foster interpersonal reliance and dependence as adaptive societal norms (Chung, Bemak, Ortiz, & Sandoval- Perez, 2008). In contrast, greater value is placed on being extremely individualistic, independent, and self-determined in majority of the prominent cultural groups in the U.S. (Bemak et al., 2003; Chung et al., 2008). Underlying many of the acculturation stressors is immigrants often being unprepared to cope with the challenges that are related to living and working in the demanding environments of the dominant cultural groups in the United States (Bemak et al., 2003; Chung et al., 2008).

Despite strikingly diverging from their own cultural behaviors and beliefs, coping with the challenges of living and working in environments that typically have drastically different beliefs and behaviors about parenting, family systems, gender roles, religious customs, medical practices,

and mental health treatment is something that immigrants frequently must learn to do (Bemak et al., 2003; Chung & Bemak, 2002b). Furthermore, a major factor that may influence the development of identity and intensify acculturative stress as well as contribute to immigrants feeling lost, hopeless, and helpless is immigrating from collectivistic to individualistic culture norms (Chung & Bemak, 2007a).

Additional factors that may impact identity development and heighten acculturative stress could be experiencing a loss of community members, family members, social support systems, language obstacles, intergenerational problems, trauma that occurred before immigrating, ongoing discrimination and racism, and altering to a lower socioeconomic status and quality of living (Benmak & Chung, 2008a; Chung & Bemak, 2005). In a study examining challenges to accessing college education for immigrant and refugee ESL students', majority of the participants reported that they came from middle-class or upper-middle class background in their native country; and, twenty-four out of the 33 participants indicated that when they immigrated to the U.S., their family encountered a financial decline because their parents' low language skills in English proficiency. Although the participants' middle-class background and their well-rounded education in their country of origin led them to a university, several of the students could not financially afford their education (Kanno & Varghese, 2010). In sum, not only must immigrants cope with living and working in societies that often embrace tremendously different cultural norms than their native countries, but they also have to learn to deal with the challenges that are connected to living and working in societies that places higher emphasis on independence, individualism, and self-determination in most prominent cultural groups in the U.S; and, these stressors can lead to problems with mental health, drug use, and family discord (Benmak & Chung, 2008a; Chung & Bemak, 2005), which could all impact the development of one's ethnic-identity.

Within the literature, there is an ongoing debate regarding the degree to which ethnic identity may influence people's perceptions of racial discrimination (Redway, 2014). It was hypothesized that a firm connection with one's racial group (i.e., racial-ethnic identity) has a significant and positive correlation to perceived discrimination and, consequently, mental health distress. Meaning, those who have a stronger affiliation to their own racial groups are more likely to perceive discrimination and are less likely to ignore it. Eventually, one may experience more psychological distress as an outcome to frequently perceiving situations as discriminatory. On the other hand, a stronger attachment with people of their own racial group tends to develop from experiencing discrimination (Sanchez, Bentley-Edwards, Matthews, & Granillo, 2016).

Ethnic and Racial Identity Protective Factors

Studies have found that a strong racial-ethnic identity can serve as a buffer and strength for immigrants in adolescence and emerging adulthood. Research suggests that greater levels of academic accomplishment can be fostered by having a strong ethnic-racial identity (Rivas-Drake et al., 2014; Syed et al., 2011). For example, findings from a study indicated that a stronger ethnic identity may be associated with higher grades in school (Supple et al., 2006). More specifically, ethnic-racial identity is an important strength for Black/African American and LatinX youth's academic outcomes (Chavous, Bernat, Schmeelk-Cone… & Zimmerman, 2003; Rivas-Drake et al., 2014), and these findings might also apply to Black and Hispanic Caribbean-origin immigrant youth (Feliciano, 2009). Results from a recent study suggest that ethnic identity retention has indeed been linked with higher academic achievement among Caribbean adolescents (Akiba, 2007).

Smith and colleagues (2020) examined the association among ethnic identity affirmation and belonging, ethnic identity achievement, and academic beliefs as well as academic

achievements. The sample consisted of 128 Caribbean first and second-generation immigrant adolescents whose identities are connected to cultural groups outside of the United States. Participants (69.3 % second generation) ages ranged from 12 to 18 years. The results showed that greater ethnic identity achievement was associated with higher academic self-beliefs (i.e., higher academic self-efficacy and subsequently, higher academic aspirations) and higher grades. The findings indicate that ethnic identity can serve as a facilitator of academic beliefs, which is consistent with previous research (Smith et al., 2020). While Smith and colleague's (2020) study examined the link between ethnic identity and academic outcomes among Caribbean immigrant youth, it did take into account the critical role of racial-ethnic socialization or discrimination, and majority of the participants were not foreign-born.

Psychological development as well as the impact of perceived discrimination may be mitigated or powerfully influenced by one's racial identity. Since they are aware that acts of discrimination are not a reflection of personal deficiencies but rather the results of societal injustice, individuals who more closely identify with members of their racial group (i.e., immersion-emersion and internalized attitudes) may be shielded from the harmful impacts of discrimination. As a result, encountering unfavorable stereotypes or other types of discrimination has no negative effects on one's self-identity. Finally, when individuals are shunned by other groups, a deep connection to members of their own race can give them a sense of community and belonging (Sanchez, Bentley-Edwards, Matthews, & Granillo, 2016; Bentley-Edwards, 2014). Consequently, a strong ethnic-identity is often linked to positive mental health outcomes, such as fewer depressive symptoms (Rivas-Drake, Seaton, et al., 2014). In particular, a firm ethnic-identity has been shown to serve as a buffer for Caribbean immigrant youth against perceived identity-based discrimination in the school setting (Thomas, Caldwell, Faison, & Jackson, 2009).

Therefore, a strong ethnic identity may be essential for adolescents and emerging adult immigrants to have an adaptive development.

Previous research utilized Helm's (1995) Person of Color (POC) Racial Identity Model, which describes the process of one's racial identity along four categories (i.e., conformity, dissonance, immersion-emersion, and internalization), to examine racial-ethnic identity with regard to perceived discrimination among diverse Black populations. This literature studies the experiences of racial-ethnic minorities who are born in the United States (e.g., Caribbean Black American and African American). Particularly, utilizing the POC Racial Identity Model, Lee and Ahn (2013) conducted a meta-analysis to study the correlations among racial identity, ethnic identity, racial socialization, and perceived discrimination with diverse Black youth and adults. Results showed that conformity, dissonance, immersion-emersion, and internalization racial identity attitudes were all significantly and positively associated with perceived discrimination. Moreover, less mature racial identity profiles were significantly associated to perceived discrimination and psychological concerns for Caribbean Black American and African American adolescents. In another study with a sample composed of 189 racially self-identified Black adolescents (59.8% identified as Black/Caribbean and 40.2% identified as Black/African-American) with ages ranging from 13 to 19 years, the Caribbean Black American participants who were in the conflicted racial identity (i.e., high conformity and dissonance attitudes) cluster reported significantly higher rates of perceived racial discrimination and psychological concerns. In contrast, Caribbean Black American participants in the identity resolution group demonstrated a more mature and complex racial identity profile and was linked with lower rates of perceived discrimination and psychological concerns (Sanchez, Bentley-Edwards, Matthews, & Granillo, 2016). While both studies are aspiring as well as examines the association between racial-ethnic

identity and discrimination, similar to the current study, academic outcomes are missing from one of these studies and none examined these processes among racial-ethnic minority immigrants who are not born in the United States.

Ethnic-Racial Based Discrimination

Discrimination can be severely detrimental and lead to acculturative stress (Gil, Vega, & Dimas, 1994), which is stress that transpires when individuals encounter challenges related to the acculturation process (Williams & Berry, 1991). When discrimination is perceived as exceeding one's ability to cope, this likely can lead to a subjective perception of stress and to discouraging emotions (Crockett, et al., 2007). Ogbu and Simons (1998) characterized discrimination as a form of racism and identified various forms of discrimination that pose as barriers for ethnic-minorities in the United States' education system. In summarization, race-based discrimination is policies and practices that discriminate against and devalue members of racial, ethnic, and cultural groups by distributing resources unequally and denying opportunities and access. Therefore, race-based discrimination is associated with a person's racial, ethnic, or cultural background (Chung, Bemak, Ortiz, & Sandoval- Perez, 2008). Literature has shown that race-based discrimination is a well-known source of stress (Sawyer, Major, Casad, Townsend, & Mendes, 2012) and it has been linked to many negative outcomes, such as increased risk for psychotic-like experiences among racial and ethnic minority young adult immigrants (Espinosa, Anglin, & Pandit, et, 2020). In addition, research shows that racial discrimination is a risk factor for various academic outcomes (Chavous, Rivas-Drake, Smalls, Griffin, & Cogburn, 2008; Smalls, White, Chavous, & Sellers, 2007; Wong, Eccles, & Sameroff, 2003).

Likewise, perceived ethnic discrimination is defined as unfair treatment attributable to one's ethnic background (Contrada, Ashmore, & Gary et. al., 2000), and it is a deep-rooted stressor

within acculturation (Thibeault, Stein, Nelson-Gray, 2018). Furthermore, policies and attitudes that encourage discrimination against immigrants within host communities generate stress as well as feelings of threat, isolation, fear, anger, and consequently increasing the risk of psychotic symptoms and related mental health disorders (McIntyre, Elahi, & Bentall, 2016). Thibeault et al., 2018 examined whether specific constructs of ethnic identity (i.e., affirmation/belonging) served as a risk or protective factor for immigrant-origin emerging adult students (aged 18-25) at a college campus in the Southern-eastern United States. The multiethnic sample consisted of 290 non-White immigrant-origin college students, including Asian, Latino, Black, Middle Eastern, and Multiethnic, who majority (64%) were born in the United States. The findings indicated that strong ethnic-identity (i.e., affirmation/belonging) was a prominent buffer on the association between ethnic discrimination and depressive symptoms among women. Also, a weaker racial-ethnic identity was linked with greater increased depressive symptoms for women compared with men reporting weaker affirmation/belonging. The findings suggest that ethnic discrimination may be more detrimental for immigrant-origin young adults with weaker ethnic identity compared with immigrant-origin young adults with stronger ethnic identity.

Empirical research demonstrates mixed results about ethnic identity being a protective factor against the negative impact discrimination has on mental health (Pascoe & Richman, 2009; Thibeault, Stein, & Nelson-Gray, 2018). Espinosa and colleagues (2020) theorized that mixed results are partly due to not taking into account trait emotional self-efficacy, which is defined as self-perceptions about emotional capabilities necessary for healthy coping. Consequently, in a study examining the interrelation among trait emotional self-efficacy, formerly recognized as trait emotional intelligence or EI, ethnic identity, and racial discrimination in predicting psychotic-like experiences (PLE), Espinosa et al., (2020) assessed a sample of racial and ethnic minority

emerging adult immigrants. The final analytical sample composed of majority second-generation (56.1%) U.S. immigrants between ages 18 and 36 ($Mean_{age}$ = 19.97). Findings indicated that immigrants who reported encountering high levels of racial discrimination and who had low levels of both ethnic identity and trait EI reported the highest number of PLE symptoms. Interestingly, for immigrants with low trait EI and who endorsed a firm ethnic identity, higher levels of discriminatory experiences did not relate to more PLE than immigrants who had a less mature ethnic identity. For the latter, experiencing higher levels of discrimination was linked to higher PLE. The relative findings emphasize the essence of having a strong ethnic identity among minority immigrants, especially when experiencing high discriminatory treatment and having a limited emotional capacity to manage the additional stress and discouraging emotions associated with discrimination.

Literature hypothesizes that the differences in effects of discrimination stems from the varying cultural adaptations of voluntary minority immigrants (i.e., individuals who perceive themselves as "guests in a foreign land") versus involuntary minority immigrants (i.e., individuals who entered their host societies through conquest, colonization, and enslavement) (Ogbu, 1991; Ogbu & Simmons, 1998). Voluntary minority immigrants often perceive discriminatory treatment that they receive from their host country as temporary and likely to overcome through hard effort, increased acculturation, and educational success (Ogbu, 1991; Ogbu & Simmons, 1998). In contrast, involuntary minority immigrants frequently attribute discriminatory treatment as institutionalized and everlasting, and consequently, invest less effort in achieving academic success (Ogbu, 1991; Ogbu & Simmons, 1998). Given, however, the massive growth in discriminatory policies and negative attitudes towards immigrants in host communities, minority immigrants who volunteered are most likely feeling more stressed out, isolated, threatened, angry,

or afraid similar to involuntary immigrants. Consequently, making it harder to overcome discrimination and heightening mental health risks (Ogbu, 1991; Ogbu & Simmons, 1998).

Discrimination can affect school adjustment and performance (Ogbu & Simons, 1998). In the United States, greater perceived ethnic discrimination is linked with more mental health problems, such as symptoms of depression, among immigrant-origin college students (Pascoe & Smart Richman, 2009). Discriminatory treatment in the education system is composed in the following three forms: (1) the general treatment of minorities in educational policies and practices (e.g., policy of segregated schools, unequal funding for schools, and minority schools' staffing); (2) the treatment of minority students in classrooms and schools (e.g., expectation levels from teachers, patterns of student-teacher interactions, grouping and tracking, etc.); (3) the way society rewards, or lack thereof, minorities for their educational attainment, particularly in terms of employment and income (Ogbu and Simons, 1998). According to research, non-immigrant and immigrant African American and LatinX students both face some similar educational difficulties in the U.S. (Jones et al., 2017). For example, at school, immigrant Caribbean youth perceive discriminatory experiences that are based on their identity. They are also more likely to attend educational institutions that are under-resourced and are staffed with teachers who have low expectations of them, which all can harm their academic performance (Jones et al., 2017). In sum, research suggest that discrimination can have a negative impact on academic outcomes. Youth and emerging adult immigrants, however, who are aware of discrimination due to their identity, socialization, or cultural orientation may not experience this academic performance burden and reduction in grades, depending on their perspective of their ethnic-racial group(s) as well as the meaning they attribute to being a member of that group. (Neblett Jr, Rivas-Drake, & Umana-Taylor, 2012).

Academic Stressors among Emerging Adult Immigrants

Emerging adult immigrants often face substantial levels of stress that impede their access and transition to higher education. Yasuko and Varghese examined what challenges immigrant and refugee English as a second language (ESL) college students experience in accessing and participating in higher education, especially in four-year institutions. The sample composed of 33 first-generation immigrant and refugee students attending a four-year traditional major research university in the United States. The participants ages ranged from 17 to 27 years old. A little over half the participants were identified as low-income. After conducting interviews with all participants, the findings identified four key stressors that these students face during their transition to college. The four key challenges identified as a hindrance to immigrants and refugees access and transition to four-year college education are their limited English proficiency, structural constraints, their limited financial resources, and the students' own tendency for self-elimination Yasuko and Varghese (2010). Likewise, findings from a meta-analysis indicated that LatinX college students often experience acculturative stress and challenges related to their minority status. In contrast to Anglo students, LatinX college students reported experiencing extreme stressors, such as higher levels of academic, financial, and personal stress (Quintana, Vogel, & Ybarra, 1991). The stressors mentioned above, which emerging adult immigrants often experience when pursing high education, are further explained in the following four subsections.

Linguistic Problems

The most common school challenge identified by immigrant and refugee English as a second language (ESL) college students was linguistic problems in their academic work. Out of the five different linguistic problems identified by the students (ages 17 to 27), the top three problems were speaking, listening, reading, and writing, with the latter two being the vast majority

of the challenges (Yasuko & Varghese, 2010). Linguistic problems could lead to substantial amount of stress for emerging adult immigrants, particularly since in the United States, there appears to be a certain level of English proficiency needed to meet the academic demands of college work and to be successful. A grasp for English strongly influences immigrants' ability to comprehend content in the classroom as well as to partake fully in the workforce and society (Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, & Suárez-Orozco, 2011). Therefore, improving English-language skills is one of the utmost needs of immigrant students (Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, & Suárez-Orozco, 2011). Empirical research suggest, however, that cultural and language differences do contribute to learning problems, but they do not take into account the group of minorities who experience academic stress and environmental challenges and are still able to obtain academic success in contrast to other groups who face similar distinct differences and happen to be less successful (Ogbu & Simons, 1998; Crocket, et al., 2007). For example, in a study that examined the associations among ethnicity, cultural/language differences, and school performance in a junior high school in Oakland, California, the results indicated that the ethnic-minority students who demonstrate the highest GPAs (i.e., school performance) are those who varied the most from the dominant culture and language in the public school (Yee et al., 1995).

Structural Constraints

Numerous immigrant students experience the negative effects of unsteady environments (Suárez-Orozco, Rhodes, Milburn 2009), such as structural barriers (e.g., various forms of discriminations in society) (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001; Massey & Denton, 1993) and academic factors that affect minority school performance (Ogbu and Simons, 1998). Findings from a study conducted at a major public university in the U.S. revealed that the structural constraints encountered by immigrant and refugee English as a second language (ESL) college students were

unique to ESL students (Kanno & Varghese, 2010). For example, the university's eligibility requirements specify that students can only have one year of ESL English throughout four years of English classes taken during high school. For many of the top public and private universities in the U.S., this eligibility requirement is standard. Often times, this requirement is almost impossible to fulfill in cases where immigrant students move to U.S. in the middle of high school or when they are still taking ESL courses in high school, which these students typically move to U.S. at an older age (Kanno & Varghese, 2010). Not only is their access to high education often fraught with complications, but also immigrants' transition into a university is often accompanied with adversity.

Once immigrant students enter a university, they often encounter additional structural constraint. Often in many predominantly White academic settings, U.S.-origin and immigrant-origin Black communities (i.e., African American, African Caribbean, and sub-Saharan African) are clumped into the same racialized group, which is often associated with lower societal status in numerous societies, including within the United States (Seaton, Caldwell, Sellers, & Jackson, 2008). Members of these groups describe encountering cultural or institutional marginalization and stereotyped notions that they lack intellectual aptitude and a strong work ethic, despite them all having diverse origins, including immigrant-generational status (Greer & Brown, 2011). More specifically, Hall and Carter's (2006) study suggested that compared to European American and other racial minority students, Black students face more intense racial ethnic antagonism, greater pressure to conform to stereotypes, higher perceived marginalization, more overt teacher and peer racism, and less fair treatment by university professors and staff (Hall & Carter, 2006). Furthermore, immigrant Black students could encounter additional identity-related stressors that indirectly stem from academic courses.

Research showed that ESL students are frequently required to completed remedial education before enrolling in college-level courses (Kanno & Varghese, 2010). For example, in a study examining an urban community college, findings showed that 85 percent of immigrants needed remedial courses as first-year students, generally due to a deficiency in English proficiency, compared to 55 percent of native-born students (Conway, 2010). The English language requirement that higher educational institutions often places on immigrant students could seem unfair and stigmatizing. In a study examining immigrant and refugee ESL students' challenges transitioning to college education, several participants reported feeling frustrated that as part of their graduation requirements, only students who are non-natives were subjected to needing to prove their linguistic ability for the university's English language requirement (Kanno & Varghese, 2010), "when in fact, being a native speaker in no way guarantees college-level academic literacy" (Kanno & Varghese, 2010, pg. 318). Educational institutions frequently mandate immigrant and refugee ESL college students to complete remedial coursework, despite the fact that remedial education has been linked to lower rates of persistence and degree completion (Teranishi et al., 2011). In a longitudinal research examining students at a community college, 40% of students who did not enroll in any remedial classes as first-year students attained a degree or certificate within eight years, in contrast, less than 25% of students who started community college in remedial classes finish a degree or certificate within eight years. (Bailey, 2009).

Another common structural constraint emerging adult immigrants often must handle are family obligations. More than half of immigrant college students are over the age of twenty-four, one-third have dependents, and majority work part or full time while attending college part-time students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2004). According to a study, immigrant college students in New York City spent up to fifteen hours more per week on family obligations than

their native-born counterparts (Tseng, 2004). Another study found that numerous immigrant college students deal with their academic commitments with financial and family obligations, which can lead to an increase in stress and cause them to lose focus on their studies (Sy, 2006). Furthermore, having culture self-awareness and experiencing systems that oppose their values may be contributing more to the acculturative stress that college students often encounter rather than English proficiency in language skills or being unfamiliar with the dominant culture practices (Mena, Padilla, & Maldonado, 1987). Research hypothesizes that while school constraints and societal structures, such as discrimination, play key roles in determining low school achievement among minorities, they are not the only reason for poor academic achievement (Ogbu & Simons, 1998). If that was the case, then since all minorities experience discrimination, they would all struggle or not succeed in school (Ogbu & Simons, 1998).

Financial Resources

Limited financial resources were identified as another inhibitor to immigrants' and refugees' access and transition to higher education. Although in the U.S., immigrants have a lower unemployment rate than native-born individuals, their incomes are continuously lower, making it challenging for immigrant adults or their children to afford college (Teranishi et al., 2011). In addition to financial constraints, research shows that due to their own or their parents' U.S. resident status, often immigrant students experience confusion about accessing financial aid for higher education (Zarate and Pachon, 2006). Each state treats nonpermanent residents and undocumented students differently when it comes to in-state tuition (Teranishi et al., 2011), which could impede their college application process. For example, in a study examining barriers to accessing college education, several immigrant and refugee ESL students in the study had a lack of knowledge about the financial aid process, and therefore, this partly led to students either not qualifying for or

applying for financial aid, resulting in students missing the application deadline (Kanno & Varghese, 2010).

Being a low-income student was the most often identified barrier, second to being an ESL student as the biggest hindrance, in a study examining immigrant and refugee ESL students' challenges to accessing college (Kanno & Varghese, 2010). There is a large proportion of immigrant emerging adults who are low-income in the U.S. In a 1997 research of the 25,173 freshmen students enrolled in City University of New York (CUNY) system, it was discovered that the percent of low-income immigrants was similar to the percent of low-income U.S.-born students (Conway, 2010). Financial barriers can have a tremendous impact on college experience as well as life post-college. Findings from a study on immigrant and refugee ESL students suggested that financial constraints seemed to influence these college students' selection of majors and careers, so much so that "the opportunity to spend four years discovering themselves and exploring various life options was a luxury that these students could not afford" (Kanno & Varghese, 2010, page 321).

Self-censorship

College students tend to experience more depressive symptoms than the overall population (Ibrahim, Kelly, Adams, & Glazebrook, 2013). Furthermore, self-censorship (e.g., restricting or holding oneself back from taking advantage of opportunities and resources), which can be an outcome of depression, was found to be a key problem for immigrant and refugee ESL students when accessing and participating in a four-year college (Kanno & Varghese, 2010). In a qualitative study of 33 immigrant and refugee college students aged 17 to 27, several participants indicated that ESL students believe they will be denied admission to four-year universities or, even if admitted, will be overwhelmed by the magnitude of the tasks ahead and therefore, abstain from

applying (Kanno & Varghese, 2010). Some of the participants in the study also experienced self-censorship. For example, some of the students reported that attending a university was something they doubted they were good enough to do and some only considered applying after a friend made the suggestion to apply together. Some of the participants experienced an ongoing sense of intimidation. Due to their self-consciousness regarding English language skills, several students reported that they were afraid to verbally engage (i.e., speak up or ask questions) in a large class (Leki, 2007; Kanno & Varghese, 2010). The findings indicated that in addition to academic performances, '"ESL habitus"- the propensity for self-censorship because of one's ESL status'- may also impact ESL student's patterns of socialization (Kanno & Varghese, 2010, p. 322).

As mentioned above, numerous immigrant children and youth experience an extensive time of separation from their parents, which leads to stress, anxiety, depression, and withdrawal (Suárez-Orozco, Bang, & Kim, 2002). Without receiving efficient support and help, such mental health problems continue to fester into maladjustment during emerging adulthood. According to research, difficulties associated to adjustment, isolation, and low self-efficacy are frequently experienced among immigrant college students (Do, 1996), which could result in self-elimination problems. Research has found that many immigrant and refugee ESL college students reported that they believed that English-speaking social networks were not accessible to them, so they depended on coethnics for social support (Kanno & Varghese, 2010). The aformentioned stressors could have consequences not only for immigrant students personally but also for the nation.

For one, the barriers that immigrant students face could contribute to the unnecessarily high drop-out rate. According to research, college dropout rates are higher among immigrant students than among their native-born peers (Teranishi et al., 2011). Secondly, as a result of the hurdles immigrant students encounter in receiving a postsecondary education, immigrant students

themselves, in addition to the country as a whole, suffers long-term economic and social costs (Teranishi et al., 2011). Improvement in the workforce, however, has been linked to individuals with degrees, certificates, and noncredit courses, and higher education provides immigrants access to these (Teranishi et al., 2011).

Academic Experiences among Emerging Adult Immigrants

Although linguistic difficulties, structural constraints, limited financial resources, and self-censorship are frequently experienced and have key roles in determining low school achievement among immigrants, they do not account for the group of emerging adult immigrants who do overcome these strenuous challenges and succeed. Given that over the next few years a large component of the US workforce will be composed of immigrant youth and children of immigrants, it is imperative that a top goal in the United States should be to enhance educational achievement, economic productivity, and engagement in issues of public concern among immigrants (Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, & Suárez-Orozco, 2011). The following section discusses experiences unique to emerging adult immigrants in academic settings.

In the United States (U.S.), a significant and growing portion of the population consist of immigrant youth and children of immigrants. For example, in the U.S., English as a second language (ESL) students are the fastest increasing section of the school-aged population (i.e., 10.3% of all students in K-12 public schools are ESL learners) and according to the U.S. Department of Education, the percentage is predicted to at least double by year 2025, (Wolf, Herman, Bachman, Bailey, & Griffin, 2008; Spellings, 2005). Similarly, it is projected that between 2005 and 2050, the U.S. population with grow by 48 percent and the immigrant population will contribute to 82 percent of that growth. In addition, by 2050, approximately one in five individuals residing in the U.S. will be foreign-born immigrants, and nearly one out of every three

will be foreign-born or the children of immigrants. For example, in the 2000 census, individuals aged 17 to 24 accounted for almost 25% of total immigrants, up from 13% in 1990, and this number is likely to continue to increase (U.S. Census Bureau). The rising percentage of emerging adult immigrants in the U.S. is reflected in the higher education-setting.

According to several research studies, persistence and degree attainment rates are comparable or higher among foreign-born students than native-born students (Vernez & Abranhamse, 2003). In the United States, particularly, nonnative English speakers make up nearly 13% of the undergraduate population (U.S. Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics, 2000). For example, Hagy and Staniec (2002) conducted a study using data from a national longitudinal study of a sample of 8th grade students who were followed up four times between 1988 and 2000. The results indicated that immigrants were more likely to enroll in postsecondary education than their native-born counterparts of the same racial or ethnic group.

