Latinos in the Heartland
Positive Steps Toward a Pluralist Society

Proceedings of the 12th Annual Conference
St. Louis, Missouri | June 12-14, 2013

Edited by
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University of Missouri - 2014
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Stephen Jeanetta’s extension work focuses on fostering the development of community organizations, the development and facilitation of community planning processes, and building inclusive communities. Jeanetta has also served as coordinator of the Community Development Academy since 1999. His research with the Latino community has focused on understanding the effects of community climate and social networks on the process of integration into rural communities. In addition, Jeanetta is currently engaged in research projects that seek to understand why Latino farmers in Missouri are not utilizing USDA programs, exploring relationships between Latino newcomers and access to healthcare resources, and connecting Latino newcomers to healthcare resources in the community. Jeanetta has been engaged in the leadership of Cambio de Colores since the first conference in 2002 and is a founding member of the Cambio Center and serves on its executive board.

Jeanetta has community development experience in both rural and urban areas of Missouri and has experience internationally with projects in Guyana, Germany, Kenya and the Amazon region of Brazil, where he was a fellow in the International Leadership Development Program, sponsored by the Partners of the Americas and the Kellogg Foundation. Jeanetta is executive director of the Missouri Para Chapter of the Partners of the Americas. He also serves on the board of directors of Nonprofit Missouri, a statewide organization that supports the work of non-profits in the Community Development Society. He holds a Ph.D. in adult education from the University of Missouri, St. Louis and an M.A. in community and regional planning, as well as a B.S. in international affairs from the University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

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Professor Valdivia specializes in economic and rural development. She focuses on how individuals, families and communities adapt to change and how information can support the process of building strategies that are resilient and improve well-being. Valdivia, along with colleagues from MU, initiated Cambio de Colores, in 2002. She is a founding member of MU’s Cambio Center and serves on its executive board. Her research with Latino families focuses on their livelihood strategies and experiences in the process of integrating to a new community. She has completed a research project on asset-building strategies of newcomers in three new settlement communities in Missouri, and has begun a new project on community integration in collaboration with Cambio Center Fellows. Internationally, her research and outreach takes places in the Andes of Peru and Bolivia and East Africa. Her focus is decision-making, risk management and pathways for technological uptake and market integration that lead to sustainable livelihoods. She is Director of the Interdisciplinary Minor in International Development of the University of Missouri Graduate School.

About the Cambio Center:

The Cambio Center for Research and Outreach on Latinos and Changing Communities is an interdisciplinary unit at the University of Missouri. Cambio’s main goals are:

- Provide education and enhance the welfare of all residents of Missouri in the context of the current demographic and cultural changes
- Develop a premier source of knowledge, scholarship, outreach and education to respond to the local effects of globalization
- Support sustained research to understand the immigration process, particularly in Missouri and the Midwest in general
- Provide knowledge and best practices to facilitate the integration of economically vulnerable newcomers to Missouri and the Midwest and prepare all citizens for a diverse society
- Understand the international nature of the immigration process, the culture and institutions of Latin America, as a major global partner of Missouri in the exchange of goods and the migration of people
Cambio de Colores: Latinos in the Heartland

Proceedings of the 12th Annual Conference: Positive Steps Toward a Pluralist Society
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Stephen Jeanetta & Corinne Valdivia, editors

Edited by Stephen Jeanetta and Corinne Valdivia, Cambio Center Fellows
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The city of St. Louis hosted the 2013 annual conference Cambio de Colores—"Latinos in the Heartland: Positive Steps toward a Pluralist Society." It was the third time the meeting convened in that unique city, always home to diverse populations. St. Louis is known as "The Gateway to the West" after its prominent historic role as the starting point of the Lewis & Clark expedition that—with a combination of political, economic and ethnographic purposes—was sent to explore the lands west of the Mississippi. Even at that time, over two hundred years ago, the city of two or three thousand people held a multilingual and multicultural population: French, Spanish, and English speakers lived there, and it's likely that West African languages were still spoken by captive and enslaved men and women, along with indigenous Algonquian and Siouan languages.

Missouri itself underlines this historical diversity: our state is truly at the crossroads of our nation—cultural, geographic, political, historical crossroads. We are always managing to confuse people: Missouri is Midwest, West, and South; it is plains, prairie, and mountains; our weather is very hot and very cold, and jumps rapidly and freely from one extreme to the other. We fought in both sides of the Civil War. So we are skeptics, and our state motto declares it unequivocally: Show me!

I do find this complexity invigorating and challenging... and occasionally maddening. As an immigrant, I realize that I have added to this complexity, so it's just fair enough that I try to understand it and to explain it as much as I can. I reckon I am now what researchers call an "integrated immigrant." Early on, during my first years as a graduate student at Mizzou, I decided that I had to understand sports, starting with baseball, and why this game—full of liturgy and rituals in its one-on-one face-offs—was so appealing to the people of this country. It helped being in Cardinals country: it was easier to learn from winners, and soon I found it was easy to become a fan of a sport that a few years prior was a complete mystery for me.

Almost ten years later, I came back to Missouri as an immigrant in 1990, and my process of integration continued. In the mid-1990s, I learned that I was a Hispanic and a Baby boomer. I managed to understand the school system, and got involved in coaching soccer for my two children. I learned to do the laundry, clean the house, and do other housekeeping chores that most likely would not have been part of my daily life had I stayed in my country of origin.

I mention all these small and disparate changes—cambios—in my life as an immigrant, because only recently I am getting a sense of how complex and multithreaded is the process of integration. Thanks in great part to the privilege of organizing the Cambio de Colores conference, and to the research activities at the University of Missouri’s Cambio Center, I can look at my own experience and relate, at least partially, to the quite more difficult integration processes of the millions of immigrants who do not have the networks and safety that I did, and who may be welcomed by some and loathed by others.

Learning about this country, its culture and its peoples, is a basic condition to become integrated. I am not an assimilated person: I like my cultures, and I recognize that my spouse and my
children have their own ways to relate to their cultures. But I do love Missouri: this is my state, and I am invested in working to make this state, my home, a better place, and that’s what I consider my integration to be.

Thanks to what I have learned about baseball, history, the Missouri Waltz, and the Civil War, I can engage in conversation with most other Missourians, and that is a good thing. I then try to explain why immigrants come, but putting emphasis on the pulling factors. In other words, immigrants come because we need them and we want them. And I explain things based on data, on numbers, and on economics.

One starting point, so simple to understand for the newcomers themselves and for those of us here who work towards integration, is that unauthorized immigrants are not here to break the law; they come to fill the jobs that we need to be filled, and that economic imperative is more powerful than the very broken immigration laws.

Then I go to some numbers: Did you know that between the years 2000 and 2010 the state of Missouri’s prime working age population (between the ages of 25 and 44) shrunk by over 6%, more than 100,000 people? Did you know that, at the same time, the population 45 and older grew by over 22%, almost 450,000 people?

I usually do not need to go any further, but I do, just to show this is not a local problem. In the Midwest, there was a decline of 9.7% (1.85 million workers!) in the 25-44 years group, and an increase of over 20% among those of us who are 45 and above. In the Midwest, people 45 and older outnumber the youngsters aged 20 to 44 significantly: 27 million to 17 million.

Once those or similar numbers are shown, I can safely ask the question: “Who will do the jobs that the older people cannot do any longer?” Obviously, the answer is immigrants.

The difficult part is to explain how to incorporate newcomers, mostly Hispanic, into our society. That is why we have a conference: to provide answers and to propose new questions.

Cambio de Colores is not a conference about “immigration;” it is about people, some of them immigrants, some of them long-time residents, trying to build their future communities. We are just trying to help them. We are just trying to help us.

Domingo Martínez Castilla

May 2014
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Introduction

Cambio de Colores was held for the 12th time in 2013 with the theme “Positive Steps toward a Pluralist Society”. As the Latino population continues to grow in the Midwest, it becomes more evident that Latinos and their families are here to stay. It is also clear that for communities to prosper and become resilient, the questions are no longer about marginalization, because we cannot afford this as a society, but are focused more on how we integrate and become more pluralist as a society. Wealth creation is at the center of the sustainability and resilience of Midwestern communities. Creating wealth, building the human, social, cultural, and economic capital, is essential to the social and long-term economic well-being of communities in the Midwest. And steps towards a pluralist society will enable all people to be part of this process. The good news is that this is happening in the Midwest and that there are on-going efforts to figure out what works and why.

The question we asked ourselves and all participants in 2012 was, ‘Is our path going forward one of integration or separation?’ We were aware of the fact that if marginalization continued, Latino newcomers to the Midwest would be limited in how they could contribute to the future of our communities and states. Today we know that integration is essential to wealth creation and sustainability.

The community of practice that is Cambio de Colores comes together with a purpose: seeking to contribute our shared experiences and knowledge to facilitate the integration of Latino/as. These 12th Conference Proceedings includes 14 papers in health, education, entrepreneurship, integration and well-being, from Michigan, Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas, Arkansas, Texas, and Missouri, from small and large towns. The abstracts of the presentations cover the five conference themes: Civil Rights, Education, Health, Entrepreneurship and Economic Development, and Change and Integration. They provide a resource to people working in each of these areas, in terms of defining what is happening in our communities and providing a way to connect and learn from the authors.

Cambio de Colores started as a call to action, and acknowledged from the beginning that in order to support communities in their processes of change, it needed to become a place for sharing and learning, as well as identifying what needs to be done. For those of us in the universities, especially in the land grant system, it is part of our mission to develop research and best practices that are relevant to improving well-being. We also know that a community of practice is essential to a process of change, and have been blessed with all the people and their organizations that come together each year to create such a rich learning environment. The conference brings together people on the ground working in communities to facilitate change, practitioners that work in local and state organizations, and researchers studying the issues of integration together with the people who are working in the communities trying to address the issues. The proceedings provide papers with the state of the art in research and best practices, on-going research and practice through the abstracts presented, and a directory of participants that can help readers connect to other people as each of you works to address key issues facing your neighborhoods, communities, and regions. We hope you find the proceedings a useful resource in your practice, research, and outreach.

Sincerely,

Corinne Valdivia
Steve Jeanetta
Abstracts
Change and Integration

An ELL Binder - A Resource for the Mainstream Classroom Teacher
Judith Rae Schwartz, Warren County R-III School District, Missouri

This session will introduce the ELL (English Language Learner) binder, a binder that includes helpful ideas and resources to be given to mainstream classroom teachers at the beginning of the school year. The presenter will review the contents of an ELL binder and explain how it could empower the mainstream classroom teacher, especially the teacher who might be getting his/her first ELL student.

Mexican Immigrant Women: Identity, Body Image, and the Images of the Virgin of Guadalupe and La Malinche
Joanna Mendez, Hand in Hand Multicultural Center, Springfield, Missouri
Judith R. Gonzalez, School of Professional Psychology at the Forest Institute

The relationship between female identity and Latinidad has mostly been produced, though not exclusively, through the concept of Marianismo and Malinchismo. The iconic idealization of Guadalupe and La Malinche has created a hybrid composition of the Mexican female body. Trapped in this hybrid perception of their bodies, religious devotion, motherhood, and femininity, Mexican women have developed a unique expression of their role in society. This presentation will highlight Mexican female identity expressions and will contextualize how these hybrid perceptions have been defined and redefined among Mexican immigrants living in the United States, and how this has shaped female body perceptions.

Immigrant Gateways: An Empirical Examination of Primary and Secondary Destinations
J.S. Onésimo Sandoval and Joel Jennings, Saint Louis University

This presentation examines the mobility and migration patterns of immigrant populations across the United States. Drawing on U.S. Census data from 2003 to 2010, we analyze the movement of the foreign-born population from all 50 states. We examine two levels of data including: a) How many foreign-born residents each state receives (primary); b) The movement of foreign born by household between counties and states (secondary). This research provides a cross-sectional analysis of the origins of the immigrant population by state, as well as the mobility of the foreign-born population once they are in the United States. This paper will provide evidence regarding three types of gateway states: a) Established Gateways; b) Emerging Gateways; and c) Exceptional Gateways. The goal of the paper is to empirically measure mobility and stability of the foreign-born population and to identify the migration trends that will have important implications for future demographic transitions.
Who am I?: An Autoethnographic Analysis of the Negotiation of Mexican American Identity
Stephen Christ, University of Missouri - Columbia

This article uses autoethnography to frame a larger conceptual/theoretical discussion of the identity categories based in the intersections of race/ethnicity, nationality, and immigration for the immigrant third generation and beyond, as they negotiate integration with mainstream United States culture and within their families. Drawing on a lifetime of experiences with identity management, the author interrogates dominant theoretical explanations of Mexican assimilation in an attempt to trouble the notion of immigrant generations as monolithic groupings. Particular emphasis is placed on the everyday experiences of Mexican immigrants and their descendants that contribute to Mexican American identity formation. More specifically, the author explores how Mexican Americans experience daily life at home, at work, and in public life, and how these experiences impact their sense of personal identity, their relationships with natives, their interactions with their families and community, and the identity work that goes into producing those categories and social worlds.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

A Qualitative Exploration of Latino Immigrant Integration in Rural Midwestern Communities
Sarah May, Lisa Y. Flores, Corinne Valdivia, and Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri

Census data indicate the state of Missouri experienced a 79.2% increase in the Latina/o population between 2000 and 2010. The Latina/o population more than doubled in 30 Missouri counties (Census, 2010). Much of this increase is due to the settlement of Latina/o immigrants in rural Missouri communities, many who are migrating to the Midwest because of the availability of work in food processing, services, and manufacturing industries (Dozi & Valdivia, 2008). Rural environments present unique challenges to Latino/a immigrants, as these locations typically lack the racial/ethnic diversity and infrastructure (e.g. Spanish-speaking professionals) that are present in urban settings where immigrants have traditionally settled. Despite the increase of Latina/o immigrants in rural areas, most existing literature on Latina/o immigrant settlement focuses on urban locations (i.e. Polo & Lopez, 2009; Bourhis, Barrette, El-Geledi, & Schmidt, 2009; Orellana, 2003). The current study seeks to fill this gap by examining Latina/o immigrants’ experiences in rural Midwest settings.

Empowering Hispanic/Latino Families: Meeting Their Needs with a Holistic Approach From Nutrition to Higher Education and Community Leadership
Bertha Mendoza, Kansas State University Research and Extension

This model ensures that Hispanic families become self-sufficient and emphasizes the importance of the Land Grant University Extension system to ensure success in the United States. The Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP) for Southwest Kansas has developed a model for Hispanic families to acquire knowledge in nutrition, health, and general literacy. Families enrolled in the 8-12 week EFNEP course also study to acquire their
Kansas high school diplomas and gain skills in community leadership. The EFNEP graduates stay on voluntarily to assist newly enrolled families by acting as peer role models. This EFNEP program, housed in the Experiment Station’s repurposed library and conference rooms, provides a friendly environment where participants begin at their personal academic levels and advance at their own paces. The flexible schedule and culturally sensitive program are designed to allow parents to learn while children are in age-appropriate child development activities, similar to the family literacy model.

Families learn and advance without sacrificing beliefs and traditions. Community and regional partners have included a child development center, a community health coalition, a Catholic charities grant, and a statewide health improvement program. Southwest Kansas EFNEP also succeeds because families are the best form of advertising, and they work hard to recruit new families into the program. In the past two years, the program has served more than 300 Hispanic families who began with nutrition education and moved forward to complete their high school diplomas in English, and then continued on to higher education and community leadership development.

The role of extension agents is to discover people who are natural “bridges” into Hispanic communities. Nutrition education can be the catalyst for discovering a family’s needs, which are often academic improvement and community leadership development. When the “bridges” are empowered to share knowledge and experiences with their neighbors, more people acquire the information and skills necessary to achieve their dreams. People who immigrate to the United States usually come with the same goal: to improve their quality of life. They are hungry for knowledge and also have their own family beliefs about child rearing and personal growth. It is important that Extension offers families the opportunities to achieve their goals by providing an appropriate environment in which they can succeed. Another role of Extension is to collaborate with existing programs to create the necessary connections between other programs/resources for Hispanic families to ensure optimal health, academic success, and improved community leadership skills. This presentation will outline the model, illustrate successes, and offer recommendations to Extension professionals.

