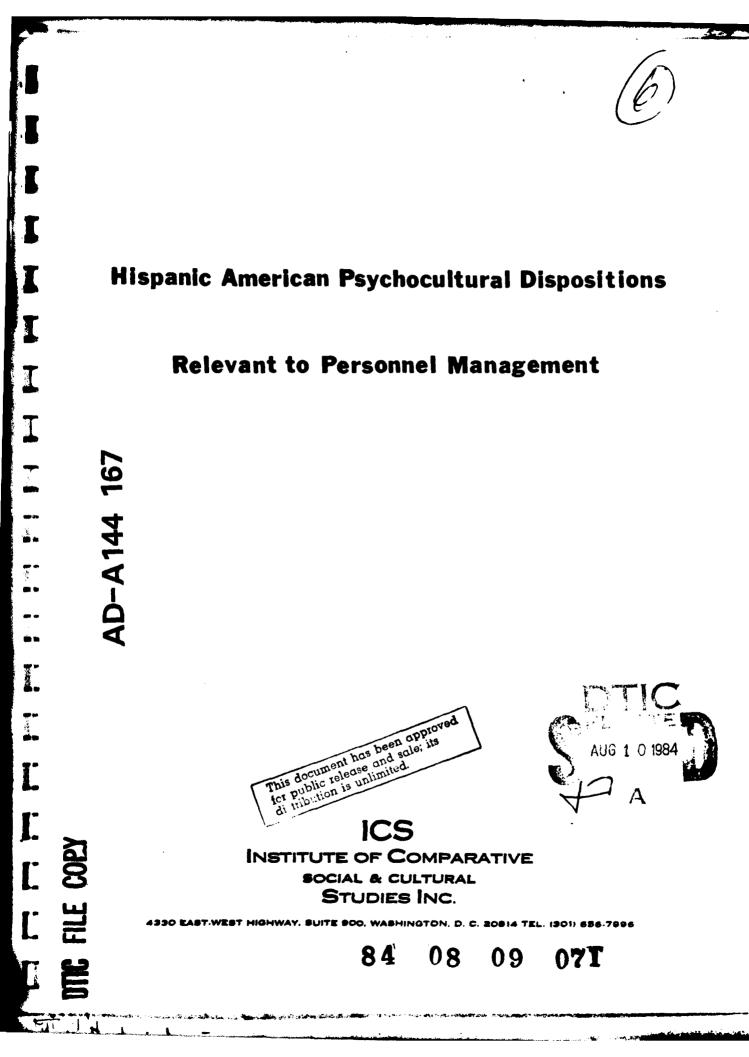
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| Hispanic American Psychocultural Dispositions Relevant to Personnel Management | 3. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED Technical Report, final |
| | 6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER |
| AUTHOR(e) | B. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(+) |
| Lorand B. Szalay, Antonio Diaz-Royo, Margret N. Brena, Shelley K. Vilov | N00014-82-C-0383 |
| PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS Institute of Comparative Social and Cultural | 10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS |
| Studies, Inc. 4330 East-West Highway, Suite 900 Washington, D.C. 20014 | NR 475-006 |
| CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDREss Organizational Effectiveness Research Programs | 12. REPORT DATE |
| Organizational Effectiveness Research Programs Office of Naval Research (Code 452) | July, 1984 |
| Arlington, VA 22217 | 13. NUMBER OF PAGES 194 |
| 4. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS(II different from Controlling Office) | 15 SECURITY CLASS. (al this report) |
| | UNCLASSIFIED 154 DECLASSIFICATION DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE |
| 6. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report) Approved for public release; distribution un 7. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the obstract entered in Block 20, 11 different fr | |
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20. ABSTRACT (continued)

The Associative Group Analysis (AGA), the main instrument in these investigations, relies on the analysis of hundreds of thousands of free spontaneous reactions elicited from the selected samples through continued free associations to a broad variety of culturally dominant themes strategically chosen to represent the main domains of the study. This unstructured technique of indepth psychocultural analysis was used to elicit new information on dominant perceptions and motivations relevant to recruitment, service satisfaction and retention.

In response to the frequently posed question, how similar or different are various Hispanic American culture groups (e.g., Puerto Ricans, Mexican Americans, etc.), these measures offer a new empirical base for grouping Hispanic Americans by their psychological similarities rather than by legalistic criteria irrelevant to management interest. The findings show a high level of acculturation to the U.S. cultural environment for most Hispanic American groups, particularly the Mexican Americans. In view of the broad diversity of the Hispanic American population, the results demonstrate that the psychologically important distinction is not between Anglo and Hispanic Americans but between the accultured versus the traditional populations.

The main body of findings show Anglo-Hispanic and inter-Hispanic similarities and differences on various subjects and key issues and domains relevant to career and service orientation. Images of the services, the Navy, and the Marine Corps show dominant trends of perceptions and evaluations including the amount of subjective attention given by the various regional groups to the military service as a career option. The ethnic images show how the Anglo and Hispanic American samples view themselves as well as each other including Hispanic Americans in general and such ethnic groups as Mexican Americans, Cubans, etc. in particular.

The findings underscore the exceptional importance of the domain of interpersonal relations to the Hispanic Americans in general and to the more traditional Hispanic samples, such as the San Juan group in particular. The intensity of interest directed toward warm interpersonal relations and the salience of socially relevant value considerations (e.g., understanding, respect, trust, loyalty, etc.) are particularly high by the San Juan Puerto Ricans and the Cuban students in Miami. The differences found between the more and less accultured Hispanic Americans have rich practical implications in the areas of communication, personnel management and counseling. The report contains general recommendations and extensive data which can be used along their implementation.

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Hispanic American Psychocultural Dispositions

Relevant to Personnel Management

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INSTITUTE OF COMPARATIVE SOCIAL AND CULTURAL STUDIES

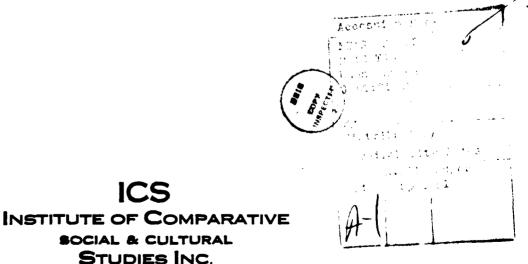
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to express their personal appreciation and gratitude for the funds received from the Department of the Navy. Our special thanks go to the representatives of the Office of Naval Research who were very neipful in facilitating the successful completion of our task.

With regard to the data collection we are most grateful for our colleagues who have arranged and supervised the administration of the Associative Group Analysis at the different sites:

- Dr. Alba Rivera-Ramos, Centro Caribeno de Estudios Postgraduados, in San Juan, Puerto Rico;
- Dr. Alfredo Pazmino, Fordham University, in New York;
- Dr. David Santisteban, University of Miami, Spanish Family Guidance Center, in Miami, Florida;
- Dr. Lee Yudin, El Paso Center for Mental Health and Mental Retardation Services, in El Paso, Texas;
- Dr. Rita Kelly, Arizona State University, in Tempe, Arizona.

From our staff Jean Bryson Strohl receives our special thanks and recognition. She has carried a major part of the data analysis and provided us with useful help in the organization and editing of the report. We are also grateful to Mirtha Navaro and Margot Lopez who assisted us with the data processing.

The work upon which this publication is based was performed pursuant to Grant No. NOOO14-82-C-0383 with the Department of the Navy. However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Department of the Navy.

HISPANIC AMERICAN PSYCHOCULTURAL DISPOSITIONS

RELEVANT TO PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

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BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE OF RESEARCH:

The Increasing Role and Importance of Hispanic Americans in the U.S. Military

Since the conversion to an all-volunteer force, the armed services' ethnic composition has changed radically. Once only a small percentage, today Black, Hispanic, and Asian Americans make up as much as half of certain military units. To recruit and retain high quality personnel from the various ethnic groups, more must be known about their dominant psychological dispositions, their views of military service, their image of the Navy, and the motivational priorities which influence their career decisions.

Some of the leading "culturologists" such as David Riesman (1950), Edward T. Hall (1966), Alex Inkeles (1966), and Forbes (1969), have eloquently stated the need to sensitize our institutions and service organizations to the special needs and human dispositions of minority populations with cultural backgrounds different from the mainstream of our society.

The U.S. Navy and the Marine Corps have been in the forefront in developing personnel management policies which fit the new situation created by the change in ethnic composition of our military services. Yet the best intentions and the best programs are bound to encounter the difficulties which naturally arise from the hidden character of psychocultural differences.

In the case of Hispanic Americans, attention is often focused on the diversity of their foreign origin, their Spanish accent, or their darker skin color. These characteristics are almost irrelevant in personnel management aimed at improving communication, organizational climate, and job satisfaction. For effective personnel management it is important to identify the cultural views, attitudes, and value orientations of a particular cultural minority which differentiate them from the majority. There is a growing realization that unless these invisible human differences are recognized and addressed successfully, they can become sources of group tensions, dissatisfaction, low motivation, low morale and other problems that are undesirable from the angle of organizational effectiveness and management.

The investigations reported here were supported by management interests to learn more about the dominant perceptual and motivational dispositions characteristic of Hispanic Americans.

What We Already Know about Hispanic Americans

Hispanic Americans represent the largest minority in the U.S. characterized by a different language and culture. Migration patterns and population growth indicate that there soon will be more Hispanic Americans than Black Americans in this country.

The Hispanic American population stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. It is the fastest growing population, consisting of descendants of the old Spanish settlers as well as a continuous flow of immigrants from Central and South American countries. It includes Hispanic groups who maintain separate ethnic identities such as the large populations of Puerto Ricans, Mexican Americans, and Cubans. Millions speak only Spanish, and millions of others do not speak Spanish at all.

The size, the broad geographic dispersion and the diversity can easily create the impression that seeking useful generalizable knowledge about Hispanic Americans is a task of unmanageable proportions. The frequently conflicting research findings reported in recent reviews of the extensive research literature on Hispanic Americans (Lisansky, 1981), make this need for empirical clarification especially unequivocal.

The economic, educational, and occupational statistics generally available on the Hispanic American population of the United States are extensive in many details but fail to provide a coherent, timely picture along the main psychological dimensions which are the focus of the present investigations.

Although there are many success stories of individual Hispanic Americans, the statistics on educational achievement, high school drop out rate, participation in certain social services, unemployment, and average income show large scale inequities and handicaps. They result mainly from failures to overcome the consequences of differences in cultural dispositions. As the actual proportions of these human problems indicate, the need to bridge cultural differences, to sensitize organizations to the dominant human needs and cultural dispositions of their Hispanic American personnel, appears to be critical.

What We Need to Know About Hispanic Americans

Empirical clarification was sought to two basic questions concerning Hispanic American characteristics critical to military recruitment, job performance, and retention.

Although Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and Latin American immigrants are called "Hispanic Americans," the extent to which these people, who come from three very distinct regions, are similar in their psychological dispositions is a widely open question. It is naturally a central question in personnel management which must deal with psychocultural dispositions that interfere with what people see, think and do. As long as we do not know whether "Hispanic American" refers to a single homogeneous group or to three or four different ones, the question of how Hispanic Americans compare to Anglo Americans remains similarly meaningless. Using the new analytic capabilities offered by the Associative Group Analysis method, we hope to make a useful contribution in addressing first the most central question: What does the label Hispanic American mean in terms of characterizing Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans? How do these three Hispanic groups compare to each other as well as to Anglo Americans? The second set of questions deals more specifically with how the major Hispanic American groups vary in their perceptions and evaluations of key communication themes relevant to career and military service. How much agreement or disagreement exists among the various Hispanic American groups in broader domains of life such as social values? How do the Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans compare in their perceptions and attitudes on these service relevant topics? How do they compare to Anglo Americans?

THE MAIN OBJECTIVES OF THE INVESTIGATIONS

The overall goal of the current research was to provide psychocultural information that would help personnel management attract high quality service personnel of Hispanic background, to communicate with them more effectively, and to enhance service motivation and satisfaction which would result in a high rate of reenlistment and retention.

The investigations involved a comparative in-depth analysis of Hispanic and Anglo American perceptions, attitudes, and frames of reference. There were three main objectives.

The first objective was to examine how similar or dissimilar the three main Hispanic American groups are to each other. What is their internal homogeneity and how do they compare to each other in terms of their overall cultural frames of reference? Also, how do the major Hispanic American groups compare with Anglo Americans of the same age, sex, and education?

The second objective was to provide timely information on specific images and attitudes of the Hispanic American regional groups on a broad variety of specific subjects, such as ethnic images, images of the Marine Corps, and other services. A more general objective was to identify the perceptual and motivational trends of the Hispanic and Anglo American samples in eight broader domains of service relevance. Both the specific and more general information categories offer new and timely comparative data useful in a variety of tasks from job counseling to the formulation of personnel policies adapted to the dominant dispositions of Hispanic servicemen.

The third objective was to make recommendations on a variety of management and service relevant questions regarding the use of the Spanish language, the use of networks of influence, the differential rank order of motivational priorities, the perceived advantages and disadvantages associated with a career in the military, to what extent the various Hispanic populations require different approaches in addressing service relevant subjects, and to what extent the Hispanic regional groups respond differently to dominant communication themes and appeals.

THE INVESTIGATIONS

An Indepth Study of Hispanic and Anglo American Regional Groups

The present research provided the opportunity to compare young Hispanic and Anglo Americans along subcultural and regional differences. Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans could be compared with each other as well as with an Anglo American group. This framework allowed us to examine to what extent these groups differed from each other depending on their subcultural identity or region.

RESEARCH DESIGN, THE SAMPLES, AND DATA COLLECTION

Along our central objective to obtain solid empirical results on Hispanic psychocultural dispositions, their dominant parameters and nationwide distribution, we focused the investigations on three major Hispanic American groups: Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans. To account for regional differences we used two Puerto Rican samples---one in San Juan and one in New York---and two Mexican American samples---one in El Paso, Texas, and the other in Tempe, Arizona. The Cubans were all tested in Miami. Since our primary interest was in the Hispanic Americans, we included only one Anglo American sample from the East Coast, New York and Washington, D. C., to provide a useful reference point.

Each sample included 100 male high school students drawn from the junior and senior classes. Although these six samples offer a solid base for systematic comparison, certain characteristics of these samples such as the fact that they were all males and were all high school students, could raise some doubts as to whether the findings presented may be generalizable. Therefore, it would be useful to compare these findings with those of a separate, independent study which was based on the testing of seven regional Hispanic American samples composed of adult respondents, both male and female.

Table 1 shows a regional breakdown of the student samples tested in the present study and the adult samples tested in a previous study under the sponsorship of the National Institute of Mental Health. The size of the adult samples included similarly 100 subjects (50 males and 50 females). One-fourth of these subjects were active users of mental health services and the others potential service users, with the latter being family members and friends of the former. The active users were people involved primarily in socially and educationally oriented programs.

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| | | Anglo Americans | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------------|-----------------|--------|----------|--------------|-----------------|-------------|
| | Puerto | Ricans | Cubans | Mexicans | | | |
| Group | Puerto Rico | New York | Miami | El Paso | Tempe | East Coast | |
| Student Sample | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | |
| Adult Sample | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | L. A. 100 | New York 100 | L. A 100 |

Samples of Hispanic and Anglo American Respondents

Rather than aiming at a sort of statistical representativeness of all Mexican American or Puerto Ricans, it was our strategy to use comparable samples which are culturally representative, that is, samples composed of specified groups of Hispanics or Anglos who identify themselves as such and are products of the locally characteristic processes of socialization or enculturation. By applying the same criteria in the selection of matching samples and by using similar procedures of recruitment at the five sites we formed comparable cultural samples of similar composition by age, sex, and other relevant characteristics so that their differences in perceptions and evaluations could be explained mainly by their ethnic/cultural background: Mexican American, Puerto Rican, Cuban, or Anglo American.

The data collection involved the administration of the Associative Group Analysis (AGA) method to the selected Hispanic and Anglo American samples. This method does not involve asking for people's opinions or judgments. AGA is a nondirective, inferential research technique by which people's images and meanings are reconstructed from the distribution of their free word associations. Spontaneous responses to selected stimulus themes are elicited from members of cultural samples (N=100) comparable on such sociodemographic characteristics as age, sex, educational background, etc. Based on several hundred responses to particular stimulus themes like DISCIPLINE or NAVY, the analysis shows how members of a particular group view and understand such themes. Based on several hundred thousand responses to a large number of strategically selected stimulus themes, the analysis can show the dominant trends in the group's perceptions and evaluations, and can be used to identify the main dimensions of the group's frame of reference.

Since the use of culturally salient domains and stimulus themes is an essential requirement in the comparative culture analysis, usually the first task is to select stimulus themes that would represent each group's priorities and dominant concerns. In the present case this task could be

Table 2

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF MEXICAN AMERICAN PUERTO RICAN, CUBAN AND ANGLO AMERICAN PSYCHOCULTURAL DISPOSITIONS

STIMULUS LIST

ETHNIC IMAGES Anglo Americans/Angloamericanos Black Americans/Negroamericanos Hispanic Americans/Hispanoamericanos Mexican Americans/Mexicanoamericanos Cubans/Cubanos Puerto Ricans/Puertoriguenos

SOCIAL VALUES friendship/amistad understanding/comprension love/amor trust/confianza respect/respecto dignity/dignidad

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION duty/obilgacion capibility/capacidad achievement/logro success/exito pride/orgullo ambition/ambicion

MILITARY SERVICE military service/servico militar the Navy/el Navy military career/carrera militar the Army/el Ejercito the Marine Corps/el Marine Corps the Armed Forces/Fuerza Armadas

GOALS need/necesidad want/desear life goals/metas de la vida future/futuro problems/problemas SOCIAL IMAGES me/yo your first name/su primer nombre man/hombre person/persona people/gente friends/amigas family/familia

CAREER ORIENTATION work/trabajo enlistment/alistar career/carrera money/dinero advancement/avance education/educacion

LEADERSHIP VALUES boss/jefe commander/comandante authority/autoridad discipline/disciplina obedience/obedencia order/orden

LEISURE TIME entertainment/entretenimiento joy, pleasure/alegria togetherness/convivencia sex/sexo girlfriend/amiga travel/viajar

GOVERNMENT nation/nacion society/sociedad community/comunidad patriotism/patriotismo government/gobierno United States/Estados Unidos omitted since our previous studies conducted with Hispanic American samples provided the necessary data base for the selection of culturally dominant themes.

The data collection was organized at each of the five research sites by the research directors, who were Hispanic professionals. They introduced the research, provided the instructions, and administered the association task in the respondents' native language. Sixty stimulus themes (see Table 2) were administered to the 600 respondents. The association tasks were performed in group sessions in the preferred language of the subjects. Each subject was given a pile of randomly ordered cards, each card showing one stimulus theme. Subjects were asked to write their free associations for one minute to each card. Following this task, the subjects completed a background questionnaire. This questionnaire was used to assess relevant economic, social, and demographic characteristics of the groups. The entire testing procedure required approximately two hours.

THE ASSOCIATIVE GROUP ANALYSIS: An Unstructured, Inferential Method of Comparative Assessment

The Associative Group Analysis (AGA) technique used in these investigations aims at the reconstruction of people's subjective images and meanings by their dominant perceptual and affective components. Following a tradition of leading psychologists (Charles Osgood, 1957; George Miller, 1967; Harry Triandis, 1972), AGA approaches the hidden but powerful psychocultural dispositions or "subjective culture" through the study of psychological meanings.

Inferences about the images and meanings held by selected groups (Szalay and Deese, 1978) are drawn from the distribution of their free word associations. Responses produced by members of a culturally representative group (e.g., 100 students) to a particular stimulus theme (e.g., DISCIPLINE) in multiple-response, free association tasks provide an in-depth description of how the group is collectively predisposed to perceive and evaluate the subject at hand. This special use of word associations follows the theoretical orientation initiated by the pioneering work of Noble (1952) and Deese (1962). As described in the monograph <u>Subjective Meaning and Culture</u> (Szalay and Deese, 1978), the Associative Group Analysis reconstructs the subjective images and meanings of selected themes (e.g., DRUG) as seen by a particular social or cultural group from the distribution of their free associations. AGA has been extensively tested and used in a variety of investigations over the last twenty years (see list of publications in Appendix II).

In agreement with the theoretical position of Charles Osgood (1957), images and meanings are conceived as "multicomponential." In simple language we may say that an individual's mental image of DRUG goes beyond its denotation or referent (i.e., a substance with physiological effects); it includes other important elements such as hope for cure, fear of side effects, trust or distrust, and other subjective reactions which vary from person to person or from group to group and which generally elude logical inquiry. A Christian Scientist and a drug addict will have distinctly different psychological images of drugs based on their different experiences and frames of reference.

The people who participate in these free verbal association tasks are yiven sets of randomly ordered cards (Figure 1), each carrying twelve occurrences of one of the stimulus themes in their native language. They are instructed to write on each line any response that occurs to them in the context of the stimulus word and are allowed one minute to fill in each card. The association task produces a large quantity of responses; on the average, six to seven associations are produced by the subjects to each stimulus word. Scores are assigned to these associations on the basis of frequency and rank in the individual response sequence.

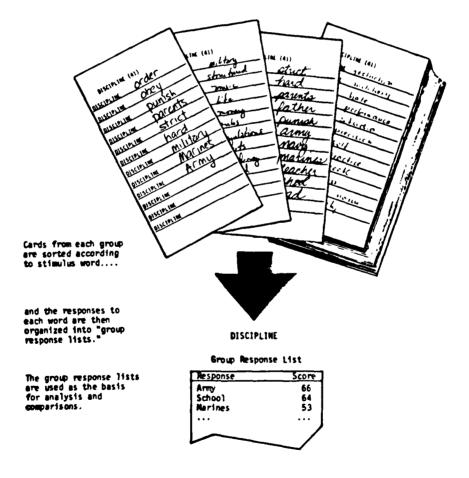


Figure 1: Formation of Group Response Lists from Individual Associations To the Stimulus Word "DISCIPLINE"

Response Distributions: A Proportionate Representation of Shared Perceptions and Evaluations

The Associative Group Analysis relies on the distribution of all shared responses that members of a particular cultural sample produce in response to a particular stimulus theme. A series of validation experiments have supported the central assumption of this approach (Szalay, Windle, and Lysne 1970; Szalay, Lysne, and Bryson 1972; Szalay and Bryson 1974): that the responses offer mosaic elements of the group's subjective representation or meaning of the stimulus theme.

In the numerous reactions elicited to a particular word theme the high frequency responses indicate important mosaic elements of the group's subjective image; the less frequent responses indicate less important ones. For example, in Table 3 the responses of Anglo American and San Juan Puerto Rican students to DISCIPLINE convey the respondents' subjective meaning and evaluation of discipline. Although these lists are too lengthy and detailed to convey a clear overall picture, even a brief visual inspection reveals some broad trends. The students from Puerto Rico (San Juan) think more in terms of positive social values: "order," "respect," "obedience," etc. To the Anglo American students DISCIPLINE has a stronger military connotation: "Army," "Marines."

Whether the stimulus theme is DISCIPLINE or MARINE CORPS the distribution of spontaneous responses provides an empirical basis for reconstructing each group's salient perceptions and attitudes. Since the number and diversity of responses make a quick identification of the dominant response trends difficult, several analytic procedures have been developed to extract the relevant information.

Table 3

Comparison of Most Frequent Associations from Two Culture Groups

Pernonces to Stimulus Thoma DISCIPLINE

| Anglo American | n Students | Puerto Rican | Students |
|----------------|------------|--------------|----------|
| Response | Score | Response | Score |
| Army | 75 | order | 171 |
| school | 70 | respectful | 84 |
| Marines | 58 | obedience | 62 |
| military | 53 | educate,ion | 59 |
| strictness | 53 | good | 53 |
| parents | 51 | Ārmy | 48 |
| obedience | 44 | school | 46 |
| good | 41 | behavior | 42 |
| father | 40 | tranquility | 40 |
| teacher | 39 | conduct | 37 |
| Total Scores | 524 | | 642 |

Content Analysis: Identification of Main Perceptual Components

The top responses to DISCIPLINE readily reveal that the Puerto Rican students from San Juan view discipline less in a narrow military context but more as a general human value. The task of reconstructing the dominant perceptions and evaluations according to their subjective salience requires a more systematic approach. A content analysis, based on categorization of the responses, is used to identify all the salient perceptual and attitudinal trends. This procedure is discussed briefly in Appendix II (pp. 5-7) and some of the results are illustrated in the following tables.

One cluster of related reactions deals with responses that show, for instance, to what extent DISCIPLINE involves punishment in the minds of these two groups.

| PUNISHMENT, GROUNDE | D | Anglo Americans | Puerto Ricans |
|---------------------|---------|-----------------|---------------|
| jail | | 15 | • |
| punish,ment | castigo | 36 | 6 |
| restricted, ion | - | 12 | - |
| ground,ed | | 13 | - |
| whip | | 13 | - |
| beat | | 11 | - |
| | | 101 | 6 |

The stronger emphasis placed on punitive measures is consistent with the generally more negative evaluation of DISCIPLINE by the Anglo American sample.

To the San Juan based Puerto Ricans DISCIPLINE appears more as a matter of correct conduct and behavior, as suggested by another cluster of responses:

| LAWS, RULES, | BEHAVIOR | Anglo Americans | Puerto Ricans |
|--------------|-----------|-----------------|---------------|
| act, ion | | - 11 | • |
| behavior | comportam | iento - | 42 |
| norms | normas | - | 11 |
| orders | | 11 | - |
| rules | reglas | 10 | 27 |
| mandate | mandato | • | 16 |
| law,s | leyes | - | 18 |
| moral | moral | - | 22 |
| value,s | valor,es | - | 22 |
| pride | | 9 | • |
| manners | modales | - | 10 |
| maturity | madurez | • | 11 |
| conduct | conducta | - | 37 |
| | | 41 | 210 |

By using eight to twelve main clusters in the content analysis, the extensive diversity of specific responses can usually be reduced to a smaller number of main perceptual and attitudinal components which offer a faithful reproduction of the group's subjective view, or subjective representation of a particular subject such as DISCIPLINE.

Table 4

Content Analysis Revealing Main Components of Perception and Evaluation of DISCIPLINE for Anglo Americans and San Juan Puerto Ricans

| | Percent Total | |
|-------------------------------|------------------|------|
| | Anglo | |
| Main Components of DISCIPLINE | Americans | |
| OBEDIENCE, RESPECT | 7 | 15 |
| FAMILY, FATHER, HOME | 12 | 5 |
| SCHOOL, TEACHER | 11 | 11 |
| MILITARY, ARMY, POLICE | 20 | 9 |
| PUNISHMENT, GROUNDED | 8 | 0 |
| GOOD, NECESSARY | 7 | 14 |
| BAD, HARD, STRICT | 13 | 3 |
| CONTROL, ORDER, STRONG | 7 | 16 |
| PEOPLE, SELF | 6 | 3 |
| LAWS, RULES, BEHAVIOR | 3 | 18 |
| WORK, SPORTS | 3 | 3 |
| MISCELLANEOUS | 2 | 3 |
| Total Scores | 1192 | 1229 |

The response clusters and their varying saliences show those hidden but important differences which characterize the subjective meaning of DISCIPLINE as understood by the groups compared. In the present case the San Juan Puerto Ricans, for instance, show a much more positive view of DISCIPLINE. Their emphasis on proper behavior and conduct is consistent with their attention given to school, work, and military life. The salient Anglo American response trends show that they have a more military oriented view of discipline, emphasizing punitive functions in contrast to the Puerto Ricans who view discipline predominantly as "good," "important," and as a source of "order," and "tranquility."

As empirical investigations have shown, the dominant views, perceptions, and attitudes are of considerable importance since they influence how people understand communications and how they are likely to view and react to certain situations. The content analysis approach illustrated above offers a simple method for identifying these dominant perceptual and attitudinal dispositions of which people are mostly unaware. Naturally, the less people are aware of such dispositions, the less they realize that people of different backgrounds are predisposed to construe subjects (e.g., DISCIPLINE) differently and the more they are inclined to believe that their own views are universal. The deep fallacy of this assumption is at the core of countless misunderstandings, management problems, and conflict situations.

The content analysis approach, which includes judgments in the clustering decisions, involves a certain degree of subjectivity. Beyond adapting several measures to standardize this process and keep subjective biases to a minimum, we have presented the extensive tables throughout the report so the reader has the opportunity to evaluate the clustering decisions critically. Most of the findings presented in this report come from the content analysis and categorizations of all the reactions produced by the six groups to the subject themes used in this study.

The cultural meaning of themes like DISCIPLINE tie in closely with the meaning of other themes such as ORDER and AUTHORITY. As the findings show Anglo Americans perceive and construe these themes with similar reservations, that is, they are viewed as sources of control which infringe upon individual freedom and autonomy. In partial contrast, the traditional Hispanic Americans view them consistently more positively as sources of peace and happiness, as instrumental to success and as expressions of respect and intelligence. These dominant trends in perceptions and evaluations, observed across many individual themes, are used to identify main cultural perspectives which constitute the main parameters of the groups' subjective representation of reality, their frame of reference.

Dominance Scores: The Measures of Subjective Importance

The total score of all responses produced to a particular subject theme like DISCIPLINE reveals the subjective importance, or dominance, of that theme to each of the groups compared. These dominance scores are shown at the bottom of the summary percentage tables. In the case of DISCIPLINE (Table 4) the Puerto Rican group scored somewhat higher (1229) than the Anglo Americans (1192) indicating that DISCIPLINE is somewhat a more important and meaningful subject to the Puerto Rican students than to the Anglo Americans. In general, the dominance scores shown throughout the second part of the report deserve attention in view of their potential to offer empirically based information on how the subjective importance varies on subjects like DISCIPLINE for the groups compared.

The capability to measure subjective importance offers a new opportunity to trace one aspect of the acculturation process, by which Hispanic American groups from various geographic regions become more similar to the Anglo Americans in their priorities. The main dimension in which this similarity is measured is perceptual/attitudinal.

Similarities and Differences: The Measure of Psychocultural Distance

The measure of psychocultural distance is based on the central assumption that the distribution of several hundred responses elicited from a cultural sample in the context of one particular stimulus theme describes in detail and depth how that particular group perceives and evaluates that particular theme. A comparison, that is, the calculation of the similarities or distances between the response distributions obtained from two groups to the same stimulus theme offers an opportunity to measure their similarities on that particular theme as well as on hundreds of others. The more two groups agree in their high frequency responses and at the same time, the more their low frequency responses are the same, the more we can assume that they view the theme or subject in a similar way. Contrarily, the more the high frequency responses of one group are low frequency responses of the other group or are not even mentioned, the greater is the distance between the two groups in their perceptions and evaluations of the particular theme in question. The measure of psychocultural distance will be discussed in more detail in the following section of our presentation. 1.1

THE MAIN FINDINGS

PART I. SIMILARITY RELATIONS BASED ON PSYCHOCULTURAL DISTANCE

THE DIVERSITY OF HISPANIC AMERICANS, THEIR SIMILARITY WITH ANGLO AMERICANS

Do Hispanics really view the world differently than Anglos? They do speak a different language. They frequently have a darker complexion, but do they actually perceive and construe the world differently? Are there important psychological differences between them and other cultures? If there are, what do such differences entail?

As leading anthropologists observe, different cultural environments produce deep psychological dispositions to view and construe the world in frequently vastly different ways. How we view the world is a characteristically private matter, inaccessible to others. How then could we know how much we share within our own culture and how much we differ from others? How can we ascertain whether culture as a psychological reality is factual or imaginary?

Scholars with extensive experiences in other cultures are convinced that culture "...is a mold in which we are all cast, and it controls our daily lives in many unsuspected ways...many of which are outside our awareness and therefore beyond conscious control of the individual" (E. T. Hall, 1956). Others, with less experience, prefer to ignore culture, tacitly or explicitly. While one frequent problem is the lack of experience, another is the difficulty inherent in the empirical assessment of these deep psychocultural dispositions, dominant perceptions, and motivations which influence peoples' views and behavior without their conscious awareness.

<u>Similarities and Differences in Subjective Views, Culturally Characteristic</u> Representations of the Environment

Since the following findings present empirical data bearing directly on this question, which is as open as it is consequential, it is important that the reader can critically evaluate this information by understanding its nature and origin. The reader is encouraged to take a close look at Appendix II in order to gain a better understanding of the following results on psychocultural distance.

As previously discussed, the Associative Group Analysis method elicits hundreds of thousands of responses through word association tasks. A review of the responses to a specific theme will readily reveal that these response distributions are group specific and filled with details characteristic of the background and experiences of each particular group. Each and every response informs us of a mosaic element characteristic of the group's subjective image or understanding of the particular stimulus theme. The importance of each of these mosaic pieces in the group's subjective view is indicated by the response score. These group response lists give us a detailed description of the group's image through a proportionate reproduction of all of its salient mosaic elements. These extensive reproductions of the group's subjective views and meanings provide us with an empirical basis for comparing groups, for gauging the similarities and differences of their subjective views with regard to any number of selected themes. Pearson's product moment correlation (r) offers a numerical expression.

The following results on the similarities and differences of various Hispanic (e.g., Mexican, Cuban, and Puerto Rican) and Anglo American population samples are based on the systematic, computer assisted evaluations of hundreds of such response distributions strategically selected to represent the dominant parameters of culturally characteristic views.

The indepth study of world views, belief systems and their similarities and differences poses naturally a host of theoretical and methodological questions. While some of these may fall beyond our present, immediate topic, they have been addressed in a variety of publications, some of which may bear on the reader's interest. The representational theory of cognitive/behavioral organization underlying our analytic approach to subjective culture and cultural distance has been outlined in a recent article in the <u>American Anthropologist</u> (Szalay and Maday, 1983). It conceives people's subjective view of the universe as a system of perceptual/semantic representation built of subjective images and meanings of dominant themes, ideas learned in the framework of their culture to understand their environment and to cope with it successfully.

To arrive at broadly based generalizable findings about the psychocultural similarities or differences between the Hispanic American regional groups and their relationship to the Anglo American sample, we have calculated average distances measured across all the stimulus subjects used in the representation of the ten domains explored in this study. The average coefficient values shown in the following rely on the distributions of tens of thousands of free, spontaneous reactions.

The use of the AGA method to reconstruct or map such systems along the dominant parameters of their organization through the use of free word associations has been outlined in an article in <u>Current Anthropology</u> (Szalay and Maday, 1973) and later in a separate monograph, <u>Subjective Meaning and Culture: An Assessment Through Word Associations</u> (Szalay, Deese, 1978). The use of this approach in the measurement of cultural distance along three main dimensions of cognitive/behavioral organization has been elaborated originally in the <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</u> (Szalay and Bryson, 1973). Its application in the indepth study of cultural and ideological belief systems has been described and illustrated in a recent article in the <u>American Political Science Review</u> (Szalay and Kelly, 1982).

DISTANCE BETWEEN ANGLO AMERICAN AND HISPANIC AMERICAN STUDENTS

ALTERNATION OF ALTERNATION

ANGLO AMERICANS

HISPANIC AMERICANS

Intragroup Heterogeneity

Anglo American Mexican Americans, El Paso .13

Anglo American

Mexican Americans, Tempe .19

Anglo American

Puerto Ricans, New York .26

Anglo American

Anglo American

.47 Puerto Ricans, San Juan

Distance (including intragroup heterogeneity) = 1 - r (coefficient of similarity) Distance is conceived to include the intragroup heterogeneity) = 1 - r (coefficient of similarity) which was found to vary around the value of .1.

Figure 2

Distance measures obtained at the level of single subjects (e.g., DISCIPLINE) are based on an average of 500 to 600 reactions from each regional sample. Distance measures obtained at the domain level are based on an average of 3,000 reactions per group. The overall coefficients shown in the following few tables are based on approximately 30,000 associations per group. Since the coefficient used for finding numerical expression is Pearson's product moment correlation, the mean coefficient values have been coefficient by using Z-transformation. The overall distances (1 - r) were calculated by mean correlations across all the responses given to all the 60 stimulus themes used in this particular study.

Distances Between Hispanic Americans and Anglo Americans

Probably the first, most natural question to ask is how the various Hispanic American samples compare to the Anglo American sample. Is there a sizable distance? Does the distance vary depending on which particular Hispanic sample---Mexican American, Puerto Rican or Cuban---is involved in the comparison?

The results presented in Figure 2 show the distances reflected by the coefficient of psychocultural distance. The Anglo American sample is shown on the left side of the graph. Since each group has a certain natural heterogeneity and this is a part of the distance measured, the following figures include internal heterogeneity in the visual presentation.

To get a measure of internal heterogeneity the Anglo American group was split randomly into two subgroups of equal size and then their distance was calculated. Similar results were obtained in previous investigations when the same group was tested twice and their reactions compared. As the findings presented later on intragroup heterogeneity show, the values vary from culture group to culture group. The value 0.1 shown in Figure 2 is essentially the mean coefficient found for Anglo, Mexican American, and Puerto Rican groups in this investigation.

As Figure 2 indicates, the Hispanic American groups are widely spread showing various degrees of acculturation. The Mexican American and the New York Puerto Rican students show a close approximation to the Anglo American students. The Puerto Rican students from San Juan are the furthest away from the Anglo Americans. They appear to be little affected by the U.S. American culture. The Cuban students in Miami occupy an intermediary position between the above two groups of highly accultured and little accultured Hispanic samples. Cubans in Miami were somewhat more distant (.32) than the Mexican American groups and the Puerto Ricans in San Juan have shown the largest distance (.47).

In comparison with the Anglo American student group, the two Mexican American groups (Figure 3) were found to be about as similar to the Anglo Americans (.13, .19) as they were similar to each other (.20). This relatively small Mexican American-Anglo American distance shows with considerable consistency the high level of acculturation of the Mexican American groups to the American society.

فللم خدمة فالمعالية والمسالحة والمراجع والمراجع

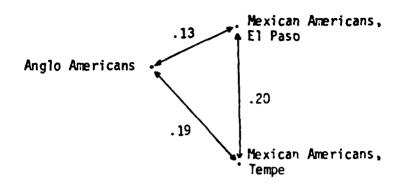


Figure 3. Distances between Anglo and Mexican American Groups

The importance of the acculturation process becomes similarly obvious when we compare the distances of the other Hispanic American groups from the Anglo American group. The New York Puerto Ricans were also found to be highly accultured: their distance from the Anglo American group was .26. As the results in Figure 4 indicate, the Puerto Rican group in New York was closer to Anglo Americans (.26) than to Puerto Ricans tested in San Juan (.47). Actually, the Puerto Rican students in New York were found to be much further away from the Puerto Rican students in San Juan than from the Anglo American students in New York.

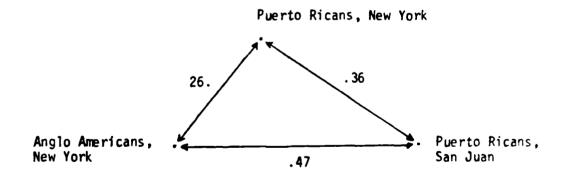


Figure 4. Distances between Anglo American and Puerto Rican Groups

Acculturation is conceptualized as a process by which people who come from a different country or culture gradually adapt to the views and values of the host culture; however, the process of growing similar to the host culture could not occur without eventually increasing the distance from the native cultural environment. The Puerto Rican students from New York, in a progressed stage of acculturation, show more similarity with people in the new environment than with people in the original cultural environment.