In particular, immigrant-origin Black students in contrast to U.S.-origin Black students demonstrate higher rates of enrollment in postsecondary education (Tauriac & Liem, 2012). In 1999, although only 13% of the U.S. Black population ages 18 to 19 years consisted of Black immigrant-origin (i.e., first- or second-generation immigrant) individuals, Black immigrant-origin students comprised 27% of the National Longitudinal Survey of Freshmen (NLSF) Black entering freshmen sample; thus, they doubled their representation of their proportion in the population (NLSF: Charles, Torres, & Brunn, 2008). Additionally, not only did immigrant-origin Black students make up 41% of the NLSF Black freshmen population at Ivy League schools (Tauriac & Liem, 2012), they were also twice as likely to attend the most elite NLSF institutions, compared to U.S.- origin (i.e., third-plus generation) Black students (Charles, Torres, & Brunn, 2008). Moreover, Jenkins, Harburg, Weissberg, and Donnelly (2004) focused on academic experiences

and college persistence once Black U.S.-origin and immigrant-origin students arrived on campus at a predominantly White institute (PWI), and found that Black students whose fathers were foreign-born (i.e., from the Caribbean or Africa) were much more likely than their Black peers whose fathers were born in the U.S. to be enrolled in college for at least six full semesters. Similarly, Tauriac and Liem (2012), studying diverse Black undergraduates from multiple PWIs, found that young adult children of Black immigrants reported significantly higher college persistence rates than U.S.-origin Black students. Of the 67 immigrant-origin undergraduates who participated in the study, only a small number of these students ($n = 19$) did not complete college. Lastly, of all foreign-born Blacks (aged 25 or older), 25% had at least a bachelor's degree, compared to 16% of U.S.-born Blacks (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004). Research demonstrates that in spite of challenges, pressures, and systemic inequalities that surround them, immigrant-origin Black emerging adult students excel academically, therefore, there is a critical need to gain more understanding of protective factors utilized (Noguera, 2003).

To examine the differences in academic experiences and outcomes of U.S.-origin and immigrant origin Black students, Tauriac and Liem (2012) utilized data from a longitudinal National Institute of mental Health (NIMH) project. The sample consisted of 101 seniors from public high schools in the metropolitan Boston area and who went on to matriculate at different PWIs. The participants self-identified as Black, were ethnically diverse, and indicated that they were or had been attending a 2- or 4-year PWI following high school. Unlike the current study, majority of participants reported they were born in the U.S. ($n = 59$). Thirty-four participants identified as U.S.-origin (i.e., they and both their parents were born in the United States), in contrast to 67 respondents who identified as immigrant-origin (i.e., they or at least one of their parents were born outside the U.S.). Findings indicated that despite of low social and academic

integration or low SES, immigrant-origin students demonstrated persistence in college. Moreover, social and academic integration did not predict college persistence, indicating that there are likely other factors that better explain college persistence for Black immigrant-origin young adults. According to Tauriac and Liem, "Possible alternative factors that might have influenced students' college persistence include racial and ethnic identity development- which they did not assess- have been shown to influence students' perceptions of faculty and peers in academic contexts" (Tauriac and Liem, 2012, pg. 254), and suggest for future research to examine identity constructs.

In addition to racial and ethnic identity, research has identified other factors that better explain college persistence among immigrant-origin Black emerging adults. Jenkins and colleagues (2004) examined Black college students at a PWI, and found that academic self-confidence (i.e., academic self-efficacy) was predictive of persistence for Black students of foreign-born fathers, but not for Black students of U.S. born fathers. Findings suggest that the variance in college persistence rates between U.S.-origin and immigrant-origin Black students is due to factors other than academic self-confidence; however, the findings are limited because the sample composed of students from only one college campus (Tauriac & Liem, 2012).

From a problem-focused perspective, Yasuko and Varghese's (2010) examined academic experiences among emerging adult immigrants in the U.S. Such research, however inspiring they may be, tend to stay within the realm of deficiencies and do not extend to address the larger concern of protective factors utilized and building resilience. Thus, we can see a clear gap in knowledge that must be filled: compared with other groups of underrepresented students, we know very little about resiliency among immigrant youth in the academic settings. Scholars who has specifically addressed this problem is Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, and Suárez-Orozco (2011). Through their research on the ways immigrant students present community colleges with opportunities and

problems, Teranishi et a., (2011) argued how community colleges can serve immigrant students more effectively. Although there are some parallels between Teranishi's et al., (2011) study and the current study, an important difference is that the current study not only examines the role of external factors, such as family socialization and discrimination, but it also focuses on the impact of internal factors (e.g., ethnic-identity and academic self-efficacy) on academic outcomes among immigrant youth. The current study, building on previous research, aims to identify protective factors that builds academic resilience among immigrant youth in face of the strenuous stressors they experience throughout their acculturation process in the United States.

Academic Self-efficacy among Emerging Adult Immigrants

According Niblett Jr., Rivas-Drake, and Uman˜a-Taylor (2012), protective factors refer to predictors of better outcomes when the level of adversity is high (Niblett Jr, Rivas-Drake, & Uman˜a-Taylor, 2012); and, findings from research identify academic self-efficacy as a prominent protective factor that differentiates academic outcomes among immigrant youth. Academic self-efficacy can be described as an individual's belief in their abilities to accomplish desired academic outcomes (Bandura, 2001). Expanding upon the definition, some researchers describe academic self-efficacy as the belief that one is competent and in control of one's learning. For example, academic self-efficacy is identified as a variable that predicts the degree to which a child engages in developmental learning, such as building new relationships, learning the new language, and engaging with academic tasks (National Research Council, 2004; Schunk, 1991). Consequently, belief in one's own abilities to academically achieve desired goals is likely associated with academic outcomes. Research findings suggests that higher academic achievement is correlated with stronger academic self-efficacy since students who feel more capable work harder and are

more persistent in school (Bandura et al., 2001; Pajares, 1996). Therefore, academic self-efficacy likely can serve as a protective factor.

Research suggest that higher academic self-efficacy seems to be vital in developing students' learning, relationships with others, and academic engagement, which, subsequently, influences higher academic performance (Suárez-Orozco, Rhodes, Milburn 2009). Although many immigrant students are exposed to stressful school climates, some still thrive in accomplishing academic success (Suárez-Orozco, Rhodes, Milburn 2009). Literature states that even when exposed to stressors that are associated with their identity, youth may still thrive developmentally when their ethnic identity and academic self-efficacy are integrated and positive (Zaff & Hair, 2003; McKown & Weinstein, 2003; Smith et al., 2020). For Black and Hispanic immigrant youth in particular, who may experience negative identity-related intellectual stereotypes in the U.S., integrating ethnic identity and academic self-efficacy is essential (Smith et al., 2020).

In year 2011, it was found that rigorous research was scarce on effective interventions that can increase enrollment and improve performance among immigrant students in academic settings. It was strongly recommended for the research community and academic institutions to collaborate closely to evaluate programs with an aim to identify what is effective and why. Schools have a role to enhance the academic achievement of immigrant students. Policy makers will struggle with improving the role pf academic institutions without the collaborative work between the research community and education systems (Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, & Suárez-Orozco, 2011). Therefore, the current study aims to examine protective factors and provide to professionals in educational and clinical settings, as well as families ways to foster resilience in immigrant youth in the face of the intense challenges and barriers they encounter throughout their acculturation process in the U.S.

Negative Ability Stereotype Threat Model

In American society, minority students recognize negative-ability stereotypes about their intelligence (Steele 1988, 1998; Steele & Aronson 1995). Hyper awareness that their performance could confirm the very stereotype that they wish to avoid places pressure on minority students to perform well; a process referred to as externalization. The pressure to not confirm to the stereotype creates psychological stress, such as anxiety- this added pressure is often called academic performance burden (Steele & Aronson 1995). Performance burden in turn, often adversely affects performance, leading minorities to perform more poorly than they otherwise would in the absence of negative stereotypes (Massey and Fischer, 2005). In addition to recognizing that members of other racial groups hold negative stereotypes about the abilities of ethnic minority students of the host country, immigrant youth who identify with the racial identity of the ethnic minority students may evolve to believe these stereotypes- this process is called internalization (Owen & Lynch, 2012). If minority students identify as a member of their racial group and believe that the negative stereotypes about their group's intelligence is true, their academic outcomes, such as effort and grades, might begin to decline out of a sense of hopelessness (Owen & Lynch, 2012). Given the possible severe psychological distress, negative ability stereotype threat may be extremely detrimental to students' development and academic outcomes.

Ethnic minority youth born in the host country often face race-based negative ability stereotype threats (Owens, et. al., 2012). Youth who are aware of the negative ability stereotype threats have added pressure to perform well. This academic burden reduces youth academic performance than if the stereotype was not present (Owens et al., 2012). Research indicates that in contrast to ethnic minority youth of the host country, when ethnic minority immigrant students

place more value on their ethnic identity rather than their racial identity, they are less susceptible to a decrease in their academic performance due to stereotype threat Owens et al., 2012).

Integrative Model of Ethnic-Racial Protective Factors

Neblett and colleagues' (2012) integrative model of racial-ethnic protective factors demonstrates that ethnic-racial socialization often influences youth's racial and ethnic identity such as their ethnic affirmation (Neblett Jr, Rivas-Drake, & Uman˜a-Taylor, 2012). Subsequently, as stated in the aforementioned research, a strong ethnic-racial identity can promote high levels of academic achievement. The few studies that investigate the relative contribution of ethnic identity and academic outcomes among ethnic-minority immigrant youth, did not include family socialization, specifically ethnic-racial socialization. In addition, few studies have studied academic achievement as well as the protective nature of racial and ethnic identity against discrimination, among emerging adult immigrants to the U.S. In a study focusing on ethnic identity, racial discrimination, and academic achievement, Chavous and colleagues (2008) found that experiences of racial discrimination were negatively associated with both the interest in doing well in school and academic performance among African American youth. The current study expands the literature by including the examination of family ethnic-racial socialization as well as racial negative ability stereotype threat among emerging adult immigrants' academic outcomes.

Immigrant Paradox

A well-established phenomenon in the United States is the *immigrant paradox*. The paradox conceptualizes that immigrants who move to the United States, or a greater developed country than their native land, are "healthier than their counterparts staying in the country of origin as well as the population born in the United States" (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2009, p.54). Research shows that newly arrived student immigrants in the United States frequently demonstrate

highly adaptive attitudes and behaviors to succeed in school (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2009). Moreover, further research expanded the immigrant paradox phenomenon beyond health outcomes and suggested that newly arrived immigrant youth in the United States demonstrate stronger academic and behavioral outcomes, in addition to health outcomes, as compared to more acculturated immigrant youth or non-immigrated youth (Garcia Coll & Marks, 2012). Despite demonstrating educational advantages upon first immigrating, practically all immigrant groups seem to have decreases in academic performance and aspirations as well as physical and mental health over their course of length of stay in the U.S. (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, & Martin, 2009; Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2009; Suárez-Orozco, Rhodes, & Milburn, 2009). The longer immigrant youth reside in United States, the greater the likelihood to engage in risky behaviors thereby negatively impacting their health (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2009). Though newly arrived adolescent immigrants demonstrate an initial advantage in terms of physical health, academic attitudes, and academic performance, the length of stay in the United States seems to be correlated with decreasing academic outcomes (e.g., achievements and aspirations) (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2009).

Ethnic-Racial Socialization, Ethnic-Racial Identity, Academic Outcomes, and Perceptions of Ethnic and Racial Discrimination Among Ethnic-Minority Emerging Adult Immigrants in the United States

Family socialization, specifically ethnic-racial socialization (caregivers' messages about race and ethnicity) can impact the development of ethnic identity (Neblett Jr., et al., 2009; Fisher et al., 2000; Smith et al., 2020; Hughes et al., 2009), which in turn can serve as a protective factor in the face of acculturation stressors (Thibeault et al., 2018), such as negative-ability stereotype threats or discrimination in mainstream American society, and foster successful academic outcomes (Brown et al., 2011; Lambert et al., 2020). However, the potential protective role of

family ethnic-racial socialization on academic outcomes in the face of discrimination has not yet been explored.

To bridge this gap, this study will explore ethnic-racial socialization and ethnic-racial identity among emerging adult (ages 18 to 25) immigrants in the U.S. Rather than taking a conventional problem-focused approach, which focuses on the risks, deficits, and vulnerabilities, the current study will utilize a strength-based approach, which concentrates mainly on protective factors, resilience, and positive outcomes, which is similar to previous research (Motti-Stefanido, 2018). Examining the relationship between family factors (i.e., family ethnic-racial socialization), self-factors (i.e., ethnic-racial identity as well as length of stay in the U.S.), and academic outcomes among emerging adult immigrants will highlight variances in risks and well-being. Consequently, results could help identify successful prevention factors that focus on building protective factors and resilience among immigrant adolescents and emerging adults living in the United States.

Based on the review of the literature, there is a need to expand on research pertaining to family ethnic-racial socialization, ethnic-racial identity development, and academic outcomes among adolescent and emerging adult immigrant populations. This study attempts to overcome current limitations and provide greater insight into the protective factors of shaping the acculturation experience. The study aims to broaden the knowledge baser and provide insight into the academic achievement, ethnic-identity, and family support for ethnic-minority immigrant youth living in the United States.

Pascoe and colleague (2009) conducted a meta-analysis assessing perceived ethnic-discrimination and health. The findings indicated that of the sixty-eight total studies examining ethnic-identity as a moderator on the association between perceived ethnic discrimination and

mental health, 18% reported a buffering effect, 12% reported an exacerbating effect, and 71% reported no effect. The studies included in this analysis often utilized ethnic identity as an aggregate factor. The mixed results about the impact of ethnic identity could be due to the distinct factors of ethnic identity being inadequately analyzed, or due to the limitations of the statistical design used (Thibeault, Stein, & Nelson-Gray, 2018). Several studies have studied cultural stress and psychosocial adjustment using three-way interactions with minority immigrant-origin emerging adults, promoting the utilization of third-variable moderators (Espinosa, Anglin, & Pandit, 2020; Tauric & Liem, 2012; Thibeault, Stein, & Nelson-Gray, 2018). Given these data, the current study focused on two socio-culturally relevant moderators that may influence how ethnic-racial identity impacts the relationship between ethnic-racial discrimination and academic outcomes: family ethnic-racial socialization and length of stay in the U.S.

The following research questions are considered: Is there a relationship among length of stay in the United States, academic self-efficacy, and academic behaviors, and if so, what factors shape that relationship? How does family ethnic-racial socialization influence the development of ethnic-racial identity for emerging adult immigrants living in the United States? Does ethnic-racial identity shape feelings and responses to perceived discrimination or stereotype threat? Lastly, does family ethnic-racial socialization shaped academic behaviors.

The following hypotheses were investigated:

H$_{1a}$. Compared to emerging adult immigrants who have resided in the U.S. for fewer years (F-EAIs), long-term emerging adult immigrants (L-EAIs) (i.e., those who resided in the United States for longer) will have significantly ***poorer academic self-efficacy***; however, this relationship will be moderated by ethnic-racial socialization such that high

ethnic-racial socialization will buffer the negative effects of length-of-time in the US on *academic self-efficacy.*

H₁ᵦ. Compared to emerging adult immigrants who have resided in the U.S. for fewer years (F-EAIs), long-term emerging adult immigrants (L-EAIs) will have significantly *poorer academic behaviors (i.e.., self-perceived academic ranking and GPA)*; however, this relationship will be moderated by ethnic-racial socialization such that L-EAIs with high ethnic-racial socialization will report particularly *stronger academic behaviors.*

H₂. Compared to emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) who live with their immediate family members, EAIs separated from their immediate family members would <u>not</u> differ in their sense of ethnic identity*;* instead, ethnic-racial socialization will predict ethnic identity regardless of separation/retainment of immediate family members.

H₃. Emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) who perceive more ethnic-racial socialization will report higher grades (i.e., GPA).

H₄ₐ. Emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) who resided in the U.S. longer will report more discrimination in the U.S. (i.e., everyday discrimination and major discrimination).

H₄ᵦ. Emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) that perceive higher ethnic-racial discrimination will have *poorer academic self-efficacy and poorer academic behaviors*; however, this relationship will be moderated by ethnic-racial identity, which will mitigate the negative effects of perceived discrimination.

 H₅. Emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) that perceive "negative ability" stereotype threat will report *poorer academic outcomes* (i.e., academic self-efficacy, self-perceived

academic ranking; and GPA); however, this relationship will be moderated by ethnic-racial identity such that high ethnic-racial identity will mitigate the negative effects of stereotype threat.

Chapter III: Methodology

This study used a quantitative and qualitative approach to examine how family factors, ethnic-racial identity, discrimination, and stereotype threat impacted academic outcomes of adolescent and emerging adult immigrants during their acculturation process in the United States. The methodology that was used in the current study was influenced by preexisting studies that conducted comparative research with similar procedures. Most research on immigrants' acculturation process in the United States has heavily depended on cross-cultural studies between first and second-generation immigrants and American born youth. The present study utilized a comparative research approach to assess differences between emerging adult immigrant students and non-students by using self-report method of measurement.

Participants

To recruit ethnic-minority immigrants between the ages 18 to 25, residing anywhere in the United States (U.S.), permanently or temporarily (e.g., on a work visa), the following methods were used: (1) emailing flyers to faculty/staff at other universities (see APPENDIX A) and requesting for the flier to be shared with all first-year students in their department; (2) emailing flyers to students affiliated with first-generation student clubs across the United States, such as the Caribbean American Leading Young Professional Student Organization (CALYPSO) (see APPENDIX A); (3) posting flyers around the campus of a middle sized regional university in the mid-Atlantic with a student population of 17, 719 (undergraduate and graduate students) (see APPENDIX B) as well as emailing study information to the faculty/staff in different departments (i.e., Department of Psychology and the Department of Academic Affairs) requesting for the recruitment flyer to be shared with their first-year students (see Appendix C); and (4) posting

prompts on various social media platforms (i.e., Amazon MTurk, Reddit, and Instagram) (see APPENDIX D).

Individuals were recruited in two stages: In Stage 1 (recruited between January 23, 2021 and February 7, 2021), individuals who completed the survey (see APPENDIX E) ($n = 25$) received a $25.00 USD Amazon Electronic Gift Card for their participation. Next, during Stage 2 (January 3- January 28, 2022), the remainder of the sample was recruited ($n=71$). Individuals who completed the survey received a $5.00 USD Amazon Electronic Gift Card for their participation. One ($n = 1$) individual participated in a qualitative interview on January 24, 2021 and received a $25.00 USD Amazon Electronic Gift Card for their participation. Total number of participants collected for this sample was ninety-seven ($N= 97$). This study received approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the university where the research took place (protocol # 20190207B-R2, see APPENDIX F; protocol # IRB-FY2022-69; see APPENDIX F).

Since only one individual participated in an interview, a second attempt was made to recruit more participants, but only by targeting ethnic-minority immigrant students between the ages 18 to 25 at a middle sized regional university in the mid-Atlantic with a student population of 17, 719 (undergraduate and graduate students). The initial methods listed above were adapted to recruit more individuals for the interview portion of the study. Flyers were posted around the university campus (see APPENDIX B). In addition, flyers were emailed to various student organizations/clubs that may be affiliated with the immigrant population on the campus (see APPENDIX A). Also, study information was emailed to the faculty/staff in different departments that may work closely with immigrant students (i.e., Center of International Studies) requesting for the recruitment flyer to be shared with their first-year students (see Appendix C). Despite

multiple attempts, additional individuals were not recruited for the interview portion of the current study.

Overall, participants who met the criteria for inclusion were emerging adult immigrants living in the United States. Based on the inclusion criteria used for this study, the participants were English speaking men and women immigrants to the United States, aged 18 years to 25 years. In addition to conducting one in-depth semi-structured qualitative interview, all participants of the survey were given an opportunity to provide written narratives regarding their experiences as emerging adult immigrants living in the U.S.

Procedure

Survey Participants

Ethnic-minority immigrants between the ages 18 to 25, living anywhere in the United States, could have completed the survey at any location (e.g., home, school, work, library) where they had access to the internet. The survey was created on Qualtrics (an online survey software). The link and the QR code to the survey was posted on flyers, in emails, as well as on social media prompts (e.g., Amazon MTurk). A consent form (see APPENDIX G) was copied and pasted directly into the Qualtrics survey; therefore, individuals signed a consent form before starting the survey. In addition, a pre-screen assessment (i.e., Demographic Questionnaire) was included in the beginning of the survey (see APPENDIX H). During the pre-screen assessment, participants completed a short self-report demographic questionnaire that recorded age, ethnicity, country of origin, and length of stay in the United States and other relevant questions. Participants who meet the inclusion criteria were permitted to continue completing the survey assessing their ethnic-racial identity, their family socialization, perceived experiences of discrimination, and their academic outcomes. Recruitment for survey participants occurred primarily on Amazon MTurk. Upon

completing the survey, all participants received an Amazon electronic gift card (as mentioned in the previous section). The survey took approximately twenty minutes to complete.

Interview Participants (One Respondent)

A pre-screen assessment for the interview, (i.e., the Demographic Questionnaire) (See APPENDIX H), was created using Qualtrics. The link and the QR code to the pre-screen assessment was posted on flyers, in emails, as well as on social media prompts (e.g., Instagram). A consent form was copied and pasted directly into the pre-screen assessment; therefore, individuals signed the consent form before starting the pre-screen assessment. After signing the consent form and completing the pre-screen assessment, individuals who met the inclusion criteria were then asked, via email, to participate in a study assessing their ethnic-racial identity, their family support, their perceived experiences of discrimination, and their academic outcomes. When an individual responded to the email expressing interest to participate in an interview, an appointment was coordinated for the interview to be conducted via Zoom.

Before beginning the interview via Zoom, the participant was reminded that the interview would be recorded and that it was optional to turn on their camera. In addition, a reminder was given to the participant that their name would not be used during the interview in effort to maintain confidentiality. After the interview was completed, the participant was debriefed by explaining the nature of the study and was given the opportunity to ask any questions. Also, the participant's email address was confirmed to receive the $25.00 USD Amazon electronic gift card for their participation. The interview took approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete.

Measures

Demographics Questionnaire

Demographic questionnaire assessed racial and ethnic background, age, gender, education level, social economic status, birthplace, age moved to the United States (U.S.), and length of stay in residency in the U.S.

English Language Proficiency

English language proficiency was measured by participants' self-report of their ability to speak, write, and read in English. The item reads, "How well do you do the following tasks in English: Speak in English, Write in English, and Read in English" with response options that ranged from 0 (poor) to 100 (Excellent). English fluency was based upon the demographic questionnaire developed by Belizaire and Fuertes (2010) studying first generation Haitian adult immigrants (see APPENDIX I).

Family Ethnic-Racial Socialization

Family ethnic-racial socialization was measured using the Teenager Experience of Racial Socialization Scale (Redway, 2014), which is a 30 item self-report measure of the frequency parents or caregivers convey to their children messages about being a member of their ethnic and racial group. The items in the scale reflected the common types of racial socialization messages (i.e., racial pride, racial barriers, egalitarian, self-worth, and negative), and not all 30 items were utilized for the current study. The items from the scale that were utilized in the present study were those pertaining directly to racial pride, such as being a member of one's racial and ethnic group, items comparing a racial-minority group to Whites (e.g., racial barriers and egalitarian messages), as well as negative items (i.e., 25 items total). For example, one item reads "Knowing your ethnic group heritage is important for your survival", another states, "People of my ethnic group don't

always have the same opportunities as Whites", another reads, "All races are equal", and another states, "Children of my ethnic group don't have to know about their ancestors' history in order to survive life in America." In the Teenager Experience of Racial Socialization Scale (Redway, 2014), the items pertaining to self-worth messages were removed in order to combine them and create a separate measure for positive ethnic affirmation (PEA). Examples of items are, "Be proud of who you are", "Never be ashamed of your color", and "You should be proud to be a member of your ethnic group." The Cronbach's α was too low for what was intended to be the PEA scale, which raised concerns regarding the reliability. Consequently, the PEA scale was removed from the current study. Of the twenty-five items administered for the family ethnic-racial socialization measure, only the items that loaded well in a factor analysis were retained (i.e., 3rev, 6rev, 8rev, 9rev, 11rev, 14rev, 15rev, 16rev, 17rev, 19rev, 20rev, 21rev, 22rev, 23rev) (see APPENDIX J). Cronbach's α for the scale in the current study was .80 (see Table 2).

Ethnic- Racial Identity

Ethnic-racial identity was measured using two scales that were combined into one scale. (1) The *Racial-ethnic Identity Scale* (Oyserman, Harrison, & Bybee, 2001) consists of three subscales that assess connectedness, awareness of racism, and embedded achievement. Each subscale is composed of 3 items and utilizes a 5-point Likert response scale. Examples of items are, "I have a lot of pride in what members of my community have done and achieved", "I feel part of my ethnic group community", and "Because I am a member of my ethnic group, others may have negative expectations of me." (2) The *Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure* (MEIM; Redway, 2014) is a 15 item self-reported measure assessing ethnicity or ethnic group identity and how one feels about it or reacts to it. Examples of items are, "I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs", "I have a clear sense of

my ethnic background and what it means to me", and "I feel a strong attachment towards my ethnic group." Given that the MEIM racial pride messages or racial barrier messages, twelve out of the 15 items from the MEIM (Redway, 2014) were combined with 3 items from two subscales (i.e., Connectedness and Awareness of Racism) of the Racial-ethnic Identity Scale (Oyserman, et. al., 2001) to construct the racial and ethnic identity measure used in the current study (see APPENDIX K). Reliability of the 15-item racial and ethnic identity measure was investigated using Cronbach's alpha. Results of this analysis suggested that the measure was reliable (α = .876). Since the result was above .80, this suggests that the fifteen items correlated well with each other, and were likely measuring the same underlying construct—ethnic identity (see Table 2).

Discrimination

The original Everyday Discrimination Scale (Williams, Yu, Jackson, & Anderson, 1997) was used to assess the frequency of various types of daily experiences of discrimination. Sample items are, "You are treated with less courtesy than other people are", "You are treated with less respect than other people are", and "People act as if they think you are dishonest" with response options that ranged from 0 (never) to 6 (almost everyday) across nine items (see APPENDIX L). Cronbach's α for the scale in the current study was .94 (see Table 2).

To measure frequency of major experiences of discrimination, the 6-item Major Experiences of Discrimination (Abbreviated Version) was administered using a 6-point Likert scale (Sternthal, Slopen, & Williams, 2011). Sample items are, "At any time in your life, have you ever been unfairly fired from a job or been unfairly denied a promotion?", "Have you ever been unfairly stopped, searched, questioned, physically threatened or abused by the police?", and "Have you ever been unfairly prevented from moving into a neighborhood because the landlord or a

realtor refused to sell or rent you a house or apartment?" (see APPENDIX M). Cronbach's α for the scale in the current study was .95 (see Table 2).

