THE EXPERIENCE OF LANGUAGE USE FOR SECOND GENERATION, BILINGUAL, MEXICAN AMERICAN, 5TH GRADE STUDENTS

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There is a paucity of research regarding language use among bilingual clients, particularly with Latino children. In order to provide culturally sensitive counseling for bilingual, Spanish-speaking, Latino children it is important to understand their experience of language use. The purpose of this study was to investigate how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate. I employed a phenomenological method to data collection and analysis and conducted semi-structured individual and group interviews with three boys and five girls ($N = 8$). Analysis of the individual and group interviews yielded four main structures: (a) dominant language determined perception of developing dual selves, (b) speaking two languages useful in language brokering and upward mobility, (c) dominant language determined experience of language use, and (d) language use and aspects of the complementarity principle. Findings from this study suggest that bilingual Latino children experience language brokering for their parents as difficult, speaking two languages as useful regarding upward mobility, and that their dominant language influences various aspects of their daily experiences such as with whom and where they use each language. Limitations to this research include insufficient time building rapport with participants and challenges related to unexplored dimensions of bilingualism in the counseling research literature. An overarching implication for future research, clinical practice, and counselor education is that bilingualism, language use, and the depth of experience of Latino children are largely understudied topics.

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Loquor Ergo Sum

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Historically, migration from the Caribbean, Mexico, and Central and South America has led to an increase in the Latino population of the United States (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994). “A continuous flow of Latin American immigrants makes it more practical for US Latinos to retain Spanish now than it was in the past, providing greater opportunities and incentives for bilingualism” (Linton & Jimenez, 2009, p. 968). Since 2000, the U.S.-born Latino population grew at a faster rate than the immigrant population (Pew Hispanic Center, 2014). The combined foreign and U.S. born inhabitants total 54 million individuals of Latino origin who accounted for 17.1% of the United States total population and represented over half of the increase in total population between 2000 and 2010 (Pew Hispanic Center, 2015; U. S. Census Bureau, 2010). The Mexican origin population grew from 20.6 million in 2000 to 318 million in 2010, resulting in the largest numeric change (54%) among U. S. Latinos (U. S. Census Bureau, 2010). For Latinos, many of whom are bilingual, knowledge of the Spanish language is a common characteristic (Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba, 2002). According to census data, in 2007, of the 55.4 million people 5 years and older who spoke a language other than English at home, 62 percent spoke Spanish (34.5 million speakers) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). “Spanish speakers comprise over half of those who speak a language other than English at home” (Linton & Jimenez, 2009, p. 968). Furthermore, the United States has the fifth-largest Spanish-speaking population in the world (Clemente, 2000; Santiago-Rivera, Arredondo, Gallardo-Cooper, 2002).

The continuing increase in the Latino population will have an impact on the mental health profession. According to Santiago-Rivera, Altarriba, Poll, Gonzalez-Miller, and Cragun (2009), the steady growth in the Latino population suggests that mental health professionals will

encounter more bilingual Latinos seeking treatment. The steady growth in the Latino population will have an impact on public schools as well. In the early 1990's, Sue, Arredondo, and Davis (1992) anticipated that educational institutions would be the "most likely to be first affected by the changing student population" (p. 478). As predicted, the demographic change is also evident in the nation's public school system. About one-in-five students in the United States is of Latino origin and represent 60% of the total growth in public schools from 1990 to 2006 (Pew Hispanic Center, 2008). Because of the increase in the Latino population, it is likely that mental health professionals will offer services to Latino adults or children in various settings. In order to provide culturally sensitive counseling services for Latinos, counselors need to gain awareness of best practices suited for both adults and children.

The increasing Latino population and large numbers of individuals who speak Spanish suggest that clinicians will need to consider the impact of the role of language when providing culturally sensitive mental health services for bilingual, Latino clients. In previous decades, Latino authors expressed an urgent need to provide and develop linguistically and culturally relevant bilingual services effective for this segment of the population (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994; Santiago-Rivera, 1995). Yet, the need for mental health professionals to develop linguistically and culturally sensitive services for Latino, bilingual clients still exists.

In order to provide culturally sensitive counseling to the increasing Spanish-speaking, Latino population, culturally competent counselors consider multicultural counseling competencies. Regarding culturally appropriate intervention strategies and language, the culturally skilled counselor values bilingualism and does not view another language as an impediment to counseling (Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992). "Cultural sensitivity implies understanding an individual's social values, beliefs, and customs as well as understanding the

language in which these factors are expressed" (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994, p. 389). Although Spanish is a common aspect shared by Latinos, there are important difference among individual whose heritage and ancestry originated in countries where Spanish is the dominant language. Clinicians who are aware and knowledgeable about these differences are able to provide culturally sensitive services for Latinos who share Spanish as a common characteristic, but who may come from different backgrounds.

Background of U. S. Latinos

Latinos living in the United States have unique ancestries and hail from various Spanish-speaking countries. Perez-Foster (1998), a Spanish-English bilingual therapist, stated that bilingual clients will "span a wide spectrum of characteristics, including age, level of acculturation, socioeconomic status, education, skills training, length of stay in the United States, and mental status" (p. 8). Falicov (2014) further added that therapists will provide services to an increasing number of Latino clients who are diverse in their culture, nationality, and religion. Differences among Latinos in racial and cultural background are products of the distinct heritage represented in ancestors whose roots are in either the slaves brought to the Americas from Africa, the indigenous populations who already inhabited the Americas, in the Spaniards who colonized the Americas, or a mix of races. "Intermarriage led to the evolution of mixed races and cultures, with the union of European and American Indian evolving into a Mestizo culture and the union of European and American Indian and African to the criollo or mulatto groups" (Santiago-Rivera, Arredondo, & Gallardo-Cooper, 2002, p. 23).

Concerning nationality, Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and Central Americans compose the oldest and largest U.S. Latino groups (Organista, 2007). Although Latinos are a

heterogeneous group who may have different nationalities, “knowledge of the Spanish language is a common characteristic and is often viewed as a way of maintaining an aspect of their cultural and ethnic heritage” (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994, p. 388). Regarding migrational history, proximity to the United States has made it easier for larger numbers of Mexicans to cross the border than for those who are further away, such as Argentines who are in the southern tip of South America. Education and income levels vary depending on the circumstances that lead Latinos to migrate to the United States. Although Latinos with limited formal education may migrate to the United States in search of better opportunities, affluent Latinos send their children to learn at some of the most prestigious educational institutions in the United States. In addition to having an awareness of the different characteristics that Latinos possess, the culturally competent counselor understands the role of language in counseling and its influence on the evaluation of mental health of bilingual Latino clients.

The Role of Language in Counseling Latino Bilingual Clients

The role of language is relevant to the therapeutic process (Santiago-Rivera, Altarriba, Poll, Gonzalez-Miller, & Cragun, 2009). The role of language in counseling Latino, bilingual clients is relevant because they have access and use two languages to express their emotions. Bilingual individuals possess the unique characteristic of having two language systems with which they are able to “think about themselves, express ideas, and interact with the people in their world” and impacts “how they go about narrating their distress and life story in the treatment process” (Pérez Foster, 1998, p. 9). Bilingual clients may benefit from having a bilingual counselor because it increases the opportunity for emotional expression. Guttfreund (1990) asserted that the ideal combination in therapy is for bilingual counselors to work with

bilingual clients with whom they share similar language backgrounds in order to address bilingual-bicultural issues as well as enabling language switching when necessary. A bilingual client who is working with a bilingual counselor has the opportunity to express his or her emotions in either or both of the languages with which he or she communicates. Affording clients the option of selecting the language in which they express their ideas cannot be overlooked in counseling, especially when considering the language in which the emotional experience was encoded in memory (Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba, 2002).

A limited amount of current literature exists in which authors discuss the dynamics of language in the treatment of bilingual clients. Much of the existing literature is based on seminal work produced by bilingual or polyglot psychoanalytic therapists who focused on how the ego, superego, sexual repression, transference or countertransference affected and influenced the course of treatment with bilingual clients (Buxbaum, 1949; Greenson, 1949; Krapf, 1955). Historically, authors and researchers who wrote about counseling with Latino clients worked from a psychoanalytic framework that became the cornerstone for most of the existing literature. According to Santiago-Rivera and Altarriba (2002), these authors addressed two broad areas related to the role of language in counseling with bilingual clients. They suggested that one area in which psychoanalytic authors focused was on how bilingual clients' mental health evaluations often led to misdiagnosis because of the language in which it was conducted. The other area in which researchers have focused is on "the dynamics of language use in the treatment of bilingual clients" (Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba, 2002, p. 30).

Conflicting mental health evaluations. According to Perez-Foster (1998), a key concern of any clinician is the appropriate evaluation of bilingual clients who are evaluated in their second language. Assessment and treatment of bilingual clients can be traced back to the

psychoanalytic movement (Bamford, 1991). Del Castillo (1970), a Spanish-English bilingual psychiatrist, reported that when he interviewed Spanish-speaking people in their mother tongue they appeared to be "obviously psychotic, but much less so, and even may not show any overt psychotic symptoms at all, if interviewed in English" (p. 242). In contrast, Marcos, Urcuyo, Kesselman, and Alpert (1973) found that bilingual clients were found to be more pathological when interviewed in English. Additionally, Edgerton and Karno (1971) reported differences in the perception of mental illness between Mexican-Americans who only spoke Spanish and with those who were monolingual English-speakers. Although researchers offered conflicting reports regarding whether or not clients presented more problematic mental health symptoms in one language than the other, their work paved the way for the consideration of the language in which treatment should be conducted with bilingual clients. Furthermore, counselors began to consider the influence of the bilingual client's language when conducting mental health evaluations.

Dynamics of language use in treatment of bilingual clients. Another area of concern in the literature involves the dynamics of language use in the treatment of bilingual clients (Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba, 2002). Perez-Foster (1998) suggested that bilingualism "exerted its influences on the mental health field since its inception" because German was the second language for many of Freud's early clients (p. 9). Beginning with Freud (1914), who noticed that "functional disturbance evinces itself in the irregularity of our control over foreign vocabulary", psychoanalytic authors have addressed various aspects of counseling bilingual or polyglot clients (p. 26). Buxbaum (1949) discussed the role of the client's second language in the formation of the ego and superego based on her experience counseling German-English bilingual clients. Greenson (1949) reported that in the course of psychoanalytic treatment, one of his clients stated that she was a "scared, dirty child" when speaking in German and a "nervous, refined woman"

when verbalizing her experience in English. He suggested that it might be useful to study the use of a second language in the course of psychoanalytic treatment. Krapf (1955), a polyglot analyst who spoke Spanish, English, German, and French, argued that "passing from one language to another during psychoanalysis" was often a matter of choice for the client and was "unconsciously determined" (p. 345). Although these works were deeply grounded in psychoanalysis, they represent the origin of the discussion of the role of language in counseling with bilingual clients. Because the role of language is an important aspect of the therapeutic process it is necessary to incorporate language use when counseling bilingual, Spanish-speaking clients.

Incorporating Language and Culture in Counseling Bilingual, Spanish-speaking Clients

Santiago-Rivera (1995) developed a treatment modality in which she addressed various ways to incorporate linguistic and cultural factors in assessing and providing counseling services for bilingual, Spanish-speaking, Latino clients. The importance of the framework is that it not only incorporated and highlighted the importance of language and culture in the therapeutic process, but also offered strategies and interventions for culturally sensitive counseling with bilingual, Spanish-speaking clients. In order to provide culturally sensitive counseling, mental health professionals take into consideration factors such as acculturation, language and culture, psychological and physical health, therapeutic modalities, and intervention strategies into their treatment approach (Santiago-Rivera, 1995). The treatment modality that Santiago-Rivera (1995) developed included the use of acculturation, language and culture, psychological and physical health, therapeutic modalities, and intervention strategies when working with bilingual, Spanish-speaking, and Latino clients.

Acculturation. Immigrants who leave their home nation and move to a new country often struggle to adapt and adjust to the language and culture of their new environments. Counselors assess their clients' level of acculturation to "determine the extent to which maladaptive behaviors are associated with conflict often experienced by some Latinos who are unable to cope effectively with the transition" (Santiago-Rivera, 1995, p. 14). Counselors take into account the degree to which acculturation has affected bilingual, Spanish-speaking, and Latino clients by first assessing their residency history, immigration status, and additional demographic considerations (Santiago-Rivera, 1995). Furthermore, counselors who work with Latino clients contemplate "the complex nature of the acculturation process and its effect on language, cultural norms, values, and customs" (Santiago-Rivera, 1995, p. 14). Another aspect to consider is that immigrants often sacrifice aspects of their culture and identity in order to survive in the American way of life (Villalba, 2007). Children are also affected by the acculturation process. "The process of growing up American oscillates between smooth acceptance and traumatic confrontation depending on the characteristics that immigrants and their children bring along and the social context that receives them" (Portes & Zhou, 1993, p. 75). Counselors are urged to identify and evaluate the presence of psychosocial stressors such as a changing value structure, linguistic differences, socioeconomic conditions, immigration status, and experiences with discrimination and racism as part of their assessment procedures (Santiago-Rivera, 1995).

Relationship between language and culture. Counselors who work with bilingual, Spanish-speaking, and Latino clients consider language dominance or preference and adherence to cultural values and customs as separate factors (Santiago-Rivera, 1995). Although there is a "high degree of correspondence between language and culture" a client may have maintained a Latino cultural value such as *familismo* (Latino cultural value of family orientation; Añez,

Organista, Silva, Paris, & Bedregal, 2008), but lost proficiency in Spanish and become a monolingual English-speaker (Santiago-Rivera, 1995). On the other hand, Linton and Jimenez (2009) noted that Spanish language may be more easily retained in the current culture due to frequent and consistent immigration of Latin Americans. Furthermore, the increase in Spanish-language media and presence of large Spanish-speaking populations suppresses linguistic acculturation (Portes & Hao, 1998, p. 289). In the counseling process with bilingual clients "it is important to realize that their current language use probably plays a dynamic role within their psychic lives, for language can mediate the conscious availability of internal and conflictual material, as well as the concordant dissociation from that material (Perez-Foster, 1998, p. 75). Therefore, consideration of client language, whether bilingual or monolingual, is integral to treatment-planning (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994). As part of the evaluation process, researchers recommend that the client's language history and fluency be taken into account before treatment begins (Arredondo, Gallardo-Cooper, Delgado-Romero, & Zapata, 2014; Santiago-Rivera, Arredondo, & Gallardo-Cooper, 2002). The Spanish-English, bilingual clinician adapts his or her approach to match the language proficiency of his or her Spanish-English, bilingual client.

Linguistic expression. Santiago-Rivera (1995) cautioned that clients who are bilingual, Spanish-speaking, and Latino present different information based on the language the therapist used during the assessment. "The evaluation of emotional and physical symptoms and the subsequent design of treatment are influenced by what the client says and how it is said" (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994, p. 389). Clauss (1998) found that as a therapist she used an even-keeled tone when communicating in English and was animated and expressive when speaking in Spanish. Her experience evidences the notion that bilingual persons may express

themselves differently depending on the language in which they are speaking. Just as the counselor may be more expressive in one language than the other, clients may also exhibit more overt expression of symptoms when speaking in one language instead of the other. Therefore, counselors should take into consideration the degree of language dominance and preference as it relates to such factors as the expression of emotions and physical symptoms (Santiago-Rivera, 1995).

Therapeutic modalities. Santiago-Rivera (1995) highlighted several theoretical orientations that have been used in developing treatment models for individual, group, and family counseling with Latino, bilingual clients. Santiago-Rivera, Arredondo, and Gallardo-Cooper (2002) suggested that congruence, empathy, and unconditional positive regard are essential to counseling irrespective of cultural differences. According to Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba (2002), the role of language is central to effective treatment regardless of theoretical orientation and bilingualism should be accepted as a client strength as opposed to a limitation. The role of language is central to effective treatment irrespective of the therapeutic modality because counselors need to assess their clients' language proficiency in order to successfully communicate with them. The choice of therapeutic modality will be different for each counselor, but assessing the degree of language proficiency will affect all bilingual clients who seek counseling. Bilingual counselors who accept bilingualism as a client strength are able to use the two languages in their favor by implementing interventions strategies such as language switching.

Santiago-Rivera (1995) recommended the inclusion of various intervention strategies when working with bilingual, Spanish-speaking, and Latino clients. Counselors have implemented a variety of culturally-sensitive intervention strategies with Latino clients such as

cuento therapy, in which therapists use Spanish-language folktales and storytelling (Constantino, Malgady, & Rogler, 1986), play therapy (Garza & Bratton, 2005), filial therapy (Ceballos & Bratton, 2010), and using dichos, which are Spanish-language sayings or proverbs that express a truth or folk wisdom (Santiago-Rivera, 1995; Zuñiga, 1991).

Statement of the Problem

The existing literature addressed how the role of language influenced counseling with bilingual adults, but was mostly rooted in psychoanalytic thought (Buxbaum, 1949; Greenson, 1949; Krapf, 1955; Marcos, 1976; Marcos & Alpert, 1976; Marcos & Urcuyo, 1979; Marcos, 1988; Perez-Foster, 1998; Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba, 2002). Authors and researchers cautioned that the role of language should be addressed when working with bilingual clients and that it should be considered when making mental health evaluations of bilingual individuals (Bamford, 1991; Del Castillo, 1970; Edgerton & Karno, 1971; Marcos, Urcuyo, Kesselman, & Alpert, 1973). Santiago-Rivera (1995) proposed a culturally sensitive framework in which she included strategies and interventions that addressed culture and language when working with bilingual, Spanish-speaking, Latino clients.

In order to provide culturally sensitive counseling for bilingual, Spanish-speaking, Latino children it is important to understand how they experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate. Further research is necessary to understand how language development affects how children express their feelings and emotions in the two languages with which they communicate or are learning to speak. It will be important to understand if language dominance, whether the child favors one language over the other, or if the child is more fluent in one language than the other, facilitates or hinders how the child expresses his or her feelings in

either or both languages. By understanding how language use and language development influences or affects the expression of feelings and emotions among bilingual, Spanish-speaking, Latino children, the culturally competent mental health professional will be able to provide culturally sensitive counseling services for this population.

Although there is limited discussion in literature regarding the role of language in counseling with adult, bilingual clients, there is a greater paucity of research regarding how bilingual children experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate. Most of the existing literature on language use is dated and focused on the experience of bilingual adults in counseling (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994; Marcos, 1976, 1988; Perez-Foster, 1998; Santiago-Rivera, 1995; Valdez, 2000). Researchers have addressed various aspects of how language use impacts the experience of bilingual children. Worthy, Rodriguez-Galindo, Assaf, Martinez, & Cuero (2003) reported that Latino children feel pressure to speak, read, and write English only. A possible consequence experienced by Latino children who feel pressured to communicate only in English is the subsequent loss of the ability to express their experiences and emotions in Spanish. Researchers have suggested that while undergoing the acculturation process, children fear ridicule and experience shame if not proficient in the second-language that they are acquiring (Grosjean, 1982; Monzo & Rueda, 2009). The fear and shame that Latino children experience contributes to the pressure that they feel to communicate solely in English. "Among children who are learning a second language and who at the same time, must navigate a significant portion of their lives in the new language, avenues of emotional expression are restricted" (Vaño & Pennebaker, 1997, p. 198). Castañon (2011) reported that children who have not developed their mother tongue might have a higher rate of emotional problems than those who are fluent in their native language. Having two languages with which to communicate may

allow bilingual children a larger emotion vocabulary to express themselves. As the population of Latino children in public schools in the United States continues to increase, it is important for counselors to understand how language use influences bilingual children in order to best meet their needs and promote healthy emotional development.