It is tempting to think of acculturation as a linear process of progressive adaptation moving toward zero distance from the new cultural environment, absorbing elements of his new environment at the same rate as he gradually modifies or eliminates old views and attitudes which were part of his original culture. Figure 4 makes it clear, however, that the New York based Puerto Rican group does not follow a direct linear transition from the traditional Puerto Rican environment to the Anglo American environment of New York. While this group does progress toward the Anglo American group, at the same time it also moves sideways. This indicates that acculturation is not merely a simple gradual substitution of Hispanic American with Anglo American perceptions and evaluations, but that it results in the development of views and attitudes which are new and to a certain degree different from both cultures. This suggests that while the Puerto Ricans in New York are nearly as far away from their Puerto Rican brothers in San Juan as the Anglo Americans on the East Coast are from the San Juan sample, the New York Puerto Ricans are still separated by a rather sizable distance from the Anglo Americans.

Extension of the Comparison to Examine Generalizability

The high degree of similarity of some Hispanic American groups (Mexican Americans) with the Anglo Americans, contrasted with the sizable differences observed in the case of others, (San Juan Puerto Ricans) is a new and unexpected finding in this and our NIMH study. Earlier studies based predominantly on Puerto Ricans and other little accultured Hispanic American samples (Szalay and Bryson 1973; Szalay, Bryson, and West, 1976; Szalay and Maday 1983) showed consistently large cultural distances between Hispanics and Anglo Americans. The small distances found between the Anglo and Mexican Americans in the present study suggest a high degree of acculturation of these Mexican American students to the U.S. American environment.

In view of the relatively small number of samples one has to be careful to draw broad generalizations. It is important to search for explanations based on certain social attributes or conditions of these samples which could shed light on the findings showing the high level of acculturation of the Mexican American samples.

In this context, it is particularly fortunate that our comparable study based on five Hispanic American and two Anglo American regional adult samples was recently completed. The adult samples shown in Table 1 were selected on the basis of a similar design and offer a valuable opportunity for comparison. Our present findings on students can be compared with the findings obtained independently on adult samples from the same or comparable locations.

To facilitate this comparison the distance, obtained on the adult samples are shown in the following graphs parallel to those obtained in the present study on student samples. In Figure 5 the distances between the Hispanic and Anglo American adult samples are shown by barred lines, while the distances between the Hispanic and Anglo American student samples are shown by dotted lines.

DISTANCE BETWEEN ANGLO AMERICAN AND HISPANIC AMERICAN GROUPS

ANGLO AMERICANS

HISPANIC AMERICANS

Intragroup Heterogeneity

os Angeles | Mexican Americans, El Paso .15

ev York

ast Coast **UUUUU** Mexican Americans, El Paso .16

Adult samples www

Student samples accounts

Itexican Americans, El Paso .13

Los Anneles

MUMUMUMUM Mexican Americans, L. A. .16

lew York

ast Coast

MUMUMAN Mexican Americans, L. A. .21

os Angeles

uuu Puerto Ricans, New York .22

ew York III Puerto Ricans, New York .23

East Coast www.www.www.www.accord.ac

Los Angeles

iew York Puerto Ricans, San Juan .42 Puerto Ricans, San Juan .42

ast Coast -47 Puerto Ricans, San Juan .47

Distance (including intragroup heterogeneity) = 1 - r (coefficient of similarity) Distance is conceived to include the intragroup heterogeneity measured by split half method, which was found to vary around the value of .1.

Figure 5

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The results of these two parallel investigations show similar trends with regard to acculturation. All four Mexican-Anglo American comparisons of adult samples produced low cultural distances essentially of the same order and magnitude as those obtained on the two Mexican American and the Anglo American student samples used in our study.

While practically all Mexican American student and adult samples showed rather high degrees of similarity with the Anglo Americans, the comparison of the adult and student samples produced more observable differences in the case of the two other Hispanic American populations, the Cubans and the San Juan Puerto Ricans.

In the case of the Cubans, the students show a much closer similarity with the Anglo students, than do the adults. This may be rather readily explicable because these students were brought up to a greater extent in the U.S. American cultural environment, by which they are apparently more influenced than their parents who represent predominantly emigrees who left Cuba following the establishment of Fidel Castro's dictatorship. As has been well established, acculturation progresses faster during youth and adolescence than in the case of adults.

In the case of the San Juan groups we observe a greater distance between the student samples than in the comparison of the adults. One possible explanation is that since our NIMH study involved the users of mental health services it is likely that the adult sample from San Juan consisted of more accultured Puerto Ricans adults, for it has been repeatedly stated that in the case of the more traditional cultures, the cosmopolitan and modernized strata of the population are more likely to rely on mental health services than the traditional strata of the population.

Distances Between Hispanic Americans: Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans

The distances measured between the Hispanic American samples are shown in Figure 6. The results reveal two major clusters: groups with small cultural distances, and groups with large cultural distances. The first involves the Hispanic American groups found previously to be close to the Anglo Americans, groups we have characterized as highly accultured to the U.S. environment. Since these groups were found to be similar to the Anglo Americans, it is not surprising that they are close to each other as well. Even within this cluster there are two subclusters. The most accultured Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans in New York are the closest to each other while the Cubans from Miami show a somewhat greater distance.

The second main cluster involves the comparisons of highly accultured groups with the more traditional, little accultured Puerto Rican students from San Juan. All these comparisons show large cultural distances and underscore the previous findings. They support as a major conclusion that the main differences are between highly accultured and little accultured, traditional Hispanic Americans.

DISTANCE BETWEEN HISPANIC AMERICANS

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| Mexican Americans, El Paso | El Paso | student samples processor |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| Hexican Americans, El Paso | El Paso Puerto Ricans, New York .21 | adult samples muunnu |
| Mexican Americans, | Mexican Americans, Tempe Puerto Ricans, New York .23 | |
| Mexican Americans, | Mexican Americans, El Paso | |
| Mexican Americans, Tempe | Tempe kooraanse Cubans. Miami .31 | |
| Puerto Ricans, New York | York Loora Cubans Miami .27 | |
| Mexican Americans, | | n: |
| Mexican Americans, | | Cubans Miani 44 |
| Mexican Americans [] Paso | exican Americans [] Paso Hiring Americans [] Paso | Ricans. San Juan .41 |
| Mexican Americans, Tempe | Tempe Anno 144 | ^p uerto Ricans, San Juan .44 |
| Puerto Ricans, New York | York Puerto Ricans, San Juan .36 | San Juan .36 |
| Puerto Ricans. San Juan | | |

Figure 6

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The distance between Anglo and Hispanic Americans depends greatly on what Hispanic sample is being considered. In the case of our student samples the San Juan based Puerto Ricans represented the most traditional, least accultured Hispanic American population. In the previous adult sample based study, the Cubans from Miami were found to be in this category with the San Juan Puerto Ricans. The comparisons from the previous study are shown here again with barred lines. In the present study, as previously observed, the Cubans were not as far away from the Anglo Americans as the Puerto Rican students from San Juan. The distances between the highly accultured Mexican American and the less accultured Cuban adults are consistently shorter than the distances found between the little accultured San Juan students and the highly accultured other Hispanic American student samples.

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A meaningful discussion of these findings calls for a distinction between two types of distances: relative distances and numerical results. The relative distances are usually expressed by comparative statements: larger, smaller, or equal. Some relative distances are predictable based on logical expectations. For instance, Puerto Ricans who live among U.S. Americans in New York are likely to be closer to U.S. Americans than Puerto Ricans who live in San Juan. The consistency of these findings is important on several accounts. Consistency combined with the differences observed in the direction predictable on rational basis (e.g., the Puerto Ricans in New York show consistently more acculturation than the San Juan Puerto Ricans who live in their original cultural environment) offer results in agreement with logical expectations.

Other relative distances may be anticipated based on the logic conveyed by previous sets of numerical data on distances. For instance, the previous findings that Mexican Americans in Los Angeles and in El Paso are the closest to Anglo Americans, followed by Puerto Ricans in New York, then by Cubans in Miami, and finally by Puerto Ricans in San Juan, suggest a rank order of acculturation, that is, of increasing distances from Anglo Americans. This would suggest a reverse rank order with regard to the similarity of these groups with unaccultured Hispanic Americans. This reverse rank order has been obtained by comparing the distances of the Hispanic samples with the least U.S. accultured Hispanic American group, that is, the Cubans in Miami.

Actually, the psychocultural distance data show similarly high consistencies with logical expectations based on relevant situational variables (e.g., living in the same geographic area versus being separated by large distances) as well as with logical expectations based on previous sets of numerical findings (e.g., level of acculturation to Anglo Americans was found to be a precise predictor of distance from nonaccultured Hispanic samples).

These consistencies are particularly important with regard to their implications for construct validity of the concept of psychocultural distance. The consistency of the comparative results has important implications for the acceptance of the numerical distances. Useful reference points are here of special practical importance since we are working along dimensions which have not yet been quantified. While it is logical that Puerto Ricans living in New York will be closer in their views and attitudes to Anglo Americans in New York than to Puerto Ricans living in San Juan, the literature does not offer any quantitative information, any measure about the actual degree of closeness or similarity. Since this measure is new, independent criterion measures on psychocultural distance are not available; these opportunities for construct validation are of importance. They provide empirical evidence that these distance measures offer a capability to extend quantification into this new dimension. That is, in those areas where rational expectations do exist, the findings confirm those expectations (Hispanic Americans living in U.S. cultural environment are closer to Anglo Americans than those who live in their own Hispanic cultural environment).

These findings show that the measure quantifies psychological dispositions which conform to realities that are observable. This agreement in turn makes it possible to place confidence in the findings which can not be anticipated based on rational expectations (based purely on logical considerations, there is no basis to predict whether Puerto Ricans or Mexican Americans may have achieved a higher level of acculturation).

As a main finding, the numerical distance measures underscore the importance of the acculturation process. With regard to the psychocultural make-up of a particular person, the environment of upbringing, the community to which the person belongs, is the important factor, not the Hispanic surname or the color of hair or skin. The comparative distances show consistency and conformity with expectations based on relevant observables and give validity to the numerical distances which emerge as new knowledge on the closeness of relationships deemed until now unquantifiable.

With regard to generalizability, the findings suggest that the Mexican American samples were all highly accultured, and two independent studies support similar conclusions; however, it would be premature to make any sweeping generalizations. What type of research may be needed to achieve more generalizable findings will be discussed in the conclusions and recommendations section.

Distances Between Hispanic and Anglo Americans in Specific Domains of Life

The above findings were based on overall distance measures, that is, mean coefficients calculated across ten important domains on which the groups were compared: ETHNIC IMAGES; SOCIAL IMAGES; SOCIAL VALUES; CAREER ORIENTATION; ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION; LEADERSHIP; MILITARY SERVICE; LEISURE TIME; GOALS; and GOVERNMENT.

The results presented in Table 5 show the coefficients of distance calculated between three pairs of groups: Anglo Americans and San Juan based students, Anglo Americans and New York based Puerto Rican students, and Anglo Americans and El Paso Mexican American students compared with each other on each of the above domains.

The coefficients shown are mean values calculated on the basis of the

| T | ab | 16 | 2 | 5 |
|---|----|----|---|---|
| • | | | - | ~ |

| DISTANCES BETWEEN U.S. AND HISPANIC AMERICAN GROUPS MEASURED IN SELECTED DOMAINS | | | | | | | | |
|--|--------|--------|----------|----|--|--|--|--|
| DOMAIN | | | | | | | | |
| DOMAIN | 6.2 Pu | bre bu | * ** *** | ./ | | | | |
| ETHNIC IMAGES | . 81 | .44 | .20 | | | | | |
| SOCIAL IMAGES | . 44 | .23 | .20 | | | | | |
| CAREER ORIENTATION | .27 | . 13 | .08 | | | | | |
| MILITARY SERVICE | .43 | . 15 | . 12 | | | | | |
| ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION | .60 | . 42 | . 16 | | | | | |
| SOCIAL VALUES | .29 | .22 | . 12 | | | | | |
| LEADERSHIP VALUES | . 44 | . 33 | . 16 | | | | | |
| GOALS | .61 | .27 | .03 | | | | | |
| LEISURE TIME | . 46 | .28 | . 19 | | | | | |
| GOVE RUMENT | .51 | .28 | . 16 | | | | | |
| Overall Mean Coefficients | .47 | .26 | .13 | | | | | |

The mean coefficients were calculated by the formula d = 1 - r. The mean r values (Pearson's coefficient) are based on response distributions obtained for twelve themes per domain including about 3,000 pairs of observations. Z transformation was used to calculate the means.

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distance of individual themes used in the representations of particular domains. The numerical values show considerable variation across domains, yet at the same time there is considerable consistency in the results. In all instances, without exception, the Mexican American sample was the closest to the Anglo Americans. The Puerto Ricans from New York were consistently more distant than the Mexican Americans. At the same time they were closer on all domains to the Anglo Americans than the Puerto Rican students from San Juan.

These consistent differences between groups do not preclude wide variations across domains. Most interestingly these variations show rather parallel trends. For instance, all three groups have shown large distances on the domains ETHNIC IMAGES and LEADERSHIP. At the same time they showed low distance coefficients on domains such as CAREER ORIENTATION and THE MILITARY. The results suggest that the nature of the domain exerts considerable influence on distance. In certain fields of common experiences, like education and work where students can be expected to have a great deal in common, greater similarities are indeed found. At the same time the student groups differ most intensively in affect laden areas such as ETHNIC IMAGES.

The consistency observed across domains reveals an important trend. It shows that the more accultured groups (the Mexican Americans) differ from the Anglo Americans in a similar pattern as do the relatively little accultured Puerto Ricans in San Juan. The differences are a matter of degree. Using a somewhat different formulation, we may conclude that the differences between Anglo Americans and the various Hispanic American groups show similar patterns but that they differ in the intensity or articulateness of these patterns. The relatively unaccultured Hispanic American groups show these patterns in more articulate forms, while in the accultured groups, these patterns are less accentuated, less articulate.

THE RELATIVE INFLUENCE OF CULTURE COMPARED TO OTHER VARIABLES: INCOME, SEX, AND AGE

The parallel design used in the present student based and the previous adult based studies makes it possible to explore intra-Hispanic variations in combination with some other important sociodemographic variables. To place our present findings in proper perspective we would like to find answers to such questions as to what extent are our above results affected by the fact that our study focused on male student populations. In other words, what difference does it make that we did not include female student or adult samples in our study. Since the previous study did include them, we are in a reasonably good position to answer such questions.

However, before addressing even these questions, it appears particularly important to explore the extent to which socio-economic background does affect perceptions and attitudes. This last question is particularly important since there is a widespread belief that what makes the difference between people in their perceptions and attitudes is not from where they come, but whether they are rich or poor. PSYCHOCULTURAL DISTANCE DUE TO DIFFERENCES IN INCOME AND CULTURE*

| Variables and | Variables and Groups Compared | Distances Measured | Measured | | | | | |
|-----------------------|--|--------------------|----------|----|---|--------------|--|-----|
| | | 5 JO 15 | 20 | 25 | R | R | | |
| Incom | Anglo High Nex.An. High Puerto Ricon High | | | | | < 2 4 | Anglo Low .07 Nex.Am. Low .12 Diserto Bitan Low 15 | 4 |
| Gulture | Angle Low Nex. Am. Low Angle Low | | | | | | Mex.Am. Low .14 Puerto Rican Low | א ה |
| | Anglo High Nex.Am. High Anglo High | | | Ì | t | 1 č č | Mex.Am. High .13 Puerto Rican High Puerto Rican High | |
| Income and Culture | Angle Low Mex.Am. Low Mex.Am. Low Puerto R ¹ an Low Anglo Low Puerto Rican Low | | | | | ***** | Mex.Am. High .12 Anglo High .15 Puerto Rican High .27 Mex.Am. High .29 Puerto Rican High .30 Anglo High .33 | |

The distances are calculated by using Pearson's product moment correlation (r) based on ca. 20,000 pairs of observations made in the context of a total of 120 stimulus themes used in the representation of ten domains. The results are based on mean coefficients calculated by using Z transformation.

"Source: Comparative Analysis of Mexican American, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Anglo American Psychocultural Dispositions. L. B. Szalay, M. R. Miranda, A. T. Diaz-Royo, L. W. Yudin, M. N. Brena. Washington, D.C.: The institute of Comparative Social and Cultural Studies, Inc., 1982.

Figure 7

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Psychocultural Distance Due to Differences in Income

There is a longstanding controversy between economic determinists and cultural determinists. The economic determinists claim the primacy of economic factors in shaping people, including their thought processes and perception of reality. The cultural determinists voice similar convictions about the importance of cultural background.

The latter group, which is a definite minority, contends that the attractiveness of economic determinism is a consequence of the observability of economic factors while cultural influences remain relatively hidden. Differences in economic status or income result in easily observable differences in lifestyle and other manifestations of people's ways of life. This creates a natural disposition to recognize economic factors as important sources of human differences. On the other hand, the ways in which cultural background influences people's way of thinking and shapes their subjective world are for the most part unobservable. To examine the effects of income differences we formed, in our previous NIMH sponsored study, combined samples (N=200) from the two regional Anglo American, Mexican American, and Puerto Rican subsamples and divided these into two subsamples (N=100) of high and low income. The cut-off for the Mexican American and Puerto Rican low income samples was \$15,000 and for the Anglo American one about \$20,000 (see Appendix III, Table 1).

It is interesting to look first at the distances measured between the high and low income groups separately within the Anglo American, Mexican American, and Puerto Rican samples (see first section of Figure 7). The distance measured between the Anglo American groups of different income levels was the smallest, while that measured between the Puerto Rican groups was the largest. The distance between people of different income levels was greater in the case of groups with more traditional Hispanic background. Or putting it differently, decreasing psychocultural distance between groups of different income levels may be a concomitant of acculturation. These data support opinions that the U.S. society shows a relatively high level of homogeneity of the mainstream despite marked differences in income.

When groups of different cultural background but of the same income level were compared, the cultural differences appear to be clearly more influential than differences in income. Except in the case of the Mexican Americans, there was slightly less distance between people with higher income than between those with lower incomes (see second section of Figure 7).

The combined effects of the income and culture based differences emerged with consistency in the comparison of six pairs of groups which differ both in culture and in their relative level of income (see the third section of Figure 7). Comparisons involving the high income Anglo group showed somewhat greater distances than comparisons involving the lower income Anglo group. Across the board, income differences appear to be responsible for psychocultural differences particularly in the case of our Hispanic samples. PSYCHOCULTURAL DISTANCE DUE TO DIFFERENCES IN SEX AND CULTURE *

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The distances are calculated by using Pearson's product moment correlation (r) based on ca. 6,000 pairs of observations made in the context of a total of 120 stimulus themes used in the representation of three domains. The results are based on mean coefficients calculated by using 2 transformation.

Source: Comparative Analysis of Mexican American, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Anglo American Psychocultural Dispositions. L. B. Szalay, M. R. Miranda, A. T. Diaz-Royo, L. W. Yudin, M. N. Brena. Washington, D.C.: The Institute of Comparative Social and Cultural Studies, Inc., 1982.

Figure 8

In the case of student samples we did not have comparable data to examine how differences in income may affect psychocultural dispositions, their similarities and differences. The relatively moderate differences found in the case of adults, however, suggests that in the case of students, the effects of income based differences may be even somewhat more limited. As shown in the section on variations due to age, consistently lower psychocultural distance was found between youth than between adults.

Variations in Distance Due to Differences in Sex

Psychocultural distances measured between males and females were again the smallest for Anglo Americans, while they were particularly sizable for the Puerto Ricans. In the case of the Puerto Ricans sex differences were distinctly greater than either income or age based differences (first section of Figure 8).

In comparisons where people were of the same sex but from different cultures, the differences between females were found to be greater than between males (second section of Figure 8). These differences were particularly articulate among the Puerto Rican females who appear to be distinctly more traditional in their psychocultural characteristics than the Puerto Rican males participating in this study.

This conclusion receives strong additional support from comparisons in which pairs of groups differ both in sex and in cultural background (third section of Figure 8). The same distance was found between Anglo males and Mexican females and between Mexican males and Anglo females. In the other four comparisons the two which involved Puerto Rican females produced much larger distances than the other two comparisons which involved Puerto Rican males. These findings are in agreement with the results of our Washington, D.C. based study in which the distance measured between Hispanic males and females was substantially greater than the distances measured between Hispanic and Black American males and females (Szalay et al., 1978). Since our present study was based exclusively on male samples, these findings are useful in offering some empirical data on sex based psycho cltural differences.

Variations in Distance Due to Age and Culture

To examine the effects of age on the various culture groups, the combined samples (N=200) formed of the regional samples (Anglo American, Mexican American, and Puerto Rican from our previous NIMH study) were each divided into younger and older subsamples (N=100). The age used as the point of division varied somewhat due to differences in the age distribution (see Appendix III, Table 2). The younger group included respondents up to 33 years of age for the Anglo Americans, up to 30 years for the Mexican Americans, and up to 28 years for the Puerto Ricans.

The distance due to age differences was found to be greater than the distances due to income or sex in the case of the Anglo Americans. But again Anglo Americans have shown the least distance compared to the Mexican

PSYCHOCULTURAL DISTANCE DUE TO DIFFERENCES IN AGE AND CULTURE *

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The distances are calculated by using Pearson's product moment correlation (r) based on ca. 20,000 pairs of observations made in the context of a total of 120 stimulus themes used in the representation of ten domains. The results are based on mean coefficients calculated by using Z transformation.

*Source: Comparative Analysis of Mexican American, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Anglo American Psychocultural Dispositions. L. B. Szalay, M. R. Miranda, A. T. Diaz-Royo, L. W. Yudin, M. N. Brena. Washington, D.C.: The Institute of Comparative Social and Cultural Studies, Inc., 1982.

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Americans and Puerto Ricans (see first section of Figure 9). On all three of these important sociodemographic variables there was less distance between the Anglo American subgroups than between the Hispanic American subgroups. In other words, the Mexican Americans and the Puerto Ricans showed greater distances due to age, income, and sex differences than did the Anglo Americans. This offers an empirical support to the frequently stated opinion that U.S. Americans, possibly due to television, mass media, or other factors, are characterized by a high degree of relative similarity in their cultural frame of reference.

We found a particularly marked difference in distances due to the influence of age (second section of Figure 9). The distances between culture groups were smaller between the younger samples than the older. The difference was the smallest between the Anglo and Mexican Americans (.16-.12=.04); it was substantially bigger between Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans (.30-.23=.07) and much bigger between Puerto Ricans and Anglo Americans (.37-.25=.12). While the differences are distinct there may be various explanations. One possible explanation for the greater similarity found between the younger samples may be that the younger Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans are more influenced by the Anglo American culture. Another is that socialization creates progressively differential trends over the years. Eventually both of these trends and others may contribute to the observed differences.

The combined effects of differences in age and culture further underscore the importance of the differences between the Puerto Rican young and old samples. The distance between the Puerto Rican young and the American older samples (.29) is distinctly smaller than the distance between the Anglo American young and the Puerto Rican old (.34). As the related data suggest (e.g., a similar distance between the Mexican young and the Puerto Rican old, .32), this difference is largely a consequence of the Puerto Rican old standing apart as the most traditional culture group.

These age based differences underscore the fact that cultural differences are due largely to processes of socialization or enculturation, a process which starts with birth and progresses as a direct but nonlinear function of time, probably over the entire life span. Measurements with samples covering the human life span more broadly will be needed naturally to retrace this process more fully and conclusively.

Since our present study was based on student samples, the above data are helpful in showing how students generally compare to adults, that is, they show the range of difference we could expect if adult samples had been used as well.

PART II. CULTURAL VIEWS AND EVALUATIONS IN DOMAINS

The results presented in this part of the report show how the major Hispanic American groups perceive and evaluate a broad variety of dominant themes and timely issues with direct or indirect relevance to career orientation and service.

The results are organized in chapters addressing such diverse domains as ETHNIC IMAGES, SOCIAL IMAGES, SOCIAL VALUES, ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION, CAREER ORIENTATION, LEADERSHIP, MILITARY SERVICE, and LEISURE TIME. The specific themes analyzed show how the particular regional Hispanic American groups and the macthing sample of Anglo American students are predisposed to perceive and understand subjects pertinent to service orientation, satisfaction and performance.

The results presented on particular themes show the relative importance of the theme or subject and show what are the most salient components of its cultural meaning as understood by the members of each particular group. The tables on the left page show the actual responses given by the groups to a particular theme. The tables also show the response scores which convey the salience of a particular mosaic element in the groups overall understanding of that particular theme or subject. The response data presented on the left page provide the basis for the observations formulated on the right page. We present the response distributions so that the reader can see the foundation of our observations and so that the reader is given the opportunity to draw his or her own conclusions.

The discussion of individual themes is focused on the group specific images or meanings and their similarities or differences with the groups compared. The importance of specific theme to a particular group is shown by the total scores presented at the bottom line of the percentage tables. At the same time, these tables show the main components of perceptions and evaluations in a comparative presentation.

These insights provide new opportunities to implement an old principle of effective communication. We have practically an unlimited capability to establish rapport and understanding if we are able to identify what is dominant in people's mind and if we are able to reconstruct how they subjectively understand their physical and social environment.

The perceptual and motivational trends observed across the themes used in the representation of a particular domain are used to identify broader psychocultural dispositions which characterize the frame of reference of a particular group in such areas as social values or work motivation. These broader trends are discussed in the chapter summaries.

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ETHNIC IMAGES: HISPANICS, ANGLO AMERICANS...

Whether people of a different background get along well in mainstream organizations and institutions, or experience tensions and conflicts depends largely on those deeply ingrained perceptual and attitudinal dispositions which influence how people see and feel about each other.

Ethnic/cultural images are selective and affect-laden subjective representations of a group of people, frequently distorted by ethnocentrism and biased stereotypes. The mental image of a person or group is not a simple proportionate reproduction of all observable qualities. What is registered and what is not are always selective and depend usually more on the observer than on the observed. Furthermore, ethnic images involve many intangibles: affects, identifications, rejections, stereotypes, sensitivities, inherited prejudices, resentments, etc.

The mosaic pieces of these images or mental representations vary greatly in their subjective salience. From a psychological/behavioral angle of special importance are the elements that are dominant in people's minds and thus likely to influence what they think and do. While most opinion surveys reveal little about the personal importance of a specific topic in the mind of the respondent, free verbal association is particularly informative in this respect. Spontaneous associations reflect the actual saliences of the mosaic elements and tell us about people's dispositions to construe reality in particular ways as influenced by their background and their social environment.

A faithful, proportionate reproduction of an ethnic image would indicate how positive or negative the image is, how affect-laden and ambivalent it is, how strong the ethnic self identification is (e.g., are individual Mexican Americans predisposed to identify themselves as Mexican Americans or Chicanos?). Hispanics resent certain labels and are not in full agreement as to the acceptability of others. Therefore, it is important to know whether Hispanic Americans prefer to be called "Hispanic Americans" or "Latinos;" or how popular is the label "Chicano" among various Mexican American groups? How do Hispanic Americans, or more specifically, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans view themselves and each other? How do they view Anglo Americans or Black Americans? What human qualities are particularly salient to them?

Our recent study performed for the National Institute of Mental Health offers here some relevant data. In combination with the data obtained in the present study on the images of ANGLO AMERICANS, BLACK AMERICANS, and HISPANIC AMERICANS, we present the data of this previous study on the images of MEXICAN AMERICANS, PUERTO RICANS, and CUBANS.

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ANGLO AMERICANS/ANGLOAMERICANOS

When thinking of ANGLO AMERICANS, the Anglo American students were providing the mosaic pieces of their own collective self image. The other student groups described how they see the "mainstream" from their own subjective perspectives.

Positive human attributes received the heaviest emphasis from the Anglo American students (e.g., "No. 1," "cool," "great," and "best"). Although the Hispanic Americans did not use such superlatives, they did describe Anglo Americans as "good," "nice," "friendly," and "smart."

On the negative side, "prejudice" appears as the most salient general observation receiving high scores from the Anglo American students as well. The Mexican Americans in Tempe who scored the highest on positive characteristics, were also the most critical (e.g., "sucks," "stupid"). From the Cubans "red necks" was a particularly dominant characterization.

Skin color ("white"), size ("tall"), hair color ("blond"), and other physical characteristics received considerable attention from Hispanic Americans living in the U.S. environment. In comparison, the San Juan students paid much less attention to physical/racial characteristics. Yet, interestingly, in the identification of Anglo Americans, the San Juan group shows a distinct tendency to think of "raza," which is frequently interpreted as race but actually refers more to a national collective (Szalay et al., 1978). Compared to this more collective identification, the Mexican Americans thought more in terms of individual Americans (e.g., "friends," "girls").

How direct experiences shape images is conveyed by the multi-national references of the New York based Puerto Rican students, who referred to a broad variety of ethnic origins ("European," "British," "French," "Russian," "Chinese," "Italian," "Spanish") reflecting the diversity characteristic of their city.

Also, while the Anglo American group preferred the term "WASPs," the Hispanic American students thought more of "gringos" and the Tempe group thought more of "honky" and "cowboy." The San Juan group's numerous references to "religion," "habits," "culture," and "customs," indicate the perspective of an outside observer separated by a certain distance, while a greater closeness is conveyed by the Mexican American reaction "friends."

In general, the Hispanic Americans' images of Anglo Americans reflect interesting differences shaped by different experiences and perspectives. The Puerto Ricans in New York stressed diversity, taking the view of an insider, the Mexican Americans showed a great deal of affect-laden ambivalence, and the San Juan students thought in more general terms of people, persons and particularly "raza," stressing more racial or national unity. These differences do not preclude a similarity in trends to perceive Anglo Americans as "prejudiced" or as "good" and "friendly."

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BLACK AMERICANS/NEGROAMERICANOS

The image of BLACK AMERICANS is particularly rich in content and subjective dominance to the Anglo Americans, while less so to the Puerto Ricans and Cubans. "Friends" and "friendship" were more common reactions trom the Mexican Americans and New York Puerto Ricans students. The San Juan students and the Cubans used the neutral terms of "persons" or "people." At the same time, the San Juan group strongly identified BLACK AMERICANS as "Americans" and "mezclas" (mixture). The Anglo and El Paso Mexican students used the lable "nigger," while the other samples called them "negroes," and the New York based Puerto Rican group refered mostly to "Africans." "Prejudice" was mentioned by all groups, yet its salience is relatively low compared to the idea of "slavery," which was dominant across the board. The San Juan students thought again in terms of race (raza) and objected to "racism" and "discrimination." The Anglo American students emphasized "slavery," "prejudice," and the "K.K.K." but not to the extent of the San Juan students

The physical appearance ("dark skin," "big lips," "afro") of Black Americans was salient only to the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic American students. Human social problems like "poverty," "crime," "unemployment," and "welfare" attracted attention particularly from the Cubans, the Anglo Americans, and the Puerto Ricans in New York.

The African origin was most dominant in the minds of the San Juan and El Paso students. The Anglo Americans also mentioned some domestic urban locations such as "Harlem," and "S.E." Cultural tradition, music, and food preferences received varying degrees of attention. "Roots," "music," and "soul" were broadly mentioned features; others were more sporadic and irregular in their distribution (e.g., "fried chicken," "watermelon").

The same is true for positive personality attributes (e.g., "friendly," "nice," "good"). The Tempe group described BLACK AMERICANS as being very "cool." The Cubans characterized them the most positively ("good," "nice," "proud") but used the most negative attributes as well ("bad," "dumb," "ugly"). For the Puerto Rican student in New York the negative attributes ("ugly," "dirty," "trouble") outweighed the positive ones ("nice," "smart"). "Sports," "strength," and physical performance were important considerations to the Anglo and the Mexican American groups, while these received less attention from the Puerto Ricans and the Cubans.

In general, the image of BLACK AMERICANS strongly depends on the frame of reference of the observer. While "Africa," "slavery," and "poverty" were common observations, on specifics we observe a strong affective ambivalence by the Cubans, a preponderance of positive features in the eyes of the Mexican Americans, a more intensive concern with crime and critical attitudes by the New York Puerto Ricans, a particularly strong objection to racism and discrimination by the San Juan students, and a vivid imagery by the Anglo Americans (e.g., "Africa," "slavery," "basketball," and other sports).

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HISPANIC AMERICANS/HISPANDAMERICANDS

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HISPANIC AMERICANS/HISPANDAMERICANDS

Since we are comparing Hispanic American samples, the similar subjective salience or dominance of this image is not particularly surprising.

The response scores convey how representative various ethnic/cultural groups or countries are of HISPANIC AMERICANS in the minds of our respondents. To the Anglo Americans "Mexican" ranked first, followed by "Puerto Rican," and "Cuban." To the Mexican American groups, "Mexican" and "Chicano" were at the top of the list. The label "Chicano" is apparently more popular with the Tempe than the El Paso students. It is also important to note that the "Chicano" label is apparently quite acceptable to the Mexican Americans, while "Latino" does not appear to be a popular identification, except with the Cubans.

In terms of human identifications the strongest, most popular category is "People, Friends, Family." The Anglo and Mexican American students used some popular slang like "low rider" and "wetback." They also mentioned food items ("taco," "beans") and racial characteristics ("dark," "brown"). The San Juan Puerto Ricans concentrated their attention on personality characteristics (e.g., "good," "amiable," "friendly," "loving," "joyful"), relevant to good rapport and close interpersonal relations. The Cubans showed a similar trend but with much less intensity. This same trend is conveyed by another cluster of reactions involving social values ("numble," "sincere," "honest," "responsible," "obedient," and "intelligent"), which were again particularly dominant in the San Juan Puerto Ricans' image of HISPANIC AMERICANS.

The negative characterizations of HISPANIC AMERICANS came predominantly from the Anglo and the more accultured Mexican American students and also from the Cubans. While some of the Anglo reactions are derogatory, others focus on violence (e.g., "kill," "fight," "knives," and "gang"). The Tempe and Miami groups characterized Hispanic Americans as "bad," while the El Paso group described them as "poor."

In the San Juan group's image of HISPANIC AMERICANS, "work," "study," "ambition," and "goals" were very dominant, particularly compared to the other Hispanic American groups. References to "me, myself" show a strong self identification by the El Paso and the San Juan students as being HISPANIC AMERICANS, while "proud," "strong," "cool," and "No. 1" were the most salient for the Tempe group.

In general, HISPANIC AMERICANS means ethnic identification to all groups. Yet, there is a great difference between the more accultured groups who think in cultural terms of customs and food, and the San Juan Puerto Ricans who placed particularly strong emphasis on human and social qualities. To them HISPANIC AMERICANS denotes positive personal qualities rather than the predominant cultural stereotypes, which probably explains the stronger self identification as well.

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MEXICAN AMERICANS/MEXICANAMERICANOS

In the self image of the Mexican Americans, the people category was particularly salient, although it is a composite of several components: "people," "family," "race." They also showed a high degree of self identitication ("me"), and although Mexican Americans frequently object to the label Chicano, they apparently use it to a certain degree themselves. In contrast, other alternatives, such as "Mexican," "Hispanic" or "Latin," which are labels frequently used by outsiders, did not elicit any substantive identification from the Mexican Americans. The most substantive elements of the Mexican self image were personality attributes like "good," "proud," "strong," "intelligent," and with regard to their economic situation, "poor." References to "heritage," "culture," and "history" reflect less personal attachment.

The Anglo Americans viewed MEXICAN AMERICANS as "immigrants," "Mexicans," a racial "minority," but also as "citizens." They described Mexican Americans as being "good," "proud," "happy" and "sad," "religious," and "smart." But personality characteristics received less attention than the Spanish, Hispanic origin and language. "Culture," "customs," and popular food such as "tacos," "tortillas," "chili," "beans," were frequently mentioned. With regard to life conditions, "poverty" and "work" were strong concerns as were "gangs" and "crime" to the Anglos in Los Angeles. Anglo Americans themselves.

The people dimension was also particularly salient to the Puerto Ricans and Cubans. They perceived MEXICAN AMERICANS as "people," "persons," "minorities," "citizens," a separate "race," as "foreigners" by some and as "friends" by others. In addition to their references to "Spanish" and "Mexican," "Indians" was a surprisingly high response. They viewed Mexican Americans as "good" and "proud" people but also as "dirty." The affective identification was modest, and their association with distant regions, "Mexico," "Texas," and "California" was more salient. The label "Chicano" was particularly heavily used. In the eyes of the Cubans "poverty" was a particularly salient characteristic of Mexican Americans and to a lesser extent also "injustice" and "discrimination."

<u>In general</u>, the Anglo Americans viewed MEXICAN AMERICANS from the critical perspective of the majority. Personality attributes such as "good" and "proud" are most mentioned by the Mexican Americans. Compared to other groups, the Mexican Americans placed less emphasis on culture, language, economic and social conditions. They also showed strong self identification as "Chicanos." The Cubans were similar to Anglo Americans in their views of MEXICAN AMERICANS.

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PUERTO RICANS/PUERTORIQUENOS

In the self image of the Puerto Ricans the personality characteristics of "goodness," "love," "independence" and "friendliness" had a high salience as qualities important in interpersonal relations. These socially relevant human qualities were given nearly double as much weight by the San Juan Puerto Ricans compared to those in New York. Another major difference between the two groups was that the New York Puerto Ricans strongly identified themselves as "Spanish," while this trend was negligible among those living in San Juan. Interestingly, the latter group shows a stronger inclination to use the label "American." The Puerto Ricans in New York showed more concern with their "poverty" and economically disadvantaged situation than did those living in San Juan.

In the eyes of the Anglo Americans the Spanish language and cultural background of PUERTO RICANS were particularly salient: "music," "dancing," "food," "rice," "rum," etc. The Puerto Ricans naturally received more attention from the Anglo Americans living in New York than from those living in Los Angeles. While the Anglo Americans in Los Angeles preferred the neutral general label of "people," the Anglo Americans in New York spoke in more specific terms of "friends," "immigrants," and "minorities" and were more aware of the disadvantaged economic status of Puerto Ricans: "poverty," "welfare," "slums," "struggle."

The Mexican Americans perceived PUERTO RICANS as people of Spanish background and race, although interestingly, the Anglo Americans gave more attention to Hispanic origin than the Mexican Americans (especially the Los Angeles Mexicans). There were signs of affective identification in their references to "friends" and "brothers" and "sisters." In human terms, the Mexican Americans described Puerto Ricans as "good," "happy," "fun," "loving," and "proud" people. With regard to their physical appearance, the darkness of skin received at least as much attention from Mexican Americans as from Anglo Americans.

From the perspective of the Cubans, the PUERTO RICANS were described as "good," "generous," and "joyful" persons of Latin/Spanish origin. References to "friendship" and "brotherhood" were the highest from the Cubans.

In general, the San Juan group showed a personally centered self-image with special emphasis on socially relevant human qualities. The New York based Puerto Ricans took somewhat more the perspectives of the outsider. The New York based Anglo Americans compared to the Los Angeles based Anglos showed a more human focus, registering "poverty," "struggle," "violence," "crime," beyond the stereotypical images of "music," "dance," "rum," etc. The Mexican Americans observed more human qualities, but showed considerable similarity with the views of the Anglo Americans.

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In the Cubans' self image the more conventional labels of "people," "person," and "human beings" were outweighed by some less conventional ones ("fighters," "exiles," "refugees," "patriots"). This strong political, nationalistic undertone of their self-identification sets Cubans somewhat apart from the other Hispanic American groups compared. This is further underscored by some of the personality attributes Cubans used to describe themselves. Most saliently they characterized themselves as "good" as well as "bad" people, which is somewhat unusual to find in collective ethnicnational self imagery. Their references to "joy" were also unusually high, but accompanied by "sadness." Strong references to "freedom" and "liberty" reflect a state of active political awareness. In more conventional terms, they see themselves as "proud," "talkative," and "intelligent."