The six-item Heightened Vigilance Scale (Williams, 1997) assess how often vigilant behaviors are demonstrated in response to daily forms of discrimination using a Likert-scale from 1 to 5. Sample items include, "Think in advance about the kinds of problems you are likely to experience?", "Try to prepare for possible insults before leaving home?" and "Feel that you always have to be very careful about your appearance to get good service or avoid being harassed?" (see APPENDIX N). Cronbach's α for the scale in the current study was .85 (see Table 2).

Race-based Negative Ability Stereotype Threat

Items from the externalization and internalization variables from Owens and Lynch's (2012) model of stereotype effects were used to measure negative-ability racial stereotypes. The externalized stereotype scale composes of 4 items rated on a 10-point Likert response scale. Examples of items are, "If teachers have negative stereotypes about certain groups of people, it will not affect their evaluations of individual students from that group" and "If other students have negative stereotypes about certain groups of people, it will not affect their evaluation of individual students from that group." Two out of the 4 items from the externalized stereotype scale (Owens & Lynch, 2012) were used in the current study to measure externalized stereotype threat (see APPENDIX O). Cronbach's α for the scale in the current study was .74. The internalized stereotype scale consists of 3 items rated on a 10-point Likert response scale. Items are, "Do you think people in your own racial group tend to be lazy or hard working using a scale of 0 (lazy) to 10 (hardworking), "Do you think people in your own racial group tend to be unintelligent or intelligent using a scale of 0 (unintelligent) to 10 (intelligent)", and "In general, do you think people of your own racial group tend to give up easily or stick with a task until the end using a

scale of 0 (give up easily) to 10 (stick with it)" (see APPENDIX O). Cronbach's α for the scale in the current study was .86 (see Table 2).

Academic Outcomes

The current study relied on one measure of emerging adults' academic attitude (i.e., academic self-efficacy) and two measures of academic behaviors [i.e., self-perceived academic ranking and grade-point-averages (GPA)], all drawn from emerging adults' self-report. Since each measure factor was on a different rating scale, Z-scores were computed.

Academic Self-efficacy. Measurement of *Academic self-efficacy*, which is an indicator of academic outcomes, was based on five items adapted from Eccles and Wigfield's (1995) research on students' feelings of empowerment and capability of learning. Examples of items used to measure academic self-efficacy in the current study are, "When I try hard I can learn almost anything", "I believe I can get accepted into college", and "Compared to other students, how well do you expect to do in your classes this school year?") (see APPENDIX P).

Academic behaviors. To measure academic behaviors, the following two constructs were used. (1) *Grade point average* (GPA), was drawn from participants' self-report. To assess high school GPA, participants were asked one question based on a 13-point response scale ranging from A+ to F, which was, "Which of the following is closest to your average grade in high school?" The same item was asked about college GPA (see APPENDIX Q). (2) To measure *Self-perceived academic class ranking*, an indicator of academic outcomes, two items were adapted from Eccles and Wigfield's (1995) research on adolescents' achievement task values and expectancy-related beliefs. Examples of items used to measure self-perceived academic class ranking are, "On average, if you were to order all the students in your classes, or previous classes, from low to high

in grades, where would you rank yourself?" and "How have you been doing in your classes this past year" (see APPENDIX Q).

Chapter IV: Results

The demographic data for the participants are presented in Table 1a and Table1b. Out of a total of ninety-seven participants ($N= 97$), only one respondent participated in a virtual qualitative interview. Therefore, the data collected from the interview was not used in the main results, but rather, used to emphasize findings or address a factor that was not accounted for in the survey. A sample of emerging adult immigrants ($n= 96$) drawn primarily from social media platforms was analyzed for the quantitative data. This United States-based sample was comprised of 59% men and 27% women (Mage=22.61, SD= 1.47, range 18-25 years old). All of the participants reported being born outside of the United States and immigrating around age 9 years old, on average (Mage-immigrated= 9.17, SD= 5.43, range 1- 20 years old). The sample was 58% ethnic-racial minority immigrants and 36% White/Caucasian/Anglo European/ Not Hispanic immigrants. In terms of nationality, the sample represented a wide range of diversity with 23% of participants reported being born in a country located in North America (excluding the United States), 19% born in Europe, 15% born in Asia, 13% born in Africa, 4% born in South America, and 1% born in Australia. Information about socioeconomic status (SES) in high school was also measured (15% low, 73% middle, and 1% high SES). This present report examined predictors of their ethnic-racial identity (M= 4.0, SD= 0.59, range= 3.0), academic self-efficacy (M= .0030, SD= 0.65, range= 4.01), self-perceived academic ranking (M= -0.04, SD= 0.85, range= 5.0), as well as z-score of GPA (M= -0.05, SD= 1.0, range= 6.0). In all multiple regression analyses, the predictor variables were centered first.

H$_{1a}$: Compared to emerging adult immigrants who have resided in the U.S. for fewer years (F-EAIs), long-term emerging adult immigrants (L-EAIs) (i.e., those who resided in the United States for longer) will have significantly ***poorer academic self-efficacy***; this relationship will be

moderated by family ethnic-racial socialization as L-EAIs with low family ethnic-racial socialization will demonstrate particularly worse *academic self-efficacy.*

A multiple linear regression analysis was run (see Table 4a). First, key variables were centered before they were entered into the regression. This analysis examined whether length of time living in the U.S. (respondents that resided in the U.S. longer) (predictor variable) and family ethnic-racial socialization (predictor variable), and the interaction of length-of-time and family ethnic-racial socialization (predictor variable), predicted academic self-efficacy (DV). In Model 1, when covariates were not included, the interaction between family ethnic-racial socialization and length of stay in the U.S. was approaching significance ($b = .044$, $SE = .03$ $p < .10$). In addition, In Model 2 (with covariates), the interaction between length of time in the U.S. and family ethnic-racial socialization had a significant effect on academic self-efficacy ($b = .053$, $SE = .03$, $p < .05$). This suggests, as hypothesized, that residing in the U.S. longer and receiving more family ethnic-racial socialization predicts stronger self-efficacy in academics among emerging adult immigrants. In Model 1 (without covariates), family ethnic-racial socialization, specifically, had a significant effect on academic self-efficacy ($b = .358$, $SE = .17$, $p < .05$). This suggest that receiving higher family ethnic-racial socialization predicts stronger self-efficacy in academics. In Model 2 (with covariates), however, family ethnic-racial socialization was approaching significance ($b= .327$, $SE = .20$, $p < .10$). Also, in Model 2, the results indicated that gender ($b = .331$, $SE = .14$, $p < .05$) and the ability to read in English ($b= -.028$, $SE = .01$, $p < .05$) had a significant effect. This suggest that gender and as well as the ability to read in English both individually had a likelihood of predicting academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants in the U.S. Lastly, in Model 2, the ability to write in English was approaching significance ($b = .018$, $SE = .01$, $p < .10$). This indicates that the ability to write in English may also play a role in predicting academic self-efficacy.

H₁ᵦ: Compared to emerging adult immigrants who have resided in the U.S. for fewer years (F-EAIs), long-term emerging adult immigrants (L-EAIs) will have significantly ***poorer academic behaviors (i.e.., self-perceived academic ranking and GPA)*;** this relationship will be moderated by family ethnic-racial socialization as L-EAIs with low family ethnic-racial socialization will experience particularly worse ***academic behaviors.***

Before running analyses, the continuous variables were centered. Next, a multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 4b) was conducted to examine whether academic behaviors (i.e., self-perceived academic ranking) (DV) was predicted by the length of stay in the U.S. (predictor variable) and by family ethnic-racial socialization (predictor variable). In both Model 1 (without covariates) ($b = .017$, $SE = .04$, $p > .10$) and in Model 2 (covariates adjusted for) ($b = .025$, $SE = .04$, $p > .10$), none of the predictor variables were significantly associated with the outcome variable (self-perceived academic ranking), contrary to the hypothesis. In, however, both Model 1 and in Model 2, family ethnic-racial socialization was approaching significance. This suggests on one hand, academic behaviors were not significantly predicted by family ethnic-racial socialization, the number of years living in the U.S., and the interaction of both variables. However, family ethnic-racial socialization, specifically, may have contributed to the way emerging adult immigrants perceive their academic class ranking when comparing themselves to their peers in school.

Another multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 4c) was conducted to examine whether length of stay in the U.S. (predictor variable) and family ethnic-racial socialization (predictor variable) predicted academic behaviors (i.e., GPA) (DV). None of the predictor variables, including the interaction between length of time in the U.S. and family ethnic-racial socialization, were significantly associated with the outcome variable (GPA) neither in Model 1

(with no covariates) (b = .022, SE = .04, p > .10) or in Model 2 (covariates adjusted for) (b = .032, SE = .04, p > .10), contrary to the hypothesis. This suggests that GPA is not significantly predicted by family ethnic-racial socialization, the number of years living in the U.S., and the interaction of both variables.

H₂: Compared to emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) who live with their immediate family members, EAIs separated from their immediate family members would <u>not</u> differ in their sense of ethnic-racial identity; instead, it will be family ethnic-racial socialization that predicts ethnic-racial identity.

To examine the first part of H₂, an independent sample t-test was run to examine whether living with immediate family (predictor variable) predicted ethnic-racial identity (DV) among emerging adults. As hypothesized, results indicated that respondents that lived with family (M= 3.96, SD= .59) and respondents that did not live with family (M= 4.00, SD= .61) did not significantly differ in ethnic-identity t (63) = -.144, p =.886. Therefore, living with family did not predict ethnic-racial identity. To examine the second part of H₂, a Pearson correlation of family ethnic-racial socialization and ethnic-racial identity was conducted (see Table 3). As hypothesized, the two variables were significantly positively associated (r =.60, p <.001). Therefore, EAI with higher family ethnic-racial socialization also reported a stronger sense of ethnic-racial identity.

H₃. Emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) who perceive more family ethnic-racial socialization will report higher grades (i.e., GPA).

A multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 5) was conducted to examine whether family ethnic-racial socialization (predictor variable) predicted higher grade point averages (GPA) (DV). In Model 1, where no covariates were entered, family ethnic-racial socialization did not significantly predict GPA (b=.363, SE=.25, p > .10). Similarly, in Model 2 when covariates were

included, family ethnic-racial socialization still did not significantly predict GPA (b=.333, SE=.27, p > .10). Contrary to the hypothesis in the current study, the results indicated that family ethnic-racial socialization did not have a significant effect on grades in school. This suggests that family ethnic-racial socialization did not predict higher grades in school.

H4a. Emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) who resided in the U.S. longer will report more discrimination in the U.S. (i.e., everyday discrimination and major discrimination).

A multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 6a) was run to examine whether everyday discrimination (i.e., chronic microaggression such as people treat them with less courtesy and respect) (DV) was predicted by number of years living in the United States (predictor variable). In Model 1 (no covariates), years living the U.S. did not predict reports of everyday discrimination (b=.018, SE=.03, p > .10). When covariates were adjusted in Model 2, years living in the U.S., still did not predict exposure to everyday discrimination (b=0.17, SE=.03, p > .10). The results indicated that residing in the U.S. longer did not have a significant effect on whether emerging adult immigrants reported experiencing more everyday discrimination. This suggests that longer-term living in the U.S. did not predict everyday forms of microaggressions.

Another multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 6b) was conducted to examine whether living in the U.S. for more years (predictor variable) predicted the frequency of major forms of discrimination experienced (e.g., being unfairly fired from jobs, prevented from finishing education, harassed by police or landlords) (DV). In Model 1 (no covariates), the number of years living in the U.S. did not significantly affect whether emerging adult immigrants reported experiencing more major forms of discrimination, (b = -.009, SE = .03, p > .10). After adjusting for covariates in Model 2, years living in the U.S. still did not predict experiences of major discrimination (b= -.013, SE = .03, p > .10). Therefore, residing in the U.S. for more years did not

predict major forms of discrimination. It is worth noting that in Model 2, one covariate (race) was a significant predictor of the outcome (major discrimination). Adjusting for the dummy variable, race, was the only significant predictor of experiences of major discrimination ($b = 1.26$, $SE = .44$, $p < .01$). This suggests that while years living in the U.S. did not impact exposure to major discrimination, immigrant emerging adults who self-identified as White reported higher major discrimination ($M=3.78$, $SD=1.35$) than their immigrant counterparts who self-identified as non-White ($M=2.59$, $SD=1.51$). Consistently, the Pearson correlation that was conducted demonstrated a significantly positive correlation between emerging adult immigrants' self-identified race (dummy coded) and their perceived experiences of major discrimination ($r = .381$, $p < .01$) (see Table 3).

H4b. Emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) that perceive higher racial/ethnic discrimination will have poorer *academic self-efficacy and poorer academic behaviors*; however, this relationship will be moderated by ethnic-racial identity, which will mitigate the negative effects of perceived discrimination.

A multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 7a) was conducted to examine whether everyday discrimination (i.e., chronic microaggressions such as people treat them with less courtesy and respect) (predictor variable) and ethnic-racial identity (predictor variable) predicted academic self-efficacy (DV). In Model 1, where no covariates were entered, the interaction between everyday discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not significantly predict academic self-efficacy ($b = -.10$, $SE = .11$, $p > .10$). Similarly, in Model 2 when covariates were included, the interaction between everyday discrimination and ethnic-racial identity still did not significantly predict academic self-efficacy ($b = -.02$, $SE = .10$, $p > .10$). Contrary to the hypothesis in the current study, the results indicated that the interaction between everyday discrimination and ethnic-racial

identity did not have a significant effect on academic self-efficacy. This suggests that the interaction between microaggressions and a sense of ethnic-racial identity did not predict emerging adult immigrants' academic self-efficacy.

On the other hand, there was a main effect of ethnic-racial identity. In Model 1 (with no covariates), it was significantly associated with the outcome variable (academic self-efficacy) (b = .547, SE = .11, p <.001). Similarly, in Model 2 (covariates adjusted for) it was still significant (b = .698, SE = .11, p <.001). This suggests that a sense of ethnic-racial identity significantly predicted academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants. It merits mentioning that in Model 2, one covariate (gender) was approaching significance (b = .230, SE = .12, p <.10). Two other covariates, the ability to write in English (b = .021, SE = .01, p <.05) and the ability to read in English, (b = -.034, SE = .015, p <.05), were significant predictors of the outcome variable (academic self-efficacy). Immigrant emerging adults who reported having a stronger writing proficiency were more likely to also report stronger academic self-efficacy (positive associations). In contrast, those that reported stronger English reading proficiency reported lower or poorer academic self-efficacy (negative association). This suggests that the abilities to write and read in English may contribute to the development of academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants in the U.S.

Identical analyses were run using the second discrimination measure--major discrimination. A multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 7b) was run to examine whether major discrimination (e.g., being unfairly fired from jobs, prevented from finishing education, harassed by police or landlords) (predictor variable) and ethnic-racial identity (predictor variable) predicted academic self-efficacy (DV). In Model 1, where no covariates were entered, the interaction between major discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not significantly predict

academic self-efficacy (b = -.047, SE = .10, p > .10). Similarly, in Model 2 when covariates were included, the interaction between major discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not significantly predict academic self-efficacy (b = .015, SE = .09, p > .10). Contrary to the hypothesis, this suggests that the interaction between the experiences of major discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not predict academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants.

On the other hand, ethnic-racial identity, specifically, was a significant predictor. Ethnic-racial identity was associated with the outcome variable (academic self-efficacy) in Model 1 (with no covariates) (b = .546, SE = .11, p <.001) and in Model 2 (covariates adjusted for) (b = .715, SE = .11, p <.001). This suggests that a greater sense of ethnic-racial identity significantly predicted higher academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants. It is worth noting that in Model 2, after adjusting for the dummy variables, race was approaching significance (b = .243, SE = .13, p <.10) and writing English proficiency had a significant effect (b = .021, SE = .01, p <.05) and the ability to read in English (b = -.034, SE = .015, p <.05). This suggests that the abilities to write and read in English both contributed to the development of academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants in the U.S.

A multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 8a) was conducted to examine whether everyday discrimination (i.e., microaggressions) (predictor variable) and ethnic-racial identity (predictor variable) predicted self-perceived academic ranking (DV). In Model 1, where no covariates were entered, the interaction between everyday discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not significantly predict self-perceived academic ranking (b = -.117, SE = .20, p > .10). Similarly, in Model 2 when covariates were included, the interaction between everyday discrimination and ethnic-racial identity still did not significantly predict self-perceived academic ranking Model 2 (b = -.081, SE = .20, p > .10). Contrary to the hypothesis in the current study, the

results indicated that the interaction between everyday discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not have a significant effect on self-perceived academic ranking. This suggests that the interaction between microaggressions and a sense of ethnic-racial identity did not predict the way emerging adult immigrants self-perceived their academic ranking when compared to their classmates. On the other hand, ethnic-racial identity, specifically, was significantly associated with the outcome variable (self- perceived academic ranking) in Model 1 (with no covariates) ($b = .588$, $SE = .20$, $p <.05$) and in Model 2 (covariates adjusted for) ($b = .801$, $SE = .20$, $p <.001$). This suggests that a sense of ethnic-racial identity significantly predicted the way emerging adult immigrants ranked themselves in comparison to classmates, in terms of academics. Specifically, higher ethnic-racial identity predicted ranking themselves higher compared to classmates.

Another multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 8b) was conducted to examine whether everyday discrimination (i.e., chronic microaggressions) (predictor variable) and ethnic-racial identity (predictor variable) predicted GPA (DV). None of the predictor variables, including the interaction between everyday discrimination and ethnic-racial identity, were significantly associated with the outcome variable (GPA) neither in Model 1 (with no covariates) ($b = .107$, $SE = .23$, $p > .10$) or in Model 2 (covariates adjusted for) ($b = .20$, $SE = .25$, $p > .10$), contrary to the hypothesis. This suggests that GPA is not significantly predicted by the microaggressions, the ethnic-racial identity, and the interaction of both variables.

H5. Emerging adult immigrants (EAIs) that perceive "negative ability" stereotype threat will report poorer academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, self-perceived academic ranking; and GPA); however, this relationship will be moderated by ethnic-racial identity which will mitigate the negative effects of stereotype threat.

A multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 9a) was run to examine whether internalized negative ability stereotypes (predictor variable) and ethnic-racial identity (predictor variable) predicted academic self-efficacy (DV). In Model 1, where no covariates were entered, the interaction between internalized stereotypes and ethnic-racial identity did not significantly predict academic self-efficacy (b = -.016, SE = .06, p > .10). Similarly, in Model 2 when covariates were included, the interaction between internalized stereotypes and ethnic-racial identity still did not significantly predict academic self-efficacy (b = -.065, SE = .06, p > .10). Contrary to the hypothesis in the current study, the results indicated that the interaction between internalized stereotypes and ethnic-racial identity did not have a significant effect on academic self-efficacy. This suggests that the interaction between internalized negative ability stereotypes and a sense of ethnic-racial identity did not predict academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants.

On the other hand, ethnic-racial identity, specifically, was significantly associated with the outcome variable (academic self-efficacy) in Model 1 (with no covariates) (b = .343, SE = .11, p <.01) and in Model 2 (covariates adjusted for) (b = .391, SE = .11, p <.001). This suggests that a sense of ethnic-racial identity significantly predicted academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants. In addition, internalized stereotypes were significantly associated with the outcome variable (academic self-efficacy) in Model 1 (without covariates) (b = .076, SE = .03, p <.05) and in Model 2 (with covariates) (b = .077, SE = .03, p <.05). This suggests that internalized negative ability stereotypes significantly predicted academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants.

It is worth noting that in Model 2, one covariate (gender) was a significant predictor of the outcome (academic self-efficacy). After adjusting for the dummy variable, gender had a significant effect (b = .295, SE = .12, p <.05). This suggest that in addition to ethnic-racial identity as well as

internalized negative ability stereotypes having a significant impact on academic self-efficacy, gender is a significant predictor of academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants.

Another multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 9b) was run to examine whether ethnic-racial identity (predictor variable) and negative ability stereotypes (predictor variable) predicted self-perceived academic ranking (DV). In Model 1 where no covariates were entered, the interaction between ethnic-racial identity and internalized stereotypes did not significantly predict self-perceived academic ranking (b = -.074, SE = .08, p > .10). Similarly, in Model 2 when covariates were included, the interaction between ethnic-racial identity and internalized stereotypes still did not significantly predict self-perceived academic ranking (b = -.118, SE = .09, p > .10). Contrary to the hypothesis in the current study, the results indicated that the interaction between ethnic-racial identity and internalized stereotypes did not have a significant effect on self-perceived academic ranking. This suggests that the interaction between a sense of ethnic-racial identity and internalized negative ability stereotypes did not predict the way emerging adult immigrants ranked themselves academically in comparison to their classmates.

On the other hand, internalized negative ability stereotypes, specifically, was significantly associated with the outcome variable (self-perceived academic ranking) in Model 1 (with no covariates) (b = .202, SE = .04, p <.001) and in Model 2 (covariates adjusted for) (b = .225, SE = .05, p <.001). This suggests that internalized negative ability stereotypes significantly predicted the way emerging adult immigrants self-perceived their academic ranking when compared to their classmates (see Figure 1). Specifically, the more negative ability stereotypes were not internalized predicted higher self-perceived academic ranking.

Lastly, a multiple linear regression analysis (see Table 9c) was conducted to examine whether ethnic-racial identity (predictor variable) and internalized negative ability stereotypes

(predictor variable) predicted GPAs. In Model 1 where no covariates were entered, the interaction between ethnic-racial identity and internalized stereotypes did not significantly predict GPA ($b = .038$, $SE = .10$, $p > .10$). Similarly, in Model 2 when covariates were included, the interaction between ethnic-racial identity and internalized stereotypes still did not significantly predict GPA ($b = -.025$, $SE = .12$, $p > .10$). Contrary to the hypothesis in the current study, the results indicated that the interaction between ethnic-racial identity and internalized stereotypes did not have a significant effect on GPA. This suggests that the interaction between a sense of ethnic-racial identity and internalized negative ability stereotypes did not predict GPA among emerging adult immigrants. On the other hand, internalized negative ability stereotypes, specifically, was significantly associated with the outcome variable (GPA) in Model 1 (with no covariates) ($b = .124$, $SE = .06$, $p < .05$) and in Model 2 (covariates adjusted for) ($b = .145$, $SE = .10$, $p < .05$). This suggests that more negative ability stereotypes not internalized significantly predicted higher GPAs among immigrant emerging adults.

Supplementary Analyses

To give more understanding to Hypothesis 1a, a Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether gender and academic self-efficacy were associated. The positive correlation was approaching significance between the participant's gender and their sense of academic self-efficacy ($r = .193$, $p < .10$). This suggests that females may have a stronger sense of academic self-efficacy (see Table 3).

Another Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether family ethnic-racial socialization and academic self-efficacy was associated. There was a significant positive correlation between the frequency of family ethnic-racial socialization received and participants' sense of academic self-efficacy ($r = .274$, $p < .05$). This suggests that it is likely the more emerging

adult immigrants perceive messages from their parents about what it means to be a member of their ethnic-racial group the stronger their sense of academic self-efficacy (see Figure 2)

To give more clarification to Hypothesis 1b, a Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether family ethnic-racial socialization and academic self-ranking were connected. There was a significant positive correlation between the frequency of family ethnic-racial socialization received and participants' sense of academic self-ranking ($r = .248$, $p <.05$). This suggests that it is likely the more emerging adult immigrants perceive messages from their parents about being a member of their ethnic-racial group the stronger they perceive themselves in terms of academic-class ranking (see Table 3).

Furthermore, a Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether there was an association between academic self-efficacy and academic self-ranking. There was a significant positive correlation between emerging adult immigrants' sense of academic self-efficacy and their sense of academic self-ranking ($r = .625$, $p <.000$). This suggests that the stronger their belief in their capabilities of learning and executing academic tasks, the higher emerging adult immigrants perceive their academic-class ranking in comparison to their classmates (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether family ethnic-racial socialization and grades were associated. There was a significant positive correlation between the frequency of family ethnic-racial socialization received and participants' self-reported GPA ($r = .233$, $p <.05$). This suggests that it is likely the more emerging adult immigrants perceive messages from their parents about being a member of their ethnic-racial group, the higher their grades (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether academic self-efficacy and GPA were connected. There was a strong positive correlation between emerging adult immigrants' sense of academic self-efficacy and their self-reported GPA ($r = .526$, $p <.000$). This suggests that the

stronger belief emerging adult immigrants have in their capabilities of learning and executing academic tasks, the higher their grades (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether academic self-ranking and self-reported GPA were connected. There was a strongly positive correlation between emerging adult immigrants' self-perceived academic class ranking and their GPA ($r = .637$, $p < .000$). This indicates that the more emerging adult immigrants perceive their academic class standing to be higher than their classmates, the higher their grades (see Table 3).

To give more understanding to Hypothesis H2, a Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether ethnic-racial identity and race were associated. The negative correlation was approaching significance between emerging adult immigrants' self-reported race and their sense of ethnic-racial identity ($r = -.206$, $p < .10$). This indicates that a higher ethnic-racial identity was associated with non-White identity (see Table 3).

To give more understanding to Hypothesis 4a, a Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether there was an association between family ethnic-racial socialization and experiences of major discrimination. The positive correlation was approaching significance between the frequency of family ethnic-racial socialization received and participants' perceived experiences of major discrimination ($r = .251$, $p < .10$). This indicates that the more messages are conveyed to emerging adult immigrants about what it means to be a member of their ethnic group, the more they are likely to perceive situations as acts of major discrimination (see Table 3).

To give more clarification to Hypothesis 4b, A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether family ethnic-racial socialization and experiences of everyday discrimination were connected. There was a significant positive correlation between the frequency of family ethnic-racial socialization received and participants' perceived experiences of everyday

discrimination ($r = .309$, $p < .05$). This indicates that the more messages are conveyed to merging adult immigrants about what it means to be a member of their ethnic group, likely increases the chances of them perceiving situations as acts of everyday discrimination (see Table 3).