Latinos are the fastest growing segment of the population and the change in the populace is also evident in the nation's public school system where the latest census numbers indicate one-in-four (24.7%) students were Latino (Pew Hispanic Center, 2012; U. S. Census Bureaus, 2010). "Regardless of definition, Latinos comprise nearly half of all second-generation immigrants, and the largest single group of second-generation children is Mexican American" (Oropesa & Landale, 1997, p. 449). Practitioners who work with bilingual children, including mental health professionals in schools, need to demonstrate understanding of the importance of language use in young bilingual Latinos. Culturally sensitive counselors who have a better understanding of how language use impacts the emotional well-being of bilingual children will be able to provide culturally sensitive services relevant to elementary-aged students. The proposed qualitative, phenomenological study will explore how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate.

Rationale

In view of the fact that Latinos are the fastest growing segment of the population, it is highly likely that counselors will work with a client who is or whose parents or grandparents are from a country where Spanish is the dominant language. Practitioners who work with bilingual children, particularly mental health professionals in schools, will need to be familiar with how to demonstrate cultural competence when working with young Latinos. In order to provide

culturally competent services for Latino children and to assist them in the process of cultural adaption, it is essential to understand the linguistic characteristics of the Latino population (Garrison, Roy, & Azar, 1999). Culturally sensitive counselors who have a better understanding of how language use impacts the emotional well-being of children will be able to provide services that are relevant to that age group.

Information gained will be useful for practitioners who work with young, bilingual, Latino children. Counselors who take the time and effort to learn more about bilingual, Latino children's unique culture and language can become instrumental in contributing to their academic, career, personal, and social development (Villalba, 2003). This study adds to the literature regarding the role of language in counseling, but specifically pertaining to bilingual children and how they experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate. Counselor educators, particularly those who train mental health professionals who work in schools, may use this information to inform future clinicians on ways to be culturally, specifically linguistically, competent counselors.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate. I conducted a qualitative study employing a phenomenological method to data collection and analysis. As part of this study, I conducted individual and small group interviews with students in order to better understand their perceptions of the Spanish and English languages and how they experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate. The guiding research question was: How do second generation, bilingual,

Mexican American, 5th grade students experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate? Two phases of data collection were utilized to explore the research questions. During the first phase, I conducted semi-structured individual interviews with eight fifth grade students. The second phase took place two weeks after the individual interviews; I conducted small group interviews with the same eight children.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The primary focus of this study is on how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experienced language use in the two languages with which they communicate. I conducted a review of the literature to provide relevant information related to concepts such as second generation status, bilingualism, language use, and counseling Mexican American children. In the following chapter, I discuss that the lack of consensus regarding the identification of children as second generation exists because of questions about the nativity status of each parent, of the child, and the age of the child when he or she migrated to the United States. I address aspects that influence the degree of bilingualism among second generation children such as segmented assimilation, one-way acculturation, and the linguistic shift as a three-generation process. I attend to how socioeconomic status, sociocultural contexts, and the school setting have an impact on the degree of bilingualism among second generation children.

I address a variety of the multiple existing definitions of bilingualism. I discuss the differences between coordinate, compound, and subordinate bilinguals. I define additive, subtractive, individual, and societal bilingualism. I address salient aspects of counseling subordinate and proficient bilingual clients such as the language barrier, the detachment effect, and language independence. I describe the results of a study on language use among Spanish-English and English-Spanish participants. I discuss the language based origins of Latino cultural values and conclude the literature review by describing Mexican Americans, counseling with Mexican Americans, and counseling Mexican American children.

Second Generation

A salient aspect of second generation children is that they tend to be more bilingual than the first or third generation (Hammer & Rodriguez, 2012). Therefore, discussing how language use relates to second generation Latino, children is of great import. Before addressing how language use relates to second generation, Latino children it is important to discuss the meaning of the concept. Individuals who are members of the second generation are the children of immigrants.

Throughout the history of the United States, various waves of immigration whose individuals have hailed from different countries in the world have impacted its population. Earlier waves of immigrants moved to the United States from countries in Europe, but the 'new' immigration and their children, the new second generation, increasingly originated in Asia and Latin America (Oropesa & Landale, 1997; Zhou, 1997). The offspring of Mexican nationals who moved to the United States are second generation children.

Although describing the offspring of immigrants should be a simple task, Oropesa and Landale (1997) found that a concise definition of the construct was lacking and that one was necessary in order to provide accurate and consistent research results. The authors pointed out two aspects that complicated the identification of different generations. One was the nativity status of the parents and their status as an intermarriage couple and the other the nativity status of the child and whether or not he or she migrated to the United States by a certain age.

Nativity status of the parents. Variation in definition of second generation based on intermarriage was due to mixed marriages, a union between a native-born person and one who was foreign born. An example of a mixed marriage is a union between a father who was born in Mexico and a mother who was born in the United States. "Although all definitions of the second

generation require that at least one parent be foreign born, some specify that either parent can be foreign born and others focus on the nativity of just one parent (i.e., only the father or only the mother)" (Oropesa & Landale, 1997, p. 434). The authors suggested the use of the terms 'father-centric' or 'mother-centric' in order to clarify the nativity status of the parent on which the child's second generation standing is based.

Nativity status of the child. Variation in the definition of second generation based on the nativity of the child was evident in research on language adaptation and bilingualism among children of immigrants (Portes & Hao, 1998; Portes & Schauffler, 1994). These researchers defined second generation as youths born in the United States with at least one foreign-born parent or children born abroad who had lived in the United States for at least five years (Portes & Hao, 1998; Portes & Schauffler, 1994). According to Tran (2010), "the term 'second generation' refers to those born in the United States to immigrant parents and those born abroad who immigrated to the United States at a relatively young age, usually before age 12" (p. 279). As evidenced in the preceding definitions, researchers' operational definition of second generation have varied, thus preventing consistent information on children of immigrant parents. In order to obtain consistent information about children of immigrants an operational definition of second generation is necessary. For the purposes of this study, second generation will refer to children born in the United States to a Mexican born father or mother.

Foreign born children classified under second generation. Immigration of a family that included both parents and children created another classificatory problem (Oropesa & Landale, 1997). Because children who immigrated with their parents at a young age had similar characteristics as native-born children, they were often identifying as second generation even if they were foreign born. For instance, Zhou (1993) defined second-generation immigrants as

"native-born children with at least one foreign-born parent or children born abroad who came to the United States before age 12" (p. 75). Although "immigrant children should be classified as first generation because they were foreign born" (Oropesa & Landale, 1997, p. 432) researchers have used decimals to differentiate immigrant children "according to their developmental stage and their age upon arrival to the United States" (Rumbaut, 1997 as cited in Oropesa & Landale, 1997, p. 432). 'Decimal' generations were used to describe children who were born abroad and entered the United States between the ages of 0-5 ('1.75 generation'), 6-12 ('1.5 generation'), and 13-17 ('1.25 generation'). Researchers have been inconsistent when defining constructs such as the '1.5 generation'. For instance, Linton and Jimenez (2009) described the '1.5 generation' as immigrants who were 10 or younger when they arrived while Portes and Rivas (2011) described them as children born abroad, but brought to the host society at an early age, making them sociologically closer to the second generation.

While various authors found little differences between foreign born and native-born participants when conducting research with adolescents (Portes & Schauffler, 1994), others have suggested that immigrant children vary from those born in the host country (Oropesa & Landale, 1997; Tran, 2010). According to Zhou (1997), "there are important differences between children of different cohorts of the one-and-a-half and second generation, particularly in their physical and psychological developmental stages, in their socialization processes in the family, the school, and the society at large, as well as in their orientation toward their homeland" (p .65). Oropesa and Landale (1997) cautioned against combining native-born and foreign-born children in analyses that focus on language or where language plays a key role in the phenomena being studied because foreign-born children are much less likely than native-born children to be bilingual or English monolingual.

One-Way Acculturation and the Linguistic Shift as a Three-Generation Process

Acculturation and language assimilation involve a one-way process by which immigrants and their children adapt to the host nation's culture by relinquishing their mother tongue in the course to becoming English language monolinguals (Portes & Zhou, 1993; Tran, 2010). Regarding the process toward English language monolingualism, researchers acknowledged the importance that learning English bears for Latino immigrants who are adapting to the United States as their new host nation. "Proficiency in English has been regarded as the single most important prerequisite for assimilation into American society and as a strong social force binding the American people together" (Zhou, 1997, p. 86). While undergoing an acculturation process that progresses through multiple generations, Spanish-speaking Latinos exhibit varying degrees of knowledge, dominance, and preference regarding speaking in English or Spanish. According to Linton and Jimenez (2009), "bilingualism as a transitional state on the way to English monolingualism" may not apply to new immigrants, but definitely exists across generations (p. 968).

Although it does not completely describe the new second generation, the traditional view of the progression of language assimilation by which Latino immigrants transitioned from monolingualism in Spanish, their mother tongue, to monolingualism in English, the host country's language, involved a three-generation process (Portes & Schauffler, 1994; Portes & Zhou, 1993; Tran, 2010). According to the three-generation process, first generation immigrants were motivated by economic survival to try to learn as much English as possible, but spoke primarily in Spanish at home (Portes & Schauffler, 19940. Second generation immigrants spoke with "unaccented English at school and in the workplace", but continued to speak Spanish at home (Portes & Hao, 1998, p. 269). Researchers agreed that by the third generation English

became the mother tongue and the language spoken at home for subsequent generations of Latinos (Portes & Schauffler, 1994; Portes & Zhou, 1993; Tran, 2010). Based on the three-generation process, first generation Latino immigrants tend to speak predominantly in Spanish, their offspring, the second-generation, tend to be bilingual, speaking Spanish at home and English at work or school, and by the third generation, they tend to be monolingual, English speaking Latinos.

Segmented Assimilation

Because the traditional three-generation model of assimilation did not accurately describe the experiences of the new second generation, such as the one lived by Mexican immigrants and their families, researchers described a process by which adaptation to the host country has the potential to take different directions. The traditional three-generation model assumed that immigrants who underwent the acculturation process did so in an upward mobility from poverty to a better socioeconomic status, but researchers offered alternative views to the existing model of assimilation. Portes and Zhou (1993) described segmented assimilation as a process that involved different paths by which immigrants and their children, the new second generation, adapted to their new culture. The mobility process within American society was no longer viewed as movement in one direction from poverty upward, but one that had multiple forms through which immigrants adapted to the host culture. The authors suggested that one of the ways in which immigrants adapted to their new culture was the traditional, upward form in which they acculturated and integrated into the white middle-class. Another form of adaptation was in a downward direction toward permanent poverty. A third form of adaptation "associates rapid economic advancement with deliberate preservation of the immigrant community's values

and tight solidarity" (Portes & Zhou, 1993, p. 82). Regarding segmented assimilation, Portes, Fernandez-Kelly, and Haller (2009) reported that "several distinct paths of adaptation exist, including upward assimilation grounded on parental human or social capital, stagnation into working-class menial jobs, and downward assimilation into poverty, unemployment and deviant lifestyles (p. 1079).

It is important to understand that assimilation or acculturation will affect or influence language use among bilingual, second generation, Latinos. The culturally sensitive mental health professional is aware that acculturation or assimilation will affect language fluency for bilingual, second generation, Latinos. Bilingual, second generation, Latinos who acculturated following the traditional three-generation process were more likely to be more fluent in English than Spanish, while those who assimilated downward toward poverty exhibited more Spanish dominance. In addition to acculturation and assimilation, socioeconomic status, sociocultural context and the school setting also affect the degree of language use of bilingual, second generation, Latinos.

Socio Economic Status, Sociocultural Context, and School Setting

Socio Economic Status

Various authors have discussed the influence of socioeconomic status on bilingual proficiency among second-generation children (Portes & Hao, 1998; Portes & Schauffler, 1994; Portes & Rivas, 2011; Tran, 2010; Zhou, 1997). Portes and Rivas (2011) asserted that the children of higher-status parents have greater resources for sustaining fluency in the two languages with which they communicate. According to Zhou (1997), "socioeconomic status is certainly one of the most important characteristics of the family context because it influences where children live and where they go to school" (p. 79). Wealthier families settle in suburban

middle-class communities offering increased exposure to the host country's language. Low socioeconomic status parents locate in areas affected by poverty and where co-ethnic individuals live, thus exposing their children to their country of origin's language. A lower socioeconomic status Mexican family may settle in an area where other Mexican families live, therefore increasing their children's exposure to Spanish.

> Children growing up in sociocultural context where the native English-speaking majority is dominant or where immigrants from other linguistic backgrounds are most numerous will experience a faster process of home language loss and a rapid conversion to English monolingualism. Conversely, those raised in contexts where a large conational concentration exists will have greater probability of parent language preservation. (Portes & Schauffler, 1994, p. 644)

Although the simultaneous acquisition of good skills in both languages was more likely among high-status families, parental socioeconomic background could have a contradictory effect on bilingualism (Portes & Hao, 1998; Portes & Schauffler, 1994). "While educated and wealthier parents may wish to transmit their language, they will also make available more opportunities for their children to enter the cultural mainstream" (Portes & Schauffler, 1994, p. 644). Despite the fact that children from wealthier homes have more exposure to the host nation's language, parents still influence the degree to which their children will speak two languages. Immigrant parents who have higher economic status have access to more resources that have an impact on how much their children, the second-generation, retain Spanish, their parental language (Tran, 2010).

Sociocultural Context

In addition to socioeconomic status, a variety of sociocultural contexts such as geographic location and family structures influence bilingual fluency among second-generation children. Family structures in which both parents were born outside of the United States and who

spoke Spanish at home influenced the degree of bilingual fluency among second-generation children (Ports & Rivas, 2011). Immigrant children from two-natural-parent families also showed "better psychological conditions, higher levels of academic achievement, and stronger educational aspirations than those in single-parent or socially isolated families" (Zhou, 1997, p. 80). Cross-cultural researchers have expressed that the variation in Spanish fluency in bilingual children is affected by the country in which they were born, whether they are first, second, or third generation, and their positive or negative feelings toward the language (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994; Falicov, 1998; Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba, 2002).

Geographic location influences the degree to which immigrant children attain bilingual fluency because the place where families have settled will either increase or decrease the child's exposure to the host country's native language. Latino immigrants who live in geographic locations where Spanish is spoken more than English have more contact with other Spanish-speaking immigrants rather than with the dominant English-speaking majority (Zhou, 1997). Because of their limited exposure to English, Latino immigrant children who live in geographic locations where Spanish is mostly spoken retain their ability to speak in Spanish therefore maintaining bilingual fluency. Linton and Jimenez (2009) suggested that exposure to the large Mexican immigrant population allows second-generation Mexican Americans to continue to speak in Spanish on a daily basis through various interpersonal interactions such as marriages and romantic partnerships between Mexican Americans and Mexican immigrants.

School Setting

The majority of Latino students in public schools were born in the United States (Pew Hispanic Center, 2008). "The school context that frames the acculturation process plays a

significant role in the ability of second-generation youths to achieve and maintain bilingual fluency" (Portes & Hao, 1998, p. 270). School contexts in which poorly designed and executed bilingual programs prevail may have a detrimental impact on the immigrant child's ability to maintain bilingual fluency in English and Spanish. "Success in school, one of the most important indications of adapting to society, depends not only on the cognitive ability and motivation of individual children, but also on the economic and social resources available to them through their families" (Zhou, 1997, p. 79). The socio-economic status of Latino immigrant parents influences their children's ability to maintain bilingual fluency. Latino parents and their children's process of assimilation to the host country will vary with regard to the extent to which they incorporate its language, norms, values, and customs. Bemak and Chung (2003) asserted that immigrant children acculturate faster than their parents because school life exposes students to the norms and values of the host country. Within the school context, dual language program that value and respect the child's two languages tend to encourage bilingualism. School contexts that use language extraction systems such as English as a Second Language (ESL) are prone to promote English language monolingualism. Culturally sensitive mental health professionals are aware of how socio-economic status, sociocultural context, and the school setting influence language use among bilingual, second generation, Latino children.

Researchers take into account a variety of aspects when defining the construct of second-generation. They consider the nativity status of the child and that of his or her parents. Children born to immigrant parents are labeled as second generation, but children born abroad are labeled as second generation if they immigrated to the host nation before a certain age. Regarding the nativity status of the parents, if one parent was born abroad, then his or her children are considered to be second-generation. Another common aspect of second-generation children is the

degree to which they have acculturated. The degree of acculturation is often measured by how much the child has learned the host country's language. As discussed, a linguistic shift from country of origin language to host country's language is a three-generation process. The first generation tends to speak the country of origin language, their children speak both languages, and by the third generation the host country's language is dominant. For instance, a Mexican family who migrates to the United States would predominantly speak in Spanish. Their children would speak both English and Spanish and their offspring would transition to an English only status. With regard to language, it is important to describe various aspects of bilingualism including its definition.

Bilingualism Defined

Defining bilingualism is no simple task due to the multiplicity of authors from different disciplines who have tried to offer their own interpretations of the phenomenon. According to Baetens Beardsmore (1986), "bilingualism must be able to account for the presence of at least two languages within one and the same speaker, remembering that ability in these two languages may or may not be equal, and that the way the two or more languages are used plays a highly significant role" (p. 3). Perez-Foster (1998) asserted that the bilingual person is "a speaker of one language who can understand and make themselves understood in the complete and meaningful utterances of another language" (p. 8). An individual can be considered to be bilingual if he or she has the ability to regularly and alternatively use two different languages (Grosjean, 1982; Hornby, 1977; Weinreich, 1953). I will discuss linguistic dimensions of bilingualism, degree of bilingualism, Weinreich's (1953) typology, additive and subtractive bilingualism, individual and societal bilingualism, and salient aspects of counseling bilingual clients.

Linguistic Dimensions of Bilingualism

Although linguistic dimensions of bilingualism have received considerable research attention from a variety of disciplines including education, sociology, and psychology, determining just how bilingual a speaker must be in order to be considered bilingual remains a problem (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986; Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba, 2002). Because various authors and researchers have tried to define the concept from their respective disciplines there is a lack of consensus regarding the meaning of bilingualism. In his review of the literature regarding the multiple definitions of bilingualism, Baetens Beardsmore (1986) cited several authors and their varying descriptions of the concept such as: horizontal, vertical, and diagonal bilingualism (Pohl, 1965); ambibilingualism (Halliday, McKintosh, & Strevens, 1970); natural, primary, and secondary bilingualism (Houston, 1972); equilingualism or balanced bilingualism (Fishman, 1971), non-fluent bilinguals (Segalowitz & Gatbonton, 1977), additive and subtractive bilingualism (Lambert, 1974) and dormant bilingual (Grosjean, 1982). In order to deal with the multiplicity of definitions, authors and linguists suggested that bilingualism is not a static condition, lies on a continuum, and is not an all-or-none property, but that the individual exhibits varying degrees of competency of more than one language (Hornby, 1977; Marcos, 1988). In addition to the lack of consensus regarding the definition for bilingualism it is also important to consider various linguistic dimensions of bilingualism when working with clients who speak two languages.

There are several linguistic dimensions of bilingualism that affect language use for clients who speak two languages. The culturally sensitive counselor is aware that clients who speak two languages may be affected or influenced by linguistic dimensions of bilingualism such as the degree of bilingualism that the client exhibits, whether the client is a compound or a coordinate

bilingual, the age of language acquisition, whether or not the client's linguistic background is affected by additive or subtractive bilingualism and individual or societal bilingualism.

Degree of bilingualism. As previously mentioned, bilingualism has received attention from various fields of study, which contributes to the existing variety of perspectives. The degree of an individual's bilingualism may be determined from different perspectives.