Colorful Dialogue: Talking Towards Civic Engagement

Kate Olson, University of Missouri – Columbia

This qualitative research is a case study of a local organization’s program in a midsize Midwestern city and its effectiveness for increasing civic and community engagement. Noticing a need in the area to link new immigrants and refugees with the greater community, a local organization started a program to bridge these divides. One aspect of that program was a monthly community forum called the Colorful Dialogue, where long-time residents and newcomers, including immigrants and refugees, would meet to discuss topics important for community building. The purpose of this research was to evaluate the program as a form of civic engagement. Two main questions shaped the research:

1. “Is the Colorful Dialogue an effective method of civic engagement?”
2. “Is cross-cultural dialogue important and/or necessary in a demographically changing community?”
To answer these questions, qualitative research methods were employed, including interviews and participant observation. Results indicated that interviewees found cross-cultural dialogue important, but judging the effectiveness of the Colorful Dialogue as a form of civic engagement was much more difficult. Participation in the event could be considered civic engagement, but it did not appear that the Colorful Dialogue was used as a stepping stone for increased civic engagement. Respondents considered the Colorful Dialogue as a place where English language learners could a) practice their language in a practical setting, b) have an opportunity to connect with people in the community, and c) learn the norms of living here. However, respondents also thought the program was good for those in the community to connect with all people living there.

About a year after this study was conducted, the Colorful Dialogue was canceled due to budget constraints and refocusing within the organization. In light of this event, future research could focus on the question of whether or not such a program is a necessity in a demographically changing community and how best to go about organizing it for increased participation and success. A few recommendations are offered from the results of the study.

Mobility and English Language Acquisition: Latino Immigrant Adjustment in the Great Plains
Sarah Hendricks, University of Tennessee

This paper explores the extent to which Latino immigrants concurrently experience two substantial barriers to integration: transportation limitations and lack of English language proficiency. Having an automobile is a necessity for functioning in daily life for virtually every adult in the United States. But immigrants face multiple barriers to driving and travel significantly less than the native-born population. This lack of mobility may form a bottleneck to multiple forms of adaptation to U.S. society, such as reducing the extent to which immigrants access preventative health care, take advantage of educational opportunities, and seek alternative (better) jobs. The reduced ability to fully participate in multiple aspects of U.S. society may also impede English language acquisition, because lack of exposure to English-speaking contexts may reduce the opportunities of immigrants who do not speak English fluently to improve their English language abilities.

In order to investigate the relationship between transportation and English language ability, I use the American Community Survey 2006-2010 pooled data for Latino immigrants living in the metropolitan areas in the Great Plains states. I build a logistic regression model to determine the level of association between household vehicle availability and English language proficiency. In so doing, I investigate one specific connection between social and geographic isolation and discuss related public policies that facilitate the healthy adaptation of immigrants to U.S. society and integration into community life.
Measures of Subjective Well-being, Acculturation Strategies, Networks, and Perceptions of the Context of Reception of Latino and Latina Newcomers in Rural Communities of the Midwest

Corinne Valdivia, Lisa Y. Flores, Stephen Jeanetta, Alejandro Morales, and Domingo Martinez, University of Missouri

This article synthesizes findings from several dimensions of research with Latinos/as that document how newcomers get by, and get ahead, in the rural Midwest. Latinos/as, the fastest growing population group, are an important force in the creation of wealth in rural communities. The community context, context of reception, and the cultural, social, human, and economic capital influence how acculturation takes place. This acculturation is an expression of human agency, which results in outcomes, some objective such as earnings, and some subjective like well-being and job satisfaction.

The theories to develop indicators will be briefly introduced, and the findings of the use of each measure with a household survey of 460 Latinos/as in the Midwest will be presented along with tests of validity, and will include a discussion of their usefulness in creating integration profiles, and how these can be used to inform policies that support integration.

Community and the Context of Reception: A Comparative View of Community and Community Factors Affecting Community Integration

Stephen Jeanetta, Lisa Y. Flores, Alejandro Morales and Corinne Valdivia, University of Missouri – Columbia

Twelve focus groups were conducted across three communities focusing on the process of integrating newcomers into rural places. Six focus groups were conducted with Latino newcomers and six were conducted with members of the receiving community. This presentation explores how newcomers and the receiving community define community and how these definitions of community affect expectations regarding the context of reception. The receiving community has expectations about how newcomers can become part of the community and how they view and define “community.”

The expectations that newcomers have about community affect how they relate to and interact with the communities where they now live. Using a community-focused approach to exploring community and the context of reception, this presentation will explore the common ground on which integration can take place. It will also identify aspects of how each group expresses its understanding of community that can serve as barriers to those integration efforts.

Where Does Integration Take Place? A View of Those Places That Facilitate and Discourage Community Integration Using Photovoice

Stephen Jeanetta and Corinne Valdivia, University of Missouri – Columbia

A Photovoice project was conducted to answer the following questions: a) “Where are those places in the community that promote interaction with people who do not look like me?”; and b) “Where are those places in the community that represent barriers to interaction with people who do not look like me?” Two groups were conducted in each of three communities,
one comprised of eight men and women from the receiving community and the other comprised of eight men and women from the Latino immigrant community. There were a total of 48 participants across the three communities.

Each person was given a camera and a week to answer the first question with pictures. Then they participated in a dialogue session where they shared their photos, picked three that answered the first question best for them, and developed captions for the photos. The process was repeated for the second question.

Analysis was based on transcripts of the discussion that took place around the sharing of the photos. This presentation will focus on places in the community where people feel safe interacting with the other group and on places that serve as barriers. Comparisons between the results of the newcomer groups and the receiving community groups will identify places where interaction is safe for both groups.

**Civil Rights and Political Participation**

**Creating an Immigration Friendly Community in a New Destination Community: The Case of Champaign-Urbana Immigration Forum, Illinois**

*Stacy Harwood, University of Illinois*
*Ben Mueller, Avicenna Community Health Center*
*Ricardo Diaz and Jill Capes, C-U Immigration Forum, Urbana, Illinois*
*John Wilkie, Attorney at Law*

While immigration policy is widely understood as a federal level issue, the impacts of immigration play out at the local level. In Illinois, Champaign Country’s population continues to grow, largely due to the increase in Asian and Hispanic immigrants. In 2010, Asians made up approximately 9% and Hispanics made up 5% of the county’s population. Fifteen percent of the population speaks a language other than English at home. This organized panel presentation will describe a local effort to create a more immigrant friendly community in Champaign-Urbana, IL. The Champaign-Urbana Immigration Forum is a group of immigrants, students, clergy, service providers, labor union representatives, residents, and community organizations concerned about the progress and plight of immigrants in the Champaign County community in Central Illinois. This panel cuts across many of the conference themes, especially civil rights and political participation. The presenters will reflect on the organization’s activities over the last years and focus on ways those activities have increased immigrants’ local integration and their engagement in political participation.

The C-U Immigration Forum has worked to reverse the negative impacts of the controversial federal deportation program called “Secure Communities.” The program was promoted as a way to identify and deport dangerous criminals who pose a threat to public safety, such as aliens with prior convictions for major drug offenses, murder, rape, robbery, and kidnapping. However, according to the federal government’s own data, the vast majority of individuals detained under the program were not criminals. Here in Champaign County, 70% of those detained had no criminal record, but the impact on local families has been devastating.
In response to C-U Immigration Forum’s organizing efforts, the local sheriff no longer transfers detainees to U.S. Immigration and Customs enforcement custody without a specific warrant. The Forum conducted a number of events to reach out to local immigrant communities (from sponsoring consulate visits, to helping local immigrants obtain passports and other documents, to organizing “Know Your Rights” workshops) to educate local immigrants about programs like Secure Communities and their rights under the law.

As a result of the win against Secure Communities, an organization formalized the relationship between the volunteer leaders and community organizers. Leadership developed a vision and began to lay out a plan to celebrate the diversity and culture that immigrants contribute to the community: a) educate the public about issues that affect local immigrant communities, b) advocate for the rights of immigrants and encourage their full participation in civic, cultural, social, and political life in our community, c) promote permanent and positive changes that will improve the quality of life for immigrants in our community, and d) organize for policies that lead to just and humane treatment for all immigrants who are part of our community.

In solidarity with the University of Illinois registered student organization, La Colectiva, Immigration Forum members have lobbied in support of the DREAM Act on a state and national level to create a path to citizenship for students who graduate from college or serve in the U.S. military. In the meantime, the C-U Immigration Forum educated and assisted young people and their families with paperwork for Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) at evening and weekend workshops at local high schools, libraries, and at the community college. Many immigrants in Illinois have been forced to drive without licenses because the state has lacked a legal route to a license for those without documents. C-U Immigration Forum joined the statewide Highway Safety Coalition, to raise awareness of this safety problem. The local immigrant community was essential to lobbying state legislators and sharing stories with the media and the broader public. The mobilization of the immigrant community led to passage of the bill in the legislature, and the governor recently signed the bill into law. C-U Immigration Forum is now working with local agencies and immigrants to ensure a successful rollout of the law.

**Human Side of Immigration**

*Pilar Horner, Michigan State University*

*Laura Sanders and Ramiro Martinez, Washtenaw Interfaith Coalition for Immigrant Rights – Ann Arbor*

*Jorge Delva, University of Michigan*

Worldwide population changes during the past century, seen in migrations of populations from rural to urban areas and from one country to another, have led to an increased need to better understand migratory experiences and the health and mental health of these populations (Demeny, 2003). Nowhere is this more critical than in the experiences of Hispanics in the United States, where millions of immigrant family members have experienced forced separation. Most research to date, however, has focused on the mental health issues of immigrant parents separated from their children, rather than on the child’s experience (Aroian, Norris, González de Chávez Fernández, & Garcia Averasturi, 2008; Bohr & Tse, 2009; Miranda, Siddique, Der-Martirosian, & Belin, 2005). Less research has paid attention to the health and mental health
issues for children who face being separated from their parents (Kupersmidt & Martin, 1997). Hispanic children who live with the fear of being separated from their parents, either through forced deportation or as a result of being detained, may face serious mental health problems. Brabeck and Xu (2010) note that children may face severe mental health distress including trauma, depression, stress, and anxiety. Also, children face long-term problematic mental health outcomes (Capps, 2007) beyond the initial stress. As the Hispanic population continues to grow in size, the health, mental health, and well-being of this group is a vital area for concern.

The purpose of this study was to acquire an in-depth understanding of the types of stressors that undocumented Hispanic children and children of undocumented Hispanic parents experience as a result of their immigrant status. We examined the coping mechanisms and resiliency factors that these children utilize to cope with the stressors that they experience, and we examined how these serve to buffer health and mental health problems they may experience. We recruited 20 children ages 11-18 (males and females) for this study. Three focus groups and in-depth interviews examined issues of health and mental health coping strategies among children who were at risk of being deported and/or whose parents were at risk of deportation.

Children were found to be living in high-stress environments, and living in conditions similar to post-traumatic stress. The children demonstrated various strategies for dealing with this stress including:

- Isolation
- Avoidance
- Political advocacy
- Family based coping mechanisms.

Age and gender variations were noted and were variegated across age groups. Younger children employed simplistic and altruistic definitions of their coping mechanisms, while older children (especially eldest children) demonstrated complex strategies for dealing with the threat of family deportation. However, all children were highly affected, and their nuanced strategies will be discussed.

As young Latinos are poised to become the nation’s largest minority group in the coming decades, the current treatment of young Latinos is alarming. The distrust of law enforcement and disenfranchisement from educational and employment opportunities needs to be further explored, and new policies on immigration need to be enacted.
Integrative Leadership in Rapidly Diversifying Rural Communities
Tobias Spanier, University of Minnesota Extension Center for Community Vitality

This proposed research begins with the idea that leadership becomes more challenging as groups that include a diversity of cultures and agendas become involved. How do integrative leaders communicate with, inspire, and work with diverse coalitions that cross cultural, national, sectorial, and partisan boundaries? The University of Minnesota Extension Center for Community Vitality proposes to conduct an explanatory case study of ‘Integrative Leadership in Rapidly Diversifying Rural Communities.’ Specific research questions asked included: a) “What specific strategies have public, private, and non-profit sectors deployed to create integrative leadership across sectors and ethnic differences?” b) “To what extent have demographically diverse communities promoted opportunities for integrative leadership?” and c) “How can successful integrative leadership strategies be best incorporated into a leadership education program?”

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

Education

Bullying Prevention: Creating a Safe and Inclusive Environment
Kimberly Allen, North Carolina State University

Bullying is a major issue facing youth today. Although the research on bullying as a result of race and ethnicity is not clear, it is clear that immigrant youth are considered a high risk group for being targeted for bullying. In fact, all youth who are unique or different are more likely to be targeted for bullying. Parents, teachers, educators, and youth advocates all agree that this issue merits time and attention, but many professionals don’t understand the issue or know what resources might be most effective with their young audience. There is a need for a comprehensive guide that details research and evidence-based curricula for use by youth professionals to select appropriate bullying prevention and intervention curricula. A multi-state team headed by North Carolina State University has produced a curriculum guide to assist youth professionals with the identification of quality bullying curricula. The results of this curriculum guide will be presented in an effort to help youth professionals achieve the following:

- Increase knowledge of components of effective bully prevention programs.
- Increase knowledge of evidence-based curricula available.
- Increase knowledge of programs and resources available to help professionals learn more about the issue of bullying.
The Academic Adaptation of Children of Immigrants in New and Traditional Settlement States: The Role of Family, Schools, and Neighborhoods
Stephanie Potochnick, University of Missouri

The dispersion of immigrants has changed the face of public education and has challenged educators in new immigrant communities to adapt to the needs of their first cohorts of children of immigrants. This paper provides an essential evaluation of how families, schools, and neighborhoods shape the academic adaptation of immigrants’ children in new and traditional immigrant states. Using the Educational Longitudinal Study (ELS) from 2002, the paper examines how settlement location affects math and reading test scores for all 10th grade youth living in three different settlement locations, including traditional, new, and other immigrant states. The paper uses two-way and three-way interactions to assess whether the effect of settlement location differs for each immigrant generation and for racial/ethnic subgroups of each immigrant generation.

Results indicate that achievement is highest in new immigrant states, but that achievement differences varied by immigrant generation and racial/ethnic group. While demographic differences between settlement locations largely explained differences in student achievement, families and schools in new immigrant states also strongly influenced academic achievement. This paper extends segmented assimilation theory by examining how key differences in academic resources contribute to diverging achievement patterns across settlement locations.

How to Involve Minorities in Programming
Himar Hernández, Iowa State University

We planned it, we sent the invitations, and they did not show up! This has happened countless times to organizations and communities trying to engage Latinos and other minorities. Approaching these groups in the same manner that we approach the general population is usually not an effective strategy. In this session, we will cover best practices on how to approach different groups and how to get them engaged in programs, activities, and events.

Cultural Competency for Working in Agricultural and Extension Education
Maria G. (Lupita) Fabregas Janeiro, Oklahoma State University

The Office of Extension & Engagement in the College of Human Sciences and the Department of Agricultural Education, Communication, and Leadership at Oklahoma State University are designing and delivering a variety of strategies to increase intercultural competence among Extension educators in the state of Oklahoma. The main goal of these strategies is to encourage students to participate more actively in multicultural cooperative extension programs and to be able to work with people from different cultures including Latinos, African Americans, Native Americans, and people from different nationalities in international assignments. One of the most important strategies developed is the design of a curricular on-line class, AGED-5703 Cultural Competency for Working in Agricultural and Extension Education. The focus of this class is to discuss the basic concepts of a) cultural values and stereotypes, b) intercultural sensitivity and competence, c) cultural intelligence, d)
A Dream Deferred?: Advancement Rates of Latino Assistant Principals Into the Principalship

Ed Fuller, Penn State University
Emily Crawford, University of Missouri

The demographics of the student population enrolled in U.S. schools is quickly evolving, with dramatic increases in the number and percentage of English Language Learner students (Garcia, 2012), immigrant youth, and Latino/a students (Fry & Lopez, 2012). Increased pressures on educators to increase student test scores and to close test score achievement gaps raise questions about the degree to which school leaders are prepared to meet these challenges. Research shows school leaders prepared to deeply understand various student backgrounds and cultures tend to be more effective in ensuring positive outcomes for all students (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Yet scant research has examined the frequency of racial/ethnic matches between principals and students and how the dynamics of production and career advancement might influence the prevalence of such matches. Specifically, no empirical studies have examined the transition rate of Latino assistant principals (APs) into principalship positions, or how the rate compares to the rates of peers with different racial/ethnic backgrounds. With Texas as an example, we asked:

- What percentage of principals and assistant principals was Latino over the last 20 years?
- What percentage of majority Latino schools has been led by Latino principals in the last 20 years?
- Do Latino assistant principals become principals at the same rate as their peers?
- What is the time frame for advancement of Latino assistant principals to the principalship in relation to their peers?