The Anglo Americans' image of CUBANS was dominated by Spanish language and cultural background. Products like "cigars," "coffee," and "sugar," attracted a great deal of attention. The refugee status was seen against the background of Communist oppression and Fidel Castro's dictatorship and political rule. CUBANS were identified as "immigrants," "refugees," "aliens," and "foreigners," and described as "dark skinned," "loud," and "talkative." The more positive imagery created by the immigrant Cubans apparently interferes with the imagery created by Fidel Castro's system.

The Mexican Americans' image of CUBANS was similar to the Anglo Americans' image just discussed. There was similar emphasis on refugee status, political persecution, communism, and Fidel Castro. However, the Mexican Americans paid less attention to \ge Hispanic/Latin origin, and tended to view Cubans as "foreigners," "strangers" of different background and nationality. From the cultural angle, food received less attention than music.

The Puerto Ricans, particularly those from San Juan, showed more affinity and identification with Cubans as well as more open ambivalence and criticism. The Puerto Ricans referred more to "friendship," 'orotherhood," and familial relationships but also described Cubans as "Jews" and "foreigners." They showed the most awareness of the Communist rule and Fidel Castro and characterized Cubans most emphatically as good people, "exiles," "refugees" concerned with "freedom" and "liberty." They recognized Cuban diligence, and the heavy references to "work" and "workers" suggest an appreciation of Cuban motivation and performance. At the same time their characterizations of Cubans as "bad," "selfish," and "disagreeable" convey some ambivalent feelings.

In general, the self-image of the Cubans was intensively subjective, person oriented and shows a strong distinction between "good" and "bad" people, "patriots" and "communists." The Anglo Americans' image of CUBANS contained many consumer product stereotypes and a similar split between "refugees" and "Castro." The Mexican Americans' perspectives were similar to the Anglo Americans. The Puerto Ricans were the most person oriented and subjective, reflecting positive ties as well as critical attitudes.

<u>Summary</u>

How various ethnic/cultural groups (e.g., Hispanic or Anglo Americans) view themselves and each other tells a great deal about their relationship. We now extend our analysis to trends across specific images to chart perceptual dispositions and value orientations of which these groups themselves are mostly unaware.

Prior to this discussion we should mention again that these data came from two different studies. The data on ANGLO AMERICANS, BLACK AMERICANS, and HISPANIC AMERICANS were obtained in the context of our present study of six student samples (one Anglo and five Hispanic American). The data on the images of MEXICAN AMERICANS, PUERTO RICANS, and CUBANS came from a recent comparative study sponsored by the National Institute of Mental Health involving two Anglo American and five Hispanic American adult samples.

In the field of ethnic identification a great deal depends on the connotations attached to particular ethnic labels (e.g., "Chicano" or "Latino"). Since ethnic labels can develop undesirable connotations, it is desirable to use those which are most acceptable to the members of that particular ethnic population. The results indicate that "Hispanic American" is the most widely accepted label for all three major cultural groups: Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans. The label "Latino" is quite popular with the Cubans, but even they identify more with "Hispanic American." "Hispanic American" was the most immediate identification and was richest in content for the San Juan students. Their reactions seem to convey the belief that the label "Hispanic American" identifies exclusively Puerto Ricans. The two other groups, the Mexican Americans and the Cubans, show more awareness that "Hispanic American" includes other culture groups as well.

In terms of primary identification, the more specific labels like "Mexican American" or "Cuban" are both more popular and useful. In this context the Mexican Americans also used the word "Chicano." This tendency was stronger, however, in El Paso than in Los Angeles. There are also several indications which suggest that despite their frequent references to themselves as "Chicanos," the best and most widely accepted label free of negative connotations is "Mexican American."

To identify deeper perceptual dispositions and value orientations characteristic of particular culture groups it is interesting and informative to examine how they view themselves in comparison to others. Some of these differences come from different perspectives, those of an insider as compared to the perspectives of a more distant outsider. In this respect our previous research on ethnic images of more distant cultures such as Koreans (1972), Arabs (1976), Colombians (1982), and other groups has offered extensive new findings on the influence of different perspectives involving three types of images: (a) individual self-image---how an individual Egyptian perceives and values himself, (b) ethnic self-image---how Egyptians perceive Arabs or Egyptians collectively, and (c) ethnic images--how Arabs or Egyptians are perceived, for instance, by U.S. Americans.

From the angle of our present interest in Hispanic and Anglo American ethnic self-images, the above findings show a natural relationship between the individual self-image (the individual Cuban's self-image) and the collective ethnic image (the Cuban's image of Cubans as a whole). For instance, the previous research shows that ethnic self-images (e.g., the Hispanic American's image of Hispanic Americans) tend to focus on personulity attributes, positive and negative values characteristic of Hispanic Americans, for example, as people, as human beings. At the same time, ethnic images (e.g., the U.S. Americans' image of Hispanic Americans) are more historically, culturally, and situationally oriented than narrowly focused on personal qualities. This case is not as extreme as we observed in the context of Arabs, but is somewhat analogous. As we found (Szalay et al., 1978), for example, the Arabs were viewed by U.S. Americans as riding on camels in the desert, as controlling oil and being ruled by rich sheiks. The Americans paid little attention to human attributes by which the Arabs describe themselves. These differences suggest two image prototypes. The first is distant, an impersonal image centered on origin, history, past tradition, and cultural symbolism. The second is close and personal focusing primarily on contemporary personality attributes and psychocultural dispositions. Some of these attributes may be idealized and imaginary yet real as a force of psychological identification.

By these criteria the ethnic self-image of the Mexican Americans is relatively impersonal, showing little emphasis on those human attributes characteristic of the self-image of the more traditional Hispanic American culture groups as represented in this study by the San Juan sample or in a previous Colombian study by students from Bogota (Szalay et al., 1932). The Puerto Rican and Colombian samples showed a similarly heavy emphasis on human qualities (e.g., "goodness," "love," "loyalty"), which are salient in the mind of the more traditionally oriented Hispanic Americans. The San Juan Puerto Ricans' emphasis on these socially relevant traditional qualities and values provides a strong human foundation for their ethnic selfimage both as PUERTO RICANS and as HISPANIC AMERICANS. The relative absence of these human attributes in the Mexican American responses suggests that their ethnic self-image is less personal, reminiscent more of ethnic images held by outsiders. While the self-image of the adult Mexican American samples was somewhat stronger on the human dimension, this trend was quite weak among the Mexican American students in their HISPANIC AMERICAN selfimage. They emphasized geography, cultural customs, and food, parameters previously identified as indicative more of distance rather than selfidentification, particularly if there is little attention to human characteristics in the self-image.

Data obtained on a broad international scale suggest that psychocultural distance is a direct function of geographic distance. Ethnic/national images of people from distant continents also illustrate how, as a function of distance, these images are increasingly impersonal and stereotypical, leaving little of the human element. The differences observed between internal and external perspectives, which emerge from the comparison of the ethnic self-image of native cultural samples (e.g., Arabs, Colombians) in contrast to their images in the eyes of outside observers (e.g., Anglo Americans), makes possible the identification of trends in ethnic/national images which reflect closeness as compared to those which are indicative of distance.

Indications of closeness include: identification with the ethnic label (e.g., responding to MEXICAN AMERICANS with the pronoun "me" or responding to ME with "Mexican American" or "Chicano"), emphasis on psychological <u>attributes</u> (e.g., "good," "loving") in the collective ethnic self-image and the similarity of those attributes with those given in he context of the individual self-image (as produced to stimuli like ME or YOUR FIRST NAME).

The Cubans again represent an individual case. The students emphasized human qualities of social relevance in their ethnic image of HISPANIC AMERICANS. Although the salience of this human component is lower for the Cuban students than for the San Juan Puerto Ricans, it is about twice as strong as that observed in the case of the Mexican Americans. Beyond such social qualities as "good" and "faithful," the adults add a strong element of additional value identification, e.g., "freedom," "liberty," "fight," "communism," and "exile." While this expands the human core of the Cuban ethnic self-image, it also underscores the somewhat unique character of their enculturation.

The average cultural distance coefficients calculated separately for the ethnic images of the student groups and the adult groups show similar trends:

| Coefficients of Psychocultural | | 7 | | lon g lone | | | | | xica meric | | s / | | je r ca | | Cubans |
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| Distance Between Regional Samples | Ľ | | | it Ist | | | 'E1 Pas | | Tem | pe | | iew (ork | | an uan M | iami |
| Anglo Americans, East Coast | • | • | • | • | • | • | .32 | 2 | . 36 | | . 46 | | 90 | .57 | |
| Mexican Americans, El Paso Mexican Americans, Tempe | | • | | | | • | • • | • | | • | .44 | 1. | 14 | .72 | |
| Puerto Ricans, New York | • | : | : | : | : | : | • | • • | ••• | : | • • | | .93 | .73 .1.11 | |

Table 6. Mean Distances Measured on Anglo Americans, Black Americans and Hispanic Americans in the Domain of ETHNIC IMAGES

| Coefficients of Psychocultural | | | glo eri | | \$ | | Mexi Amer | | | | | uert ican | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|-----------|------------|-----|-----|----|--------------|------------|------|---|---|--------------|-------------|-----|-------|
| Distance Between Regional Samples | / | Ne Yor | - I. | Los | | Lo | | /EI Pas | | | _ | | San luan | | Niami |
| Anglo Americans, New York | | | .28 | 3 | .62 | | . 42 | | . 36 | | | .98 | | . 8 | 3 |
| Anglo Americans, Los Angeles | | | | | .23 | | .26 | | . 34 | | | .71 | | .6 | |
| Mexican Americans, Los Angeles | | | | • | • | | .22 | | . 38 | | | .72 | | . 5 | |
| Mexican Americans, El Paso | | • | • | | • | | | | . 36 | | | . 76 | | .5 | |
| Puerto Ricans, New York | | | | | | | | | • | • | | .61 | | .6 | 3 |
| Puerto Ricans, San Juan | • | | | | | • | | | | • | | • | | .6 | - |

Table 7. Mean Distances Measured on Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans and Cubans in the Domain of ETHNIC IMAGES The distance between the Anglo and the Mexican American ethnic images is relatively the closest, indicating in this context again the relatively high level of acculturation of the Mexican American group to the U.S. culture. The Puerto Ricans in San Juan show the greatest distance from the Anglo Americans indicating that they are the least accultured, most traditional group. The Cuban adults show the next largest distance from the Anglo Americans, while showing sizable distances from most of the other Hispanic groups as well. The generally above average level of distances indicates that ethnic images are relatively resistant to change and that in this domain the acculturation process is particularly slow. This may be partially explained by those forces which maintain ethnic identification at an emotional level, while in other realms of perceptual semantic representation progress is made at a faster rate.

The above ethnic images reflect deeply ingrained social attitudes and human dispositions, which characterize the groups examined in their relationship to each other as well as toward themselves. The images they have developed of each other can be explained by the groups' ethnic identity, their majority or minority status, their physical distance from each other, the degree of their contacts, etc. Conditions of distance appear to be conducive to impersonal stereotypes whereas closeness and living in mixed communities create more personal familiarity as well as an increased amount of ambivalence. In the present study we observed strong ambivalence of Mexican Americans toward Anglo Americans and of the San Juan Puerto Ricans toward Cubans.

The ethnic self-images of the Hispanic American groups convey an interesting psychological tendency which may be useful in understanding how acculturation affects self-identification. The more accultured Hispanic Americans groups (e.g., the Mexican Americans and the Puerto Ricans from New York) tended to identify themselves explicitly by their ethnicity as Mexican Americans or Puerto Ricans, or Hispanic Americans. While the tendency of explicit verbal identification did not show any significant decrease compared to the more traditional, little accultured groups (e.g., Puerto Ricans in San Juan) their interpretation of this identity---the meaning of being Mexican American or Puerto Rican, did show a significant change.

The more accultured groups show a significant weakening of the original Hispanic tendency to stress human attributes, particularly social qualities and affect laden personal ties. They tend to look at themselves as well as at other Hispanics in somewhat personal, social terms but more with the eyes of the outside observer. From this perspective, ethnicity is more a matter of historical symbols, customs, folklore, food preferences, exotic dishes, rather than an emphasis on human attributes, cultural values, culminating in the case of the Hispanic American in special emphasis on strong, affectladen social ties.

From the angle of institutional adaptation, this difference is consequential. It suggests that meeting the psychological needs of ethnic identification poses somewhat different requirements in the case of the more and less accultured Hispanic Americans. We will discuss these differences in our final chapter on conclusions, recommendations.

SOCIAL IMAGES: ME, OTHER PEOPLE

The adaptation of minority personnel to U.S. military institutions is frequently hampered by different approaches and expectations in the area of interpersonal relations. These differences can lead to tensions and dissatisfaction which seriously affect organizational climate and job performance.

Our study of Filipino servicemen in the U.S. Navy showed that they viewed their overall situation in positive terms. They had a high regard for the Navy as an institution, they had positive attitudes toward work and the service, and they had good rapport with their supervisors. But, according to the servicemen, they did suffer from an essential lack of rapport with and recognition from their U.S.-born peers (Szalay and Bryson, 1977).

At a time of strong ethnic tension and sharp criticism of U.S. political institutions, these findings were somewhat unexpected. They did underscore, however, the importance of interpersonal relationships as a distinct variable in personnel satisfaction. Other comparative studies have also shown that Koreans, Arabs and other groups of ethnic cultural background different from the U.S. mainstream generally approach interpersonal relationships with a different frame of reference.

In one of our previous studies of Hispanic-U.S. American cultural differences (Szalay et al., 1978) we concluded that interpersonal relations is the domain most influenced by cultural factors. It is also one of the least understood domains plagued by considerable ambiguities and apparent contradictions.

As shown by Lisansky's extensive review of the literature (1921), probably the single most important yet most controversial dimension of Anglo and Hispanic American comparisons is individualism versus collectivism. What makes this dimension particularly controversial is its subjective, hidden nature, its evasiveness to empirical assessment.

The differences in Anglo and Hispanic American approaches to interpersonal relations are frequently discussed in terms of dichotomous contrasts. Hispanic Americans are described as "collectivistic" (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961), "social personalistic" (Szalay et al., 1978), and "aliocentric" (Triandis, 1983), while Anglo Americans are characterized as "individualistic" (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961), "competitive" (Kagan, 1977), and "ideocentric" (Triandis, 1983). A great deal of controversy results from differences in the meaning and use of value-laden labels. For example, in our mainstream American society "individualistic" has a strong positive connotation while "collectivistic" carries negative undertones. Yet, beyond the semantically induced controversy, there is considerable agreement on certain important trends differentiating dominant Hispanic views of people from the Anglo American views.

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Responses to the personal pronoun ME offer mosaic pieces of the self image. They show how people view themselves, how they feel about themselves, and what are the salient elements of their self perception and evaluation.

The Anglo American group's high scores on two main components reflect the subjective importance they assign to the self. They placed special emphasis on "I," including the juxtaposition of "I" to "you." The Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami, who were found to be the more traditional groups, placed the least emphasis on "I." The Anglo Americans also stressed positive physical attributes such as "big," "strong," and "athletic," while the less accultured, more traditional Hispanic groups generally scored low on these physical attributes. The more accultured Hispanic groups occupy an intermediary position between the Anglos and the more traditional Hispanic Americans.

On other physical attributes (e.g., "handsome," "cute," "good looking") the more accultured Hispanic Americans, together with the Anglo Americans, showed generally more concern than did the traditional Hispanic Americans. In contrast, the more traditional groups, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami, show a much stronger preoccupation with personal, moral qualities ("good," "loving," "amiable") as well as with affect-laden attachments ("love," "friendship").

In a somewhat less predictable way, the Hispanic American students tended to characterize themselves in intellectual terms (e.q., "smart," "intelligent"). They also identified themselves more as "students." The less accultured Hispanic students showed more subjective preoccupation with "work," and particularly the students in San Juan made more references to "ambition," "desire," "goals," "improve" and other themes of a motivational nature.

The less accultured Hispanic groups think of themselves as "honest," "sincere," "humble," and "proud." In terms of social categories, they emphasized the notion of being a "person," closely followed by "human being" and "man."

<u>In general</u>, the Anglo American self image shows a strong concentration on "I" and stresses "strength" and other physical characteristics. The students with a more traditional Hispanic background think of themselves more as "persons" and "human beings." For them, certain social attributes and affective attachments, particularly "love" and the quality of being "good," were important considerations. The more accultured Hispanic American student samples occupy an intermediary position on these various parameters of the self image.

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THE SELF IMAGE ELICITED BY THE FIRST NAME

The student's own name, rather than the personal pronoun ME, was used as an independent, parallel instrument to reconstruct important parameters of the self image. This was desirable since the use of personal pronouns as stimulus words elicits many responses, like other pronouns, which are more grammatically determined. While each approach has its limitations, they offer a useful opportunity for comparison.

There was an apparent misunderstanding in the presentation of this task to the San Juan sample, since they only gave literally their first name. Therefore, the following results are limited to the responses obtained from the five other student samples.

There were relatively few references to self ("me," "myself"), which came mostly from the more accultured El Paso and the Anglo American student samples.

Moral and social attributes and affective ties ("good," "love," "understanding," "lovable," and "amiable") came predominantly from the Cuban students, who represent the more traditional Hispanic cultural background. Being a "student" and being "intelligent" were more salient in the self characterizations of the Cuban and New York Puerto Rican students. Attributes dealing with appearance ("cute," "handsome," "good looking"), received greater attention from the more accultured Hispanic American student groups in their self description. The Anglo and Mexican Americans scored the highest in the category "Strong, Cool, Great."

Identification as a "man" or "person" came again more from the Cuban and the New York Puerto Rican samples. Also, as in the context of ME, the New York Puerto Rican group showed the strongest ethnic identification ("Spanish," "Hispanic," "Puerto Rican"). This may be explicable by the fact that people become usually more aware of their ethnic identity in an environment in which they represent a minority. Since the Cubans in Miami are in a similar situation, it is interesting that they did not show the same tendency toward ethnic self identification.

In general, the self image elicited from the various student samples by using their own name as a stimulus is consistent in emphasizing the same characteristics as in the context of ME. Again there was the Hispanic tendency to view the self in social and moral categories, reflecting a great deal of affective involvement. The Puerto Ricans in New York emphasized being "smart" and being a "student" while in the mind of the Cubans "love" and being "good" also had considerable salience. MAN/HOMBRE

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MAN/HOMBRE

On the image of MAN we find an interesting deviation from previous trends which showed the Cuban students to be different from the Anglo Americans and more similar to the little accultured, more traditional Puerto Ricans in San Juan. In the context of MAN, however, the Cubans show more similarities with the Anglo Americans while they differ in several important aspects from the San Juan student sample. Whether this is a matter of original cultural disposition or a consequence of acculturation cannot be decided without a comparison with a Cuban sample tested in Cuba.

The male-female contrast is the strongest with the Anglo Americans, as previously observed in several studies (1978, 1982). Gender difference usually receives less emphasis from the more traditional Hispanic Americans.

The "masculine," "male" identifications were strong on the part of the Mexican American and Puerto Rican students. They viewed "father" as particularly representative of MAN. The Anglo Americans and the Cubans emphasized "strength" and "power." The Puerto Ricans in San Juan emphasized "intelligence." Practically all groups viewed MAN as "big" and "tall." In addition, the Cubans showed the most interest in good physical appearance ("cute," "handsome") as well as other positive attributes ("loving," "good," "honest"). The strong Hispanic emphasis on "love and "goodness" suggests that these attributes are apparently not in conflict with the idea of being masculine.

It is somewhat unexpected that the Anglo students were inclined to note leadership roles ("leader," "ruler," "master," "president"). At the same time, they associated MAN less closely with "work" than did the Hispanic Americans, particularly the Puerto Ricans and the Tempe Mexican Americans.

In general, the key idea for the Hispanic Americans, with the exception of the Cubans, is MAN as a "person" or "human being," Essentially, this concept has little sexual connotation, but rather denotes human qualities, especially those with social and moral implications. "Goodness," "love," "understanding," and other attributes of interpersonal relevance are central to both the concept of MAN and of PERSON (discussed next).

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PERSON/PERSONA

Practically all of our previous Hispanic studies have indicated that PERSON is generally a more important and central notion than MAN to them. Its cultural meaning conveys also some of the trends characteristic of Bispanic interpersonal relations. The less accultured Hispanic students showed some of the previously observed trends more clearly than the more accultured Hispanic Americans. PERSON had the least dominance for the Mexican American student group in El Paso and for the Anglo Americans. The Puerto Rican group in San Juan and the Cuban students in Miami had the highest dominance scores, although the Cubans differ little in dominance from the other Hispanic student groups.

These less accultured Hispanic student groups scored the highest on the "Love, Respect, Kindness" dimension, which shows that PERSON has for them a more positive, more affect-laden meaning than for the Anglo American or for the more accultured Hispanic groups. As a closely related observation, the little accultured Hispanic American students showed a marked tendency to look at PERSON in terms of being good or bad. A good person implies for them naturally someone who is "good," "friendly," "amiable," and "loving," a person with strong social qualities and interpersonal attachments. The San Juan students stressed such attributes as "humbleness," "respect," "responsibility," "honesty," which emphasize proper social attitudes toward others. While the Cubans think more of "people," the San Juan based Puerto Ricans and the Mexican Americans in El Paso again think more of "human beings."

The less accultured Hispanic students in San Juan and Miami also tended to relate PERSON to larger social units: "society," "community," "population" (pueblo). This trend goes together with their emphasis on social attributes. In turn, these trends stand in partial contrast with the Anglo American emphasis on the self ("me," "myself") characterized frequently as individualism.

Some of these differences emerged more distinctly in our previous studies based on less accultured, more traditional adult samples (1978, 1982). The fact that the present study is based on high school students, who apparently have not yet reached their peak in the socialization or enculturation process, is most likely the reason for these differences to be less articulate in the present context.

In general, the findings show that the Hispanic student groups who are little accultured to the Anglo American environment, think of people predominantly as "persons" with emphasis on moral and social qualities, positive social values and attachments to other people and to larger social units.

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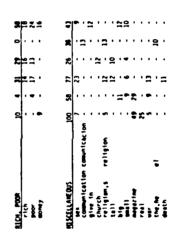
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PEOPLE/GENTE

How the various groups look at PEOPLE reflects trends in their dispositions to conceive the social world in particular ways. The main tendency of the less accultured, more traditional Hispanic American groups is to view record as "persons." While this may appear to be just another word for PEOPLE, "person" contains certain characteristically Hispanic elements. While this emphasis on "person" was found to be strong among Colombians as well (1982), it is interesting to note how pronounced it is here for the Puerto Rican students, particularly the San Juan group, but it is hardly noticeable with the Cubans. The Cubans and the Mexican Americans show a stronger tendency to think of "human beings."

The Anglo Americans and the more accultured Mexican American students also think more in terms of "man" and "woman," "boys" and "girls." Most groups think of PEOPLE intensively in terms of racial identity ("Blacks," "Whites," "races"), while the Puerto Ricans in San Juan represent a noticeable difference by making no racial distinction, thus showing negligible racial awareness. Incidentally, this is in close agreement with the results of our earlier studies, where Puerto Ricans in San Juan were found to show remarkably little predisposition to perceive or identify racial differences (1974).

On the dimension of affective identification the Puerto Rican students show an interesting contrast. While Puerto Ricans in San Juan made the fewest references to affective ties ("love," "friendship," "caring"), the Puerto Ricans in New York made the most and also made the most references to "family" and family members.

The Puerto Ricans, particularly those in San Juan, tended to think of PEOPLE in terms of "community," "society," and "population." The less accultured, more traditional Hispanic students, the Puerto Ricans and Cubans, also showed the strongest tendency to categorize people as "good" or "bad." As a partial contrast, the other groups mentioned more diverse qualities: "pretty," "smart," "intelligent," "helpful."

The Mexican American students in Tempe had a particularly negative view of PEOPLE, listing such qualities as "dumb," "mean," "corrupt," "stupic," "prejudiced," and "loud." The reasons for this attitude are not clear.

In general, the idea of PEOPLE is a popular social category for Anglo Americans. It includes individuals of different race, sex, and age. In this open society, people are viewed as a reservoir of potential partners and friends. To Puerto Ricans, PEOPLE denotes more the idea of strangers. They are more inclined to think in terms of persons and human beings rather than PEOPLE.

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FAMILY/FAMILIA

The image of FAMILY, the most basic, natura¹, and universal unit of social organization, has shown some interesting influences on cultural perspectives in our previous studies based on adult populations (1972, 1978). The Anglo versus Hispanic American perspectives reflected some important structural differences, such as the Anglo emphasis on the husbandwife relationship compared to the stronger Hispanic emphasis on parentcnild. Since our high school students are unmarried, young people, it was interesting to see to what extent they may represent different perspectives.

On the question of subjective dominance, Hispanic Americans were previously found to assign particularly heavy importance to FAMILY. This trend did not emerge in the present context comparing little accultured Hispanic groups and Anglo Americans. At the same time, the more accultured student groups, the Mexican Americans in Tempe and the Puerto Ricans in New York, did have high dominance scores, probably because FAMILY can become particularly important in a culturally different environment (see "Impact of a Foreign Culture: South Koreans in America," Szalay and Kelly, 1972). The New York based Puerto Rican students and the Mexican Americans in Tempe, placed particularly heavy emphasis on "father," "mother," "brothers," "sisters," as well as on more distant relatives ("aunts," "uncles"). Across the board all Hispanic American students heavily emphasized "love," "trust," "respect," "caring," and "friendship," that is, the importance of affectbased interpersonal ties.

The focus on affect-laden interpersonal relations appears to be universal among the Hispanic American regional groups tested. The Anglo Americans emphasized these ties to a much lesser extent. To place the findings into broader perspectives, we may mention that the Anglo Americans are still stronger in their emphasis of love in the context of FAMILY than people in the more traditional Arab and Korean cultures, where FAMILY in itself shows little affect-loading (parent-child relations do).

Although the Hispanic student groups emphasize across the board "unity" and "togetherness," there is a hidden cultural difference here. As our previous analysis (1978) shows, the Anglo American interpretation of "togetherness" has an individualistic undertone in the sense of two individual people enjoying each other's presence, while the Hispanic idea of "togetherness" or "union" suggests more a sort of fusion. In their articulation of problems and conflicts within the FAMILY, the Anglo Americans scored the highest. The reactions were quite diverse: "trouble," "fights," "pain," "hate," "problems," "divorce." Interestingly, no Hispanic students mentioned "divorce."

<u>In general</u>, most of the broadly established Anglo and Hispanic American differences previously found with adult populations were confirmed by our student samples. There was one significant difference: the husband-wife relationship, usually emphasized by Anglo Americans as central to family relations, did not emerge in the students' image of FAMILY. In the area of affect-laden interpersonal ties, the Hispanic Americans scored uniformly higher than the Anglo American students. Life in a culturally different environment may accentuate the traditional Hispanic emphasis on FAMILY.

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FRIENDS/AMIGOS

As the higher dominance scores indicate, the more traditional, less accultured Hispanic students, the Cubans and the Puerto Ricans, attached somewhat greater subjective importance to FRIENDS than the Anglo Americans or the more accultured Hispanic Americans. A similar tendency was observed in the context of FRIENDSHIP, not only with regard to the importance given to FRIENDS and FRIENDSHIP but also with respect to certain dominant perceptual and evaluative trends.

The less accultured Hispanic student groups stress the affective, emotional content of the relationship ("love," "caring," "helping") whereby the Cubans emphasize "love" and the Puerto Ricans "friendship" and "sharing." While affective ties were also important for the Anglo students, their subjective weight was less than that of the more traditional Hispanic Americans.

As observed in the analysis of FRIENDSHIP, the Anglo Americans focused more narrowly on extracurricular activities and entertainment ("fun," "parties"). There is extensive evidence that for the more traditional culture groups, such as Arabs and Koreans (1978, 1972), FRIENDSHIP has a broader, more universal meaning involving other dimensions and activities of life such as work or business in addition to entertainment.

The heavier Anglo American references to "girls" and to "sex" indicate that FRIENDS as well as FRIENDSHIP have a more distinctly sexual connotation. While the more traditional Hispanic groups showed this trend to a very limited extent, to the more accultured Mexican Americans this sexual connotation of FRIENDS was salient. The Mexican Americans in Tempe and the Puerto Ricans in New York, also mentioned many names of particular friends.

While to the Anglo and Mexican American students FRIENDS can only be "good," it is interesting to observe that for the more traditional Hispanic American students FRIENDS can also be "bad" and "evil" as well. This may appear paradoxical from the Anglo American perspective where FRIENDS are freely chosen and thus are likely to have only positive qualities to be considered friends. Yet, from the angle of the more traditional cultures, where friendship entails long-term commitments and lasting obligations, the idea of conflicts or fights between friends is not alien to the idea of friendship.

The Puerto Rican students in San Juan emphasized "companions," and all Hispanics regard "family" and relatives ("brothers," "mother") as friends more than the Anglo Americans do. For the Anglo American and the Mexican American students in El Paso, "school" presents an important context for friendships.

<u>In general</u>, the less accultured Hispanic Americans place more emphasis on the affective content of friendship and the permanence of the attachment. To them, the human and social qualities of FRIENDS ("goodness," "love," "sharing") are of special importance. To the Anglo and more accultured Hispanic American students, FRIENDS have a stronger leisure time connotation; the relationship is more situation based and shows little concern with duration or obligation.

Summary

We have examined the various regional samples' views regarding three types of social units: (a) the image of ME, how the members of these groups view themselves, (b) images of others in general, and (c) the images of others with affective ties: FRIENDS and FAMILY. While the cultural meanings were discussed previously theme by theme, next we will examine the general trends emerging in this domain, how the regional Hispanic samples are predisposed to view people, to construe their relationships; how they vary in their subjective representation of social relations.

The highly personal and subjective nature of interpersonal relationships and their evasiveness to assessment explain the difficulties associated with the task of introducing empirical data to promote clarification amidst conflicting positions. The information produced by word associations on subjective images and meanings offers here a new opportunity to gain insights into how issues and people are related in the minds of these various groups of respondents.

The following discussion addresses two main questions. First, what does our comparison show about the existence of different patterns of interpersonal relations characteristic of Anglo Americans and Hispanic Americans? Second, how do these differences vary depending on the observed level of acculturation?

The self images revealed fairly consistent patterns of differences. The Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans, particularly those from El Paso, emphasized "I" and "self" or, using a clinical label, the "ego." They also showed a stronger tendency to stress greatness, strength, being athletic, and other attributes involving physical strength. The more traditional Hispanic groups were predisposed to think of themselves in terms of positive feelings and affective ties ("love," "friendship"). The quality of being "good" was of special importance to them, implying positive moral and social qualities, understanding, and genuine concern with others. The stimulus theme YOUR FIRST NAME elicited the same mosaic elements as the theme of ME. In general, the Anglos and the more traditionally oriented Hispanics have shown the same differences in both contexts used to show their self image.

The images of others were examined through the analysis of the themes PEOPLE, MAN, and PERSON. The images and meanings of these elementary social units revealed several consistent trends in important perceptual and motivational dispositions. As this consistency suggests, these dispositions are deeply rooted in people's cultural frame of reference. In practically all of these contexts, the Anglo Americans placed more emphasis on sexual identity and differences. They also observed more racial differences. Furthermore, masculine qualities like "strength" and "power" received more attention, and "leadership" was more salient in the subjective representation of MAN by the Anglo American students. They also made more references to self in the context of PERSON.

In their images of others, the more traditional groups, particularly the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, showed a strong concern with moral and social

attributes. Particularly the qualities of being "good" (or "bad") and "loving" received broad attention together with such social values and virtues as "respect," "love," and "kindness." These are qualities and affects which reflect on the importance given to interpersonal relations. They emerged here consistently as salient considerations and important parameters of these Hispanic groups' frame of reference.

While the Anglo American students related some of these elementary social units (e.g., PERSON) more to the self or the ego, the Hispanic students viewed these social units (PEOPLE, PERSON, MAN) in closer relationship to larger social units ("family," "community," and "society"). In other words, while the Anglo Americans showed a distinct tendency to construe these elements of the social environment as separate and independent units, the more traditional Hispanic groups viewed them more as natural constituents of the broader community or society.

These observed differences correspond with those implied by the dichotomy which characterizes Anglo Americans as individualistic and Hispanic Americans as collectivistic in social orientation. They support two main patterns of interpersonal relations. The Anglo Americans think more in terms of people who are viewed as separate individuals relevant to their own personal interest. The traditional Hispanic groups think more in terms of "persons," as part of the family or of some other large social units, with special emphasis on their social qualities ("goodness," "love," "friendship," "respect").

The traditional Hispanic American groups, in essential agreement with Colombians (1982) and other Latin Americans (1978), have shown a strong and consistent emphasis on socially relevant personal qualities and affects. The Anglo Americans and more accultured Hispanic Americans showed more interest in such attributes as "strength" and "power" as well as "leadership." Anglo Americans were more attuned to observe differences between sexes and also between races. The more traditional Hispanic groups stress general human qualities, e.g., "person" and "human being."

The third group of social units examined includes FRIENDS and FAMILY, representing people with personal and affective ties. One of the most characteristic trends on the part of the Anglo Americans involved an emphasis on "fun" and "entertainment" in the context of FRIENDS. There was also a strong emphasis on "sex." The Hispanic Americans emphasized more "love" and "understanding" as the affective foundation of friendship. The most important attributes expected of FRIENDS were "trust," "sincerity," "loyalty," and being a "good" person. For the more traditionally oriented Hispanic groups the family is a particularly important source of friendship.

A large part of the above characterization applies to the cultural meanings of FAMILY as well. While the Anglo American group was more preoccupied with "problems," "fighting," and "divorce," the Hispanic Americans emphasize the affect based foundation of the FAMILY (e.g., "love, trust, respect, friendship"). Some Hispanic groups made particularly heavy references to family members, underscoring the importance of the extended family. However, some of this may not be a function of the traditional culture but a consequence of living as an ethnic minority in a culturally different environment. Yet, it appears that in the context of all themes examined, the student groups with a more traditional Hispanic background placed primary emphasis on the emotional content of the underlying interpersonal relations. They showed a particularly strong preoccupation with human qualities of social relevance.

The findings showed that there are marked and consistent differences in cultural frames of reference between the Anglo American and the more traditional Hispanic American groups, primarily the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami. In the previous discussion we paid less attention to the more accultured Hispanic American groups for two main reasons.

First, and most importantly, the findings show that these groups assume quite consistently an intermediary position between the Anglo and the traditional Hispanic American groups. In most instances they come closer to the Anglo American than to the traditional Hispanic end of this continuum. This means that in most instances, provided we know the dominant Anglo and traditional Hispanic cultural views, the understanding of the more accultured Hispanic American samples will require, beyond a technical measurement, simply an interpolation between these two culturally distinct positions.

Second, the consistency of similarities and differences observed is of considerable importance from a conceptual/methodological angle bearing on construct validity of the assessment. It shows that in those instances where we have a rational basis to predict relative similarities of the groups, the predictions are effectively borne out by the results. Based on purely logical grounds it is natural to expect that, for instance, Puerto Ricans in New York who live in an Anglo American cultural environment, will show more similarity with the Anglo Americans than do the Puerto Ricans in San Juan who live in their own cultural milieu and have less contact with Anglo Americans.

In this context it is interesting to consider the trend observed throughout this chapter that in most instances the Mexican Americans and the Puerto Ricans in New York showed more similarity with the Anglo Americans than did the more traditional Hispanic samples. The psychocultural distance data shown here were based on the average distance coefficients calculated across the themes used in the representation of this domain.

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Table 8. Mean Distances Measured in the Domain of SOCIAL IMAGES It is interesting to note that the traditional San Juan group shows, in the context of this domain, an at least as large if not larger distance from the accultured Hispanic American groups (Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans in New York) as they show in comparison with the Anglo American group.

Acculturation is a powerful process. Highly accultured Hispanic Americans are likely to differ little from Anglo Americans. Yet even in this context, a familiarity with traditional Hispanic American cultural patterns is helpful in explaining existing differences and placing them into clearer perspective.

From the angle of institutional adaptation, service satisfaction and job performance, the practical importance of psychocultural dispositions depends on the intensity of differences observed, which varies broadly depending on the level of acculturation. In the case of the more traditional Hispanic American populations, the social personalistic frame of reference emerges as an important human disposition likely to influence institutional adaptation and service satisfaction in several important ways as discussed in our concluding chapter.

SOCIAL VALUES: FRIENDSHIP, UNDERSTANDING

The importance of interpersonal relations to Hispanic Americans has rather heavy implications for military settings, service orientation and job satisfaction. The observed Hispanic emphasis on social qualities and warm personal ties: is in essential agreement with the literature. Since Margaret Mead's (1953) conclusions that Hispanic Americans value interdependence and modesty rather than pushing themselves forward, similar observations have been made again and again.

In contrast to an assertive, competitive posture dominated by self interest, Gillin (1965) characterizes Hispanic social relations as inspired by such values as respect for inner worth and dignity of others. In general, Hispanic Americans are broadly recognized as being gregarious people enjoying a life rich in warm interpersonal ties (Gil, 1976; Rogler, 1940; Wolf, 1966); they have little interest in the idea of privacy, while mutual aid and cooperation have broad popular appeal (Kagan and Madsen, 1971; Kagan, 1977; Buitrago, 1970).

The literature has naturally focused on what we may call the traditional Hispanic culture. Yet as Grebler (1970), Turner (1980) and others observe, due to acculturation and urbanization, certain Hispanic groups, like Mexican Americans, no longer fit traditional value patterns. The data presented in the first part of this report show a high level of acculturation: from the five Hispanic samples tested, only the San Juan student group was found to be essentially traditional. Does this mean that most of the literature and most of the findings on the traditional Hispanic culture have little or no application to the Hispanic majority who have become more or less accultured to the U.S. environment?

In the context of FRIENDS we found that the Hispanic Americans emphasized affective ties ("love") and certain social qualities ("respect," "trust"). How general are these trends? Do they apply only to FRIENDSHIP or do they apply generally to other social values as well?

In the context of ethnic and social images, we have observed two differential patterns of interpersonal relations: one we have identified as individualistic, centered on personal needs and autonomy, and the other we characterized as social personalistic, centered on affective ties and social qualities. The following examination of social values will be used to explore some of these patterns and questions.

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FRIENDSHIP/AMISTAD

As we found in the context of FRIENDS, the affective-emotional aspect of the relationship received especially heavy attention from most Hispanic groups. For all groups "love" was the most central affect, but the Hispanic Americans placed greater weight on it as well as on "caring," "understanding," and "respect." Puerto Ricans from San Juan especially valued "sincerity" and together with other Hispanic Americans they scored very high on "trust" as an important element of FRIENDSHIP.

Viewing FRIENDSHIP in terms of positive affects and high ideals is observable in the category of "Sharing, Relationship," which had higher scores for the Hispanic Americans, particularly for Puerto Ricans in San Juan. These findings support previous observations on the importance of such values as "trust," "sincerity," and "loyalty" to Hispanic Americans (Szalay et al., 1978; 1982). They show that for the Hispanic groups FRIENDSHIP not only has a stronger affective foundation but it also implies more commitment and long lasting relationships. It is interesting that the importance of affective involvement does not seem to decrease due to acculturation. The Mexican American groups and the Puerto Ricans in New York actually placed more emphasis on this dimension than the Puerto Ricans in San Juan or the Cubans. The San Juan group, with its more traditional value orientation, gave high salience to "companionship" and "sincerity."