> Bilingual individuals differ considerably in terms of their degree of competence in their two languages (balanced versus dominant), in the linguistic relationships between the two speech varieties (distinct languages versus stylistic variations), in the degree of cultural duality involved (bilingualism versus biculturalism), and in the sociocultural significance or function of the languages involved, as well as other sources of variation. (Hornby, 1977, p. 8)

Hornby (1977) listed either or qualities of bilingual individuals while Moreno Fernandez (2005) suggested placement on a continuum. According to Moreno Fernandez (2005):

> The different perspectives can be placed on a continuum that would have definitions that offer a strict concept of the phenomenon on one extreme, with definitions such as 'bilingualism consists of complete, simultaneous, alternating knowledge of two languages'; and at the other extreme, bilingualism is defined in less narrow terms, such as the ones that refer to bilingualism simply as knowing a second language, irrespective of the degree of knowledge. (p. 207)

For children, placement on a bilingual continuum depends on the degree and quality of exposure to a particular language (Hammer & Rodriguez, 2012). Because bilingualism is a matter of degree, children will shift along the competency continuum throughout their lifetimes (Gorsjean, 1982). It is beyond the scope of this project to describe each type of bilingualism, but it is important to understand that the phenomenon has multiple meanings and descriptions stemming from various disciplines such as linguistics, education, psychology, psycholinguistics, and sociology. I will discuss the types of bilingualism that are relevant to counseling with bilingual clients and how context influences how people acquire two languages.

Coordinate, Compound, and Subordinate Bilingualism

Weinreich (1953) developed a typology to differentiate between different types of bilinguals. Although, Hornby (1977) criticized Weinreich's typology because it did not address age of language acquisition when discussing coordinate or compound bilinguals, it allowed for an early way to offer a distinction between different types of bilinguals. Weinreich (1953) used coordinate, compound, and subordinate to describe three types of bilingualism when two languages come in contact within an individual speaker. Despite the limited applicability of Weinreich's typology, it provided counselors who wrote about working with bilingual, Spanish-speaking clients with a way to differentiate between the degrees of bilingualism exhibited by their clients and served as a springboard for subsequent research on language use for clients who have two languages with which they communicate.

Coordinate Bilingual

In this theory, the coordinate bilingual (Type A) treats meaning units as separate such as with the English word 'book', /buk/, and the Russian word 'kníga', /kniga/. The coordinate bilingual is considered to have two separate and different meaning units and two modes of expression (Grosjean, 1982; Hornby, 1977). The coordinate bilingual learned "two languages in totally differentiated circumstances, e.g. one in the home and the other outside, or where the second language was learnt in a totally different cultural environment from the first" (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986, p. 26). Coordinate bilinguals are individuals who learned two languages in totally differentiated circumstances and are considered to have two separate and different meaning units and two modes of expression for each language (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986; Grosjean, 1982; Hornby, 1977).

Compound Bilingual

"The compound bilingual (Type B) interprets two meaning units as a compound sign with a single signified and two signifiers, one in each language" (Weinreich, 1953, p. 10). The compound bilingual knows the word for a particular item in two different languages, such as 'book' and 'kníga', but each word evokes the same meaning (Grosjean, 1982). According to Baetens Beardsmore (1986), compound bilinguals developed two language signs for the same object by using their first language as an intermediary for learning a second language or by being raised in an environment where two languages were spoken interchangeably.

Subordinate Bilingual

Weinreich (1953) described the subordinate bilingual (Type C) as the individual who learns a new language with the help of another. The subordinate bilingual uses his or her stronger language to interpret the words from the language that is weaker for him or her (Grosjean, 1982). Because using one language to learn a second language was an inherent aspect of compound bilinguals, later research collapsed types B and C into one category called compound bilingualism (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986).

Age of Acquisition

Weinreich's (1953) typology initially described whether the bilingual individual learned the two languages in the same setting or in two different environmental contexts. Coordinate bilinguals described individuals who learned two languages in two different environmental contexts, such as Spanish at home and English at school, and compound bilinguals were those who were exposed to both languages in one environment, such as a home with an English-

speaking parent and a Spanish-speaking parent. The typology that began as a tool to distinguish the context in which bilinguals learned their two languages came to be accepted as a way to differentiate age of acquisition. “Accordingly, acquisition of both languages in infancy (early bilinguality) is expected to result in a compounded bilingual system whereas nonsimultaneous acquisition of the two languages (late bilinguality) is expected to result in a coordinated bilingual system” (Genesee, 1977, p. 150). Additive and subtractive bilingualism is another way to describe the acquisition of two languages and the contexts in which they are learned.

Additive and Subtractive Bilingualism

As evidenced in the distinction between coordinate and compound bilinguals, language acquisition is influenced by the context or environment in which the languages were learned. “Since bilingualism always occurs within some particular social setting, the potential effects that it will have on the individual may vary widely depending on the particular social significance and function of the two languages” (Hornby, 1977, p. 7). The importance and influence of social worth is noticeable with regard to additive and subtractive bilingualism (Lambert, 1977).

According to Lambert (1977), additive bilingualism refers to acquiring a second language that has social value and respect in each of the settings and ‘subtractive’ bilingualism refers to a form experienced by many ethnic minority groups who are forced to put aside their country of origin’s language and replace it with the language of the host nation. Subtractive bilingualism “is often found where ethnolinguistic minorities are present and is most easily brought about when schooling is conducted in a language different from that spoken in the home environment” (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986, p. 23). Subtractive bilingualism is discernible in public schools where Latino students for whom Spanish is their first language are placed in English as a Second

Language (ESL) programs through which they are to learn English at the expense of not maintaining their ability to speak Spanish. This also takes place in poorly implemented bilingual programs in which Spanish is slowly phased out at each grade level. For instance, Latino, Spanish-speaking students may begin kindergarten in a class that is conducted 50 % of the time in Spanish and 50% of the time in English. When those students reach fifth grade, the majority of their instruction, if not all, may be conducted in English.

Individual and Societal Bilingualism

Baetens Beardsmore (1986) highlighted the importance of distinguishing between societal and individual bilingualism. According to Moreno Fernandez (2005), bilingualism is a phenomenon that in addition to affecting the individual also affects societies and communities of speakers. Individual bilingualism involves individuals and collective or societal bilingualism includes communities and the individual members in them. Furthermore, a bilingual community is defined as one in which two languages are spoken or one in which all or part of its members are bilingual and individual bilingualism is conceived and explained as a characteristic phenomenon of an individual (Moreno Fernandez, 2005). For instance, the city of Quebec, Canada is considered a bilingual society because its inhabitants speak English and French. Barcelona is also considered a bilingual society because the Spaniards who live there speak both Castilian and Catalan. An American who speaks English and German is an example of a bilingual individual.

Counseling with Bilingual Clients

Because bilingual clients possess two language systems it is possible for language to

influence or affect the counseling process. Marcos and his colleagues (1973, 1976, 1979) addressed a variety of areas related to counseling with Spanish-speaking, bilingual clients. Marcos, Urcuyo, Kesselman, and Alpert (1973) discussed the importance of language in the assessment of bilingual, Spanish-speaking clients and that differences in expression of symptomatology existed depending on the language in which the evaluation was conducted. Marcos (1976) addressed the influence of the language barrier when counseling subordinate bilinguals, clients who learned a second language at different points in their lives. Marcos and Alpert (1976) examined language independence and how it related to counseling proficient bilinguals who spoke two languages fluently.

Subordinate Bilingual and the Language Barrier in Counseling

Counselors in the United States have described how their Spanish-English, bilingual clients used language in the course of treatment. Marcos (1976) defined subordinate bilinguals as individuals who "show a marked difference concerning competence in their two languages" (p. 552). Therefore, there is a clear difference in proficiency between the subordinate bilingual client's mother tongue and his or her non-native language. "Therapy which uses the second tongue as the main form of communication may suppress the mother tongue and the affective experiences tied to it" (Rozensky & Gomez, 1983, p. 154). Suppression of affective experiences may be due to the language barrier, a distinctive aspect of counseling with subordinate bilingual clients when conducted in their non-native tongue. Marcos (1976) described the language barrier as "the aspect of the information-processing mechanisms involved in the speaking of a language which is not the primary tongue that may function as an impediment to the emotional expression and affective involvement of the person" (p. 552). The impact of the language barrier is

noticeable in the detachment effect experienced by subordinate bilingual clients in counseling. “Bilingual clients, speaking in their second language, are sometimes separated from what they are feeling or lack the affective component for what they are discussing” (Rozensky & Gomez, 1983, p. 152). The detachment effect is evidenced in subordinate bilinguals who invest more affective energy in how they are saying things as opposed to what they are saying and may hinder or aid the therapeutic process (Marcos, 1976).

The language barrier and its concomitant detachment effect hinder the therapeutic process when clients expend too much affective energy trying to express their emotions in their non-native language, thus experiencing little relief. The detachment effect is evidenced when clients verbalize “emotionally charged material without displaying the expected emotion” (Marcos, 1976, p. 556). According to Rozensky and Gomez (1983), “the second language remains intellectualized and somewhat distanced from feelings” (p. 153). Although the detachment effect acts as a hindrance it can also aid the therapeutic process by allowing subordinate bilingual clients to discuss experiences in their non-native language that in the first language would have remained unavailable (Marcos, 1976). The second language serves a defensive purpose when “emotionally laden experiences can be too overwhelming or threatening to an individual” (Rozensky & Gomez, 1983, p. 154).

Marcos and Urcuyo (1979) recommended that mental health professionals be aware that the language barrier often interferes with a client’s ability to understand and derive meaning from the therapist’s use of cues such as voice intonation and pauses (p. 336). They stated that the language barrier might also decrease the client’s capacity for interpersonal involvement in the counseling process.

Proficient Bilingual and Language Independence in Counseling

Language barrier and the detachment effect are distinguishing aspects of subordinate bilingual clients, just as language independence is a salient characteristic of proficient bilingual clients in counseling. Marcos and Alpert (1976) described proficient bilinguals as individuals in whom two separate languages are present "each with its own lexical, syntactic, semantic, and ideational components" and who are able to keep the "two codes separate and use them independently with minimal interaction" (p. 1275). The authors recommended that clinicians be aware that the two independent language systems that proficient bilingual clients dominate may modify important aspects of the therapeutic process. "If only one language is used in therapy, some aspects of the patient's emotional experience may be unavailable to treatment; if both languages are used, the patient may use language switching as a form of resistance to affectively charged material" (Marcos & Alpert, 1976, p. 1275).

Marcos (1976) discussed unavailability, distortion of the client's affect, and a language-related sense of self as implications of the proficient bilingual client's experience in counseling. Unavailability, or language specific lacunae (Marcos, 1976), refers to mental health content that the proficient bilingual client experiences in one language system but remains outside of the therapeutic encounter because counseling is conducted in the other language system. "The two languages pertain to two very different sets of experiences and affect how a person expresses himself or herself emotionally" (Guttfreund, 1990, p. 604). Distortion of clients' affect may occur when they share their experiences in a language other than in the one in which the experience took place (Marcos, 1976). Distortion of affect may take place because clients may distance themselves from the emotional content of an experience if it is shared in a language other than in the one in which it took place. For instance, distortion of affect might take place if a

bilingual individual's emotional experience of a situation is linked to Spanish, but he or she speaks about it in English. This same individual may experience "a language-related sense of dual sense" whether he or she is speaking in English or Spanish (Marcos, 1976, p. 349). The expression of emotions may be different for a bilingual individual's Spanish-speaking self and his or her English-speaking self. In order to counteract the impact of language independence on the therapeutic process, Marcos and Urcuyo (1979) encouraged counselors to explore commonalities between the two languages as well as experiences that seem unique to each language.

In order to provide culturally sensitive counseling for bilingual clients it is important to understand how language use affects the counseling process. Rozensky and Gomez (1983) described problematic aspects of psychotherapy with bilingual clients, but did not differentiate between subordinate and proficient bilingual individuals. The authors stated that separation from what clients are feeling and a lack of affective component for what they are discussing are difficulties when working with bilingual individuals. They suggested that another problem that therapists face when meeting with bilingual clients is "the nonavailability during therapy of developmental issues that had originally taken place when the client spoke his/her mother tongue" (Rozensky & Gomez, 1983, p. 153). The authors indicated that bilinguals who have learned a second language for survival in a new culture use it for basic communicative purposes and not emotional expression. "The mother tongue remains both the vehicle for the expression of feelings and the vessel for the storage of cognitive experiences (memories) acquired in that language set – neither readily translatable into the new language system" (Rozensky & Gomez, 1983, p. 153). Separation from what clients are feeling, lack of an affective component for what they are discussing, nonavailability of developmental issues, and the use of a second language

for survival as opposed to emotional expression are problematic aspects of working with bilingual clients.

Language Usage and Emotional Expression

Guttfreund (1990) conducted a study in which he assessed the effects of the mother tongue and the second tongue on the affective experience of English-Spanish and Spanish-English coordinate bilinguals. Coordinate bilinguals are individuals for whom "two languages are rarely interchanged, as when one language is exclusively spoken at home and another language is exclusively spoken at school" (Guttfreund, 1990, p. 606). Because the two languages are different for the coordinate bilingual, they should differentially affect how a person expresses himself or herself emotionally. Guttfreund (1990) compared Latino and European-American participants who learned their native language prior to age of five and a second language after the age of five. He used the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI; Spielberger, Gorsuch, Luschene, Vagg, & Jacobs, 1983); the Depression Adjective Check List (DACL; Lubin, 1981); and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MC-SDS; Crowne & Marlow, 1960), to divide 80 participants into four groups: Spanish-Spanish (Spanish mother tongue, Spanish condition) bilinguals who were administered the self-report measures in Spanish; English-Spanish (English mother tongue, Spanish condition) bilinguals who were administered the self-report measures in Spanish; Spanish-English (Spanish mother tongue, English condition) bilinguals who were administered the self-report measures in English; and English-English (English mother tongue, English condition) bilinguals who were administered the self-report measures in English.

Both Spanish-English and English-Spanish participants expressed greater affect in Spanish irrespective of whether it was their mother tongue or their second language. Guttfreund (1990) concluded that "it is not the mother tongue but rather the qualities of the specific language being used together with the role that language plays in the individual's life that will have an impact on a bilingual's emotional experience" (p. 606). Based on the results of his study, Guttfreund (1990) recommended that psychological evaluations conducted on Latinos should be completed in Spanish if it is their mother tongue. He highlighted the importance of conducting the evaluations in Spanish when assessing for depression or suicidal ideations. Furthermore, he reported that for Latinos, the counseling process would be more meaningful because they would feel more comfortable expressing their feelings in Spanish. He added that "a bilingual therapist and bilingual client would seem to be the ideal combination, thus allowing the therapeutic process not only to address the bilingual-bicultural issues, but also enabling the therapist to switch languages in the therapy in order to help a patient either decrease or increase the distance from difficult material" (Guttfreund, 1990, p. 606).

Language Based Origin of Latino Cultural Values

Many scholars have addressed, discussed, and defined *personalismo*, *respeto*, *simpatia*, and *confianza* as cultural values shared by many Latinos (Añez, Silva, Paris, & Bedregal, 2008; Falicov, 1998; Organista, 2007; Santiago-Rivera, 2002). Latino cultural values are traditional ways of interacting and behaving that originated in the Spanish-speaking countries from which individuals immigrated. Spanish was the language in which immigrants incorporated and encoded Latino cultural values such as *familismo, personalismo*, *respeto*, *simpatia*, and *confianza* in Spanish. Language plays an important role in the transmission of traditional ways of

interacting and behaving between Spanish-speaking Latinos (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994). Although these traditional ways of interacting among Latinos are described as cultural values, language is key in their development because they not only were encoded originally in Spanish, but also transmitted through language.

For children, the family serves as a psychosocial guide with regard to their values, actions, and identity in the world (Organista, 2007). *Personalismo* is a style of communication that facilitates the development and maintenance of warm and friendly exchanges through which individuals strive to engage in pleasant and conflict-free exchanges (Añez et al., 2008). Through *personalismo*, Latinos learn to value warm, friendly, and personal relationships (Santiago-Rivera, et al., 2002). Children learn the Latino cultural value of *respeto*, which refers to respect and mutual deference, through interactions that take place within a hierarchical structure that is mediated by age, gender, and status (Añez et al., 2008). *Simpatia* refers to the value that Latinos place on smooth, pleasant relationships that are characterized by individuals who are easy-going, friendly, and fun to be with and prefer to minimize and avoid conflict and confrontation (Añez et al., 2008; Santiago-Rivera, et al., 2002). The cultural value of *confianza* addresses the development of trust, intimacy, and familiarity in a relationship, which takes time to build and strengthens across positive interactions (Añez et al., 2008; Santiago-Rivera, et al., 2002).

Social support and the family are also crucial when working with Latino families and individuals. The Latino cultural value of *familismo* is evidenced in the importance of the immediate and extended Latino families. *Familismo* refers to the central importance of family as manifested in strong emotional and instrumental interdependence between members, within and across generations, over the life cycle (Organista, 2007). The importance and influence of the family is significant for counseling because one member may determine whether or not to

initiate, continue, or terminate counseling. According to Santiago-Rivera and colleagues (2002), "knowledge of Latino-centered cultural value orientations and social etiquette is important to consider and must be applied with sound clinical judgment" (p. 112). For instance, it is recommended that counselors use *plática*, or small talk, as a form of etiquette during the initial encounter with Latino clients in order to increase the chances of having them return for subsequent sessions.

Culturally sensitive counselors incorporate Latino cultural values to their work with Mexican American clients. According to Gonzalez (1995), *plática* can be used as a rapport and trust builder with Mexican American clients and should not be seen as a way by which they avoid talking about their problems or concerns. Culturally sensitive counselors who work with Mexican American clients are mindful of other aspects of etiquette such as firmness of handshake, eye contact, and paying respect to the eldest male by greeting him first (Gonzalez, 1995).

Mexican Americans

Mexican American is a term used to describe many individuals who are U.S. citizens but are of Mexican descent and often can trace ancestry to those living in states that were once Mexican territory prior to being annexed by the United States (Arredondo, Gallardo-Cooper, Delgado-Romero, & Zapata, 2013). Spanish was spoken north of the Rio Grande before Mexico ceded its territories to the United States (Little, 2012). The economic and political environments in both countries have influenced migration from Mexico to the United States (Arredondo et al., 2013; Santiago-Rivera et al., 2002).

> Throughout the 1900s, complementarity of market needs between México and the United States resulted in an economic roller coaster ride for Mexicans: during periods of labor

> shortage north of the border, the United States recruits workers, encourages relocation, and legalizes immigration; when American unemployment is high, Mexican immigration is discouraged, made illegal, and punished with deportation. (Falicov, 1998, p. 36)

As part of work programs, large numbers of Mexican labor workers migrated to the United States during the 1880s and 1940s to work on railroads, in agriculture, and in industry (Altarriba & Bauer, 1998). The negative economic environment in Mexico has also contributed to the migration of workers to the United States (Arredondo et al., 2013). The tumultuous symbiotic relationship between both nations has had multiple variations throughout time. Despite the historic influence of each country's economic or political environment on migration, current trends evidence important changes in migration patterns from Mexico to the United States. "Net migration from Mexico likely reached zero in 2010, and since then more Mexicans have left the U.S. than have arrived" (Pew Hispanic Center, 2015). The recent change in migration pattern has not affected the number of Mexicans present in the United States. Because of its proximity to the United States, its cession of land in the 1800's, and migratory patterns, Mexicans are the largest Latino-origin population in the U.S., accounting for nearly two-thirds (64%) of the U.S. Latino population in 2012 (Pew Hispanic Research Center, 2012).

Mexican Americans and Counseling

As early as the mid 1970s, authors cautioned that disregarding cultural differences when working with Mexican American would lead to resistance, little therapeutic movement, and clients who terminate the therapeutic process early (Green, Trankina, & Chávez, 1976). Since then, authors have suggested culturally sensitive models and frameworks for working with Mexican-American clients. Altarriba and Bauer (1998) referred to cultural sensitivity as building a treatment model "on a set of ideas that complement the client's value structure" (p. 389).