This study uses multiple state administrative data sets that show the employment status and individual characteristics of APs, principals, and the student demographics of schools from 1990 through 2008. We examined the transition rates of APs to principals across multiple cohorts of APs over extended time periods. Ultimately, we examined 112,342 assistant principal years and 118,883 principal years over the 18-year time frame to determine the percentages of employed APs and principals.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.*

Improving the Lives of Children Through Healthy Relationship Education

Kimberly Allen and Andrew Behnke, North Carolina State University

Unhealthy relationships and marriages impact family stability and the physical, social and emotional well-being of children. Child welfare experts recommend that professionals that serve vulnerable families have skills to reinforce elements of healthy family functioning in order to minimize these risks and maximize the opportunity for safety and permanency.
For Latino families, the need for relationship education is great. Latino children are at an increased likelihood of being born to unmarried teen parents and less likely to live with both parents (ACF, 2010). In order to best serve Latino families, it is important to understand the unique stressors and evidence-based approaches to helping Latino families improve their relationships.

A preventive approach that helps individuals learn relationship skills that promote healthy couple functioning has been shown to improve parenting and child outcomes. This workshop will highlight the Healthy Relationship and Marriage Education Training Project, a research and educational project that trains professionals who work with vulnerable audiences on how to help families improve their relationships.

**Urban Youth Involved in Community Gardening**  
*Sonia G. Morales Osegueda, Washington State University Extension*

Since Latinos became the largest minority group in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011), urban communities have experienced growth in Latino immigrants. This change in demographics helps fund employment opportunities in agribusiness, food processing, and harvesting of crops (Berry & Kirschner, 2002). This rapid growth of the Hispanic population has had, and will have, an important influence on the economic, political, and social life of the West, and on the nation as a whole. King County, Washington, has historically been a productive agricultural region with dairies, livestock operations, crop farms, and berry fields (King County, 2012). However, agriculture has decreased for many reasons, including urban encroachment, lack of technical support, high cost of land, and low profitability. These factors have discouraged young people from pursuing an agricultural career. In addressing those challenges, Washington State University Extension, through 4-H Youth Development, has designed and implemented an interactive agriculture program for youth. The program helps youth grow their knowledge of agriculture, environment, and natural resources. Youth learn that agriculture is everywhere and that many crops are used in food production. Furthermore, youth develop skills needed to achieve lifelong learning. The program includes gardening implementation in urban settings, which enhances the important role that agriculture plays in the national economy.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.*

**Understanding the Role of University Context on Academic Performance of Mexican American Undergraduate Males**  
*Marvyn Arévalo Avalos and Lisa Y. Flores, University of Missouri - Columbia*

Latinos are the largest and fastest-growing minority group of the United States comprising 16% of the total population. It is projected that by 2050, Latinos will make up nearly 30% of the total population (Passel & Cohn, 2008). But Latinos have the lowest education attainment level of any group in the U.S. (Velasco, 2007). According to a brief produced by the White House Initiative on Educational Excellence for Hispanics (2011), less than 13% of Latinos hold a bachelor’s degree. If the educational outcomes among Latinos do not improve, a significant percentage of the U.S. population will lack appropriate educational training, affecting our country’s competitiveness in the global market.
Research findings with Latino/a college students suggests that students with low socioeconomic status (SES) reporting higher levels of ethnic identity and high parental involvement had overall higher GPA than students with high SES (Ong, Phinney, & Dennis, 2006). Similarly, Aguayo et al. (2011) found that SES, the interaction of higher enculturation (adherence to one’s cultural heritage), and first generation status were positively related to GPA. It is important to note that these studies focus on personal variables (i.e. ethnic identity, acculturation) to explore student academic outcomes. Yet, others have found cultural and social variables to be significant predictors of college persistence intentions among Latinos/as. For example, a study with undergraduate Latino males found that “familismo” (a construct describing the influence of family) predicted college persistence intentions (Ojeda, Navarro, & Morales, 2011). Another study reported that a positive perception of the university environment increased sense of belonging, which was related to increased overall academic self-efficacy (Gloria, Castellanos, Scull, & Villegas, 2009).

The current study will highlight the role of social factors on academic performance of students. The study employs a psychosociocultural framework (Gloria & Castellanos, 2003) to simultaneously explore the impact of psychological, social, and cultural factors on an individual. Specifically, we examine the relations between social class, familismo, students’ university stress experiences, and university factors (i.e. perceptions of the university environment and cultural congruence) on academic performance (i.e. GPA) among Mexican American undergraduate males. Participants were 154 self-identified Mexican American college students at a Hispanic serving institution (HSI; 54.7%) and predominantly White institution (PWI; 45.3%) in the Southwest.

Data analysis will include validity and reliability data on all scales used. Means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations among the study variables will be presented. Primary data analysis will include MANOVA to determine differences by social class (i.e., working class versus upper class) for each of the study’s variables. Finally, a multiple regression analysis will be performed to assess the degree to which personal variables (i.e. stress experience, SES), cultural variables (i.e. familismo), and social variables (i.e. perception of university environment, cultural congruence) predict students’ academic performance (GPA). The presentation will include a summary of the findings and implications for research and practice with Latino males in higher education.

**Entrepreneurship and Economic Development**

**Latino Entrepreneurship in Three New Settlement Communities in the Midwest: A Comparative Study**

_Corinne Valdivia, Maria Figueroa-Armijos, and Katherine F. Higgins, University of Missouri_

This study explores Latino entrepreneurship among recent immigrants in three new settlement communities in the Midwest. We combine the sustainable livelihoods and acculturation strategies frameworks to identify and understand the main differences between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs among Latino newcomers in three contexts of reception.
Specifically, we focus on the capitals (human, cultural, social, natural, and economic) that contribute to Latino entrepreneurs’ asset accumulation and acculturation in a challenging context. We use primary data gathered through 330 household surveys with personal interviews in the Midwest to conduct the study. Although regression analysis will be used to understand the individual and contextual characteristics that contribute to Latino entrepreneurship, this preliminary study offers a comparative profile of Latino entrepreneurs in three new settlement communities, where we describe the characteristics of their households, their community contexts, and their acculturation and livelihood strategies, such as access to information, capital, and banking services, and participation in formal and informal social networks. We also observe these differences between Latino non-entrepreneurs in the same communities.

The sustainable livelihoods framework focuses on the capitals (human, social, economic, natural, cultural) and strategies that allow households to optimize their capabilities and assets and to “cope with and recover from stresses and shocks” posed by their environments (Scoones, 1998, p. 5). Acculturation refers to the process of adopting formal or informal norms and values of the receiving community (Berry, 2003), “with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns of either or both groups” (Redfield, Linton, & Herskovits, 1936, p. 149). Acculturation strategies can be assimilation, integration, separation, or marginalization. In the first, the newcomer progressively replaces traces of their culture of origin with values and norms of the receiving culture. In the second, the newcomer develops a bicultural strategy in which both cultures are equally integrated in their original form. In the third, the newcomer settles within networks of people similar to them, and the fourth consists of being marginalized.

By combining the sustainable livelihoods and acculturation strategies frameworks, our study contributes to our understanding of the community and individual characteristics that contribute to the sustainability of small businesses, especially among Latino entrepreneurs. Immigration law is one of today’s most pressing challenges, and entrepreneurship is one of our country’s greatest assets. Latino immigrants in rural America are part of the “hidden population” that is frequently overlooked by social and economic censuses (Heckathorn, 2002) and research studies. This study offers opportunities for a greater assessment of the role of policy and the context of reception in understanding and promoting entrepreneurship among Latino newcomers amidst current limitations.

Start-Up Experiences of Latino/a Business Owners in Lansing and Saginaw, Michigan

Rubén Martinez, Roger Calantone, and William Escalante, Michigan State University

The paper presents findings from qualitative data gleaned from formal interviews with 14 business owners from the Start-Up Experiences of Latino/a Business Owners in Michigan study conducted by the Julian Samora Research Institute in 2011 and 2012. The majority of respondents were men over the age of 51 with at least some postsecondary education who were born in the United States; half of the respondents were born in Michigan. For Latino/a business owners in Lansing and Saginaw, MI, family influences decisions to venture into business ownership both in terms of intrinsic motivation and through a history of business ownership. Consistent with earlier research (Martinez et al., 2011), the majority of business owners in our sample used either informal funds or a combination of formal and informal funds to start their
business endeavors. Respondents acknowledged that discrimination, prejudice, and exclusion, while perhaps less severe than in past decades, remain inherent in Latino business start-up experiences. Our research begins to fill the gap of knowledge on how Latinos and Latinas are starting and building businesses.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

Developing Entrepreneurship Programs to Assist New Destination Latino Immigrants
Wayne Miller, Frank Farmer, Zola Moon, University of Arkansas
Christina Abreo, St. Anna’s Episcopal Church, New Orleans, Louisiana
Stacey McCullough, University of Arkansas

As part of an integrated research and outreach program designed to better understand and to ultimately assist Latino entrepreneurs to establish businesses in Arkansas, educational materials and a pilot training program were developed. The results showed a renewed interest in business start-ups and expansions. Additionally, the pilot training created linkages between Latino entrepreneurs, community members, and business leaders, and also created a greater awareness of Latino concerns. Over the past two decades, many areas of the U.S. have experienced substantial in-migration of Latinos from Mexico and Meso-America. As the Latino populations have expanded, these migrants’ participation in business creation has also expanded. However, a study of Latino business owners identified language and cultural barriers to establishing businesses, which are in addition to more typical barriers confronting entrepreneurs. These barriers were often found to be unique to the community in which the entrepreneurs resided. The educational materials combined existing entrepreneurship training resources with locally focused information to address the unique concerns of Latino entrepreneurs in Arkansas.

The pilot training program was conducted in two rural communities with substantial Latino populations. The topics covered in the workshops were those identified as most important by Latino entrepreneurs. This paper and presentation will explain the process for developing the educational materials and pilot training, describe the educational materials created for the target audience, and present the findings and key components of a successful outreach effort to Latino entrepreneurs.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

Back to Nature: Native Flora for Wildlife and People; The Lincoln University Native Plants Program
Nadia Navarrete-Tindall and Amy Hempen, Lincoln University of Missouri

The Native Plants Program’s (NPP) main goals at Lincoln University are to increase awareness in communities of different ethnicities about the importance of native plants for conservation and to learn about their potential for consumption and income generation. We plan to accomplish these goals by educating communities with formal training and hands-on activities that include classes, workshops, and field days throughout the year. Native Plant
Outdoor Laboratories established in Marshall and in Jefferson City, and demonstration gardens in some locations across Missouri, showcase more than 200 native plants found in prairies, woodlands, or wetlands, including wildflowers and woody species. These gardens offer educational information, and bilingual brochures are available. The NPP puts special emphasis on plants good for human consumption and plants for bees, butterflies, other beneficial insects, birds, and other wildlife. The NPP also emphasizes plants that can beautify communities. Native plants growing in extreme conditions are studied during educational events. Many native species for food or value-added products are established at Lincoln University on campus and in the Bootheel region, and some are similar to crops commonly grown in tropical countries. Latin American immigrants may increase their sense of belonging by growing these plants. The Native Plants Program receives funding from the National Institute of Food and Agriculture (NIFA).

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

Building Community with a Certified Kitchen, Farmers Market, and a Community Garden: The Sprouts and Roots Program at Lincoln University

Nadia Navarrete-Tindall, Yvonne Mathews, and Mara Aruguete, Lincoln University of Missouri

The overall objective of the Lincoln University Cooperative Extension (LUCE) Sprouts and Roots Program (SRP) is to improve the well-being of minorities and other underserved communities through gardening and to promote intergenerational activities in Jefferson City and elsewhere in Missouri. To meet this objective, training is offered on nutrition, wellness, and gardening. The effects of gardening and healthy habits on the physical and psychological health of seniors and youth are being evaluated in an ongoing research study. Recruitment was done in schools, senior centers, Boys and Girls clubs, churches, and other locations with the assistance of the LUCE Paula Carter Center on Minority Health and Aging. Flyers, emails, calls, and personal visits were used to contact potential participants.

Children and seniors attended indoor and outdoor classes in spring and fall, and pretests and posttests were provided to determine their change in knowledge of particular topics. Participants practiced their new knowledge to grow their own food at the community garden located on campus. Sixteen adult seniors and 16 children participated in 2012. The farmers market, also located on campus and adjacent to the garden, is offering the opportunity to SRP participants and area farmers to sell produce, baked goods, and other value-added products. An average of 14 vendors, and a total of 43, attended the market in 2012 where fresh or value-added products were sold on Thursdays and Saturdays during the growing season. Some vendors continued selling their products during the winter months. More than 4,000 people of different ethnicities, ages, and genders attended the market on Saturdays in 2012, compared to 1,305 in 2011. The SRP is providing communities the opportunity to develop their own value-added products by facilitating their access to a commercial kitchen recently opened to the public, located next to the market and community garden.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.
Financial and Community Capacity-Building among Beginning Latino Farmers and Ranchers in Missouri and Nebraska
Stephen Jeanetta, Eleazar U. Gonzalez (main presenter), and David O’Brien, University of Missouri
Kathie Starkweather and Wyatt Fraas, Center For Rural Affairs, Lyons, Nebraska

The Financial and Community Capacity Building Program implemented among new and beginning Latino farmers and ranchers in Missouri and Nebraska is attempting to reverse the decline of operations run by Latino farmers and ranchers in Missouri and Nebraska (25% and 37% decline, respectively) that was documented in the Census of Agriculture from 2002 to 2007. In previous exploratory research from both states, we found that most of the 47 Latino farmers and ranchers interviewed had poor English communication skills, inadequate financial management skills, and limited ability to use and access USDA programs. These main factors might be inhibiting many of these farmers and ranchers from sustaining their farming and ranching operations. In order to enhance farm viability among new and beginning Latino farmers and ranchers, we are implementing the above-mentioned educational program in both states.

The objectives include increasing access to social and institutional support networks and improving financial literacy. In the first year of a three-year grant, we have reached out to and recruited at least nine Latino farmers and ranchers in each state to participate in a ten-session workshop program. We designed a curriculum to focus on the financial and communication needs of Latino farmers and ranchers. The curriculum was piloted by training these 18 Latino farmers and ranchers in Missouri and Nebraska. As a result, an improved curriculum will be created.

For the pilot training we are using our previous findings based on a one-year research project during 2011. In the near future, we will use the feedback from this pilot curriculum in Missouri and Nebraska to improve the curriculum. During the pilot curriculum, feedback was received from participants through three different instruments: a) a pre-test and post-test evaluation of the material presented, b) an end of session evaluation, and c) a short focus group discussion at the end of each session. In the second and third years, three revised, additional workshop series will be conducted in each state. A second community will be added in year two, so that by the end of the three-year grant, we will have reached 72 Latino producers in both states.

Outcomes will include producers’ ability to a) understand financial farm literacy; b) understand how to access community resources; c) connect to community networks; and d) how to volunteer as ‘promotores’ to other Latinos to teach them how to access community resources. After the fourth month of the program, we observed the first results as a consequence of the workshop. So far, three inquiries have been made for microloans to the Farm Service Agency in Barry County, MO, and we expect more Latino farmers and ranchers will follow in Nebraska. Outputs will include a base of 72 Latino farmers trained in a unique curriculum established for Latino farmers and ranchers with limited English proficiency.
**Latino Social Innovators and Economic Entrepreneurs in Four Rural Communities of Iowa: Comparisons Using a Capitals Framework**
*Jan L. Flora, Saul Abarca Orozco, and Diego Thompson Bello, Iowa State University*

This paper compares barriers, assets utilized, and accomplishments of social innovators (N = 23) and economic entrepreneurs (N = 47) in four communities in Iowa using a community capitals framework. The communities were Columbus Junction, Denison, Marshalltown, and West Liberty. It also contrasts the two groups of innovators in terms of their geographic origins, prior experiences, and demographic characteristics. Both qualitative and quantitative data are utilized. Data were gathered through in-depth face-to-face interviews with the subjects in 2009-2010.