Moreover, a Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether there was an association between experiences of discrimination and vigilant behaviors in response to discrimination. There was a strong positive correlation between the frequency of perceived experiences of everyday discrimination and the frequency of participants' vigilant behaviors ($r = .607$, $p < .000$). This indicates that the more emerging adult immigrants perceive encounters as forms of daily discrimination, the more they are to behave vigilantly on a daily basis (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether everyday experiences of discrimination and encounters of major discrimination were associated. There was a strong positive correlation between the frequency of perceived everyday experiences of discrimination and the frequency of perceived encounters of major discrimination ($r = .812$, $p < .000$). This indicates that the more emerging adult immigrants perceive encounters as forms of daily discrimination, the stronger the likelihood that they will also frequently perceive situations as forms of major discrimination (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether experiences of major discrimination and vigilant behaviors were associated. There was a strong positive correlation between the frequency of perceived experiences of major discrimination and the frequency of participants' vigilant behaviors ($r = .695$, $p < .000$). This indicates that the more emerging adult immigrants perceive situations as major forms of discrimination, the stronger the likelihood that they will behave vigilantly on a daily basis (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether there was an association between family ethnic-racial socialization and vigilant behaviors. There was a significant positive correlation between the frequency of family ethnic-racial socialization received and the frequency of participants' vigilant behaviors ($r = .484$, $p < .000$). This indicates that the more messages are conveyed to emerging adult immigrants about what it means to be a member of their ethnic group, the stronger the likelihood that they will behave vigilantly on a daily basis (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether there was an association between ethnic-racial identity and self-perceived academic ranking. There was a strong positive correlation between the participants' ethnic-racial identity and their self-perceived academic self-ranking ($r = .397$, $p < .000$). This suggests that the stronger their sense of ethnic-racial identity, the greater the likelihood that emerging adult immigrants will have a higher self-perception of their academic ranking in comparison to their classmates (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether there was a relationship between vigilant behaviors and self-perceived academic class ranking. The positive correlation was approaching significance between the frequency of vigilant behaviors and participants' self-perceived academic class ranking ($r = .227$, $p < .10$). This indicates that there may be a possibility that the more emerging adult immigrants behave vigilantly in response to discrimination, the higher they may rank themselves in comparison to their classmates, in terms in academic standing (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether there was an association between ethnic-racial identity and GPA. There was a significant positive correlation between the participants' ethnic-racial identity and their self-reported GPA ($r = .287$, $p < .01$). This suggests

that the stronger their sense of ethnic-racial identity, the more likely emerging adult immigrants will have higher grades (see Table 3).

To give more understanding to Hypothesis 5, a Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether ethnic-racial identity and academic self-efficacy were associated. There was a significant positive correlation between participants' ethnic-racial identity and their academic self-efficacy ($r = .547, p < .000$). This suggests that the stronger sense of ethnic-racial identity emerging adult immigrants have about themselves, the greater their belief in their capabilities of learning and executing academic tasks (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether ethnic-racial identity and internalized stereotype threats were associated. There was a significant positive correlation between participants' ethnic-racial identity and the way they internalized negative ability stereotypes ($r = .413, p < .000$). This suggests that the stronger sense of ethnic-racial identity emerging adult immigrants have about themselves, then it is much less likely that they will internalize negative ability stereotype threats about individuals of their ethnic group and it is a greater likelihood that they will have resilient thoughts about individuals of their ethnic group (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether internalized stereotype threats were associated with academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, self-perceived class ranking, and GPA). There was a strong positive correlation between participants' academic self-efficacy and the way they internalized negative ability stereotypes ($r = .396, p < .000$), as well as between participants' self-perceived academic ranking and internalization of negative ability stereotypes ($r = .517, p < .000$). There was a significant positive correlation between participants' self-reported GPA and the way they internalized negative ability stereotypes ($r = .227, p < .05$).

This suggests that the greater belief emerging adult immigrants have in their capabilities of learning and executing academic tasks and the stronger their perception of their academic ranking in school, the less likely they will internalize negative ability stereotype threats and the greater the likelihood they will have more resilient thoughts about individuals of their ethnic group. In addition, there is a likelihood that the higher the grades then the less likely emerging adult immigrants will internalize negative ability stereotype threats, and the greater the likelihood they will have resilient beliefs about individuals of their ethnic group (see Table 3).

A Pearson correlation was conducted to examine whether the frequency of experiences of discrimination (i.e., everyday discrimination and major discrimination) was associated with internalized stereotype threats. The negative correlation was approaching significance between participants' perceived encounters of discrimination and the way they internalized negative ability stereotypes (everyday discrimination, $r = -.239$, $p < .10$; major discrimination, $r = -.254$, $p < .10$). This suggest that it is probable that the more emerging adult immigrants experience discrimination, whether daily forms or major types, there may be a probability that they may more deeply internalize negative ability stereotype threats and have more discouraging thoughts about individuals of their ethnic group (see Table 3).

Qualitative Information

In addition to conducting one in-depth semi-structured qualitative interview, all participants of the survey were given an opportunity to provide written narratives regarding their experiences as emerging adult immigrants living in the U.S. Through the interview and narratives, the current study explored supplemental information regarding family ethnic-racial socialization, mainstream society socialization, and challenges immigrants experience in the U.S.

Family ethnic-racial socialization

In the survey, participants were asked to share about messages their family members conveyed to them about being a member of their ethnic group. In the sample, several participants reported receiving messages from their family members about the importance in remembering their heritage, maintaining their traditions, as well as being proud of who they are, and working hard. A college student, who is a 24-year old male and was born in Venezuela explained, "They want me to accept my heritage and maintain our traditions and to not stop them for anything." Similarly, a 21-year-old college student who was born in India shared, "My family member said to me that my ethic group have a very great and rich history and it need to be preserved like other ethnic groups."

Some family members stressed the significance in maintaining their collectivistic lifestyle, such as continuing to share resources and supporting one another so that everyone can be successful. A 24-year old male participant who was born in China and immigrated to the U.S. at age 6, and is currently not in school, shared:

> My parents are not incredibly traditional, but they want me to remember my roots. They especially believe that being immigrants, we are at the end of the day guests in a foreign country, and that our home is the country we're from. At the same time, they believe that people have the right to live anywhere, and that any place can make you happy. It is nevertheless important to remember where your family is from, and that those are the people who are closest to you in the world, and to not forsake that family.

Some participants shared that their family members conveyed messages about the possible racial/ethnic problems they may experience as an immigrant living in the U.S, such as, "Just that we need to be careful because of how we look. Not all people view us in a negative way, however there are some. Being able to know when we are being viewed in this way is very helpful." One participant who identified as a 24-year-old man who was born in China and currently not in school, emphasized, "They say it is very important to remember that I am Chinese and not the same

American as white people. They also say I need to work harder and do well in school to have a good life in America."

In contrast, there were some participants who reported that while they received messages from their family members warning them about possible problems they may encounter related to their ethnicity, they themselves have had the opposite experience, so far, as an immigrant living in the United States. X, a college student who was born in Japan and is 20-years old, said his family conveyed to him that "Being a part of your ethnic group comes with a struggle of being inferior to other groups at first, and you have to try to appease any other 'superior groups' to really make it in the world." He reported, however, that based on his experiences, mainstream culture in the U.S. has conveyed to him that "Being an immigrant is special in a way, and people will respect you more for coming to America to make a better life for yourself."

There were also some participants who said that their family members conveyed positive messages about mainstream culture in the U.S., such as being a "welcoming place to all people" or "The culture of American is sometimes good and sometimes they saw the racial items" put by one college-student participant who lived in the U.S. for 10 years.

In contrast, there were a few participants who experienced conflicting messages between their family members and the mainstream American culture. For example, a first-year graduate student who is a 24-year-old female said, *"They [her family members] have told me to be proud of my Salvadoran background and to not let growing up in the US make me become White washed."* While her family has tried to encourage her to be proud of her background as a Salvadoran immigrant, this participant said mainstream U.S. society has conveyed to her that being an immigrant "…Is a criminal act that should be persecuted."

Likewise, a 20-year-old college student who was born in Mexico said that her family emphasized to her, "That our heritage is important and strong. That we are not less than the American man and that we should always strive to show our best, since it is representing our ethnic group." On the other hand, she indicated that mainstream American society conveyed to her, "That I should be grateful for being allowed into this country, and that I should do everything I can to try and become "white" in a sense. That my culture needs to be oppressed in a way to fit in better." The conflicting messages between the host and native cultures that emerging adults receive could contribute to the development of their self-identity.

Mainstream American Culture Socialization

In the survey, participants were asked to share messages that mainstream American culture has conveyed to them about being an immigrant in the U.S. Overall, in the sample, participants reported that mainstream society in the U.S. communicated to them that they must conform to the mainstream culture or "obey the American culture" (X, a 21-year-old college student from England), they will always be an outcast, and that their race and/or ethnicity is a disadvantage. For example, an Albanian 24-year-old who is in his fourth year of college explained, "American culture has mostly shown that being an immigrant means that you are to celebrate your past but you must conform to the way that America does things to fit in and be truly accepted." Others pointed out the messages expressed to them about the disadvantages of their skin tone. X, a 23-year-old Cuban who is a second-year college student, noted that it has been communicated to her, "I'm not important because I'm not white."

One 23-year-old participant who was born in Russia echoed the sentiments of many immigrant participants in this study when she said the mainstream American society expressed to her, "That we should become just like the people who were born here or somehow we aren't as

good." Several participants in the study shared discouraging messages they perceive from the host culture in the U.S., which could contribute to a poor development of self-identity, as stated in the literature above, such as, "That I will always be different"; "I am not as important or heard"; "We steal money and jobs from them"; and "That we are not welcome." Furthermore, some participants reported that the negative messages conveyed to them by mainstream American society has led to severe internalization. X, a twenty-five-year old college student from United Kingdom explained:

> I feel a lot of shame regarding my culture because of people talking badly about British people. I've been told to go back to where I came from. People tend to see the British as having oppressed Americans causing them to come to the US in the first place, and thus indirectly responsible for the mistreatment of Native tribes and African Americans to name a few.

Moreover, some participants shared about ways in which mainstream media in the U.S. is contributing to poor treatment of specific groups of immigrants in the United States. One participant, in particular, a 24-year-old male, who was born in China and moved to the U.S. at age 6, and is currently not enrolled in school, added:

> I am fortunate to have lived in places that are immigrant heavy. Currently I live in New York, and most people don't even know that I'm from a different country when I walk down the street. Mainstream culture currently however has a strong vendetta towards Asians; especially Chinese, because of the current pandemic. In that respect, it's been rather hard on the Chinese community. Those of us who haven't lived in China for years are being disrespected and misrepresented by the media at times (especially by former US president DT [Donald Trump] and his cabinet).

In contrast, a few participants believed that the media in the U.S. displays warm and welcoming messages towards immigrants, and argue that these messages often do not align with their daily experience living as an immigrant in the U.S. For example, a 22-year-old college student who was born in South Korea and moved to the U.S. at age 5 said, "Media shows more acceptance than what I truly experience in day-to-day reality."

Thus, participants in this study clearly felt their immigrant disadvantages. At the same time, it is worth noting that some participants reported receiving encouraging messages from mainstream American society towards immigrants living in the U.S., such as "often inviting and accommodating" (X, a 23-year-old male who was born in Guatemala and lived in the U.S. for 11 years, and is not in school). Other participants reflected similar statements, noting that as long as the individual can offer some good to the society, then mainstream culture is typically accepting of the person. For example, as a 24-year-old Chinese female college student, who moved to the U.S. at age 19, had put it, "The United States is a very inclusive country, and people who have abilities can get a foothold here. Although racism will exist, most Americans are friendly to immigrants."

It is important to note that the length of stay and the degree to which participants adapted mainstream American culture, may have an impact on the messages perceived from society about being an immigrant in the U.S. When reflecting on the messages conveyed to him from mainstream American culture about being an immigrant in the U.S., a Venezuelan college student who is 24-years-old said, "I feel that I'm accepted by the vast majority of people and I think that is because we came here years ago and have become part of the surrounding culture and mixed it with ours."

Clearly, emerging adult immigrants in this study have received a varying degree of messages from mainstream American culture. In addition, a few participants shared that mainstream American society has communicated contrasting views about immigrants living in the U.S. X, a 23-year-old college student who was born in Mexico and moved to the U.S. at age 10 said, "On some sides that we are equal and helpful. Others say we are freeloaders criminals and other hateful rhetoric." The contrasting messages perceived by immigrants from the host culture in the U.S. may lead to a sense of isolation. For example, one respondent shared that the messages

conveyed to him from mainstream American culture is "…a weird mix of segregation and love between Americans and immigrants."

The mixture of messages emerging adult immigrants receive from the mainstream American culture may also contribute to feelings of non-acceptance. One Nigerian college student who is 23-years-old and moved to the U.S. at age 13 reported that overall, the message she perceives from the host culture is "That I am welcome and not welcome, Sometimes the culture can be welcoming and sometimes it can be very cold/mean." Another respondent illustrated these contrasting messages: "Some of them are accepting, and some view us as lesser." Lastly, X, a Colombian student who had been in the U.S. since age 17 (she was 22 at the time of the interview), was aware of the impact these messages have on immigrants. When asked to share messages that mainstream American culture has conveyed to them about being an immigrant in the U.S., she responded, "We're less than people who were born here. Not everyone feels that way, but the people that do make things harder."

Challenges as an Immigrant in the United States

In the survey, participants were asked what they think is the greatest challenge for other students who reside in the U.S. but were not born in the U.S. One participant discussed feelings of isolation, loneliness, and not belonging to a group in school as the greatest challenges immigrants face in the United States. Furthermore, several respondents identified not being accepted by others as one of the greatest challenges for immigrants. A 25-year-old White male who is from United Kingdom, explained:

> The greatest challenge for them is feeling like you belong to neither group - not your home country because of your move and attempted assimilation, nor your American heritage; it feels like wearing a suit a size too tight. You feel an imposter to both sides. A changeling in disguise.

In addition, multiple participants identified the greatest challenge for immigrants in the United States as trying to learn American culture. A first-year college student from Mexico, who is a 20-year-old female and has been living in the U.S. for 1 year said,

> Learning the way that people function in the United States. It was much different to where I came from. Everyone in my town were very warm and caring, but when I came to the United States, I lived in a city and it is much different. People are much more quieter and cold.

Many other participants believed the greatest challenge for immigrants in the U.S. was not just learning the mainstream culture but also still maintaining their native culture. As one Nigerian female college student, who immigrated at age 15, put it, "I think their greatest challenge is balancing their culture and the American culture that we live in." Another most commonly identified issue that participants said is the greatest challenge for immigrants in the United States was the drastic change in the environment and culture in comparison to their native country, particularly for individuals who may experience a change in societal status. For example, a female college student from South Korea said that "Feeling like the minority for the first time is the greatest challenge.

Additionally, numerous participants identified language barriers (i.e., learning and speaking the language, understanding others, and others understanding them) as the greatest challenges immigrants face in the United States. A Chinese male remarked:

> I knew someone who struggled so hard with the language that after a year he was still not conversational with the language. A lot of other kids made fun of him for it and he was really upset by the entire situation. It was difficult for him to even later get along with people due to having trust issues.

Another participant, who is from El Salvador and in graduate school, highlighted how age may be associated to language difficulties, as she stated, "I think for some students that came here to the US when they were older is that they have trouble with the language and that people think that they are dumb just because they are immigrants." On the other hand, respondents emphasized

that it is the sound of the accent that will lead to the greatest challenges. For example, a female college student who is from Nigeria shared that the greatest challenge for immigrants in the U.S. will be, "People hearing your accent or looking at you and treating you poorly. Not giving you the time to listen to what you're are saying. It's difficult to makes friends and connections." A 23-year-old Russian female added, "I think that there are always jokes and that sounding not the same as others make us stand out and makes it harder to feel like this is our home."

Lastly, discrimination or "fighting racism" (as a 23-year-old Cuban female had put it), was one of the most frequently identified challenges respondents said immigrants encounter in the United States. Some participants believed it was their physical characteristics, such as "their skin color" that causes the greatest challenges for immigrants. A 23-year-old male college student who is from Hungary discussed the problems immigrants may face when they appear different from mainstream American society. "Those with strong accents and who may look different than other Americans are always singled out as being immigrants, and that's been a great challenge. They just want to fit in", he said. Thus, many participants regarded the immigrant status as the element that leads to the greatest challenges for immigrants in the U.S. X, a Nigerian college student who is 23-years-old, he explained,

> Their greatest challenge is freedom, freedom to do what others are doing without discrimination.

Additional Challenges Associated with Being an Immigrant in the United States

Within the survey, participants were provided the opportunity to share whether being an immigrant created additional challenges for them in the U.S. and to discuss social cues they observed that indicated this. Some participants reported that they no longer experience as many challenges from identifying as an immigrant as they did when they were younger. On the other hand, there were a few participants who noted that being an immigrant has created additional

challenges for them; however, they expressed that due to support systems, they are not severely impacted by them. A Chinese male college student who immigrated to the U.S. at age 14 said, "People see me as less in a way, but I do not mind as I knew this would happen when moving to a completely different country. I try to ignore it because I have those similar to me to share my thoughts with."

In contrast, there were several participants who reported experiencing emotional challenges for being an immigrant and shared about the social cues they observed when interacting with others. An Albanian male college student who immigrated to U.S. at age 10, remarked:

> I think it has affected me. It created challenges in fitting into the group and making friends outside other minorities in high school. People would tease me and make bad jokes about my heritage to my face, so I felt excluded and sad.

Many participants shared about observing differences in social treatment, based on race or ethnicity, that indicated to them that being an immigrant creates additional challenges in the U.S. For a college student from Egypt who immigrated to the U.S. at age 12, he noticed that mainstream society tended to treat him more poorly than others, and at the center of the mistreatment was the issues of race: "People are generally less welcoming and friendly towards me than they are towards White people."

Even when race or ethnicity was not identified as the cause of problems, a few participants identified patterns in social interactions with others that indicated to them that being an immigrant adds more challenges. A Nigerian female college student who moved to the U.S. at age 13 explained:

> Yes; people just assume I am dishonest even without knowing me and I am searched more thoroughly than others or scrutinized more, really annoying.

It is worth noting that a 24-year-old Chinese male participant, who moved to the U.S. at age 6, did not perceive the identity as an immigrant as a cause for additional challenges, rather, he believed that the problem lied in race:

> I do not think it is identity being born outside of US but more, the identity of not being a white person. I could tell this because most Asians in my school were not very popular and we all end up hanging with each other.

This participant believes that the issue is not being an immigrant, rather, the issue is not being a White immigrant. Furthermore, according to this respondent, White immigrants do not experience additional challenges as immigrants who are non-White in the U.S, which is contrary to the findings of Hypothesis 4a in the current study.

Lastly, not only did several participants say that being an immigrant has created additional challenges for them in mainstream American society, but they also identified specific social cues they observe from others during interactions that suggest their immigrant identity is a problem. For example, a 23-year-old male participant who is from Guatemala noted that they receive microaggressions: **"**Yes, when someone says I speak good English.**"**

Many participants mentioned the frequent poor treatment they receive from the host culture in the U.S. that suggests to them that being an immigrant creates additional challenges. A 24-year-old first-year graduate student from El Salvador, who moved to the U.S at age 1, said,

> Yes, people think that I'm not as smart as they are. They also assume that I do not speak English fluently which I do because I have spent the majority of my life here. I think the social cues are there mannerisms like they will give me step by step detailed instructions or sometimes but not super often someone will ask me if I need someone to translate.

English Proficiency.

When participants were asked, "*Do you find the strength of your accent a challenge when communicating with others?*", overall, there was a range of responses. Many participants shared that they never experienced challenges with others understanding them due to their accent. A

twenty-four-year-old Mexican female participant who moved to the United States at age 2 years-old, remarked:

> I actually do not have much of a heavy accent. My mother actually paid for us to take English classes growing up, she always hoped that we would one day move to the United States together as the whole family, but it never really happened. Still, the classes were of great help to me and my brother.

> Other participants noted that they do experience challenges from the strength of their accent when trying to communicate with others but indicated that they do not allow the challenges to negatively impact them, as some of them put it, "Yes, sometimes I feel that but I speak confidently and fluently while speaking to others", "Yes, but I feel very proud of my origins", and "I wouldn't see it as a challenge, I have learnt to live with it, and I am not ashamed... it is my identity, this is who I am."

A few respondents reported that their accent was stronger during their childhood than as an emerging adult and contributed to them having difficulty during that time of their life. A Chinese college student who is age 23 years-old and immigrated to the United States at age 5, noted some of these childhood challenges:

> My accent is mostly gone but when I was young it was bad and made things difficult especially as a kid since kids lack tact.

> On the other hand, some participants noted that the strength of their accent leads to them experiencing stress when trying to communicate with others. Some of the previous literature stated that language barriers are one of the key stressors during acculturation. Consistently, some participants pointed out, "It's definitely a challenge. People think of me as a joke and make fun of my accent more times than not. It is very hard to be taken seriously" and "Yes people don't understand the way I talk." The one participant who completed the interview, a Mexican male who moved to the United States at age 19, explained how the strength of his accent has negatively impacted the way people in the United States perceive him:

My first year of college I did not speak whatsoever because I felt as though my accent was thicker than other people's. I think it will be more difficult if move to northern states. Place like Texas, California and Florida are more tolerant. Alabama is not as welcoming. The moment they hear my voice or see I am Mexican, most Americans will see I am lower than them.

Chapter V: Discussion

The process of adjusting or adapting to the host culture in the United States (U.S.) can be difficult and fraught by acculturation. As the results of this study have indicated, this process may be particularly difficult for adolescents and emerging adults. Acculturation consists of a process whereby immigrants must learn novice lifestyles, including new interpersonal expectations and cultural parameters (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). During acculturation, immigrant adolescents and emerging adults are often forced to adjust to separation from family and exposure to ethnic-racial discrimination from the host culture, while also navigating the normative developmental challenges of adolescence and emerging adulthood, such as ethnic-racial identity development and academic achievement (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, & Qin, 2006). In addition to navigating the challenging developmental stages of adolescence and emerging adulthood, immigrants frequently must navigate "between the often-conflicting values and developmental goals of their home and host cultures, in a discriminatory context" (Motti-Stefanido, 2018, p. 99). Not all adolescent and emerging adult immigrants, however, who are exposed to such risks, develop mental health, behavioral health, or academic difficulties. Little is known about the protective factors for adolescent and emerging adult immigrants during acculturation process in the U.S. Until recently, the unique conditions of immigrant adolescents and emerging adults have been widely ignored. Comparative research (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2006) on the immigration experience is still scarce. This gap in the literature indicates that there is a critical need for better understanding of the protective factors, which increases probability of positive outcomes in presence of risk factors, and its mechanisms for immigrant youth and emerging adults' well-being in the United States as well as globally.

This study investigated the impact of family factors, ethnic-racial identity, perceptions of stereotype threat and discrimination on academic outcomes among emerging adult immigrants

(ages 18 to 25) to the United States. Rather than taking a conventional problem-focused approach, which focuses on the risks, deficits, and vulnerabilities, the current utilized a strength-based approach, focusing on protective factors such as resilience and positive outcomes (Motti-Stefanido, 2018). The initial goals of the study were twofold: (1) gather quantitative data on family factors (e.g., family socialization), self-factors (i.e., ethnic-racial identity as well as length of stay in the U.S.), and academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, GPA, and self-perceived class ranking) and (2) gather qualitative information to examine family factors that influence resilience as well as academic outcomes among emerging adult immigrants. The analysis mainly focused on the quantitative data, but data was used from the one-in depth semi-structured qualitative interview and participants' written narratives from the survey to provide supplemental information. During data analysis, several significant and noteworthy associations were found among ethnic-racial identity affirmation, family socialization, perceptions of stereotype threat and racial discrimination, and academic self-efficacy, which will be further addressed in this chapter.

Family Ethnic-racial Socialization, Years Living in the U.S., and Academic Outcomes

Family ethnic-racial socialization and length of time living in the United States was hypothesized to significantly predict academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and grade point average). The following below discusses the findings for each academic outcome. This study hypothesized that emerging adult immigrants who resided in the U.S. for longer years (L-EAIs) would have significantly poorer academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and grade point average) than emerging adult immigrants who have resided in the U.S. for fewer years (F-EAIs). It was predicted that this relationship would have been moderated by family ethnic-racial socialization, specifically L-EAIs with high family ethnic-racial socialization would be buffered from negative effects on academic outcomes. **The**

results of the study partially supported this hypothesis. The findings indicated that family ethnic-racial socialization would likely protect against the negative impacts of length-of-time in the US on academic self-efficacy. In addition, higher family ethnic-racial socialization was significantly associated with higher academic self-efficacy. On the other hand, this hypothesis was not supported as family ethnic-racial socialization, number of years living in the U.S., and the interaction of both variables did not predict self-perceived academic ranking or grade point average (GPA). Also, while a correlation was noted between family ethnic-racial socialization and self-perceived academic ranking, it did not achieve statistical significance. The following section explains why these findings are important.

The immigrant health paradox phenomenon suggested that newly arrived immigrant youth in the United States demonstrate stronger academic aspirations (e.g., academic self-efficacy) and performance as compared to more acculturated immigrant youth or non-immigrated youth (Garcia et al., 2012). Despite demonstrating educational advantages upon first immigrating, practically all immigrant groups seem to have decreases in academic aspirations as well as physical and mental health over their course of length of stay in the U.S (Suarez- Orozco et al., 2009; Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, et al., 2009; Suárez-Orozco, Rhodes et al., 2009). In contrast to the immigrant health paradox, findings from current study found no significant correlation between length of stay in the U.S. and academic behaviors (i. e., academic self-ranking or GPA). One possible reason why there was no significant correlation is due to the low number of participants who recently arrived in the United States (n = 6). There was not an adequate number of participants who resided in the U.S. for fewer years to compare to participants who resided in the U.S. for longer years. Some of the initial research for the immigrant health paradox was based on data from the Longitudinal Immigrant Student Adaptation Study, which consisted of a much larger sample size than the

current study- 407 recently arrived ethnic-minority immigrant youth over the course of five years, to be exact. Therefore, one reason the current study did not support the immigrant health paradox is due to the small sample size of recently arrived emerging adult immigrants compared to participants who resided in the U.S. for more years.

Although findings did not support the immigrant health paradox, it adds to the growing body of literature on protective factors for emerging adult immigrants. For one, the findings suggest that residing in the U.S. longer plus receiving more family ethnic-racial socialization predicts stronger academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants. Therefore, in spite of residing in the U.S. longer, and consequently having the possibility of being exposed to more risks, emerging adult immigrants who frequently receive ethnic-racial socialization from their parents or caregivers will have a stronger belief in their ability to succeed in school than emerging adult immigrants who do not frequently receive such messages.

Additionally, the more families provide ethnic-racial socialization, such as messages that convey racial pride and barriers, the greater the academic self-efficacy among emerging adult immigrants. A possible explanation for the results obtained in the current study may be based on research findings which suggest that parent racial socialization can be predictive of academic achievement. In their study of African American males, Neblett Jr. (2009) found that students who experienced more messages from their primary caregivers about group pride and racial barriers reported that they persisted more in difficult school tasks than boys who experienced very little race socialization or negative socialization. Neblett Jr. and colleagues argued that the findings suggest that receiving more group pride and barriers messages (in contrast to very little or negative race socialization messages) may help boys gain an increase a sense of pride in the collective struggle of African Americans, which has been associated to greater personal motivation among

African American adolescents (O'Connor, 1999; Smalls, White, Chavous, & Sellers, 2007). The current data illustrates that family ethnic-racial socialization likely acts as a buffer against the risks that are frequently associated with residing in the United States for a longer period, such as a decrease in academic attitudes, among emerging adult immigrants.