Ponterotto (1987) suggested that in addition to addressing the needs of the individual person, culturally relevant counseling with Mexican Americans should incorporate client cultural attributes such as his or her psychosocial, economic, and political needs. Gonzalez (1995) suggested that clinicians consider factors such as demographics, acculturation, social support, and etiquette, as well as language, when working with Mexican American clients.

Regarding demographics, a record 33.7 million Latinos of Mexican origin resided in the United States in 2012 including11.4 million immigrants born in Mexico and 22.3 million born in the United States who self-identified as Latinos of Mexican origin (Pew Hispanic Research Center, 2012). Because Mexico shares a border with the United States, and there is no large body of water that acts as a barrier, many recent and not so recent immigrants return to their homeland keeping close ties to the culture and language of Mexico (Altarriba & Bauer, 1998; Gonzalez, 1995). With respect to language, Gonzalez (1995) highlighted the importance of knowing the client's speech and language capabilities because communicating effectively is essential during counseling.

Culturally sensitive counselors assess the degree to which acculturation has had an impact on and influenced the Mexican-American clients with whom they work. Acculturation refers to the cultural changes experienced by individuals who have developed in one cultural context and have migrated and adapted to their new cultural context (Berry, 1997). Santiago-Rivera and colleagues (2002) viewed acculturation as "a sociopsychological phenomenon that is an ongoing process, and thus dynamic in nature" (p. 38). During their acculturation process, individuals adjust to a variety of aspects of their new environment, such as whether or not they are accepted by the host nation, their relationships with different people, and their own self-worth (Arredondo et al., 2013). Regarding acculturation, the type of work and level of education

of Mexican American clients may also be useful in assessing their level of functioning and openness to the various approaches to counseling (Gonzalez, 1995). Acculturation influences language use because the degree to which immigrants and their children adopt the host country's dominant language as their own depends on where they settle. If immigrants settle in areas where the majority of the population speaks their country of origin's language, then their continued exposure to that language makes it less likely that they will learn or use the host country's national language. With regard to language acquisition, the acculturation process for immigrant children is different than for their parents because they attend school where the dominant language is taught. Children of Mexican immigrants will be exposed to more English than their parents because they will learn it at school, but their parents will continue to primarily speak in Spanish.

Counseling Mexican-American Children

Out of the existing studies that focused on counseling Latino or Hispanic children, few concentrated specifically on Mexican American children. Costantino, Malgady, and Rogler (1984; 1986) implemented *cuento* therapy, a therapeutic intervention through which counselors read culturally appropriate folk tales, with Puerto Rican children. Following the reading, the counselors and the children discussed the moral behavior of the characters in the folk tale. Subsequently, the counselor considered adaptive and maladaptive consequences of the actions taken by the characters in the story. Constantino et al. (1984; 1986) found that children in the *cuento* group were rated less anxious after 20 weeks than children in the control group.

Based on the assumption that play is the universal language of children, a few studies focused on the effectiveness of play therapy with Latino children. Child-Centered Play Therapy

(CCPT) is a therapeutic intervention through which children use toys like words and play as their symbolic language of self-expression (Landreth, 2002). Garza and Bratton (2005) found that children who exhibited behavior problems and received Child-Centered Play Therapy showed decreases in externalizing behavior problems compared to the treatment group who received curriculum-based interventions. In the Garza and Bratton study, play therapy was conducted in the language preferred by the child; however, use of language was not explored as a research variable.

Among the existing therapeutic interventions, play therapy literature specifically explored counseling Mexican American children. Kranz, Ramirez, Flores-Torres, Steele, and Lund (2005) discussed physical settings, materials, and related Spanish terminology recommended for play therapy with first-generation Mexican-American children. Ramirez, Flores-Torres, Kranz, and Lund (2005) examined the use of Axline's eight principles of play therapy with Mexican-American children. Perez, Ramirez, and Kranz (2007) addressed adjusting limit setting in play therapy with first-generation Mexican-American children. Although these authors discussed aspects related to counseling Mexican-American children they failed to specifically address the importance of language use in counseling with this population.

Green, Trankina, and Chavez (1976) set out to discuss therapeutic interventions with Mexican-American children, but instead emphasized "general issues that influence the effectiveness of therapeutic intervention with Mexican-American families" (p. 75). With regard to Mexican-American children, the authors listed factors that might be problematic for them within an educational system such as alienation, an inability to find reward within the school system, cultural identity conflict and exclusion, peer-group conflict, rigidly run schools in lower social class neighborhoods, impersonality, and discrimination. With respect to adult clients, the

authors suggested that underutilization of services by Mexican-Americans was due in part to their underrepresentation in mental health facilities, higher risks of alienation by the dominant culture, insensitivity to cultural differences, and overlooking of the positive qualities of the interpersonal relationship in counseling. Despite the inconsistency with regard to a focus on children or adults, the authors adeptly discussed language as a factor that influenced the degree to which Mexican-Americans sought counseling services and their expectations of treatment. According to Green, Trankina, & Chavez (1976), "without shared language there is little communication, and without shared communication there is little therapy" (p. 72).

Authors and researchers have discussed a variety of interventions with Latino or Mexican-American children. Although these authors have addressed effective interventions such as *cuento* therapy or play therapy with Latino children, they have not conducted a study on language in counseling with Mexican American children. The limited literature on language in counseling with Mexican American children calls for a study that focuses on how they experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate.

Summary of the Literature

Although Latino population growth has slowed down in recent years, it still reached a high of 55.4 million in 2014 and represented 17.4% of the total U.S. population (Pew Hispanic Center, 2015). The growth of the Latino population also had an impact on student enrollment in U.S. public schools where a record 23.9% of all pre-K through 12th grade public school students were Latinos (Pew Hispanic Center, 2012). Trends in population growth of Latinos in the United States suggest that mental health professionals will work with Latino clients in both clinical and school settings. A review of the literature pointed to a need to further understand how second

generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate.

Existing literature on children born to immigrant parents suggested that discord among researchers existed with regard to what criteria should be used to label individuals as second generation (Portes & Hao, 1998, 1993; Portes & Rivas, 2011; Portes & Schauffler, 1994; Portes & Zhou; Tran, 2010; Zhou, 1997). An operational definition of second generation is needed in order to collect accurate data on children of foreign-born parents (Oropesa & Landale, 1997).

Degree of bilingualism was another area in which researchers had divergent ideas with regard to defining the concept. Because bilingualism has been researched from various academic fields a clear operational definition was lacking (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986). Researchers concluded that because degree of bilingualism lies on a proficiency continuum it cannot be discussed as an all or nothing quality or trait (Grosjean, 1982; Hornby, 1977; Marcos, 1988).

The existing body of literature on counseling bilingual clients is limited and is based on the work of psychiatrists who used psychoanalytic concepts to discuss the impact of language use on counseling (Buxbaum, 1949; Greenson, 1949; Krapf, 1955, Marcos, 1976; Marcos & Alpert, 1975; Marcos & Urcuyo, 1979). Although authors such as Altarriba and Santiago Rivera (1994, 1995, 1998, 2002) have made progress in addressing linguistic aspects in counseling with bilingual clients, further research is needed, particularly with how bilingual children experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experienced language use in the two languages with which they communicate. I conducted a qualitative, phenomenological study using Giorgi's (2009) method of data collection and analysis. When applied to mental health research, phenomenology is "a descriptive, qualitative study of human experience" (Wertz, 2011, p. 124). In this chapter, I describe phenomenology, Giorgi's (2009) procedures of data collection and data analysis, and the selection of participants. I address trustworthiness by discussing integrity of data, balance between participant meaning and researcher interpretation, and clear communication of findings (Williams & Morrow, 2009).

Research Problem

The guiding question for this phenomenological study was: How do second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate? ¿Qué experiencia con el uso del lenguaje en los dos idiomas con los cuales se comunican tienen los estudiantes de quinto grado que son segunda generación, bilingües, y Méjico Americanos?

Philosophical Underpinnings of Phenomenology

Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) developed phenomenology as a philosophical method for investigating anything that appeared to or was perceived in consciousness (Wertz, 2011). Consciousness is an important and central concept in philosophical phenomenology. Husserl

dedicated over 40,000 hand-written pages to the development of phenomenology as a philosophical method to understanding consciousness (Van Manen, 2014). Philosophers who use phenomenology to investigate how a phenomenon is constituted in consciousness undergo a series of epochés and reductions that lead them to the essence of the object of study. “Epoché, from the Greek, means abstention” (Wertz, 2011, p. 125). Giorgi (2009) explained the steps in Husserl’s philosophical method and then described how he modified them for use in scientific psychological research.

The Philosophical Method

Giorgi (2009) defined phenomenology as a “method for investigating the structures of consciousness and the types of objects that present themselves to consciousness” (p. 87). In the philosophical phenomenological method, the philosopher goes through a series of steps in order to determine and then describe the essence of the object of study as it appeared in consciousness. In Giorgi’s (2009) synthesis of the philosophical method, the philosopher first assumes the phenomenological attitude, then searches for the essence of the phenomenon, and concludes the process by describing the essence of the object of study as accurately as possible.

In order to assume the phenomenological attitude, the individual first engages in the epoché of the natural sciences and then the epoché of the natural attitude. In the first epoché, or abstention, the philosopher puts aside "natural scientific and other knowledge – theories, hypotheses, measuring instruments, and prior research about the topic under investigation” (Wertz, 2011, p. 125). The abstention or bracketing of prior scientific knowledge leads the philosopher to the natural attitude, the pre-scientific lifeworld and attitude of ordinary, everyday

life (Giorgi, 2009; Wertz, 2005, 2011). In the second epoché, sometimes called the phenomenological reduction, the philosopher breaks from the natural attitude.

Once the philosopher has assumed the phenomenological attitude, he or she searches for the essence of the object of study. The philosopher begins by focusing on an example or instance of the phenomenon and then applies free imaginative variation to the object of study to determine its essential quality. “Free imaginative variation requires that one mentally remove an aspect of the phenomenon that is to be clarified in order to see whether the removal transforms what is presented in an essential way” (Giorgi, 2009, p. 69).

In the third step, the philosopher describes the essence of the object of study. Once the philosopher has determined the essence of the object of study, he or she describes it as accurately as possible and does not “add or subtract from what is present” (Giorgi, 2009, p. 89). The process concludes once the philosopher describes the object of study as accurately as possible.

Modifications of the Philosophical Method to Meet Scientific Psychological Criteria

In order to meet scientific psychological research criteria, Giorgi (2009) modified Husserl’s philosophical phenomenological method by changing the order of the steps. Giorgi (2009) also recommended that researchers approach the object of study from a scientific perspective instead of a philosophical one. The researcher conducts a psychological analysis by operating from a scientific level as opposed to a philosophical one and the analysis is “psychologically sensitive” (Giorgi, 2009, p. 94). The researcher conducts a psychologically sensitive analysis by focusing on aspects of the descriptions that relate to mental health constructs.

In Husserl’s philosophical method, the philosopher first assumes the phenomenological

attitude, then searches for the essence of the phenomenon, and concludes the process by describing the essence of the object of study as accurately as possible. In Giorgi's (2009) modification of the philosophical method to meet scientific psychological criteria, the researcher first obtains the description from others. Then, the researcher assumes the phenomenological reduction by breaking from the everyday, quotidian, natural attitude and completes the process by searching for an invariant psychological meaning. I will delineate the procedures I undertook to recruit participants for the study and then I will describe the steps I implemented in order to collect and analyze data following Giorgi's (2009) method.

Participants

In qualitative research, participants are usually recruited for a study because of their experience of the phenomenon in question and revelatory relationship with the subject matter under investigation (Ryan et al., 2007; Wertz, 2005). I selected second-generation, bilingual, Mexican-American, fifth grade participants from a public school in the North Texas area because the educational institution offered bilingual education until 5th grade. Because the students in this school were enrolled in a bilingual 5th grade class I expected that they continue to communicate in both English and Spanish and have sufficient experience with language use in the two languages with which they communicated. I selected 5th grade students because their developmental age and linguistic proficiency would allow them to discuss their experience with language use more than other elementary aged children. In order to maintain confidentiality, I assigned a pseudonym to each of the participants in this study.

Researchers who conduct qualitative research differ on the minimum number of participants who should be selected for the study and whether or not it is individuals or their

experiences that should be considered when seeking in depth knowledge on the subject matter. Polkinghorne (2005) stated that in qualitative research the unit of analysis is experience and not individuals. Giorgi (2009) offered a similar rationale and argued that "what has to be counted is not the number of participants but the number of instances of the phenomenon that are contained in the descriptions" (p. 198). Others suggested that a small selection of participants in qualitative research is not a problem because the researcher is not attempting to generalize findings and numbers alone have little to do with the quality or adequacy of qualitative data (Morrow, 2005; Ryan et al., 2007). Wertz (2005) stated that researchers should decide how many participants to select for a study by "considering the nature of the research problem and the potential yield of findings" (p. 171). He went on to propose that selecting only one participant may be sufficient if he or she offers enough in-depth knowledge about the topic to fulfill the goal(s) of research.

With regard to the number of participants, Giorgi (2009) recommended the following:

> In phenomenological research, depending upon the amount of raw data collected, at least three subjects are always required because it is important to have variations in raw data. There is a trade-off between the amount of data collected per subject and the number of subjects required. The greater the amount of data obtained from each subject, the fewer the number of subjects required, but there should always be at least three. In any case, it is the structure of the phenomenon that we are seeking, not the individualized experience of the phenomenon. (p. 198)

I invited all of the students from a bilingual, 5th grade classroom in an elementary school in North Texas to participate in the study (Morrow, 2005). Criteria for participation was that students be second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students. Students were considered to be second generation, Mexican Americans if at least one of their parents was born in Mexico or if the child participant immigrated to the United States before the age of 12 (Tran, 2010). The participants in this study were considered to be bilingual children because they used at least two languages in their daily lives, irrespective of the levels of proficiency in them

(Grosjean, 1982; Pavlenko, 2006). Eight children agreed to participate in the study. Of the eight children, three were male, and five were female. Six of the participants were born in the United States and the other two were born in Mexico. The children were between the ages of 10 and 11. All children identified as Mexican or Mexican American. One participant identified as Tejano reporting that he was "like part Mexican and part from the United States; Like part English, part Spanish". Six English dominant children chose to speak in English and two Spanish dominant children chose to speak in Spanish during the interviews. English dominance refers to a child's "ability to speak English in most circumstances with greater ease than Spanish" (Block, 2011, p. 126). Conversely, Spanish-dominant children are those individuals for whom speaking Spanish is easier than English in most situations.

Procedure

I submitted an application to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) including the purpose of the study, research design, participant recruitment strategy, the informed consent (Appendix B), the data collection and analysis process, and the method by which I would maintain participant confidentiality. Upon IRB approval, I approached the teacher in the bilingual, 5th grade classroom and asked him to inform his students' parents of the study. Additionally, I sent home a double-sided flyer, with English on one side and Spanish on the other, to inform parents of the study in the students' afterschool folders (Appendix D). Parents were fully informed of all procedures because children under 18 years of age who participated in this study are considered a vulnerable population. I communicated either in person or by phone with the parents who demonstrated interest in participating in the study to further explain the study and completed informed consent procedures. In order to obtain informed consent, when a parent responded to

the flyer regarding the study, I called the parent to discuss the purposes and conditions of the study. I informed the parents that the individual and group interviews would be video recorded. I provided a written copy of an informed consent form to parents that had to be signed in order to have their child participate in the study. I answered any questions that the parents posed. After the parents gave consent, I described the study to the child and asked for his or her written assent. Once I had obtained permission from the parents and assent from the children I began to collect data for the study using individual and group interviews.

Prior to the individual interviews, I met with the teacher to find a time during which the child participant would miss the least amount of instructional time. I met with the child in an office space assigned by the school administrator. I video recorded the individual and group interviews in order to transcribe the content of each meeting. I picked up the student from his or her classroom and walked back to the space where the interview took place. I informed students that I would be video recording the interview and reminded them that they did not have to complete the interview if they felt anxious or distressed. When I picked up the student from the class, I began speaking to the student in Spanish in the hallway, but continued to speak in the language in which he or she chose to speak. I asked the student questions related to language use and allowed him or her to share as much as possible about his or her experience with the phenomenon. Once the student finished describing his or her experience with language use, I took him or her back to class.

Once I completed the individual interviews with all participants, I found general commonalities in the students' answers and used that information to formulate questions for the group interview. I followed a similar process for the group interview that I followed for the individual interviews. I asked the teacher for a time during which I could meet with students for

the group interview. Although six students chose to speak in English and two in Spanish during the individual interviews, I created two groups of four participants each in order to have the same number of participants in each group. I included two English dominant participants who had used Spanish during the individual interviews in Spanish dominant group. I led one group interview in English for the English dominant students and another in Spanish for the Spanish dominant students.

I video recorded all individual and group interviews in order to prepare for subsequent data analysis. The raw data included all comments and statements that the participants provided during the individual and group interviews. In order to prepare the data for analysis, I viewed, listened to, and transcribed verbal descriptions and interviews into written form (Wertz, 2005). I used Giorgi's (2009) psychological phenomenological method to data analysis.

Child Interviews

An overarching aspect to consider with regard to the feasibility of the study was whether or not a phenomenological study could be conducted with young children such as fifth grade students. Nilges (2004) conducted a phenomenological investigation and used semi-structured interviews in order to understand the movement meanings for fifth-grade students in a creative dance unit. Segal-Andrews (1994) used a mixed methods approach for which she conducted interviews with fifth grade students in order to obtain qualitative data. In addition to using questionnaires, Romano (1997) used open-ended questions to find out how fourth and fifth grade students expressed stress and coping. Cross, Stewart, and Coleman (2003) used a phenomenological approach to conducting interviews to understand the lived experiences of attending a magnet school for academically gifted elementary school students. Upon review of

the available research, I concluded that the phenomenological approach was appropriate with the identified age group for this study.

I applied Spratling, Coke, and Minick's (2012) findings regarding interviewing young children. Spratling and colleagues (2012) identified four themes in the studies in which children were interviewed successfully. Spratling et al. (2012) reported that researchers were able to lead successful student interviews by establishing rapport, having students draw or journal, and finding ways to decrease participant anxiety such as conducting group interviews.

Data Collection

In the process of describing data collection procedures, I employed the terminology that Giorgi (2009) used when modifying the philosophical approach to fit criteria needed for scientific research. In Giorgi's (2009) modification of Husserl's phenomenological philosophical method to meet scientific psychological criteria the researcher first obtains the description from others. Then, he or she assumes the phenomenological reduction and completes the process by searching for an invariant psychological meaning.

In the first step of Giorgi's (2009) modification of the philosophical method to meet scientific psychological criteria, the researcher first obtains the description from others. The others from whom I obtained the description were second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students. The participants described their experience with language use in the two languages with which they communicate during individual and group interviews. During each phase of data collection, the participants gave the description "in the natural attitude and from an everyday perspective" (Giorgi, 2009, p. 180). I obtained the information from others in two phases: individual interviews and group interviews.

During the first phase, I conducted semi-structured individual interviews with all eight students by asking them questions related to language use (Appendix E). The individual interviews lasted no longer than 30 minutes and the group interviews lasted between 30 and 40 minutes. Irwin and Johnson (2005) recommended that when interviewing young children, researchers begin by asking more direct questions in order to develop a better understanding of the child's experience. I began individual interviews with direct questions about how the participants understood language use. I asked the second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students: 1) How they felt about speaking in English, 2) How they felt about speaking in Spanish, 3) How they felt about themselves when speaking in English, and 4) when speaking in Spanish, 5) Whether they felt more confident speaking in English or in Spanish, 6) In what language they felt more comfortable expressing their feelings, 7) What it meant to speak two languages, and 8) When and where they spoke English or Spanish.