**Health**

**Getting Latinos Covered: The Health Insurance Marketplace**
*Nancy Rios, Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services*

The Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) is the federal agency of the Department of Health and Human Services that administers the Medicare and Medicaid programs and several other health programs, such as the Children’s Health Insurance Program and the Pre-Existing Condition Insurance Plan. CMS is also the lead agency responsible for the implementation of many provisions within the Affordable Care Act.

The Affordable Care Act, signed into law in March 2010, contains many health insurance provisions that afford Latinos strong consumer protections, more coverage options, and quality health care at a lower cost. As a result, starting in 2014, a health insurance marketplace will be operational, allowing many uninsured Latinos to purchase quality, affordable private health insurance that best meets their needs. Through this new marketplace, Latinos will be able to go to one place to learn about health insurance, compare and enroll in health plans, and find out if they or their family members are eligible for Medicaid, the Children’s Health Insurance Program (CHIP), tax credits, or cost-sharing reductions to help with health care costs. This workshop will include an in-depth presentation on the health insurance marketplace, the enrollment process, and the local resources available for consumers. Participants will also learn about partner resources and new online tools that will assist in health education efforts in local communities.

**Examining the Health Literacy of Rural Latina Immigrant Mothers and Their Use of the Internet to Seek Health Information**
*Kimberly Greder and Kimberly Doudna, Iowa State University*

This study examined the health literacy of 98 Latina immigrant mothers in a rural area of a Midwestern state, their use of the Internet to seek health information, and the relationship between mothers’ use of the Internet to seek health information and children’s and mothers’ health status. Health literacy is the capacity to obtain, process, and understand basic health
information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions (Parker & Ratzan, 2010). Poor health literacy is related to poor health choices, riskier behaviors, worse health, higher mortality, more hospitalizations, and higher health costs (World Health Communication Associates Ltd, 2011).

Latino immigrants are at high risk for poor health literacy in the United States due to low educational attainment, lack of knowledge of health topics, low English language fluency, and due to the culture and the specific characteristics of the U.S. health system. This includes the communication skills of health providers (Rudd, Kirsch, & Yamamoto, 2004). This study draws its sample from Rural Families Speak about Health (RFSH). Mothers were recruited using Respondent Driven Sampling (Heckathorn, 2002), a strategy for recruiting hard-to-reach populations and for whom sampling frames are not available.

During in-home interviews, mothers were asked a series of questions pertaining to their use of the Internet, their ability to understand information shared by health professionals, the health status of themselves and their children, and the demographics of their households.

Preliminary descriptive analysis of demographic data, correlations, cross tabs, and ANOVAs were conducted using the software SPSS v. 20. More than half (61.4%; n = 54) of the mothers reported they accessed the Internet most often at home. However, only a little more than one third reported that they used the Internet to find information about their health (35.7%; n = 35) or their children’s health (37.8%; n = 37). Mothers’ use of the Internet to find information regarding health was not related to children’s or mothers’ health status.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

**Meanings and Strategies for Good Health: The Perspectives of Latina Immigrant Mothers in Rural Iowa**
Angelica Reina, Kimberly Greder, and Tania Lee, Iowa State University

Limited research has examined the variety of strategies Latino immigrants, especially those living in rural communities, use to maintain or improve their health. This study identified Latina immigrant mothers’ conceptualizations of good health and their strategies to maintain or improve their health. Data from 19 semi-structured interviews with Latina immigrant mothers living in a rural Midwestern community were coded and analyzed using qualitative methods. Results reveal that mothers define being healthy as the absence of illness (i.e., “not being sick”) and interpreted health in terms of being physically, mentally, and emotionally well. Mothers identified four primary strategies they implement to maintain or improve their health a) eating healthy food, b) participating in moderate and vigorous physical activities, c) monitoring intake of unhealthy foods, and d) visiting the doctor for preventative care (e.g., checkups). Religious beliefs were also noted as sources of strength to tackle their emotional problems. Understanding how Latina immigrant mothers perceive “being healthy” and perceive the status of their own health, as well as being knowledgeable of the strategies they employ to maintain or improve their health, can assist researchers and practitioners interested in improving health outcomes among Latino immigrant families.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.*
Immigration and Trauma: Coping and Resiliency Amongst Latina/o Immigrants
Danielle Quintero, University of Missouri
Oscar F. Rojas Perez, University of California – Irvine

Latinas/os are the largest racial/ethnic minority group, accounting for 16% of the U.S. population (Census, 2010). Between 2000 and 2010, more than half of the growth in the United States was due in part to Latinas/os (Census, 2010). Historically, the immigration process for Latina/o immigrants has been known to cause significant distress and to present perilous obstacles. Specifically, traumatic experiences and stressors while crossing the U.S./Mexico border were commonly found among Latinas/os (Shattell et al., 2008). In regards to rates of trauma, Fortuna, Porche, & Alegria (2008) found that 76% of Latina/o immigrants have had other traumatic experiences such as personal, physical, and sexual violence, in addition to political violence. With increasing immigration rates and significantly high trauma rates, it is important to analyze coping mechanisms and resiliency amongst Latina/o immigrants who experience adverse events as they transition into the United States. Cultural values and their influence on coping amongst Latina/o immigrants are often shaped by cultural and individual differences, also influencing the perception of what resources are available and acceptable for individuals (Bonnano, 2004). Latina/o cultural values, particularly amongst Mexican individuals, enact family and religious rituals that create a sense of collectivism, support, and “familismo,” which ultimately emphasizes the prominence of support (Cervantes & Ramirez, 1992). Although familismo support has been vital to the transition process of Latina/o immigrants in the United States, there is limited literature on coping mechanisms they use. The research on coping suggests that Latinas/os engage in positive reinterpretation, focusing and venting emotions, social support, active coping, religion, emotional support, and planning as ways to cope, and those mechanisms were associated with positive physical and psychological health (Vaughn & Roesch, 2003). Additionally, Lucid (2010) reported that self-affirmation coping was a common Latina/o cultural value, which was found through religious faith. However, the limited research previously conducted on Latina/o coping strategies has primarily targeted college students, leaving a large portion of the Latina/o population less studied.

The immigration experience is daunting and traumatic as Latinas/os encounter unknown terrain. This exploratory paper summarizes available literature relating to trauma, coping, and resiliency among Latina/o immigrants and suggests next steps for interventions. Additionally, this paper will introduce and explore the various types of trauma experienced by Latinas/os during migration that include (but are not limited to) exposure to political violence, psychosocial trauma, sexual violence, and witnessing violence (Fortuna, Porche, & Alegria, 2008).

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

Health, Well-being, and Social Connectedness of Rural Hispanic/Latino Populations
Debra Bolton, Kansas State University

Studies explored two rural Kansas communities with Hispanic populations that ranged from 30% to 51%. This research addresses a social capital literature that traditionally targeted a White majority population in the United States. Hispanic and other merging populations
have not been primary survey respondents in most studies. The goal of these studies was to understand how growing, foreign-born populations in rural Kansas, as compared to Euro/Anglo populations, experienced different levels of health, well-being, and social connectedness. In addition, one of the studies addressed health needs of its widely diverse communities.

Using mixed methods approaches, surveys were sent to selected households in English and Spanish, focus groups were conducted in four languages (English, Spanish, Burmese, and Somali), and online surveys were offered. The findings had some surprises in terms of health conditions, general needs, and social connectedness. The studies did not always reflect the mainstream opinions of how minority populations connect in their communities or how they fare in terms of health outcomes. Implications of the results will be discussed along with culturally appropriate recommendations for reaching these populations with Extension and other educational programs.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

**Creating a Culturally Sensitive Intake Template for Latino/a Populations**

*Sonia Dhaliwal, University of Missouri – Columbia*

Latinos currently make up about 15% of the U.S. population and are the fastest growing nonmajority group, expected to consist of one fourth of the population by the year 2050. Along with being the fastest growing population, Latinos experience mental disorders similar to that of the overall population. An increasing number of Latino youths report feelings of sadness and hopelessness at a noted 36% compared to White youths who report these symptoms at 26%. In addition to reported feelings of depressed mood, Latino youths make more suicide attempts with a reported 10% versus 6% for White youth (US Census 2000 from CDC). However, Latino attitudes and perceptions of mental health affect the use of mental health services. For example, some Latinos mistake depression for nervousness and/or physical pain, and this is often viewed as something temporary that will soon pass. According to the APA Office of Minority and National Affairs, only one in 11 Latinos may reach out to a mental health provider while less than one in five may contact their general practitioner. There is reason to believe Latino immigrants would be even less likely to seek out mental health providers. Is the field of mental health prepared to accommodate and assist in the increasingly diverse health needs of this population? This research project will attempt to answer this question through the construction of a culturally sensitive intake assessment template. The researchers of this study have incorporated relevant models of diversity as well as culturally relevant questions into a preexisting intake form in order to accommodate the culturally infused presenting concerns of the Latino population at the intake process. The models of diversity, which consist of the interpersonal and intrapersonal grids, were derived from Paul Pedersen’s work as well as the ADDRESSING model, which was derived from Pamela Hayes’ work. The culturally relevant questions were derived from 8-10 focus groups the researchers conducted with Latino youth ages 18-21 on the campus of Michigan State University in 2010. This presentation will discuss the evolution of the intake template and how various models of diversity were incorporated into the template. The researcher will also discuss how the feedback from the focus groups was incorporated into the current template in order to achieve a more culturally sensitive intake approach.
Exploring Successful Aging among Foreign-born Latinos in the Context of Other Immigrant Groups in Saint Louis, Missouri
Jennifer Hale-Gallardo, Hisako Matsuo, and Lisa Willoughby, Saint Louis University

The health and well-being of older and elderly adults in the United States has received increasing attention since the second half of the 20th century. However, immigrants remain an understudied population in gerontological research. This paper is based on an interdisciplinary research study by Drs. Matsuo (Sociology), Willoughby (Psychology), and Hale-Gallardo (Anthropology) that examines physiological, psychological, social, and cultural factors associated with aging for several immigrant populations in Saint Louis (including Eastern Europeans, Asians, South Asians, and Latinos).

Based on a quantitative survey interview that includes open-ended questions, the study measures a broad swath of domains such as language competence, ethnic identity and acculturation, perceived discrimination, intergenerational kinship expectations, health care access, and mental health concerns. This paper presents preliminary findings about the unique challenges and opportunities experienced by Latino foreign-born, older adults living in Saint Louis and their own estimations of their health and well-being, as well as what they deem to be the criteria for “successful aging.” It also presents some of the notable differences in their own experience of aging from other ethnic groups in the region. As Latinos become one of the fastest growing populations in the heartland of the U.S., a better understanding of the variables associated with positive aging experiences of Latinos in Saint Louis, as well as the similarities or differences from the health challenges faced by coexisting ethnic immigrant groups in the city, should enable better future research design on this underexplored topic and help to inform the coordination of health and social services for the diversity of immigrants who reside in the region.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

Dimensions of Acculturative Stress and Mexican American Emerging Adults’ Prosocial Behaviors
Alexandra N. Davis, Gustavo Carlo, and Cara Streit, University of Missouri

Stressful experiences are demanding and can weaken coping mechanisms and lead to maladjustment (Conger et al., 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Mexican Americans face unique forms of stressors, including acculturative stress. Acculturative stress is defined as demands placed on the individual that result from adapting to a new culture (Alegria & Woo, 2009). Acculturative stress is multidimensional and can be conceptualized in different ways. Language is a salient component of everyday life and may contribute to acculturative stress among Mexican Americans. Specifically, language can be potentially stressful for emerging adults who speak English as a second language and have difficulty communicating with others. Additionally, emerging adults may feel that they have access to fewer opportunities than their European American peers because of their ethnicity. Emerging adults who believe that society excludes them based on their ethnicity may experience environmental stress, another dimension of acculturative stress. Acculturative stress has been linked to a variety of behavioral outcomes, including prosocial behaviors, which are positive actions intended to benefit others. Prior
research has demonstrated that acculturative stress is positively associated with specific forms of prosocial behaviors but is negatively associated with other forms (McGinley et al., 2010). Furthermore, while researchers have examined different components of acculturative stress, it is unclear if these dimensions differentially impact different types of prosocial behaviors.

The current study examined the relations between two dimensions of acculturative stress (language stress and environmental stress) and Mexican American emerging adults’ prosocial behaviors (dire, emotional, compliant, altruistic, anonymous, and public). Data was collected from Mexican American emerging adults in California and Texas. Participants were Mexican American college students (mean age=23.05 years, range 18-30 years; 66.9% female). Participants completed measures of their acculturative stress (Social, Attitudinal, Familial, and Environmental Acculturative Stress Scale; Mena, Padilla, & Maldonado, 1987).

For the current study, the existing environmental stress subscale (10 items; alpha=.85) was used to assess stress associated with perceptions of limited opportunities and social exclusion. A language stress subscale (3 items; alpha=.73) was created to assess stress associated with communication. Regressions were conducted to examine the associations among language and environmental stress and six types of prosocial behaviors. The results demonstrated that language stress positively predicted anonymous prosocial behaviors and negatively predicted altruistic prosocial behaviors. Environmental stress positively predicted emotional, dire, compliant, and anonymous prosocial behaviors and negatively predicted altruistic prosocial behaviors. Discussion will focus on the differential relations among language stress, environmental stress and specific prosocial behaviors and the implications of these findings for measurement and future research.

*This abstract corresponds to one of the selected papers in the book of proceedings.

Caring for Newcomer Patients: Provider Perspectives
Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri
Shannon Canfield, Karen Edison, Ioana Staiculescu, and Stan Hudson, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri

This study explored the experiences of health care providers that provide care to newcomer refugee and immigrant patients in Missouri. Data were collected using in-person, semi-structured interviews. Thirty-five health care providers were interviewed in St. Louis, Columbia, Cassville, Kenneth, Senath, Bernie, and Kansas City. A variety of providers, including physicians, nurses, social workers, medical assistants, financial counselors, patient access representatives, and behavioral health assistants were interviewed to get a sense of what it was like to provide services to these populations.

This presentation will explore the three main themes that emerged from the interviews. The primary theme was the power of effective communication. Providers identified factors that are barriers or facilitators of communication which include health literacy, the service provider’s ability to provide interpretive services in the patient’s preferred language, and aspects that contribute to relationship building between patients and providers. The second theme revolved around patients’ ability to access health care. Providers described cost, lack of insurance, and patients’ difficulty navigating the health care system as the primary obstacles. Health care professionals indicated the inability to provide the basic standard of care for patients. From
their perspective, this is often due to patients’ inability to pay, resulting in delayed care and/or patients lost to follow-up. The final theme focuses on common policy recommendations, from the perspective of the provider, that would enhance delivery of health care services.

**Challenges in Accessing Health Care Services: Perspectives from Refugee and Immigrant Patients**

*Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri*

*Ioana Staiculescu (main presenter), Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri*

*Karen Edison, Stan Hudson, and David Zelmer, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri*

The purpose of this research is to explore the process of accessing health care from the perspective of the immigrant or refugee and to gain insight into the barriers facing refugee and immigrant patients in accessing health care services. Data was collected using in-person, semi-structured interviews in the native languages using qualified interpreters. There were 36 participants from both rural and urban areas of Missouri. Participants answered questions about experiences they had accessing the health care system, about the support they need in order to access those services, and about the barriers they face.

This presentation will explore factors that contribute to a positive experience in the health care system and challenges they face in accessing health care resources. Positive experiences included things such as working with a health care broker, someone who can guide the patient through the complicated system, and the availability of interpretation and transportation services. Participants mentioned the need for more affordable payment plans to be made available to them by health care facilities.