The two related dimensions of FRIENDSHIP on which the Anglo Americans placed more emphasis than the Hispanic Americans, ("Happiness, Fun," and "Girls, Boys, People") convey a "fun/entertainment" orientation. In the Anglo American view, FRIENDSHIP serves a more narrow role of "entertainment" as reflected by their emphasis on "fun," "parties," "good times." In contrast, the more traditional Hispanic view is similar to that of Jordanian. Korean, and other overseas culture groups. For these groups, FRIENDSHIP was found to serve as a major cohesive force which provides the foundation for all types of business activities and common ventures, not just entertainment. The Hispanic Americans' heavier references to "unity, "sincerity," "trust," and "sharing" convey that they are predisposed to view FRIENDSHIP as a deeper, existentially more consequential relationship and as an important source of "help" and "support." Yet the Anglo Americans also stressed, as they did previously, that FRIENDSHIP is important and needed. The sources of this intensively felt need are predominantly psychological rather than material. As discussed in the context of the self image, the materially and economically self-reliant Americans, parallel to their autonomy and individualism, do feel a psychological need to maintain meaningful interpersonal ties.

<u>In general</u>, practically all Hispanic American groups showed a strong affective undertone in their subjective meaning of FRIENDSHIP, which appears to have been little affected by acculturation. In addition, the more traditional San Juan group stressed the importance of "sincerity" and "commitment." This is in partial contrast with the Anglo American view which reflects a more "entertainment" orientation. UNDERSTANDING/COMPRENSION

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UNDERSTANDING/COMPRENSION

To the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Mexican Americans UNDERSTANDING had a stronger relationship to "caring;" to the Puerto Ricans and Cubans UNDERSTANDING is more a matter of "love." This difference underscores the strongly affect-based foundation of UNDERSTANDING in the case of the more traditionally oriented Hispanic Americans.

The little attention given to "knowledge" and "intelligence" by the Puerto Ricans in San Juan supports this observation from the opposite direction. Namely, to this group UNDERSTANDING is not a question of intellectual grasping, as in the case of math or science. The picture is complicated by the other Puerto Rican group in New York and the Cubans, who did make rather heavy references to "knowledge." That they do not use "knowledge" in a purely intellectual or scientific sense becomes increasingly apparent by considering which people are viewed as representative of UNDERSTANDING. By the Hispanic groups "family" and "parents" were cited most, and "mother" was mentioned more often than "father," just as in the context of LOVE. On this dimension again Puerto Ricans in San Juan and Cubans in Miami scored higher than the rest of the groups. "Friends" and "companions" were again mentioned most by the the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, with all Hispanic groups scoring higher here than the Anglo Americans.

Consistent with this tendency is the San Juan Puerto Ricans' view of UNDERSTANDING as a source of "help" and "advice" as provided by parents and friends. This primarily affect-based view of UNDERSTANDING is reflected by the San Juan group's intensive use of the word "entender."

The Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic groups placed more emphasis on the intellectual dimension of UNDERSTANDING as in the context of "school" and "learning." The Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic American groups represent here a clear contrast to the San Juan group who does not mention school, and whose small reference to "teacher" may reflect a concern with the interpersonal rather than the intellectual context. The Cuban group again tended to combine both of these orientations.

In general, to the Hispanic groups, and particularly to the San Juan based Puerto Ricans, UNDERSTANDING is interpreted predominantly as a human attitude involving love and friendship based interpersonal relationships with others, as characteristic of family and friendship ties. The more accultured Hispanic Americans showed a somewhat stronger tendency to pay attention to intellectual UNDERSTANDING, as shown by their emphasis on school and learning.

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LOVE/AMOR

The dominance scores indicate that LOVE has high subjective dominance for all six groups. The emphasis on the affective component was the highest by the less accultured and lowest by the more accultured Puerto Rican group. Ine Anglo Americans focused on "caring" and "togetherness," while to the Puerto Ricans in San Juan "love," "feeling," "friendship," and "understanding" represented more salient concerns.

Although LOVE was most closely related to "family " and "parents" by all groups, this trend was substantially stronger for Hispanic groups. This is naturally in line with the characteristic family orientation of Hispanic Americans as extensively discussed in the literature. With regard to the distribution of attention in the context of LOVE, "mother" received consistently more attention than "father," although the difference in most instances was small.

Compared to the heavier Hispanic focus on family, the Anglo Americans' primary focus was on "friends," especially "girlfriends;" this trend is shared to a lesser degree by the Hispanic American groups. "Sex" and "desire" were most closely associated with LOVE by the Anglo Americans, while this connection was weakest from the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, indicating that to the less accultured Hispanic group LOVE has a less explicit secual connotation.

In the case of the less accultured groups, particularly the one in San Juan, some of the sexual connotation may be absorbed in the marriage and family context. While the students from San Juan and the Cubans thought less of "girls" or "girlfriend," they did make more references to "fiance" and "bride," reflecting a more traditional orientation toward marriage. These two groups also showed a stronger tendency to speak of LOVE in very positive terms (e.g., "happiness," "joy," "good," "needed"). The tenor of their responses conveys again more emotional identification than sexual implications.

<u>In general</u>, two alternative orientations may be distinguished. One focuses on LOVE as an affect-laden, emotional relationship. This is the dominant view of the more traditional, less accultured Hispanic samples, particularly the students in San Juan. A second meaning of LOVE involves sex, desire, and sexual attraction. This was more salient with the Anglo Americans and with the more accultured Hispanic samples. Thus, the traditional Hispanic groups think of LOVE mainly in the context of "family" and "marriage," while people, particularly the opposite sex, "girls," were more dominant in the minds of the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic groups.

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TRUST/CONFIANZA

In interpersonal relations, TRUST implies a belief in or reliance on someone. It appears that this relationship may be particularly important to the groups most intensively involved in the acculturation process, the Puerto Ricans in New York and the Cubans in Miami. To the groups in intensive acculturation, the "family" represents an important source of reliance or TRUST. "Mother," "father," "parents," "brothers," and "sisters" received high attention in this respect.

The attention given to "friends" was the highest across the board and with less variation than in the case of family members. In comparison, TRUST expressed in relation to people such as "neighbors" and "teachers" was naturally more limited.

"Love," "affection," and "respect," the emotional foundation of TRUST, appear to be of greater importance again to the little accultured Puerto Rican sample in San Juan, while they received the least attention from the Anglo American group.

At the same time, the Anglo Americans, and particularly the El Paso based Mexican American group, focused on certain personal qualities important to TRUST. These groups considered "honesty," "reliability," "responsibility," "dependability," and "honor" to be relevant qualities. These same groups also stressed the importance of "confidence," "faith," and "belief" in a relationship of TRUST. The Puerto Ricans in San Juan, beyond recognizing that TRUST is "good" and "helpful," placed special emphasis on "security." Just how "security" ties in with TRUST for this particular group is an open question. Yet, as our previous studies of Latin American immigrants (1978) and Colombians (1982) show, the close tie between TRUST and "security" is rather common for the less accultured Hispanic American view. As the San Juan Puerto Ricans' and the Cubans' references to "government," "state," "development," and "liberty" in the "Miscellaneous" category show, TRUST is an attitude which the less accultured Hispanic Americans apply to social/political matters as well. To Anglo and Mexican Americans TRUST has a distinct financial connotation.

<u>In general</u>, TRUST is viewed as a quality of interpersonal rapport recognized by all groups as intrinsic to "friendship." At the same time, to the acculturing Hispanic samples "family" appears to be the main source of TRUST. While the less accultured Hispanics see its roots primarily in affective ties, the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic groups paid more attention to certain human qualities like "honesty" and "loyalty" as its main correlates.

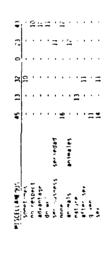
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RESPECT/RESPET0

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RESPECT/RESPETO

As a value or attitude, RESPECT appears to be more dominant, more popular with the Hispanic groups, particularly with the Puerto Ricans. For these groups it has a strong affective-emotional content involving "love," "affection," "trust," and "understanding." Again, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan placed the most weight on these affect-laden relationships.

Just as in the case of TRUST, "family" is the major source, particularly for the groups more intensively involved in the acculturation process, e.g., the Puerto Ricans in New York and the Cubans in Miami. The most important sources of respect are "parents," "mother," "father," and "family" in general. While in the context of LOVE "mother" was in first place, in the context of RESPECT the Anglo Americans and the San Juan Puerto Ricans mention "father" first. This suggests that under certain conditions, like in acculturation, some of the traditional values may become accentuated and receive additional attention beyond the original level characteristic in traditional settings. What happens here may be explained as an increased appreciation of certain stable traditional values, once they have been challenged by the uncertainties of a new, dynamically changing social environment.

Also somewhat unsuspectedly, we find that RESPECT elicits more references to "age" and "elders" from the more accultured Hispanic Americans than it does from the less accultured Hispanics.

With regard to "authority" in general, the differences were relatively small, but the less accultured Puerto Ricans placed greater emphasis on authority figures ("boss," "God") and on the importance of "obedience" and "acceptance;" they also showed a stronger tendency to stress "law" and "order" as well.

"Friends" were viewed by all Hispanic American groups as targets of RESPECT much more than by Anglo Americans. "Girls" and "girlfriends" were mentioned more frequently by the more accultured groups. While the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic groups thought more of "people," the less accultured Puerto Ricans in San Juan thought more specifically of "person." The nature of this differential cultural focus on "people" or "person" is discussed under the particular themes. As we will see, the differences are not accidental but indicative of different cultural orientations.

<u>In general</u>, RESPECT is directed at parents, the mother and father, by both the Anglo and the Hispanic Americans. While in the case of the Hispanic Americans "love," "friendship," and "understanding" play a stronger role, the Anglo Americans emphasize certain human qualities, such as "dignity" and "honor."

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DIGNITY/DIGNIDAD

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DIGNITY/DIGNIDAD

As the low dominance scores indicate, DIGNITY is not a particularly important or meaningful idea to our samples. It is slightly more dominant to the less accultured groups than to the more accultured ones.

"Pride" is the single most overriding idea for the Anglo and Mexican Americans. "Respect" is at least as important if not more so for the Puerto Ricans and the Cubans. This difference suggests that the Anglo Americans tend to view these values as internally determined by what is frequently described as inner directedness or autonomy, while in the traditional Hispanic cultural orientation, the affective foundation of human rapport attracts more attention.

The stronger affect-ladenness is manifest in the references to "love" and "understanding," where the Puerto Ricans and the other Hispanic groups score higher than the Anglos. With regard to the foundation of DIGNITY, "honesty," "responsibility," "trust" and other social values are emphasized somewhat unevenly by the Hispanic groups.

It is interesting that the Cuban group emphasized "work" and "money" as important sources of DIGNITY. They express the idea that DIGNITY is "good" and "important." "Family," "mother," and "father" are more important to the Puerto Rican groups. The Puerto Rican group in New York relates DIGNITY more to "church" and "priests" and to "schools" and "teachers."

The above mosaic elements offer a rather varied picture, making the reconstruction of broader trends rather difficult. Probably the single most important distinction emerges from the tendency by the Anglo and more accultured Hispanic groups to view DIGNITY as a matter of "pride," as a matter of internally motivated attitudes. The less accultured Hispanic Americans, particularly the Puerto Ricans, tend to view DIGNITY as a socially important quality commanding respect and social recognition. These are essentially the characteristics of the Hispanic concept of the "person" as opposed to the Anglo American concept of "individual" or "people." This emphasis on the "person" can be seen clearly in the San Juan group's reactions in the cluster labelled "People, Friends, Self."

<u>In general</u>, DIGNITY shows here a relatively low level of importance. It received an individualistic, personal pride based interpretation from the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic Americans. It has a more social recognition, respect based meaning to the less accultured Hispanic samples, particularly the Puerto Ricans in San Juan.

Summary

In this domain our primary interest was in social values and affective ties which serve as the main forces of interpersonal relations and cohesion. The attention given to differences in the Hispanic and the Anglo American approaches follows from the general importance of interpersonal relations in personnel management.

Interpersonal relations are well recognized as a critical factor influencing organizational climate and personnel satisfaction. Furthermore, the literature in general and our empirical data in particular strongly indicate that the human dimension of the job is of exceptional importance to Hispanic Americans. At the same time there are several factors, such as the heterogeneity or diversity of Hispanic groups and their varying degrees of acculturation, which compel us to pay particularly close attention to this dimension.

In agreement with literature on the Hispanic interest in warm interpersonal relations, our findings showed indeed that the Hispanic Americans place consistently more emphasis on "love" and "friendship" in the context of all the six themes examined in the framework of this domain. The themes LOVE and FRIENDSHIP had higher dominance for Hispanic Americans. The other four themes---TRUST, RESPECT, UNDERSTANDING, and DIGNITY---also elicited consistently more references to "love" and "friendship" for the Hispanics than for the Anglo Americans. The main difference here is that Anglo Americans placed more emphasis on certain human qualities like "honesty" and "faith" which they "trust" or "respect." In the case of the Hispanic Americans what seems to matter primarily are the strong positive affects ("love," "friendship") which make people trustworthy, worthy of respect, and capable of friendship and understanding.

Differences emerged in most instances from the comparison of the Anglo American group with the least accultured Hispanic American group, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan. There were a few interesting exceptions, particularly in this domain. LOVE, FRIENDSHIP, TRUST, and RESPECT have for Hispanic Americans a particularly strong foundation in family ties, with father and mother, with parents, and with siblings. These connections are strong for the Anglo American students as well, but in comparison with Hispanic Americans they are not as dominant for a variety of reasons. For one thing, LOVE has a stronger sexual connotation for the Anglo Americans, and FRIENDSHIP is based more on common leisure time interests rather than on emotional ties.

As the following table of the psychocultural distance coefficient illustrates, we find that, consistent with previous such tables, the Anglo Americans and the Puerto Ricans in San Juan were the furthest apart, followed by the Cubans, the Puerto Ricans in New York, and the Mexican Americans in Tempe and El Paso. The last three groups we have come to label as more accultured Hispanic samples, occupying an intermediary position between the Anglo Americans and the two more traditional Hispanic groups.

| Coefficients of Psychocultural | Anglo Amer. | Mexican Americans | s Puerto Ricans | Cubar |
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| Distance Between Regional Samples | | El Paso /Tempe | New San York Juan | Miami |
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Table 9. Mean Distances Measured in the Domain of SOCIAL VALUES

While the distance data obtained across the six themes in this domain convey the well established picture of the more accultured Hispanic American groups occupying an intermediary position rather close to the Anglo Americans and differing quite substantially from the little accultured San Juan group, this pattern does not apply to each single theme individually. As we have seen in the context of the themes TRUST and RESPECT, the more accultured groups (e.g., the Mexican Americans and the New York Puerto Ricans) do not always take an intermediary position between the Anglos and the more traditional Hispanics. For instance, the Anglo Americans made few references to "family" or "parents" with respect to TRUST. The more traditional Puerto Rican group in San Juan makes substantially more, suggesting that parents are for them a more important source of TRUST. One would assume that the Puerto Ricans in New York as a part of acculturation would be more similar to the Anglo Americans and mention parents and family less. Yet, just the opposite happened. "Parents" and "family" were an even more important source of TRUST to the Puerto Ricans in New York and to the Mexican Americans than to the more traditional Hispanics in San Juan.

A likely explanation may come from the fact that these Hispanic student groups live in a predominantly U.S. American environment. In a culturally different environment which appears frequently as unfriendly and unpredictable, the role of family as a source of trust and respect apparently gains additional importance. In this and other comparable cases the new environment fails to produce changes which would result in the reduction of the original cultural distances, as would be expected to happen on the basis of acculturation. What happens is an increase in distance, in this example, an increase in the importance of family and interpersonal ties, which is probably a protective reaction stimulated by the alien environment. Inverse changes which increase rather than reduce the cultural distance are apparently not uncommon.

Adaptive changes which work in reverse direction and increase distance amidst the broad process of acculturation appear at first to be paradoxical. Yet, research has shown that in the acculturation process changes are slow and frequently nonlinear in their progression (Szalay, et al., 1982). The findings consistently support previous observations (Szalay et al., 1978) that there are indeed some important differences in the dominant patterns of interpersonal relations characteristic of Anglo Americans and Hispanic Americans. In the present context of social values some of the differences in the affective foundation of interpersonal relations become increasingly apparent.

As the above findings show, the Hispanic Americans' view of FRIENDSHIP has indeed a strong affective foundation; it is also more family based, more neighborhood based, and entails more expectations and obligations. In comparison, the Anglo American idea of FRIENDSHIP is less family based, more open, depends more on individual choice, on situational conditions, and on personal psychological needs and interests. The differences fit well with previous observations which suggest that while the Anglo Americans view friendship with a strong entertainment focus, Hispanic Americans (1982), Arabs (1978), Koreans (1972), and other Third World populations view friendship as playing a broader and more existential role. In the developing countries, economic and business ties as well as political and administrative organizations rely more intensively on friendship and family based connections. As we have seen above, these are also more intimately interrelated for the Hispanic groups.

Although the Hispanic samples have shown considerable differences among each other, the above trends emerged rather consistently in connection with practically all Hispanic groups studied.

Our recent indepth study of a Hispanic group from Colombia helps place the domestic Hispanic findings into broader perspective. The Colombian findings supported the broad observation that in the Hispanic perspective, friendship is much less a relationship that is constantly being developed and dispensed with according to the timely needs of the individual and to new situations or changing requirements. In the Colombian context friendship was found to include relationships with members of the family as well as with members of the opposite sex in social situations where ties develop slowly, usually through family contacts, and are not readily dissolved or replaced. The trends observed in the context of friendship and related social values conveyed a consistent picture of the differences characteristic of the U.S. American and Colombian approaches to interpersonal relations. They confirmed previous observations that it is the individual's needs and motives which are particularly critical in U.S. American social relations. In the Colombian context there was more emphasis on affects, on the maintenance of social relations, and on the fulfillment of obligations and commitments (Szalay et al., 1982).

From the angle of personnel management the results show two dominant patterns of interpersonal relations. The Anglo Americans focused on self ("I," "me"), on certain personal characteristics of the individual ("power," "strength"), individual needs ("sex," "entertainment"), and individual identity ("sexual," "racial"). The Hispanic Americans showed primary preoccupation with the social and moral qualities of the person ("good," "bad," "trust," "respect"), affective ties ("love," "friendship"), and the relationship of the person to other social units ("family," "community"). While the above characterizations fit the predominantly traditional Hispanic American orientations, the majority of the Hispanic Americans tested (e.g., Mexican students from both locations, Puerto Rican students from New York) were found to be generally highly accultured to the Anglo American environment. Yet, in the domain of interpersonal relations even the highly accultured Hispanic American groups have shown strong emphasis on positive affective ties. That is, despite their therwise close similarity with the Anglo Americans in this particular domain, the highly accultured Hispanics still show a strong concern with affective ties: love, friendship, and family relations in certain ways similar to the more traditional Hispanic Americans.

To personnel management this means that both accultured and traditional Hispanic Americans are intensively concerned with and sensitive to the human dimension, to the climate of interpersonal relations, but in rather different ways. The more accultured Hispanic Americans may be satisfied by receiving more personal recognition. While they seem to strive for more attention than the Anglo Americans, the nature and focus of the attention does not have to be different from those called for by the Anglo Americans.

In the case of the more traditional Hispanic Americans, it is desirable not only to increase the level of attention but to adjust it to more traditional value considerations as well. Along these dimensions, recognition of moral, social qualities such as trust and loyalty, dedication to common goals, and identification with community, society, and mankind, are likely to deserve special emphasis.

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ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION: SUCCESS, DUTY...

In our previous studies conducted with older and more traditional population samples, several important trends in achievement motivation emerged, some in agreement, some in apparent contradiction with literature pertaining to this subject. A comparison of Anglo American and Hispanic American adults of predominantly Latin American background (Szalay et al., 1978), indicated that Hispanic Americans highly valued achievement because it brings them joy and happiness. To the Anglo Americans, achievement had a more intrinsic value: it was considered good in itself as a source of pride, honor, self-esteem, and satisfaction. A comparison of Anglo Americans with Colombians (Szalay et al., 1982) showed that achievement also had an instrumental value for the Colombians, serving particular objectives such as meeting personal or family needs.

These findings indicate that the assumption that Hispanic Americans are not interested in achievement is exaggerated; their interest is there but their approach toward achievement is different. These differences are particularly relevant to personnel management.

In light of the previous findings, we have addressed here the following questions (a) Were the differences found between the more and less accultured Hispanic American samples evident in the domain of ACHIEVEMENT, SUCCESS as well? (b) Did the more accultured Mexican American groups look at ACHIEVEMENT, SUCCESS more as Anglos do, stressing the intrinsic value of work and work satisfaction, or did they conform with the traditional Hispanic view of achievement as a means of meeting basic needs and reaching long-range objectives (e.g., career, money)? (c) Compared to the previous samples, did the relatively younger age of the present student sample make any noticeable differences?

In the analysis we have included the themes SUCCESS, ACHIEVEMENT, DUTY, AMBITION, CAPABILITY, and PRIDE to gain some additional insights into psychocultural dispositions relevant to achievement motivation.

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ACHIEVEMENT/LOGRO

School performance was the most salient field of ACHIEVEMENT for the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans in New York. While the Hispanic Americans thought of "school" achievement in general, to the Anglo American students "tests" and "SATs" were apparently more characteristic elements of ACHIEVEMENT.

The Puerto Rican students in San Juan thought of ACHIEVEMENT primarily in terms of "goals." This suggests that ACHIEVEMENT is important primarily as an instrument for reaching various goals and objectives. Since this group also scored high on "goals" in the context of WORK, this seems to support the idea that the Puerto Ricans in San Juan approach work and achievement from the angle of their high instrumentality.

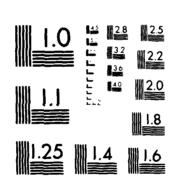
The Cubans in Miami emphasized "work" and "career." Like the Anglo Americans, they stressed the importance of financial rewards, particularly "money." At the same time the Cubans differed the most from the Anglo Americans in their tendency to relate ACHIEVEMENT to "family," "love," and "marriage." Both on "love" and "family" the Cubans scored higher than all the other groups, suggesting that their achievement orientation has familistic roots.

Working with student samples, it may not be surprising that achievement orientation emerged mainly in the context of school. Yet, there are other observations not readily predictable: for example, the low subjective dominance of ACHIEVEMENT for the Anglo Americans and its particularly high dominance for the Puerto Ricans in San Juan. The San Juan based Puerto Ricans' strong instrumental and goal oriented interpretation of ACHIEVEMENT is compatible with their goal and future oriented view of WORK. However, the differences between the Anglo Americans and the San Juan based Puerto Ricans are still quite unexpected, particularly in light of the McClelland and Atkinson studies (1961, 1966).

The present findings suggest that it is desirable to differentiate between the varying views of ACHIEVEMENT orientation. While the Anglos and more accultured Hispanics have a concrete and immediate performance approach to ACHIEVEMENT, a more general goal and future oriented approach is characteristic of the traditional Hispanic groups, who think in terms of aspirations ("happiness," "satisfaction").

In general, the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic American groups view ACHIEVEMENT in the immediate context of school performance, while the Puerto Ricans in San Juan think of ACHIEVEMENT more along long-term objectives (e.g., "work," "job," and "career"). The Cubans seem to combine the practical Anglo emphasis on material benefits ("money," "cars") with an emphasis on social implications ("love," "family").

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SUCCESS/EXITO

The characteristic differences in the meaning of SUCCESS emerged mainly between the Puerto Rican group in San Juan and the five remaining samples.

"Money" was most salient for practically all the groups tested, especially the Anglos. "Fame" and "power" received much less attention, leaving money as the main indicator or measure of SUCCESS. The lower score on "money" by the San Juan based Puerto Rican group is accompanied by high scores on "gain, benefit" in the sense of material achievement and earnings, concepts closely synonymous with money.

For all five groups, particularly the Puerto Rican group in New York, "job" and "career" played an important role in their views of SUCCESS. The exception was again the Puerto Rican group in San Juan, to whom SUCCESS has relatively little relationship to career or job. The San Juan students thought more of the "work" and "effort" which has to be invested or applied to achieve SUCCESS. The other groups focused more on "achievement" and "accomplishment."

Compared to these rather sizable differences, the remaining components show more general agreement. "Family," "love," and "marriage" bore more closely on SUCCESS for the Hispanic American groups than for the Anglo Americans. The same is true about education. Here again, the Hispanic American groups, particularly the Puerto Ricans in New York, see apparently a closer, more intrinsic relationship between SUCCESS and "school," "education," and "study." Although there were some noticeable differences between the groups on what constitutes SUCCESS, from the angle of their subjective views and perspectives there seems to be a consensus among them that SUCCESS is "good," that it is a matter of "pride," and most of all, a source of "happiness."

<u>In general</u>, the Cubans agreed with the Anglo and Mexican American groups in stressing "money," "power," and "fame" as well as "career" and "job" as the main indicators and sources of SUCCESS. The Puerto Ricans in San Juan appeared to be more preoccupied with the human effort required to "triumph," looking at SUCCESS as a long-range future goal. In general, the Anglo American and the Mexican American groups showed close agreement across the board.

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PRIDE/ORGULLO

While PRIDE had little dominance for the Anglo Americans, it was more important to Hispanic Americans. "Dignity," "honor," "respect," "glory," and "power" generally received recognition from all six student groups but to varying degrees. It is interesting to see what the various student groups are particularly proud of. "Country," "U.S.," " nation," and "patriotism" were mentioned by several groups, particularly the Anglo Americans. The Puerto Ricans in San Juan, however, did not make these identifications at all. The "military," in general, received little attention; however, all five groups from the continental U.S. mentioned the "Marines."

While "family" and "love" were minor sources of pride to Anglo Americans and to Puerto Ricans in San Juan, they were more dominant to all other Hispanic American groups. "Work," "school", and "sports" also varied in importance, but were clearly identified as sources of PRIDE. "School" ranked first, led by the Mexican American group in El Paso. The Cubans rank the highest in mentioning their "work." Only the Anglo and Mexican Americans referred to sports, while the Puerto Ricans in San Juan mentioned mostly studying.

As an interesting contrast, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan led the list in their material references such as "money" and "riches." As sources of PRIDE, "achievement" and "success" ranked higher for the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Mexican Americans, who made very few references to money.

The Anglo and Hispanic American groups placed differential emphasis on "people" and "friends." The little accultured San Juan group's emphasis on "person," i.e., personhood, is used in the more traditional Hispanic sense (Szalay et al., 1982). The "Culture, Background" cluster reflects varying degrees of ethnic-racial awareness or identification. In this respect the differences between the two Mexican American groups, in their Chicano/Mexican self-identification are interesting. Along the same line the New York based Puerto Ricans showed more explicit ethnic identification than the San Juan group.

In general, there is broad variation in the evaluation of PRIDE. The Anglo and particularly the San Juan based Puerto Rican samples were ambivalent, considering it both good and bad. To the other four groups pride is predominantly good. Since these groups live in minority settings, it is possible that their positive evaluation of PRIDE comes from the deeper need for psychological identification.

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CAPABILITY/CAPACIDAD

This theme was not very meaningful to the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic groups, while it was a more important idea to the less accultured Hispanic groups.

To Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans CAPABILITY denoted essentially "ability," "capacity," or "potential," while to the less accultured Hispanic Americans it denoted "ability" more narrowly in a "mental" and "intellectual" context. Particularly the San Juan group viewed CAPABILITY as a source of "knowledge," "understanding," "thinking," "analysis," and other mental/intellectual processes and achievements. In comparison, the Puerto Ricans in New York and the Cubans tended to mix these intellectual dimensions with physical strength and biological potency. In view of this emphasis it is not surprising that the Puerto Ricans, and particularly the Cubans, saw a closer relationship between CAPABILITY and "studying" and "learning," that is, educational success or performance. This may also explain the Cuban students' desire to have "a lot" or "much," and why they share with others such positive evaluations as "good" and "great."

Since CAPABILITY is assumed to have broad implications for all types of achievements, the Anglo and more accultured Hispanic American groups saw a close relationship between CAPABILITY and human performance: "work," "job," and "skill." In a similar vein, CAPABILITY was related to a variety of activities: "driving," "dancing," "baseball," and "sex." While Anglo Americans viewed CAPABILITY more in relation to individual achievement and success, the San Juan Puerto Ricans mentioned the broad societal/national problem of "development."

In general, CAPABILITY had a predominantly, if not exclusively, intellectual content for the unaccultured Puerto Ricans. It had a more mixed meaning for the Puerto Ricans in New York and the Cubans, encompassing intellectual as well as physical ability and biological potential. To the Anglo and Mexican Americans CAPABILITY referred predominantly to physical abilities, sexual potency, in short, to all those dispositions which are needed to achieve, to perform, to work and solve problems.

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DUTY/OBILIGACION

The dominance of this idea was the highest for the Cubans. To the Cubans and Puerto Ricans in San Juan DUTY implied most intensively "work," while it was more job related in the minds of the Anglo and Mexican Americans. Particularly to the Anglo Americans, but also to the more accultured Hispanic Americans, DUTY had a strong military connotation, e.g., "Army," "service," "military," "police," "Navy," etc. In strong contrast, the Puerto Rican group in San Juan attached very little military connotation to DUTY. The other groups occupied various positions on this dimension, depending apparently on their degree of acculturation.

Responses in the "Family, Home" cluster, show opposing trends. The Anglo American students scored low, indicating that for them DUTY has little to do with family-based interpersonal relations; however, DUTY bears more closely on "family" in the eyes of the Puerto Ricans and Cubans. The Mexican Americans again occupy an intermediary position here as well as on "School, Study." On this dimension the Anglo American group scored the lowest while the Cubans and the Puerto Ricans scored the highest.

These consistent contrasts underscore the importance of the acculturation process. In the context of the culturally characteristic meaning of DUTY, results show that all groups agree that DUTY involves, at its core, "obligation" and "responsibility," but they are apparently predisposed to apply these ties quite differently. In the field of interpersonal relationships, e.g., friendship, love, loyalty, DUTY has a rather similar core meaning for practically all groups. While most groups agreed that DUTY applies to "work" or "job," the Anglo Americans placed a great deal of emphasis on obligations related to military service. They also expressed concern with obligations resulting from friendship or other personal commitments.

From the angle of the less accultured Hispanic groups, family obligations play an important role, emerging here with considerable intensity despite the young age of our student samples. The emphasis on "studying" is also rather interesting. Compared to the American educational philosophy that learning follows from the natural curiosity of the inquisitive mind, studying emerges here from the less accultured Hispanic samples more as a task, an obligation, a duty.

In general, DUTY involved obligation and responsibility for all groups, but with more approval and salience for the less accultured Hispanic samples. To Anglo Americans DUTY had a more narrow, a more characteristically military connotation. To all other groups it bore more generally on work or job. To the less accultured groups, DUTY had a stronger family and school related relevance.

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AMBITION/AMBICION

AMBITION had the highest dominance for the Cubans and the Puert Ficans in San Juan. We refer to these groups frequently as the more traditional Hispanic American samples, but in the present case the reasons for their above average attention may be somewhat different. One important difference is that the Cubans related "love" intensively to AMBITION, while few of the other Hispanic Americans showed this tendency.

On the other hand, "job" and "career" were strongly related to AMBITION for the Cubans and all other Hispanic Americans, except the San Juan students. A less articulate, but essentially similar pattern is observable in references to "school" and "education," where again the San Juan group scored below the average, conveying that they saw little connection between education and ambition.

A partial answer to this puzzle of what Puerto Ricans from San Juan or Cubans from Miami really mean by AMBITION comes from the cluster of salient reactions "desire," "want," "to have," which describe aspirations intensively, but in a vague, unspecific manner. While the undertone of these reactions is generally positive, encompassing such explicitly positive reactions as "good," and "necessity," another cluster of reactions, which came nearly exclusively from the San Juan students, had negative undertones ("bad," "evil," "envy," "greed," "egoismo"). These reactions convey doubt and ambivalence, suggesting that the more traditional Hispanic groups view AMBITION somewhat negatively. The source of this reservation and criticism is apparently the concern that AMBITION can be selfish and harmful.

The Anglo American students and the more accultured Hispanic Americans did not share these concerns. One explanation may come from the fact that the results indicate that the San Juan group viewed AMBITION as materialistic, focused particularly on "money," "riches," and "fortune," with no consideration given to human qualities or interpersonal relations, which are included, for instance, in the Cubans' view.

<u>In general</u>, AMBITION denoted a vague but predominantly materialistic aspiration for the San Juan students, and as such, it was viewed with skepticism and ambivalence. To the Cubans it involved broader aspirations including human rapport. For the more accultured groups, AMBITION was perceived as a desire for improvement pursued mainly through employment, work, and education.

Summary

To answer the question of how the level of acculturation of the various regional Hispanic samples may affect their views of ACHIEVEMENT and the five other themes used in the representation of this domain, we can rely at first on the psychocultural distance measure. The coefficients on the six themes show that there is considerable similarity between the Anglo and Mexican American groups. To a somewhat lesser extent but with considerable consistency, the Puerto Rican group in New York fits with the "more accultured" Hispanic samples. The Puerto Rican group in San Juan is the most distant from the Anglo Americans and represents the "least accultured" Hispanic sample. The Cuban group is somewhat less distant from the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic samples, but in general it is distant enough to appear as "less accultured," at least in this particular domain. It is interesting to observe that the Puerto Rican sample in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami are not only distant from the relatively accultured Hispanic samples but also from each other.

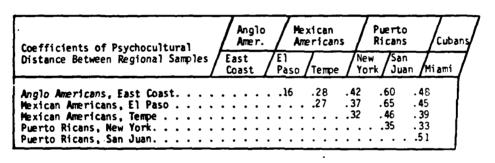


Table 10. Mean Distances Measured in the Domain of ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

The Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic Americans showed considerable similarity in their views of ACHIEVEMENT, SUCCESS. They both emphasized school and educational performance, naturally the most immediate area of performance from the angle of these student groups. They also emphasized jobs, an additional indication that they approach ACHIEVEMENT at a very concrete, practical level of performance. At the same time SUCCESS for these groups was closely related to happiness. "Money" and to a lesser extent "power" and "fame" were important to all groups in connection with achievement and success.

The more it is remarkable that the less accultured groups, particularly the Puerto Rican group in San Juan, assigned consistently greater subjective importance to the ACHIEVEMENT, SUCCESS domain than do the Anglo Americans or the "more accultured" Mexican American groups. This finding appears to contradict the McClelland and Atkinson studies which have shown that the achievement motive is a particularly important characteristic of the U.S. American culture. As an explanation, we may consider how the San Juan group's meaning of achievement differs from the meaning of achievement as characterized by McClelland and his associates. There were differences along several dimensions.

The San Juan group's responses to ACHIEVEMENT (that is, its closest available translation equivalent, LOGRO) indicate clearly that their idea of ACHIEVEMENT could be better characterized as a concern with long-range success in life rather than with immediate performance or those psychological benefits which are so characteristic of Anglo American work motivation, when work becomes an end in itself as an element of self-worth and selffulfillment. The San Juan Puerto Ricans emphasized "goals" in general and such particular long-term goals as "career," "profession," accompanied by the idea of future. They emphasized the personal "effort" required to reach these long-term objectives. The single most dominant idea was "triumph" which suggests that they have something highly desirable in mind which acquires special importance for its utility and instrumentality to reach desired goals. All these underscore that, compared to their Anglo and more accultured Hispanic peers, the San Juan group was more preoccupied with the future than with the present, with long-range benefits rather than immediate performance, and with external motivations rather than internal drive.

The Cubans occupy, in certain respects, an intermediary position. They showed more concern with "studying" and "school," and with such immediate benefits as "money," which probably reflect the influences of the U.S. American cultural environment. While they were similar to Anglo Americans in their interest in "money," they also emphasized "career" more and stressed "family," "home," "love," and other interpersonal considerations along the more traditional Hispanic value orientation.

The theme PRIDE offered an opportunity to examine what the various groups are proud of and in what sense. With regard to the values associated with PRIDE, "dignity," "honor," and "respect" were dominant across the board. While the Anglo Americans and Cubans showed more identification with their country ("nation," "U.S."), the Tempe, Arizona, and New York based groups showed strong ethnic identification. The San Juan group stressed the importance of "money," "wealth," and "work" in general as sources of pride. The other groups had "school" more explicitly in mind.

DUTY involved "obligation" and "responsibility" to all groups. While there was general agreement about this core meaning, there was more diversity in views about where these values apply. The Anglo Americans viewed DUTY predominantly in a military context. "Work" or "job" was the single most dominant context for all groups but particularly so for the New York based Puerto Ricans. To the less accultured groups, DUTY had a strong relevance to family, home, and school.

For the accultured Hispanic Americans, AMBITION was an entirely positive motivational concept which can be effectively pursued through work and education. To the San Juan students, it was materialistically focused and viewed with considerable criticism as related to "envy," "greed," and other selfish motives. To the Cubans AMBITION had a broader meaning with little negative undertones attached.

CAPABILITY had a nearly exclusive intellectual content for the San Juan Puerto Ricans, which to a lesser extent carries over to the meanings of the New York based Puerto Ricans and the Cubans based in Miami. To the Anglo and Mexican Americans it denoted more physical abilities, skills, biological and sexual potency. Accordingly, while for the first cluster of Hispanic groups it had more school and learning related relevance, to the second group it bore more broadly on all types of achievements, work, job related performance, and skills.

The second group of ACHIEVEMENT related subjects, DUTY, AMBITION, and CAPABILITY, show several common trends. They all were more dominant to the San Juan Puerto Ricans and the Cubans, that is, to the less accultured Hispanic groups characterized by more traditional value orientations. We found here in the context of DUTY, and in a different chapter in the context of DISCIPLINE and ORDER, that these themes had generally a more narrow military denotation for the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic samples; they had broader work and achievement related meanings for the less accultured, more traditional Hispanic American groups. The less accultured Hispanic groups were also more positive about these concepts. The San Juan group identified work and wealth as sources of PRIDE.

CAREER ORIENTATION: WORK, ENLISTMENT

The findings obtained on Anglo and Hispanic dispositions regarding achievement tie in closely with work motivation and career orientation. The results suggest an explanation which may reconcile some of the conflicting observations found in the literature on Hispanic American work motivation. Some writers say that Hispanics have a low work motivation (Madsen, 1972); others argue that Hispanics are just as strongly work oriented as Anglo Americans (Grebler et al., 1970; Cohen, 1979).

Our findings on the different cultural meanings of ACHIEVEMENT support the conclusion that the critical difference is not in degree of work motivation but in what actually motivates people to work. Angle Americans may be more intrinsically motivated to work because the sense of achievement enhances the feelings of success, self-confidence, and competitiveness which are reinforced by an economic system that effectively rewards performance. The more traditionally oriented Hispanic Americans tend to view ACHIEVEMENT as a necessity, pleasant or unpleasant, to reach their long-range goals and aspirations which are predominantly social.

In the present domain we examined how the differences observed in relation to ACHIEVEMENT apply to WORK, to EDUCATION (which represents the most immediate performance related involvement for our student samples), to their CAREER orientation, and to ENLISTMENT. More specifically, we examined how economic incentives such as MONEY are viewed and how they may affect career orientation.