The second phase took place two weeks after the individual interviews. Once I completed the individual interviews with all participants, I transcribed the recorded material into written descriptions (Giorgi, 2009). I then looked for general commonalities in the students' answers and used that information to formulate questions for the group interview. I conducted two separate small group interviews with four students. One group of four was composed of English dominant students and the other group of four with children for whom Spanish was their dominant language.

Once I obtained the description from the second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade participants, I assumed the phenomenological reduction. According to Giorgi (2009), "no claim that an analysis is phenomenological can be made without the assumption of the attitude of the phenomenological reduction" (p. 98). In order to assume the

phenomenological reduction, I bracketed my presuppositions about second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students, and language use.

Assumption of the phenomenological reduction. According to Giorgi (2009), the researcher takes "everything in the raw data to be how the describer experienced the objects, and no claim is made that the events described really happened as they were described" (p. 99). I accepted the description of the experience with language use as it was given by the second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students because it was offered from within the natural attitude. How the participants shared their information is how they experienced language use irrespective of whether or not it was accurate or if it occurred as they described.

Assumption of the phenomenological reduction began by writing what others had previously expressed about the main constructs in the study. The literature review served as an initial process of bracketing existing knowledge about second generation, bilingualism, Mexican American, 5th grade students, and language use.

Another aspect of the assumption of the phenomenological reduction is for the researcher to bracket personal past experiences and all his or her past knowledge about the phenomenon (Giorgi, 2009). I was born and raised in Colombia, South American and speak, read, and write English and Spanish fluently. I have over fifteen years of experience working with Latino children as a bilingual teacher and then counselor in the elementary school setting. Prior to analyzing the data in order to search for an invariant psychological meaning, I wrote down my prior experience and knowledge about second generation, bilingualism, Mexican American, 5th grade students, and language use. In order to minimize the influence of my past personal and professional experiences I wrote down my presuppositions about the research topics in order to view the raw data as freshly as possible prior to analysis (Giorgi, 2009).

Second generation. The term second generation describes persons who were born in a particular country to at least one parent who was born in a foreign country. Regarding this study, second generation participants are individuals born in the United States to at least one parent who was born in Mexico. Individuals who are second generation citizens are often caught between two cultures and feel as if they do not belong in either one. Second generation individuals go about their daily existence going back and forth between two worlds. These two worlds are often delineated by language and location. Regarding Mexican American children, they move back and forth between English and Spanish. Spanish is the language of their physical home; the space they share with their parents who tend to primarily speak in Spanish, their native tongue. Depending on where Mexican Americans live, individuals who were born in the United States to at least one Mexican parent will interact with English mostly in contexts outside of their physical home. If they are students, the language that they will speak at school and outside of the home will be English.

Second generation individuals are also exposed to English through the media that they choose to consume. Although Spanish language media has gained strength, Mexican American children often choose English over Spanish because of the pressure exerted by the societal context with which they interact. Preference over one language over the other may create a divide in the home because communication between the Spanish speaking parents and the English-speaking child may be severed. Furthermore, children may experience a shift in power and gain an advantage over their parents when they become their translators for a variety of cultural transactions. The child's bilingual ability will often dictate their relationship with both cultures.

Bilingual

Because scholars from different fields have defined the term bilingual in many ways confusion exists regarding what constitutes the ability for an individual to fluently write, speak, and read in two separate languages. Bilingualism has often been placed on a linguistic fluency continuum ranging from an individual who speaks one language and understands what is said in another to a person who has full command of both languages.

My bias regarding bilingualism is that it should constitute an individual who can fluently read, write, and speak two languages. For instance, a person who is a Spanish-English bilingual should have the ability to speak Spanish with any Spanish-speaking individual irrespective of his or her country of origin. People often state that they did not understand another person's Spanish because they speak a different form or dialect of the language. If two individuals from two different Spanish-speaking countries speak their own language fluently they will be able to converse with another individual via dialect leveling by which both persons abstain from using unnecessary colloquialisms and adornments in their speech (Little, 2012). Furthermore, a fluent Spanish-English bilingual should be able to read Cervantes and Shakespeare in both English and Spanish and should be able to write and verbally explain the content of both major proponents of the written word in each language.

Mexican American

Mexican Americans are individuals who were born in the United States and have at least one parent who was born in the Mexico. Mexican American children may be exposed to linguistic and cultural extraction in the school setting. Mexican American children often want to fit in with the dominant culture and strive to learn English quickly. The linguistic void in which

Mexican American children are raised often causes a communication breakdown between the children and the parents. Poorly implemented bilingual education programs in public schools tend to promote language and cultural extraction as opposed to fomenting the simultaneous use and knowledge of two languages. Furthermore, when Mexican American children who speak English serve as cultural brokers in the world outside of the home for their Spanish-speaking parents a power shift tends to take place. Because English is the language in which most exchanges outside of the home take place, the Mexican American child assumes a dominant more powerful position when he or she speaks on behalf of his or her Spanish-speaking parent. During some of these exchanges in the English-speaking world, the child makes decisions for his or her parents who are Spanish-speaking adults. This power differential may impact the relationship between Spanish-speaking parents and their English-speaking offspring because the children realize that they have the upper hand in most contexts outside of the home.

Fifth Grade students

Fifth grade students begin the school year feeling unsure about their role as the elders at the elementary school campus and finish feeling uncertain about their impending move to the middle school campus. Because they are pre-pubescent, they also begin to experience doubt about their own sense of self and begin to look for role models with regard to their appearance and behavior. Language use for bilingual, 5th grade second language learners is affected by the linguistic models after whom they emulate their diction and pronunciation. 5th grade bilingual students will model their Spanish after their parents and will use the English spoken by their teachers, peers, and in their social milieu as the foundation upon which to imitate and learn a second language.

Language Use

My curiosity with language use stems from my own experience as an individual who is bilingual and uses two languages with which to communicate. Reading and learning about the work that researchers conducted regarding counseling with bilingual clients further piqued my interest on the topic.

Regarding language use, I have lived in a country where English is the dominant language, but have made an effort to continue speaking and using Spanish as much as possible. I have strived to find employment in which I am able to use Spanish on a regular basis. As a bilingual teacher, I taught in both English and Spanish. As a counselor in both the school and clinical setting, I worked with both English and Spanish speaking clients. On a personal level, I have close family members with whom I communicate entirely in either English or Spanish and I continue reading and writing in both languages.

Data Analysis (Search for an Invariant Psychological Meaning)

I video recorded all individual and group interviews in order to prepare the descriptions for subsequent data analysis. In order to prepare the data for analysis, I viewed, listened to, and transcribed the recorded verbal descriptions and interviews into written form (Wertz, 2005). The raw data included all comments and statements that the students provided during the individual and group interviews. I analyzed the data by following Giorgi's (2009) psychological phenomenological method.

Searching for an Invariant Psychological Meaning

The goal of data analysis using Giorgi's (2009) descriptive phenomenological research

method was to arrive at an invariant psychological meaning of how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experienced language use in the two languages with which they communicate. In order to search for the invariant psychological meanings, I adhered to the following concrete steps of the human scientific phenomenological method to analyze data: (1) I read for a sense of the whole, (2) I determined the meaning units, and (3) transformed the students' natural attitude expressions into phenomenologically psychologically sensitive expressions (Giorgi, 2009). Upon completion of the first three steps, I then articulated the essential structures of how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experienced language use in the two languages with which they communicate (Finlay, 2012; Giorgi, 2009).

Concrete Steps to Giorgi's (2009) Psychological Phenomenological Method

Read for the Sense of the Whole

During the first step of analysis, I read and reread all of the transcribed accounts in order to gain a general sense of how the student participants described their experience with language use. During the reading and rereading of the transcriptions, my goal was to start becoming aware of how the participants experienced language use without clarifying the information they offered in the descriptions. I read the description from within the phenomenological scientific reduction by accepting the experiences as described by the participants without making any claims to their accuracy (Giorgi, 2009). During the reading and the rereading of the descriptions that the participants offered I was sensitive to any information that was pertinent to how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experienced language use in the

two languages with which they communicate. Once I had established a general sense of the description I moved on to the next step.

Determination of Meaning Units

In order to understand what language use meant to the second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students I broke down their transcribed descriptions into parts, or "units of meaning". "Since the ultimate goal of the phenomenological analysis is the meaning of the experience, the parts to be established should be sensitive to that goal" (Giorgi, 2009, p. 129). As I read and re-read the transcriptions, I was sensitive to aspects of their descriptions that highlighted how they experienced language use in the two languages with which they communicate. As I re-read the description, I made an appropriate mark in the data every time I experienced a significant shift in meaning (Giorgi, 2009).

In order to analyze how 5th grade students describe their experiences in the two languages with which they communicate, I reviewed their responses to the eight questions related to language use asked during the individual interviews. I broke down the descriptions that they offered into "units of meaning" by marking when a significant shift in meaning took place. Because responses regarding language use were limited, each question and its answer were separated as a meaning unit. Therefore, the units of meaning were delineated by each question regarding language use that I asked the participants during the individual interviews.

I followed the same procedure for the data collected during the group interviews. I read and re-read the transcriptions and placed a mark after each shift in meaning and created multiple "units of meaning".

Transformation of Participant's Natural Attitude Expressions into Phenomenologically Psychologically Sensitive Expressions

The goal of the third step was to take the descriptions that the second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students offered, which were separated into meaning units, and transform them into psychologically sensitive expressions. In order to transform the participant's natural attitude expressions into phenomenologically psychologically sensitive expressions, I went back to the beginning and re-read the descriptions that had been separated into meaning units. Psychologically sensitive expressions refer to aspects of the descriptions that relate to counseling and mental health and that the researcher detects, draws out, and elaborates (Giorgi, 2009). The participants offered their descriptions of language use from the lifeworld perspective and from within the natural attitude. I analyzed "each meaning unit to discover how to express in a more satisfactory way the psychological implications of the lifeworld description" (Giorgi, 2009, p. 131). Transforming the raw data, which were the participant descriptions, into psychologically sensitive expressions entailed a process similar to reflecting meaning to a client who has just shared his or her experience with the therapist. The therapist transforms the client's lifeworld expression of a concern, given within the natural attitude, into a deeper and psychologically sensitive reflection of the individual's inner world.

Because participants offered varied descriptions of how they experienced language use, a goal of the analysis was to search for an invariant meaning of the psychologically sensitive expression. I used free imaginative variation to search for invariant meanings.

> Free imaginative variation requires that one mentally remove an aspect of the phenomenon that is to be clarified in order to see whether the removal transforms what is presented in an essential way. If the given appears radically different because of the removal of a part, it is leaning toward being essential. If the given is still recognizable as the same after the removal of a part, it is most likely a contingent part. (Giorgi, 2009, p. 69)

The free imaginative variation procedure yielded psychologically sensitive expressions drawn out from the original descriptions that had been separated into meaning units. Once I transformed the meaning units into the varied psychologically sensitive expressions, I sought to integrate the transformations into a structure. “In addition to highlighting the psychological, the transformation also tries to generalize the data to a certain degree so that it becomes easier to integrate the data from various participants into one structure” (Giorgi, 2009, p. 132). Therefore, although participants offered different descriptions of their experience with language use, the resulting structures incorporated multiple meanings that I gleaned from the psychologically sensitive expressions. “Consequently, one is not limited to an individual, or idiographic, finding, but general structures for the phenomenon being researched can be achieved based upon the data of several individuals” (Giorgi, 2009, p. 132).

The structure of the experience. The description of the structure of the experience “highlights the psychological understanding of the lifeworld phenomenon” (Giorgi, 2009, p. 199). The remaining meaning units from the transformation of the participant’s natural attitude expressions into phenomenologically psychologically sensitive expressions form the basis for the writing of the structure. Giorgi (2009) defined the structure as “the relationship among the constituents” (p. 199). The constituents are the transformed meaning units that relate to the psychological aspect of the phenomenon being studied. In order to write the structure or structures of the experience I turned to imaginative variation in order to identify the invariant constituents of the experience. I imaginatively brought together the transformed meaning units to form a structure and then tried to discern which constituents are necessary for the structure to remain standing. The process involved using imaginative variation to see whether or not a structure collapsed once a constituent was removed. If the structure collapses with the

imaginative removal of a constituent, then "the constituent is essential; if the structure does not collapse, then the constituent is not essential" (Giorgi, 2009, p. 199).

Audit of the analysis. After I completed the data analysis, a bilingual co-researcher conducted an audit of the procedures that I followed. The co-researcher was a doctoral counseling student with experience and education working with children. In the audit, the co-researcher read over the original transcriptions and reviewed the procedures that I followed during the analysis. The co-researcher offered feedback on the analysis that included structures embedded in the data that I missed and offered suggestions regarding areas that were unclearly reported in the final analysis.

Trustworthiness

According to Williams and Morrow (2009), the three major categories of trustworthiness to which all qualitative researchers must attend are integrity of data, balance between participant meaning and researcher interpretation, and clear communication of findings.

Integrity of Data

Integrity of data refers to clearly articulated procedures in which the researcher offers enough information for others to replicate the study (Williams & Morrow, 2009). In order to address integrity of data I described in detail the steps that I followed regarding participant selection, data collection, and the data analysis process. I used triangulation of data sources by leading individual and group interviews regarding how the participants experienced language use in the two languages with which they communicate. I described interviewing and transcription procedures, bracketing, interview protocol, and the philosophical underpinnings of Giorgi's

(2009) method. I followed and described Giorgi's (2009) phenomenological approach as a methodological design for collecting and analyzing data.

An essential aspect of the data analysis process included employing a research team member who was bilingual and separately audited the data analysis process and results (Ojeda et al., 2011). The researcher had a master's level degree in counseling and had completed doctoral level courses in research methods and design. The researcher was bilingual in Spanish and English.

Balance between Participant Meaning and Researcher Interpretation

Researchers use reflexivity and bracketing to maintain their own thoughts and experiences separate from that offered by participants. In order to address reflexivity, I wrote several journal entries after transcribing the individual and group interviews. In the journal entries, I bracketed my thoughts, feelings, and reactions to my experience as a novice researcher and the content of the participants shared with me. "Bracketing and journaling can help the researchers stay attuned to their own perspectives in ways that helps them recognize their own experiences as separate from the participants' stories" (Williams & Morrow, 2009). In the journal entries, I addressed my concerns about being a novice researcher, emerging themes, sources for future research, and my reactions to what the participants were sharing. The literature review served as a bracketing of scientific knowledge and I then bracketed my natural attitude experience of each of the main constructs.

Clear Communication and Application of Findings

Williams and Morrow (2009) suggested that if the researcher does not clearly

communicate what he or she found and why it matters the study is not considered trustworthy. They argued that the researcher should address one of several areas for why a qualitative psychotherapy study was conducted:

> Improve psychotherapy process or outcome for individuals or groups, reveal limitations in current therapeutic or methodological approaches while suggesting new alternatives to consider, encourage further dialogue on a topic important to psychotherapists, psychotherapy researchers, and psychotherapy client, suggest a new course of action, based on the data, in terms of psychotherapy practice or research, or contribute to social justice and social change. (p. 580)

Upon completion of data analysis, I clearly communicated and encouraged further dialogue on the importance of language use when working with bilingual children.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In this chapter, I present the results of a descriptive phenomenological study through which I sought to understand how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experienced language use in the two languages with which they communicate. I obtained the description from the participants through individual and small group interviews. I discerned various constituents, which led to the identification of structures based on the descriptions that the participants offered. “The structure usually consists of several key constituent meanings and the relationship among the meanings is the structure” (Giorgi, 2009, p. 166). An independent researcher performed an audit of my analysis. Below, I describe the constituents that served as the foundation for the structures that emerged from the information collected from the individual and small group interviews.

Constituents for Individual Interviews

In the following section, I present six identified constituents that emerged from the individual interviews. During the analysis, I separated the transcribed data into meaning units by placing a line at each point during which a shift in meaning took place (Giorgi, 2009). I analyzed each meaning unit in order to determine aspects of the transcribed data that highlighted how the participants described their experience of language use in the two languages with which they communicate. “The researcher judges which constituents are relevant for the research, that is, which are revelatory of the phenomenon under study” (Wertz, 1985, p. 167). Constituents represent the highlighted meaning units or parts of the description of the experience of language use that formed the bases of the identified structures (Giorgi, 2009; Wertz, 1985).

During the individual interviews, the participants discussed a variety of topics related to language use in the two languages with which they communicated. Various aspects of the participants' experience of language use was determined by their dominant language. Whether English or Spanish was the participant's dominant language determined how they felt about speaking either language, how they felt about themselves when speaking either language, and their degree of confidence about themselves when speaking either language. The dominant language, location where they spoke in English or Spanish, and the person with whom they were speaking determined their experience of expressing their feelings in the language in which they felt more comfortable. The participants reported that their ability to speak two languages was advantageous and could lead toward upward mobility because they would be able to get better jobs than their parents. The participants reported that whether they spoke at home or at school and the person with whom they communicated determined when and where they spoke in English or in Spanish.

1. Dominant language determined experience of how the participants felt about the two languages with which they communicated.

All of the participants described their experiences of how they felt about speaking in English as favorable. The participants reported that speaking in English was normal, felt good, and made them happy. They stated that speaking in English felt good when used to help their parents and to be understood by others. Eva described her experience of her feelings about speaking in English as "good, but kind of hard".

The participants experienced mixed reactions regarding how they felt about speaking Spanish. Some participants reported that they liked or felt good about speaking Spanish because they used it at home with their family. Some participants reported that speaking Spanish felt good (sic), was normal, and made them happy just as they felt when speaking English.

Three English dominant children described their feelings about speaking Spanish as an adverse experience. Although all participants were enrolled in a bilingual class, their levels of proficiency in English and Spanish differed based on the amount of time that they spent speaking each language outside of the school setting. The English dominant students understood Spanish, but because they spent more time speaking in English at both home and school they did not feel good about speaking in Spanish. Eva stated that speaking Spanish was harder because she "mostly speaks English, so she kind of forgets words in Spanish". Paco reported that he felt embarrassed because he did not know how to speak Spanish. He stated that "like I speak it, but like, some words like just don't, don't come out right". Regarding how she felt about speaking in Spanish, Tatiana, another English dominant participant, stated "not good cause' I forgot it kind of".

2. Dominant language determined developing perception of self.

The limited content in the participants' responses evidenced a developing perception of themselves when speaking in either English or Spanish. Regarding how the participants felt about themselves when speaking in English they simply stated that they felt "pretty normal" or "good" about themselves. Sofia described in Spanish how she felt about herself speaking in English:

> No sé, pero me siento como bien, que hablo bien poquito, si hablo como bien, pero como unas palabras no me salen como bien. (I don't know, but I feel good, that I speak very little, I speak well, but there are words that don't come out right, I don't say them right).

Sofia then stated that the she had to study the words that she did not know how to say.

With regard to how they felt about themselves when speaking is Spanish, the participants reported that they felt "normal" or "good". Sofia reported that she felt good about herself speaking in Spanish, "pero a veces, poquito en inglés" (but sometimes a little in English). Hugo stated that he felt good about himself when speaking in Spanish, but sometimes stuttered when

he spoke in Spanish. Eva did not know how she felt about herself speaking in Spanish. According to Paco, “I feel nervous, I just feels nervous”. Tatiana, who is English dominant, described how she felt about herself when speaking Spanish:

> I feel weird because I don’t say it very well now, I stop a lot of times and repeat it all over again. Sometimes I had to say it in English because I forgot how to say it so I felt embarrassed, or kind of like that, because I don’t know so I keep repeating what I want to say. (Tatiana)

3. Dominant language determined the language in which participants felt more confident about themselves.

The English dominant participants stated that they felt more confident when speaking in English and the Spanish dominant participants reported that they felt more confident when speaking in Spanish. Hugo thought he was more confident in English because he could use it to help others: “I think English because umm, like, umm, like, my, like sometimes, umm, I try to help people that don’t talk, umm, like, in English, and I help them”. Sofia felt more confident in Spanish because “every day I always speak in Spanish”. Luis reported that “Like, I feel I have more power in English, but like I feel safer in Spanish”. According to Luis, feeling safer in Spanish “means, that I can, that I know I’m surrounded by, by my family, cause, usually with my family I only speak Spanish, so I’m surrounded by people that I know and I can trust. Cause (sic) most of the people here, speak English, and those people I don’t mostly know a lot”.