Challenges included the cost of services, lack of a connection with someone who can guide the patient through the system, a lack of access to interpretation services, and lack of health insurance. There is also a need for health care services provided in the evenings and on weekends, information on services available in the community, and disease-based support groups for immigrant groups. The findings provide further insight into the barriers facing newcomers in accessing health care, their perceptions of their care compared to the majority, and effective resources and support networks that enable them to overcome their unique challenges.

**Missouri Trends in Hispanic Health Disparities In the Last Decade**

*M. Ryan Barker and the Missouri Foundation for Health (MFH) Health Policy Team*

Data for this report was provided by the Department of Health and Senior Services, Section for Epidemiology and Public Health Practice.

On June 4, 2013, the Missouri Foundation for Health (MFH) released the third edition of “Hispanic Health Disparities in Missouri.” First released in 2006, the current edition of the data book allows us to look back over the last decade to examine specific data related to the health of the Hispanic population in Missouri. This session will explore the growth in the Hispanic population and the impact of the most recent recession on socioeconomic and health indicators in the state. Additionally, it will identify the health outcomes where we have seen both reductions as well as increases in disparities between the Hispanic and White (non-Hispanic) populations. The session will also examine the weaknesses of the data set and how we can improve the collection of data related to the Hispanic population across the region.
Salud de Nuestra Población: A Mixed Methods Strengths and Needs Assessment
Katherine J. Mathews, Saint Louis University, and the Casa de Salud Research Team, Casa de Salud

Salud de Nuestra Población is an innovative community strengths and needs assessment focused on the region’s Latino population. “Salud” combines quantitative data collected at intake for patients seeking medical care at Casa de Salud in St. Louis, MO, and qualitative data from 43 key informant interviews with members of the Latino community. The quantitative data captures basic demographics, historic access to care, and prior ability to obtain recommended health and wellness screenings. Information gathered through the key informant interviews provides rich and layered insights about the many factors affecting overall health and well-being. In its next phase, Salud results will be brought back to community members and stakeholders to identify needed, achievable programs and promising opportunities for improving the health of our region’s Latino population.
Selected Papers
Health, Well-being, and Social Connectedness of Rural Hispanic Populations
Debra J. Bolton, Kansas State University

Introduction

Disparities in health and well-being are some of the inequalities experienced by low-income individuals, families, and ethnic minorities (Smedley, 2009). Social connectedness is another disparity for these groups as well (Hero, 2007). Also, researchers are challenged to reach underrepresented groups because of a lack of multilingual professionals. Sample sizes of targeted underrepresented groups may be large, but too often they are not representative. For example, when a multilingual population is studied in a language other than the respondents’ mother tongue, the researcher is dependent on what others think about the target population. That is a type of indirect sampling (Marshall, 1996).

This paper will illustrate the findings of an in-depth, multilingual study in the densely settled rural, minority-majority community of Finney County, with a 51% minority and 46% Hispanic population and Kearny County, with a 31% Hispanic population. Both counties are in Southwest Kansas. The goal was to uncover unmet health needs, assess general well-being, and discover types of social connectedness. The Finney County study followed previous research that used indirect methods, and thus did not reach understanding of this region’s multilingual, multiethnic, multicultural populations. Using questions that probed for an individual’s or family’s health status, well-being, and social connectedness, we used demographics, education, country-of-origin, gender, and other information as independent variables. Social connectedness was measured using Robert Putnam’s social capital inquiries. However, since Putnam’s questions tend toward racial bias (Hero, 2007), they were changed to reflect language and culturally appropriate wording. The Finney County reached about 10% of the population in four languages, and the Kearny County reached 2% of the population in English and Spanish.

Social Connectedness

McBride, Sherraden, and Pritzker (2006) noted that varying types of community involvement are a means for developing skills and capacity for “increasing tolerance among people, building society, supporting collective action for greater well-being, and strengthening autonomy” (p. 152), and are the prime sources of social trust and bridging, interconnected social networks. Daily face-to-face interactions with one another are able to transcend subcultural barriers that exist within societies (Putnam, 2000). The lack of social interconnectedness can contribute to unemployment, poor education, poor health, and low socioeconomic status.

Recent immigrant Hispanic populations of the past 25 years have been especially vulnerable to lacking those important interconnected networks as they struggle with language barriers, acculturation, and income challenges (Parra-Cardona, Bulock, Imig, Villarreal, & Gold, 2006). Many of the rural-bound are Hispanic/Latino immigrants (Allensworth & Rochín, 1996). Rodney Hero (2007) said that Hispanics/Latinos do not measure up to Anglo populations in terms of social connectedness (capital) outcomes, because survey instruments do not measure specific types of social connections especially important to a culture that is building new places in new lands.

The 2012 Finney County study answered a 2007 study that did not reach a representative sampling of respondents. In the final report of the 2007 study, Garden City, a heterogeneous community, was listed as having the lowest social connectedness scores as compared to similar-
sized homogenous communities, which scored the highest in terms of social capital indicators. Kearny County, population 4,169 (31% Hispanic) and receiving area for Hispanic émigrés, was studied to look at social connectedness in a heterogeneously growing population.

**Health and Well-being**

A Kaiser Family Foundation (2008) study reported that health disparities are prevalent among the nation’s poor and ethnically diverse. In rural communities of Southwest Kansas, three major population centers are minority-majority. Health disparities can be evident. Two charitable foundations in the area wanted to make sure that their granting dollars went to the most efficient uses. The Finney County study also was launched to identify health status and well-being in the general population, with an emphasis on reaching the racially diverse populations.

**Hispanic and Other Communities in Southwest Kansas**

The changing demographics of Southwest Kansas are a result of immigration related to the availability of low-skill jobs in agriculture and to a lack of economic opportunity in Mexico and Central America. The most recent heavy Hispanic migration to Southwest Kansas began in the early 1980s because of the beef processing plants. The processing plant recruited people from Mexico and Central America who were looking for employment opportunities and willing to work in these low-paying jobs. Finney County and its neighboring counties, such as Kearny County, have steadily growing populations of immigrants because of beef processing and other agriculture-related jobs (Stull & Broadway, 2004).

Those same agriculturally based jobs also appealed to political refugees from East Africa and from Burmese refugee camps. Those communities are steadily growing as long as there are jobs and schools for their children.

**Bonded Social Interactions**

People who function in bonded groups interact with family, close friends, and other near-kin (Putnam, 2000a). There is very little sharing of information outside of the bonded relationships. In the rural United States, Mexican immigrants exhibited robust intragroup and extended family ties (Sarkisian, Gerena, & Gerstel, 2006). Homophily is a sociological phenomenon in which people are more likely to form friends with others who are alike in race/ethnicity, social class, education, age, etc. (Flora, Flora, & Fey, 2004).

**Bridging Social Interactions**

Bridging social interactions link people from one close-knit group to other groups outside the immediate bonds. Bridging from one group to another tends to generate broad and interconnected circles (Putnam, 2000). When social circles intersect, new information is shared, and new ideas are formed, and bridging takes place.

**Methodology**

Most studies done in Finney County are carried out in English. Researchers use caution when studying ethnic groups. There needs to be proficiency in other languages available, and care must be taken not to project the values of the culturally dominant group onto another group (Hero, 2007; Kao, 2004). Research should use research tools that reflect the language(s),
sentence syntax, and vocabulary of the group(s) to be studied (Hero, 2007). The survey was written in four languages: English, Spanish, Karen (the language of one of Burma’s major clans - pronounced, Kaw-ren), and Somali based on recommendations from service providers. The translated surveys were taken from the original English questionnaire. Once the questions were translated, they were back-translated to English to assure that the integrity of the original questions remained and meaning was not lost. Steps were taken to guarantee a representative sample of Finney and Kearny counties’ populations. Most of the surveys were distributed in a focus group format. Gathered groups were given surveys to complete, and completion was proctored by trained facilitators. Online surveys were available.

Thirty interviews were completed in English and Spanish, and any open-ended questions from the surveys were translated from Karen, Somali, and Spanish and analyzed with other qualitative data. Analyses included frequencies, test of proportions (t-test), test for independence ($X^2$), ethnographic samples, and qualitative interviews.

Social Connectedness in Hispanic/Latino Communities

Nadia Flores (2006) noted that solidarity relations are prevalent among Mexican rural dwellers and in those Hispanic/Latino populations emigrating from urban to rural settings (Flores, 2006). That solidarity also enforces social norms. Siles, Robison, Cuéllar, Garcia, and LaHousse (2006) showed that Latino immigrants in Michigan use their social capital, mostly bonding, during the entire process of emigrating from their countries of origin to the United States. “If immigrants did not have social connections, they would not make it to the receiving community in the first place,” said anthropologist Donald Stull (personal communication, February 27, 2011). They would not find jobs. They would not find housing. They would not be able to find schools and other resources necessary for living.

Demographics of Finney and Kearney Counties

The population of Finney County was 37,000, with 51% minority with 46% Hispanic. Those who completed written surveys: 131 males (28%) and 321 females (69%). Twelve (12) survey respondents did not list gender (2.6%). Languages spoken at home included English (69%), Spanish (23%), Somali (2.2%), Burmese languages (3%), Chinese (.6), and Vietnamese (.9). 47.2% of respondents reported being born in United States. Females dominated completion
of the surveys, but that did not make a significant difference, mathematically, in terms of results, so no measures were taken to give extra weight to males. Numbers were analyzed as they were presented.

The study of Kearny County was completed in the summer of 2011. At the time, Kearny County was populated with 4,169 people, and 31% reported being of Hispanic ethnicity and 49% were female.

Results

Race/ethnicity in Social Interactions and Health Outcomes

In Kearny County, results showed that Hispanic/Latinos had medium bridging and bonding social connections. There did not appear to be vast differences among Anglo and Hispanic respondents regarding bridging, bonding, and trust. The greatest difference in levels of bridging social capital was church attendance. Hispanics were 53% more likely to attend church than Anglos. The qualitative interviews supported the idea that close friends and family are essential to the survival of newly developing populations of immigrants.

Initially, analyses examined Anglo (anyone of European, Scandinavian, or Russian descent) compared to non-Anglo (people of color) outcomes. Later data were examined with other factors such as age, income, job type, education, gender, etc. In terms of a protective factor, we saw that around 15% of respondents said they used tobacco. Tobacco use was not high enough to merit further analysis with other factors. Garden City implemented a smoking ban about 6 years ago, so it would have been better to have a baseline of tobacco use before the ban.

Non-Anglo respondents were four times more likely to say that “more education” and “access to medical care” would help them live better lives. Non-Anglo respondents also showed a greater need for transportation, improved health, affordable child care, public services (phone, lights, sewage, etc.), public assistance (SNAP, WIC, etc.), and children’s services than Anglo respondents. Non-Anglo respondents said that “improved English skills” would help them to live better lives (38% vs. 0%). The nonsignificant outcomes are important to look at, too. For example, Anglo and non-Anglo respondents showed equal need for elderly care and senior services.

When education was tested with “needs,” we found that 52% of respondents with less than high school and 29% of respondents with a high school diploma said that more education would help them live better lives. Those two groups also reported a higher need for medical care, transportation, improved health, and affordable child care. Education did not have an effect on the need for mental health counseling, affordable child care, and senior services. However, 42% of those with less than high school (<HS) and 15% with a high school diploma said that improved English skills would help them live better lives.

When income was factored in with needs, respondents who earned less than $12,000 and up to $50,000 per year showed greater need for more education and access to medical care. Those earning less than $12,000 and up to $25,000 needed transportation and improved health. The need for mental health counseling, affordable child care, elderly care, children’s services, and senior services appeared to be similar across income levels. However, those earning from $25,000 to more than $100,000 said they needed more recreation and park access to live better lives.
When primary language was factored in with needs, those who spoke Spanish or languages other than English in the home were nearly twice as likely as those who speak English as a primary language to say that more education, medical care, transportation, improved health, public assistance, and child services would help them improve their lives. Primary language did not have an effect on the need for elder, public, and senior services.

**Education and Income**

Educational attainment was related to bridging and bonding social capital. These data showed people with lower education as having more social connections and being engaged in the community. The qualitative interviews revealed that social connectedness was not necessarily correlated to education. Four of the five women had either less than 8th grade education (2) or a high school diploma (2). Each was actively engaged in her community. Respondents with a high school degree or only some college were more likely to donate money than those with college or graduate degrees.

Overall, 39% of respondents had hypertension. As educational attainment and income increased, so did hypertension, from 30% in those with less than a high school diploma to 52% in those with a graduate degree. Income affected hypertension in a similar way. It went from 30% for those earning fewer than $12,000 per year up to 53% for those earning more than $100,000 annually. This helps us to see that there may be a connection between stress and our health outcomes. Perhaps more education could equate with more responsibilities and more income, which leads to more stress, and perhaps less time to focus on a healthy lifestyle.

Income had a significant effect on health outcomes. Respondents’ access to private doctors and health insurance increased as income increased. Results also showed that respondents with lower income had relatively high bonding and bridging social capital.

**Conclusion**

From these data findings, we can say non-Anglo, undereducated, low-income, underemployed respondents who primarily speak Spanish at home know that it is necessary to acquire more education in order to improve their lives. Qualitatively, respondents did not make the distinction between formal and informal education. Those whom I interviewed made it a point to share that they put a great value on any educational curricula offered in community settings, in their homes (home visits), and other [non-institutional] settings. This tells us that educational activities in community settings can be very important in gaining access to underserved populations. Acquiring English language skills, a high school diploma (GED), United States citizenship, and education for their children ranked as the top priorities for Hispanic immigrants. Anglo interviewees ranked college for their children, retirement, and mortgage payoff as their top priorities. Adult education centers and home visit programs can be important settings to introduce learning and to provide information for those who have not had access to education beyond elementary or middle school.

**Qualitatively**

Qualitatively, voting was more likely in country of origin for immigrant respondents. Faith-based participation was of great importance regardless of income, race/ethnicity, or education. Non-Anglo respondents were least likely to talk to church leaders re: mental health issues. Volunteerism was informal for non-Anglo respondents (like helping neighbors). Donating
was informal for non-Anglo respondents (like offering money when friends/neighbors are struggling financially).

**Implications for Practice and Research**

Hero (2007) suggested that if researchers studied social connections and civic engagement more appropriate to Hispanic immigrant cultures (close families, close friends, religiosity, and community involvement like volunteering in the schools), we would have a more accurate picture of Hispanic social connectedness. Perhaps researchers could use an anthropological tool called ethnography, and go into targeted communities to spend time with subjects. Make sure respondents are primary sources in their primary languages. When building programs or writing curricula, use target ethnic populations as key informants to describe what their true needs may be. We cannot rely on our assumptions that, for example, nutrition education will “fix” a family. We must try to understand other needs such as access to education, support in gaining documentation status, connection to educational services for children in school, etc.

Hopefully, we can help policymakers see that Hispanic and other immigrant populations only want better lives for their families. Perhaps a way could be found to “fix” immigration policies. A barrier to cultural, financial, educational, and societal success is the misunderstanding of one another. An increase in understanding could help policymakers be better informed. Then those decisions about immigration would not be based on fear, and reactive decisions would not become laws. The growing Hispanic and other populations in Southwest Kansas add rich cultural and economic value to our society.

**References**


On Being a Mexican American: An Autoethnographic Analysis of Identity Construction

Stephen Christ, University of Missouri

Introduction

As Mexicans immigrate to rural areas of the United States in record numbers, they bring with them their ethnic identities but struggle to maintain them as they live in predominantly White contexts. Simultaneously, the influence of the Mexican immigrant population is beginning to reshape the social, political, and demographic landscape of the United States outside of the Southwestern borderlands (Saenz, Cready, & Morales, 2007; Zuniga & Hernandez-Leon, 2005; Kandel & Cromartie, 2004). However, over the last 20 years, little has been written about the experiences, group identities, assimilation, and social integration of immigrant Latino/as, particularly in the Midwest (Waters & Jimenez, 2005). Most ethnographic research on Mexicans in the United States has focused on the communities of the Southwestern Borderlands (Gomez, 2007; Massey & Sanchez, 2006; Macias, 2004). There is no question that studies of the Borderlands are relevant to Mexican American immigrant settlement, but the clear evidence that migration patterns have drastically changed over the past two decades requires scholarly focus on new destination areas as well (Durand, Massey, & Charvet, 2000).