Analyses revealed that gender was a unique positive predictor of academic self-efficacy. The current findings indicate that female emerging adult immigrants may tend to have a stronger sense of academic self-efficacy than males. Similar results were also found by Thibeault, Stein, and Nelson-Gray (2018) in their study of non-White emerging adult college students who have immigrant-origin as ethnic-racial identity had a stronger and more positive impact in the lives of women than men. Literature indicates that consistent with cultural or gender role socialization and coping techniques, internalizing symptoms may be more related to women (Rosenthal & Schreiner, 2000). Subsequently, during times of distress, women may garner support that helps build a stronger ethnic-racial identity (e.g., belief in who they are) (Juang & Syed, 2010; Padilla, 2006; Robinson & Biringen, 1995). Therefore, the strength of the social support system and social connectedness that women tend to harvest may play a significant role in emerging adult immigrant women having a stronger sense of academic self-efficacy than males.

While a correlation was noted between English proficiency (i.e., the ability to Write in English) and academic self-efficacy, it did not achieve statistical significance. On the other hand, there was a main effect of the ability to read in English. It was significantly associated with the outcome variable (academic self-efficacy).

In addition, the present findings may suggest that the marginalized view that is often applied when measuring academic performance among emerging adult immigrants may be problematic. Existing research found a significant association between ethnic-racial socialization

and academic performance. In a study that examined the influence of significant relationships on academic outcomes among newcomer immigrant youth, youth's relationship with their family, overall, were identified as essential in supporting academic performance (Suárez-Orozco, Pimentel, et al., 2009). Similarly, Neblett Jr. and colleagues (2009), examined parent racial socialization, racial discrimination, and subsequent academic achievement outcomes among a sample of African American adolescent males. Racial socialization experiences were associated with academic persistence and performance. In both studies, academic performance and achievement was measured by GPA, which is consistent with the current study. However, in the present study, family ethnic-racial socialization, number of years living in the U.S., and the interaction of both variables did not significantly predict academic performance (i.e., self-perceived academic ranking or GPA) among emerging adult immigrants unlike the effect on academic self-efficacy. This indicates that there may be other constructs that are not related to GPA that may be just as important, if not more, in predicting academic performance among emerging adult immigrants.

In conclusion, the present findings add a new dimension to examining academic performance. Family ethnic-racial socialization likely has more of an internal impact for emerging adult immigrants, such as on one's belief in their ability to academically succeed, rather than an external effect, such as on one's GPA. Internal variables tend to have more substance or weight for life, which is important for identity development. Contrary to the literature, the current study proposes that there is a need to think bigger and stop relying on traditional variables to measure academic success. Consider moving away from the traditional marginalized view of academic performance/achievement (e.g., GPA), and examine internal factors, such as academic self-efficacy, that may be driving academic outcomes.

Family Separation, Family Ethnic-racial Socialization, and Ethnic-racial Identity

This study predicted that family separation would not significantly predict ethnic-racial identity after accounting for family ethnic-racial socialization. **The results supported this hypothesis.** Interestingly, neither living with or being separated from immediate family in the United States was found to be a significant predictor of ethnic-racial identity among emerging adult immigrants. When family ethnic-racial socialization, however, was included in the analysis, this variable explained a significant amount of the variance in ethnic-racial identity among emerging adult immigrants and it was a unique positive predictor. The results indicate that regardless of being separated from family, emerging adult immigrants who receive more family ethnic-racial socialization most likely will have a stronger sense of ethnic-racial identity compared to emerging adult immigrants who do not.

Family separation during immigration can be a painful process for some youth, contributing to high reports of depressive symptoms (Suárez-Orozco et. al., 2002). Often, family interactions and dynamics serves as a foundation for an individual's identity development. For example, there is a growing recognition that parenting behaviors and family socialization has a profound effect on African American youth development (Brown, et al., 2009; Stewart, 2007). Therefore, separating from a source of identity could be severely taxing, leading to hopelessness, identity confusion, and low self-worth. The Integrative Model of Ethnic-Racial Protective Factors demonstrates, however, that ethnic-racial socialization often influences youth's racial and ethnic-racial identity (Neblett Jr, Rivas-Drake et al., 2012). The model concludes that immigrant youth may be more equipped to cope with family separation depending on the family socialization (Neblett Jr, Rivas-Drake, et al., 2012). Direct and indirect family socialization plays a critical role in the way immigrant youth makes meaning of the separation from family and the separation being

more manageable (Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, et al., 2006). Additionally, ethnic-racial socialization messages often influence youths' racial and ethnic-racial identity (Neblett Jr, Rivas-Drake, et al., 2012). Despite the tumultuous strain from family separation during immigration, the results found in the current study suggests that regardless of whether parents live with their child(ren), the messages they convey to their child(ren) about race and racial pride can have a profound effect on their child(ren)'s sense of ethnic-racial identity development, which is consistent with the Integrative Model of Ethnic-Racial Protective Factors. Family ethnic-racial socialization may act as a buffer against the risks emerging adult immigrants often may face when they are separated from their family during immigration to another country.

Years Living in the U.S., Academic Self-efficacy, and Family Ethnic-racial Socialization

The current study hypothesized that more years living in the United States and a stronger sense of academic self-efficacy would have a significant effect on the frequency of family ethnic-racial socialization that emerging adult immigrants receive. The results provided **no** support for this hypothesis as living in the U.S. for more years, having a stronger sense of academic self-efficacy, and the interaction of both variables did not predict whether emerging adult immigrants perceived more ethnic-racial socialization from their family.

Given the growing literature on the profound effect ethnic-racial socialization has on immigrant youth's development (Lambert et al., 2020; Neblett Jr. et al., 2009; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2009), one may then assume that emerging adult immigrants who have resided in the U.S for a longer period would have had more opportunities to frequently receive family ethnic-racial socialization compared to emerging adult immigrants who have lived in the U.S. for fewer years; however, the results found in the current study appear to suggest otherwise. Living in the U.S for more years did not predict whether emerging adult immigrants received more ethnic-racial

socialization from their family. The current findings suggest that it is a costly mistake to assume that emerging adult immigrants who lived in the U.S. for a longer period receive more family ethnic-racial socialization compared to emerging adult immigrants who have lived in the U.S. for fewer years. Such assumption may insinuate that one group is more acculturated and may lead to overlooking the existing need for support.

Indeed, research is establishing a strong correlation between socialization and academic outcome. Ethnic-racial socialization, particularly from parents, loved ones, and caregivers, can foster adaptive development and optimal academic outcomes for adolescent immigrants (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2009; Lambert et al., 2020). The current study contributes to the growing body of literature by suggesting that this relationship between family socialization and academic self-efficacy may be more one-directional. In the present findings, a stronger sense of academic self-efficacy did not predict whether emerging adult immigrants received more ethnic-racial socialization from their family. To the contrary, in a hypothesis that was discussed earlier throughout this section, findings suggested that family ethnic-racial socialization is a strong predictor of academic self-efficacy. This effect, however, may not necessarily be bi-directional. Just because an individual has a strong sense of academic self-efficacy, that does not automatically mean their family has frequently conveyed meaningful messages about race and racial pride. Other factors could contribute to developing a strong sense of academic self-efficacy, such as the innate disposition of one's own personality (e.g., self-confidence) or other individuals in their microsystem who have a significant impact, such as teachers, neighbors, coaches, and school counselor. Likewise, the latter was echoed in the qualitative data when participants where asked about the resources that have been helpful to them during school in the United States. The most

common resources identified were support from teachers, school counselors, and extra curriculum activities.

Family Ethnic-racial Socialization and Grades

In the current study, it was predicted that family ethnic-racial socialization would significantly predict grade point average (GPA). This hypothesis was not supported and family ethnic-racial socialization was not found to be a significant predictor of GPA with or without including covariates in the analyses.

As previously stated, there is an increasing body of literature indicating that there is a positive relationship between family ethnic-racial socialization and academic performance. For example, findings from a study indicated that parents who convey messages pertaining to self-worth may be helping their African American male adolescent obtain higher grade outcomes (Neblett Jr. et al., 2009). Consistent with the present study, academic performance was measured by GPA. However, in contrast to the findings in the Neblett Jr. and colleges' (2009) study, family ethnic-racial socialization did not have a significant effect on GPA among emerging adult immigrants in the current study. The present findings provide more support for the notion that GPA may not matter as much as literature once stated. Other factors not linked to GPA, may be just as significant, if not more, in predicting academic performance for emerging adult immigrants. Another possible explanation for the difference between the current results and prior research by Neblett and colleagues (2009) could be the fact that the age of the current sample is older than the adolescents in prior related research.

Years Living in the United States and Discrimination

The number of years living in the United States was hypothesized to significantly predict discrimination (i.e., everyday and major experiences of discrimination). The results presented were

not in support of this hypothesis; thus, length of time living in the United States was not found to have a significant relationship with discrimination (i.e., everyday and major experiences of discrimination). When the covariate, race, was however included in the analyses, it was revealed that this variable positively predicted experiences of major discrimination in a unique manner.

Prior research such as that of Jones et al., (2017) has suggested that immigrant African American and LatinX students both face some similar educational difficulties, such as discrimination, in the U.S. Members of these groups describe encountering cultural or institutional marginalization and stereotyped notions that they lack intellectual aptitude and a strong work ethic (Greer & Brown, 2011), which could be contributing to a critical decrease in academic outcomes, which Suárez-Orozco, Todorova, et al., (2009) and Suárez-Orozco, Rhodes et al., (2009) found in their research on immigrant youth who reside in the U.S. for a longer time. Though it would appear that length of time living in the U.S. would have a significant relationship with racial-ethnic discrimination experiences, the results found in the current study seem to suggest otherwise. The current study indicates that there is another factor that mitigates this relationship. Given that in the presenting findings length of time living in the U.S. did not predict frequency of perceived racial discrimination experiences, as suggested by previous research, this is indicative of an area deserving of further study.

Current findings about the association between major discrimination and race, however, adds to the nuances of ethnic-racial identity development among emerging adult immigrants. In the present study, emerging adult immigrants who self-identified as White reported experiencing a higher frequency of both everyday and major discrimination, with a statistically significant relationship to the latter, compared to non-White emerging adult immigrants. This is consistent with existing research which examines the differences in reporting racial/ethnic discrimination and

psychological distress among Arab Americans (Abdulrahim, James, Yamout, Baker, 2012). Using data from the Detroit Arab American Study (2003; n = 1016), the findings indicated that even though Christian Arab Americans who racially self-identify as White are less subjected to discrimination, they are more negatively affected by it. Interestingly, in the study, it was the Muslim Arab American participants, who self-identified as non-white, who reported experiencing more discrimination but demonstrated less psychological distress. The current findings suggest that immigrants who self-identify as White have a different experience than ethnic-racial minority emerging adult immigrants in the United States. It is possible that White immigrants are treated well in their country of origin. They may be able to enjoy certain privileges and hold power that are associated with individuals who have White skin color in their native country. In the U.S., however, mainstream society may convey messages to White immigrants that suggest people do not consider them to be a White person perhaps because they do not look or sound quite like White Americans in the U.S. This drastic difference in treatment may take a significant toll on White immigrants' mental health. Similarly, in Abdulrahim and colleagues' (2012) study, the Christian Arab American participants appeared to have dark skin color, and self-identified as White and were more negatively affected by discrimination. On the other hand, emerging adult immigrants of dark skin color and who self-identify as non-White may be aware or accustomed to the poor treatment that dark skin color people typically receive around the world. In the U.S., emerging adult immigrants who self-identify as White may be expecting or may be interested in benefiting from special privileges that are associated with being a person of White skin color as they may do in their country of origin. Therefore, they may not be as accustomed to experiences of discrimination and subsequently may be more negatively affected by it than emerging adult immigrants who identify as non-White.

Ethnic-racial Identity, Everyday Discrimination, and Academic Outcomes

It was hypothesized that everyday experiences of discrimination would be significantly predictive of poor academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and grade point average), while a strong ethnic-racial identity would mitigate the negative effects of discrimination among emerging adult immigrants.

Academic Self-efficacy, Academic Self-ranking, *Grade Point Average*

The current study hypothesized that everyday experiences of discrimination and poor academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and grade point average) would be positively correlated, while a strong ethnic-racial identity would mitigate the negative effects of perceived discrimination. No support was found for this hypothesis as the interaction between everyday experiences of discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not significantly predict academic outcomes among emerging adult immigrants. On the other hand, ethnic-racial identity was found to be a positive significant predictor of academic self-efficacy and academic self-ranking, but not of GPA. Also, when English proficiency (i.e., both the ability to write and read in English) was included in the analysis, this variable was also found to have a significant effect on academic self-efficacy. While a correlation was noted between gender and academic self-efficacy, it did not achieve statistical significance. The following section explains why these findings are important.

The current findings indicate that a strong ethnic-racial identity may lead to emerging adult immigrants developing a stronger belief in their ability to academically succeed (i.e., academic self-efficacy) and more positive expectations in their academic performance (i.e., academic self-ranking). Consistently, Pearson correlations suggest that stronger academic self-efficacy can heavily influence higher academic class-ranking and GPA. This is in keeping with the Integrative

Model of Ethnic-Racial Protective Factors, which demonstrates that ethnic-racial socialization often influences youth's racial and ethnic-racial identity, and subsequently, a strong ethnic-racial identity can promote high levels of academic achievement (Neblett Jr, Rivas-Drake, et al., 2012). Likewise, existing research suggest that greater levels of academic accomplishment can be fostered by having a strong ethnic-racial identity (Rivas-Drake et al., 2014; Syed et al., 2011). For example, results from a recent study indicate that ethnic-racial identity retention has indeed been linked with higher academic achievement among Caribbean adolescents (Akiba, 2007). Similarly, in Smith and colleagues' (2020) study about Black and Hispanic Caribbean immigrant youth, stronger ethnic-racial identity was viewed as increasingly important for higher academic self-efficacy and in turn, higher academic aspirations, and higher grades.

Previous literature found that immigrant youth are faced with discrimination, which could lead to poor academic outcomes. For example, in the U.S., Caribbean youth perceive discriminatory experiences that are based on their identity (Jones et al., 2017). They are also more likely to attend educational institutions that are under-resourced and are staffed with teachers who have low expectations of them, which all can harm their academic performance (Jones et al., 2017). Thibeault and colleagues (2017) examined ethnic-racial identity in the context of discrimination, and later argued that stronger ethnic-racial identity has a buffering impact against the harmful effects of depression for non-White immigrant emerging adults. Therefore, it could be hypothesized that a stronger ethnic-racial identity could serve as an essential buffer against (ethnic-racial) discriminatory experiences immigrants often experience and help protect their academic outcomes; however, the results found in the current study seem to suggest otherwise. The interaction between everyday experiences of discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not significantly predict academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and

GPA). Within literature, there is an ongoing debate regarding the degree to which ethnic-racial identity may influence people's perceptions and impact of racial discrimination (Redway, 2014). Some research studies have found strong ethnic-racial identity to be positively associated with perceptions of racial discrimination. For example, Sanchez and colleagues (2016) noted that a firm connection with one's racial group (i.e., ethnic-racial identity) has a significant and positive correlation to perceived discrimination and, consequently, mental health distress. In contrast, Lee and Ahn (2013) found that less mature racial identity profiles had a significantly positive association to perceived discrimination and psychological concerns for Caribbean Black American and African American adolescents. There have also been studies which suggest that the development of a secure and accepting view of oneself as a member of an ethnic group replaces a high concern regarding experiences of discrimination (Sanchez et al., 2016). Since they are aware that acts of discrimination are not a reflection of personal deficiencies but rather the results of societal injustice, individuals who have strong ethnic-racial identity may be shielded from the harmful impacts of discrimination (Sanchez et al., 2016). In addition, the research of Wong and colleagues (2003) found that ethnic-racial identity facilitated the correlation between racial discrimination as well poor academic achievement and problem behaviors among African American youth.

Rather than ethnic-racial identity having a mitigatory role on the relationship between perceptions of ethnic-racial discrimination and academic outcomes, a possible explanation for the results obtained in the current study may be based on research findings which suggest that the harmful effect of discrimination is influenced by the way immigrant youth processes discrimination. Prior research such as that of Ogbu (1991) and Ogbu et al., (1998) has suggested that for voluntary minority immigrants, the discriminatory treatment they receive in their host

societies may not have a significant negative effect on their academic outcomes because they typically view discriminatory barriers as temporary difficulties that they can overcome by working hard, being more acculturate, and academic achievement compared to involuntary minorities who often view discrimination as permanent and institutionalized. For the latter, discrimination may predict academic outcomes. Involuntary minorities often believe that education will not enable them to overcome systematic oppression and attain economic and societal success, and consequently, devote less time and resources to obtain academic success. While this draws attention to a significant limitation when a sample of racially and/or ethnically diverse students is aggregated, it is also indicative of an area deserving of further study, such as the relationship among discrimination, academic outcomes, and differences in immigrant-generational status.

Additionally, Owens et al., (2012) argued that in contrast to ethnic minority youth of the host country, when ethnic minority immigrant students place more value on their ethnic identity rather than their racial identity, they are less susceptible to a decrease in their academic performance. Also, youth and emerging adult immigrants who are aware of discrimination due to their identity, socialization, or cultural orientation may not experience this academic performance burden and reduction in grades, depending on their perspective of their ethnic-racial group(s) as well as the meaning they attribute to being a member of that group (Neblett Jr, Rivas-Drake et al., 2012).

In the present study, two likely reasons that the interaction of everyday experiences of discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not have a significant effect on academic outcomes may be because the emerging adult immigrant participants either (1) were socialized by their family to expect poor treatment as an immigrant in the U.S., and therefore, they may not be easily effected when they do experience discrimination, which may make it more difficult to recall such

experiences on a survey. Consistently, the qualitative data revealed that numerous participants received messages from their parents regarding racial barriers. (2) They are socialized by their family to expect maltreatment as an immigrant living in the U.S. and/or the meaning they attribute to what it means to be a member of their ethnic group outweighs the meaning of discriminatory acts. To explore this topic further, it would be necessary to compare emerging adult immigrants to non-emerging adult immigrants, which the current study did not do.

While findings of the present study partly support previous research, it also adds a critical viewpoint, suggesting that there may be another key factor that plays a role and is being overlooked in the interaction between ethnicity identity, discrimination, and academic outcomes. In particular, given that the interaction between everyday experiences of discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not predict GPA, the presenting findings suggest again that there may be other variables that are not connected to GPA that may be just as essential, if not more, in predicting academic achievement among emerging adult immigrants.

Ethnic-racial Identity, Major Discrimination, and Academic Self-Efficacy

Experiences of major discrimination and poor academic self-efficacy were hypothesized to be positively correlated, while a strong ethnic-racial identity would mitigate the negative effects of perceived discrimination. The results presented were not in support of this hypothesis as the interaction between experiences of major discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not significantly effect academic self-efficacy. Ethnic-racial identity, however, was found to have a significant positive relationship with academic self-efficacy. Also, after controlling for the covariates, English proficiency (i.e., both the ability to write and read in English) had a significant effect on academic self-efficacy. While a positive correlation was noted between race and academic self-efficacy, it did not achieve statistical significance.

The present findings again emphasize that strong ethnic-racial identity may play a critical role in emerging adult immigrants having a firm belief in their ability to obtain academic achievement. This is similar to previous research that highlighted the existence of a connection between identity and academic outcomes, stating that even when youth are exposed to stressors that are associated with their identity, they may still thrive developmentally when their ethnic identity and academic self-efficacy are integrated and positive (Zaff et al., 2003; McKown et al., 2003; Smith et al., 2020). Additionally, Tauriac and Liem argued a possible alternative variable that may have influenced immigrant origin Black participants' college persistence was racial and ethnic identity development, which has been shown to impact students' perceptions of faculty and peers in academic settings (Tauriac et al., 2012).

In addition, since the interaction of major discrimination and ethnic-racial identity did not predict academic self-efficacy, the present findings suggest that there may be another key construct that mitigates this relationship, which was not examined in the current study. For one, as mentioned above, theorists propose that immigrant-generational status may be a key factor that is related to perceptions of discriminatory treatment, and consequently, leads to differences in values on educational success. For voluntary minority immigrants, the discriminatory treatment they receive in their host societies may not have a significant negative effect on their academic outcomes. On the other hand, perceived discrimination may predict academic outcomes among involuntary minorities who frequently attribute discriminatory treatment as institutionalized and everlasting, and consequently, invest less effort in achieving academic success (Ogbu, 1991; Ogbu et al., 1998). Secondly, family socialization about racial barriers may build immigrant youth's awareness of discrimination, and consequently lessen the harmful impact of discrimination (Neblett Jr, Rivas-Drake et al, 2012), which may have affected participants' recollection of discriminatory

experiences when completing the survey for the current study. Another possible explanation for the results obtained in the present study may be based on research findings which indicate that the way immigrant students attribute what it means to be a member of their ethnic group often overpowers the implication of discriminatory acts (Owens et al., 2012).

Ethnic-racial Identity, Stereotype Threat, and Academic Outcomes

It was hypothesized that emerging adult immigrants that perceived negative ability stereotype threat would be significantly predictive of poor academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and grade point average), while a strong ethnic-racial identity would mitigate the negative effects of stereotype threat.

Academic Self-efficacy, Academic Self-ranking, *Grade Point Average*

It was expected that perceived stereotype threat would significantly predict poor academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, or grade point average), while a strong ethnic-racial identity would mitigate the negative effects of stereotype threat. This hypothesis was not supported as the interaction between perceived stereotype threat and ethnic-racial identity was not found to be a predictor of academic outcomes. On the other hand, ethnic-racial identity predicted academic self-efficacy. Also, perceived stereotype threat had a significant and positive relationship with academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and GPA.

Prior research such as that of Zaff et al., (2003), McKown et al., (2003), and Smith et al., (2020) has found stronger ethnic-racial identity to be related to academic self-efficacy in a sample of immigrant students. Similarly, in the present study, immigrant emerging adults who reported a stronger ethnic-racial identity reported higher academic self-efficacy than their immigrant counterparts who reported a lower ethnic-racial identity. The results found in the current study seem to conclude that strong ethnic-racial identity may help emerging adult immigrants develop

stronger belief in their abilities to academically succeed, which has been repeatedly established throughout this section. Such findings highlight the importance of examining the role ethnic-racial identity has in developing academic resilience among emerging adult immigrants.

In 1988, Steele developed the Negative Ability Stereotype Threat Model which proposed that minority students' hyper awareness that their performance could confirm the very stereotype that they wish to avoid places pressure on minority students to perform well. The pressure to not confirm to the stereotype creates psychological stress- this added pressure is often called academic performance burden (Steele & Aronson 1995). Owen and colleagues (2012) later added that this academic burden reduces youth academic performance than if the stereotype was not present. They also later argued that immigrant youth who identify with the racial identity of the ethnic minority students in their host societies may evolve to believe these stereotypes about their group's intelligence is true, and consequently, their academic outcomes, such as effort and grades, might begin to decline out of a sense of hopelessness- a process known as internalization (Owen et al., 2012). In keeping with existing research, the current findings suggest that the less emerging adult immigrants internalize negative stereotypes about members of their own ethnic group, the stronger their academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and GPA). It is worth noting that within the present study, the only variable that predicted GPA was negative ability stereotype threat. Up until now, the current findings suggested that there may be other variables that are not associated with GPA that may be just as essential, if not more, in predicting academic achievement among emerging adult immigrants. A possible explanation for the results obtained in the current study may be based on previous research findings which suggest that stereotype threat may be significantly predictive of students' development and academic outcomes (Owen et al., 2012).

Additionally, research indicates that in contrast to ethnic minority youth of the host country, when ethnic minority immigrant students place more value on their ethnic identity rather than their racial identity, they are less susceptible to a decrease in their academic performance when faced with negative ability stereotype threat (Owens et al., 2012). Consistently, findings in the current study also highlight the importance of examining the relationship between negative ability stereotype threat and ethnic identity. Based off the current supplementary analysis, ethnic-racial identity had a strong and positive association with internalized stereotype threat. The findings suggest that emerging adult immigrants who have a strong ethnic-racial identity are less likely to internalize negative ability stereotypes about members of their own ethnic group.

Lastly, Smith and colleagues (2020) in their research on a Caribbean immigrant youth sample found a significant impact of negative identity-related intellectual stereotypes in the U.S. They subsequently concluded that integrating ethnic identity and academic self-efficacy is essential for Black and Hispanic Caribbean immigrant youth in the U.S. (Smith et al., 2020). In the current study, however, the interaction between ethnic-racial identity and stereotype threat was not predictive of academic self-efficacy or other academic outcomes such as academic self-ranking and GPA. A possible explanation for the results obtained in the current study may be due to the scale utilized to measure negative ability stereotype threat. Owens and Lynch's (2012) internalized stereotype scale consists of items that assess whether an individual internalizes stereotype threat that they face (i.e., *Do you think people in your own racial group tend to be lazy or hardworking*), which is making the assumption that the individual does experience negative ability stereotype threats. It may have been more effective to use a stereotype threat scale that first measured whether the participant experienced negative ability stereotype threat, rather than automatically assuming it. A sample item may include, "*Do you think people outside your ethnic group believe that*

members in your own ethnic group tend to be lazy or hard working using a scale of 0 (lazy) to 10 (hardworking)." This way, there may be a better possibility of capturing the role of ethnic-racial identity when faced with negative ability stereotype threat. Although the current results did not support the hypothesis as the interaction between perceived stereotype threat and ethnic-racial identity was not found to be a predictor of academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, or GPA, the findings still highlight importance areas deserving of future study. It may be concluded that when emerging adult immigrants have negative beliefs about members of their own ethnic group this may make it more challenging for them to hold secure and accepting ethnic identities regarding themselves and subsequently, have strong academic outcomes.

Also, after adding covariates, gender had a positive significant effect on academic self-efficacy. This is in keeping with the Pearson correlation that was conducted and revealed that gender was a unique positive predictor of academic self-efficacy. The current findings indicate that emerging adult immigrants who self-identified as women may have a stronger sense of academic self-efficacy than their immigrant counterparts who self-identified as men. Literature indicates that consistent with cultural or gender role socialization and coping techniques, the strength of the social support system and social connectedness that women tend to harvest may play a significant role in emerging adult immigrant women having a stronger sense of academic self-efficacy than males (Rosenthal & Schreiner, 2000; Juang et al., 2010; Padilla, 2006; Robinson et al., 1995).