Looking at these trends across our main categories of respondents offered an opportunity to examine the consistency and the predictability of trends (e.g., the more accultured Hispanic Americans taking an intermediary position) which can provide feedback relevant to the construct validity of our inferences.

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EDUCATION/EDUCACION

The Mexican group from El Paso ranked the highest with regard to the subjective attention given to EDUCATION. Since the samples were high cchool students to whom education represents the most immediate work context, their views on EDUCATION bear on their meaning of WORK as well.

As the present data show all groups had "schools" on their mind, although the Puerto Ricans in San Juan made relatively fewer school related references. This trend is in agreement with past findings that showed while EDUCATION means predominantly school attendance to the Anglo Americans, it means more upbringing and the transmission of values and norms of behavior to traditional Hispanic Americans (Szalay and Bryson, 1974; Szalay and Bryson, 1976; Szalay et al., 1978).

Also in agreement with previous observations, we found here that the Hispanic Americans generally focused on the process of "studying," "learning," and "work." The Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic American samples were more preoccupied with the specific subjects and fields of knowledge: "science," "math," "English," etc. As in the case of WORK and CAREER, the general utility of EDUCATION ("need," "necessary") was emphasized by several Hispanic groups, particularly the Cubans. Along this trend there was emphasis on "future" and "career." Also in agreement with our previous studies, the Puerto Ricans placed more weight on the role of the "teacher" and on the process of "teaching."

There was considerable agreement among the student samples in their subjective views of EDUCATION. This is interesting since in some of our previous studies we found more substantive differences between Anglo and various Hispanic American groups (Szalay et al., 1978; Szalay and Bryson, 1974; Szalay and Bryson, 1976). However in the previous studies we used older samples and in one instance a rural group (in San German, Puerto Rico); and in another study our Hispanic samples were recruited predominantly from Central American immigrants. In these previous studies the samples were less accultured than the present ones. This probably explains why in the present study the differences are smaller, although the trends are similar.

<u>In general</u>, the Puerto Ricans and Cubans emphasize "progress" and "development" as personal and social objectives and such traditional values as "respect," "discipline," and "responsibility." As previously found, the Puerto Ricans and Cubans assign a more important educational role to the family.

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WORK/TRABAJO

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WORK/TRABAJO

In the Anglo American cultural context, WORK to a large extent means a job. The connection between WORK and "job" was weakest among he less accultured Hispanic Americans. The Mexican Americans in El Paso saw a much closer relationship between WORK and "job," than did the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, who thought instead of "employment" or "occupation," or the Cubans who mentioned "career" and "profession."

Although the differences were frequently small, the trends support the conclusion that in the life of Hispanic Americans, WORK has a more instrumental value than for Anglo Americans. In their evaluations of WORK, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans emphasized the importance and the instrumentality of WORK ("good," "helpful," "necessity," "need," "obligation," "duty," "responsibility," "security"). The relatively more accultured Hispanic groups, together with the Anglo Americans, made fewer references to necessity or obligation; the Anglo Americans even spoke of "fun" and "play."

Anglo and Hispanic Americans both described work as hard and difficult; however, the popular Anglo expression "hard work" has a more positive connotation and stresses the motivation and stamina of the worker. Also, while Anglo Americans spoke of "achievement," "ambition," "satisfaction," the Hispanic American groups spoke more of the "future" and "success," again suggesting the instrumentality of WORK. The heavier Hispanic references to "responsibility," "obligation," and "duty" clearly convey that our Hispanic American respondents view WORK not merely as an activity performed for its own sake but as a performance that serves to meet certain social goals and criteria. The stronger social connotation of WORK may also be reflected by the many Hispanic references to people: "boss," "friends," "family" as well as a diversity of professionals: "doctor, " "policeman, " "lawyer."

In our previous research involving adult Hispanic samples in the United States as well as overseas, we have found similar differences between Angle Americans and Hispanic Americans. In most instances, however, these variations emerged with greater intensity. This difference is probably due to two main factors: (1) In the present research the majority of the samples are relatively accultured, and (2) beyond acculturation, the samples were composed of young students with limited experience with WURK, at least compared to the adult population.

In general, the students from San Juan and Miami stressed the instrumental utility of WORK, while the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Mexican Americans stressed "achievement," "ambitions" and "satisfaction," suggesting that WORK is valued more intrinsically for its own sake.

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ADVANCEMENT/AVANCE

Based on the dominance scores, ADVANCEMENT appears to be a particularly important objective of the Cuban and Anglo American groups. As the similarity coefficients indicate, there were considerable differences between groups on this theme, but these differences do not conform with the consistent patterns observed up to this point.

For all groups ADVANCEMENT had some financial implications except for the Puerto Rican San Juan group, which paid little attention to this dimension. In the context of ADVANCEMENT, the Mexican Americans in El Paso and both Puerto Rican groups focused on "education" and "school." The idea of "studying" in general was dominant in the minds of the Cubans.

The Anglo Americans heavily stressed "job" ADVANCEMENT, while the notion of "work" was particularly dominant in the minds of Cubans and New York Puerto Ricans. While ADVANCEMENT had practically nothing to do with technology in the minds of the Anglo Americans and was seen solely as a personal career based notion, it had some articulate technological and scientific connotations to the Hispanic American groups, particularly to the Puerto Ricans in San Juan.

The Anglo Americans viewed ADVANCEMENT as closely related to "achievement," "accomplishment," and personal "success," while to the less accultured samples it appears to be more a function of "progress" and "improvement," "gains" and "benefits." Because of a common underlying root of the English word "advance" and the Spanish word "avance," the theme suggests to all groups a forward or upward movement. Yet some of the differences may be partially explained by the fact that <u>AVANCE</u> refers more narrowly to physical movement forward rather than an upward movement in social position.

Here as well as in the context of CAREER, the little accultured Hispanic American groups showed a more goal and future oriented frame of reference. Along this rationale they emphasized "effort," "help," and "responsibility." While ADVANCEMENT related more generally to life and to individual aspirations for the Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans, it is important to register that to the Cuban and the New York based Puerto Rican groups ADVANCEMENT tied in with social and interpersonal connections involving "family," "friends," "marriage," "society," etc.

In general, while the differences were relatively small, ADVANCEMENT appears to involve more personal achievement, an immediate move up, for the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic Americans, while to the less accultured Hispanic groups it appears to be future oriented progress or personal gain involving even family and friends. **CAREER/CARRERA**

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CAREER/CARRERA

CAREER clearly had a stronger military connotation for the Anglo Americans and the Mexican Americans than for the rest of the groups. It is interesting to observe that the Marine Corps, despite its relatively small size, received the same attention as the larger and more traditional services.

All groups showed about the same level of interest in "Goals, Future, Success" (the Puerto Ricans in New York somewhat less), although the focus of interest between the more and the less accultured groups was different. The Puerto Rican San Juan group's emphasis on "goals" and the Cubans' emphasis on "future" differ from the Mexican Americans' concerns with "success," "achievement," and "opportunity," which reflect a stronger focus on the present, on the more immediately obtainable. This is similar to the trend observed in the context of EDUCATION. The Cubans were thinking more of "future" in contrast to the more immediate concern of the Mexican Americans with "satisfaction" and "achievement." This same trend is also reflected by the stronger Anglo and Mexican American references to "enjoyment," "fun," "good life," conveying more immediacy than the reactions of the less accultured groups.

With regard to the financial, material benefits of a CAREER, the Puerto Ricans showed less concern than the other groups who paid a great deal of attention to "money" and other financial, economic considerations.

The Anglo American and the more accultured Hispanic American groups listed a diversity of activities and professions from various fields of life. The less accultured Hispanic groups showed a substantially narrower focus on the professions of medicine and law. This finding is in agreement with ethnographic observations on the high prestige the doctoral degree brings in most Hispanic countries, and the special attention given to medical doctors and lawyers.

The sizable miscellaneous score for the Puerto Rican group in San Juan comes from the fact that the Spanish word <u>"carrera</u>" has a second meaning in the sense of horse or car racing. This explains also the low similarity coefficients between the Puerto Rican San Juan group and all the others.

<u>In general</u>, compared to the traditional orientation stressing somewhat vague but positive long-range aspirations, the more accultured Hispanic Americans emphasized practical and more immediate benefits, from material ("money") to psychological ("happiness," "fun").

ENLISTMENT/ALISTAR.

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ENLISTMENT/ALISTAR

As shown by the dominance scores on ENLISTMENT, the Puerto Ricans from New York scored the highest of all the Hispanic samples. This finding is consistent with related results which show that this group expressed the most interest in MILITARY SERVICE, MILITARY CAREER as well as in the ARMY and the MARINE CORPS. In the present context of ENLISTMENT, they made the most references to the specific services ("Army," "Air Force").

The six regional samples show, in general, a high degree of agreement on ENLISTMENT. All the groups think primarily of the particular service branches, although the emphasis on them was again heavier by the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic groups than by the Puerto Ricans in San Juan or the Cubans in Miami.

The Anglo American and the Cuban groups showed more explicit criticism and skepticism about ENLISTMENT ("never," "no," "scary"). The positive references to "pride," "good," "country," and "government" were moderate and about equally distributed. "Job," "work," "career" were slightly stronger considerations for the Mexican American group in Tempe and the Puerto Ricans in New York, but their weight across the board was relatively low. The idea of the "draft" and involuntary participation in the military service was somewhat more of a concern to the Anglo and Mexican American groups than to the less accultured samples.

In the case of the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami who responded mostly in their native Spanish language, the Hispanic word "ALISTAR" has a double meaning referring not only to military enlistment but also to preparation, getting things ready. While ALISTAR is more broadly used by the Mexican Americans, the reflective form "ALISTARCE" would have been more suitable for the Puerto Ricans in San Juan.

In general, ENLISTMENT has a closely similar meaning for all the groups compared. This same trend was observed independently in the context of themes such as MILITARY SERVICE and MILITARY CAREER. In the present context of ENLISTMENT, the more accultured groups placed stronger emphasis on the particular services, "job," and "pay," while the less accultured groups emphasized "war" and "fighting," reminiscent of the more traditional military mission.

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MONEY/DINERO

With regard to SALARY and MONEY the groups showed similar trends so we included only MONEY in our presentation; however, we will briefly discuss salary here. All groups expressed interest in receiving and using "money." With regard to its use, the Anglo Americans thought more about "cars" while the Hispanic Americans mentioned relatively more "food" and "clothes." The time interval by which people are paid, "daily," "weekly" or "monthly," appeared to be more important to Hispanic Americans. The Anglo American group had the lowest dominance score while the Mexican Americans in Tempe and the Puerto Ricans in San Juan scored the highest, showing their more intensive preoccupation with financial compensation.

MONEY naturally has special importance in this country of wealth, capitalism, international finance, and world trade. This was conveyed here by the countless monetary and financial terms, inluding slang like "green" and "bread," used particularly by the Anglos and the more accultured Hispanic Americans (see category "Cash, Dollars"). The use of these terms was more limited in the case of the Cuban and San Juan students. The Cuban students, as well as the El Paso group, referred more to "wealth" and "power." These were also important considerations for the San Juan students. The use of MONEY in buying, spending, and saving was a broadly shared idea, yet the New York Puerto Ricans expressed more interest here than the other groups.

The "need" and "necessity" of MONEY were broadly recognized, particularly by the Cubans and the Tempe based Mexican American students. "Work" and "job" as sources of MONEY were similarly emphasized by all groups.

What MONEY is most needed for is reflected by the specific items mentioned. Although Americans are frequently characterized as having a particularly strong motivation to buy and consume, the actual total scores here indicate that the Anglo Americans had the least general concern with the acquisition of specific consumer items. The Hispanic Americans, particularly the Tempe and the Miami students, scored very high on this dimension. A "car" nad first priority followed by "house," then "clothes" and "food." This rank order is essentially the same for most groups with a few variations. The New York Puerto Ricans, for instance, placed "food" in first place and showed relatively little interest in "house" or "home." The Tempe based Mexican Americans and the Anglo Americans emphasized somewhat more "sex," "girls," "women," and "drugs." The students in El Paso and Miami came rather close to the Anglos in several respects, while the San Juan group thought more about "travel" and "trips."

In general, MONEY was naturally important and appealing to all groups but not precisely for the same purpose. The most emphasis was placed on what it can "buy," but the emphasis on specifics varied.

Summary

In face of the rich but frequently contradictory observations in scientific literature on the role of work in the Anglo and Hispanic American cultures, our findings on the Anglo and Hispanic differences in subjective views of work offer new opportunities to promote empirically founded clarification.

Since the question of work motivation is a main issue of controversy, it is particularly relevant to examine the claim that there is a distinction between an Anglo American view of WORK which is oriented toward achievement and self-fulfillment and a more goal oriented and instrumental Hispanic American view. In a simple formulation we may ask whether it is true that Anglo Americans work more for the sake of work as a source of intrinsic personal satisfaction and that Hispanic Americans work to meet other needs, obligations, and extraneous objectives such as acquiring money or status.

The Hispanic American samples showed a moderate diversity along the acculturation continuum. The mean similarity coefficients (calculated by \tilde{z} transformation) on the six words used in the representation of this domain show that the Mexican Americans were more similar to the Anglo Americans than to the less accultured Puerto Ricans in San Juan or the Cubans in Miami. These findings underscore the importance of not treating Hispanic Americans as a homogeneous group.

At the same time, differences between the more and less accultured Hispanic Americans in the domain of WORK are relatively more modest compared to other domains such as ETHNIC IMAGES or SOCIAL VALUES. This suggests that on WORK and such related subjects as CAREER and ENLISTMENT there is more than average similarity. This may be partially due to the fact that the comparisons were made between student samples.

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Table 11. Mean Distance Measured in the Domain of CAREER ORIENTATION

In general, the main distinction is not between Anglo and Hispanic Americans but between the more accultured Hispanic groups (the two Mexican American and the New York Puerto Rican student samples) and the less accultured Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami. Along this dichotomy, we found that the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic Americans viewed WORK and EDUCATION to a certain degree as sources of satisfaction ("fun," "play"). The little accultured Hispanic Americans showed a stronger inclination to consider their utility or instrumentality to meet certain needs or obligations, to serve future goals, to make money, provide social status, etc. In the context of EDUCATION, the Anglo Americans and the accultured Hispanic Americans were preoccupied with the diversity of schools and school subjects (e.g., "math," "science," "history," etc.). The less accultured Hispanic Americans showed more preoccupation with learning and the effort it takes, and with teaching and the teacher. Indeed, the Hispanic American emphasis on these processes of WORK and EDUCATION, on their utility and instrumentality, emerged quite clearly.

With regard to CAREER, the differences were relatively small but in line with previously observed trends. The accultured groups showed more interest in "success," "achievement," and "opportunity" which suggest more immediate concerns, while the less accultured Hispanic American groups thought more about "future," "goals," and high prestige occupations such as "doctor" and "lawyer." Again, the Anglo and Mexican Americans thought of "enjoyment," "fun," and a "good life" as important to a CAREER.

The responses to ENLISTMENT showed that the accultured Hispanic groups placed stronger emphasis on specific military services. The focus on "job" and "work" was somewhat stronger also. The Anglo Americans and the Cubans expressed more critical attitudes toward ENLISTMENT, while the Puerto Ricans in New York showed the most interest. This observation is consistent with similar trends shown independently in the context of MILITARY SERVICE and MILITARY CAREER.

ADVANCEMENT had a close relationship to "achievement," "accomplishment," and personal "success" for the Anglo American group, while it appears more as a matter of "progress," "improvement," "gains," and "benefits" to the less accultured samples. ADVANCEMENT was viewed more specifically in the context of personal life and individual aspirations by the Anglo and Mexican Americans. Compared to these groups, the Cuban and the Puerto Rican students in New York viewed ADVANCEMENT more in the context of interpersonal relations including family, friends, marriage, etc.

MONEY was naturally important to all groups compared, but it does not serve precisely the same purpose. Considering what money can buy, the Tempe students placed "cars" far ahead of everything else, while to the New York Puerto Ricans "food" was more important. While to the Anglo and the more accultured groups "power" had relatively little salience, to the San Juan students "power" and "ambition" were among the highest ranking considerations.

While our previous findings (Szalay, et al., 1978) on less accultured, older Hispanic Americans offered sharper contrasts, our present findings with the five regional Hispanic student samples present a more complex picture, with more shades of diversity. These two chapters dealing with ACHIEVEMENT motivation and CAREER orientation are naturally closely related, if not inseparable. The findings provide essential empirical support of the literature which underscores the importance of the unique nature of the Anglo American achievement motivation. The results show the timely relevance of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) interpretation of the American work orientation. They traced its roots to the Protestant work ethic which glorifies the "man of uction" and contrasts doing, success, and achievement with a more passive, leisurely approach to life. The results also provide new and independent evidence in support of the pioneering work of McClelland and Atkinson (1961, 1966) who have shown through broad comparative studies both the importance and the deep psychological roots of American achievement motivation.

Our findings may help to place the Anglo American and Hispanic American work orientations in broader perspective. They show that attempts to explain the work motivation of the traditional Hispanic Americans can lead to simplistic ethnocentric conclusions. New opportunities in personnel management are opened through an understanding of the traditional Hispanic Traditional Hispanic Americans can be motivated work orientation. effectively by capitalizing on those goals which rank high in their priorities. While they are less motivated to work mainly for the sake of work or for the feeling of personal achievement and success, they will work hard to fulfill their goals, to materialize their aspirations--human, social, and intellectual. While the previous data have suggested that Hispanic Americans are at least as sensitive to economic incentives as Anglo Americans, the fact that they place special weight on social and interpersonal relations opens up a particularly wide range of motivational opportunities for personnel management.

LEADERSHIP, AUTHORITY, DISCIPLINE

Life in the military services is highly structured and entails strict order and discipline. The Marine Corps is particularly well known for its adherence to certain classical military values, especially toughness and discipline. These are the characteristics which distinguish life in the service most markedly from civilian life and which impose also the greatest demands on those who opt for a military career.

As we have seen in the previous chapter, the Anglo and the Hispanic American groups gave varying degrees of attention to leadership and militar values in their images of the different branches of the service. The degree of attention reflects not only on the actual characteristics of the specific service in question but also on the frame of reference of each particular group.

Since attitudes and perceptions regarding leadership and military values are likely to influence whether a military career would be attractive, we explored how the Hispanic and Anglo American student samples viewed some of the values intrinsic to service life.

Our interest focused on two clusters of themes. The first included the image of COMMANDER, the image of the civilian counterpart, the BOSS, and AUTHORITY in general. The second cluster included ORDER, DISCIPLINE, and OBEDIENCE, that is, a set of norms and values which influence interpersonal relationships; and since they involve more traditional values they are likely to be differently understood by the Anglos and the various Hispanic American student samples.

From the angle of personnel management, it is of some relevance to know how young Anglo Americans, accultured Hispanic Americans, and more traditional Hispanic Americans compare on these conventional military values and norms. The practical importance of this question somewhat naturally follows from the observation that the norms such as discipline or observation, which are so much a part of military life, are not particularly attractive to many young people.

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BOSS/JEFE

The dominance of BOSS was particularly high for the San Juan student group. Although the interpretations were mostly nonmilitary, they convey some interesting differences between two cultural perspectives.

There was considerable agreement about the central idea of the BOSS as a leader. The connection with military leadership ("commandant", "officer", was about the same for all groups but the San Juan students placed special emphasis on "authority." There were more differences in those dominant qualities of a boss as recognized by the various groups.

While the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic Americans characterized the BOSS as "powerful," "big," and "rich," the San Juan Puerto Ricans and the Cubans viewed the BOSS as "good," "responsible," "nice," and "intelligent." The Anglo American and the Mexican American images were predominantly negative ("mean," "fat," "strict," "bossy," "stupid," "sucks"), while the Puerto Ricans' image was predominantly positive. Yet the San Juan students and the Miami students spoke more of "orders" and "commands" as well as of "respect" and "duty." Also the Puerto Ricans emphasized such roles as "owner," "director," "superior."

The job or work context was salient in the mind of each group, particularly the San Juan students. Somewhat as a contrast, we find that the San Juan group made the fewest references to "money" or "pay," which had high salience for the Cuban students.

Ingeneral, to the more traditional Hispanic Americans, the USS appeared to be a more benevolent person who has authority and who is active in giving orders and commands. To the Anglo and accultured Hispanic Americans, the BOSS was more a negative figure who was mean and bossy, who hires and fires and pays. All groups showed an awareness of both civilian and military leadership roles.

COMMANDER/COMANDANTE

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COMMANDER/COMANDANTE

Although the Anglo American students paid only moderate attention to other military subjects, the role of COMMANDER had high dominance for them, apparently appealing to their interest and imagination. This interest is focused on leadership, which is not an exclusively military concept (e.g., also civilian, political, intellectual leaders). The Mexican Americans and the Puerto Rican students from New York, spoke more specifically of leadership. These more accultured groups also placed stronger weight on the military services---the Army, Air Force, Marines, and on military ranks---Generals, Captains, and officers in general. The San Juan students thought in more general terms of the Army, rank, and military.

The popular Hispanic role of "jefe" (boss), includes both military and nonmilitary leadership qualities. "Strength" and "power" received considerable attention from the San Juan Puerto Ricans; however, the importance of this response cluster is blurred by the fact that the Spanish word "comandante" has a second meaning which refers to the jockey in charge of his horse in the Puerto Rican horse races.

The view of the President as COMMANDER was salient only to the Anglo Americans and to the more accultured Mexican American and Puerto Rican students from New York.

Giving orders and commands were more salient considerations for the traditional Hispanic American groups, particularly the San Juan students. The Puerto Rican students from New York showed the most inclination to view COMMANDER as a father figure. The Anglo American and the Mexican American students viewed COMMANDER in more negative terms as "mean," "tough," and "strict."

In general, COMMANDER was viewed in rather similar terms by the six groups compared. The main difference is that giving orders and commanus was viewed as an intrinsic part of the role by the more traditional hisparic Americans, and accepted without any expression of resentment. The Angle and the more accultured Hispanic Americans were somewhat more critical.

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AUTHORITY/AUTORIDAD

Somewhat unexpectedly AUTHORITY had higher dominance for the Anglo and accultured Hispanic American groups than for the more traditional students from San Juan and Miami. There were a few other unanticipated results as well.

Teachers and school administrators, for instance, were more emphatically identified as authority figures by the Anglo and the accultured Hispanic Americans than by the traditional groups, particularly the students from San Juan who made few references to educators. Also in an unexpected direction, although the differences are not that large, the Anglo and the accultured Hispanic American groups scored higher on "father," "mother," and "parents."

These trends do not necessarily mean that the authority of the teachers is not highly respected by the San Juan students, but rather that they do not apply this notion to these and other contexts (e.g., parents) which are more personal. As discussed next, the more traditional Hispanic Americans are inclined to think of AUTHORITY in the context of more formal and external relationships.

It is interesting that this awareness increased rather dramatically when the "boss" is involved. The Puerto Rican students in San Juan led the more accultured groups in assigning AUTHORITY to civilian leadership (e.g., the "boss"). On "police," "law," "government" the trends are more mixed. For instance, the San Juan students paid the most attention to "government" as a source of authority, in contrast to "president," which was more important to the Anglo and more accultured Hispanic American groups.

Where the traditional orientation results in more explicit recognition of AUTHORITY is in its relationship to "power" and "strength." The San Juan group scored highest here; whether the emphasis is on the source of authority or on its implementation remains somewhat open at this point. Their heavy references to "order" and "command" make it rather clear, however, that while people may not think of AUTHORITY in the context of certain relationships (e.g., with parents), there is apparently considerable awareness, as well as acceptance, with regard to the reliance of AUTHORITY on "order" and "commands." While the Anglo American group showed some signs of reservations in their attitudes toward AUTHORITY, the Puerto Ricans said nothing essentially critical.

In general, the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic American student samples related AUTHORITY to "parents" and "teachers." To the Mexican American students from Tempe and the Puerto Rican group from New York, the police and the government represented the most recognized sources of AUTHORITY. The San Juan group placed more relative weight on the "boss" and work relations and also expressed the view that authority involves using power and giving orders and commands.

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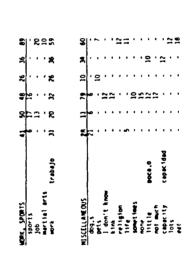
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DISCIPLINE/DISCIPLINA

Beyond considerable variations in meaning, the dominance or subjective salience of DISCIPLINE shows sizable differences between the groups as well. While it had the lowest dominance for the Anglo American group, it had the highest for the two less accultured groups, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami. Although these two less accultured groups agreed on the relative importance of this theme, they differed in certain important dimensions of its interpretation.

The main contrast again is between the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the other five groups. With regard to "family," the more accultured groups thought primarily of the role of "parents" and "father." The Cubans stressed the "home" and parental roles in general, as compared to the Puerto Ricans in San Juan who gave very little attention to authority in the nome. The distribution of attention is similar in the case of "school." The Cubans related DISCIPLINE most intensively to "school," and the Puerto Ricans in San Juan the least. We find somewhat an analogous case in the context of the military service, where the Cubans emphasized DISCIPLINE about twice as much as the students from San Juan.

The Anglos and the more accultured Hispanic groups viewed DISCIPLINE as a matter of "punishment," "spanking," "grounding," and even "jail," while DISCIPLINE had practically none of these connotations for the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and very little for the Cubans. Also, the Anglos and some of the accultured Hispanic groups described DISCIPLINE as "strict," "painful," and "hard"; negative evaluations from the little accultured Hispanic Americans were limited. Conversely, the two less accultured groups, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami, were highly positive about DISCIPLINE, describing it as "good," "important," "needed," "necessary." The Anglo and the Mexican Americans were moderate in their positive evaluation, with the negative generally outweighing the positive.

These differences may be at least partially explained by the fact that to the less accultured groups, but particularly to the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, DISCIPLINE involves "behavior," "conduct," "morals," "manners," "norms," and "rules." These values received much less attention from the Anglo and Mexican American groups. "Order" was a particularly dominant consideration for the San Juan Puerto Ricans.

In general, for the less accultured groups, DISCIPLINE was regarded as a source of "order," "manners," and "conduct," involving clearly positive values. It represented predominantly negative ideas of "control" and "punishment" to the more accultured students, particularly to the Anglo American group.

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ORDER/ORDEN

The two main definitions of ORDER---to give commands and to organize--exist both in English and in Spanish. How much relative attention they receive depends naturally on the group's frame of reference.

As with DISCIPLINE, ORDER was particularly meaningful and dominant to the San Juan group. Its military connotation, indicated by references to "Army," "commander," was generally modest for the six groups compared.

To command or mandate in a prescriptive, obligatory sense was a rather strong idea across the board. To the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, ORDER meant more "mandate" and "discipline," while to the Anglo and more accultured Hispanic American students it meant giving commands.

"Obedience" and "respect" were dominant in the minds of the Puerto Rican students. In the context of various social settings such as family and school, the attention given to ORDER shows generally the same patterns observed in the context of AUTHORITY and DISCIPLINE. Again, for the San Juan students "family" and "school" had low salience, while "police," "law," and "government" represent contexts where ORDER appears to be particularly important to both Puerto Rican student groups.

The more traditional Hispanic groups evaluated ORDER the most positively, as "necessary," "important," as a "way of life," leading to "peace" and "tranquility."

Orderly systematic arrangement, was also dominant for the more traditional San Juan student group who spoke of "organization," "orderliness," and being "systematic." In a similar sense, the Anglo American and the El Paso based Mexican students mentioned "neatness," "cleanliness," and "arrangement." To the other Hispanic groups this was not an important perspective.

The Anglo and Mexican American groups also made a number of references to "food" and "restaurant." The idea of ordering food in a restaurant was almost non-existent for the other groups.

In general, ORDER was a more popular idea, with richer and more positive content for the Puerto Ricans, particularly those from San Juan. To the more accultured Hispanic American groups it had a stronger relationship to family, work and school settings. Beyond the idea of "command," ORDER also meant "organization" and "neatness" to Anglo Americans and Puerto Ricans from San Juan. Its legal and governmental implications were the most salient to the Puerto Ricans.

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OBEDIENCE/OBEDENCIA

As an antonym of COMMAND and ORDER, OBEDIENCE was analyzed here to approach this subject from a contrasting angle. While the students from San Juan and Miami gave little thought to the various forms of compliance, they emphasized "respect," "loyalty," "trust," that is, underlying qualities and values which justify or require OBEDIENCE. Anglo Americans saw OBEDIENCE more in the context of "discipline" and "order," a perception shared only to a more limited extent by the other student groups.

OBEDIENCE in the "family" and at "school" receive somewhat similar attention from all groups. The Puerto Rican students from New York showed the most awareness of the role of the parents, as well as the teachers. The increased awareness is probably a consequence of the acculturation process. This group, as well as some of the others in acculturation, seem to have become more aware of value conflicts that arise when moving from a traditional cultural environment into the U.S. American environment.

As we have observed in the context of DISCIPLINE, ORDER, and AUTHORITY, the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic Americans tend to view these norms and values in a military context and to treat them critically. In the context of OBEDIENCE, we observed only a few references to the various military services.

The Anglo Americans and the Mexican Americans were inclined to view OBEDIENCE as being "subservient," or submissive. This view is also conveyed by the attention the Anglo and accultured Hispanic American students gave to "dogs," who are considered to epitomize OBEDIENCE produced by conditioning.

The San Juan group again provides an interesting contrast in its giving attention to "attitudes," "behavior," "manners," "character," "intelligence," and "rectitude," which they view as positive human motivations promoting OBEDIENCE.

In general, OBEDIENCE was related predominantly to "family" and "school" settings by all groups. For the Anglo and more accultured Hispanic American students, OBEDIENCE had a strong relationship to "discipline" and "order." As previously observed in the context of DISCIPLINE and ORDER, these responses carry some negative connotation, ("control," "punishment"). To the Puerto Rican group from San Juan, OBEDIENCE is based predominantly on respect and proper manners.

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Summary

The analysis presented in this chapter relied on results obtained on two clusters of subjects. The first dealt with the image of a leader, both military (COMMANDER) and nonmilitary (BOSS), and with AUTHORITY is an underlying subject.

As a general trend, there seems to be a stronger distinction between military and nonmilitary leadership by the Anglo and more accultured Hispanic American groups. The traditional Hispanic Americans viewed the leadership roles predominantly in nonmilitary contexts, but their traditional views show a great deal of intrinsic affinity with military views and perspectives.

This distinction underscores the differences observed again between the highly accultured and more traditional Hispanic Americans. These differences are clearly shown by the following matrix of psychocultural distance. As these coefficients indicate, the Mexican Americans and the Puerto Ricans from New York are predominantly accultured, while the Puerto Ricans from San Juan and to a lesser extent the Cubans from Miami represent the little accultured, more traditional Hispanic views.

| Coefficients of Psychocultural | Anglo Amer. | Mexican Americans | Puerto Ricans | Cuban |
|--|----------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------|
| Distance Between Regional Samples | | El Paso /Tempe | New San York Juan | Miami |
| Anglo Americans, East Coast | | .16 .15 | .33 .44 | . 35 |
| Mexican Americans, El Paso Mexican Americans, Tempe | | | | .26 |
| Puerto Ricans, New York Puerto Ricans, San Juan | | | | .21 |

Table 12. Mean Distances Measured in the Domain of LEADERSHIP

Throughout the analysis the San Juan Puerto Ricans and, to a lesser extent, the Cubans tended to view the leadership roles (e.g., COMMANDER, BOSS) in predominantly positive social terms ("good," "responsible," "intelligent"). The Anglo American and accultured Hispanic American evaluations were more critical ("mean," "strict," "bossy"). While the Anglo American views convey an adversary type of relationship to leaders, the traditional Hispanic views appear to be more sympathetic to the position of leadership, conveying the image of an understanding "patron" who has positive social qualities as well as authority.

Most of these differences are relevant to the Anglo and Hispanic views of AUTHORITY. The Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic Americans expressed some reservations and resentment about AUTHORITY. The traditional San Juan group and, to a large extent, the Cubans expressed positive feelings and approval in regard to AUTHORITY; in fact, they view the giving of orders and commands a natural and intrinsic manifestation of the AUTHORITY of leadership, considering it necessary and indispensable.

Throughout this analysis we have given disproportionate attention to the "traditional" Hispanic American position, even though it has been represented in many instances only by the Puerto Ricans in San Juan. As we have seen, in many respects the Cuban students represent a more accultured rather than traditional position. The "traditional Hispanic" position deserves special attention for several reasons. First, although it may not be representative of the majority of Hispanics in the United States, it does represent a cultural frame of reference which is more characteristically Hispanic in both historical and world-wide perspectives. This becomes readily apparent if we broaden the scope of comparison to include Latin Americans like Colombians and Mexicans (as we have done in other Furthermore, since the more accultured Mexican Americans were studies). not so very different from the mainstream Anglo Americans, from the angle of personnel management, there is less need to adopt special measures to reach these groups.

Finally, our data show clearly and consistently that the diverse Hispanic Americans population represents a sort of continuum between the traditional and the fully accultured. They can best be understood by tracing how much and in what ways they have changed from the more traditional Hispanic patterns. In other words, a familiarity with the more traditional Hispanic psychocultural disposition provides a general key to understanding a broad variety of Hispanic Americans even those who have become more accultured to Anglo American ways.

Analysis of the leadership values DISCIPLINE, ORDER, and OBEDIENCE, offers some additional insights. First, similar trends were observed in the perception and evaluation of these values by the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic American samples. These groups viewed DISCIPLINE and ORDER with similarly critical attitudes, and showed similar dispositions to think of these values not only in a military context, but also in family, school, and other social settings. Discipline and order imply control and restrictions, which account for some of the negative connotations.

Certain characteristic contrasts were found between these more accultured views and the more traditional perspectives of the Puerto Ricans in San Juan. From the traditional perspective DISCIPLINE, ORDER, and OBEDIENCE do not imply restrictions or punishment, but are viewed as important, indispensable prerequisites of an organized existence. As part of normal life, they barely registered as problems in family or school; they are more recognized in application to law, government and police. Furthermore, they are considered to be matters of respect, proper behavior, and manners. These more traditional views are particularly interesting since they come from young students. They also reflect attitudes which have some natural affinity with values related to personnel organization and leadership. What makes this situation particularly interesting and challenging is that the traditional Hispanic attitudes, which show natural affinity with military value orientations, do offer certain opportunities for personnel management. The differences between the discipline oriented military values and broader libertarian societal values, which hinder the Armed Services in attracting and retaining capable young recruits, may not exist in the same way in the case of the more traditional Hispanic Americans. Whether the lack of this value conflict may be effectively used by personnel management will depend naturally on several factors. One among them involves the attitudes toward the military in general and toward specific services in particular.

THE MILITARY SERVICE

How do the various Hispanic groups look at military service in general and at the Army, Navy, and the Marine Corps in particular? To what extent do they see job opportunities in the service?

There are three areas where we have found sizable differences which could bear on the perceptions of the military service. First, the sizable differences in the domain of ETHNIC IMAGES may be of some relevance here, partially due to ethnic identification and concern with equal opportunity which show some intrinsic relations. Also since the military service has some patriotic undertones, it is interesting to see whether Anglo-Hispanic ethnic differences may influence the image of the services as well.

Second, in the domain of LEADERSHIP we found rather marked differences between accultured and traditional Hispanic Americans. These differences suggest that along their more traditional orientation, the less accultured Hispanic Americans are more positive toward such values as authority, discipline, and obedience, that is, values central to the military service. The traditional Hispanic Americans' highly positive outlook on these leadership values may be expected to influence their views of military service and military careers as well.

Finally, in view of the general importance of interpersonal relations to Hispanic Americans, it is relevant to explore to what extent the image of the military services reflect this subjective concern with the human social dimension.

In the present context of images of the military it is particularly relevant to compare Hispanic Americans accultured to the U.S. environment and similar to their Anglo American neighbors in their perceptions and evaluation with other Hispanic Americans who think and feel more along what has been identified as "Hispanic culture." The findings so far have shown only modest differences between the Anglo Americans and the more accultured Hispanic Americans while sizable differences have been found between the accultured and the more traditional Hispanic Americans. In dealing with recruitment, job satisfaction, and retention of Hispanic Americans, the differences between accultured and traditional Hispanic populations deserve closer attention.

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THE MILITARY SERVICE/SERVICIO MILITAR

As indicated by the dominance scores, the Puerto Ricans in New York expressed the most interest in MILITARY SERVICE as a timely option, while the Cubans showed the least subjective interest.

The various service branches---the Army, the Navy, the Marines, the Air Force---received the most attention from all groups, generally in this same rank order. Here again the Puerto Ricans in New York scored the highest, about three times higher than the Puerto Ricans in San Juan or the Cubans in Miami. These last two groups' images of MILITARY SERVICE convey nore saliently elements of "war" and "death," that is, traditional military experiences. This same tendency is also reflected by their attention to traditional military values: "discipline," "order," "respect." The Puerto Ricans in San Juan strongly viewed MILITARY SERVICE as an obligation. They were also somewhat more predisposed than the other groups to consider the educational, training, and learning dimensions of the service.

References to "soldiers" and various military ranks ("Captain," "Colonel") and to "uniforms" also suggest that the Puerto Rican group in Sam Juan and the Cubans had a stronger inclination to view MILITARY SERVICE in strict military terms. Interestingly, these two groups also appear somewhat more ambivalent on MILITARY SERVICE. While on one hand they were quite critical of the MILITARY SERVICE characterizing it as "bad" and "evil," on the other hand their characterization of the service as "good" was stronger than the more accultured groups.

The more accultured groups (the Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans in New York) emphasized "job" and "career" related aspects of the service and were similar to the Anglo Americans in stressing the particular service branches.

In general, the two Mexican American samples and the New York tased Puerto Rican sample showed more similarity with the Anglo American sample. They viewed the MILITARY SERVICE as a more or less conventional job or work situation within the framework of one of the service branches. The San Juan based Puerto Ricans and the Cubans in Miami viewed the service more in terms of traditional military experiences and obligations toward which they expressed ambivalent feelings.

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MILITARY CAREER/CARRERA MILITAR

Of the six groups compared, the Puerto Ricans in New York produced the highest dominance score while the Anglo Americans showed relatively little subjective interest.

To both Mexican American groups and to the Puerto Ricans in New York the specific service branches---Army, Navy, Marine Corps, Air Force---were salient elements of consideration. The Marine Corps received the most attention from the Puerto Rican group in New York. The Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami showed the least interest here.

The work and job aspects of a military career were stronger for the Mexican Americans in Tempe and the Puerto Ricans in New York. They Lotie listed specific jobs such as "mechanic," "engineer," "pilot," etc. The Puerto Rican group in San Juan and the Cuban group gave little attention to this employment dimension. Also, these two groups considered MILITARY CAREER not so much as a conventional job but as a specific, different kind of experience. In this vein, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan mentioned "war" and "death" and emphasized specific military values like "discipline," "respect," and "obligation." Military ranks ("Sergeant," "Captain," "Colonel") were also more salient elements in the Puerto Ricans' and the Cubans' images of MILITARY CAREER as were "education," "training," "school," and "studying." In this respect the two Mexican American groups showed more similarity with the Anglo Americans. The explicitly evaluative responses indicated some ambivalence. The Anglo Americans and the two Mexican American samples gave more negative evaluations ("boring," "no," "never") than positive ones ("good," "adventure," "travel"). The Cubans scored the highest on both positive and negative reactions. The Puerto Rican group in San Juan had higher positive than negative scores, with "good," "adventure," and "travel" showing considerable salience. They were also most inclined to relate MILITARY CAREER to "future," "goals," "opportunity," and "advantage."