Some of the participants experienced concern about speaking well in the non-dominant language. The participants who expressed concern reported feeling nervous or worried about their ability to use their non-dominant well:

> Sometimes I get nervous and stutter, but I don’t know why. I think it’s because I am learning more English than Spanish because I kind of don’t hear Spanish anymore. Just at home, so I’m starting to forget Spanish, but I still have it in me. (Hugo)

Andrea, who was a Spanish-dominant participant, stated that she felt worried when speaking in English: Es que estoy preocupada porque tengo miedo de decir malas palabras (It’s that I am

worried about saying bad words). She then clarified that she was worried about saying words incorrectly.

4. Dominant language, location, and the person with whom participants shared their emotions determined how they experienced expressing feelings in the language in which they felt the most comfortable.

The participants reported feeling more comfortable expressing their feelings in their dominant language. Three participants stated that they felt more comfortable expressing their feelings in Spanish and three participants stated that they felt more comfortable expressing their feelings in English. Sofia stated that she felt more comfortable expressing feelings in Spanish: En español porque se me hace como, este, como palabras más fáciles que no sé en inglés (In Spanish is easier for me because the words are easier than the ones I do not know in English). Eva reported that she was "more comfortable expressing her feelings in English and at school".

Two participants reported that feeling comfortable expressing their emotions depended on either location or on the person with whom they were speaking. Luis reported that when he was sad at school he felt it in English, but when he was at home, "mostly in Spanish". Luis stated that most of the time it was the same for the other feelings too, but for happiness it was the same at school and at home. "Like, most of the time, when I'm happy, I'm English" (Luis). Paco described his experience regarding language use as it related to his mother:

> Well, like, whenever I feel like happy, I guess I just speak in English, like 'oh…yay, I'm happy', but like whenever I'm sad, I just like…cause…the only person that speaks Spanish in the house is my mom so like, whenever I'm alone I just guess I talk Spanish to my mom…so I guess…like, whenever, like I feel alone I just like go talk Spanish to my mom, she like, then she understands. (Paco)

5. Meaning of speaking two languages experienced as advantageous necessary for upward mobility.

Five out of the eight participants experienced the meaning of speaking two languages as advantageous and necessary for upward mobility. The other participants reported not knowing

what speaking two languages meant to them and described it as difficult. Tatiana described the meaning of speaking two languages as weird because “she gets confused with the words”.

For Luis, speaking two languages meant that it was a “bonus” and “that his mom tries talking English so she can work somewhere else because she’s cleaning stores and she wants to be like a cashier”. Sofia described the meaning of speaking two languages as “good because you can get like a nice job because they mostly want people that speak English and Spanish, that’s what her mom tells her”.

6. Location and with whom participants spoke determined when and where the participants communicated in English or Spanish.

The main locations where the participants spoke English and Spanish were at home and at school. All participants reported that they spoke Spanish at home with their parents and English with their siblings and at school. Luis reported speaking mostly English because he spent most of his time in school and on the weekends he spoke “a little more Spanish”. Ana stated that she spoke English at home with her brother and at school. She reported that she spoke Spanish only at her house with her parents. Hugo reported that he spoke to his parents in Spanish because they did not understand English. Sofia stated that she spoke Spanish at home and when she needed it and English at school and when she helped her mom. Eva reported that she spoke English in school and half English and half Spanish at home. Paco stated that he spoke Spanish at home with his mom. Andrea stated that she spoke English during the after-school program, Spanish in class, and while at home she spoke both. Tatiana reported that she spoke English at school with her friends and that she spoke Spanish at her parents’ house because they did not understand English.

Table 1

Constituents for Individual Interviews

1. Dominant language determined experience of how the participants felt about the two languages with which they communicated.
2. Dominant language determined developing perception of self.
3. Dominant language determined the language in which participants felt more confident about themselves.
4. Dominant language, location, and the person with whom participants shared their emotions determined how they experienced expressing feelings in the language in which they felt the most comfortable.
5. Meaning of speaking two languages experienced as advantageous and necessary for upward mobility.
6. Location and with whom participants spoke determined when and where the participants communicated in English or Spanish.

Constituents for Group Interviews

Upon completion of the individual interviews, I conducted group interviews with four English dominant participants and four Spanish dominant participants. The group interviews were less structured and the participants further discussed some topics that they addressed during the individual interviews. I identified six constituents that emerged from the group interviews (Table 2). The English dominant participants reported that the language that they spoke at home was determined by their mother's ability to speak and understand English. The English dominant participants reported that speaking in Spanish was difficult and their lack of fluency was often a reason to be ridiculed by their Spanish speaking parents or siblings. The English dominant participants stated that the experience of translating for their parents could lead toward upward mobility because speaking in English would lead to better jobs. Similar to the English dominant participants, the Spanish dominant participants reported that the language they used was determined by the family member with whom they spoke and location. The Spanish dominant

participants reported that they feared forgetting how to speak in Spanish. All of the participants reported that translating for their parents was very difficult and frustrating.

1. For English dominant participants, language used at home was determined by mother's ability to speak or understand English.

Paco, one of the four English dominant group members, stated that the only person with whom he spoke in Spanish was with his mom. Two other members reported that they spoke to their mothers in English because they wanted her to learn so that she could get a better job. Eva stated that she spoke to her mom in English because she had to learn English. Hugo reported that he talked to his mom in English because she was "starting to be a manager". According to Paco, "Like, there's some days that I don't speak Spanish to my mom, like I just tell her in English, everything, cause like she understands everything, but she doesn't know how to speak it".

2. For English dominant participants, speaking in Spanish was difficult and often a reason for ridicule or a source of shame.

The English dominant participants discussed situations during which their proficiency in Spanish was challenged by their own family members. Paco reported that his mom made fun of him whenever he spoke in Spanish. Eva stated that her older brother made fun of her when she spoke in Spanish. Paco reported that since the interviews began he was thinking more in Spanish. Hugo stated that he was having a hard time with the two languages because "both languages are difficult".

3. For English dominant participants, practice of translating used to help others and would lead to better jobs (upward mobility).

The participants accepted that their experience translating for their parents might allow them to help others and could lead to getting better jobs in the future. According to Paco, "People are going to need help and like, it actually helps, like when you're going to need a job in

Spanish and English". Hugo stated that his mom told him "that when I grow up, umm, she wants me to be a doctor, and when people don't understand English, I can translate (sic) them".

The participants agreed that they would get more money and a good job by speaking English and Spanish. Paco stated that "you get more money when you speak different languages" and Eva reported that her mother said "that it's good to speak English and Spanish so umm, so umm, so you can like have, like a good job". According to Paco, "Maybe if you would know all the languages, you can have like whoa! Millions!"

With regard to knowing how to speak two languages and being able to earn more money, Paco discussed his view of a bilingual society where those who mostly speak Spanish should learn more English and those who mostly speak English should learn more Spanish. Paco described his view of a bilingual society:

> Like, cause some people don't, like, they don't speak Spanish, cause there's a lot of people that, that, I think there's more people that speak more Spanish than English. Like now, um, cause, there's a lot of Mexicans here and so like, to other people like, Americans, they're going to need, um, like to learn Spanish because, a lot of people, like, when you order a restaurant and they don't speak Spanish because, umm, like, my mom, she, she, needs to speak English (I guess), and like, other people, need to speak Spanish. (Paco)

4. For Spanish dominant participants, language use was determined in relation to family and location.

The participants in the Spanish dominant group stated that they speak English at school and Spanish mostly at home. According to Sofia, "I speak in English when I help my mom in other places and also speak English at school, but the rest I speak Spanish". Sofia reported that she spoke a lot of Spanish. Andrea stated she speaks English in the after-school program. The participants agreed that they speak Spanish with both parents at home.

5. Spanish dominant participants feared forgetting how to speak Spanish.

The Spanish dominant participants were aware that increased exposure to the English language would lead to less proficiency in Spanish. Sofia stated that although she speaks a lot of

Spanish both at school and at home she is starting to forget it and did not know why. According to Andrea, A mí se me olvida leer el español no más de ver tanto inglés; leer en ingles (I forget how to read in Spanish just from seeing so much English; reading in English).

6. For both English and Spanish dominant participants, translating for parents was very difficult and frustrating.

The participants in the English dominant group reported that translating for their parents was hard and that they did not like to do it. They stated that it happened all the time and that it was annoying because it was really hard to do. Paco reported that his sister was going to cosmetology school and was frustrated that his mom wanted him to translate everything while speaking with school officials over the phone. According to Hugo, "My mom will (*sic*) buy ice cream yesterday for my brother and sister and I had to translate for her because she didn't understand". According to Paco, when his mom "wants something from Amazon® - Escríbeme esto (write this for me), she wants, she wants to spell something on Facebook®…how do you spell this? She wants everything". Eva stated that it was annoying to translate "Cause you're doing something and then they're just interrupting you, like, ¡Eva! ¡Ven para acá! (Eva! Come here!), or translate this for me, I'm like - mom!"

The participants stated that their parents did not understand how difficult it was to translate and that they did not know all of the words in the other language. The participants experienced translating as frustrating. Paco stated that he did not know what some of the words meant. Eva agreed, "Yeah! Somethings like, they're like: ¿que no aprendes en la escuela?, (you don't learn that in school?) I'm like, No. No aprendo de eso (No. I do not learn about that); aprendo de otras cosas (I learn about other things).

The participants agreed that their parents think that translating is easy and that they know every single world. Paco expressed his frustration, "Sometimes it makes me feel like I'm not

smart". Both Eva and Paco reported that it was frustrating to translate what the speaker on the phone was saying while their parent was speaking to them at the same time.

Sofia, a Spanish dominant participant, stated that translating for her parents was difficult because her younger sibling interrupts. According to Sofia, "Sometimes it becomes difficult because my brother starts to talk and then, he confuses me in some words and I can't translate them into Spanish. He's 7 and also wants to translate for his mom". Luis stated that he did not have to translate that much because "The one with the problem (translating) is my brother because he speaks more Spanish. So, I am starting to forget Spanish, I mean, I speak more English". Two of the Spanish dominant participants reported not having to translate for their parents.

Table 2

Constituents for Group Interviews

1. For English dominant participants, language used at home was determined by mother's ability to speak or understand English.
2. For English dominant participants, speaking in Spanish was difficult and often a reason for ridicule or a source of shame.
3. For English dominant participants, practice of translating used to help others and would lead to better jobs (upward mobility).
4. For Spanish dominant participants, language use was determined in relation to family and location.
5. Spanish dominant participants feared forgetting how to speak Spanish.
6. For both English and Spanish dominant participants, translating for parents was very difficult and frustrating.

Structures and Constituents

The data analysis yielded multiple constituents that served as the foundation for the four main structures. Each structure is supported by constituents without which it could not stand on

its own. The four structures that the data analysis yielded are: (1) dominant language determined perception of developing dual selves, (2) speaking two languages useful in language brokering and upward mobility, (3) dominant language determined experience of language use and (4) language use and the complementarity principle (see Table 3).

Dominant language determined perception of developing dual selves. This structure and its constituents refers to how the participant's dominant language determined his or her developing perception of self as it related to the language in which he or she felt more confident about him or herself. A developing sense of self as it related to the participant's dominant language began to emerge as the participants expressed more comfort speaking one language over the other. All of the participants stated that they felt normal and happy when speaking English and some reported the same sentiment with regard to speaking Spanish. Some English dominant participants described their feelings about speaking in Spanish as an adverse experience suggesting a clear delineation between how they felt about themselves when speaking in English or Spanish. The participants' reports regarding feeling better about themselves in one language over the other suggests that they are experiencing dual selves related to the two languages with which they communicate.

Speaking two languages useful in language brokering and upward mobility. This structure and its constituents refers to how the participants believed that speaking two languages was useful when used to language broker for their parents and that it might lead toward upward mobility. The participants reported that although they did not like translating for their parents because it was difficult and frustrating, it meant that they were bilingual and when they grow up they could get better jobs than their parents.

Dominant language determined experience of language use. This structure and its constituents refers to how the dominant language determined various aspects of how the participants experienced language use. The participants reported that their dominant language determined how they felt about the two languages with which they communicated. The English dominant participants reported that speaking in Spanish was difficult and was often a reason for ridicule or a source of shame and that the language they used at home was determined by their mother's ability to speak or understand English. The Spanish dominant participants reported that language use was also determined in relation to family and location and feared forgetting how to speak Spanish.

Language Use and the Complementarity Principle

This structure and its constituents refers to language use and the complementarity principle. Regarding the complementarity principle, the participants reported that with whom they spoke determined when and where they communicated in English or Spanish. According to Grosjean (1997) the complementary principle refers to the idea that "Bilinguals usually acquire and use their languages for different purposes, in different domains of life, with different people" (p. 165). The participants reported that their dominant language, location, and the person with whom they shared their emotions determined how they experienced expressing their feelings in the language in which they felt the most comfortable. The participants reported that they spoke English at school, when serving as language brokers for their parents, and with their siblings at home. The participants reported that they spoke in Spanish at home with their parents.

Table 3

Structures and Constituents

Structures	Constituents
Dominant Language Determined Perception of Developing Dual Selves	1. Dominant language determined developing perception of self. 2. Dominant language determined the language in which participants felt more confident about themselves.
Speaking Two Languages Useful in Language Brokering and Upward Mobility	1. Meaning of speaking two languages experienced as advantageous and necessary for upward mobility. 2. For English dominant participants, practice of translating used to help others and would lead to better jobs (upward mobility). 3. For both English and Spanish dominant participants, translating for parents was very difficult and frustrating.
Dominant Language Determined Experience of Language Use	1. Dominant language determined experience of how the participants felt about the two languages with which they communicated. 2. For English dominant participants, speaking in Spanish was difficult and often a reason for ridicule or a source of shame. 3. For English dominant participants, language used at home was determined by mother's ability to speak or understand English. 4. For Spanish dominant participants, language use was determined in relation to family and location. 5. Spanish dominant participants feared forgetting how to speak Spanish.
Language Use and the Complementarity Principle	1. Location and with whom participants spoke determined when and where the participants communicated in English or Spanish. 2. Dominant language, location, and the person with whom participants shared their emotions determined how they experienced expressing feelings in the language in which they felt the most comfortable.

Summary

The participants in this study shared their experiences with language use as it related to the two languages with which they communicate. Based on the information that the participants

shared, I identified structures and their supporting constituents related to language use. The findings in this study may serve to inform mental health professionals, counselor educators, and future researchers interested in language use.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Because of the increasing numbers of Latinos born in the United States and the rising flow of Spanish-speaking immigrants from countries in Latin America other than Mexico, it is likely that practitioners in varied clinical settings, including schools, will engage with clients for whom varying degrees of English or Spanish language dominance will impact the counseling experience. Although literature addressing how bilingual, Latino clients used their two languages to express their emotions exists, it was mostly rooted in psychoanalytic thought and was based on the experience of adult individuals in therapy (Buxbaum, 1949; Greenson, 1949; Guttfreund, 1990; Krapf, 1955; Marcos, 1976; Marcos & Alpert, 1976; Marcos & Urcuyo, 1979; Marcos, 1988; Perez-Foster, 1998; Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba, 2002). Further research with bilingual children is necessary.

In order to address the gap in the literature, I conducted a qualitative, phenomenological research study in order to understand how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate. I conducted semi-structured individual and group interviews with the participants ($N = 8$) in which they discussed their experience with language use. I analyzed the data following Giorgi's (2009) phenomenological procedures and a research team member audited the analysis. Analysis of the individual and group interviews yielded structures related to how the participants experienced language use in the two languages with which they communicate.

The four main structures that emerged from the analysis were: (1) dominant language determined perception of developing dual selves, (2) speaking two languages useful in language brokering and upward mobility, (3) dominant language determined experience of language use

and (4) language use and the complementarity principle. In phenomenological research, "the structure usually consists of several key constituent meanings and the relationship among the meanings is the structure" (Giorgi, 2009, p. 166). I will discuss the interrelated constituents for each structure that emerged from the analysis.

The first structure refers to how the participant's dominant language determined the perception of his or her developing dual selves. The constituents that support the first structure are how the dominant language determined the participant's developing perception of self and in which language the participants felt more confident about themselves. The constituents for this structure are interrelated because they both describe how the participant's dominant language influenced how they perceived themselves in each of the two languages with which they communicate.

Three constituents supported the second structure regarding how speaking two languages was useful in language brokering and upward mobility: (1) The participants experienced the meaning of speaking two languages as advantageous and necessary for upward mobility; (2) The English dominant participants used the practice of translating to help others and believed that it would lead to better jobs (upward mobility), and (3) For both English and Spanish dominant participants, translating for their parents was very difficult and frustrating. The constituents relate to each other because they all address the participants using language as a tool to help others, such as when language brokering for their parents, and as a means toward upward mobility by getting better jobs because of the practice of translating for their parents.

The following five constituents support the third structure concerning how the dominant language determined the experience of language use: (1) Dominant language determined experience of how the participants felt about the two languages with which they communicated;

(2) For English dominant participants, speaking in Spanish was difficult and often a reason for ridicule or a source of shame; (3) For English dominant participants, language used at home was determined by mother's ability to speak or understand English; (4) For Spanish dominant participants, language use was determined in relation to family and location, and (5) Spanish dominant participants feared forgetting how to speak Spanish. The connecting theme between the constituents was that whether the participants were English or Spanish dominant determined or influenced how they experience using either of the two languages with which they communicate.

The fourth structure addressed language use and the Complementarity Principle (Grosjean, 1997, 2010, 2015). The two constituents that corroborated the final structure were how location and with whom participants spoke determined when and where the they communicated in English or Spanish and how the dominant language, location, and the person with whom participants shared their emotions determined how they experienced expressing feelings in the language in which they felt the most comfortable. Grosjean (1997) proposed the Complementarity Principle which states that "bilinguals usually acquire and use their languages for different purposes, in different domains of life, with different people" (p. 574). The constituents shared a theme regarding how the participants' comfort using either of their two languages was determined by different domains or locations and the different people with whom they spoke.

Findings and Existing Literature

The existing literature related to bilingualism is extensive and is represented in various fields of research such as, but not limited to, linguistics, education, psychology, and sociology.

The findings in this study related to language use corroborate existing literature on bilingualism. The results support research on the perception of dual selves, language brokering, upward mobility, language dominance, language use, and the complementarity principle. In the next section, I discuss connections between my findings and research from analogous fields of study.

Perception of Developing Dual Selves

In this study, children described how they felt about themselves when speaking in English and in Spanish. The participants' description of how they experience speaking in either English or Spanish suggests a developing perception of self with the two languages with which they communicate. The participants reported that speaking in English was normal, felt good, and made them happy, but experienced mixed reactions regarding how they felt about speaking Spanish. Some participants reported that they liked or felt good about speaking Spanish because they used it at home with their families. Some of the participants reported feeling nervous, "weird", or embarrassed about speaking in Spanish. The mixed reactions to the experience of speaking English or Spanish suggests emerging perceptions of selves as they relate to each language. Pavlenko (2006) sought to examine "whether bi- and multilinguals indeed perceive themselves as different people when using different languages and to understand to what sources they attribute these self-perceptions" (p. 2). The respondents invoked "another source of different selves that is much harder to interpret, namely, the feeling that the first language is 'real' and 'natural', while later learned languages are 'fake', 'artificial', and performative" (Pavlenko, 2006, p. 18). In both studies, the participants reported differences in how they felt about the two languages with which they communicate.