Limitations

While the findings of this study offer pertinent information on the currently understudied emerging adult immigrant population in the United States, it must be mentioned that there are limitations that should be noted when considering possible implications. The study involved a

small sample of emerging adult immigrants recruited through online platforms. Therefore, it is expected that with more study participants significant findings will be uncovered that are not present in the current results.

In terms of demographic characteristics, the current study population included emerging adult immigrants from diverse ethnic backgrounds; but, did not explore potential differences across ethnic groups of immigrants within the U.S. The immigrant population living in the United States is not a monolithic group. Meaning, even if a group of immigrants identify as members of the same race, there are potential differences in socialization processes, racial and ethnic identity affirmation, and perceived discrimination that may emerge across ethnic groups (Goosby, Caldwell, Bellatorre, & Jackson, 2012; Tauriac & Liem, 2012). The results on the emerging adult immigrant sample were essentially aggregated, and possibly caused information on certain groups to be inaccurate and the strengths as well as needs of certain culture groups to be overlooked. As a result, information pertaining to specific ethnic groups in the study's findings are limited, and future attempts should focus on gathering a larger sample that disaggregates ethnic groups of emerging adult immigrants.

Similarly, the sample likely included a combination of permanently and temporarily residing emerging adult immigrants to the United States. International students with a student visa may have intentions to return to their country of origin. On the other hand, immigrant students may intend to remain in the United States (Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, & Suárez-Orozco, 2011). Moreover, the literature on the terminology and definitions associated with the immigrant acculturation process can be complex and confusing (e.g., *first-generation* vs. *second-generation*; *immigrant vs. refugee*; *international student* vs. *immigrant student*; or *voluntary immigrants* vs. *involuntary immigrants*). The experiences of immigrant groups may vary drastically, and

therefore, to gain more reliable knowledge about emerging adult immigrants to the US, it is essential for future research to not confound groups of immigrants, and rather, separate them so that specific strengths and needs are distinguished.

Additionally, majority of the sample consisted of undergraduate students and most participants reported their highest level of education as that of a high school diploma or GED. The results from the sample were therefore highly one-sided (i.e., towards individuals who were in school or formally educated). Generalizability of the findings in the current study is therefore limited and future efforts should aim to gather a larger sample that is more reflective of both emerging adult immigrants who are students and non-students.

Also, a substantial proportion of the sample composed of emerging adult immigrants who resided in the United States for at least five years or more. When the study began in year 2017, mainstream American society often conveyed hostile messages towards immigrants living in the U.S., which was referenced in the results section of this document and possibly provides some indication of this. The increased hostility towards the immigrant population may have deterred many families and individuals from immigrating to the United States within recent years. Consequently, members of the immigrant population in the U.S. could have a sense of distrust and fear towards Americans, which could possibly affect their engagement in society, such as decisions to participate in research studies. For example, in addition to the size sample size (n= 96), there were hardly any participants who were recent immigrants to the U.S (five years or less) in the current study. Although the study's participants may have been the easiest to reach and most convenient, it is possible that the methodological approach reduced the likelihood that characteristics of the sample would in fact match those of the larger population that it was intended to represent.

Participant self-report was utilized for each measure in this study. Consequently, there is questioning about the accuracy of respondents' perspectives and experiences given that the collected data was exposed to problems of report bias. Statistics regarding the frequency of with which discrimination was experienced in different situations over a certain period; in addition to the frequency in which certain messages were conveyed by parents were strongly based on participants' retrospective report (during which majority of respondents probably gave educated guesses about their experiences instead of trying to recall each situation). Similarly, statistics regarding respondents' GPA in high school depended primarily on participants' retrospective report (which was probably mainly based on educated guesses). Additionally, social desirability or self-improvement efforts likely influenced the reason why there may have been differences in individuals' responses on some measures, particularly on the measure inquiring about current GPA in college. Moreover, to present a more positive outlook of oneself and avoid being assessed negatively, some participants may have modified their responses in a manner that was deemed to be more socially acceptable.

According to Helms (1989), studies that utilize self-selection when examining racial identity often result in participants who have primarily greater racial attitudes. Furthermore, it is possible that individuals voluntarily participated in this study because they were more interested in racial and ethnic-related topics. Consequently, in contrast to what may be common in the general emerging adult immigrant population, findings in the current study may really reflect the attitudes and beliefs of individuals who have stronger pro-ethnic-racial identity values and attitudes.

Another possible limitation is that several statistical tests were conducted on a relatively small sample (n = 96), which may draw concern about the need for correction for multiple testing. Perneger (1998) argues that only under certain circumstances (i.e., when the universal null

hypothesis is occasionally of interest, when the same test is repeated in many subsamples, or when searching for significant associations without pre-established hypotheses) should Bonferroni adjustments be utilized. Given that the current study does not appear to fall into any of these circumstances, Bonferroni corrections were not used.

Lastly, unlike other studies, the current research did not conduct an in-depth analyzation of the different types of family ethnic-racial socialization messages in addition to the impact each specific message has on ethnic-racial identity development and academic outcomes among emerging adult immigrants. Although the current study utilized a measure that was designed to assess the common types of ethnic-racial socialization messages (i.e., racial pride, racial barriers, egalitarian, self-worth, and negative messages), it did not intentionally conduct methodological procedures to analyze the effect of each specific message. "Unfortunately, such an analytic approach does not adequately capture the synergistic nature of the racial socialization process" (Neblett Jr. et al., 2009, p. 248). Consequently, findings from the present study does not clarify the effects of specific family ethnic-racial socialization messages for emerging adult immigrants' resilience against acculturation stress.

Implications for Research and Practice

Though some of the findings presented in this study are in keeping with existing research literature on emerging adult immigrants, new and meaningful information is also provided regarding the influence of family ethnic-racial socialization on ethnic-racial identity, perceptions of ethnic-racial discrimination, stereotype threat, and academic outcomes among this immigrant group in the United States, and demonstrates that the relationships among these variables are multifaceted and complex. This knowledge can prove particularly useful for parents and educators to help foster resilience and booster greater academic success among emerging adult immigrant

population in the United States. Individuals who provide psychological and social services to emerging adult immigrant population in the U.S. may also find this information enlightening for the development of strategies and approaches that are more culturally befitting, relevant, and demonstrates a comprehension of this populations' worldview (Redway, 2014). Help-seeking behaviors, identity development, and mental health are all influenced by the aforementioned factors which can provide valuable information towards the development of appropriate prevention and intervention strategies.

While parents and caregivers may not spontaneously discuss racial problems with their children and frequently focus more on skill building and traits that are consistent with those of the mainstream society (Hughes et al., 2006), the present findings suggest that parents/ caregivers' efforts to enhance their children's awareness of ethnic-racial pride and racial barriers has a significant impact on their perceptions of oneself as a member of that ethnic group. Moreover, regardless of whether parents/ caregivers live with their emerging adult immigrant children in the U.S., they can still greatly contribute to the adaptive development of their ethnic-racial identity by holding such conversations with them. In addition, the present findings indicate that family ethnic-racial socialization also has a significant impact on fostering stronger academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy and academic self-ranking) amongst emerging adult immigrants. Also, the current findings suggest that efforts on the part of parents/ caregivers to increase their children's awareness of racism can have a significant impact on their perceptions of ethnic-racial discrimination. Additional research examining the emerging adult immigrant population would also help to decipher which specific type of messages are most beneficial (Neblett Jr., et. al. 2009). Previous research indicates that the most adaptive outcomes are not always associated with socialization that occurs more frequently (Constantine & Blackmon, 2002). Also, research

identifies risks in making messages about racial barriers the most prominent to male youth (Brown, Linver, & DeGennaro, 2009). However, it is clear from the current study that experiencing more ethnic socialization from family is associated with more positive outcomes than experiencing very little or negative ethnic socialization messages.

The findings of the current study suggest that ethnic-racial identity has a key role in academic success and mental well-being amongst emerging adult immigrants. For one, ethnic-racial identity can have a significant impact on one's belief in their own abilities to academically succeed. In turn, a stronger academic self-efficacy can heavily influence higher academic class-ranking and GPA. A strong ethnic-racial identity can also protect emerging adult immigrants from internalizing the negative ability stereotypes they often face in mainstream society in the U.S. In the future, when targeting academic self-efficacy for supporting the academic success of emerging adult immigrants, it is strongly recommended for males to be provided additional attention. Also, the current study emphasizes that there is a major need to reconsider the use of GPAs as the hallmark for academic performance/achievement, and possibly consider internal factors, such as academic self-efficacy, that may be more related to academic outcomes. Lastly, emerging adult immigrants' internalization of negative stereotypes or holding negative perceptions about members of their self-identified ethnic group may significantly impact their academic outcomes (i.e., academic self-efficacy, academic self-ranking, and GPA); and, as noted above, believing in one's own ability to succeed in school is critical for academic achievement.

For immigrants such as those who participated in the present study, "ethnic socialization messages may also be received from sources outside of the family (e.g. neighbors, community members, school, church)" (Redway, 2014, p. 77), which can have a significant impact on academic self-efficacy formation amongst emerging adult immigrants. Such findings were also

supported in the supplemental qualitative data. Several participants shared that having supportive staff and faculty during high school and college was a beneficial resource in supporting the academic success as an emerging adult immigrant in the U.S. The following statement by a twenty-four year old Haitian college student summed up many sentiments of the impact of having faculty/staff in high school and college support them:

> The most helpful services to me were in high school. I had many people who helped me get into the college that I wanted to, and also had a ton of role models and mentors that encouraged me. My college is great nonetheless, just as I assumed it would be.

There are several nuances to fostering greater success for the adolescent and emerging adult immigrant population in the U.S. Therefore, it behooves future research to gather and flush out important additional information. Future research could more heavily incorporate experimental designs that permit causal inferences. When experimental designs are not possible, longitudinal data and/or quasi-experimental designs may be helpful to increase understanding of the relations between ethnic-racial socialization, ethnic-racial identity, discrimination, and academic outcomes. Additionally, given the possibility to overlook the needs of certain groups, future studies should focus on gathering a larger sample that disaggregates ethnic groups of emerging adult immigrants, rather than grouping them together when studying this population.

Recent research reported that race is complicated and multifaceted. Lopez and colleagues' (2017) study indicated that only self-perceived race (how an individual typically self-classifies their race) is associated with physical health and that street race (how an individual believes other "Americans" perceive their race when out in public) is associated with mental health (Lopez, Vargas, Juarez, Cacari-Stone, Bettez, 2017). This is in keeping with the current study, which found a significant and positive association between major discrimination and emerging adult immigrants who self-identified as White. Therefore, to capture the multiple dimensions of race, it is critical for future studies to incorporate at least two or more measures of race in their research design.

Lastly, to gather more potential general implications for parents, school personnel, and clinicians to foster greater success among emerging adult immigrants, the current study provided participants the opportunity to share narratives on resources that have been helpful to them during high school and/or as they currently pursue a college degree within the United States. Participants were also asked to share about the types of resources or changes that their school should create to better serve the needs of immigrant students within the U.S.

A few participants identified language support classes, such as English as a Second Language (ESL) class, as extremely supportive during their high school experience in the U.S., as a participant explained, "Helping me transfer to a native speaker environment a lot." Many respondents suggested for their school to develop Language supports to booster educational outcomes. A twenty-three-year-old Mexican male elaborated:

> Better language courses or pairings with people of similar language backgrounds. I don't see how people who cannot speak English well take college courses if the university is not set up to support it.

Also, several respondents said that social engagement programs with co-ethic peers were helpful in connecting with others who had similar backgrounds, which is in keeping with findings from Kanno and Varghese's (2010) study. As one participant in the current study put it, "I join many cultural clubs to connect with people of my kind to have a sense of community." Multiple participants echoed these sentiments by noting a need for more co-ethic support groups to support immigrant students. One participant stated, "I think there should be more ethnic groups to support students from different backgrounds."

This strongly expressed need for co-ethic support groups to enhance well-being and academic performance among young adult immigrants was echoed in a meta-analysis that examined the effectiveness of stereotype threat interventions (STIs). The findings from Liu and colleagues' (2021) meta-analysis indicated that identity-based STIs are robustly effective in

reducing the negative impact of stereotype threat. Identity-based STIs could be implemented via a few strategies. One effective strategy, in particular, in this type of STI is reducing distinctiveness, which aims to increase the stereotyped group's numerical representation (Liu, Liu, Wang, & Zhang, 2021). Findings showed that the reducing distinctiveness strategy could help reduce the prominence of the stigmatized identity (Liu et al., 2021). To utilize the reducing distinctiveness strategy, they suggest increasing the number of in-group members and having members engage in situations where the identities of all participants are the same (Liu et al., 2021). To determine if their group is being valued and accepted, people depend on task and situational social cues (Pennington & Heim, 2016). Individuals who experience negative stereotypes should be able to relax physically and mentally and perform without being hindered by identity threat when there are not any strong social indicators about group identity in the environment. In the current study, it was shown evident that among emerging adult immigrants, there is a strong need for identity-based STIs that implements a reducing distinctiveness strategy, as a male college student who is twenty-three years old from Ireland explained:

> My school should do better to create groups specifically for immigrants or people from outside the US. This would allow us to meet people who are going through the same situation of coming to a new country.

To support the academic success of immigrant students in the U.S., many participants said that schools should implement diversity and inclusion programs. One student shared, "My school should implement bias training." Another participant added, "I think that they should incorporate ethnic studies to the curriculum so that we learn about our culture and not only about White culture." A twenty-four graduate student from El Salvador said she thinks schools should promote "the understanding about the other group of people in the school." One Nigerian female college student elaborated:

It would be better if they had programmed where students from different parts of the world have to share their experience and try to be friends with others.

In such qualitative statements, participants indicated that in their educational settings, they are exposed to negative stereotypes about immigrants, and in their own way, expressed a need for more diversity and inclusion support. According to Liu's et al., (2021) meta-analysis, which examined the effectiveness of stereotype threat interventions (STIs), "belief-based" interventions could possibly be utilized to address the need for an increase in diversity and inclusion support among young adult immigrants. To implement this intervention, one strategy in particular that was found to be significantly effective in reducing the negative impact of stereotype threat was blurring group boundaries, accomplished by highlighting shared characteristics between members of the in-group and out-group. Intergroup bias may be exacerbated when creating "them" and "us" distinctions between various groups (Doise, 1978). On the other hand, people tend to be less anxious about confirming negative stereotypes when they are instructed to recognizing common characteristics or engage in activities with members of the opposite group, since worry about intergroup discrimination is likely decreased (Rosenthal, Crisp, & Suen, 2007).

Additionally, belief-based interventions could be implemented through promoting social belonging, which was also shown to significantly reduce the effect of stereotype threat (Liu et al., 2021). This strategy focuses on decreasing the apprehension individuals feel regarding their social belonging in academic and professional environments, which tends to be places were members of their group are often statistically under-represented. One common method utilized to deliver this strategy is by inviting participants to read narratives that relate to most people in similar circumstances and demonstrate how eventually people overcame the same obstacles, consequently, changing their perception of the socially stigmatized group (Walton, Murphy, & Ryan, 2015). For example, "when minority college freshmen read materials indicating that most

students worry during their first year of college but grow confidence in their belonging with time, they are more likely to be less concerned about the potential maladjustment of their group and believe that they can overcome difficulties as well" (Liu et al., 2021, p. 9). Subsequently, this method used for promoting social belonging has been linked to significant changes, including improvement in sense of belonging, relatedness, persistence, and performance as well as attitudes toward the stigmatized group (Walton & Cohen, 2011). Promoting social belonging was shown to be effective in reducing the negative impact of stereotype threat as well as in improving the performance of members of negatively stereotyped groups under stereotype threats (Liu et al., 2021). Therefore, this strategy may be worth implementing to address the problems related to diversity and inclusion that are faced by many young adult immigrants in academic and professional settings in the United States. As one Nigerian female college student put it:

> I think they should educate other students on how to be accepting of people who are different. More clubs and social events do everyone can feel comfortable.

Another key resource identified as being helpful in boosting academic success was financial support, such as scholarships, unsurprisingly, as that is a growing need for immigrant and non-immigrant students across the U.S. In addition, some participants shared that they found extra curriculum activities, such as debate team, leadership activities, and sports, to be highly efficient resources of support throughout their high school experience in the U.S. Lastly, there were a few uncommon responses worth noting about the most beneficial resources participants used during high school. One participant said, "The services that provide information about career goals and paths are very useful." Another respondent shared that strong support systems, such as peers who could teach them more, has been helpful in enhancing their academic success. One other respondent discussed the impact of mental health services, as a twenty-five year-old White female from the UK described it:

> Mental health services have been a big help, as have been government assistance. I try to not feel bad about being an immigrant on a means-tested benefit, as I need it to be useful, but this is difficult at times.

On the other hand, one participant indicated that special support was not warranted. A first-year college student female who is twenty-two years old and was born in Colombia remarked:

> I don't think we need anything special. We're just like everyone else, and should be treated that way.

As school personnel and clinicians work with this population, it is important for them to be aware of the possible stigma that may deter emerging adult immigrants from seeking and/or accepting resources.

Lastly, to foster greater success among immigrant students, a few participants shared that counseling needs to be more tailored to supporting immigrants navigating their acculturation process in the U.S. As one respondent pointed out, "Programs to help us become used to American life" and another stated, "Better transition and adaption to America." Given that immigration is an ongoing global phenomenon, it is important that social science research continues to address the social and psychological needs of immigrants. Researchers and practitioners should identify and address factors that promote the success, health, and well-being of immigrants of all backgrounds and ages.

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Table 1a

Sociodemographic Characteristics and Key Study Variables for Sample

Age (in years), mean (*SD*), range	22.61 (1.47), range 18-25 years
Gender, (% men)	59.4%
Years living in U.S., mean (*SD*), range	13.46 (6.14), 0.0-24
Age moved to U.S., mean (SD), range	9.17 (5.43), 1-20
Race, (% non-White)	58.3%
Ethnicity	
Hispanic, (%)	29.2%
Afro-Caribbean, (%)	1.0%
African-American, (%)	12.5%
African, (%)	4.2%
Asian/Asian-American, (%)	12.5%
Mexican/Mexican-American, (%)	5.2%
Central-American, (%)	1.0%
Arab/Arab-American, (%)	4.2%
White (non-Hispanic)/Anglo, (%)	36.5%
Mixed parentage (2+ racial groups)	5.2%
English proficiency	
Perceived speaking ability in English, mean (*SD*), range	90.43 (15.45), 18-100
Perceived writing ability in English, mean (*SD*), range	90.1 (15.8), 25-100
Perceived reading ability in English, mean (*SD*), range	92.26 (14.15), 34-100
Academic Attitudes and Behaviors	
Academic self-efficacy (z-score) [a], mean (*SD*), range	.0028 (0.65), -3.29-0.72
Academic behaviors—*perceived class rank* (z-score) [b], mean (*SD*), range	-.0427 (0.84), -3.58-1.32
Academic behaviors—*grade point average* (z-score) [b], mean (*SD*), range	-.0523 (1.0), -4.72-1.27
R Immigration History and Family Social Class	
Age when R originally relocated to U.S., mean (*SD*), range	9.17 (5.43), 1-20
R family past socioeconomic status (high school) [c], mean (*SD*), range	2.0 (0.58), 1-4
R family current socioeconomic status [c], mean (*SD*), range	2.06 (0.49), 1-3

Note. "R" = Respondent

[a] Academic self-efficacy was measured using five items on varying Likert-point rating scales; therefore, a Z-score was computed rather than a Cronbach Alpha.

[b] Academic behaviors—perceived class rank was the respondent's most recent perceived class rank while grade point average (GPA) assessed high school and college (GPA). Similar to the academic self-efficacy measure, given that items were assessed on Likert-point rating scales with varying weights, Z-scores were computed rather than Cronbach Alphas.

[c] Socioeconomic status was captured in 4 categories of household income: (1) low-working class ($0-$29K), (2) middle-class ($30K-$99K), (3) Upper-middle class ($100K-$349K), (4) Upper-class ($350K+).

Table 1b

Frequency of Participants' Self-Identified National Origin

National Origin	
Continent	
Africa, (%)	5.2%
Asia, (%)	1.0%
Europe, (%)	2.1%
South America, (%)	1.0%
Australia, (%)	1.0%
Country	
Albania, (%)	1.0%
Canada, (%)	7.3%
China, (%)	6.3%
Colombia, (%)	1.0%
Cuba, (%)	1.0%
Dominican Republic, (%)	1.0%
Egypt, (%)	2.1%
El Salvador, (%)	1.0%
England, (%)	2.1%
France, (%)	1.0%
Germany, (%)	1.0%
Guatemala, (%)	1.0%
Haiti, (%)	1.0%
Hungary, (%)	1.0%
India, (%)	2.1%
Ireland, (%)	1.0%
Japan, (%)	1.0%
Korea, (%)	1.0%
Lebanon, (%)	1.0%
Mexico, (%)	11.5%
Nigeria, (%)	5.2%
Panama, (%)	1.0%
Philippines, (%)	1.0%
Russia, (%)	1.0%
South Korea, (%)	1.0%
Spain, (%)	1.0%
U.A.E., (%)	1.0%
Uganda, (%)	1.0%
United Kingdom, (%)	9.4%
Venezuela, (%)	1.0%
Other, (%)	6.3%
Missing [a], (%)	14.6%

Note. Although participants were asked "*What was the name of the country where you were born?",* some respondents shared the continent in which they were born, rather than the country.

[a] Participants did not respond to this item.

Table 2

Key Psychological Study Variables

	M (SD)	Range	Cronbach's α
Family socialization, mean (SD), range	2.16 (0.37)	1.14 - 2.93	.802
Ethnic Affirmation, mean (SD), range	1.61 (0.45)	1.0 - 3.0	.575
Ethnic Identity, mean (SD), range	3.92 (0.59)	2.0 - 4.87	.876
Everyday discrimination, mean (SD), range	3.3 (1.32)	1.0 - 5.56	.949
Major lifetime discrimination, mean (SD), range	3.07 (1.55)	1.0 - 5.5	.953
Vigilance, mean (SD), range	4.2 (1.22)	1.0 - 6.33	.857
Internalized Stereotypes, mean (SD), range	7.6 (1.83)	0.33-10.0	.867

Table 3

Zero-order Correlations of Main Variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. Race [a] (1= White)	--										
2. Gender [a] (1= female)	-.11	--									
3. Years living in U.S.	.07	-.08	--	.							
4. Academic self-efficacy [b]	-.05	.19†	.04	--							
5. Academic behaviors—perceived class rank [b]	.02	.00	-.02	.63***	--						
6. Academic behaviors—grades [b]	.07	.07	.17	.53***	.64***	--					
7. Family socialization	-.07	.07	.10	.30*	.25*	.23*	--				
8. R Ethnic identity [c]	-.21†	.07	-.02	.55***	.40***	.30**	.60***	--			
9. Everyday discrimination	.19	.07	.09	-.15	-.10	.12	.31*	-.08	--		
10. Major lifetime discrimination	.38**	-.08	-.03	-.10	-.05	.05	.25†	-.07	.81***	--	
11. Vigilance	.16	-.05	.02	.11	.23†	.20	.50***	.21	.61***	.70***	--
12. Internalized stereotypes	-.18	.16	-.07	.40***	.52***	.30*	.19	.41***	-.24†	-.25†	.02

Note. "R" = Respondent

[a] Dummy variable

[b] Z-score

[c] Ethnic identity index captured how the respondents feel about their self-identified ethnic group.