For example, in 1910, 95% of Mexican Americans lived in the Southwest; in 1990 that percentage had decreased to 83%, and in 2000 it decreased to 75% (Saenz, Cready, & Morales, 2007; Guzman, 2001; U.S. Census Bureau, 1991), leaving 25% of Mexicans spread throughout other regions of the United States. The most recent estimates of Mexican Americans place the population at roughly 30,000,000 individuals (Tafoya, 2006). According to these figures, roughly 7,500,000 Mexican Americans are living in areas which previously had little to no Mexican immigration, such as the Midwest. The increased outward immigration and migration from the Southwest and the development of communities in rural areas are commonly attributed to the availability of jobs in construction, agriculture, and animal processing plants. Continuing with the trend of new immigrant gateways, 21% of Mexican immigrants have begun to settle in rural areas (Lichter, Parisi, Grice, & Taquino, 2007; Arreola, 2004). Such migration of Mexican immigrants to rural areas in the Midwest has not occurred without opposition. Similar to the troubles of African Americans during the Great Migration, Mexicans and Mexican Americans across the Midwestern states have been subjected to segregation, isolation, and physical violence (Vasquez, 2010; Lichter et al., 2007). In rural areas where some immigrant Mexican communities are settling, this same opposition is occurring to this day.

1 Previous research (Telles & Ortis, 2008; Lichter, Parisi, Grice, & Taquino, 2007; Massey & Sanchez, 2006; Waters, 1990) supports the argument that there exist different assimilation trajectories for ethnic groups based on the context of racialization in the history of the United States.
Autoethnography

This article uses an autoethnographic approach to make larger conceptual and theoretical points about the struggle many Mexican Americans face as they attempt to construct and/or maintain an identity in the Midwestern United States. My use of autoethnography situates my biography as the context and data for analysis, highlighting my skin-color-based experiences, language proficiency, and assimilation into mainstream Midwestern culture. In conducting this autoethnographic analysis, I do not mean to generalize all Latino/as in the Midwest, or to imply that my personal experiences are common, to be expected, or desirable. Autoethnography can best be understood “as a form of self-narrative that places the self within a social context” (Reed-Danahay, 1997, p. 9). Indeed, autoethnographies “turn the eye of the sociological imagination back on the ethnographer” and permit critical self-reflection of knowledge and the many forms in which it is produced (Clough, 2000, p. 179). As I will illustrate through my own personal experiences, constructing and maintaining an identity in the Midwest is a complicated and often highly contested struggle for Latino/as.

Identity and the Self

My first memories of moving to the Midwest as a teenager from southern Texas are based in a personal struggle to define myself. In my hometown of Brownsville, I was racially/ethnically part of the dominant group (Mexican). In my new home in rural Missouri, I was very obviously different from most residents. My skin color suddenly became a variable in my interactions with others. My accent raised suggestions I enroll in ESL classes, and my enactments of Latino/a culture received punishment for violating the norms of my new social context. Indeed, who I thought I was appeared to not matter. Rather, how I was defined by members of the community came to dominate my sense of self.

Articulations of the self result in the development of groups, communities, and macro structures (Sewell, 1992; Bourdieu, 1984; Berger & Luckman, 1967). In turn, these socially constructed structures influence the creation of an identity by providing a system of shared meanings (for example, language) through which an individual can take the role of the other, reflect on the self as an object, and engage in social interactions (Blumer, 1989; Mead, 1967; Cooley, 1902). Social interactions serve as opportunities for us to receive feedback on how we are presenting our selves, to receive approval of an identity, and to confirm our own beliefs of who we think we are (Blumer, 1989; Goffman, 1959). Social interactions occur in a wide variety of contexts.

Relevant to the sociology of identity is the common characteristic that all social interactions occur between individuals who occupy specific positions or who possess certain statuses (Rose, 1998). A social interaction is not the converging of two individuals, but rather of specific dimensions of two individuals who possess membership to a certain group or status—their identity (Burke, 1980). How we come to define ourselves is an extremely social process. As personal as we may assume our conceptions of who we are, what we like, and what we do might be, all of these perceptions and ideals are constructed in relation to institutional and cultural discourses. That is to say, social actors rely on social interactions with others to learn about, and engage with, various categories of identity construction. In turn, our social interactions with others serve to confer our presentations of self.
Understanding Latino/a Identity

As the years passed and I became more assimilated into rural Missouri culture, an influx of Latino/a immigrants occurred in my community. Initially optimistic of this, I was shocked when I was excluded from the new Latino/a community. Meaner Latino/as policing the ethnic boundaries called me a coconut (brown on the outside, white on the inside) and chastised me for becoming like White community members. I thought to myself, how could this happen? A couple of years ago, I would have been doing the policing, but now I am on the outside looking in. Where do I belong?

An ethnic group can be defined as a collective of individuals within larger society who share a common ancestral origin, culture, and history (Cornell & Hartman, 1998). In this sense, Latino/a identity is not something that is inherited, but rather is something that is achieved through socialization and enactment of cultural cues (Jimenez, 2010; Brubaker et al., 2007). Undeniably, the salience of the Latino/a identity is dependent on the context and can manifest in “thick” or “thin” forms (Cornell & Hartman, 1998). The contexts which produce this variance have been the sites for rigorous study in recent years. As a result, there are many competing frameworks that Latino/a identity theorists suggest best apply to the population. Assimilation is defined as the decline of ethnic distinctions and social and cultural differences (Alba & Nee, 2003; Gordon, 1964). Converging groups and cultures intermingle to the point that a distinction between once diverse groups can no longer be made. Previously marked individuals and groups move to the unmarked category as they join the mainstream and become more similar. Irish, German, and Italian immigrants of the late 19th and early 20th century are examples of a successful assimilation process. Although initially met with great hostility, descendants of these immigrants are rather indistinguishable in appearance, culture, diet, language, and overall culture from the U.S. mainstream.

When assimilation is achieved, as in the case of the aforementioned immigrant populations, there is often nothing that connects third- or fourth-generation Americans to their ancestors or ancestral homelands. Frequently, this leads to a longing for a connection to the ancestral origin and a desire for distinction from the generalized mainstream (Waters, 1990). Scholars of symbolic ethnicity have emerged to explain this phenomenon (Waters, 1990; Gans, 1979). Symbolic ethnicity can be defined as a nostalgic connection to the culture of previous immigrant generations and a sense of pride in that culture and history without any real day to day adherence to cultural traditions or values (Waters, 1990; Gans, 1979). This theory of identity is based on the obvious notion that ethnicity is very much a social construction, which unlike race is not ascribed at birth and can be modified to fit the particular circumstances in an individual’s life. Indeed, consciously choosing an ethnicity and practicing it symbolically is commonly a voluntary and positive process for White individuals and has little bearing on their life chances or outcomes.

As a result of assimilation to the unmarked category of American, the same White individual can assert an identity and claim Irish ethnicity on St. Patrick’s Day, German ethnic identity for Oktoberfest, and excuse her temper as a manifestation of her Italian blood, all without any specific knowledge of history or culture. Symbolic ethnicity is an American phenomenon that contributes to a strong sense of individuality as well as a desire for distinction and communal solidarity (Waters, 1990; Gans, 1979). Unlike unmarked Whites who can
navigate social life and contexts free of designations, African Americans, Asians, and Latino/as are ascribed into racial categories involuntarily and occupy a lower status in society in almost all contexts of their everyday lives regardless of their religion, culture, values, or beliefs. Therefore, while symbolic ethnicity is a valid concept for White, unmarked Americans, the logic cannot be applied to marked groups such as Latino/as.

Affiliative ethnic identity theory has emerged as an explanation of the desire for ethnic difference (Jimenez, 2010). Citing a shift towards accepting and enabling diversity as a result of the 1950’s and 1960’s civil rights movement in the United States, affiliative ethnic identity theorists contend that an influx of diverse cultural awareness through mass media, politics, and education has supplied unmarked individuals with a toolkit by which to construct an identity regardless of a shared ancestral origin. An example of this affiliative ethnic identity are Native American enthusiasts who have no Native American ancestry but attend powwows, learn to play indigenous instruments, consume traditional Native American cuisine, and most commonly, develop a connection to Native American religious traditions and beliefs (Nagel, 1997).

Affiliative ethnic identity, thus, is a response to ethnic blandness (Wilkins, 2008). Jimenez (2010) defines ethnic identity, affiliative or otherwise, as both an internally held sense of self and an expressed aspect of identity. Affiliative ethnic identity is not based in a real ancestral connection to previous generations. Instead, individuals make claims and aspire to be accepted as honorary members of an ethnic identity category. This claim to honorary membership is achieved, not ascribed. That is to say, affiliative ethnic identity is the result of the consumption of knowledge, history, and culture of a particular ethnic identity category and the consumption and enactment of cultural cues and traditions until an individual views herself, and is viewed by others, as an affiliate within the ethnic identity category (Jimenez, 2010).

The “Work” of Negotiating an Ethnic Identity

In order to fit in with the new Latino/a community members, I had to make certain changes. I minimized my use of English in public, boasted about new music (Latino/a artists) purchases I had made, and followed Mexican American fashion trends. While this never afforded me inner circle status with the Latino/a community, it was enough to create and maintain lasting friendships.

A growing literature on the sociology of immigrant identity seeks to understand the trends in the construction of identity among Latino/a communities (Vasquez, 2010; Jimenez, 2009; Gutierrez, 1995). This has led to a series of explanations which differ in their justification of how and why Latino/as identify as they do. Latino/a identity can become symbolic when there is a large gap between immigrants, their descendants, and their point of origin (Jimenez, 2009; Waters, 1990; Gans, 1979), Latino/a identity can be a reaction to external pressures (Min, 2010; Portes & Rumbaut, 2001), Latino/a identity may be revived during social movements (Nagel, 1997), and Latino/a identity can assume more of a panethnic perspective as diverse populations come together around a single phenomenon such as racialization (Espiritu, 1992). The common linkage of these theories of identity is the importance of a common point of ancestral origin in the construction of identity.
In my experience, being Mexican American is very complicated. If you take pride in Mexican heritage, you’re un-American. If you take pride in being American, you’re a sell-out. Therefore, being Mexican American required constant “identity work” for individuals living in the Midwest. The concept of “work” can be summarized as a series of negotiated roles, needs, and goals used to achieve social organization. As Anderson (1999) has illustrated, the “workload” of negotiating an identity is often experienced differently by individuals in various positions in the social hierarchy. Ultimately, social interactions serve as the basis for understanding surrounding social worlds. The ways that individuals view and present themselves is thus directly influenced and regulated by others, with whom they interact and co-construct realities.

This is to say that the process of defining who or what is a Mexican American is directly influenced by the interactional work within both worlds (Anglo and Mexican). Thus, an identity and its associated roles and responsibilities are not constructed by a sole individual. Individuals must “work” together to define how to appropriately respond or interact with others in a certain context. This does not always work out as Mexican Americans would like. The power of mainstream ideologies to categorize and marginalize individuals is something that Mexican Americans are always contending with.

**Conclusion**

Mexican immigrants are often seen as one homogenous community with similar experiences, values, and orientations. In reality, the bricolage of different individuals and social capital is a complex mixture which requires individuals to work to achieve a comfortable sense of order in their lives. Conscious of the complex circumstances that contribute to the disorder of their lives, Mexican immigrants often must “work” to lend order to their social worlds and relationships.

**References**


Dimensions of Acculturative Stress and Mexican American Emerging Adults’ Prosocial Behaviors
Alexandra N. Davis, Gustavo Carlo, and Cara Streit, University of Missouri

Scholars generally assert that stress has negative consequences for individuals’ social behaviors. Stressful experiences can be demanding, weakening coping mechanisms and leading to maladjustment (Conger et al., 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Stress, however, is not always associated with negative outcomes. Moderate stress experiences can be adaptive, especially if the individual perceives the stress as a challenge as opposed to a threat (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Stressful experiences have been conceptually linked with prosocial behaviors (i.e., actions intended to benefit others; Carlo & Randall, 2002), including altruistic helping (helping at a cost to one’s self). For example, “altruism born of suffering” is a concept that suggests that stressful events might foster emotional sensitivity and promote empathy and compassion, and ultimately promote altruistic and helping behaviors (Staub, 1997). However, direct research evidence on this possibility is lacking. Nonetheless, stress is an important predictor of adjustment and positive development for emerging adults and should be considered a complex construct that may impact social behaviors in nuanced ways (Conger et al., 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Staub, 1997).

Mexican Americans face unique forms of stressors, including acculturative stress. Acculturative stress is defined as stress associated with demands placed on the individual that result from adapting to a new culture (Alegria & Woo, 2009). Acculturative stress is multidimensional and can be conceptualized in different ways. Two dimensions of acculturative stress are language and environmental stress (Mena, Padilla, & Maldonado, 1987). Language is a salient component of everyday life and may contribute to acculturative stress among Mexican Americans. Specifically, language can be potentially stressful for emerging adults who speak English as a second language and have difficulty understanding or communicating with others (Mena et al., 1987). Additionally, emerging adults may feel that they have access to fewer opportunities, such as limited access to education and job opportunities, than their European American peers because of their ethnic minority status. They may also feel that they are socially excluded because of their ethnicity. Emerging adults who believe that society excludes them based on their ethnicity may experience environmental stress, another dimension of acculturative stress (Mena et al., 1987). Acculturative stress has been empirically linked to a variety of behavioral outcomes, including prosocial behaviors (McGinley et al., 2010).
Despite the suggestive evidence of the relevance of acculturative stress to prosocial behaviors, there are several limitations in this research. First, the majority of the research examines acculturative stress as a unidimensional construct (see McGinley et al., 2010). One study that examined different dimensions of acculturative stress found that the dimensions differentially impacted self-esteem (Wang, Schwartz, & Zamboanga, 2010). This latter study provides initial support for examining acculturative stress as a multidimensional construct. Second, prosocial behaviors have also been mostly examined as a unidimensional construct rather than a multidimensional construct that consists of different types of prosocial behaviors (see Carlo & Randall, 2002). Several researchers have previously demonstrated differential relations between forms of prosocial behaviors and a variety of constructs among Latino youth including acculturative stress (McGinley et al., 2010), parental discipline (Carlo, Knight, McGinley, & Hayes, 2011a) and sympathy (Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur, & Armenta, 2011b). Therefore, it is important to examine the influence of specific dimensions of acculturative stress on different types of prosocial behaviors in order to capture the complexity of the relations.

Recent research also suggests that prosocial behaviors are complex and multidimensional and should not be examined as a unidimensional construct. Carlo and Randall (2002) identified types of prosocial behaviors in adolescents. The Prosocial Tendencies Measure (PTM) was developed based on theory and prior research and was administered to a sample of college students (Carlo & Randall, 2002), yielding six subscales of unique types of prosocial behaviors: altruistic, public, anonymous, emotional, dire, and compliant prosocial behaviors. Altruistic behaviors are actions that benefit others with no expected gain to the self. Helping behaviors done in the presence of others are referred to as public prosocial behaviors. Anonymous behaviors include actions conducted without the knowledge of others. Emotional prosocial behaviors are expressed in emotionally evocative situations, such as comforting another. Dire prosocial behaviors refer to helping in crisis situations. Finally, compliant prosocial behaviors include helping when directed, such as helping the family when asked (Carlo & Randall, 2002).

There is limited, mixed evidence on the associations between acculturative stress and prosocial behaviors. One study found no association between acculturative stress and early adolescents’ global prosocial behaviors (Schwartz et al., 2007). Another study found that acculturative stress is positively associated with specific forms of prosocial behaviors in Mexican American early adolescents, but negatively associated with other forms (McGinley et al., 2010). However, it is unclear if specific dimensions of acculturative stress differentially impact different forms of prosocial behaviors. The present study was designed to examine these relations in a sample of Mexican American college students in the United States. Specifically, the present study investigated whether language and environmental stressors are related to specific forms of prosocial behaviors.