In general, The two Mexican American samples and the Puerto kicans in New York showed a strong disposition to view MILITARY CAREER from the angle of jobs and work. At the same time, Puerto Ricans in San Juan and Cucans in Miami considered MILITARY CAREER from a specific military angle, paying more attention to certain non-civilian features such as the uniforms and different ranks.

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THE ARMED FORCES/FUERZA ARMADAS

The salience of the theme ARMED FORCES was the highest for the Puerto Ricans in New York and lowest for the Cubans and Anglo Americans.

In the case of the Anglo Americans, the Mexican American groups, and the Puerto Rican group in New York, about half of the responses elicited to the stimulus ARMED FORCES refer to the four major service branches: the Army, the Navy, the Marines, and the Air Force. The level of attention given to specific services by the Puerto Rican group in San Juan and the Cuban group in Miami was only about half that observed with the Anglo and Mexican Americans. The two less accultured groups focused their attention on certain characteristically military aspects which distinguish the ARMED FORCES from other organizations or professions. They interconnected ARMED FORCES more intensively with "war," "death," and "danger." While Anglo and Mexican Americans also mentioned "war," "killing," and "death," the overall weight given to these mosaic elements was noticeably less.

A similar contrast can be found in connection with such military values as "discipline," "order," and "obligation," which were again much more dominant for the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans than for the Anglo and Mexican Americans. The same can be observed in the context of other military aspects, e.g., "soldier," "commander," or "uniform."

Military hardware (e.g., "Guns, Arms, Bombs") was of similar importance to all six sample groups in their images of ARMED FORCES. One minor difference was that the Anglos and the three more accultured groups mentioned more specific weapons (e.g., "planes," "guns," "bombs"), while the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans thought of "arms" in general.

The previously observed ambivalence of these groups is further reinforced in this context. The Anglo and Mexican Americans gave a preponderance of negative reactions, while the Puerto Ricans in New York and the Cubans in Miami were more positive than negative in their evaluations. These last two groups were also stronger in their emphasis on strength and power.

<u>In general</u>, there was again a fairly consistent difference between the Anglo, Mexican American, and New York Puerto Rican groups, who emphasized the main service branches, and the San Juan Puerto Rican and Cuban group, who emphasized military values, military activities, rules and ranks. The accultured groups were relatively more critical and the less accultured groups were more positive in their evaluations.

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THE ARMY/EL EJERCITO

The Army is the oldest and probably most representative branch of the military services. The dominance scores indicate that it received the most subjective attention from the Mexican Americans in Tempe and the Puerto Kicans in New York.

As in the case of the general subjects of MILITARY SERVICE and MILITARY CAREER, the groups' images of the ARMY had close connections with the other services such as the Navy and the Marines. These connections were particularly strong for the New York based Puerto Ricans, the Mexican Americans in El Paso, and the Anglo Americans. Specific references to "Navy," "Marines," and "Air Force" were the strongest by the Puerto Ricans in New York. One reason for this interest in the ARMY and other services may be due to the tendency of the New York based Puerto Rican group and the Tempe based Mexican American group to view the Army as a source of "work," "job," "careers" and as part of their "future." Their references to ARMY as a source of "money," were also noticeably higher than most of the other groups'.

In contrast to this job and income oriented image, the Mexican Americans in Tempe, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, and the Cubans in Miami viewed the ARMY in the context of such less attractive, more dangerous eventualities as "war" and "death." The traditional military, hierarchy based nature of the ARMY ("uniform," "soldiers," and various "ranks") had relatively more effect on the images of the Puerto Rican groups and the Cubans. The Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans stressed such traditional military values as "discipline," "order," and "obligation," trends which also emerged in the analysis of MILITARY SERVICE and MILITARY CAREER. The emphasis on "strength" and "power" by the Puerto Ricans in New York and the Cubans shows a positive correlation with these same considerations.

The Puerto Ricans and Cubans were more positive in their evaluations of ARMY, describing it as "good" and "great" and referring to such advantages as "adventure" and "travel." In the case of the Cuban group these positive elements were outweighed by negative evaluations: "bad," "no," "never." The Anglo Americans' negative reactions ("sucks," "dirty," "stupid") appear to dominate over a few positive references ("fun," "adventure").

<u>In general</u>, the Mexican Americans' reactions showed more similarity with the Anglo Americans', particularly in their emphasis on the various service branches and military hardware. In comparison, the Puerto Ricans and Cubans placed more emphasis on certain traditional aspects and human dimensions and gave more affect-laden evaluations of the ARMY.

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THE NAVY/EL NAVY

As the larger dominance scores indicate, the NAVY was richer in meaning and stronger in appeal to practically all samples than, for instance, the ARMY. The differences were particularly sizable in the case of the Anglo American group. There are several obvious reasons for these differences.

There are two major components in the NAVY's image which differentiate it, for instance, from the image of the ARMY. The first involves "ships," "boats," and other vehicles and equipment. The second involves the "ocean," "sea," and "water," i.e., the characteristic scenery and medium, which distinguishes the Navy from other service branches. The general preoccupation with these characteristics across the board probably explains the little attention given to military characteristics including references to the other service branches. This appears to be particularly pronounced with the Cubans in Miami and the Mexican Americans in Tempe.

The Hispanic Americans were generally more inclined than the Anglos to view the NAVY as an employment opportunity (a "job"). Again, the Puerto Ricans in New York and the Mexican Americans in Tempe showed this tendency more than the others. Also the "fighting" potential of the NAVY and its role in "war" were more salient in the eyes of the Puerto Ricans and the Cubans, while these aspects received the least attention from the Anglo Americans.

The human, organizational dimensions, the military hierarchy, which in the previous contexts attracted consistently more attention from the Hispanic American groups than from the Anglo Americans, did not dominate here. One explanation may be that in the Anglo American cultural context the NAVY is seen as a more hierarchically organized military institution with distinctive uniforms, while along the Puerto Rican and Cuban cultural experiences these military, organizational characteristics may become less pronounced. This conclusion appears to be supported by the observation that other characteristically militaristic references (e.g., "death," "fighting") were less salient as well.

A substantial part of the apparently negative reactions to NAVY dealt with homosexuality ("gays," "fags," "homosexual"), suggesting that to some of the groups---Anglo Americans, Cubans, and Mexican Americans from Tempe--this is of some concern.

In general, the NAVY appears as an attractive job opportunity to the Puerto Ricans in New York and the Mexican Americans in Tempe. The Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami maintained their previously identified military perspectives; yet, in the context of the NAVY this was less pronounced than in the context of the ARMY. THE MARINE CORPS/EL MARINE CORPS

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THE MARINE CORPS/EL MARINE CORPS

As shown by the dominance scores, after the Anglo Americans the New York based Puerto Ricans viewed the MARINE CORPS with the most subjective interest, followed by the Cubans in Miami. This interest appears to have two main components:

First, there is a practical job and work orientation shared here by the Mexican American groups and the Cubans. Although this practical orientation is generally found to be characteristic of Anglo Americans, in the present context of the MARINE CORPS it was observable mainly with the Mexican Americans. The Anglo Americans represent an exception, probably because of the intensity of their negative attitudes. Although the Anglo Americans did give some positive evaluations of the MARINE CORPS, those tested were not interested in this service branch in terms of a "job" or "career" opportunity. As indicated, the opposite seems to apply to the Hispanic Americans, except for the Puerto Ricans in San Juan. The Puerto Rican group in New York showed a particularly strong disposition to view the MARINE CORPS as a "job," "work," or "career" opportunity. While this group had previously shown a similar orientation, this inclination on the part of the Cubans is new. Although the Cubans evaluated the other services as distinctly positive, they did not tend to view them as job or career options.

Secondly, the Cubans also strongly identified the MARINE CORPS with such military values as "discipline," "respect," "honor," etc. While the Cubans and the Puerto Ricans have shown a rather consistent tendency to take note of the military hierarchy (e.g., ranks, soldiers, officers), in the case of the MARINE CORPS they did not show this tendency with the same intensity.

Across the board the MARINE CORPS was described in such positive terms as "good," "best," "helpful," and particularly as "tough," "rough," "brave," and "proud." The Mexican Americans, especially those in El Paso, were strong in this recognition, as were the Anglo Americans to a considerable extent. The contrast here is rather marked compared to the Anglos' less than enthusiastic view of the other service branches. Yet, at the same time the Anglo Americans were very critical of the Marines, which is reflected by such derogatory labels as "sucks," "jarheads," "stupid," and "mean." The Mexican American groups again showed more similarity with the Anglos' criticisms than with the other Hispanic Americans. The sea-going nature of the MARINE CORPS was more recognized by the Puerto Rican groups and the Cubans.

In general, the outstanding qualities of the Marines were broadly recognized across the board. Parallel to this recognition, the Hispanic American groups viewed the MARINE CORPS as a job and career opportunity. This inclination was particularly strong among the New York based Puerto Ricans and the Cubans, and to a somewhat lesser extent the two Mexican American groups.

Summary

On the question of the Anglo and Hispanic Americans' image of military service in general and the images of the particular service branches there was considerable internal consistency in the results. Starting with the general trends of observation allows us to place the specific findings into proper perspective.

The most general questions involve naturally (1) the differences between the Anglo Americans and Hispanic Americans and (2) the much debated issue of how much psychocultural diversity there is within the Hispanic American population (i.e., among the Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans tested at five geographic locations throughout the United States.)

As the mean coefficients in the following matrix show, there was a relatively close similarity between the Anglo Americans and the Mexican Americans and New York Puerto Ricans. The distance between these groups is generally .20 or below. The Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami showed substantially greater difference with the first cluster of groups, and an equally low level of similarity between each other. This general pattern of relationships fits with our previous research findings.

| Coefficients of Psychocultural | Anglo Amer. | Mexican Americans | Puerto Ricans Cubans |
|---|----------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Distance Between Regional Samples / | East Coast | - / / | ew San ork Juan Miami |
| Anglo Americans, East Coast Mexican Americans, El Paso Mexican Americans, Tempe | | 21 . 15 | .43 .39 .38 .43 .46 .39 |
| Puerto Ricans, New York | | | 38 . 34 |

Table 13. Mean Distances Measured in the Domain of MILITARY SERVICE

In our recent comparative study of five Hispanic American and two Anglo American regional samples across ten major domains of life we found a close similarity between the Anglo and Mexican American groups, and a New York based Puerto Rican sample showed closer similarity with the Anglo and the Mexican American samples than with a Puerto Rican sample in San Juan or a Cuban sample in Miami. The high similarity between the Anglo and the Mexican American samples indicates that acculturation is the most important factor in reducing cultural differences. That psychocultural differences are substantive between Anglos and unaccultured Hispanic Americans was also shown in this study by the relatively low similarities measured between the Puerto Rican sample in San Juan and the Anglo American samples. The Puerto Rican sample in New York, which showed more similarity with the Anglo Americans (in New York and in Los Angeles) than with the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, offers a potentially clear illustration of the importance of this acculturation process. In light of these prior results, the present findings become more readily explicable. The agreement between these two studies relying on two independent sets of samples is similarly important since it provides the foundation necessary for broader generalizations.

On such broader images as the ARMED FORCES or MILITARY SERVICE, the analysis produced similar results indicating analogous trends. The consistency of these findings provides empirical support for dividing the samples into the following main subgroups: The Mexican Americans, showing strong similarities with the Anglo Americans, can be characterized as relatively accultured, while the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami represent relatively unaccultured samples. The Puerto Ricans in New York, who show in most contexts more similarity with the Anglo and Mexican Americans, appear to be also relatively more accultured than the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami, but there are several contexts which require individual consideration.

On the images of MILITARY SERVICE, MILITARY CAREER, and ARMED FORCES the relatively accultured Hispanic groups tended to think of specific service branches and to consider them in the context of job and work opportunities, that is, as a personal career. At the same time, the relatively less accultured Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami tended to emphasize traditional military values (e.g., discipline, order) and to consider interpersonal relations in a military environment (e.g., rank, soldier, officer). These less accultured groups also were inclined to regard military service as very distinct from civilian jobs. They made considerably more references to "war," "death," and other risks, and to "adventure" and "travel."

On the images of the various service branches THE ARMY, THE NAVY, and THE MARINE CORPS, some of the above distinctions did persist, and a few new ones were added. Again, the accultured groups paid more attention to the diverse services and generally also to military hardware ("guns," "tanks"). "War," "death," "adventure," "travels," and other more unusual characteristics received again more attention from the less accultured Hispanic Americans. They also emphasized "strength," "power," "pride," and "honor," together with such military values as "discipline" and "obligation."

These and other details indicate that the Anglo Americans and the Mexican Americans on one hand and the less accultured Puerto Ricans and Cubans on the other look at military service from different perspectives. With some simplification the first may be characterized as a practical, job and employment oriented frame of reference, while the second is more reminiscent of traditional military values, obligations, and prestige. It is an interesting question whether one of these two main orientations may be predisposed to favor a military career. To answer this question more conclusively will require naturally further analysis. At this point, however, it appears that a military service orientation may develop along either main alternative. The more specific results can shed some light in this respect. The Cuban group's reactions to the MARINE CORPS suggest that a service branch with a strong traditional appeal to bravery, toughness, and discipline may hold a strong attraction for less accultured Hispanic Americans with a traditional value orientation. The Puerto Ricans in New York represent in this respect a particularly interesting case; they showed across the board the strongest service orientation, particularly toward the MARINE CORPS. The appeal of military service is based on a combination of practical interest in jobs and pay as well as on certain prestige considerations anchored in such traditional values as respect and discipline, strength and pride.

The Mexican Americans, who did not pay much attention to these qualities in the context of the other service branches, strongly emphasized them in the context of the MARINE CORPS. The same applies to the Anglo Americans to a certain degree. This group is probably best informed about the differences that exist in the various branches of the Armed Services and their practical implications. From the angle of job opportunities, the Anglo American group appeared to be the least attracted to the Armed Services. However, in the context of the MARINE CORPS, even they stressed the military values of "discipline," and "respect" as well as "toughness" and "strength." While these responses suggest a strong positive reaction from a sizable part of the Anglo American sample, others were very critical and in strong opposition. This differential impact may not adversely affect recruitment since it may only promote the very selectivity which is considered highly desirable in the Marine Corps.

LEISURE TIME: SEX, ENTERTAINMENT

Previous comparisons of American population samples with Korean (1972), Arab (1978), Colombian (1982), and other overseas culture groups have revealed several important and characteristic differences between modern and traditional cultural environments, particularly in the domain of leisure and entertainment. In our present comparison of Hispanic American groups at different stages of acculturation, it is of considerable interest that the more accultured Hispanics assume an intermediary position between the Anglo American perspective and the traditional Hispanic perspective.

Our previous research in the context of friendship has shown that our society tends to place sex in close relationship to entertainment and recreation. People in traditional cultures tend to view sex in the more narrow context of family and procreation. Also in contrast to the Anglo American focus on the sex act and sexual relations, all the more traditional tended to view sex primarily in the context of gender. Cultural differences in the deeply rooted subjective perceptions and representations of sex are particularly intriguing. Since we are dealing here with a universal human instinct, there is a natural inclination to assume that sex is viewed and approached similarly by all people.

The present comparison involves high school students at an age when the sex drive is considered to be particularly powerful and the process of socialization is as yet incomplete. This could lead to a situation where the physiological similarities supersede the differences produced by socialization. Since in the previous chapters we have already observed a consistent distinction between the more and less accultured Hispanic Americans, it will be informative to see to what extent this distinction applies to this domain as well. Since the following data were obtained from students living in large cities, the observed differences are not accentuated by an added effect of an urban/rural dimension of comparison.

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ENTERTAINMENT/ENTRETENIMIENTO

This popular theme is naturally rich in meaning for our student samples. Parallel to its general importance there were some interesting differences in what the various student groups consider to be entertainment. Since we are in the age of electronic media and mass communication it is not surprising that "T.V." and "movies" had high salience to all groups. The only exception is the San Juan Puerto Ricans; they placed about half as much emphasis on these forms of ENTERTAINMENT than the other students who live in the continental United States and probably have easier access to T.V. and movies.

In contrast, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan gave two to three times more attention to "sports" and "playing" than their continental peers. From the specific sports, "basketball" was most popular while American football attracted no attention. They did mention a variety of other sports.

"Music" and "dancing" were also very popular across the board, especially with the Puerto Ricans in New York.

While the Anglo Americans and accultured Hispanic Americans spoke more of "fun," the Puerto Ricans in San Juan emphasized "amusement" (<u>diversion</u>) and "joy" (alegria). The Puerto Ricans in San Juan described ENTERTAINMENT as "good," "necessary," and "healthy," reactions consistent with their emphasis on sports as by far the most popular form of ENTERTAINMENT.

While "friends" were a part of ENTERTAINMENT in the minds of all six groups, with regard to the role of sex there were wide differences. The Anglos and the Mexican Americans from Tempe saw a particularly strong connection between sex and ENTERTAINMENT. Beyond the explicit references to sex these male students spoke more specifically of the opposite sex ("girlfriend," "girl," "women"). The San Juan Puerto Ricans made no reference to sex at all, just as they did not refer to sex in the context of GIRLFRIEND either. The remaining two groups, the Cubans and the Puerto Ricans in New York, did place sex in the context of ENTERTAINMENT, but not as much as observed in the case of the Anglo American students. "Parties," "drinking," and "drugs" were clearly identifiable elements of the Anglo and Mexican American ideas of ENTERTAINMENT.

<u>In general</u>, the meaning of ENTERTAINMENT showed considerable variation. In contrast to the predominantly sports and play oriented interpretation by the San Juan students, ENTERTAINMENT means more T.V., movies, sex, parties, drinking, and drugs for the Mexican American and Anglo student groups. The Cubans and the New York Puerto Ricans assume a more intermediary position.

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The dominance scores suggest that TRAVEL has a higher subjective appeal or importance to the more traditional Hispanic Americans (the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami), than to Anglo Americans and the more accultured groups. With regard to destinations Hawaii and California have the highest appeal, followed by New York in a much weaker third position. To the San Juan students the United States occupied first place. The Mexican Americans were particularly attracted to California and Hawaii. With regard to international travel, Europe and Mexico occupy the first two ranks. It comes as no surprise that the Puerto Ricans in New York put Puerto Rico in first place, far ahead of any other location.

The Anglo American and more accultured Hispanic American samples had travel scenery in mind: "beaches," "mountains," "camping." The means of transportation attracted a great deal of common interest, but there were variations in the priority given to various choices. The Tempe students thought mostly of "cars" and the San Juan students of "airplanes."

There were also some interesting differences with regard to motivation. Anglos scored the highest on "fun" and "excitement." The San Juan students spoke not only of "adventure" and "enjoyment" but also of gaining "knowledge" and "experience." Knowledge and experience were mentioned to a lesser extent by the Cubans and only at a modest level by all other groups.

With regard to the opportunity for TRAVEL, "vacation" was naturally the most important. It was particularly salient to the Cubans and to a lesser extent to the Mexican and Anglo American students.

In general, the subjective views of TRAVEL reflect differences readily explicable by each group's circumstances and frame of reference. The students on the island of Puerto Rico were particularly eager to see the world; they were also more interested in adventure. The Anglo Americans and the more accultured Mexican Americans viewed TRAVEL more as a source of "fun" or "entertainment" and were particularly attracted to places like Hawaii and California.

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JOY, PLEASURE/ALEGRIA

PLEASURE was conceived by all groups as an important source of "happiness" and "fun;" these connotations were particularly strong in the case of the Puerto Rican student group from San Juan. The idea of "fun" was the strongest for the Puerto Ricans in New York, followed by the Mexican American groups and the Anglo students.

"Money" was viewed as a source of pleasure by all six student samples to a moderate degree, most emphatically by the Cubans and least by the San Juan Puerto Ricans. In identifying "friends," "girlfriends," and "girls" as sources of PLEASURE, the Tempe based Mexican Americans are the strongest, followed by the Cuban and Anglo students. The Puerto Ricans in San Juan thought of "friends" and "companions" but made no references to "girls."

JOY, PLEASURE brought thoughts of "family" ("parents," "mother," "father", more strongly to the Cubans than to any other group. In general, "love" and other good "feelings" received more attention from the traditional Hispanic American groups, the San Juan Puerto Ricans and the Cubans, while they received the least attention from the Anglo Americans.

"Work," "school," and a broad variety of sports were other important sources of PLEASURE to the Mexican American students and to the Puerto Ricans in New York. "Playing" was mentioned by all Hispanic American groups. The Tempe based Mexican American students made the most references to particular sports.

"Sex" emerged as the most important source of PLEASURE to Anglo Americans and to the Mexican Americans in Tempe. The other groups also made many references to sex, except for the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, who did not mention it at all.

Different types of entertainment received varying degrees of attention. "Movies" were most popular with the more accultured Hispanic American groups. All students mentioned "music," especially the New York based Puerto Ricans. "Parties" and "fiestas" were also broadly recognized sources of pleasure. The Tempe students mentioned "cars" and "cruising."

<u>In general</u>, PLEASURE meant mainly "happiness" to the San Juan students, who also stressed "love" and sentiment the most, but made no explicit references to sex. "Sex" was the most mentioned source of PLEASURE for the Anglo American students and the more accultured Hispanic American groups. The Mexican American groups also emphasized "sports," "music," and "playing" as sources of pleasure. TOGE THE RNESS/CONVIVENCIA

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TOGETHERNESS/CONVIVENCIA

The dominance scores indicate that the idea of TOGETHERNESS was more popular and meaningful to the Anglo American students and to the more accultured Hispanic Americans than to the Puerto Ricans in San Juan or the Cubans in Miami. In our previous comparative studies of traditional cultural groups such as Colombians (1982) and Latin American immigrants (1978), UNION and UNITY were found to be more popular Hispanic themes involving a fusion or integration of people into larger social units such as the family or community without stressing the separateness of individuals.

Some analogous trends were observable here in the context of TOGETHER-NESS as well. All the Hispanic American student samples stressed TOGETHERNESS of the "family" and various family members ("father," "mother," "brothers," "sisters"). The affective nature of the relationship was also very important to all groups but in different ways. The Anglo American students placed the most emphasis on "sex," probably a contributing factor to many of their references to "love" as well. The more traditional Hispanic groups again emphasized diverse social values, particularly "sharing," and also "help," "trust," "respect," and "understanding," all values involving interdependence and positive interpersonal rapport. "Friends," "friendship," "companionship" were again important considerations for all groups. The Anglo students and the accultured Hispanic American groups spoke more of "girlfriends" and "boyfriends" which goes along with the stronger sexual connotation, while the Puerto Ricans in San Juan stressed "companionship," a theme which has practically no sexual meaning to them.

To Anglo Americans TOGETHERNESS was considered a source of "fun" and "happiness," and the more accultured Hispanic Americans shared this perspective to a large extent. This trend is in agreement with the usual Anglo American concern with need satisfaction, which probably also explains some of their emphasis on "sex" as well.

There was an interesting difference between the Anglo American and the more traditional Hispanic American groups, particularly the students in San Juan. It appears that in thinking of TOGETHERNESS the Anglo Americans clearly had individuals in mind ("people," "boy," "boyfriend," "girlfriend," "friends," etc.) and this tendency was shared apparently by the more accultured Hispanic American groups as well. As a partial contrast, the Puerto Ricans in San Juan thought more in terms of social units, not only "family" but also "community," "society," "country," and "humanity." They also spoke more intensively of "union." The San Juan student group also showed a strong mental connection between TOGETHERNESS and "life" and "existence." This is predicated on the basis of the root of the Hispanic theme CONVIVIENCIA, which is related to living (vivir).

<u>In general</u>, TOGETHERNESS conjured the idea of two or more individuals coming together for various reasons and for the sake of "happiness" and "fun." The Puerto Ricans had in mind larger and more permanent social groups with an emphasis on interdependence and sharing.

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There was relatively little difference on the subjective importance of SEX to the various groups. References to details and specifics of intercourse came mostly from the Anglo American students, followed by the Mexican Americans in Tempe. The San Juan Puerto Ricans and the Cubans made relatively few explicit references.

"Fun" and "pleasure" were also salient elements of SEX for the Anglo and Mexican American students, but not for the Puerto Ricans in San Juan. At the same time, the traditional Hispanic American student groups, the San Juan Puerto Ricans and the Cubans, were by far the strongest in their characterization of SEX as "good," "natural," and "healthy".

The Mexican American students (followed by the Anglo Americans) made the most references to "children," "babies," "family," and "parents." The idea of the female partner was equally salient for all samples. The Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic groups spoke more of "girls," while the Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cuban students thought more in terms of "women." Also, while the term "masculine" was more dominant with the San Juan group, "male"/"macho" was popular with the more accultured groups.

"Love" was the single most dominant association with SEX for all six groups, particularly for the Puerto Ricans and the Cubans. What these groups seem to be emphasizing through references to "love" and other socially relevant value concepts (e.g., "understanding," "friendship," "responsibility," "tenderness") is the importance of the personal ties associated with SEX. "Marriage" and "wife" received generally low levels of attention, probably because the respondents are high school students. There was a generally shared but low level of concern with "disease," "Herpes," and "V.D."

A comparison of the male/female ratio can be used to examine whether SEX stands more for gender than for intercourse. Since the respondents were all males, references to both sexes are indicative of having gender in mind, while references to girls, females, women suggest a narrower focus on the sexual relationship with the opposite sex. The Anglo and more accultured Hispanic American groups' heavy focus on "girls" and "females" suggests a sexual relationship-based interpretation, while the Puerto Ricans' and Cubans' heavier references to both sexes reveal a stronger tendency to use SEX to denote gender as well.

In general, the more accultured Hispanic American samples shared the Anglo Americans' strong and explicit interest in this subject. The more traditional Puerto Ricans in San Juan and the Cubans in Miami showed less explicit interest in SEX, although they characterized it as "good" and "natural."

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GIRLFRIEND/AMIGA

The emphasis on "friendship" and "companionship" was strongest from the Puerto Rican students in San Juan; the Mexican American students in El Paso were in close agreement in this respect. "Love" and affective ties were very important to all the groups but relatively the least to the San Juan Puerto Ricans. To this more traditional, less accultured group GIRLFRIEND means more friend and companion than a relationship characterized by love.

While the Anglo American students scored high on "fun" and "dating," the students in San Juan mentioned "joy" and "going out" with a much lower salience. In contrast, they were interested in "trust," "sincerity," "honesty," and other ideas and virtues hardly mentioned by the Anglo American students.

The GIRLFRIEND's "appearance" received somewhat more uniform attention, but still relatively the least from the San Juan group. The same is true with "personality" and other such attributes as "nice," "friendly," and "sweet." The Mexican American students in Tempe and the Puerto Rican students at both locations made many references to particular girls using their first name and characterizing them as "persons." Along the previously observed general trend to think of people as "good persons," the more traditional, less accultured groups in San Juan and Miami, described the GIRLFRIEND as "good," stressing a social and moral quality. The Puerto Rican and Cuban references to "marriage," "bride" and "family" suggest a generally more traditional and family oriented image and relationship. The Anglo and Mexican American students showed such trends to a much more limited extent. It is consistent with these differences that the San Juan students spoke of GIRLFRIEND more in terms of "sharing," "helping," and "understanding" While the more accultured Hispanic student samples showed similar concerns to a lesser extent, the Anglo American students showed the least concern with this aspect.

The strongest contrast between the Anglo American and the San Juan groups is observable on the more explicitly sex related elements of the image of GIRLFRIEND: "sex," "kissing," "lover." These references were strongest from the Anglo Americans. The other Hispanic American groups also scored high, but the San Juan students made practically no references at all on this dimension.

<u>In general</u>, the image of the GIRLFRIEND showed some particularly rich and meaningful variations. The San Juan students had a very traditional image with practically no references to "sex" while stressing "companionship," "trust," and "family." The Anglo American students thought the most of "sex" and "fun" and gave the least indication of a deeper or more permanent human interest. The more accultured, less traditional Hispanic student groups occupy a more intermediary position on these dimensions. The results indicate that to the San Juan Puerto Ricans GIRLFRIEND (<u>AMIGA</u>) is predominantly a friend who happens to be a girl; to the Anglo and accultured Hispanic Americans GIRLFRIEND implied romantic, sexual involvement. The use of the word <u>NOVIA</u> (fiance) would have made some difference; however, as our previous study with traditional Hispanic groups has shown, <u>novia</u> carries little sexual connotation as well. In Spanish there is no word equivanlent to the U.S. meaning of steady girlfriend.

Summary

The distinction between the accultured and the more traditional Hispanic Americans was a valid and useful one in application to this domain as well. As the following matrix of distance coefficients indicates, the San Juan group again represents the most distant position from the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic American samples. Of the two Mexican American samples, the students from Tempe show the most similarity with the Anglo student sample; some of the contexts in which this similarity was particularly close were sex, girls, cars. The Cuban students have shown more similarity with the San Juan students in many contexts; however, in others they have shown similarity with the Anglo American and the more accultured Hispanic American students.

| Coefficients of Psychocultural | / | Ang Ame | 10 r. | | Mexican American | s Puerto Ricans | Cubar |
|-----------------------------------|---|--------------|----------|-----------|---------------------|----------------------|-------|
| Distance Between Regional Samples | | ast Coast | | El Pas | o /Tempe | New San York Juar | |
| Anglo Americans, East Coast | | | | . 19 | . 16 | .28 .46 | .29 |
| Mexican Americans, El Paso | | • • | • • | | · ·22 | .17 .45 | .20 |
| Mexican Americans, Tempe | | | | | | ·27 .46 | .28 |
| Puerto Ricans, New York | | • • | | | | • • • • 47 | .20 |
| Puerto Ricans, San Juan | | | | | | | -45 |

Table 14. Mean Distances Measured in the Domain of LEISURE TIME.

In the more general context of ENTERTAINMENT, the Anglo and more accultured Hispanic American students placed heavy emphasis on the entertainment media: T.V., movies, shows. The San Juan students in partial contrast, placed heavy emphasis on sports, playing, and games. These trends suggest a somewhat more passive attitude, an expectation of being entertained on the part of the accultured groups, compared to a more active participatory attitude on the part of the more traditionally socialized students.

In response to ENTERTAINMENT the accultured groups thought of "parties," "drinking," and "drugs." The more traditional San Juan students thought of "travel," "adventures," and "fiestas." It is possible that the fiestas may include some drinking and drugs but there was no indication of this in the data from the Puerto Ricans in San Juan. To the contrary the more traditional students described ENTERTAINMENT as "good," "necessary" and "healthy."

There was a great deal of similarity between the accultured and the traditional Hispanic students in their emphasis on "music," "dance," "fun," "amusement," and on "friends" in general. There was a more articulate difference, however, in the nature and sexual undertone of friendship. In

the context of the themes studied, the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic Americans showed a strong tendency to think of sex, including explicit references to sexual relations and to the opposite sex. The more traditional students made very few such references, but thought predominantly in terms of companionship and social characteristics.

The second cluster of themes involved more explicitly sex related subjects: SEX, TOGETHERNESS and GIRLFRIEND. Considering this context it is not surprising that the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic American students consistently made heavy references to "intercourse," "kissing," "lovers" and the opposite sex ("female," "girl," "women"). More surprising was the fact that the San Juan students showed practically none of these tendencies. One explanation could be that they are not used to being so direct and explicit about the subject of sex. The consistency of the findings, however, suggest another explanation, that the English word girlfriend has a more intrinsically sexual connotation than the Spanish word amiga. The reactions by the San Juan Puerto Ricans and occasionally by the Cuban students from Miami showed more than a passive avoidance of explicitly sex related subjects. Their reactions are active manifestations of two different sets of views and attitudes on these subjects.

While both the accultured and the more traditional groups thought a great deal about love, the more traditionally raised students think in terms of friendship and companionship. When thinking of the opposite sex, the San Juan students focused primarily on social qualities such as goodness, understanding, trust, sincerity, and honesty. They also interpreted sex in terms of gender differences rather than in terms of the sex it. Formal ties such as marriage and attitudes of sharing and helping appear to be their more dominant priorities.

Cultural anthropologists with indepth familiarity with traditional overseas cultures are naturally better prepared to anticipate some of these differences. Yet what makes these findings somewhat surprising is their relative clarity and intensity despite the urban, metropolitan background of the San Juan sample. The above trends are even more interesting since they come from high school students (average age between 17-18 years) rather than from fully socialized adults.

Entertainment and sex naturally belong to the more private sphere of life and are of little direct relevance to organizational effectiveness and personnel management. Although this domain falls beyond the realm of organizational measures and personnel incentives, it is informative from the angle of understanding traditional views, identifying main dimensions of contrasts, and recognizing the limits of generalizations about youth.

The results show that the majority of the Hispanic American students differed relatively little from the Anglo American mainstream in their entertainment orientation. The differences were more substantive with the traditionally oriented Puerto Rican students from San Juan and showed a somewhat unanticipated dimension. To the more traditional Hispanic American students entertainment had little intrinsic relationship to sex. Sex was viewed strictly in the context of marital relations. They also placed greater emphasis on sports and relied less on the electronic entertainment media. Drinking and drugs got less attention and the labels "healthy" and "natural" were used much more frequently in this domain by the more traditional Hispanic American students. As a part of their perspective, companionship and friendship were again more central with emphasis on interpersonal ties (love, understanding, sharing).

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CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Indepth Analysis of Hispanic American Cultural Dispositions. The investigations were designed to provide new information on the dominant psychocultural dispositions of Hispanic Americans---Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans. Our interest was focused on information useful in the areas of personnel management, recruitment, retention, communications, and career incentives adapted to the special needs and dispositions of Hispanic Americans.

The findings are based on the comparison of five Hispanic American regional student samples (n=500) and an Anglo American sample (n=100) of comparable age, education, and sex. The conclusions also draw on the findings of an independent study that used five Hispanic American (n=500) and two Anglo American (n=200) regional adult samples.

The method used, the Associative Group Analysis (AGA), is a technique of indepth assessment of dominant perceptual and motivational dispositions. Inferences are drawn from the distribution of hundreds of thousands of free, spontaneous associations produced by selected population samples.

<u>Psychocultural Distance Between Anglo and Hispanic Americans</u>. The first part of the report presents empirically based findings on the relationship of the main Hispanic American populations: Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans. Based on management interest in their human dispositions, perceptions, and motivations, are these groups similar enough so that they can be lumped together or do they require separate attention? How similar are Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans? What is the psychocultural distance between these Hispanic American populations and Anglo Americans? In a marked departure from philosophies tacitly based on a simplistic model of Anglo-Hispanic ethnic bipolarity, the findings show the robust influence of acculturation. They show the practical need for differentiation between highly accultured and traditional Hispanic Americans and suggest two main lines of action for personnel management.

<u>Dominant Perceptions and Evaluations in Domains Relevant to Personnel</u> <u>Management</u>. The second part of the report contains extensive findings on dominant perceptual and motivational dispositions characteristic of Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans, as well as Anglo Americans. The results show how the various regional Hispanic American populations view interethnic and interpersonal relations, how they view the armed services and a career in the military, and how they feel about values such as discipline and order. These perceptions and attitudes bear directly and indirectly on a broad variety of specifics informative and useful to personnel management.

HISPANIC AMERICANS: HETEROGENEITY, ACCULTURATION, DISTANCE FROM ANGLO AMERICANS

<u>The Assumed Anglo-Hispanic Ethnic Bipolarity.</u> It is a rather common trend to assume a bipolar relationship between Hispanic Americans and Anglo

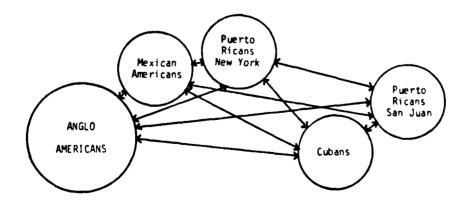
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Americans. As shown by the following figure, this model assumes a large distance between Anglo Americans and Hispanic American groups as opposed to the relatively little distance between the major Hispanic groups.



Figure 10. THE BIPOLAR MODEL OF ANGLO AND HISPANIC AMERICAN INTERETHNIC RELATIONS

<u>The Actual Multipolarity of Cultural Distance Relations</u>. The psychocultural distance data obtained indicate surprisingly close relationships between certain Hispanic groups (e.g., Mexican Americans) and Anglo Americans, and relatively large distances between other Hispanic groups (e.g., San Juan Puerto Ricans) and Anglo Americans. The distances found between the Hispanic American groups vary nearly as broadly as the distances between the Hispanic Americans and Anglo Americans. Contrary to the model of simple ethnic polarity, the findings on the relationship of Hispanic and Anglo Americans suggest a different pattern of interrelationships dominated by the invisible but powerful process of acculturation.





The contrast between the broadly assumed bipolarity and the much more differentiated patterns of intergroup relations charted by our distance measures is distinct and consequential. These patterns are based on psychological dispositions which can influence whether people get along and work well together or are likely to encounter misunderstandings, conflicts, and tensions. Psychocultural differences can critically interfere with some of the most fundamental management objectives. Although such information has broad relevance, we summarize here only a few main points with more apparent and practical implications for personnel policies and personnel management.

<u>Intra-Hispanic Distance Resulting from Acculturation</u>. Probablythe single most consequential finding is the broad diversity of differences between Hispanic Americans due to varying degrees of acculturation to the Anglo American environment. In contrast to the general tendency to consider Hispanic Americans as a single homogeneous group, the present findings offer a foundation for a more differentiated approach. They underscore the importance of distinguishing the traditional Hispanic American populations from the more accultured ones.

The Close Similarity of Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans. The findings show a surprising similarity between Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans (as well as between Anglo Americans and Puerto Ricans in New York). Their high level of acculturation becomes similarly obvious from the large distances the Mexican American groups show from the more traditional Hispanic Americans, particularly the Puerto Rican students in San Juan.

The use of ethnic labels, e.g., "Mexican American" as opposed to "Anglo American", creates a disposition to anticipate large differences between the two groups. In reality, the comparison of three independent Anglo American and four independent Mexican American samples taken from two separate studies produced distance measures between .13 and .21 which were frequently smaller than the distances measured among the Mexican Americans themselves (.10 to .29). To place these distance values in proper perspective it is important to note that a sizable part of these values can be attributed to intra-sample heterogeneity (Anglo American .07, Mexican American .13) measured by randomly splitting the samples in half and calculating their distances.

<u>The Accultured Majority of Hispanic Americans Require Separate</u> <u>Attention Only in a Few Domains</u>. The close similarity found between the <u>Mexican and Anglo American groups suggests that the more accultured Hispanic</u> <u>American populations can be effectively reached</u>, in most respects, by the <u>same approach used toward Anglo Americans</u>. There are a few areas, however, where special situational factors promote an "adaptive reversal" which results in increased rather than reduced distance. They will be discussed later in the context of those particular domains such as ethnic identification and interpersonal relations.

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Addressing the more accultured Hispanic American population by relying predominantly on the same management policies and measures used in the context of the Anglo American mainstream is further supported by the finding that the highly accultured Hispanic majority prefers to use English rather than Spanish in communication. About 85 to 90 percent of the Mexican American and the New York based Puerto Rican students responded in English in the context of the lengthy word association task. The same trend was observed in the previous study based on adult respondents. The only group which showed a significant difference in this respect was the Cuban. More of the Cuban students sampled preferred to respond in English (77%) than did the Cuban adult sample (10%) tested in our previous NIMH study.