†$p \leq .10$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$

Table 4a

Predictors of Academic Self-efficacy (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	b (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	.029 (.06)	[-.09, .15]	.094 (.41)	[-.71, .90]
Years living in U.S.	.001 (.01)	[-.02, .02]	.004 (.01)	[-.02, .02]
Family socialization	.358 (.17)[*]	[.03, .70]	.327 (.17)[‡]	[-.01, .67]
Years in U.S. X socialization	.044 (.03)[‡]	[-.01, .10]	.053 (.03)[*]	[-.00, .11]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			.331 (.14)[*]	[.06, .61]
Race (1=White) [a]			-.071 (.13)	[-.33, .20]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			-.136 (.17)	[-.50, .19]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.009 (.01)	[-.01, .03]
Writes in English well			.018 (.01)[‡]	[.00, .04]
Reads in English well			-.028 (.01)[*]	[-.06, .00]
R^2	.08		.20	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

[‡]$p \leq .10$, [*]$p \leq .05$, [**]$p \leq .01$, [***]$p \leq .001$

Table 4b

Predictors of Perceived Academic Self-ranking (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	*b* (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	-.036 (.09)	[-.21, .14]	-.104 (.60)	[-1.30, 1.09]
Years living in U.S.	-.006 (.01)	[-.03, .02]	-.007 (.015)	[-.04, .02]
Family socialization	.439 (.23) [‡]	[-.02, .90]	.476 (.25) [‡]	[-.02, .10]
Years in U.S. X socialization	.017 (.04)	[-.06, .10]	.025 (.04)	[-.05, .10]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			-.003 (.20)	[.06, .61]
Race (1=White) [a]			-.030 (.20)	[-.42, .36]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			-.026 (.25)	[-.51, .46]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.011 (.02)	[-.02, .05]
Writes in English well			.008 (.01)	[-.02, .04]
Reads in English well			-.018 (.02)	[-.06, .02]
R^2	.05		.06	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

[‡] $p \leq .10$, [*] $p \leq .05$, [**] $p \leq .01$, [***] $p \leq .001$

Table 4c

Predictors of Grade Point Average (GPA) (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	b (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	-.072 (.10)	[-.27, .12]	.143 (.70)	[-1.20, 1.48]
Years living in U.S.	.022 (.02)	[-.01, .05]	.024 (.02)	[-.01, .06]
Family socialization	.325 (.26)	[-.20, .85]	.277 (.30)	[-.30, .84]
Years in U.S. X socialization	.022 (.04)	[-.06, .10]	.032 (.04)	[-.06, .12
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			.289 (.23)	[-.16, .74]
Race (1=White) [a]			-.037 (.22)	[-.50 .40]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			-.335 (.30)	[-.88, .21]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.009 (.02)	[-.03, .05]
Writes in English well			.009 (.01)	[-.02, .04]
Reads in English well			-.021 (.02)	[-.07, .02]
R^2	.05		.10	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

‡$p \leq .10$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$

Table 5

Predictors of Grade Point Average (GPA) (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	*b* (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	-.818 (.55)	[-2.0, .30]	-.696 (.92)	[-2.52, 1.13]
Family socialization	.363 (.25)	[-.14, .90]	.333 (.27)	[-.20, .86]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			.211 (.22)	[-.23, .65]
Race (1=White) [a]			.004 (.21)	[-.42, .43]
High school SES (1=low SES) [a]			-.332 (.30)	[-.90, .21]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.009 (.02)	[-.03, .05]
Writes in English well			.007 (.01)	[-.02, .04]
Reads in English well			-.017 (.02)	[-.06, .03]
R^2	.02		.60	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

[†]$p \leq .10$, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$

Table 6a

Predictors of Everyday Discrimination (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	b (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	3.01 (.04)	[2.14, 4.0]	3.31 (.30)	[.40, 6.23]
Years living in U.S.	.018 (.01)	[-.04, .08]	.017 (.01)	[-.04, .08]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			.250 (.10)	[-.64, 1.14]
Race (1=White) [a]			.484(.10)	[-.31, 1.3]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			-.049 (.12)	[-1.25, 1.15]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			-.018 (.01)	[-.07, .1]
Writes in English well			-.009 (.01)	[-.07, .05]
Reads in English well			-.015 (.01)	[-.12 .09]
R^2	.01		.06	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

$\ddagger p \leq .10$, $^* p \leq .05$, $^{**} p \leq .01$, $^{***} p \leq .001$

Table 6b

Predictors of Major Discrimination (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	*b* (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	3.18 (.52)	[2.14, 4.24]	2.04 (1.62)	[-1.22, 5.31]
Years living in U.S.	-.009 (.04)	[-.08, .06]	-.013 (.03)	[-.08 .06]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			-.155 (.50)	[-1.15, .84]
Race (1=White) [a]			1.26 (.44)**	[.37, 2.15]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			-.158 (.66)	[-1.50, 1.18]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.023 (.05)	[-.07, .12]
Writes in English well			-.010 (.03)	[-.08, .06]
Reads in English well			-.005 (.06)	[-.12 .11]
R^2	.00		.20	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

[‡]$p \leq .10$, [*]$p \leq .05$, [**]$p \leq .01$, [***]$p \leq .001$

Table 7a

Predictors of Academic Self-efficacy (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	*b* (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	-.021 (.06)	[-.14, .10]	.542 (.41)	[-.30, 1.4]
Ethnic identity	.547 (.11)***	[.33, .80]	.698 (.11)***	[.50, .92]
Everyday discrimination	-.048 (.05)	[-.15, .06]	-.083 (.05)	[-.20, .02]
Ethnic identity X Everyday discrimination	-.096 (.11)	[-.31, .12]	-.019 (.10)	[-.23, .20]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			.230 (.12) [‡]	[-.01, .50]
Race (1=White) [a]			.196 (.12)	[-.04 .43]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			-.269 (.20)	[-.61 .10]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.007 (.01)	[-.02, .03]
Writes in English well			.021 (.01)*	[.00, .04]
Reads in English well			-.034 (.01)*	[-.06, -.00]
R^2	.40		.52	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

[‡] $p \leq .10$, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$

Table 7b

Predictors of Academic Self-efficacy (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	*b* (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	-.017 (.06)	[-.14, .10]	.491 (.42)	[-.35, 1.33]
Ethnic identity	.546 (.11)***	[.33, .76]	.715 (.11)***	[.50, .94]
Major discrimination	-.029 (.04)	[-.12, .06]	-.071 (.04)	[-.16, .02]
Ethnic identity X Major discrimination	-0.47 (.10)	[-.23, .13]	.015 (.09)	[-.20, .20]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			.204 (.12)	[-.05, .45]
Race (1=White) [a]			.243 (.13) ‡	[-.01, .50]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			-.287 (.20)	[-.64, .06]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.007 (.01)	[-.02, .03]
Writes in English well			0.21 (.01)*	[.00, .04]
Reads in English well			-.034 (.01)*	[-.70, -.00]
R^2	.35		.51	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

‡ $p \leq .10$, * $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$

Table 8a

Predictors of Perceived Academic Self-ranking (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	*b* (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	-.131 (.10)	[-.32, .10]	.521 (.73)	[-1.0, 2.0]
Ethnic identity	.588 (.20)**	[.23, .94]	.801 (.20)***	[-.40, 1.2]
Everyday discrimination	-.036 (.10)	[-.21, .14]	-.059 (.10)	[-.24, .12]
Ethnic identity X Everyday discrimination	-.117 (.20	[-.50, .24]	-.081 (.20)	[-.45, .30]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			-.031 (.21)	[-.50, .40]
Race (1=White) [a]			.302 (.21)	[-.12, .72]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			.067 (.30)	[-.54, .70]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.011 (.02)	[-.03, .05]
Writes in English well			.024 (.01)	[-.01, .05]
Reads in English well			-.043 (.03)	[-.10, .01]
R^2	.20		.30	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

‡$p \leq .10$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$

Table 8b

Predictors of Grade Point Average (GPA) (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	*b* (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	-.009 (.13)	[-.26, .24]	-.125 (.1.0)	[-2.14, 2.0]
Ethnic identity	.181 (.23)	[-.30, .64]	.250 (.27)	[-.30, .80]
Everyday discrimination	.043 (.11)	[-.20, .30]	.009 (.12)	[-.23, .25]
Ethnic identity X Everyday discrimination	.107 (.23)	[-.36, .60]	.185 (.25)	[-.32, .70]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			.113 (.30)	[-.50, .70]
Race (1=White) [a]			.214 (.30)	[-.36, .80]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			-.524 (.41)	[-1.36, .31]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			-.010 (.30)	[-.07, .05]
Writes in English well			.003 (.02)	[-.04, .04]
Reads in English well			.007 (.04)	[-.10, .08]
R^2	.03		.07	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

$\ddagger p \leq .10$, $^* p \leq .05$, $^{**} p \leq .01$, $^{***} p \leq .001$

Table 9a

Predictors of Academic Self-efficacy (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	b (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	.033 (.06)	[-.10, .15]	.623 (.40)	[-.12, 1.4]
Ethnic identity	.343 (.11)[**]	[.13, .60]	.391 (.11)[***]	[.20, .61]
Internalized stereotypes	.076 (.03)[*]	[.01, .14]	.077 (.03)[*]	[.01, .14]
Ethnic identity X Internalized stereotypes	-.016 (.06)	[-.13, .10]	-.065 (.06)	[-.20, .06]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			.295 (.12)[*]	[.05, .54]
Race (1=White) [a]			.041 (.12)	[-.20, .30]
High school SES (1=low SES) [a]			-.232 (.16)	[-.55, .10]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.007 (.01)	[-.01, .03]
Writes in English well			.013 (.01)	[-.00, .03]
Reads in English well			-.027 (.01)	[-.05, -.00]
R^2	.30		.40	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

[‡]$p \leq .10$, [*]$p \leq .05$, [**]$p \leq .01$, [***]$p \leq .001$

Table 9b

Predictors of Perceived Academic Self-ranking (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	*b* (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	-.011 (.10)	[-.20, .15]	.668 (.53)	[-.40, 2.0]
Ethnic identity	.102 (.15)	[-.20, .40]	.139 (.16)	[-.20, .45]
Internalized stereotypes	.202 (.04)***	[.11, .30]	.225 (.05)***	[.13, .32]
Ethnic identity X Internalized stereotypes	-.074 (.10)	[-.23, .10]	-.118 (.10)	[-.30, .06]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			-.028 (.20)	[-.40, .31]
Race (1=White) [a]			.096 (.20)	[-.24, .43]
High school SES (1= low SES) [a]			-.267 (.22)	[-.71, .20]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.009 (.01)	[-.02, .04]
Writes in English well			.001 (.01)	[-.02, .02]
Reads in English well			-.017 (.02)	[-.05, .02]
R^2	.30		.32	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

‡$p \leq .10,$ *$p \leq .05,$ **$p \leq .01,$ ***$p \leq .001$

Table 9c

Predictors of Grade Point Average (GPA) (OLS Regression)

	Model 1		Model 2	
	b (SE)	95% CI	b (SE)	95% CI
Intercept (constant)	-.047 (.10)	[-.26, .16]	.413 (.70)	[-1.0, 2.0]
Ethnic identity	.035 (.20)	[-.35, .42]	.045 (.21)	[-.40, .50]
Internalized stereotypes	.124 (.06)*	[.06, .24]	.145 (.06)*	[.02, .27]
Ethnic identity X Internalized stereotypes	.038 (.10)	[-.20, .25]	-.025 (.12)	[-.26, .21]
Covariates				
Gender (1=female) [a]			.163 (.23)	[-.30 .62]
Race (1=White) [a]			.072 (.22)	[-.40, .51]
High school SES (1=low SES) [a]			-.421 (.30)	[-1.0, .20]
English proficiency				
Speaks English well			.008 (.02)	[-.03, .05]
Writes in English well			-.002 (.02)	[-.03, .03]
Reads in English well			-.011 (.02)	[-.06, .04]
R^2	.08		.12	

Note. CI = confidence interval

[a] Dummy variable

‡$p \leq .10$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$

Figure 1

Self-perceived Academic Self-Ranking Predicted by Internalized Stereotypes
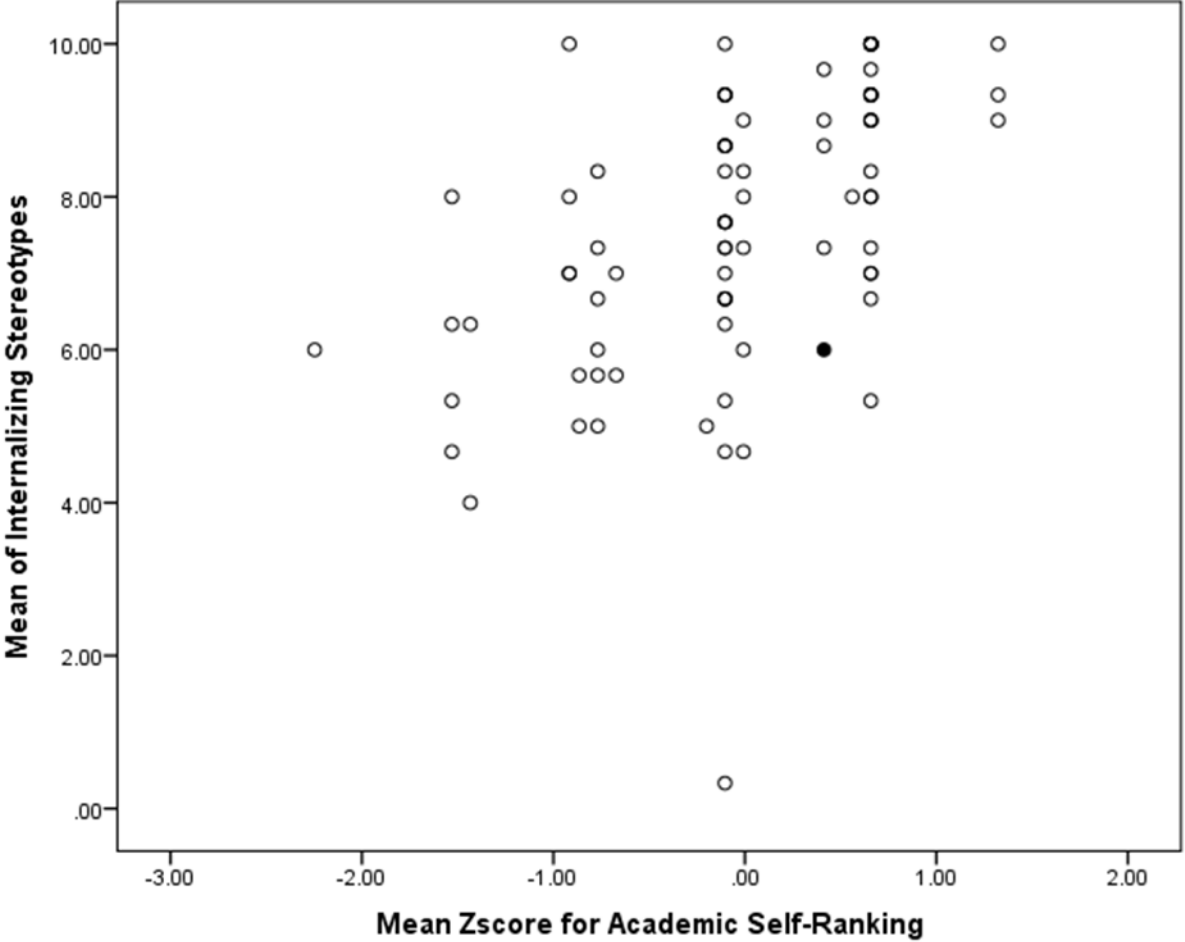
Figure 2

Relationship Between Students' Academic Self-efficacy and Family Socialization
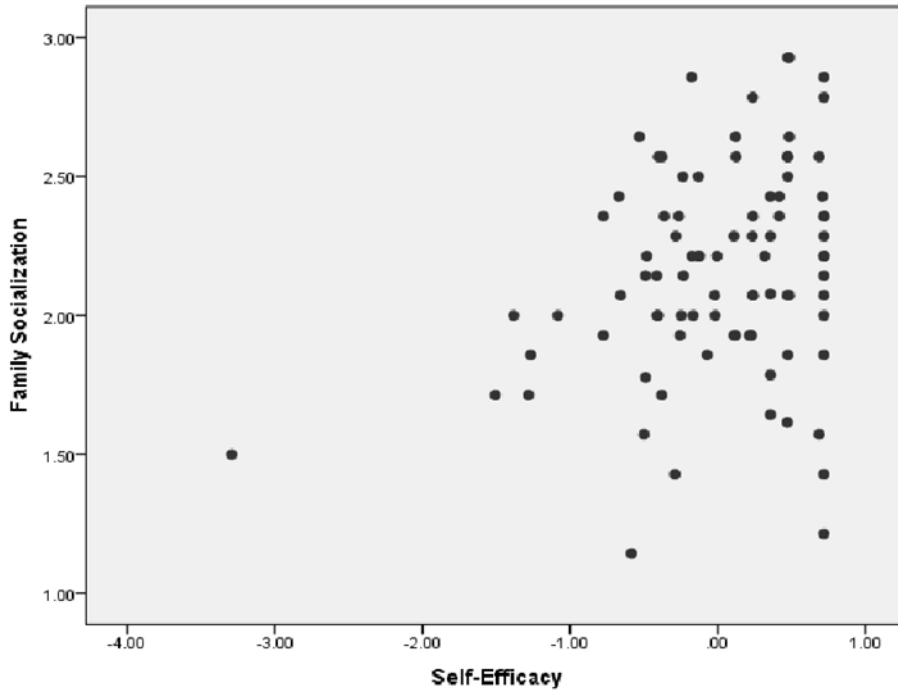
APPENDIX A

Subject: Requesting
Immigrants to Participate in Study about Resilience

Greetings!

My name is Veronica Still Parris and I am a doctoral candidate in the Clinical Psychology program in the Department of Psychology at West Chester University of Pennsylvania. I am conducting a survey about **Immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States.** I kindly request for you to share this email with your students who you think might be interested in participating in this study. Thank you in advance!

Were you born outside of the United States (U.S.)? Do you now live in the U.S. (temporarily or permanently)? Are you between the ages 18 to 24? Then we are looking for you! All participants must be English-speaking. We want to better understand what helps build resilience among immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States.

I kindly request for your participation in this study. By participating and sharing your experiences, you will be contributing invaluable information that may inform counselors as well as others in helping professions, and potentially help them to better understand and attend to the needs of individuals in the immigrant community.

Select the following link to **complete the survey:** https://wcupa.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_e2s7ZknjKdTG56e. **The survey should take approximately 20 minutes.** Before starting the survey, you will be asked to read and agree to an informed consent form. **The first 25 participants completing the survey will receive a $8.00 USD Amazon e-gift card for their participation.**

The methods of this research and the plan for protection of rights of participants have been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board which oversees all research activities conducted at West Chester University of Pennsylvania. IRB # IRB-FY2022-69

Thank you for your time and consideration,

Veronica Parris, Department of Psychology (Primary Investigator)
Faculty Co-Investigators: Dr. Jasmin Tahmaseb McConatha

APPENDIX B

STUDY VOLUNTEERS NEEDED

➤ **Were you born outside of the United States?**

➤ Do you now live in the United States (temporarily or permanently)?

➤ **Are you between the ages 18 to 24?**

Then we are looking for you!

We want to better understand what helps build resilience among immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States.
All participants must be English-speaking.

We kindly request for your participation in this study

- The FIRST 4 students who participant in the interview will receive a $20.00 Wawa gift card.
- All other participants will receive a $10.00 Amazon e-gift card for participating in the interview.
- Students who complete the survey will receive an $8.00 Amazon e-gift card.

Here is the QR code to complete the survey:

If you rather participate in an interview for this study, please email Veronica Still Parris (the Principal Investigator) at: vp679469@wcup.edu

This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at West Chester University of Pennsylvania. IRB #___IRB-FY2022-69_____.

APPENDIX C

Subject: Requesting Immigrants to Participate in Study about Resilience

Greetings!

My name is Veronica Parris and I am a doctoral candidate in the Clinical Psychology program in the Department of Psychology at West Chester University of Pennsylvania. I am conducting a survey about **Immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States.** I kindly request for you to share this email with your students who you think might be interested in participating in this study. Thank you in advance!

Were you born outside of the United States (U.S.)? Do you now live in the U.S. (temporarily or permanently)? Are you between the ages 18 to 24? Then we are looking for you! All participants must be English-speaking. We want to better understand what helps build resilience among immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States.

I kindly request for your participation in this study. By participating and sharing your experiences, you will be contributing invaluable information that may inform counselors as well as others in helping professions, and potentially help them to better understand and attend to the needs of individuals in the immigrant community.

Select the following link to **complete the survey:** https://wcupa.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_a03PDyWdCpvxJHM. **The survey should take approximately 20 minutes.** Before starting the survey, you will be asked to read and agree to an informed consent form. **The first 25 participants completing the survey will receive a $10.00 USD Amazon e-gift card for their participation.**

If you are interested in participating in an **interview for this study**, please email Veronica Still Parris (the Principal Investigator) at: vp679469@wcup.edu **The interview should take approximately 15 to 20 minutes. The first 4 participants who complete the interview will receive a $20.00 USD Wawa gift card. Afterwards, participants completing the interview will receive a $10 Amazon e-gift card for their participation.**

The methods of this research and the plan for protection of rights of participants have been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board which oversees all research activities conducted at West Chester University of Pennsylvania. IRB #_IRB-FY2022-69 _.

Thank you for your time and consideration,

Veronica Parris, Department of Psychology (Primary Investigator)
Faculty Co-Investigators: Dr. Jasmin Tahmaseb McConatha

APPENDIX D

Project Name: Young Adult Immigrants Living in the United States

Title: Complete a Survey about Being a Young Adult Immigrant Living in the United States!

Description: Help us understand what helps build resilience among immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States.

We are conducting a survey about young adult immigrants living in the United States. **Were you born outside of the U.S.? Do you now live in the U.S. (temporarily or permanently)? Are you between the ages 18 to 24? Then we are looking for you!** We want to better understand what helps build resilience among immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States. **All participants must be English-speaking.**

Select the link below to complete the survey. The survey should take approximately 20 minutes. Before starting the survey, you will be asked to read and agree to an Informed Consent form. At the end of the survey, you will receive a code to paste into the box below to receive a $8.00 USD honorarium for taking our survey. **The first 25 participants will receive the $8.00 USD honorarium.**

The methods of this research and the plan for protection of rights of participants have been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board which oversees all research activities conducted at West Chester University of Pennsylvania. IRB #___IRB-FY2022-69_____

STUDY VOLUNTEERS NEEDED

➢ **Were you born outside of the United States?**

➢ Do you now live in the United States (temporarily or permanently)?

➢ **Are you between the ages 18 to 24?**

Then we are looking for you!

We want to better understand what helps build resilience among immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States. All participants must be English-speaking.

We kindly request for your participation in this study. You will receive a $8.00 USD Amazon e-gift card for completing a survey. The first 25 participants will receive the Amazon e-gift card. **Click on the following link to participate:**

Survey link: https://wcupa.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_e2s7ZknjKdTG56e

This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at West Chester University of Pennsylvania. IRB #___ IRB-FY2022-69 _____.

APPENDIX E

Default Question Block

Project Title: Acculturation of Adolescents and Young Adult Immigrants Living in the United States

Investigator(s): Veronica Still Parris; Dr. Jasmin Tahmaseb McConatha

Would you like to take part in a research project? The research project is being done by Veronica Still Parris as part of her Doctoral Dissertation. The purpose of this study is to better understand what helps build resilience among immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States. If you would like to take part, West Chester University requires that you agree and sign this consent form.
You may ask Veronica Still Parris any questions to help you understand this study. If you don't want to be a part of this study, it won't affect any services from West Chester University. If you choose to be a part of this study, you have the right to change your mind and stop being a part of the study at any time.

1. **What is the purpose of this study?**
   - The purpose of this study is to better understand what helps build resilience among immigrant adolescents and young adults living in the United States.
2. **If you decide to be a part of this study, you will be asked to do one of the following:**
   - complete this questionnaire, which will take approximately 20 minutes
3. **Are there any experimental medical treatments?**
   - No
4. **Is there any risk to me?**
   - Possible risks or sources of discomfort include: findings some of the questions about your cultural background and experiences of unfair treatment in the USA to be sensitive. However, we do not anticipate any risks to you participating in this study other than those encountered in day-to-day life.
   - If you become upset and wish to speak with someone, Veronica (the P.I.) will provide you the contact information to the crisis line, which is the following:
   - 1-800-273-TALK
   - 1-800-799- 4889 (for deaf or hard of hearing)
   - Crisis Text Line: Text HOME to 741741
   - Crisis Text Line provides free, 24/7 support via text message for everything (e.g., anxiety, depression, suicide, school, homicide)
   - If you experience discomfort, you have the right to withdraw at any time.
5. **Is there any benefit to me?**
   - Benefits to you may include: finding it rewarding or therapeutic to share your personal opinions.

- Other benefits may include: benefiting social science research that could help support other students that identify as immigrants in the future.

6. **How will you protect my privacy?**
   - ALL records (i.e., your Consent Form and your completed survey) will be stored:
     - in a locked cabinet in Wayne Hall, Room 327, Department of Psychology at West Chester University. The room will also be kept locked and password protected.
     - The only people with access to the room is the principal investigator, Veronica Still Parris, and the co-principal, Dr. McConatha.
   - ALL of your records will be private. Only Veronica Still Parris, Dr. Jasmin Tahmaseb McConatha, and the WCU Institutional Review Board (IRB) will have access to your responses.
   - Your name will **not** be used in any reports.
   - ALL records will be destroyed three years after study completion.

7. **Do I get paid to take part in this study?**
   - Yes.
   - Participants completing this survey will receive $8.00 USD Amazon e-gift card.

8. **Who do I contact in case of research related injury?**
   - For any questions with this study, contact:
     - **Primary Investigator:** Veronica Still Parris at 610-436-2532 or vp679469@wcupa.edu
     - **Faculty Sponsor:** Dr. Jasmin Tahmaseb McConatha at 610-436- 3209 or jtahmasebmcconatha@wcupa.edu

For any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, you may contact the contact the ORSP at 610-436-3557. You may also contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at (610) 436-2141 or access their website at https://www.wcupa.edu/research/irb.aspx.

You will have access to a copy of this form to keep for your records.

This consent form will be kept by the researcher for at least three years beyond the end of the study.

Do you wish to participate?

○ Yes, I will participate in this study. I have read the above information and have received answers to any questions I asked. I wish to give my voluntary cooperation to participate in the study.

○ No, I will not participate.

Completing this survey requires for you to be 18 years or older. Are you 18 years-old or older?

○ Yes, I am 18 years-old or older.

○ No, I am not 18 years-old or older.

Are you between the ages 18 to 24 years-old?

○ Yes, I am between the ages 18 to 24 years old.

○ No, I am not between the ages 18 to 24 years old.

Were you born outside of the United States (U.S.) and later moved to the U.S.?

○ Yes

○ No

How many years have you lived in the United States?

[   ]

Did you immigrate to the United States with your family?

○ Yes

○ No

Does your family currently live in the United States?

○ Yes

○ No

Do you currently live WITH your family in the United States?

○ Yes

○ No

Do your parents or any of your caregivers say to you any of the following statements now or when you were younger? Select the response depending on how often you remember hearing any of these messages. Select only one response per question.

	Never	A Few Times	Lots of Times
American society is fair towards people of my ethnic group.	○	○	○
Children of my ethnic group will feel better about themselves if they go to a school with mostly White children.	○	○	○
Racism and discrimination are the hardest things a child of my ethnic group has to face.	○	○	○
All races are equal.	○	○	○
If you work hard then you can overcome challenges in life.	○	○	○
A belief in God can help a person deal with tough life struggles.	○	○	○
Children of my ethnic group will learn more if they go to a mostly White school.	○	○	○
Knowing your ethnic group heritage is important for your survival.	○	○	○
Racism is real, and you have to understand it or it will hurt you.	○	○	○
Too much talk about racism will keep you from reaching your goals in life.	○	○	○
Schools should be required to teach all children about your ethnic group history (e.g., LatinX history, Black history, Asian history).	○	○	○

	Never	A Few Times	Lots of Times
Teachers can help children of your ethnic group grow by showing signs of your culture in the classroom.	○	○	○
Getting a good education is still the best way for you to get ahead.	○	○	○
"Don't forget who your people are because you may need them someday."	○	○	○
You should know about your ethnic group's history so that you will be a better person.	○	○	○
You have to work twice as hard as White people in order to get ahead in this world.	○	○	○
Whites make it hard for people to get ahead in this world.	○	○	○
Children going to a school that is predominately of their ethnic group will help them feel better about themselves.	○	○	○
You need to learn how to live in a White world and your ethnic group world (e.g., Asian world, Hispanic world, Black world, LatinX world).	○	○	○
Whites have more opportunities than people of my ethnic group.	○	○	○

	Never	A Few Times	Lots of Times
A child or teenager of my ethnic group will be harassed just because of their race and/or ethnicity.	○	○	○
More job opportunities would be open to people of my ethnic group if people were not racist.	○	○	○
People of my ethnic group don't always have the same opportunities as Whites.	○	○	○
Children of my ethnic group don't have to know about their ancestors' history in order to survive life in America.	○	○	○
Racism is not as bad today as it used to be before.	○	○	○

Do your parents or any of your caregivers say to you any of the following statements now or when you were younger? Select the response depending on how often you remember hearing any of these messages. Select only one response per question.

	Never	A Few Times	Lots of Times
The history of my ancestors is important to never forget (e.g. slavery).	○	○	○
You should be proud to be a member of your ethnic group.	○	○	○
You are connected to a history that goes back to African royalty.	○	○	○
Be proud of who you are.	○	○	○

	Never	A Few Times	Lots of Times
Never be ashamed of your color.	○	○	○

In terms of ethnic group, I consider my ethnicity to be _____.

Please choose one response that you think best describes your ethnicity.