**Method**

**Participants**

Participants were 148 Mexican American college students (mean age=23.05 years, range 18-30 years; SD = 3.33; 66.9% female). Data were collected from Mexican American college students in state universities in California and Texas.
Measures

**Acculturative stress.** Participants completed self-reported measures of their acculturative stress (Social, Attitudinal, Familial, and Environmental Acculturative Stress Scale; Mena et al., 1987). For the current study, the environmental stress subscale was used to assess stress associated with perceptions of limited opportunities and social exclusion (10 items, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .85$, sample item: “I have more barriers to overcome than most people”).

A language stress subscale was created to assess stress associated with communication (3 items, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .73$, sample item: “It bothers me that I have an accent”).

**Prosocial behaviors.** Students also reported on their tendency to engage in six common types of prosocial behaviors (dire, emotional, anonymous, altruistic, public, and compliant; Carlo et al., 2003). Dire prosocial behaviors include helping others in emergency situations (3 items, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .71$, sample item: “I tend to help people who are in real crisis or need”). Emotional prosocial behaviors include any helping behaviors in emotionally evocative situations (4 items, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .80$, sample item: “It makes me feel good when I can comfort someone who is really upset”). Compliant behaviors include obeying orders and following directions (2 items, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .84$, sample item: “I never wait to help others when they ask for it”). Anonymous prosocial tendencies include helping without being identified (4 items, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .83$, sample item: “I prefer to donate money without anyone knowing”). Public prosocial tendencies include helping behaviors in the presence of others (4 items, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .85$, sample item: “When other people are around, it is easier for me to help others in need”). Altruistic prosocial tendencies refer to helping others when there is no benefit to the self (3 items, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .76$ reversed-scored sample item, “I believe I should receive more rewards for the time and energy I spend on volunteer service”).

Results

A series of multiple regressions were conducted to examine the associations among language and environmental stress and six types of prosocial behaviors. For each form of prosocial behavior, language and environmental stress were entered as predictors. The results demonstrated that language stress negatively predicted compliant, emotional, and dire prosocial behaviors (see Table 1). In contrast, environmental stress positively predicted emotional, dire, compliant, and anonymous prosocial behaviors.

Discussion

Overall, findings suggest that language and environmental stress were differentially associated with prosocial behaviors in Mexican American emerging adults. The findings demonstrate that different forms of stressors are associated with specific forms of prosocial behaviors. Moreover, language stress was negatively related to prosocial behaviors, but environmental stress was positively related to prosocial behaviors. These findings suggest that some, but not all, forms of acculturative stress are debilitating to Mexican American college students.

As might be expected based on traditional theories of stress and maladjustment, language stress was negatively associated with compliant, emotional, and dire prosocial behaviors.
These findings suggest that the stress associated with language difficulties (perhaps including their accent) may reflect higher risk for prosocial functioning among Mexican American college students. Perhaps the stress associated with language use might lead to avoidance in prosocial behavior opportunities that entail emotionally evocative and emergency situations. Furthermore, when asked to help (i.e., compliant), Mexican American college students who experience language stress may feel less confident (i.e., efficacy) to respond and/or communicate appropriately. Thus, language-associated stress might reflect a more general inclination to keep to themselves and avoid social interactions, which may lead to less helping in those situations.

The stark contrast in relations between environmental stress and prosocial behaviors was interesting. Specifically, environmental stress was positively associated with emotional, dire, compliant, and anonymous prosocial behaviors. These findings suggest that environmental stress, in contrast to language stress, has beneficial behavioral consequences. The findings in general (except for altruistic helping) were consistent with the findings of McGinley and colleagues (2010), though these prior researchers used a global measure of acculturative stress. There are several possible explanations for these positive relations. One possibility is that environmental stress is not as intense and demanding as language-associated stress. Alternatively, prosocial behaviors might be effective in dealing with environmental stress, thus serving as an effective coping mechanism. Clearly, the findings demonstrate the importance of examining different forms of acculturative stress and suggest that not all forms are debilitating.

There were several limitations to the present study. First, the study used a correlation design thereby limiting our ability to infer direction of causal relations. Longitudinal and experimental designs are necessary to discern such relations. Second, only self-report instruments were used. Future research utilizing multiple methods (e.g., observations, different reporters) is needed to minimize potential self-presentational demands and shared method variance. Finally, research on more general, and more representative, samples of Mexican Americans and other Latino/as are needed to better generalize the findings.

Despite these limitations, the present findings illustrate the importance of examining both acculturative stress and prosocial behaviors as distinct and multidimensional constructs. These results can inform previous theories of prosocial development and stress as they contribute to the understanding of the complexity of the relations between these behaviors. These findings may also inform program developers and policymakers regarding the experiences of Mexican American college students, and how stress associated with language and perceptions of environmental barriers influences their helping behaviors.

References


Table 1. Summary of Regression analysis: Language and environmental stress predicting public, altruistic, anonymous, compliant, emotional, and dire prosocial behaviors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Altruistic</th>
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<th>Compliant</th>
<th>Emotional</th>
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<td>Language</td>
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Table 1. Summary of Regression analysis: Language and environmental stress predicting public, altruistic, anonymous, compliant, emotional, and dire prosocial behaviors.

A Dream Attained or Deferred? Examination of Production, Placement, and Transition into the Principalship of Latina/o Educators in Texas

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Introduction, Rationale, and Research Questions

School leaders play powerful roles in determining whether PK-12 public schools are successful. Empirical studies show that school leaders can promote school effectiveness and academic capacity and, at least indirectly, improve student performance (Leithwood, Anderson, Mascall, & Strauss, 2009; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008). Historically, Latino students have demonstrated lower academic achievement and graduation rates than other student groups. Though all student groups have made gains related to high school completion rates, Latinos are still less likely to finish high school than their White, Asian, and Black peers (Fry & Parker, 2012; Behnke, Gonzalez, & Cox, 2010) and are also more likely to be affected by the impact of living in poverty (Lopez & Cohn, 2012; Lopez &
Velasco, 2011). The lag in Latino student achievement is cause for concern as the Latino student population has surged dramatically in recent years, particularly in the southern states.

This points to the urgency for leadership programs to prepare competent and culturally aware PK-12 leaders who understand the concerns of Latino communities and who will strive to improve the academic outcomes of Latino students. Research shows school leaders prepared to deeply understand varying student backgrounds and cultures tend to be more effective in ensuring positive outcomes for all students (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003).

Arguably, Latino administrators are likely to know and relate to the cultural backgrounds of Latino students. Texas schools currently serve approximately 2.3 million Latino students, or 48% of its total student population (Pew Research Hispanic Center, 2013). The Latino student population in Texas could reach roughly 6 million by 2050 (Smith, 2012). This incredible growth, as exemplified in the Texas context, gives impetus for our examination of potential changes in Texas school leadership. Meier (1993) has demonstrated the importance of having a critical number of Latino administrators in schools to help advocate for Latino students to better represent their interests. Yet, scant research has examined the frequency of racial/ethnic matches between principals and students, and how the dynamics of production and career advancement might influence the prevalence of such matches. Therefore, this paper examines the production rate of Latino leaders, the rate of transition of Latino assistant principals (APs) into the principalship in Texas, and the timeframe for their advancement into the principalship role. We also examine how Latino APs’ transition rate compares with the advancement of White and other racial/ethnic minorities as one aspect of school leadership diversification. In particular, this study has four primary research questions:

1. Do Latina/o individuals obtain principal certification at rates comparable to their White peers?
2. Do Latina/o individuals completing principal certification obtain employment as a principal at the same rate as their White peers?
3. Do Latina/o assistant principals become principals at the same rate as their White peers, and what is the timeframe for advancement of Latino assistant principals to the principalship in relation to their White peers?
4. To what degree have beginning principals and all principals become more racially and ethnically diverse, particularly with respect to the Latina/o population?

**Review of the Literature**

Though the research on educational leaders in these areas is limited, some scholars have explored the impact of racial/ethnic matching between teachers and students and its influence on student outcomes and teacher expectations for student academic performance. Pigott and Cowen’s (2000) study found that racial congruence did not shape teachers’ reports of whether a student had more academic competencies or issues adjusting to school. However, a study by Dee (2004) underscored the importance of hiring minority teachers by finding that students paired with same-race teachers in first through third grade demonstrated greater gains in math and science. A later study by Dee (2005) using longitudinal data revealed that racial/ethnic congruence between students and teachers “has consistently large effects on teacher perceptions of student performance.”
Scholars of educational leadership like Oleszewski, Shoho, and Barnett (2012) call for research on the transition from the assistant principalship to the principalship. At first, the assistant principalship seems the perfect steppingstone, but research has suggested this role has a glass ceiling in place for certain racial/ethnic groups. White males have traditionally dominated PK-12 administration (Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). Our research seeks to provide evidence of the timeframe of advancement from the assistant principalship into the principalship according to AP race/ethnicity. Studying trends in Texas is important, because the state offers a typical policy context, with many of the requirements and opportunities for leadership licensure and advancement similar to other states across the nation.

Data and Methodology

This study relies on multiple state administrative data sets that document the employment status and individual characteristics of APs and principals and the student demographics of schools from 1990 through 2012. With the data, we could examine employment as an AP, as a principal, and the transition from AP to principals across multiple cohorts of APs and across extended time periods. Ultimately, we examined 112,342 assistant principal years and 118,883 principal years over the 18-year time frame. A principal year is the count of principals and years over time. If an individual was employed for all 18 years, she would generate 18 principal years. We used descriptive statistics to document the percentages of students, teachers, APs, and principals identified as Latino to calculate the percentage of Latino principals in schools with a majority of Latino students. We used logistic regression analysis to compare the odds of a principal certification program graduate being Latino, the odds of a newly certified graduate obtaining employment as either an AP or a principal, and the odds of individual transition from AP to principal.

The Texas Context

Texas has experienced dramatic population growth among its school-aged population, which carries implications for schools, school leaders, and school leadership preparation programs. The number of students enrolled in Texas public schools increased from 3.6 million in 1994 to 4.9 million in 2011, an increase of 36%. Concomitantly, the number of schools and school leaders increased by more than 32% and by almost 71%, respectively. In 1994, there were approximately 10,840 school administrators in 6,443 schools, and in 2012, there were nearly 18,850 school administrators in 8,529 schools. Thus, the demand for school administrators grew substantially, even when excluding the demand created by attrition. Over this time period, the student population became more racially diverse and poorer. The percentage of Latino students in Texas increased from 35.5% in 1994 to 50.8% in 2012, while the percentage of White students decreased from about 48% to only 31%. The percentage of economically disadvantaged students increased as well, from 45% in 1994 to 60% in 2012. Texas has also experienced some big changes in the preparation of educators. In 1987, Texas was the first state to allow alternative teacher certification programs. In 2001, the state allowed nonprofit and for-profit organizations to administer preparation programs. In a sense, Texas has led the nation in the deregulation
of educator preparation. Deregulation has led to an increase in both the number and type of educator preparation programs (Figure 1).

**Findings**

**Production**

First, as shown in Figure 2, the percentage of newly certified principals who were Latino/a increased only slightly between 1993 and 2011. In 1993, about 11% of those obtaining principal certification were Latino, while the percentage increased to about 16% in 2011. The percentage in 2011 remained below the percentage of Latino teachers in 2011 by eight percentage points and below the percentage of Latino students by 26 percentage points. Despite the relatively low production of individuals obtaining principal certification, an individual obtaining principal certification in 2011 was 50% more likely to be Latino than in 1993 (Figure 3).

**Newly Hired School Leaders**

The greater odds of a newly certified principal being Latino translated into greater odds of a beginning school leader (AP or principal) being Latino. Figure 4 reveals the greater likelihood of Latino graduates obtaining school leadership positions over time. Yet, there were clear differences in the odds of becoming an AP or principal. Across all years, Latino graduates were about 50% more likely than White graduates to obtain a position as an AP. However, Latino graduates were statistically significantly less likely than their White peers to become principals in the four years after obtaining certification, and not statistically significantly more or less likely to obtain employment as a principal for years five and six. By year seven, Latino graduates were slightly more likely than their White peers to obtain employment as a principal.

**Advancement from Assistant Principal to Principal**

The difference in employment between an AP and a principal can be explained by the advancement rate from AP to principal for Latinos. As shown in Figure 5, the Latino advancement rate was about three percentage points lower than the White advancement rate for year one, and then the gap widened over the next three years. After year five, the difference in advancement rates gradually diminished until year 10, when advancement rates were even. Thus, while Latino graduates are initially less likely to be employed as principals, because they become employed as APs, the differences in employment as a principal eventually disappear and actually slightly favor Latinos over Whites.

**Beginning Assistant Principals, Principals, and Employment**

Ultimately, these trends have served to increase the percentage of beginning Latino APs and principals (Figure 6). The increases, however, have generally been very slow, with only small increases over time for principals (Figure 7). With respect to APs, there was a fairly large increase from 2001 to 2005, but then little growth until 2010. For both APs and principals, the percentage of new Latino hires increased relatively dramatically in 2011, when more than one fourth of all newly hired APs and principals were Latina/o. Despite the improvements in Latino AP representation, there has been less improvement in the percentage of all principals who are Latino, which has grown from about 15% in 1990 to about 20% in 2010 (Figure 7). Change has
been very steady but incredibly slow. This increase mirrors the growth in Latino teachers who serve as the pool for APs and principals (Figure 8).

The rise in Latino principals has also not kept pace with the increase in the percentage of schools that enrolled at least 50% Latino students. While the percentage of predominantly Latino schools increased from about 22% to around 40%, the percentage of Latino principals increased from about 15% to 20% over the same time period (Figure 9). Thus, despite gains in the percentage of newly certified principals and beginning school leaders, there is still a large mismatch between both the percentage of Latino students and predominantly Latino schools and the overall percentage of Latina/o principals.

**Discussion and Policy Implications**

Our findings indicate some positive gains in certification and hiring of Latina/o administrators and their transition between the AP and principal positions. As of 2011, those who obtain principal certification were 50% more likely to be Latino than in 1993, and the overall percentage of newly certified principals who are Latina/o has increased over the same time period. Further, the percentage of newly hired principals and assistant principals who are Latina/o has also increased over time. As of 2011, more than one fourth of all newly hired APs and principals were Latina/o. Although Latinos are initially less likely to be employed as principals because they are employed more often as APs, the differences in employment as a principal eventually disappear and then slightly favor Latinos over Whites.

We call for additional research into the specific certification programs that resulted in increased hiring of Latino administrators. Latinos also still take longer to become administrators than their White peers. Investigation is needed as to why the advancement rate of Latino administrators lags in spite of increased principal certifications. Our research indicates that although Latinos who begin as APs successfully transition into a principalship role, their White counterparts enter principal roles more quickly. More work is needed to understand the reasons contributing to the gap in advancement rates.

Despite the advances in the production and placement of Latino/as in school leadership positions—including the principalship—the percentage of Latino/a school leaders is still far outpaced by the percentage of Latino/a students. More research is needed, and additional strategies should be adopted to hasten the production and placement of Latino/a educators as school leaders.

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Appendix

Figure 1: Percentage of Individuals Obtaining Principal Certification by Race/Ethnicity in Texas (1993-2011)

Figure 2: Percentage of Newly Certified Texas Principals by Race/Ethnicity and Certification Year
Figure 3: Odds of a Latino Educator Obtaining Principal Certification Relative to 1993

Figure 4: Percentages of Individuals Obtaining Principal Certification Employed as a School Leader (Assistant Principal or Principal)
**Figure 5:** Advancement Rate from Assistant Principal to Principal for Latino and White Assistant Principals

**Figure 6:** Percentage of Beginning Assistant Principals and Principals Who Were Latino (1995 to 2011)
Figure 7: Percentage of All Principals Identified as Latino (1990-2010)

Figure 8: Percentage of Students, Teachers, and Principals Identified as Latino (1990-2012)
Examining the Health Literacy of Rural Latina Immigrant Mothers and Their Use of the Internet to Seek Health Information

Kimberly Greder and Kimberly Doudna, Iowa State University

Introduction

Health literacy has been defined as the capacity to obtain, process, and understand basic health information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions (Parker & Ratzan, 2010). An individual’s health literacy capacity and competence may be influenced by the communication skills of health providers and their knowledge of health topics, as well as the culture and the specific characteristics of the health systems and settings where people access and use health information (Healthy People, 2010). Health is compromised when health services or systems require knowledge or language fluency that is too high for the user (WHCA, 2011). Poor health literacy is related to poorer health choices, riskier behaviors, worse health, higher mortality, more hospitalizations, and higher health costs (WHCA, 2011).