Less Accultured Hispanics Require Separate Attention in Practically All Domains. In contrast to the accultured Hispanic Americans (e.g., the Mexican Americans and the Puerto Ricans from New York), the more traditional Hispanic Americans, particularly the Puerto Ricans in San Juan, have perceptual and motivational dispositions markedly different from the Anglo Americans. The high psychocultural distance coefficients clearly reflect these differences: the distances measured between the Anglo Americans and the San Juan Puerto Ricans ranged between .42 and .55. Large distances were also found between the San Juan Puerto Ricans and the accultured Mexican Americans (.40).

These consistent and sizable differences support the recommendation that personnel management should use methods and procedures specifically adapted to traditional Hispanic dispositions in order to attract the less accultured groups such as the San Juan Puerto Ricans and, to a lesser extent, the Cubans from Miami. The empirical evidence suggests the need to shift attention from Anglo-Hispanic differences to accultured versus traditional differences. This requires concentration on a relatively smaller number of traditional Hispanics who require a more intensive adaptation in personnel management. The scope and nature of this adaptation becomes apparent from the details elaborated in Part II; however, before addressing specific differences which call for special measures of adaptation, two sets of additional findings will be presented.

<u>Consistency in Cultural Distances Across Domains</u>. The distance coefficients obtained at the level of specific domains show certain variations, indicating, for instance, that ethnic images and the broader area of interpersonal relations are characterized by above average distances. These findings support previous observations (1978) that when considering the relationship of the Anglo American and Hispanic American cultures, the broad area of interpersonal and social relations deserves special attention. At the same time, there is a remarkable consistency across domains in the intercultural distances measured between any two groups. For example, the distances measured between San Juan Puerto Ricans and Anglo Americans were, in every domain, larger than the differences between New York Puerto Ricans and Anglo Americans.

<u>The Importance of Culture as a Main Source of Perceptual and</u> <u>Motivational Differences</u>. In general, sex, age, economic background and other sociodemographic variables are well recognized sources of potential differences which can affect organizational climate and personnel effectiveness. There is less consensus about ethnic/cultural influences mainly because of the scarcity of empirical data. Our comparative study of adult Hispanic and Anglo American samples offers some relevant insights based on empirical foundations. The results showed substantially greater importance of culture as a variable affecting perceptions and attitudes compared to the other major variables mentioned. The distances found between high and low income groups were relatively moderate (see Figure 7), partially because the differences separating the high and low income levels were also moderate. Sex and age were also found to have relatively moderate effects on the distances measured, at least when compared to the cultural differences (see Figures 8 and 9). In all these comparisons, the Anglo Americans showed the most homogeneity and the Puerto Ricans the least. That is, the distances between the Anglo American rich and poor or male and female subsamples were smaller than those found between the Mexican American or the Puerto Rican subsamples.

In light of our results, the more traditional Hispanic Americans may indeed constitute a relative minority. Nonetheless, the results also show that this minority of the Hispanic minority is characterized by highly distinct perceptual and motivational dispositions which deserve separate individual attention. The second part of our report presents comparative results on the accultured and traditional Hispanic Americans' views and attitudes on subjects relevant to personnel management.

The Need for Different Approaches Toward Accultured and Traditional Hispanic Americans. The findings derived in the present study and the recent NIMH study, as well as findings from several of our previous studies involving various Hispanic/Latin American samples, show sufficient consistency to recommend the following approach: a) to move from the Anglo-Hispanic ethnic distinction to a differentiation between accultured and traditional Hispanic Americans based on their marked differences in management relevant psychocultural dispositions, b) to approach accultured Hispanic Americans, which include the majority of Mexican Americans living in California, Arizona, and Texas, and Puerto Ricans living in the large cities of the eastern United States, by essentially using the same communications, incentives, and management methods developed for the U.S. mainstream while complementing it in a few important areas (ethnic identification, close interpersonal ties), and c) to develop a pilot program specifically designed to reach traditional Hispanic Americans, e.g., Puerto Ricans from the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, recently immigrated Latin Americans, Cubans, etc.

The need for different approaches becomes increasingly obvious from the following findings summarized from various domains of our comparisons of Anglo and Hispanic images. At this point the options available to management are numerous. While the following data can be used to support diverse approaches, it would be premature to elaborate on specific details prior to such a management decision.

INTERETHNIC RELATIONS---The Domain of Great Diversity

The findings on how the various Hispanic American regional groups are predisposed to identify themselves in terms of ethnicity offer several important pieces of information. <u>Sensitivities Attached to Ethnic Labels</u>. There are frequently strong sensitivities about ethnic labels; they can easily carry negative connotations of which the user may not be aware. Choosing the proper label is a particularly delicate question in reference to such large and diverse ethnic populations as the Hispanic American. Our findings indicated that Hispanic Americans vary in their primary identifications as well as in the meanings they attach to these ethnic labels. From the angle of effective communication, it is naturally not enough to avoid labels which carry negative connotation; it is also essential to know how the particular groups actually identify themselves.

"Hispanic American," the Most Accepted Collective Name. This is the most positive and most universally acceptable label for all the groups compared (Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans). "Latino" is quite popular with the Cubans, but even they identify themselves more as "Hispanic American." This label had the richest meaning for the San Juan students whose reactions indicate that in their mind "Hispanic American" stands rather exclusively for Puerto Ricans. The Mexican Americans and the Cubans use "Hispanic American" much more inclusively, identifying many other culture groups as well.

"Puerto Rican," "Mexican American," and "Cuban" as Labels of Primary Identification. As labels of primary identification, "Mexican American," "Cuban," or "Puerto Rican" are more popular and useful. The Mexican Americans also use the word "Chicano" with some regional variation. There are also several indications that despite frequent references to themselves as "Chicanos," the best and most widely accepted label free of negative connotations is "Mexican American".

Ethnic Self-Images Affected by Acculturation. A comparison of the self-images of the more accultured Hispanic Americans with the self-images of the more traditional Hispanic Americans shows how acculturation affects ethnic identification. The more traditional Hispanic Americans think of Hispanic Americans primarily in terms of human qualities such as good, friendly, amiable, loving, and understanding. These attributes are similar to those which the accultured Hispanic Americans use to describe themselves as individuals, reflected by their individual self image. As a result of the acculturation process the ethnic self image loses its original focus on personal qualities, particularly on socially relevant attributes and affect-laden personal ties. The emphasis shifts more toward cultural customs, folklore, food preferences, and geographic locations. Yet, even when the ethnic self-image becomes less akin to the subjective self-image and even when it becomes more distant and stereotypical, it still retains a great deal of affective identification.

<u>Ambivalence Toward Anglo Americans</u>. The ethnic image of Anglo Americans naturally contains both positive and negative evaluations. The comparison of physically separated groups (e.g., Puerto Ricans in San Juan) with groups which live together with Anglo Americans indicates that their close proximity results in increasing ambivalence. While living together results in more familiarity with each other, it also leads to more intensive likings and dislikings, to views which are both more positive and more critical. Interestingly, this same trend was observed not only in the Hispanic Americans image of the Anglo Americans, but also in the Anglo American image of the Puerto Ricans.

Ethnic Images Show the Most Diversity. The greatest psychocultural distances were found in the domain of ethnic identification. The diversity is rooted primarily in each group's affect-laden identification with different backgrounds, roots, and symbolism. Ethnic diversity was found to be much greater than cultural diversity. That is, differences in ethnic identification were found to be substantially greater than in the subjective views and evaluations of the other domains representing the various spheres of our physical and social environment. While the cultural differences could be represented by a relatively simple duality of Anglo and accultured Hispanic Americans versus the traditional Hispanic Americans, the differences are substantially greater and call for more attention.

Special Sensitivities Require Special Attention. Even the very accultured Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans do require special recognition of their ethnic heritage. Attention should be focused on those details which assure that their ethnic identity is recognized and that their related interests are observed and assured. Special programs may encompass such areas as: a) a formal recognition of ethnic heritages; b) elaboration of the equal employment/equal rights policies and the various routes and mechanisms to ensure equal opportunities; c) a description of special programs available to Hispanic Americans and other ethnic minorities, including all the details the servicemen need to know to take advantage of these opportunities; and d) a repeated review of equal rights procedures and progress, accompanied by a discussion of regulations and procedures aimed at assuring adherence to the principle of pluralism. The results of the present study offer a great deal of specific detail which could be used in carrying out such tasks in the future.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS---The Most Important Differences Between Anglo and Hispanic Americans

The findings on interpersonal relations deserve special attention because of the exceptional importance human relations and personal rapport have for Hispanic Americans. Previous in-depth studies (1978) have suggested that interpersonal relations is the most important and most central domain in understanding the differences between the two cultures.

<u>The Most Marked Differences with Anglo Americans</u>. Two contrasting patterns of interpersonal relations emerged: Anglo individualistic and Hispanic social personalistic modalities. The traditional Hispanic Americans were found throughout these investigations to show consistent and salient concerns with affect-laden, warm, interdependent, interpersonal relations. They emphasized love, friendship, understanding, loyalty, respect, and obligation compared to the Anglo American emphasis on individual freedom, independence, autonomy, self-reliance, assertiveness, competitiveness and other values of individualism. <u>The Domain Where the Acculturation Process is the Slowest</u>. Although the accultured Hispanic Americans show close similarity with the Anglo Americans, the acculturation process appears to progress more slowly here than in most of the other domains. Here the differences are still sizable as well as consequential. Also, the few instances of adaptive reversal observed in these investigations were found mainly in this field of interpersonal relations. In these cases the otherwise accultured Hispanic American groups were found to show larger differences with the Anglo Americans than the traditional Hispanic Americans. For instance, the Puerto Rican students in New York were found to show more reliance on the family and on parents and relatives than the Puerto Rican students in San Juan. Although these differences can be explained by the conditions of living in a foreign cultural environment, again, a deeper understanding of these paradoxical differences requires familiarity with the traditional Hispanic family relations.

Special Relevance to Service Motivation. Considering the attention the traditional Hispanic Americans paid to human rapport and to social relations in the context of work and military career, this domain is especially important to personnel management. While the traditional Hispanic Americans have shown at least as much interest as the Anglo Americans in money and other material benefits, there were many indications that wealth and material abundance were also valued for their social correlates, that is, as sources of social position, respect, and recognition. These observations suggest that the traditional Hispanic emphasis on interpersonal relations and the social dimension offers considerable potential for enhancing service motivation. The findings that traditional Hispanic Americans do not look at military service primarily as a well paid or a not well paid job, their acceptance of discipline, order, obedience as positive values intrinsic to interpersonal relations, and their positive attitude toward leadership, both civilian and military, suggest that they view social relations in a service career quite differently and that they assign it more importance. In other words, the interest of the traditionally oriented Hispanic Americans in the social dimension offers for management some new opportunities for attracting talented, physically fit young people to join the military services and to follow it as a career path.

<u>The Key Domain for Reaching Traditional Hispanic Americans</u>. Since the traditional Hispanic Americans represent a minority even within the Hispanic American population, it may be objected that a disproportionate amount of attention has been spent on them. In view of their relative minority status and the special attention they require, it would be premature to go into detailed recommendations here. Generally speaking, we should point out that the recruitment of traditional Hispanic Americans would require some special effort, taking into consideration certain psychocultural characteristics of this population which suggest their natural inclination to make outstanding servicemen in general and Marines in particular.

<u>The Need for Special Measures in Recruitment and Monagement</u>. In reaching traditional Hispanic Americans, emphasis should be on opportunities the service offers for close interpersonal relations and social recognition. At least in an initial stage this would require more reliance on the Spanish language as the main medium of communication in advertising and recruitment. Appeals focused on the interpersonal dimensions may involve such specifics as addressing parents and relatives as well as the potential recruits because of the family members' influence on the youths' decisions. Identifying themes that are likely to have appeal and developing effective communication are issues which can be addressed on the basis of our present investigations to meet the requirements posed by particular contexts and situations.

Successful implementation of such personnel policies naturally requires measures specifically adapted to traditional Hispanic Americans. This could include special orientation and educational programs, and the formation of specialized training units adapted to meet the needs and dispositions characteristic of the more traditional Hispanic American recruits. It could also involve development of service incentives with special appeal to the more traditionally oriented Hispanic Americans. Again, our research findings provide extensive information which can be used along such objectives. Such programs could be developed first on a trial basis in the form of a pilot project. They could include various levels of English courses to improve the language skills of Hispanic Americans who speak little English.

WORK, ACHIEVEMENT---Important Differences in Motivation

Contrary to superficial stereotypes suggesting that Hispanic Americans are less work oriented than Anglo Americans, new results indicate that what is at issue is not active versus passive attitudes toward work, but a difference in the goals or conditions which motivate people to work. The substantial differences found between the Anglo and accultured Hispanic Americans compared to the traditional Hispanic Americans in their approach to work present a special challenge for personnel management. While some of the differences bear on both civilian and military work settings, others apply more specifically to the military. The differences between the accultured and the traditional Hispanic Americans are even greater with regard to military service than to civilian work.

Different People Work for Different Reasons or Objectives. With regard to work, Anglo and accultured Hispanic Americans were found to place special weight on achievement. In light of the pioneering studies of McClelland and Atkinson this is not new in itself. What appears to be new is the indication that what matters here is not the level of productivity or the work actually performed, but rather the sense of achievement. Because the sense of achievement is in most instances inseparable from actual achievement, this distinction may appear inconsequential. Yet without this distinction some of the Anglo and Hispanic differences may appear incomprehensible; the Hispanic Americans speak of achievement but in a more tangible, material sense than the Anglo Americans.

Achievement, Immediate Or Long-Range Satisfaction. The Anglo and accultured Hispanic Americans view work and education in and of themselves

as sources of satisfaction. With regard to career the accultured groups emphasize success, achievement, and enjoyment. The more traditional Hispanics place emphasis on the instrumentality and utility of work as a means of meeting certain goals (e.g., money, social status). The less accultured groups also show more concern with the future, goals, and high prestige occupations. In other words, the Anglo and accultured Hispanic Americans are preoccupied with more immediate concerns, whereas the less accultured Hispanics are looking toward long-range objectives.

The Traditional Hispanic Americans' Concern With Future, Goals, and Although the Anglo and accultured Hispanic groups emphasize Benefits. achievement in those contexts where it is of practical importance (e.g., work, education, career, etc.), achievement in itself elicits less attention from them than from the more traditional Hispanic Americans who stress achievement as a long-range goal with emphasis on its utility and instrumentality. Achievement to the Puerto Ricans from San Juan is viewed in terms of long-range success in life as opposed to the immediate objectives and concerns characteristic of Anglo American work motivation. The San Juan group emphasizes goals and the future in general, particularly long-term goals such as a career and profession and the effort needed to obtain such long-term objectives. While the Anglo and accultured Hispanic Americans stress the present, immediate performance and the inner drive, the San Juan group is more preoccupied with the future, long-range benefits and external motivation.

Motivational Differences Relevant to Personnel Management. From the angle of personnel management, the findings suggest that achievement and success are at least as important and appealing to the Hispanic American groups as they are to the Anglo Americans; however, their interpretation is quite different. Again, the main difference is not between Anglo and Hispanic Americans in general, but between the highly accultured Hispanic Americans (the Mexican Americans and New York Puerto Ricans) and the more traditional Hispanic Americans (primarily the San Juan Puerto Ricans and to a lesser extent the Cubans). This suggests that in personnel management the same work incentives can be used for the Mexican Americans as for the Anglo American mainstream. For the traditional Hispanic Americans a different approach is required, one which recognizes achievement as an important instrument toward attaining success and other more specific goals. Since achievement is not in itself a strong motivating factor for the traditional Hispanic Americans, additional incentives must be used. What these incentives may be depends naturally on the context and situation. Social considerations have special importance for these groups and there are indications that their attention given to financial, material factors such as money and wealth has a strong social foundation as well.

MILITARY SERVICE---A Job or an Adventure?

Rather than between Anglo Americans and Hispanic Americans in general, the major differences in perceptions and attitudes are between the accultured and more traditional Hispanic groups. Comparisons reveal two different orientations which convey contrasting perspectives.

Traditional Value Orientation Creates Favorable Predispositions Toward the Service. Recruiting the more traditional Hispanic Americans presents different problems. On the positive side, this group shows remarkably little conflict with the military and leadership values examined. With both civilian and military leadership roles, and such values as authority. discipline, order, and obedience, the Puerto Ricans from San Juan and the Cubans from Miami were found to have positive attitudes. There seems to be a natural affinity between the views of these more traditionally raised Hispanic Americans and the life conditions and value orientations of the From the angle of personnel management, this means that military. recruitment of traditional Hispanics would not be disadvantaged by value conflicts. And there is probably a better opportunity for the military to attract the best and the brightest from the more traditional Hispanic American population. These advantages would be especially relevant to the Marine Corps.

Accultured and Traditional Hispanic Americans Call for Different Approaches in Recruitment. The main problem in the recruitment of traditional Hispanic Americans is that they require separate, carefully adapted methods: a) Spanish should be used predominantly in communication, b) communications and institutional measures have to take the dominant perceptual and motivational dispositions of these populations into careful consideration, and c) communications, orientation, and training should promote adaptation by appealing to the dominant psychocultural dispositions of the traditional Hispanic Americans, such as their emphasis on close interpersonal relations, on social values such as love, friendship, respect and goodness, and on work subordinated to goals and objectives. Much of the material necessary for the development of such a management strategy can be taken from the results of this study.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS, METHODOLOGICAL CONCLUSIONS

The extensive data on dominant Hispanic and Anglo American research reported here produced views and attitudes pertinent to interpersonal relations, work, and service orientation. At a more basic and general level the results demonstrate a new capability to trace important dimensions of the subconscious and the process of acculturation; they offer new information for cultural sensitization and training; they suggest alternative methods for studying perceptual and attitudinal dispositions relevant to recruitment and retention in organizations with a large multiethnic composition.

Subjective Culture--- A System of Subjective Views and Values

<u>Culture as a Perceptual/Motivational System</u>. Probably the most fundamental insights provided by this research are about little recognized characteristics of culture as an invisible but powerful psychological reality. As the internal consistency of the results demonstrates, culture is more than an aggregate of isolated characteristics. It is a system of views and values, a system of subjective representation of the environment Egalitarian Versus Authoritarian View of Leadership. With regard to leadership, the Anglo and the more accultured Hispanic Americans were found to have more critical and negative attitudes than the more traditional Hispanic groups. These attitudes reflect an egalitarian value orientation. The more traditional Puerto Ricans from San Juan and Cubans from Miami have a predominantly, if not an exclusively, positive image of leadership. The traditional Hispanics' leadership ideal is reminiscent of the benevolent, caring patron.

<u>The Differential Popularity of Military Values</u>. The values of discipline, order, and obedience, as well as others with relevance to military life, were found to be rather unpopular with Anglo Americans, Mexican Americans and the accultured Puerto Ricans. In sharp contrast the Puerto Ricans from San Juan and, to a lesser extent, the Cubans from Miami express positive attitudes toward these same values which are viewed as sources of peace, success, and happiness.

<u>A Job Oriented Image of Military Service by Accultured Hispanics.</u> The Anglo Americans' images of the military services and career contain some critical elements and reflect a predominantly job oriented frame of reference. The accultured Hispanic Americans show similar job oriented views and also some negative attitudes toward military values like discipline, but they also display a more active interest in the military service. Interest in specific branches of the military is particularly strong from the Puerto Ricans in New York. Their strong job orientation and interest in the military services is probably a consequence of the tight contemporary job market.

<u>War, Fighting, Adventure Dominant in the Traditional Hispanics' Images</u> of <u>Military Service</u>. The more traditional Hispanic Americans (Puerto Ricans in San Juan, Cubans in Miami) pay special attention to military values, to the attractiveness of careers which involve adventure and new experiences, and to the social prestige associated with the services. To the San Juan Puerto Ricans in particular, the image of the military services also involves more preoccupation with conventional military activities (fighting, war), and is seen less as a job opportunity than as a new and unconventional experience and adventure. These consistent differences indicate that the military services and a military career are viewed rather differently by the accultured and the more traditionally oriented Hispanic Americans.

<u>The Most Active Job Interest is Shown by Accultured Students</u>. From the angle of the recruitment of accultured Hispanic Americans, their job oriented view of the services and their expressed interest in military service are advantages which assure their availability. Nonetheless, their somewhat negative attitudes toward military leadership and military values suggest value conflicts with two potential disadvantages. First, those who sign up may do so because they are not the most talented and most prepared to compete in the civilian job market, and secondly, because of value conflicts, those who develop marketable skills during their service may be less inclined to stay in the military. organized and shaped by the dominant perspectives of people of the same background and similar experiences. With regard to their economic status or educational performance, Hispanic Americans can be usefully characterized by their average income level or drop-out rate compared to Black or White Americans on a nationwide basis. Similar comparisons obtained on Hispanic attitudes (e.g., toward abortion or the legalization of marijuana) may tell us precious little about the Hispanic culture.

<u>Understanding Hispanic Americans Through Their Dominant Cultural</u> Perspectives. As suggested by the findings, in-depth descriptions of a culture require the identification of the dominant perceptual and motivational dispositions, which provide the main parameters of the group's system of subjective representation of their environment. Understanding Hispanic Americans requires that we look at the world from the Hispanic perspective; that we understand their view of people as persons connected by strong affective ties and obligations and, that for them, satisfaction and happiness can come from meeting the expectations of others and from gaining their respect, that their identification with social units of the family or the community can lead to strong feelings of interdependence, and that this is just as natural as the Anglo individualistic approach to interpersonal relations based on freedom, independence, assertiveness, and competitive-In a similar way it is hardly possible to understand the U.S. ness. American culture without understanding the deep psychological meaning of self-reliance and autonomy which are at the very foundation of American individualism.

Dominant Cultural Perspectives Determine the Main Patterns of People's Perceptions and Evaluations of the Environment. It is informative to observe the great consistency with which the San Juan group, for example, views interpersonal relations in the family, friendships within the community and society, all from the perspective of affective identification and interdependence. It is similarly impressive to observe how the selforiented, individualistic perspectives of the Anglo Americans influence practically all their social relations. The depth and consistency of these different patterns of relationships underscore the systemic nature of cultural views organized along different perspectives. These systemic characteristics, which emerge with special clarity from the present results, form the core of our subjective culture model as a system of subjective representation and serve as the foundation of the following recommendations.

Management of Cultural Differences Generated by Acculturation

Acculturation as the Main Source of Hispanic Diversity Involves Differences in the Distinctness of Cultural Patterns. The results show the important role of acculturation as a major source of diversity among Hispanic American groups. The findings also show, however, that in many instances the accultured Hispanic Americans (e.g., Mexican Americans, New York based Puerto Ricans) differ from the Anglo Americans along similar trends in perceptions and evaluations as the relatively unaccultured Cubans or Puerto Ricans from San Juan. While there are some deviations, in the majority of cases the accultured versus traditional differences were found mainly in the articulateness or prevalence of what we may identify as traditional Hispanic patterns. These patterns were generally distinct and articulate with the Puerto Ricans and much less so with the Mexican Americans. In other words, the cultural diversity found among Hispanic Americans does not, in most instances, involve different patterns (but is predominantly a variation in the relative strength of the traditional patterns).

<u>The Need for a Sensitive Acculturation Measure</u>. The pervasive importance of acculturation as a primary source of Hispanic American diversity calls for the development of a sensitive acculturation continuum that would allow the positioning of particular groups along a traditional Hispanic American/U.S. American acculturation continuum. The test should be designed to measure the overall level of acculturation as well as its progress in selected major domains. Since this task requires the identification of perceptual and motivational trends, dispositions below the level of rational judgments or conscious awareness, the use of unstructured open-ended research techniques is highly desirable.

Sensitization and Training for Cultural Understanding

<u>Training Focused on Patterns of Related Perceptual and Motivational</u> <u>Dispositions</u>. Rather than learning some isolated, stereotypical characteristics like Hispanics are "proud" or "emotional," to improve communication and to establish rapport with Hispanics requires learning how the world looks from the Hispanic cultural perspective. This involves emphasis on certain characteristics and relationships which are salient in their representational system of the social and physical environment. Each system has its own priorities and its own pattern of relationships. The findings that acculturation is a gradual process and that even the very accultured retain, to a somewhat lesser extent, the Hispanic patterns of perceptions and evaluations suggest that in training these patterns deserve considerable practical attention.

<u>Traditional Trends Have Broad Explanatory Value Even in Application to</u> <u>Accultured Hispanic Americans</u>. Even if the level of their articulation varies, the prevalence of certain cultural dispositions makes it possible to offer a general sensitization on a broad, common foundation. It follows from the patterned, relational nature of cultural dispositions that this educational task can be best approached by relying on the articulate cultural trends and patterns characteristic of traditional, least accultured Hispanic Americans. Such an approach is justified even if Hispanic Americans little affected by the Anglo Americans represent a minority. It is a well established educational principle that patterns of relationships can be more easily learned and understood if presented in their most articulate form. This is the reason for the intensive attention we have paid in this report to the perceptual and motivational trends of traditional Hispanic Americans.

Reorientation in Research Strategy

Research on public policy and management relies predominantly on survey methods; this applies to the study of ethnic/cultural factors as well. It is important to know how Hispanics fare with regard to employment, school attendance, use of English, and attitudes toward bilingual education. Asking these questions in the framework of scientific surveys will provide nationwide generalizations. Since these survey results are needed and useful, a natural tendency has developed to use these structured methods as an instrument to study psychocultural differences as well. The results of our in-depth studies suggest, however, that structimed surveys have some undesirable limitations.

<u>Culture as a System of Psychological Dispositions Calls for In-depth</u> <u>Assessment</u>. The results show that culture as a human, psychological factor is more than a single characteristic and more than an aggregate of isolated characteristics. It is a system of characteristics which are internally interrelated and interdependent and form enduring patterns of interrelations. The assessment of systems of dominant perceptual and motivational representations requires more than asking some ad hoc questions or opinions relevant to the interest of the investigator. It requires an in-depth psychological assessment focused on the dominant parameters of their system of perceptions and evaluations, the enduring patterns of their relationships.

<u>Broad Intra-Hispanic Differences Make the Value of Nationwide Averages</u> <u>Questionable.</u> In describing Hispanic American cultural dispositions, the findings show that even if some mean achievement motivation scores or mean work attitude scores are available on the basis of nationwide representativeness, the meaning of these scores is rather questionable. One source of ambiguity is that, as our data show, words such as "achievement" have quite different cultural meanings for accultured Hispanic Americans and for traditional Hispanic Americans. A second source of ambiguity is the broad cultural diversity found by our studies among Hispanic Americans. While this diversity can be described with relative simplicity and parsimony along the traditional unaccultured change continuum, an attempt to describe Hispanic Americans by a series of isolated attitude or opinion scores appears to bear only on the statistical abstraction of the "average Hispanic American."

<u>The Need for Nondirective, Unstructured Methods</u>. Some of the most important dimensions of motivational dispositions, that is, some of the most dominant parameters of the culturally characteristic system of subjective representation, are not accessible through direct opinion questions. This leads us to conclude that for the in-depth study of psychocultural dispositions, nondirective, unstructured methods focused on the dominant parameters of the system are desirable.

Using a Matrix of Regional Samples Rather than Aiming at National Averages. The broad diversity of the traditional and accultured Hispanic American populations indicates that we should abandon attempts to approach culture through aggregates of scores involving national averages, all obtained by throwing different populations together into the same bag. What we propose is working through the in-depth analysis of a matrix of population samples, drawn from all the main geographic regions: East, Midwest, West, North, and South. Comparisons of the analyzed results performed on populations representing the main cells of such a regional matrix can offer detailed and valid findings which will show regional variations, similarities as well as differences.

<u>Using Samples of Matching Sociodemographic Composition to Trace the</u> <u>Effects of Culture and Other Analytical Variables.</u> The findings of the present investigations support the strategy of using cultural samples of comparable sociodemographic composition rather than statistically representative samples. In this way we can ensure that the differences found between culture groups are not due to such variables as sex, age, income, etc. This strategy receives empirical support from the present findings, primarily through the psychocultural distance data. They show the importance of culture or acculturation as the most powerful single variable as compared to the effects of such sociodemographic variables as income, age, or sex. Consequently, even if some of the samples fail to meet the ideal quotas originally determined for obtaining matching populations, small deviations in income or age will not interfere significantly with the main trends reflected by the findings. The effects of more sizable deviations in one variable or another can be calculated and used for adjustment

<u>Complementing Traditional Surveys with In-Depth Psychocultural</u> <u>Assessments Based on a Matrix of Regional Population Samples</u>. Following this rationale, in the study of populations of different ethnic backgrounds, it is desirable to complement the traditional extensive surveys with indepth assessments. A research strategy developed along his rationale may rely on testing matching subsamples of a particular ethnic minority in various geographic locations and representing various lifestyles (e.g., urban-rural, segregated and integrated communities, etc.) By comparing major segments of populations and mapping their internal diversity along major demographic variables, such as income and age, we can expect to gain more humanly and socially relevant knowledge than by martialling efforts on the statistical abstractions of average Anglos or Hispanic Americans.

Obtaining a More Complete Picture of Cultural Similarities and Differences. While the present research offers new data to reconstruct some of the basic parameters of the cultural variations of Hispanic Americans, the number of samples was too small for the demanding task of reconstructing the whole picture. Parallel to offering some new information relevant to personnel management, we hope to stimulate research which will fill a sufficiently large number of cells in a new matrix. Such a data base is highly desirable for assisting the personnel management of the Armed Services in meeting the human needs and requirements posed by their changed ethnic composition.

The Present Findings Provide New and Solid Information for Management. The task of careful and detailed mapping of the varied landscape of Hispanic psychocultural dispositions requires considerable additional research; however, the present research findings and those which have emerged from several independent studies are consistent and conclusive enough to warrant generalizable conclusions along certain major parameters. Of special relevance are the findings on the width of intra-Hispanic diversity, the order and magnitude of difference between the accultured and traditional Hispanic American populations, the critical distinctions between ethnic identification, and the psychocultural dispositions which are predominantly subconscious and hidden.

The scope and nature of psychocultural differences found between Anglo Americans and Hispanic Americans in combination with the differences observed between the various Hispanic American populations suggests that these new results on invisible but powerful psychocultural factors are of considerable potential value for effective management.

<u>The Diverse Applications Require New Management Decisions and</u> <u>Individual Considerations</u>. The findings offer new opportunities to address numerous broad areas of practical relevance such as:

* the development of effective themes and messages to reach various Hispanic American populations through effective recruitment campaigns and advertisements;

* the development of organizational measures and policies to attract and retain bright, young Hispanic Americans who have strong natural dispositions to become successful members of the armed services;

* the development of sound and attractive role models based on the success and example of Hispanic Americans who have earned esteem and recognition for themselves and for Hispanic Americans through their military career;

* the development of orientation and training material and programs which take the dominant psychocultural dispositions of various populations into semantic consideration and can be used with optimal effects to promote the socialization of Hispanic Americans into the Armed Services.

To take full advantage of the information in these investigations naturally requires an application of the data to the dominant organizational objectives and their subsequent translation into specific programs. Although the information lends itself to various applications, each specific area will require individual attention and systematic adaptation to management objectives.

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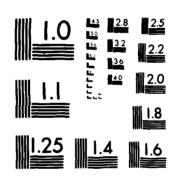
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APPENDIX I

APPROACHING SUBJECTIVE CULTURE THROUGH PSYCHOLOGICAL MEANINGS

The approach used in this research to assess the psychocultural characteristics of different groups relies on the operationalization of four main concepts: psychological meaning, system of representation, subjective culture, and psychocultural distance.

KEY CONCEPTS

<u>Psychological meaning</u> is conceived as a subjective reaction of the system of subjective representation of the environment, a natural unit in the organization of human behavior. As Osgood (1957) puts it: "Of all the imps that inhabit the nervous system---that little black box in psychological theorizing---the one we call meaning is held by common consent to be the most elusive. Yet again by common consent of social scientists, this variable is one of the most important determinants of human behavior."

It is essential that psychological meaning not be confused with lexical meaning. In a lexical sense, the meaning of the word "drug," for instance, is its referent, a substance with medicinal effects. This meaning depends on linguistic convention and is fairly stable. The psychological meaning of "drug" depends only to a limited extent on the actual referent; it is primarily a subjective reaction which varies from person to person or from group to group. A Christian Scientist and a drug addict are likely to have different psychological meanings for "drug" based on their different experiences and different systems of subjective representation of what they consider "reality."

Psychological meaning is a composite reaction, what Osgood (1968) describes as a "multicomponential affair." In everyday language, for instance, we may say that an individual's meaning of "drug" includes elements of visual images (white pill), contexts of use (headache), brands (Bayer), affective reactions (bitter taste, dislike), and function (restoration of health). The salience of these cognitive and evaluative components varies depending on their subjective importance. Within a subculture of drug addicts, pleasure will probably assume high salience. Similarly, frequent references by Christian Scientists to sin suggest that in their subjective view of drugs sin is a salient element.

<u>System of Subjective Representation</u> refers to a system of subjective meanings which people develop in the process of learning about the external world and evolving a subjective map, a more or less coherent system of their own subjective representation of the universe. This concept is analogous to Tolman's "cognitive map," Whorf's "thought world", Kaplan's and Oatley's "cognitive representation," Cantril's "reality world." etc. Kaplan (1973) explains the development of this subjective representation as a process whereby the individual extracts from the environment, from the myriad objects and situations, constant elements, schemes of representation. This system makes it possible to cope with constantly changing situations and successfully adapt to them. According to Down and Stea's characterization (1973), this system is formed of complex, highly selective, abstract and generalized representations. People of similar background and similar experiences tend to develop over time similar systems of subjective representations, shared perceptions, values, world views, that is, a shared culture.

Subjective culture may be viewed as a group-specific cognitive organization, a system of representation of the universe composed of the mosaic elements of psychological meanings. How people organize their "thought worlds"---what is related to what in their representation of the universe---depends largely on their psychological meanings, their subjective understanding. Related themes, those with similar psychological meanings (psychiatrists, mental illness, treatment), cluster together to form larger cognitive units which we call domains (e.g., the domain of "mental health"). The relationship between domains (e.q., between "mental health" and "science" or "mental health" and "religion") reflects the organization of the cognitive map each group develops in its representation of the universe. Furthermore, groups vary in the importance they assign to different domains of life. This vertical dimension of priorities is particularly important for behavior, because domains that are considered important are likely to attract more interest and represent stronger motivational forces than domains of low importance. A third important aspect of subjective culture is evaluations or attitudes, whether a particular group feels positive or negative about certain aspects of life.

<u>Psychocultural distance</u> is conceived as the distance between two groups in respect to their cognitive organizations---their perceptions of and attitudes toward their subjective worlds. In simpler terms, we may say that psychocultural distance involves differences in the characteristic ways of thinking of people with different sociocultural backgrounds. Whichever definition we use, it is apparent that assessment of psychocultural distance requires some sort of systematic comparison between two subjective cultures, two representational systems.

As in this conceptualization psychological meanings constitute the elementary units of subjective culture, it is natural to conceive similarities and differences in psychological meanings as a major dimension of psychocultural distance. Along this line we may assume that the more difference there is between two groups in their meanings of important themes, the greater will be their distance.

It is clear that cultures assign different importance of particular themes. Such a recognition has two immediate implications at this point. First, the differential distribution of cultural priorities implies that if the comparison is made on the basis of higher-order priorities of only one culture, it will probably not cover all the important cultural priorities of the other culture; such an analysis would be likely to produce wrong estimates of the psychocultural distance between them. Thus, a systematic assessment of cultural distance should include the priorities of both cultures. Second, the assessment of each individual order of priorities becomes an important dimension of comparison. It is logical to assume that the more closely two groups are similar in their priorities, the less will be their distance.

Groups also frequently disagree in their attitudes and values. It is fairly common to find differences between groups in whether they like or dislike particular people or ideas. More disagreement in attitudes and evaluations naturally leads to greater distance.

Word associations offer empirical information on each of these dimensions of the group; s subjective culture. In general, word associations offer a broad and rich empirical data base on which groups can be compared. Using dominant themes and their translations as stimulus themes makes it possible to elicit reactions in comparable contexts. Comparability is particularly difficult to achieve in the study of cultures because a particular sign, event, or behavior does not necessarily have the same meaning across cultures. For instance, white robes may be worn in one culture at weddings, in other at funerals. Word associations reflect natural units of cognitive organization that are relatively stable and fundamental elements of cognitive processes. Through strategic choices, it is possible to select relatively small samples of dominant themes which provide for the representation of broad domains including dozens, even hundreds, of themes. Similarly, through a strategic selection it is possible to focus on the culturally most dominant domains and disregard domains of lesser cultural importance, thereby reducing an apparently unmanageable task to manageable proportions.

An empirical approach to the assessment of subjective culture has been developed. In its general form this approach involves a three-step data collection procedure (Szalay and Maday, 1973; Szalay and Bryson, 1973). consisting of (a) assessment of the high-priority cultural domains; (b) identification of themes that are culturally representative of these high-priority domains; (c) development of a master stimulus list containing the high-priority domains and their themes. The master stimulus list, which is translated into each group; snative language if necessary, is used to elicit extensive reactions from the culture groups in a broad variety of context of comparable importance to each group.

It is important to select themes that represent to a similar extent the subjective priorities of all groups involved. Group A can be studied in terms of its own priorities, and it can also be explored how its highest-priority domains and themes are perceived, understood, and evaluated by Group B---for which these same themes may or may not have similarly high priority. Nonetheless, such a comparison will not show how the Groups A and B relate to each other on equal terms, but merely in terms of the domains and themes dominant to Group A. A similar bias may be present if the dominant thems of Group B serve as the basis of determining similarities. To eliminate biased selection, it is necessary to combine the high-priority domains and themes identified for each group, eliminate duplicate items, and then measure the similarity of the two groups in terms of themes are dominant and representative for both groups.

1

ANALYTIC ASSESSMENT

The analysis of subjective culture as a system of shared subjective representation requires accordingly empirical assessment involving several main dimensions:

<u>Images and Meanings</u>. Content analysis of each group's associative responses is used to reconstruct main components of the psychological meaning of the stimulus theme. More information on this analytic procedure can be found in Appendix II, page 5.

<u>Priorities</u>. Each group's subjective priorities are inferred from the dominance score, a measure based on the total score of the responses produced by members of the group. It expresses the psychological importance of the stimulus theme to the various groups studied. Priorities can also be explored by examining the responses most frequently given by a particular group, disregarding the context in which they were elicited. The dominance measure is described and illustrated in Appendix II, page 9.

<u>Evaluations</u>. In the assessment of evaluations of particular themes, there are two main strategies available: an inferential method relying on word associations and a direct method in which the respondent uses a seven-unit scale ranging from +3 to -3 to express whether a particular theme has a positive or negative connotation. Both measures are discussed in Appendix II, page 13.

<u>Affinity Structure</u>. This dimension has to do with how groups organize their subjective environments. For example, how similar are two groups in the relationship they see between competition and mental health? The perceived relationship between themes is measured by the index of associative affinity, which is described in Appendix II, page 14.

To measure the psychocultural distance between groups in these different dimensions, we rely mainly on the Pearson's r correlation coefficient. A high correlation implies greater similarity, a low correlation greater distance.