The participants in this study stated that speaking in English felt good when used to help their parents and to be understood by others. Similarly, Diaz Soto (2002) conducted conversations with 13 bilingual and biliterate Spanish speaking children on how they perceived their own bilingualism and biliteracy and reported a theme in which "The usefulness of becoming biliterate is based upon the need to aid compassionate love relations among families and the 'other' (non-biliterate, monolingual speakers)" (p. 602). In both studies, the child participants perceived bilingualism as a tool to help others, particularly members of their own family.

In this study, the dominant language determined the language in which the participants felt more confident about themselves. Some of the participants in this study reported feeling nervous or worried about their abilities to use their non-dominant language well. Mills (2001) conducted semi-structured interviews of Asian children and young people living in the United Kingdom in which the participants reflected on the role of their languages in their lives. According to Mills (2001), "All the children described their competence in their different languages and, significantly, noted their lack of spoken proficiency in their Asian languages" (p. 391). In both these studies, the young participants reported being aware of the lack of proficiency in their non-dominant language.

Speaking Two Languages Useful in Language Brokering and Upward Mobility

The participants in this study acknowledged that their experiences translating for their parents might allow them to learn to help others and could lead to better jobs in the future. In a similar study, Asian participants who were bilingual reported that retaining both languages

"could lead to a career" and that by speaking "more than one language you can help other people who are stuck for languages" (Mills, 2001, p. 397).

The participants in this study offered descriptions suggesting that their parents believed that speaking two languages would lead to better jobs and more money. In a study on how immigrant parents viewed their upper elementary bilingual children's language use, Worthy and Rodriguez-Galindo (2006) reported that all of the interviewed parents "believed that English proficiency and bilingualism were keys to social and economic advancement" (p. 579). According to the participants in this study, their parents described the experience of upward mobility because knowledge of two languages would allow the participants to have higher income and better jobs than their first-generation parents. The participants' descriptions corroborate existing literature regarding social mobility among Latino youth. Although Terriquez (2014) reported that when compared to Whites, Latino youth "may experience working-class stagnation" and that very few were "poised to enjoy upward mobility into the middle class", other researchers offered a more optimistic outlook. Tran and Valdez (2015) stated that "second-generation Latinos report significant progress compared to their parents and there is no evidence of a second-generation decline" (p. 156). Although Tran (2016) concluded that second generation Latino groups report educational and occupational gains compared to their parents, Mexican-Americans did not show as much educational or occupational gains when compared to Whites or other Latinos from Cuba and countries in Central and South America.

The participants in this study described their experiences with language brokering for their parents. "Language brokering refers to interpretation and translation between linguistically and culturally different parties" that is "performed by bilinguals in daily situations without any special training" (Tse, 1995, p. 180). Similar to other studies, all of the participants in this study

reported engaging in some degree of language brokering. Tse (1995) suggested that "brokering" was a common phenomenon among the Latino students in her study. According to Weisskrich and Alva (2002), all of the participants in their study indicated that they engaged in translating with no reported differences between boys and girls. In the current study, the participants discussed brokering only for their parents as opposed to other members in their family. Other researchers reported similar findings in which participants stated that the individuals for whom they translated the most were their parents (Kam & Lazarevic, 2014; Orellana, 2003; Weisskrich & Alva, 2002).

The participants in this study stated that translating was hard, that they did not like to do it, and that it happened frequently. Similarly, Weisskrich and Alva (2002) reported that participants "did not feel good about themselves when translating, did not like translating, and did not find translating helpful to learn their other language than English" (p. 373). All of the participants in this study reported negative experiences with translating, or brokering, for their parents. The participants stated that translating was frustrating and annoying and that their parents believed that translating was easy. Likewise, other researchers reported that brokers experienced "increased burdened and stress" (McQuillan & Tse, 1995, p. 207) and felt caught between two cultures or were "forced to mediate very stressful or difficult situations" (Weisskrich & Alva, 2002, p. 369). According to Weisskrich (2007), brokers who lacked sufficient vocabulary in either language described translating for another person as stressful.

Language Dominance

Regarding language dominance, the amount of time the participants in this study spent speaking in either Spanish or English affected the degree of proficiency in each language and

how they felt about speaking in the two languages with which they communicated. Despite the fact that the participants in this study were enrolled in a bilingual class, the amount of exposure to either language determined how they felt about speaking in English or Spanish. Because the English dominant students spent more time speaking in English, they reported not feeling good about speaking Spanish and that they were starting to forget how to speak it. The Spanish dominant participants were aware that increased exposure to the English language would lead to less proficiency in Spanish. Grosjean's (2010) research supports this fear in concluding that language proficiency for bilingual children is related to the exposure they received in each language. Furthermore, Bedore and colleagues (2012) concluded that "current use was the most informative indicator of bilingual language proficiency and dominance" and that "children performed better in the language they had the most experience in (p. 625).

Regarding language use, all of the participants in this study reported their experience of speaking English as favorable, had mixed reactions about how they felt about speaking in Spanish, and some English dominant participants described their feelings about speaking Spanish as an adverse experience. Similar to the experience of speaking English as favorable, all of the Asian participants from Mills' (2001) study conducted in the United Kingdom "cited English as the language they would choose to keep above all" (Mills, 2001, p. 392). In a recent study, Neugebauer (2011) used the Language Efficacy and Acceptance Dimension Scale (LEADS) to measure the linguistic self-esteem of fifth grade boys and girls, who were all from Spanish-speaking households. The participants reported higher self-esteem scores in English than in Spanish. These results support the reports of the participants in this study who felt favorably about speaking in English.

Language Use and the Complementarity Principle

According to Grosjean (1997), individuals for whom contact with two or more languages fostered bilingualism will likely continue to use two languages in their daily endeavors. “This leads to what is called the Complementarity Principle: Bilinguals usually acquire and use their languages for different purposes, in different domains of life, with different people” (Grosjean, 1997, p. 165). Children who are bilingual will continue to use their bilingual language skills over their lifetimes.

Regarding the different purposes for which they used their languages, the participants in this study reported that they used English to help their mothers learn the language or to help her get a better job by practicing how to speak it. The two main domains of life in which the participants used the two languages with which they communicate were home and school. All of the participants in this study reported that they spoke Spanish with both parents at home and English with their siblings and at school. The participants in this study reported that they used English and Spanish to communicate with different persons which included their parents, their siblings, and with the individuals with whom they spoke when language brokering for their parents. For English dominant participants, the language they used at home was determined by their mother’s ability to speak or understand English. For English dominant participants, speaking in Spanish was difficult and often a reason for ridicule or a source of shame. The English dominant participants discussed situations during which their parents or siblings made fun of them for their lack proficiency in Spanish. Based on the participants’ responses, it is evident that different aspects of their lives required different languages (Grosjean, 1997).

Implications

Implications for Practice

With regard to clinical practice, the dominant language with which bilingual children chose to communicate had an impact on various aspects of their individual experiences. Mental health professionals who work with bilingual children need to be cognizant that the dominant language influenced how the participants in this study felt about speaking in English or Spanish, their experiences of their abilities to speak in the non-dominant language, and their comfort expressing their feelings in either of the two languages with which they communicate. The intricate relationship between language and identity renders awareness of the dominant language with which bilingual children communicate highly important during the therapeutic encounter. Clinicians need to be aware that bilingual children, who are still developing as individuals and whose command of the two languages with which they communicate is still emerging, will struggle with various aspects of language use. Sofia, a Spanish-dominant participant, described how she felt about herself when speaking in English:

> No sé, pero me siento como bien, que hablo bien poquito, si hablo como bien, pero como unas palabras no me salen como bien. (I don't know, but I feel good, that I speak very little, I speak well, but there are words that don't come out right, I don't say them right).

The English dominant participants described their experience with Spanish, their non-dominant language. Hugo reported that he stuttered when he spoke in Spanish. According to Paco, "I feel nervous, I just feels nervous". Tatiana described how she felt about herself when speaking Spanish:

> I feel weird because I don't say it very well now, I stop a lot of times and repeat it all over again. Sometimes I had to say it in English because I forgot how to say it so I felt embarrassed, or kind of like that, because I don't know so I keep repeating what I want to say. (Tatiana)

The experience of stuttering, feeling weird, embarrassed, or nervous when speaking in the non-dominant language should be taken into account when facilitating therapy with bilingual children.

Findings in this study also suggest that it is important to consider that bilingual children experience inner turmoil when navigating the use of two languages. The participants reported that they speak English mostly at school, with their siblings, and when serving as language brokers in the community. The participants stated that they mostly spoke in Spanish at home with their parents. Although all participants in this study reported speaking in English as a favorable experience they still need to speak Spanish in order to communicate with their parents at home. Some of the Spanish dominant participants feared forgetting how to speak Spanish because they were mostly exposed to English in settings other than home. One of the participants described his experience regarding language use as it related to his mother: "Well, like, whenever I feel like happy, I guess I just speak in English, like 'oh…yay, I'm happy', but like whenever I'm sad, I just like…cause…the only person that speaks Spanish in the house is my mom so like, whenever I'm alone I just guess I talk Spanish to my mom…so I guess…like, whenever, like I feel alone I just like go talk Spanish to my mom, she like, then she understands".

The findings suggest that clinicians who work with bilingual children need to be cognizant of using the language in which the young client feels more comfortable in order to facilitate expression of feelings during therapy. In this study, the participants' dominant language, locations where they spoke English or Spanish, and the person with whom they shared their emotions determined how they experienced expressing feelings in the language in which they felt the most comfortable. Participants reported that feeling comfortable expressing their

emotions depended on either location or on the person with whom they were speaking. One participant stated that she was more comfortable expressing her feelings in English and at school and another reported that when he was sad at school he felt it in English, but when he was at home, “mostly in Spanish”. The participants in this study reported feeling more comfortable expressing their feelings in their dominant language suggesting that counselors who work with bilingual children need to be aware that language use may influence their young client’s ability to express themselves.

Mental health professionals who work with bilingual children, particularly those who are employed in school settings, should be mindful of the impact that language brokering has on the individual’s self-esteem or perception of self. Researchers suggested that because bilingual children begin to serve as language brokers as young as age five, they encounter stressful and difficult situations which may impact their self-concept (McQuillan & Tse, 1995; Tse, 1995, Weisskrich & Alva, 2002). The participants in this study reported that translating for their parents was hard and that they did not like to do it. They stated that it happened all the time and that it was annoying because it was really hard to do. Orellana (2003) documented bilingual children language brokering for their parents during “everyday sorts of activities” such as “the translation of daily mail, phone calls, conversations, television shows, or “on the street” (p. 35). The participants in this study reported having to language broker over the phone with school officials, during mundane activities such as buying ice cream, or when their parents asked for help to translate content on social media. The participants stated that their parents did not understand how difficult it was to translate and that they did not know all of the words in the other language. Regarding bilingual children’s perspective on language brokering, Weisskrich and Alva (2002) reported that participants in their study reported that they “did not feel good

about themselves when translating, did not like translating, and did not find translating helpful to learn their other language than English" (p. 373). The participants in this study experienced translating as frustrating when their parents questioned why they did not know certain words. One participant reported that "Sometimes it makes me feel like I'm not smart". Bilingual children experienced frustration, shame, and stress when serving as language brokers for their parents. Mental health professionals who work in both agency and school settings should be mindful of how serving as language brokers impacts the emotional well-being of bilingual children.

Implications for Counselor Education and Supervision

With regard to implications for counselor education, the findings in this study suggest that bilingualism and language use need to be addressed with greater depth in multicultural and diversity courses. Similarly, Ivers, Ivers, and Duffey (2013) suggested that the "increase in cultural and linguistic diversity in the United States underscores the need for multiculturally competent counselors—counselors who possess the requisite relational and cultural skills to meet the needs of a culturally and linguistically diverse population" (p. 220). In order to enhance the skills needed to meet the needs of a linguistically diverse population, it is important that counseling students who intend to work with bilingual children, particularly those employed by schools, become familiar with how to demonstrate cultural competence when working with young Latinos.

Counselor educators who teach and supervise students who plan on working with bilingual children may consider addressing specific aspects of language use when working with bilingual clients. According to Clauss (1998), "language is overlooked as an important

psychotherapy dimension" (p.189). The counselor educator or supervisor may consider focusing on linguistic dimensions of bilingualism such as language dominance, the context in which languages are acquired, domains in which languages are used, and language semantics (Marcos, 1976). These linguistic dimensions of bilingualism may influence how young clients express their feelings and emotions in either or both of the languages which they communicate. For instance, Rozensky and Gomez (1983) suggested that "bilingual clients, speaking in their second language, are sometimes separated from what they are feeling or lack the affective component for what they are discussing" (p. 152). Furthermore, Altarriba and Santiago-Rivera (1994) suggested that counseling with bilingual clients should take place in both English and Spanish because using only their dominant language may facilitate communication, but "inhibit the expression of painful events" and conducting the session in their nondominant language "may produce poor and inaccurate information as a result of weak communication skills" (p. 392). This implies that language dominance may have an impact on the emotional expression of bilingual clients. Likewise, Guttfreund (1990) believed that "a bilingual's languages will differentially impact his or her interactions with the social and emotional world" (p. 606). Regarding semantics, it is important to consider that emerging proficiency in the languages that bilingual children are acquiring is part of their development. "Unlike bilingual adults who have a firmly established L1 system or sometimes two equally well-established language systems, young bilingual children, regardless of age of L2 onset, are still in the process of acquiring two languages" (Sheng, Bedore, Peña, & Fiestas, 2013, p. 1035). Counselor educators and supervisors should begin to incorporate linguistic dimensions of bilingualism into their courses and supervision so that students better understand the additional challenges of facilitating culturally sensitive counseling with bilingual children.

Because the Latino population in the United States will continue to grow, it is important that counseling students and supervises have access or the opportunity to enroll in specialized courses and supervision with regard to working with Latino clients. Counseling students who express an interest in working with Latino clients will benefit from enrolling in Spanish language courses. It would be beneficial for bilingual counselors in training to receive supervision from bilingual supervisors who understand the nuances and intricacies of facilitating psychotherapy with clients who speak two languages. In the current study, the participants reported feeling more confident and comfortable expressing themselves in their dominant language. Bilingual supervisors with an understanding of language use may be able to point out when clients are using their two languages to either freely express their emotions in the language in which they feel more comfortable and confident or if they are using one of their languages to detach from the challenging experience they are sharing with their counselor (Marcos, 1976).

Implications for Research

Because studies on bilingualism have mostly originated from other fields of inquiry it is important that counseling research begin to focus on this understudied topic. Most existing studies on bilingualism and counseling included adult participants, therefore future research should further explore language use and children in counseling. When conducting research with Latino participants it is important to have "knowledge of the Spanish language and understanding cultural nuances" (Ojeda et al., 2011, p. 186). Future studies may explore language dominance, whether the child favors one language over the other facilitates or hinders how the child expresses his or her feelings in either or both languages during the counseling session. Furthermore, research is needed in order to understand the experience of language use in

relation to counseling among bilingual participants who speak languages other than English and Spanish. Special attention needs to be placed on the impact of language use on the developing self and the bilingual child's emerging identity.

Future research should explore the impact that language brokering has on the emotional experience of the bilingual children with whom they work. All of the participants in this study reported that translating for parents was very difficult and frustrating. Further qualitative exploration of children's self-concept, self-efficacy, and relationships with parents is warranted in the context of language brokering.

Further research may be needed to explore the emotional experience of English dominant children navigating life with their Spanish dominant parents. Some of the English dominant participants in this study stated that speaking in Spanish was difficult and often a reason for ridicule or a source of shame. The participants described situations during which their proficiency in Spanish was challenged by their own family members. One participant reported that his mother made fun of him whenever he spoke in Spanish. Another participant stated that her older brother made fun of her when she spoke in Spanish. These instances suggest that bilingual children who are English dominant may experience shame at home for not being as proficient in Spanish as their parents or relatives.

Limitations

Although I heeded to important details of trustworthiness to which all qualitative researchers should attend such as seeking integrity of data and maintaining a balance between participant meaning and researcher interpretation, this study is not without limitations (Williams & Morrow's, 2009). Limitations in this study include aspects of being a novice researcher, issues

with researcher subjectivity, insufficient time building rapport with participants, exclusion of factors affecting language acquisition, and bilingualism as a largely unexplored topic in the counseling research literature.

Regarding integrity of data, I clearly articulated research methods, described the research design and analysis, and used triangulation of data. As a novice researcher, my limited practical knowledge conducting studies hindered my ability to confidently realize when I had reached a point of sufficient quality or quantity of data. According to Williams and Morrow (2009), "many solutions to adequacy of data are left to the researcher's judgment, which often comes only after years of experience" (p. 578). In addition to the challenges of realizing when sufficient quality or quantity of data had been met, rigorously following Giorgi's (2009) method to phenomenological research presented obstacles as well. The flippant and superficial use of bracketing in existing qualitative research provided little guidance when trying to faithfully assume the phenomenological attitude. I made an effort to follow Giorgi's (2009) steps to scientific qualitative studies by assuming the phenomenological attitude by bracketing information about the research topic only at the onset of the study, but researchers recommend that the task of abstaining from engaging pre-existing views and knowledge during research should be an ongoing process. According to Finlay (2008), "No other process has generated more uncertainty and confusion in phenomenology" therefore "novice researchers are particularly disadvantaged as they commonly mistake the bracketing process as a straightforward method of setting aside assumptions and as an initial step in research of acknowledging subjective bias towards establishing rigour and validity" (p. 3).

Subjectivity is an important component of maintaining a balance between participant meaning and researcher interpretation. Researchers acknowledge that subjectivity is an inevitable

aspect of both qualitative and quantitative studies (Morrow, 2007). In order to engage with the data as objectively as possible I bracketed "natural scientific and other knowledge" (Wertz, 2011, p. 125). In addition to including a literature review of existing knowledge about the study's constructs, I wrote down my beliefs and biases about bilingualism, language use, second generation, Mexican American, and 5th grade students. Furthermore, I kept a self-reflexive journal in which I wrote down my thoughts and feelings during the data collection process. "Bracketing and journaling can help the researchers stay attuned to their own perspectives in ways that helps them recognize their own experiences as separate from the participants' stories" (Williams & Morrow, 2009, p. 579). Another step that I took toward decreasing researcher bias was to include an external auditor who separately viewed the raw and analyzed data and offered feedback pertinent to the research. In order to maintain a balance between participant meaning and researcher interpretation I bracketed my preconceived notions about the research topic, kept a self-reflexive journal, and employed an auditor to offer feedback on the process that I had followed. Nonetheless, researcher bias may have influenced some aspects of the analysis process.

Another limitation in this study was my inability to spend sufficient time building trust and rapport with the participants. Although I followed researcher recommendations regarding interviewing young children (Irwin & Johnson, 2005; Spratling et al., 2012), more time establishing rapport through *plática* and *personalismo* (Ojeda et al., 2011) may have contributed to a better understanding of how the participants experienced language use. I followed Irwin and Johnson's (2005) recommendation by beginning the individual interviews by asking more direct questions in order to develop a better understanding of the child's experience. Spratling, Coke, & Minick (2012) reported that establishing rapport with the child, allowing the young participant to

draw, journal, or tell stories, and decreasing their anxiety by conducting group interviews were strategies that were successful in easing the children into the interview process. The results I discussed in this study are a description of the experience of the participants at the point in time during which I conducted the interviews. I focused on the experiences of the child participants as expressed in their own terms and language. Because I conducted the individual and group interviews during the school day, the amount of time the bilingual children were allowed to be outside of their classroom limited my ability to build rapport with the participants. Ojeda and colleagues (2011) recommended that when conducting research with Latino participants "researchers should demonstrate respect to the cultural value of *personalismo* (personal engagement) through *plática* (small talk) during the interview" (p. 188). Although it is likely that Ojeda et al. (2011) were referring to adult participants, the cultural values of *plática* and *personalismo* also apply to young, Latino participants. I engaged the participants in *plática* in the school hallway when walking from their classroom to the interview space, but the time and context hindered personal engagement through small talk. Because this study involved a small sample size ($N = 8$), more time spent creating rapport through *plática* and *personalismo* perhaps would have yielded greater depth of experience. "The concern is not how much data were gathered or from how many sources but whether the data that were collected are sufficiently rich to bring refinement and clarity to understanding an experience" (Polkinghorne, 2005, p. 140).