○ Afro-Caribbean/ African Caribbean

○ West Indian

○ African-American

○ African

○ Asian/ Asian American

○ Hispanic or LatinX

○ Mexican American

○ Central American

○ Pacific Islander or Native Hawaiian

○ Arab/Arab-American

○ Native American or Alaskan Native

○ White/ Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic

○ Mixed- Parents are from two different groups

○ Other

Please respond to the following regarding your ethnic identity or your ethnic group (that you identified in the previous question) and how you feel about it.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I feel part of my ethnic group community.	○	○	○	○	○
Because I am a member of my ethnic group, others may have negative	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
expectations of me.					
I have a lot of pride in what members of my community have done and achieved.	O	O	O	O	O
I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.	O	O	O	O	O
I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group.	O	O	O	O	O
I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means to me.	O	O	O	O	O
I think a lot about how my life would be affected by my ethnic group membership.	O	O	O	O	O
I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.	O	O	O	O	O
I have a strong sense of belonging to my ethnic group.	O	O	O	O	O
I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.	O	O	O	O	O
To learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group.	O	O	O	O	O
I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group.	O	O	O	O	O

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I participate in cultural practices in my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel a strong attachment towards my ethnic group.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.	○	○	○	○	○

When you immigrated to the United States, who did you move with?

○ I moved with my entire immediate family.

○ I moved with just some members of my family.

○ I moved to the United States by myself?

○ Other situation

Why did you or you and your family immigrate to United States?

What messages have your family members convey to you about being a member of your ethnic group?

What messages does the host culture (i.e. mainstream American culture) convey to you about being an immigrant?

In the United States, what is your current grade level?

○ Less then 12th grade

○ 12th grade

○ First year college

○ Second year college

○ Third year college

○ Fourth year college

○ Other

○ I am not in school

Please select one response about your high school education.

○ I passed the GED.

○ I completed a high school diploma.

○ Other

What is the highest grade level you completed?

Did you withdraw or have to leave school in the United States without graduating?

○ Yes. If yes, please elaborate in the text box below.

○ No

What is you or your family's current social economic status?

○ Low- Working Class ($0 - $29,000.00 USD Household Income)

○ Middle Class ($30,000.00 - $99,000.00 USD Household Income)

○ Upper Middle Class ($100,000.00 - $349,000.00 USD Household Income)

○ Upper Class ($350,000.00 USD + Household Income)

When you were in high school, which social economic class did you feel you were?

○ Low- Working Class ($0 - $29,000.00 USD Household Income)

○ Middle Class ($30,000.00 - $99,000.00 USD Household Income)

○ Upper Middle Class ($100,000.00 - $349,000.00 USD Household Income)

○ Upper Class ($350,000.00 USD + Household Income)

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic self-efficacy** (e.g., belief in your own ability to succeed in school).

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Does not apply to me
When I try hard I can learn almost anything.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I believed I would get accepted into college.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic self-efficacy**.

	Much worse than other students	The same as other students	Much better than other students	I will not be enrolled in school
Compared to other students, how well do you expect to do in your classes this school year?	○	○	○	○

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic self-efficacy.**

	Very poorly	Poorly	Average	Well	Very Well	I am currently not enrolled in school
Overall, how well do you think you will do in your classes this school year?	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic self-efficacy.**

	Not at all good	Average	Very good	I am currently not enrolled in school
Overall, how good are you at your school work?	○	○	○	○

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic behavior.**

	Lowest	Low	Average	High	Highest
On average, if you were to order all the students in your classes, or previous classes, from low to high in grades, where would you rank yourself?	○	○	○	○	○

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic behavior.**

	Very poorly	Poorly	Average	Well	Very Well	I was not enrolled in school this past year.
How have you been doing in your classes this past year?	○	○	○	○	○	○

Which of the following is closest to your average grade in high school?

F	D-	D	D+	C-	C	C+	B-	B	B+	A-	A	A+
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Which of the following is closest to your average grade in college?

F	D-	D	D+	C-	C	C+	B-	B	B+	A-	A	A+	I did not go to college
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

What changes in your grades or attitude towards school have you noticed since attending school in United States?

In the United States, what services have been helpful to you as you purse your college degree (or high school diploma) and extracurricular activities at school?

In the United States, what types of changes, services, or support should your school create to better serve the needs of students that share your identity or life experiences?

In your country of origin (i.e., the country you were born in), how often did you experience discrimination?

○ Almost everyday   ○

At least once a week   ○

A few times a month

○ A few times a year

○ Less than once a year

○ Never

In the United States, how often do you experience discrimination?

○ Almost everyday

○ At least once a week

○ A few times a month

○ A few times a year

○ Less than once a year

○ Never

In which country do you experience the most racial or ethnic discrimination?

○ When I was living in my country of origin (i.e., the country I was born in).

○ When living in the United States.

In your day-to-day life, how often do any of the following things happen to you while living in the United States?

	Never	Less than once a year	A few times a year	A few times a month	At least once a week	Almost everyday
You are treated with less courtesy than other people are.	○	○	○	○	○	○
You are treated with less respect than other people are.	○	○	○	○	○	○
You receive poorer service than other people at restaurants	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Less than once a year	A few times a year	A few times a month	At least once a week	Almost everyday
or stores.						
People act as if they think you are not smart.	○	○	○	○	○	○
People act as if they are afraid of you.	○	○	○	○	○	○
People act as if they think you are dishonest.	○	○	○	○	○	○
People act as if they're better than you are.	○	○	○	○	○	○
You are called names or insulted.	○	○	○	○	○	○
You are threatened or harassed.	○	○	○	○	○	○

In the following questions, we are interested in your perceptions about the way other people have treated you. Can you tell me if any of the following has ever happened to you while living in the United States:

	Never	Less than once a year	A few times a year	A few times a month	At least once a week	Almost everyday
At any time in your life, have you ever been unfairly fired from a job or been unfairly denied a promotion?	○	○	○	○	○	○
For unfair reasons, have you ever not been hired for a job?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Have you ever been unfairly stopped, searched, questioned, physically threatened or abused by the police?	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Less than once a year	A few times a year	A few times a month	At least once a week	Almost everyday
Have you ever been unfairly discouraged by a teacher or advisor from continuing your education?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Have you ever been unfairly prevented from moving into a neighborhood because the landlord or a realtor refused to sell or rent you a house or apartment?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Have you ever been unfairly denied a bank loan?	○	○	○	○	○	○

In dealing with these day-to-day experiences that you just told me about, how often do you:

	Never	Hardly ever	Not too often	Fairly often	Very often
Think in advance about the kinds of problems you are likely to experience?	○	○	○	○	○
Try to prepare for possible insults before leaving home?	○	○	○	○	○
Feel that you always have to be very careful about your appearance to get good service or avoid being harassed?	○	○	○	○	○
Carefully watch what you say and how you say it?	○	○	○	○	○
Carefully observe what happens around you?	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Hardly ever	Not too often	Fairly often	Very often
Try to avoid certain social situations and places?	○	○	○	○	○

On a scale of 0 (total agreement) to 10 (total disagreement), to what extent do you agree that:

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
If teachers have negative stereotypes about certain groups of people, it will not affect their evaluations of individual students from that group.											

On a scale of 0 (total disagreement) to 10 (total agreement), to what extent do you agree that:

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
If other students have negative stereotypes about certain groups of people, it will not affect their evaluations of individual students from that group.											

If you reflect on the experiences of other students who are not born in the United States, what do you think is the greatest challenge for them?

Do you find the strength of your accent a challenge when communicating with others?

Do you feel that your identity as a person not born in the United States create additional challenges for you? If so, what social cues told you this when interacting with others?

Please answer the following question.

Do you think people in your own racial group tend to be *lazy* or *hardworking* using a scale of 0 (lazy) to 10 (hardworking)?
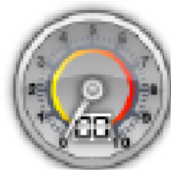
Please answer the following question.

Do you think people in your own racial group tend to be *unintelligent* or *intelligent* using a scale of 0 (unintelligent) to 10 (intelligent)?

Please answer the following question.

In general, do you think people of your own racial group tend to *give up easily* or *stick with a task* until the end using a scale of **0 (give up easily)** to **10 (stick with it)**?

What is your age?

What is your gender?

○ Man
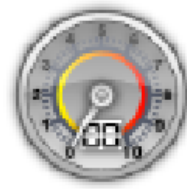
○ Woman

○ Non-binary or other

How well do you do the following tasks in English?

O = I never do this in English ; 100= I do this really well in English all of the time.

	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent						
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

	Poor			Fair			Good		Excellent		
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Speak in English											
Write English											
Read English											

To what extent do you rely on English for the following tasks?

O = I never rely on English ; 100= I rely on English all of the time.

	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Speaking with friends at school											
Speaking with family at home											
Thinking to yourself											

Are you Hispanic, Latino/a/x, or from a Spanish speaking country?

○ Yes

○ No

What is the name of the country where you were born?

[   ]

What is the name of the country that you lived in the longest, besides the United States?

What is the name of the country that you lived in the longest, besides the United States?

How old were you when you moved to the United States for the first time?

Anything else that you may want to add about your experience living and going to school in United States as a person who was not born here?

Thank you for participating in this study! This is the end. Are you completing this survey via Amazon MTurk?

○ Yes, I am using Amazon MTurk to complete this survey.

○ No, I am not using Amazon MTurk to complete this survey.

Below is the unique survey completion code. Return to the MTurk window to paste this code into the box to receive credit for taking our survey: ${e://Field/random}

If you wish to receive a $8.00 Amazon e-gift card for your participation, please type the email address below where the e-gift card can be sent.

Thank you for your time!

Survey Powered By Qualtrics

APPENDIX F

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs | West Chester University | Wayne Hall
West Chester, PA 19383 | 610-436-3557 | www.wcupa.edu

TO: Veronica Parris and Ekeoma Uzogara

FROM: Nicole M. Cattano, Ph.D.
           Co-Chair, WCU Institutional Review Board (IRB)

DATE: 6/16/2020

Protocol ID #   20190207B-R2

Project Title: Acculturation of Caribbean Adolescent Immigrants
Date of Approval for Revision: 6/16/2020**
Please note that the original end date of your approved protocol still applies

☒ **Expedited Approval**

This protocol has been approved under the new updated 45 CFR 46 common rule that went in to effect January 21, 2019. As a result, this project will not require continuing review. Any revisions to this protocol that are needed will require approval by the WCU IRB. Upon completion of the project, you are expected to submit appropriate closure documentation. Please see www.wcupa.edu/research/irb.aspx for more information.

Any adverse reaction by a research subject is to be reported immediately through the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs via email at irb@wcupa.edu.

Signature:

WCU Institutional Review Board (IRB)
IORG#: IORG0004242
IRB#: IRB00005030
FWA#: FWA00014155

Co-Chair of WCU IRB

West Chester University is a member of the State System of Higher Education

IRB #: IRB-FY2022-69
Title: Acculturation of Adolescent and Emerging Adult Immigrants in the United States
Creation Date: 9-16-2021
End Date:
Status: Approved
Principal Investigator: Veronica Parris
Review Board: West Chester University Institutional Review Board
Sponsor:

Study History

Submission Type	Initial	Review Type	Expedited	Decision	Approved
Submission Type	Renewal	Review Type	Unassigned	Decision	
Submission Type	Modification	Review Type	Expedited	Decision	Approved

Key Study Contacts

Member	Jasmin Tahmaseb McConatha	Role	Co-Principal Investigator	Contact	JTAHMASEBMCONATHA@WCUPA.I
Member	Veronica Parris	Role	Principal Investigator	Contact	vp679469@wcupa.edu
Member	Veronica Parris	Role	Primary Contact	Contact	vp679469@wcupa.edu

APPENDIX G

- Other benefits may include: benefiting social science research that could help support other students that identify as immigrants in the future.

6. **How will you protect my privacy?**
   - ALL records (i.e., your Consent Form and your completed survey) will be stored:
     - in a locked cabinet in Wayne Hall, Room 327, Department of Psychology at West Chester University. The room will also be kept locked and password protected.
     - The only people with access to the room is the principal investigator, Veronica Still Parris, and the co-principal, Dr. McConatha.
   - ALL of your records will be private. Only Veronica Still Parris, Dr. Jasmin Tahmaseb McConatha, and the WCU Institutional Review Board (IRB) will have access to your responses.
   - Your name will **not** be used in any reports.
   - ALL records will be destroyed three years after study completion.

7. **Do I get paid to take part in this study?**
   - Yes.
   - Participants completing this survey will receive $8.00 USD Amazon e-gift card.

8. **Who do I contact in case of research related injury?**
   - For any questions with this study, contact:
     - **Primary Investigator:** Veronica Still Parris at 610-436-2532 or vp679469@wcupa.edu
     - **Faculty Sponsor:** Dr. Jasmin Tahmaseb McConatha at 610-436- 3209 or jtahmasebmcconatha@wcupa.edu

For any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, you may contact the contact the ORSP at 610-436-3557. You may also contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at (610) 436-2141 or access their website at https://www.wcupa.edu/research/irb.aspx.

You will have access to a copy of this form to keep for your records.

This consent form will be kept by the researcher for at least three years beyond the end of the study.

Do you wish to participate?

○ Yes, I will participate in this study. I have read the above information and have received answers to any questions I asked. I wish to give my voluntary cooperation to participate in the study.

○ No, I will not participate.

Completing this survey requires for you to be 18 years or older. Are you 18 years-old or older?

○ Yes, I am 18 years-old or older.

○ No, I am not 18 years-old or older.

APPENDIX H

Are you between the ages 18 to 24 years-old?

○ Yes, I am between the ages 18 to 24 years old.

○ No, I am not between the ages 18 to 24 years old.

Were you born outside of the United States (U.S.) and later moved to the U.S.?

○ Yes

○ No

How many years have you lived in the United States?

[   ]

How old were you when you moved to the United States for the first time?

[   ]

In terms of ethnic group, I consider my ethnicity to be _____.

Please choose one response that you think best describes your ethnicity.

○ Afro-Caribbean/ African Caribbean

○ West Indian

○ African-American

○ African

○ Asian/ Asian American

○ Hispanic or LatinX

○ Mexican American

○ Central American

○ Pacific Islander or Native Hawaiian

○ Arab/Arab-American

○ Native American or Alaskan Native

○ White/ Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic

○ Mixed- Parents are from two different groups

○ Other

Are you Hispanic, Latino/a/x, or from a Spanish speaking country?

○ Yes

○ No

What is the name of the country where you were born?

What is your age?

What is your gender?

○ Man

○ Woman

○ Non-binary or other

APPENDIX I

How well do you do the following tasks in English?

O = I never do this in English ; 100= I do this really well in English all of the time.

	Poor		Fair			Good		Excellent	
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100

	Poor		Fair			Good		Excellent	
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Speak in English										
Write English										
Read English										

To what extent do you rely on English for the following tasks?

O = I *never rely on English* ; 100= *I rely on English all of the time.*

	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Speaking with friends at school											
Speaking with family at home											
Thinking to yourself											

APPENDIX J

Do your parents or any of your caregivers say to you any of the following statements now or when you were younger? Select the response depending on how often you remember hearing any of these messages. Select only one response per question.

	Never	A Few Times	Lots of Times
American society is fair towards people of my ethnic group.	○	○	○
Children of my ethnic group will feel better about themselves if they go to a school with mostly White children.	○	○	○
Racism and discrimination are the hardest things a child of my ethnic group has to face.	○	○	○
All races are equal.	○	○	○
If you work hard then you can overcome challenges in life.	○	○	○
A belief in God can help a person deal with tough life struggles.	○	○	○
Children of my ethnic group will learn more if they go to a mostly White school.	○	○	○
Knowing your ethnic group heritage is important for your survival.	○	○	○
Racism is real, and you have to understand it or it will hurt you.	○	○	○
Too much talk about racism will keep you from reaching your goals in life.	○	○	○
Schools should be required to teach all children about your ethnic group history (e.g., LatinX history, Black history, Asian history).	○	○	○

	Never	A Few Times	Lots of Times
A child or teenager of my ethnic group will be harassed just because of their race and/or ethnicity.	○	○	○
More job opportunities would be open to people of my ethnic group if people were not racist.	○	○	○
People of my ethnic group don't always have the same opportunities as Whites.	○	○	○
Children of my ethnic group don't have to know about their ancestors' history in order to survive life in America.	○	○	○
Racism is not as bad today as it used to be before.	○	○	○

	Never	A Few Times	Lots of Times
Teachers can help children of your ethnic group grow by showing signs of your culture in the classroom.	○	○	○
Getting a good education is still the best way for you to get ahead.	○	○	○
"Don't forget who your people are because you may need them someday."	○	○	○
You should know about your ethnic group's history so that you will be a better person.	○	○	○
You have to work twice as hard as White people in order to get ahead in this world.	○	○	○
Whites make it hard for people to get ahead in this world.	○	○	○
Children going to a school that is predominately of their ethnic group will help them feel better about themselves.	○	○	○
You need to learn how to live in a White world and your ethnic group world (e.g., Asian world, Hispanic world, Black world, LatinX world).	○	○	○
Whites have more opportunities than people of my ethnic group.	○	○	○

APPENDIX K

Please respond to the following regarding your ethnic identity or your ethnic group (that you identified in the previous question) and how you feel about it.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I feel part of my ethnic group community.	○	○	○	○	○
Because I am a member of my ethnic group, others may have negative	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
expectations of me.					
I have a lot of pride in what members of my community have done and achieved.	○	○	○	○	○
I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.	○	○	○	○	○
I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group.	○	○	○	○	○
I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means to me.	○	○	○	○	○
I think a lot about how my life would be affected by my ethnic group membership.	○	○	○	○	○
I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.	○	○	○	○	○
I have a strong sense of belonging to my ethnic group.	○	○	○	○	○
I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.	○	○	○	○	○
To learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group.	○	○	○	○	○
I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group.	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I participate in cultural practices in my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel a strong attachment towards my ethnic group.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX L

In your day-to-day life, how often do any of the following things happen to you while living in the United States?

	Never	Less than once a year	A few times a year	A few times a month	At least once a week	Almost everyday
You are treated with less courtesy than other people are.	O	O	O	O	O	O
You are treated with less respect than other people are.	O	O	O	O	O	O
You receive poorer service than other people at restaurants	O	O	O	O	O	O

	Never	Less than once a year	A few times a year	A few times a month	At least once a week	Almost everyday
or stores.						
People act as if they think you are not smart.	O	O	O	O	O	O
People act as if they are afraid of you.	O	O	O	O	O	O
People act as if they think you are dishonest.	O	O	O	O	O	O
People act as if they're better than you are.	O	O	O	O	O	O
You are called names or insulted.	O	O	O	O	O	O
You are threatened or harassed.	O	O	O	O	O	O

APPENDIX M

In the following questions, we are interested in your perceptions about the way other people have treated you. Can you tell me if any of the following has ever happened to you while living in the United States:

	Never	Less than once a year	A few times a year	A few times a month	At least once a week	Almost everyday
At any time in your life, have you ever been unfairly fired from a job or been unfairly denied a promotion?	○	○	○	○	○	○
For unfair reasons, have you ever not been hired for a job?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Have you ever been unfairly stopped, searched, questioned, physically threatened or abused by the police?	○	○	○	○	○	○

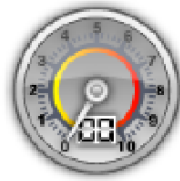|	Never	Less than once a year	A few times a year	A few times a month	At least once a week	Almost everyday
Have you ever been unfairly discouraged by a teacher or advisor from continuing your education?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Have you ever been unfairly prevented from moving into a neighborhood because the landlord or a realtor refused to sell or rent you a house or apartment?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Have you ever been unfairly denied a bank loan?	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX N

In dealing with these day-to-day experiences that you just told me about, how often do you:

	Never	Hardly ever	Not too often	Fairly often	Very often
Think in advance about the kinds of problems you are likely to experience?	○	○	○	○	○
Try to prepare for possible insults before leaving home?	○	○	○	○	○
Feel that you always have to be very careful about your appearance to get good service or avoid being harassed?	○	○	○	○	○
Carefully watch what you say and how you say it?	○	○	○	○	○
Carefully observe what happens around you?	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Hardly ever	Not too often	Fairly often	Very often
Try to avoid certain social situations and places?	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX O

On a scale of 0 (total agreement) to 10 (total disagreement), to what extent do you agree that:

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
If teachers have negative stereotypes about certain groups of people, it will **not** affect their evaluations of individual students from that group.											

On a scale of 0 (total disagreement) to 10 (total agreement), to what extent do you agree that:

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
If other students have negative stereotypes about certain groups of people, it will **not** affect their evaluations of individual students from that group.											

Please answer the following question.

Do you think people in your own racial group tend to be *lazy* or *hardworking* using a scale of **0 (lazy)** to **10 (hardworking)**?

Please answer the following question.

Do you think people in your own racial group tend to
be *unintelligent* or *intelligent* using a scale of **0 (unintelligent)** to **10 (intelligent)**?

Please answer the following question.

In general, do you think people of your own racial group tend to *give up easily* or *stick with a task* until the end using a scale of **0 (give up easily)** to **10 (stick with it)**?

APPENDIX P

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic self-efficacy.**

	Very poorly	Poorly	Average	Well	Very Well	I am currently not enrolled in school
Overall, how well do you think you will do in your classes this school year?	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic self-efficacy.**

	Not at all good	Average	Very good	I am currently not enrolled in school
Overall, how good are you at your school work?	○	○	○	○

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic self-efficacy** (e.g., belief in your own ability to succeed in school).

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree	Does not apply to me
When I try hard I can learn almost anything.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I believed I would get accepted into college.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic self-efficacy**.

	Much worse than other students	The same as other students	Much better than other students	I will not be enrolled in school
Compared to other students, how well do you expect to do in your classes this school year?	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX Q

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic behavior**.

	Lowest	Low	Average	High	Highest
On average, if you were to order all the students in your classes, or previous classes, from low to high in grades, where would you rank yourself?	○	○	○	○	○

Please answer the following below regarding your **academic behavior.**

	Very poorly	Poorly	Average	Well	Very Well	I was not enrolled in school this past year.
How have you been doing in your classes this past year?	○	○	○	○	○	○

Which of the following is closest to your average grade in high school?

F	D-	D	D+	C-	C	C+	B-	B	B+	A-	A	A+
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Which of the following is closest to your average grade in college?

F	D-	D	D+	C-	C	C+	B-	B	B+	A-	A	A+	I did not go to college
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX R

Moderator's Guide for Virtual Interviews

Once everyone has arrived, the Moderator should introduce themselves and briefly explain their roles. Then ask the participant to introduce themselves.]

We've asked you to participate in this interview because we respect your opinion and we want to hear your voice.

I am interested in better understanding what helps what helps build resiliency for adolescents and young adults who come from different countries living in the United States.
The aim is to fill the current gaps in literature and obtain future direction on ways programs in the United States can best support and promote the well-being of adolescents and young adults from other countries. The purpose of today's interviews is to hear your opinions about the best ways to do this in this community.

Because we want to make sure that we get a clear picture of all of your opinion, we'll be audio-taping (or video recording if on Zoom) the interview and taking notes. When the results of the interview are shared with the study group, we will not identify anyone by name. In fact, we won't even be using first names during our conversation today. Anything that you share today will be kept confidential, discussed only within our team, unless we have concerns about a young person's safety. Also, at any time, if you decide that you don't want to be in the interview any more, you can feel free to leave.

The questions that we're going to ask you today and the conversation that you'll get into is *not* a test… there are *no* right or wrong answers. What we really want to know is what *your* thoughts and opinions are.

OK. To get us ready for the interview, I have 1 ground rule,

> **(1) Because we only have a little over 15 minutes together today, I may need to stop you and move the conversation in a different direction at times.**

Any questions? [The Moderator starts the digital audio recorder before the first question is asked & takes notes on the large post-it pages on the wall.]

I.   Questions

Intro/Welcome

What is your age?

Your gender?

In terms of ethnic group, what do you consider your ethnicity to be?

Were you born outside of the United States (U.S.) and later moved to the U.S.?

What is the name of the country where you were born?

How old were you when you moved to the United States for the first time?

How many years have you lived in the U.S.?

What is the name of the country that you lived in the longest, besides the United States?

When you immigrated to the United States, did you move with your entire immediate family, just some members of your family, or by yourself?

Why did you or you and your family immigrate to United States?

Does your family currently live in the U.S.?

Do you currently live with your family in the U.S.?

IF SEPERATED FROM FAMILY: How do you think being separated from your family impacts you?

What is your current grade level? If not in school, what is the highest grade you completed?

Set 1: Understanding what is an "immigrant in the United States"

What messages have your family members convey to you about being a member of your ethnic group?

What messages does host culture (i.e. mainstream American culture) convey to you about being an immigrant?

Set 2: Benefits and Challenges of the identity of an immigrant living in United States

If you reflect on the experiences of other students who are not born in United States, what do you think is the greatest challenge for them?

Do you find the strength of your accent a challenge when communicating with others?

Do you feel that your identity as a person not born in the United States create additional challenges for you? If so, what social cues told you this when interacting with others?

Set 3: Discrimination (Being treated differently)
When you are in your country of origin (the country you were born in), do you experience discrimination?

In the United States, do you experience discrimination? If yes, how often (daily, weekly, monthly, etc.)?

In which country do you experience the most racial or ethnic discrimination? Your country of origin or in the U.S.?

Set 4: Academic Outcomes

What changes in your grades or attitude towards school have you noticed since attending school in United States?

In the United States, what services have been helpful to you as you purse your college degree (or high school diploma) and extracurricular activities at school?

In the United States, what types of changes, services, or support should your school create to better serve the needs of students that share your identity or life experiences?

Anything else that you may want to add about your experience living and going to school in United States as a person who was not born here?

Closing:

Anything else that you may want to add about your experience living and going to school in United States as a person who was not born here?

II.   Wrap-Up and Check-In (with 5 minutes remaining)

Well, it looks like we're close to being out of time. To make sure that we have a really clear picture of all of your opinions about today's questions, I want to quickly go through the highlights of your answers. If we have something wrong, then please let us know. [Review the major themes listed on the post-it, and clarify as needed.]

III.   Closing Statements

Thank you very much for your time today. We were able to learn so much from you, and your ideas will definitely help to create more opportunities for young adults in this community.

I want to let you know that the audio-tape (or video tape if on Zoom) of today's interview will be transcribed and we'll share the results with West Chester University, but your name will be removed so that we can maintain confidentiality.

ONLY for the first 4 survey participants:
Now, I will provide you $20.00 Wawa gift card as our way of saying "THANK YOU" for your time and for sharing your opinions with me. (If on Zoom add: "*What is a good day and time for you to meet me on WCU campus to provide you the $20.00 Wawa gift card?*").

For the remaining 10 survey participants:
Now, (if on Zoom: "*once we log off Zoom*"), I will email you a $10.00 Amazon E-gift card as our way of saying "THANK YOU" for your time and for sharing your opinions with me. Should I use the same email address we have been communicating through?