Similarity in meaning is inferred from the correlation calculated between the response distributions obtained from two culture groups to the same stimulus theme. The use of this measure is based on the rationale that the more similar the two groups' meanings are, the more similar their response distributions will be. That is, close similarity would be assumed if the most frequently mentioned responses for one group are also frequently given by the other, and less popular responses for one group are also less common for the other. The calculation and uses of this measure, which we call the coefficient of intergroup similarity, are discussed in Appendix II, page 11.

Psychocultural distance in the perceptual dimension is determined from the average similarity coefficient for a particular domain or for the overall subjective culture based on all domains studied.

Distance between groups in the dimension of priorities is determined by a correlation of the respective dominance scores for the groups compared. A high correlation indicates that what is important for one group is also important for the other. The lower the correlation the less the groups agree on what is important; in other words, the greater is their distance in this dimension.

Distance in attitudes is based on a correlation of the evaluation (connotation) scores. The lower the correlation the less the groups agree in how they evaluate particular elements of their subjective worlds.

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APPENDIX II

THE ASSOCIATIVE GROUP ANALYSIS (AGA) METHOD

DATA COLLECTION, ANALYSIS, AND MAIN CATEGORIES OF INFERENCES

Associative Group Analysis (.AGA) is a research method for assessing the perceptions, psychological meanings, and attitudes of specific social or cultural groups. The central assumption behind the ASA approach is that a group's psychological meaning of a particular theme may be reconstructed from their word associations to the theme. Ever since Noble (1952) introduced his verbal-association-based measure of meaningfulness, investigators have been exploring ways of using verbal associations to assess various dimensions of psychological meaning. Especially important in this field are the investigations of James Deese (1962, 1965). The AGA method was developed for the systematic assessment of subjective culture. It is used to draw inferences about such important variables as cultural meanings (Szalay and Brent, 1967), attitudes (Szalay, Windle, and Lysne, 1970), and value orientations (Szalay, Brent, and Lysne, 1968). The AGA method has proved capable of measuring psychological meanings with an efficiency comparable to that of other widely used methods---similarity ratings, substitution tasks, and the word-adapted semantic differential (Szalay and Bryson, 1972).

In contrast to traditional word-association approaches in which the subjects are asked to give a single response for each stimulus word in the Adm method the subjects give as many responses as they can think of in one minute. The technique is referred to as "continued free verbal association." This "continued association" technique produces response material with sufficiently broad foundation without having to use extremely large samples---a requirement that frequently makes socially relevant studies unfeasible and impractical. Generally, samples of 50 to 100 subjects are used to represent each particular group. The samples include preferably equal numbers of males and females. The requirements for representative sampling are fundamentally the same as in any other data collection aiming at generalizable results.

Through careful, systematic selection of stimulus themes, investigations can be focused on any desired problem areas or domains. Several related themes are selected in the representation of each domain in order to observe consistent trends on a broader data base and thus produce more generalizable findings. A strategy has been developed for selecting themes that are representative of the domains for each culture group (Szalay and Maday, 1974).

DATA COLLECTION, TEST ADMINISTRATION

The standard AGA testing conditions of group testing, written form of administration, and working with little time pressure help promote more spontaneous, meaning-mediated responses. Individual subjects remain anonymous (demographic data being obtained by a brief questionnaire that carres the same code number as the subject's test slips); assurance of this helps to reduce the likelihood of bias in the form of acquiescence, considerations of social desirability, etc.; it also opens up a variety of emotion-laden issues to objective inquiry.

The subjects are asked to write free verbal associations to each of the stimulus words presented on randomly sequenced cards. They receive the following instructions, as well as the test material, in their native language:

1

This experiment is part of a study in verbal behavior, and this particular task involves word associations. These are group experiments, and your responses will not be evaluated individually but collectively for your group. Your responses are completely anonymous, and you are free to give your associations concerning any subject. There are no bad or wrong answers, so do not select your responses but put them down spontaneously in the order that they occur to you.

The task is easy and simple. You will find a word printed on each slip of paper. Reading this stimulus word will make you think of other associated words (objects, ideas, issues, etc.). You are asked to write as many separate responses as you can think of in the time allotted. Try to think of one-word responses and avoid long phrases or sentences.

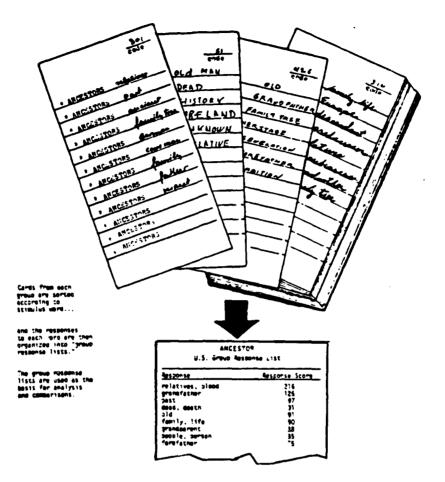
It is important that in giving your responses you always take the given stimulus word into consideration. For example, if the stimulus word was table and your answer was writing, in giving the subsequent responses you must refer back to table and avoid "chain" responses (writing, pen, ink,

Please work without hurrying, but do you best to give us as many answers as possible. One minute will be given for each word. At the end of each minute I will ask you to go on to the next word. Do not work longer than one minute on any word and do not read ahead or return to others later.

DATA ORGANIZATION: SCORING RESPONSES, COMPILING GROUP RESPONSE LISTS

A logical assumption is that earlier responses are more meaningful than later ones, that the first response has more salience to the subject than the last. This assumption is supported by empirical evidence. The stability of responses obtained at different rank places was studied by comparing the responses obtained from the same group in two separate sessions one month apart (Szalay and Brent, 1967). The responses obtained at higher rank places in the first test showed higher stability in the second test than did the responses first obtained at lower rank places. The coefficients of stability obtained in the comparative study provide the weights for the various rank places. The weights, beginning with the first response, are 6,5,4,3,3,3,2,2,1,1,1.

The cards are organized by stimulus words, and the individual responses from all the subjects are tallied into group response lists. Certain responses (e.g., <u>school</u> to <u>educated</u>) will occur to many members of the group; other responses may be given by only one or two members. In order to focus on the shared meaning for a particular group, the responses given by only one person are excluded from analysis. Dropping the idiosyncratic responses helps us to concentrate on the more stable, shared responses and simplifies the data processing and analysis.



If we look at associations produced by members of our own culture group, they appear to be just plain common sense. We tend to feel that every body would produce similar responses and that the responses do not tell us anything new. This impression is probably the major reason that the potential information value of associative response distribution has not been clearly recognized in the past. The systematic exploitation of associations as an important information source is the central objective of the AGA method. The feeling that everybody would produce similar responses is a culture-bound impression. This becomes apparent if we compare associations obtained from groups with different cultural backgrounds. A comparison of U.S. and Korean responses to the stimulus ancestors, for instance, shows that the most frequent U.S. response relative occurs only down around the middle of the Korean response list. Of the five most frequent Korean responses, only two, grandfather and forefather, occur to the Americans. Both lists contain numerous responses which have high scores or salience for one culture group and low or no salience at all for the other group. A quick glance at the most

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frequent responses readily reveals that they are not accidental, but deeply rooted in the cultural background, religious-moral philosophy, life conditions, and contemporary experiences of the respective groups.

| U.S. GRO |)UP | KOREAN GR | OUP |
|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|
| esponse | Response Score | Response | Response Score |
| relatives. blood | 216 | grandfather | 420 |
| grandfather | 126 | rite | 198 |
| Dest | 97 | forefather | 125 |
| dead, death | 91 | grave, visit | 106 |
| blo | 91 | veneration | 84 |
| family, l1fe | 90 | elders | 82 |
| grandparent | 88 | Tau gun | 81 |
| people, person | 85 | burial ground | 77 |
| forefather | 75 | great grandfather | 77 |
| history | 69 | father | 58 |
| before, -me, -us | 56 | geneology | 58 |
| Ancient | 54 | generation | 55 |
| descendant | 52 | day gone by | 49 |
| family tree | 48 | primitive man | 35 |
| grandmother | 47 | respect | 34 |
| Dredecessor | 45 | human being | 33 |
| father | 34 | founder | 33 |
| long ago | 32 | relatives, blood | 31 |
| heritage | 31 | history | 30 |
| Indians | 26 | family, life | 28 |
| Ireland, 1sh | 24 | i tradition | 28 |
| tradition | 23 | ties | |
| | 18 | | 25 |
| Caveman | 17 | Serve | 24 |
| great | 16 | other | 23 |
| forebearers | | deceased | 19 |
| German, y | 15 | home | 19 |
| great grandfather | 15 | lineage | 18 |
| foreign, er | 14 | h111 | 17 |
| generation | 13 | I | 14 |
| Neanderthal | 13 | dead, death | 14 |
| early, ier | 11 | habit | 12 |
| Jeva men | 11 | senior | 11 |
| Adam | 10 | vanity | 11 |
| Europe | 10 | country side | 10 |
| other | 10 | posterity | 10 |
| worship | 10 | clan | 9 |
| American | 8 | Lee Dynasty | 9 |
| year | 7 | Lee Sun -sin | 9 |
| unknown | 6 | Park Hgokkose | 8 |
| geneology | 6 | King Sejong | 7 |
| respect | 6 | | |
| 110 n | 5 | 1 | |

U.S. AND KOREAN GROUP RESPONSES TO ANCESTORS

Each group response list represents a rich information source reflecting the group's characteristic understanding of the stimulus word, including perceptual and affective details which are frequently unverbalizable and below their level of awareness. Actually, a systematic examination of such response lists has shown that every response contains a piece of valid information about the group's characteristic understanding and evaluation of the stimulus word. Responses with a sizable score value (10 to 15) are rarely accidental. Using conservative estimates, score differences of 18 can be considered significant at the .05 level, score differences of 24 at the .01 level. The wealth of information provided by the group response list is impressive, since even small score differences can have significant implications for

MAIN CATEGORIES OF INFERENCES, THEIR RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

For the identification of various psychocultural characteristics, several analytical procedures have been developed, relying on the group response lists as the main data base.

UNUER PERCEPTIONS, IMAGES, AND MEANINGS

The group response lists contain a rich variety of responses, each reflecting a different mosaic element of the total psychological meaning. Grouping responses with similar content together helps to identify the main components of meaning and their characteristic saliences. This content analysis is performed by two or more independent judges whose background and frame of reference is by and large similar to that of the group tested. If Korean and American groups are to be tested, the coders would be a Korean and an American. Each judge receives a list of all responses to a particular stimulus word (the Korean responses translated into English). They choose eight to sixteen categories which they feel subsume all the responses in meaningful groupings relevant to the stimulus word, and then assign the responses to these categories. The categories may be of low or high generality, concrete or abstract; but they should be simple, not very abstract, and at the same level of generality. It is important to chose clearly different, well=delimited categories that do not overlap. It is necessary to choose between alternative possible categories: some will fit into the total system of categories better than others; some will communicate better than others. Responses that do not seem to fit into any of the categories are put into a miscellaneous category. Responses that may be assigned with equal justification to two or more categories are recorded for further discussion. The coders then meet with a senior researcher to discuss their agreements and disagreements. Where there are discrepant categories, three solutions are possible: new alternative categories, category combinations at a higher level of abstraction, or complementary categories. The final categories are selected to nighlight the most characteristic aspects of the groups' responses to the stimulus word. This method maintains comparability of results in the analysis of the responses from the different cultural population samples. Once the categorization is finalized, a final check is required to make sure that all the responses are included and that they have their proper response scores.

Each category is described by a score and by a label to indicate its content. The category score is the sum of the scores of each subsumed response and expresses the importance of the category for a particular group. If a category yields a high score for a group, it may be said that the category constitutes an important meaning component of that theme for that group. The categories and category scores present a logical set of data from which the central meaning of the stimulus word may be deduced, either directly or through advisors or background literature on the culture.

Using this procedure to analyze the stimulus theme <u>ancestor</u>, for example, we find a sizable group of responses dealing with "rites, veneration, and worship." The overwhelming majority of these responses come from the

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Koreans while only a few of the American responses fall in this category. A modest familiarity with the cultural background of the Koreans makes it obvious that this component reflects the traditional anestor worsnip and shows how salient this cultural element is in the minds of contemporary Korean Another group of responses identified by the judges concerns the citizens. pa st and other time references, indicating that ancestors belong very much to pat, ancient times in the minds of our American respondents. This is less the case with the Koreans, probably because active veneration and worship is still part of the contemporary religious practices. Another cluster of related responses involve references to foreign, predominantly European countries. These responese come practically exclusively from Americans and show their awareness of their foreign ancestry. Naturally this component of cultural meaning is essentially missing from the Korean image of ancestors. Through this process of content analysis, the judges assign all responses to main response categories of U.S. and Korean cultural meanings.

| RITES, VENERATION, | 50 | ore | | SCI | ore | | SCI | ore |
|--------------------|----|-----|-----------------|-----|-----|--------------------|-----|------|
| WORSHIP | US | K | TIME: PAST, OLD | US | ĸ | PEOPLE, FOREIGNERS | US | K |
| worship | 10 | | past | 97 | • | American | 8 | • |
| respect | 6 | 34 | old | 91 | • | Europe | 10 | |
| veneration | | 84 | before,-me,-us | 56 | - | Germany | 15 | |
| serve | - | 24 | ancient | 54 | - | Ireland,-ish | 24 | |
| great | 17 | - | long ago | 32 | - | Indians | 26 | |
| rite | • | 198 |] early,-ier | 11 | - | foreign,-er | 14 | |
| other | 6 | 44 | unknown | 6 | - | human being | • | 33 |
| | | | days gone by | • | 49 | man | 5 | - |
| | | | year | 7 | • | people,person | 85 | • |
| | | | posterity | • | 10 | | | |
| | 39 | 384 | 1 | 354 | 59 | 1 | 187 | - 33 |

CATEGORIZATION OF U.S. AND KOREAN RESPONSES TO ANCESTORS

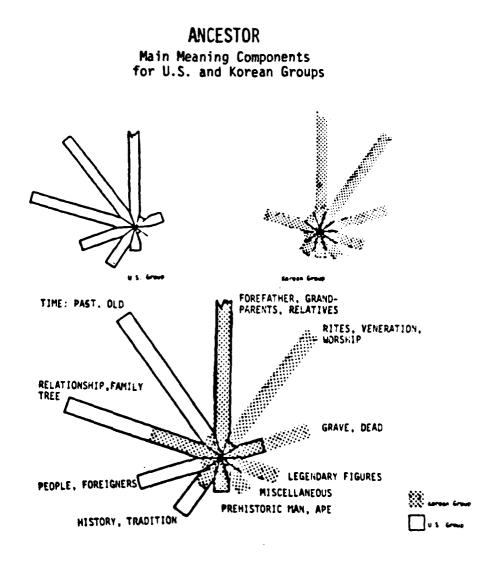
In the case of the responses to ancestors the judges used ten categories to identify the most salient components of the groups' contemporary meanings of ancestors. The scores the various components accumulated in this process reflect the subjective salience of each component for the cultural groups compared. The main content categories obtained by this analysis describe the total subjective meaning of the theme in terms of the main components characteristic of each group's understanding. Because there is usually a difference between the two groups in their level of responding, the category scores are converted to percentages of the respective total scores in order to make them directly comparable.

| | U,S. (| Korean Group | | |
|---|--------|--------------|-------------|----|
| Meaning Components | Score | 2 | Score | 2 |
| Time: Past, Old | 354 | 20 | 59 | 3 |
| Relationship, Family Tree | 335 | 19 | 196 | 9 |
| People, Foreigners | 187 | 10 | 33 | 2 |
| History, Tradition | 152 | 8 | 84 | 4 |
| Prehistoric Man, Ape | 73 | 4 | 35 | 2 |
| Forefathers, Grandparents, Relatives | 546 | 30 | 824 | 39 |
| Rites, Veneration, Worship | 39 | 2 | 3 84 | 18 |
| Grave, Dead | 91 | 5 | 233 | 11 |
| Legendary Figures | - | 0 | 52 | 7 |
| Miscellaneous | 25 | 1 | 108 | 5 |
| Total Scores (Dominance) | 1,802 | | 2,100 | |

PERCEPTION AND EVALUATION OF ANCESTORS BY AMERICANS AND KOREANS

The reliability of the content analytic method was tested by comparing the performance of five judges working independently from each other. The interjudge reliability measured by product-moment correlation across 70 categories was .7. The validity of such inferences on particular single meaning components cannot be directly assessed because simple criterion measures are not available. There are, however, findings which show, for instance, that the salience of these meaning components provides valid predictions on the meaningfulness of messages in intercultural communications. Communication material that capitalized on salient components of cultural meaningful than comparable communication material produced by cultural experts (Szaiay, Lysne, and Bryson, 1972).

Another way to present the results of content analysis is the semantograph. It shows the main categories of group meaning by using radially arranged bargraphs. The dotted bars represent the main components of Korean interpretation and the striped bars the main components of U.S. interpretation. Where the bars are similar in length, substantial agreement exists between U.S. and Korean responses. The bars are arbitrarily arranged so that those on the left of the semantograph show meaning components especially strong (salient) for the U.S. group and those on the right show meaning components especially strong for the Korean group. This presentation is designed to help the reader to recognize components on which his own group and the other culture group are in agreement or disagreement.



U.S. and Korean Groups' Main Meaning Components in Combined Presentation

Effective communication requires that we address members of other cultures on components that are salient to them. Thus, in communicating with Spanishspeaking groups on education, components that are predominantly Hispanic (e.g., politeness, family background, etc.) can be expected to elicit interest and understanding. For those familiar with the cultural backgrounds of the groups producing the associations, it is apparent that the high-scoring responses reflect their salient characteristics. The response <u>polite</u> from an Hispanic group, for example, reflects their emphasis on formal, polite behavior. With a deeper knowledge of the cultural background, all the responses can be traced to the religious-moral philosophy, history, life conditions, and contemporary experiences of the respective culture groups. These trends of cultural interpretation, of course, are not limited to single concepts; rather, they reflect general cultural experiences, life conditions, and philosopnies characteristic of the groups compared.

SUBJECTIVE PRIORITIES OR IMPORTANCE

THE DOMINANCE SCORE

Every group has its own set of priorities: Americans are said to be nrencrupied with material comfort, technical details, and scientific progress, while Hispanics are said to focus on family traditions, personal friendsnips, and spiritual values. The psychological priorities characteristic of a particular group can be inferred from dominance scores. How important a certain subject, theme, idea, or issue is to a particular group can be inferred from the number of responses they give to it as a stimulus word. The dominance score, simply the sum of the scores of all responses elicited by a particular theme or domain, is used to measure subjective importance. It is a modified version of Noble's (1952) "meaningfulness" measure.* The priorities of different social or cultural groups can be compared by looking at their cominance scores on the same concepts. Dominance scores reveal group-specific priorities not only on single issues but also for larger domains, as shown in the example below.

| Domain and Themes | White | Black | Domain and Themes | White | Black |
|----------------------|-------|-------------|----------------------|-------|-------------|
| ISMS | 1 | | SOCIAL PROB. | | |
| democracy | 636 | 449 | society (U.S.) | 316 | 342 |
| socialism | 396 | 280 | social class | 402 | 475 |
| capitalism | 362 | 298 | social justice | 376 | 3 78 |
| communism | 733 | 502 | social progress | 260 | 334 |
| mean | 532 | 382 | mean | 338 | 382 |
| NATION | | | NEEDS | | |
| nation | 661 | 591 | goal | 514 | 581 |
| United States | 877 | 765 | expectation | 236 | 298 |
| patriotism | 508 | 2 22 | desire | 621 | 701 |
| Americans | 605 | 6 48 | valuable | 832 | 876 |
| mean | 663 | 556 | mean | 551 | 614 |

DOMINANCE SCORES OF BLACK AND WHITE GROUPS

These results come from a study of Black and White blue-collar workers whowwere compared on the relative importance they assigned to 60 selected tnemes in 15 domains. The table indicates that the Black group was more concerned with social problems and needs, while the White group placed more emphasis on political isms and nationalism.

*Noble (1952) first demonstrated that the number of associations given by a person in a continued association task of one minute provides a measure of "meaningfulness" that is highly correlated with the person's familiarity with the word and its meaning. The group-based dominance scores have been found to be highly culturespecific (Szalay, Moon, Lysne, and Bryson, 1971) and have a reliability of .93 calculated from a test-retest comparison of 40 themes.

More information on the dominance scores can be found in <u>Communication</u> <u>Lexicon on Three South Korean Audiences</u> (Szalay, Moon, and Bryson, 1971).

OVERALL SIMILARITY IN PERCEPTIONS

THE SIMILARITY COEFFICIENT AND INTRAGROUP HOMOGENEITY MEASURE

Without considering the actual <u>nature</u> of differences one may ask generally to what extent do two groups uiffer in their understanding of a particular theme. Free verbal associations offer an empirical answer to this question based on the principle that the closer the agreement between the associations of two groups on a particular theme, the more similar their meanings are. To measure the extent to which two groups agree in their perception and understanding of a particular theme, idea, or issue, the coefficient of similarity is used.

Similarity in subjective meaning is inferred from the similarity of response distributions measured by Pearson's product-moment correlation. Close similarity (high coefficient) means that the nigh frequency responses produced by one group are also high frequency responses for the other group; similarly, the low frequency responses produced by one group will generally be the same as those produced by the other group. The scores for the same (translation equivalent) responses from two groups respresent the pairs of observations (x,y) used in this calculation. N represents the number of pairs of observations, that is, the number of word responses used in the calculation of a particular coefficient. The coefficients provide a global measure of the level of similarities and differences without elaborating on the semantic components on which they are based.

In the example below the problem areas or domains are presented in descending order of agreement. The reactions of the Black and White groups were most similar in the areas of education and family. The problem areas showing least agreement, social problems and needs, are the same areas in which the dominance scores reflected more concern from the Black group.

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| Domain and Themes | r | Domain and Themes | r |
|--|---------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|
| EDUCATION school knowledge educated to learn | .90 .88 .92 .79 | NEEDS goal expectation desire valuable | .38 47 .76 .90 |
| mean | .88 | mean | . 53 |
| FAMILY father mother family home mean | .80 .92 .84 .79 .84 | SOCIAL PROBLEMS society (U.S.) social class social justice social progress mean | .38 .50 .15 04 .25 |
| | | | |

INTERGROUP SIMILARITY BETWEEN BLACK AND WHITE GROUPS

The reliability of the coefficient of similarity measure was tested by comparing two groups obtained by splitting a larger group randomly into two halves; the coefficients produced on a sample of themes were then averaged. In a comparison of two split-half groups on 26 themes, a correlation of .73 was obtained. An earlier comparison resulted in an r of .82, calculated over 40 themes. The coefficient depends a great deal on the particular theme under consideration. Themes that are specific and concrete produce steep response distributions characterized by a few widely shared responses, or meaning elements. The theme <u>family</u>, for example, is specific and concrete, and for everybody if means to a certain extent father and mother. The themes concern and anxiety are less definite, and instead of everybody agreeing on a fea particularly salient responses, people produce a broad diversity of responses. In this situation, low correlation does not necessarily indicate low reliability of the measure but may be a consequence of the indeterminate nature of the theme. In such a situation the stability of the measure m_{a_1} better estimated by considering how stable a coefficient is within particular themes rather than across all themes. To assess this stability, the coefficients obtained on the same themes for the two split-half groups were correlated over the 26 themes and produced an r of .89.

<u>Certain Limitations of This Measure</u>. Calculation of the similarity coefficient requires literal agreement; it does not take into account semantically closely related responses such as home and homely or synonyms such as house and home. Consequently, this measure is bound to underestimate the actual level of similarity. These biases are likely to increase the more the groups differ in their vocabularies. One could argue naturally that differences in vocabularies are not accidental and they themselves are likely to reflect on psychocultural distance. Nonetheless, as some of these differences in the words used do not correspond to similar differences in perceptions, they are likely to give a somewhat inflated estimate of the actual perceptual differences. These biases are usually not significant and they are in general randomly distributed; in other words, the bias is likely to be the same regardless of the words used. This should not interfere with the utility of the coefficient to provide a valid estimate of the relative level of semantic differences.

In other words, the coefficient of similarity cannot overestimate similarity but it may overestimate the degree of differences in the perceptions of two groups. This problem can be offset through the use of one of the other analytic techniques developed with the AGA method. Once the similarity coefficient has been used to identify themes where the greatest differences are, it is desirable to take a closer look by categorizing the semantically related responses into clusters. In the content analysis the total score of the response cluster (synonyms, partial synonyms), rather than the individual response scores, represents the main source of information by revealing the salience of the main components of perception and evaluation. Thus, for instance, the nature and intensity of emotional ties projected into people's relationships by a particular group emerges from the total score accumulated by such responses as love, affection, and friendship. In this analysis the scores of single responses (e.g., synonyms) are inconsequential. The differences between groups may then be identified by a comparison of the scores showing the salience of the main attitudinal and perceptual components.

While the similarity coefficient is useful in measuring overall similarity or distance, the content analysis may be used to identify more specific cultural dispositions such as the Puerto Ricans' tenoency to see personal relations within the framework of family in contrast the disposition of Americans to see people as individuals independent of family.

Intragroup Homogeneity

A comparison of split-half groups shows how much agreement exists within a particular group on a particular stimulus theme. This intragroup agreement is affected by several factors.

One factor influencing the value of the coefficient is the size of the group. Based on 32 themes in the domains of family and health, mean coefficients were calculated using sample sizes of 13, 20, 52, 78, 104, and 156. They showed a distinct increase with the size of the groups compared. The rate of the increase is fast if we increase the size of small samples. For instance, an increase in sample size from 13 to 26 produced an increase of 27 points in the coefficient, while an increase from 52 to 104 produced an increase of only 9 points. Thus, there is a distinct decline in the growth rate in the case of large samples, and the coefficients come close to their plateau with a sample size of 200. Correlations do not generally increase just because the base of their calculation is extended. An explanation is likely to be found in the nature of mechanics of the calculation; the relatively large number of 0 scores obtained with a small sample decreases the correlation value. Other important factors influencing the homogeneity coefficient relate to the nature and characteristics of individual themes under consideration. The variations are apparently explicable by the fact that some themes and domains are more concrete, definite, tangible (e.g., car, money), while others are more indeterminate, unobservable, abstract (equality, expectation).

These variations may be illustrated by calculating coefficients of homogeneity on 16 themes in the family domain (family, mother, father, nome, etc.) using three different sample sizes: 13, 52, and 156. In contrast to the wide range of variation (-.12 to .70) observed at the level of the smallest sample, in the case of the largest sample the range was narrower (.72 to .96). Furthermore, the mean coefficient based on a sample size of 156 was .90, in strong contrast to the mean of .35 obtained with a sample size of 13. As a tentative explanation the phenomenon of "cultural sharing" (D'Andrade, 1969) seems appropriate. It follows from the rationale of this sharing phenomenon that larger groups, which provide a broader basis for observations, can be more completely described than smaller ones. These data underscore the importance of working with a sample size of at least 50.

ATTITUDES AND EVALUATIONS

THE EVALUATIVE DOMINANCE INDEX (EDI) AND THE CONNUTATION SCORE

How people evaluate ideas and events---ERA, arms embargo, human rights, legalization of marijuana---can be assessed without asking them directly. Attitudinal inferences are derived from the distribution of associative responses with positive, negative, and neutral connotation. Based on empirical evidence that the evaluative content of associative responses is a valid indicator of the evaluative content of the stimulus word (Staats and Staats, 1959), a simple attitude index was developed to express the relative dominance of responses with positive or negative connotations (Szalay et al., 1970). First, the proportions of positive and negative categories are assessed by two independent judges who place the associative responses into positive, negative, and neutral groups. (In previous experiments this grouping task was performed with an interjudge agreement of .93 measured by product-moment correlation across categories.) Next, using the total response score for each of the three groupings, an index of evaluative dominance is calculated by the following formula:

EDI= <u>Escores of positive responses</u> - <u>Escores of negative responses</u> X 100 <u>Escores of all responses</u>

Based on this formula, group indices are obtained on each stimulus for each group. The distance between groups in their evaluations is measured by comparing EDI scores using Pearson's r coefficient.

A higher index implies more intense group evaluation, in either a positive or negative direction. The example below shows that Koreans are more negative in their evaluation of political systems, particularly communism. Their less negative evaluation of poverty and beggars may indicate more familiarity with or tolerance of these problems.

| Theme | U.S. Group | Korean Group | | | |
|------------|------------|--------------|--|--|--|
| family | 25 | 22 | | | |
| proud | 12 | 28 | | | |
| educated | 51 | 51 | | | |
| knowledge | 50 | 44 | | | |
| offense | -27 | -53 | | | |
| capitalism | 10 | -4 | | | |
| communism | -14 | -32 | | | |
| equality | 19 | 20 | | | |
| poor | -58 | -28 | | | |
| beggar | -63 | -42 | | | |

EVALUATIVE DOMINANCE INDICES FOR U.S. AND KOREAN GROUPS

The EDI measure is described in <u>A Study of American and Korean Attitudes</u> and <u>Values Through Associative Group Analysis</u> (Szalay, Lysne, and Brent, 1970; Szalay, Windle, and Lysne, 1970).

A direct method of assessing attitudes can also be used. It involves asking the respondents to give a general evaluation of each stimulus word after performing the verbal association task. To express whether the words mean something positive, negative, or neutral, they use the following scale:

| 3 | • | strongly positive. favorab | le connotation |
|---|---|----------------------------|----------------|
| 2 | • | quite positive, favorable | connotation |
| 1 | • | slightly positive, favorab | le connotation |
| 0 | | moutral or ambivalent feel | ing tones |

-1 - slightly negative connotation -2 - quite negative connotation -3 - strongly negative connotation

A mean group attitude score is obtained for each stimulus word. Distance in evaluations is then measured by Pearson's \underline{r} coefficient comparing two groups across stimulus words.

RELATEDNESS OF THEMES, CONCEPTS

THE AFFINITY INDEX

Measures of meaning similarity have considerable potential to assess how particular groups organize and interrelate elements of their environment. The associative affinity index measure indicates which words are related by a group to which other words and to what extent. The degree of relationship among these elements of a group's subjective world view is an important dimension of their cognitive organization. It is defined as the shared associative meaning of stimulus words as measured by the number of associations produced in common to these words (Szalay, 1965). Similar concepts based on various theoretical positions are: overlap coefficient (Deese, 1962); verbal relatedness (Garskof and Houston, 1963); mutual frequency (Cofer, 1957); co-occurence measure (Flavell, 1959); and measure of stimulus equivalence (Bousfield, Whitmarsh, and Danick, 1958). These concepts, however, use single-word associative responses rather than continued associations. The associative affinity index, a modified relatedness measure similar to those reviewed by Marshall and Cofer (1963), was developed for use with continued associations.

The index of interword affinity (IIA) measure the relationship of one theme (A) to another (B) for a particular group based on the responses in common to the two themes. The formula for the affinity of them A to B is as follows:

The formula for the affinity of theme B to theme A is:

| - soore for responses + a | core for direct elicitation | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| ta common | (B→A) | index of interword |
| ······· | | E 1000 = associative affinity |
| 1.atož | score B | (CB → A) |

In the two lists in the table below <u>beggar</u> and <u>poverty</u> were responses to the two stimulus words under consideration. The lower score of the response in common (e.g., 38 for <u>beggar</u>) is used in the calculation because that is the portion that is common to both. (Although <u>hunger</u> and <u>hungry</u> are very similar as well as <u>poor</u> and <u>poverty</u>, they are treated as separate responses here.) Also, in the calculation is the score of the response to one stimulus word that is identical to the other stimulus word (e.g., the stimulus <u>hungry</u> eliciting the response <u>poor</u>). They are said to elicit each other unectly; hence, what is here measured is called direct elicitation.

| Stimulus | A: HUNGRY | Stimulus B: POUR | | | | | |
|---------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|--|--|--|--|
| 0 | Score | | Score | | | | |
| Response | (Colombian Group) | Response | (ColonLian_Group, | | | | |
| meal | 107 | hungry | 77 | | | | |
| food | 73 | money | 71 | | | | |
| hunger | 65 | poverty | 44 | | | | |
| poor | 59 | beggar | 33 | | | | |
| beggar | 43 | necessity | 30 | | | | |
| poverty | 38 | house | 28 | | | | |
| Total Score A | 335 | Total Score B | 288 | | | | |

INDEX OF INTERWORD ASSOCIATIVE AFFINITY

The score of the responses in common to HUNGRY (76) plus the score of the directly elicited response (59) indicates the total degree of shared meaning. The score representing the shared portion of the total meaning reaction cannot be taken by itself or it would be merely a function of the length of the response lists. Therefore, it is divided by the total score of all responses (e.g., to HUNGRY, 385). The score representing the shared portion of the total score of the total meaning reaction is thus expressed as a fraction of the total score

representing the total meaning reaction. This fraction is multiplied by 1000 in order to make it an integral number. The resulting number is called the interword affinity index, here calculated for HUNGRY to POOR:

$\frac{76 + 59}{385}$ x 1000 = 351 = index of interword associative affinity, HUNGRY to POOR

If the relationship of POOR to HUNGRY is being considered, the index would be different: the score representing shared meaning plus the score for the direct elicition of <u>nungry</u> (77) would be divided by the total score for POOR (288), giving an index of 531.

The following matrix shows the relationship of eight themes from the motivational and economic domains. The generally higher indexes for the Black group suggest a stronger relationship between motivational themes and economic matters. On the relationship of single themes, the table shows that the Black group sees a relationship between expectation and unemployment, which does not emerge from the White group's responses.

| | | | | \$T | IMUL | .us v | VORD | 9 8 AI | ND D | REC | TION | OF | RELA | TION | ISHIP | |
|--------------------|--------|-----------------|------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|------------|-------------|------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|
| STIMULUS WORD A | Group | Ge | et . | Exp | octo- | D | sire | Val | able | The | rich | The | P001 | Une ploy | m. ment | Prosper- ity |
| | • | A-B | B-A | A-8 | 8-A | A-8 | 8-A | A-3 | 3-4 | A-3 | B1 | A-3 | B-A | A-8 | B- A | A-B 8-A |
| Prosperity | W B | 163 190 | 216 301 | 182 243 | 111 | 124 | 214 346 | 167 1.39 | 314 376 | 210 | 441 521 | 131 | 252 365 | | 162 263 | |
| Unemplay- ment | W. | 7 117 | 71 110 | 181 | 85 | 53 82 | 50 94 | 60 87 | 76 124 | 148 179 | 100 210 | 146 227 | 204 | | | |
| The poor | W. | 44 121 | 46 105 | 25 219 | 97 97 | 146 156 | 173 | 97 122 | 110 131 | Jn; 2:0 | 233 291 | | | | | |
| The rich | ¥ | 87 134 | 6.) 108 | 39 19J | 21 80 | 10.3 200 | 96 174 | 257 308 | 323 375 | | | | | | | |
| Valuable | W | 136 | 84 131 | 76 134 | 37 | 211 234 | 157 203 | | | | | | | | | |
| Desire | ¥ | 220 132 | 182 110 | 3.10 305 | 113 87 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Espectation | W B | ** | 237 234 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| AFFINITY | RELATIONSHIP OF | MOTIVATIONAL AND ECONOMIC THEMES |
|----------|-----------------|----------------------------------|
| | FOR BLACK (B) | AND WHITE (W) GROUPS |

Indexes on single word pairs provide empirical data on single relationships; index averages calculated on the affinity of one word with a set of words representing a particular domain have more generality. Indexes calculated between domains may be expected to gauge cognitive organization at an even higher level of generality by revealing how closely interrelated are such areas for a particular group.

The reliability of this index in split-half comparisons was in the range of .90 (Szalay and Windle, 1968). The validity of this measure was estimated in a comparative study based on correlations of this measure with other independent measures: similarity judgment .73; judgment of relationship .77; grouping task .84. (The calculations were based on 65 index pairs.) (Szalay and Bryson, 1972). More information on the affinity measure can be obtained in <u>Communication</u> <u>Lexicon on Three South Korean Audiences</u> (Szalay, Moon, and Bryson, 1971) and in "Psychological Meaning: Comparative Analyses and Theoretical Implications", <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</u> (Szalay and Bryson, 1974).

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF ASSOCIATIVE RESPONSES

The continued verbal association task used in the Associative Group Analysis method produces extensive response distributions characterized by contrasts of high and low response frequencies. Even though conclusions are never based on a single response, the specific responses are the fundamental mosaic elements of information obtained in the association tasks and thus it is necessary to determine how their reliability. The answer to this question depends naturally on the number of people who gave the particular response and on the score the response accumulated based on its rank places of emission. The use of continued associations required the development of a weighting procedure to account for the differences in information value between first responses and the responses produced later at lower rankings. An empirically founded weighting system was derived based on the differential stability of responses observed in test-retest results. The following reliability scores were obtained as a function of the rank place.

| STABILITY OF RESPONSES DEPENDING ON THEIR RANK PLAC | TABILITY | ESPONSES DEPENDING OF | I THEIR RANK PLACE |
|---|----------|-----------------------|--------------------|
|---|----------|-----------------------|--------------------|

| Stability and | Rank of Response | | | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------|-----|-----|-----|-------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-------|
| Weights | Ist | 2nd | 3rd | 4tn | 5tn | Gth | 7th | ôtn | 9tn | İƏtri |
| Stability, percent of recurrence in retest | .60 | .48 | .42 | .34 | .3 2 | .30 | .25 | .20 | .15 | • |
| Weighting score based on the stability | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | ì |

This suggests that the average stability of a single response in continued association tasks is .32. This mean value represents the stabilit, of an average response for an average person. The mean stability substantially increases when calculated on group basis. The increase becomes explicable by the observation that while a particular person may fail in retest to give the same response he gave in the first test, it frequently happens that other subjects will use the word as a response in the retest although they may not have given it in the first test. Thus, particularly the common responses substantially increase this stability on group basis.

As the Associative Group Analysis method draws inferences on groups rather than on individuals, the stability of responses on group basis requires particular attention. The group response lists representing response frequencies weighted by their individual rank places serve as the data base for such inferences. With focus on the shared responses of the group, responses given by only one person are disregarded as idiosyncratic. To assess the stability of group responses, split-half comparisons were made of a group of 100 subjects split randomly. Comparing the group response lists of the two groups of 50 subjects, an average stability of .61 was obtained. Interestingly, this stability increased gradually when split-half groups of larger sizes were compared (N=100, N=200). This phenomenon bears apparently on the cultural sharing phenomenon which has been described by several autnors (Roberts, 1951; D'Andrade, 1959), but its implications go beyond our present concern with stability. In connection with the problem of stability of response lists and the average stability of particular responses, it should be pointed out that this stability is also affected by the stimulus words considered. Certain stimulus words are specific and produce steep response distributions focusing on a definite set of responses. Others are less definite and produce responses with great intragroup variations. This definiteness depends partially on the characteristics of the stimulus theme such as its concreteness and specificity; it also depends on the homogeneity of the group's experiences in respect to the stimulus.

These different variables cause considerable variations in the stability of responses. Thus, the average response stability value reported above is a rough estimate. When more precise data are needed, as in the case of the evaluation of changes, learning and training effects, it is desirable to obtain stability data on the relevant themes in separate split-half stability tests. The stability of specific responses as a function of the size of responses is discussed in the relation to the problem of statistical significance.

Although the Associative Group Analysis method is used to derive information on diverse categories of variables, the inferences are usually based on entire response distributions or clusters of responses rather than on single individual responses. Thus, although the measures are based on responses, the problem of validity can be examined more meaningfully in the context of the particular measures rather than single responses.

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