Cultural awareness has received substantial attention in the counseling literature (Altarriba & Santiago-Rivera, 1994; Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992), but language use is often overlooked as an important aspect of the therapeutic experience. Because culture receives greater attention in the literature, I centered my attention around language use. Although the focus of this study was to understand how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th

grade students experienced language use in the two languages with which they communicate further discussion of factors that affect their language acquisition would have yielded greater depth of understanding related to language development. “Two conditions that lead to the successful acquisition of either one or two languages are an intact cognitive system that is able to process the regularities of the languages(s) and a rich linguistic environment that stimulates and encourages communication and that provides sufficient exemplars of the regularities of the language(s) to which the child is being exposed” (Iglesias & Rojas, 2012, p. 3). At the time of the interviews, the participants exhibited an intact cognitive system as evidenced by their ability to freely and openly discuss their experience of language use during the individual and group interviews. The potential for exposure to a rich linguistic environment was determined by their bilingual 5th grade classroom teacher and other factors. Although the participants were enrolled in a bilingual classroom, it was not possible to determine the degree to which each language was taught, therefore, the students might have been at risk of losing their ability to speak Spanish. “Spanish-speaking children in the United States are at high risk of losing their home language and cultural practices when they are not enrolled in a program that supports, understands, and respects their home language and culture” (Lopez, 2012, p. 273). In addition to the school environment, other factors affect bilingual children’s language acquisition.

Hammer and Rodriguez (2012) addressed various factors “shown to affect bilingual children’s language acquisition” such as “acculturation, maternal education and socioeconomic status (SES), the length of time children have been in the United States, the length of time children have been exposed to English, and their home language experiences” (p. 32). I discussed various aspects related to second generation children, but did not include information on other factors. Regarding acculturation, second generation are expected to be the most

bilingual when compared to the first and third generation (Hammer & Rodriguez, 2012). The children in this study are considered bilingual because they used both English and Spanish to varying degrees of fluency. According to Portes and Rivas (2011) “determinants of bilingual fluency in the second generation include, predictably, two-parent families where both parents were boring in a foreign country and the use of a foreign language at home” (p. 232). One of the participants reported that his mother cleaned stores, suggesting a lower socioeconomic status, but gathering information from all of the participants regarding maternal education and socioeconomic status would have yielded greater understanding related to how this factor affected language acquisition. With regard to length of time in the United States, two participants were born in Mexico, but did not report how long they have lived in the United States. Because the other participants were born in the United States it is assumed that they lived there for at least 10 years. All of the participants were enrolled in a school in the United States therefore it is expected that they were exposed to comparable amounts of English. The participants discussed different aspects of their home language experiences. Some participants reported that they spoke to their parents in Spanish and to their siblings in English. Other participants reported that they spoke to their parents in English so that they could get better jobs. Although the participants were second generation children and they discussed their experience of language at home, obtaining more information regarding maternal education and socioeconomic status, their specific length of stay in the United States, and exact age of exposure to English would have yielded a greater depth of knowledge regarding how these factors affected their acquisition of a second language.

Limited available research literature related to counseling involving bilingual participants presented a challenge when searching for studies from which to draw information on constructs

that addressed the use of two languages in psychotherapy. Researchers in other fields of inquiry have encountered challenges when conducting studies related to bilingualism. According to Grosjean (1998):

> Working with bilinguals is a more difficult and challenging enterprise because bilingualism has been studied less extensively than monolingualism, theoretical models in areas such as bilingual competence, language development and processing are less well developed, conceptual notions and definitions show a great deal of variability, specific methodological considerations have to be taken into account, and so on. (p. 131)

This limitation was evident in the scarce available literature related to psychotherapy with bilingual clients, particularly children. "Because experience is not directly observable, data about it depend on the participant's ability to reflectively discern aspects of their own experience and to effectively communicate what they discern through the symbols of language" (Polkinghorne, 2005, p. 138). The participating bilingual children's developmental age lack of fluency in either language limited the richness of the data collected making it difficult to bring clarity to how they experienced language use.

Conclusion

The existing literature concerning counseling with bilingual adults indicated that the two languages with which clients communicate may act as a language barrier or lead to inaccessibility to content that was experienced in one language, but remains unexplored because counseling is facilitated in the client's other language (Buxbaum, 1949; Greenson, 1949; Krapf, 1955; Marcos, 1976; Marcos & Alpert, 1976; Marcos & Urcuyo, 1979; Marcos, 1988; Perez-Foster, 1998; Santiago-Rivera & Altarriba, 2002). The existing literature focused on bilingual adults, but research is scarce regarding how bilingual children experience language use in the two languages with which they communicate. In order to provide culturally sensitive counseling

for bilingual children it is important to understand how they experience language use in the languages which they communicate.

The bilingual children who participated in this study reported a distinct dominant language between English and Spanish with which they preferred to communicate. They reported that their dominant language influenced how they felt about speaking in English or Spanish, described their experience of their inability to speak in their non-dominant language, and discussed their comfort expressing their feelings in either of the two languages with which they communicate. The participants described how language use was specific to location and people and reported adverse experiences serving as language brokers for their parents.

The findings in this study highlight the importance of understanding whether or not language dominance facilitates or hinders how bilingual children express their feelings in either or both languages with which they communicate. By understanding how language dominance influences the expression of feelings and emotions among bilingual, Spanish-speaking, Latino children, the culturally competent mental health professional will be able to provide culturally sensitive counseling services for this population.

Despite attempts at trustworthiness, this study was not without limitations. As a novice researcher, rigorously following phenomenological methods had constraints. More time building rapport with participants may have yielded deeper depth of experience. My hope is that this study will add to the literature regarding the role of language in counseling bilingual, Latino clients, but specifically as it relates to children and how they express their feelings and emotions in either or both of the languages with which they communicate. Additionally, I hope that this qualitative, phenomenological study, serves as the beginning to further research with language use and bilingual children.

APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL LETTER

UNT

A green light to greatness.

THE OFFICE OF RESEARCH INTEGRITY AND COMPLIANCE

April 23, 2014

Supervising Investigator: Dr. Dee Ray
Student Investigator: Michael Paz
Department of Counseling and Higher Education
University of North Texas

Re: Human Subjects Application No. 14172

Dear Dr. Ray:

As permitted by federal law and regulations governing the use of human subjects in research projects (45 CFR 46), the UNT Institutional Review Board has reviewed your proposed project titled "A Study of Language Usage and Emotional Expression for Second Generation, Bilingual, Mexican American, 5th Grade Students." The risks inherent in this research are minimal, and the potential benefits to the subject outweigh those risks. The submitted protocol is hereby approved for the use of human subjects in this study. **Federal Policy 45 CFR 46.109(e) stipulates that IRB approval is for one year only, April 22, 2014 to April 21, 2015.**

Enclosed is the consent document with stamped IRB approval. Please copy and **use this form only** for your study subjects.

It is your responsibility according to U.S. Department of Health and Human Services regulations to submit annual and terminal progress reports to the IRB for this project. The IRB must also review this project prior to any modifications. **If continuing review is not granted before April 21, 2015, IRB approval of this research expires on that date.**

Please contact Shelia Bourns, Research Compliance Analyst, at extension 2018 if you wish to make changes or need additional information.

Sincerely,

Patricia L. Kaminski, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Department of Psychology
Chair, Institutional Review Board

PK/sb

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS
1155 Union Circle #310979 Denton, Texas 76203-5017
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APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT

University of North Texas Institutional Review Board

Informed Consent Form

Before agreeing to your child's participation in this research study, it is important that you read and understand the following explanation of the purpose, benefits, and risks of the study and how it will be conducted.

Title of Study: A Study of Language Use and Emotional Expression for Second Generation, Bilingual, Mexican American, 5th Grade Students

Investigator: Michael Paz, MS, CSC, LPC-Intern, University of North Texas (UNT) Department of Counseling and Higher Education. **Supervising Investigator:** Dee Ray, PhD., LPC-S, NCC.

Purpose of the Study: You are being asked to allow your child to participate in a research study which involves how he or she experiences emotions within a dual-language culture. The study will explore how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students express feelings such as sadness, anger, happiness, and fear.

Study Procedures: Your child will be asked to answer questions individually regarding how he or she experiences emotions in English and Spanish that will take about 30 minutes of your child's time. Your child will participate in a small group discussion with same-aged peers regarding how they experience emotions in English and Spanish that will take about 30 to 40 minutes. Your child will be asked to write a journal entry regarding further thoughts and feelings he or she had after the individual and group interviews. Time spent on journal entries will be determined by how much each participant is compelled to write.

The individual and group intreviews will take place at Hackberry Elementary School. The individual intreviews will take place in the counselor's office and the group interviews will take place in a small room that has a table and chairs for students. The interviews will be recorded so that the student researcher can transcribe the information for later analysis. The students will be asked to complete the journal entry at home so that he or she has time to process the information he or she has shared with the investigator or other children. The students will not lose classroom instruction because the interviews will take place during a period at the end of the day that the teacher has designed for enrichment or tutoring.

Foreseeable Risks: No foreseeable risks are involved in this study.

Benefits to the Subjects or Others: This study is not expected to be of any direct benefit to your child, but we hope to learn more about how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American students experience emotions within a dual-language culture. Information obtained from the study may help school counselors and other mental health practitioners who work with Latino children better understand how bilingual children experience feelings in English and Spanish.

Compensation for Participants: Participants will not receive compensation for their involvement in this study.

Procedures for Maintaining Confidentiality of Research Records: All information will be kept confidential in a locked cabinet in the clinic of the Counseling Program at the University of North Texas. The confidentiality of your child's individual information will be maintained in any publications or presentations regarding this study.

Regarding the group interviews, the students will be asked to maintain confidentiality concerning information shared during the interview. The students will be informed that because of the nature of groups confidentiality cannot be guaranteed.

Questions about the Study: If you have any questions about the study, you may contact Michael Paz at Michael.Paz@unt.edu or Dee Ray at Dee.Ray@unt.edu.

Review for the Protection of Participants: This research study has been reviewed and approved by the UNT Institutional Review Board (IRB). The UNT IRB can be contacted at (940) 565-3940 with any questions regarding the rights of research subjects.

Research Participants' Rights: Your signature below indicates that you have read or have had read to you all of the above and that you confirm all of the following:

- Michael Paz has explained the study to you and answered all of your questions. You have been told the possible benefits and the potential risks and/or discomforts of the study.
- You understand that you do not have to allow your child to take part in this study, and your refusal to allow your child to participate or your decision to withdraw him/her from the study will involve no penalty or loss of rights or benefits. The study personnel may choose to stop your child's participation at any time.
- You understand why the study is being conducted and how it will be performed.
- You understand your rights as the parent/guardian of a research participant and you voluntarily consent to your child's participation in this study.
- You have been told you will receive a copy of this form.

_____

Printed Name of Parent or Guardian

_____ _____

Signature of Parent or Guardian Date

For the Student Investigator or Designee: I certify that I have reviewed the contents of this form with the parent or guardian signing above. I have explained the possible benefits and the potential risks and/or discomforts of the study. It is my opinion that the parent or guardian understood the explanation.

_____ _____

Signature of Student Investigator Date

APPENDIX C

CHILD ASSENT FORM

Child Assent Form

You are being asked to be part of a research project being done by the University of North Texas Department of Counseling and Higher Education.

This study involves understanding what language means to you.

You will be asked to answer questions about yourself about what language means to you. This will take about 30 minutes.

You will be asked to talk in a small group about what language means to you and your peers. Talking in a small group will take between 30 and 40 minutes.

Both the individual and group interviews will be recorded.

You will be asked to write your thoughts and feelings in a journal regarding the individual and group interviews. You will be asked to write the journal entry while you are at home.

You may choose to write as little or as much as you would like regarding your thoughts and feelings about language.

If you decide to be part of this study, please remember you can stop participating any time you want to.

If you would like to be part of this study, please sign your name below.

_____

Printed Name of Child

_____ _____

Signature of Child Date

_____ _____

Signature of Student Investigator Date

APPENDIX D

PARENT LETTTER

Dear parents,

My name is Michael Paz and I am a doctoral student at the University of North Texas. I am writing to you to ask that you allow your son or daughter to participate in a study that I am conducting. The purpose of the study is to understand how second generation, bilingual, Mexican American, 5th grade students experience language in a dual-language culture. I will interview the students by themselves and in groups of no more than six students. I will conduct the interviews in a way that the students will miss as little instructional time as possible. If you agree to allow your child to participate in the study, please sign and date the attached informed consent. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at Michael.paz@unt.edu.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Michael Paz

Estimados padres de familia,

Mi nombre es Michael Paz y soy estudiante de doctorado en la Universidad del Norte de Texas. A través de la presente estoy solicitando su permiso para que su hijo o hija participe en la investigación que estoy llevando a cabo. El propósito de la investigación es entender como sienten el idioma los estudiantes de quinto grado que son de segunda generación, Méjico Americanos, y bilingües en una cultura de dos idiomas. Entrevistaré a los estudiantes individualmente y en grupos de no más de seis estudiantes. Las entrevistas se llevarán a cabo de tal manera que los estudiantes pasarán la menor cantidad de tiempo fuera del salón posible. Si esta de acuerdo en que su hijo o hija participe en la investigación, por favor firme y ponga la fecha en el documento de consentimiento que encontrará adjunta a esta carta. Si tiene preguntas, por favor no dude en ponerse en contacto conmigo a Michael.paz@unt.edu.

Gracias por su tiempo.

Sinceramente,

Michael Paz

APPENDIX E

SEMI STRUCTURED INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Semi-Structured Interview Protocol

Individual Interview

How do you feel about speaking in English? ¿*Cómo te sientes sobre hablar en inglés*?

How do you feel about speaking in Spanish? ¿*Cómo te sientes sobre hablar en español*?

How do you feel about yourself when you're speaking in English? ¿*Cómo te sientes sobre ti cuando hablas en inglés*?

How do you feel about yourself speaking in Spanish? ¿*Y cómo te sientes sobre ti hablando en español*?

In what language do you feel more confident? English or Spanish? ¿*En qué idioma sientes más confianza en español o en inglés*?

In what language do you feel more comfortable expressing feelings or emotions, such as anger, sadness, fear, happiness? ¿*Y en cual idioma te sientes más cómoda expresando tus sentimientos normalmente*?

What does it mean to you to speak two languages? ¿*Qué significa para ti hablar dos idiomas*?

When and where do speak English? Spanish? ¿*Dónde y cuando hablas en inglés y donde y cuando hablas en español*?

Group Interview (English Dominant)

Some of you reported that you speak English at school and Spanish at home. Tell me more about that.

Some of you reported that it's embarrassing to speak in Spanish and that you're afraid of making mistakes. Is it more embarrassing with your peers or at home?

Is there anything else you have thought about since when we met?

Some of you translate for your parents. How is that?

Where else have you translated?

I'm wondering why it's so annoying (to translate for parents)…

Based on what you're saying, translating is a lot of responsibility…

I'm wondering what translating feels like…

If you know two languages, you can earn more money…

Group Interview (Spanish Dominant)

La escuela es un lugar donde hablan inglés más que todo y en el hogar en español. ¿Qué más me pueden contar sobre eso? (*School is a place where you mostly speak English and Spanish at home. What else can you tell me about that*?)

¿Tienen algo que recuerden sobre hablar en español y en inglés? (*Do you have something you remember about speaking in Spanish or in English*?)

Ustedes a veces tienen que traducir para sus padres. ¿Cómo es esa experiencia (de traducir) para ustedes? (*Sometimes you have to translate for your parents. How is that experience [of translating] for you*?)

¿En la escuela hablan en inglés y español en la casa? (*In school you mostly speak in English and Spanish at home?*)

Cuando ustedes están en el hogar hablan en español, ¿hablan en español con sus dos padres, o hablan más en español con uno? (*When you speak in Spanish at home, do you speak in Spanish with both parents or more Spanish with one?*)

Una cosa que note que es común, es que algo que, que se les hace difícil es, tienen miedo a decir una palabra incorrectamente. Como cometer un error cuando están hablando en el otro idioma. ¿Qué más me pueden decir? (*I noticed that it is difficult for you to say a word incorrectly, that you are afraid of saying a word incorrectly. Such as making a mistake when you are speaking the other language. What else can you tell me*?)

¿Han tenido situaciones o momentos donde sentiste como vergüenza porque no sabías como decir una palabra o en español o inglés? (*Have you had situations or do you remember a time when you felt embarrassed [or ashamed] because you didn't know how to say a word in Spanish or English*?)

¿Bueno, hay algo más que se les ocurra sobre los sentimientos, de cómo decirlos en español o en inglés? ¿Experiencias traduciendo para sus padres? ¿El temor de decir una palabra equivocadamente? (*Is there anything else that you can think about feelings, of how to say them in Spanish or in English? Experiences translating for your parents? The fear of saying a word incorrectly*?)

APPENDIX F

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLES

Table F. 1

Constituents for Individual Interviews

7. Dominant language determined experience of how the participants felt about the two languages with which they communicated. 8. Dominant language determined developing perception of self. 9. Dominant language determined the language in which participants felt more confident about themselves. 10. Dominant language, location, and the person with whom participants shared their emotions determined how they experienced expressing feelings in the language in which they felt the most comfortable. 11. Meaning of speaking two languages experienced as advantageous and necessary for upward mobility. 12. Location and with whom participants spoke determined when and where the participants communicated in English or Spanish.

Table F.2

Constituents for Group Interviews

7. For English dominant participants, language used at home was determined by mother's ability to speak or understand English. 8. For English dominant participants, speaking in Spanish was difficult and often a reason for ridicule or a source of shame. 9. For English dominant participants, practice of translating used to help others and would lead to better jobs (upward mobility). 10. For Spanish dominant participants, language use was determined in relation to family and location. 11. Spanish dominant participants feared forgetting how to speak Spanish. 12. For both English and Spanish dominant participants, translating for parents was very difficult and frustrating.

Table F.3

Structures and Constituents

Structures	Constituents
Dominant Language Determined Perception of Developing Dual Selves	3. Dominant language determined developing perception of self. 4. Dominant language determined the language in which participants felt more confident about themselves.
Speaking Two Languages Useful in Language	4. Meaning of speaking two languages experienced as advantageous and necessary for upward mobility.

Brokering and Upward Mobility	5. For English dominant participants, practice of translating used to help others and would lead to better jobs (upward mobility). 6. For both English and Spanish dominant participants, translating for parents was very difficult and frustrating.
Dominant Language Determined Experience of Language Use	6. Dominant language determined experience of how the participants felt about the two languages with which they communicated. 7. For English dominant participants, speaking in Spanish was difficult and often a reason for ridicule or a source of shame. 8. For English dominant participants, language used at home was determined by mother's ability to speak or understand English. 9. For Spanish dominant participants, language use was determined in relation to family and location. 10. Spanish dominant participants feared forgetting how to speak Spanish.
Language Use and the Complementarity Principle	3. Location and with whom participants spoke determined when and where the participants communicated in English or Spanish. 4. Dominant language, location, and the person with whom participants shared their emotions determined how they experienced expressing feelings in the language in which they felt the most comfortable.

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