Fifty-nine percent of all adults in the U.S. looked online for health information within the past year. Adults who are most likely to go online for health information include females, whites, those who are between the ages of 18 and 49, who have earned a college education, and who earn $50,000 or more a year. When comparing rural to urban, Hale, Cotton, Drentea, and Goldner (2010) found that rural residents were 34% less likely to report health-related Internet use than urban residents. In regards to using cell phones to find health information, Fox and Duggan (2013) found that close to one third of adults who own a cell phone report that they use their phone to look up health information. Characteristics of adults who are most likely to use their
cell phone to find health information are similar to those who go online for health information. However, Latinos and African Americans are more likely than whites to use their cell phone to find health information (Fox & Duggan, 2013). Little is known about Latino immigrants’ use of the Internet to seek health information.

Over the past decade, the Hispanic population grew by 43% and accounted for more than half of the total growth of the U.S. population. In the Midwest, the Latino population grew by 49% (Ennis, Ríos-Vargas, & Albert, 2011). This growth has dramatically shaped the face of rural America (Lichter, 2012). Few studies, however, have examined the state of health literacy among Latinos living in rural America and its relation to the health of their children and their Internet behavior.

Latino immigrants are at high risk for poor health literacy due to low educational attainment, lack of knowledge of health topics, low English language fluency, and the culture and specific characteristics of the U.S. health system, including the communication skills of health providers (Rudd, Kirsch, & Yamamoto, 2004). This study examined health literacy among Latina immigrant mothers who lived in a rural area of the Midwest, their use of the Internet to seek health information, and the relationship between mothers’ use of the Internet to seek health information and children’s and mothers’ health status. It was hypothesized that health literacy and Internet use variables would predict child health status.

Theoretical Framework

Human capital theory, which posits individuals and society benefit economically from investments in people, can frame issues of health status and health literacy. First, the health status or health capital of an individual is considered “durable capital stock” (Grossman, 1972, p. 223) and adds to human capital. Investments in health benefit human capital (Sweetland, 1996). Second, health literacy describes individual capacities such as reading ability, vocabulary, and comprehension that act as mediating factors in health by providing greater empowerment in decision making and promoting health competency. Health literacy may be viewed as an asset to build in individuals. Increasing health literacy in Latino immigrant families will enable them to make better-informed health decisions and to engage in healthy behaviors, thereby improving their health status, thus enhancing human capital (Mammen, Bauer, & Lass, 2009).

Methods and Analysis

Participant Recruitment

The 98 Latina immigrant mothers who participated in this study were part of a larger study, Rural Families Speak about Health (RFSH), a multistate study examining the health of rural families with young children. In order to participate in RFSH, mothers had to be 18 years of age or older, have a child age 12 or younger, have a household income at or below 185% of the federal poverty level, and live in one of the identified study communities designated as an urban influence code (UIC) of 6 or higher (Economic Research Service (ERS), 2013). A UIC of 6 designates a county as “noncore adjacent to small metro area and contains a town of at least 2,500 residents,” and a UIC of 12 designates a county as “noncore adjacent to metro or micro area and does not contain a town of at least 2,500 residents” (ERS, 2013).

Mothers were recruited with Respondent Driven Sampling (RDS) (Heckathorn, 2002), a strategy for recruiting hard to reach populations and for whom sampling frames are not
available. RDS recruits participants from a social network of existing members of the sample. Three initial seeds (mothers) who met the participant selection criteria and who were well connected in their communities were identified by local professionals who were employed by family-serving agencies. Each seed completed a 1.5- to 2-hour in-person interview. They were then provided three coupons (each containing an ID number) to distribute to mothers in their own networks who they believed met the study criteria. Mothers receiving a coupon made the decision of whether or not to call the phone number listed on the coupon to complete the screening process. Once a mother completed the screening process and was determined eligible to participate in the study, an in-person interview was scheduled to collect additional data. After she completed the in-person interview, she was provided three coupons to distribute to mothers within her own network. Mothers were offered a $50 gift card for participation in the in-person interview.

Data Collection

Through the use of a computer-assisted interview script, mothers were asked if they used the Internet to find information about their child’s health and their own health, as well as a series of questions pertaining to understanding information they received from health professionals (i.e., did they receive written health information in the language they preferred, did they have difficulty understanding what their doctor was telling them, how often did they need someone to help when reading information from their doctor, pharmacy, or insurance company). Mothers were also asked to rate their health and their child’s health (i.e., In general, would you say your/your child’s health is …) on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1=excellent, 2=very good, 3=good, 4=fair, 5=poor) (National Health Interview Survey, 2013).

Analysis

To prepare the variables for analysis, ratings of mother’s health and child’s health were reverse coded so higher scores indicated a higher level of health and are referred to as the “health status” variables. The questions about written health information in the preferred language, difficulty understanding the doctor, using the Internet to access health information for oneself, and using the Internet to access health information about one’s child were dummy coded (1 = yes, 0 = no). Descriptive analysis of demographic data and correlations were conducted using the software SPSS v. 20.

Results

Demographics

The average age of the mothers was 33 years old, and the average age of a randomly selected focal child in each household was 6. The median household income mothers reported was between $25,000 and $29,999. More than half (56.1%; n = 55) of the mothers were married and a little more than one fourth (27.5%; n = 27) lived with a partner. Less than one third of the mothers (31.6%; n = 31) reported their educational level as eighth grade or lower, and less than one third (31.6%; n = 31) reported having earned a high school diploma or GED. About one fifth of the mothers (19.3%; n = 19) reported some form of postsecondary education or training. Table 1 contains demographic information for the mothers and children in this study.
Internet Access

Almost all of the mothers reported that they had access to the Internet (89.8%, n = 88). More than half of the mothers (61.4%; n = 54) reported they accessed the Internet most often at home. However, only a little more than one third reported that they used the Internet to find information related to their health (35.7%; n = 35) or to their children’s health (37.8%; n = 37). Mothers’ use of the Internet to find information regarding health was not related to the health status of the children or mothers.

Understanding Information from Health Professionals

While the majority of mothers (77.6%; n = 76) received printed information about their medical care in a language they preferred, they had difficulty understanding the information. Mothers commonly (63.9%; n = 62) needed someone to help them read instructions.
pamphlets, or other written health-related materials. Furthermore, mothers reported difficulties understanding what their doctors were saying as most doctors did not speak Spanish, and an interpreter was not always available. Even when medical terms were translated into Spanish, some mothers did not understand them.

Relationships Between Health Literacy and Health Status

Correlations among the health literacy variables and health status variables are found in Table 2. Several correlations were statistically significant. Use of the Internet by mothers to find health information about their children was associated with using the Internet to find health information about themselves, $r(96) = .83, p < .001$. The health status of the mother was associated with the health status of the child, $r(96) = .27, p < .001$. Having health information in the preferred language was negatively associated with needing help reading health information, $r(96) = -.29, p < .001$. Having access to the Internet at home was associated with use of the Internet by mothers to find health information about their children, $r(96) = .32, p < .001$, as well as about themselves, $r(96) = .37, p < .001$.

Table 2. Correlations between health status and health literacy variables.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Need help reading medical material</th>
<th>Use internet to find health information (child)</th>
<th>Use Internet to find health information (self)</th>
<th>Health status (child)</th>
<th>Health status (mother)</th>
<th>Health information in preferred language</th>
<th>Internet access (1 = at home)</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Need help reading medical material</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use internet to find health information (child)</td>
<td>.04</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use Internet to find health information (self)</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.83**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health status (child)</td>
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<td>.09</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health status (mother)</td>
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<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health information in preferred language</td>
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<td>.10</td>
<td>.011</td>
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<td>.02</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet access (1 = at home)</td>
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<td>.32**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>1</td>
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Note. ** $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed).
Discussion

Although having health information in the preferred language was associated with a decreased need for help with reading health information, it did not necessarily equate to the mothers understanding the information. Translation of printed health materials or Web pages into Spanish is not enough to ensure that Latino immigrant families understand health-related information. Health and family-serving professionals need to take specific measures to ensure health information is easily understood and culturally sensitive. Additional research is needed to explore the preferences of Latino immigrants for receiving health information and to determine the effectiveness of structure and design of health materials in prompting families to take specific actions to maintain or improve their health. Involving bilingual and bicultural Latino immigrant adults in evaluating and developing health information should be explored. Although using the Internet to find health information was not associated with health status, having Internet access at home was associated with using the Internet to seek health information. More research is needed to determine specific types of health information Latina immigrant mothers seek online, their motivations for seeking health information online, how well they understand and can apply the information they find, as well as the quality of the information they access. Expanding this study to include a larger number of Latino immigrants living in rural America is warranted.

References


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Exploring Successful Aging Among Foreign-born Latinos and Other Immigrant Groups in Saint Louis, Missouri

Jennifer Hale-Gallardo, Hisako Matsuo, and Lisa Willoughby, Saint Louis University

Successful Aging

Gerontology research has increased in recent years to address the challenges of an aging population, especially those related to the costs and losses of providing care to adults in their final years. Researchers and practitioners have looked at health promotion as a strategy to keep people healthier longer and focused attention on theories of aging well (Bowling, 2007; Rowe & Kahn, 1987). Different terms and models have been used to conceptualize the idea of better or optimum aging, and the concept of successful aging has become the most commonly accepted terminology in various disciplines.

There have been primarily two theoretical camps in the conceptualization of successful aging. Biomedically oriented perspectives have defined successful aging in terms of longevity and mental and physical health and functioning (sometimes adding social engagement) (Rowe & Kahn, 1987). Psychosocial perspectives have emphasized life satisfaction (including a positive evaluation of one’s past and present) and reaching one’s psychological and social potential through adaption, productivity, self-mastery, cognitive efficiency, and social competency (Bowling & Dieppe, 2005). Today, successful aging is most often used to denote a holistic sense of physical, mental, and social well-being that combines many dimensions.

Despite its holism, the concept of successful aging was initially developed using empirical data from White or Euro-American populations in the United States and has been applied to other ethnicities in the U.S. without concordant results (Gibson, 1995; Liang & Luo, 2010). Recent scholarship has demonstrated the context-dependent variability of aging and the challenges involved in seeking universal definitions and measures for optimum aging in older adults (Liang & Luo, 2010; Torres, 2004, 2006). It is well known that cultural values play an important role in how people construct aging (Torres, 2004, 2006). Moreover, for foreign-born immigrants who have newly migrated to the United States, additional factors complicate aging. Among these are stressors endemic to the migration and resettlement process that affect immigrants in general but are especially challenging for older adults (Tan, 2011).

Although cultural differences contribute to variability in the experience of aging, with the exception of genetic vulnerabilities that can co-occur with ethnic affiliation, cultural group belonging is not enough to explain major health disparities as people age (Angel, 2009). Nonetheless, the role of shared group experiences such as discrimination can perpetuate negative health outcomes and compound the effects of other related factors such as limited educational opportunities, low-wage jobs, and a lack of health insurance (ibid: 50). These conditions place older adults at a disadvantage for aging optimally. Consequently, in addition to cultural factors,
it is vital to understand how “social arrangements become institutionalized in ways that disfavor certain groups over generations,” thereby affecting the experience of aging (ibid: 51).

Although researchers have studied the health and well-being of older non-Hispanic White adults since the second half of the 20th century, few studies on successful aging or mental health in older adults have included Latinos or other foreign-born immigrant groups (Alvarez et al., 2014; Hilton et al., 2012; Laditka et al., 2009). This is noteworthy in the context of a rapidly shifting demographic in the United States where by 2050, 1 in 5 adults over 65 years old will be categorized as Hispanic (DeNavas et al., 2011).

The elderly Latino population as a whole (foreign-born and U.S. born together) suffers from a disproportionately high poverty rate (18.3% compared to 6.6% for non-Hispanic White Americans) (DeNavas et al., 2011). This means that nearly 1 in 5 older Hispanic adults live in poverty. Despite their greater social and economic needs, older immigrants often underutilize health and social services (Tan, 2011). Latinos especially are well known to lack sufficient access to health care and other important services (National Center for Health Statistics, 2012). These services could assist them as they encounter cultural, social, and economic challenges of aging in the United States. Consequently, research on these populations is vital as it impacts the quality of services and programs provided to them.

**Study Design and Research Process**

This research study was designed by Hisako Matsuo, Ph.D. (Sociology) and Lisa Willoughby, Ph.D. (Psychology), and coordinated by Jennifer Hale-Gallard, Ph.D. (Anthropology). The study compared different foreign-born immigrant groups in the greater St. Louis metro area in order to begin to disaggregate and specify the strengths, challenges, and needs of foreign-born immigrants in the region. Specifically, we conducted survey research to study health and psychosocial factors associated with successful aging among immigrants after midlife (40 years and older), focusing on six immigrant groups in the greater St. Louis region: Bosnians, Chinese, and Latinos, and to a lesser extent, Koreans, South Asians/Indians, and Vietnamese. The survey questionnaire was developed based on scales measuring various factors that have been positively associated with successful aging, including: life satisfaction—or a positive evaluation of one’s past and present (Neugarten, Havighurst, & Tobin, 1961; Cumming & Henry, 1961), locus of control—or how much control a person feels that he or she exerts over life’s challenges (Langer & Rodin, 1976), and social support—how much a person feels emotionally supported by members of his or her community and the extent of social relationships (Berkman et al., 2000; Seeman et al., 2001). It also included other variables negatively associated with well-being. An example is perceived discrimination, which is well established in the literature to be inversely associated with health (Williams & Mohammed, 2009).

Foreign-born immigrants who resettled in the greater St. Louis region and arrived in the United States at 18 years of age or older were eligible to participate in the study. A total of 330 participants were interviewed. Interviews were conducted in the native languages of the respondents. Participants were recruited through convenience and snowball sampling. Eighteen research assistants with appropriate language fluencies for our study underwent Human Subjects training (certified through Institutional Review Board [IRB]) and were trained in the study method of face-to-face interviews. An interview survey with closed- and open-ended questions
explored language competence, ethnic identity, acculturation, perceived discrimination, intergenerational kinship expectations, health care access, and mental health concerns. A gift card of $25 was given to every individual who participated in the study. Participants were interviewed in a wide variety of settings including their homes, churches, and local eateries in their neighborhoods. Difficulties with snowball sampling varied for different ethnic groups in the study, depending on how well connected or dispersed the populations were. Administering the survey to such a broad swath of diverse participants in a half-dozen different languages presented its challenges for our interviewers. Some questions on the survey were not easily translatable due to nuances of language. In addition, research assistants had to negotiate the collection of data on topic matters that were perceived as more sensitive, for example, household income or plans for their future care after senescence.

**Latino Sample Characteristics**

The mean age of Latino participants was 53.30 years ($SD = 11.22$), with a minimum age of 40 and a maximum of 84. The other five immigrant groups together (Bosnians, Chinese, Koreans, Indians, and Vietnamese) had a mean age that was slightly higher at 57.25 years ($SD = 12.45$). The type of data collected ranged from nominal to ratio data, as well as responses to open-ended questions. Ordinal data (rating scales) were treated by computing the average across items on a particular scale. The preliminary quantitative data analysis included cross-tabulation and $t$ tests.

The Latino sample had 29 male participants and 51 female participants; the other ethnic groups combined had 113 male and 137 female participants. Household income was appreciably lower among Latinos compared with the other groups, with 49% of Latinos reporting that they earned less than $25,000 per year compared to only 28% of other ethnic groups combined. At the higher end of the financial spectrum, 19% of Latinos reported earnings above $100,000 per year while 38% of the other ethnic groups combined reported these earnings. Educational levels also varied: 26% of Latinos had reached an educational level of only grade school or less compared to 12% of all other immigrant groups combined. Moreover, at the higher end of educational attainment, 29% of Latinos in our study had a bachelor’s or graduate degree compared to 35% for the other groups combined. Almost 70% were married at the time of the interview. A little more than half of Latino participants had full-time work, while the rest fell between part-time (12%), retired (11%), and persons who were unemployed (15%). Latinos had less health insurance coverage as compared to other groups in the study. Almost 60% of Latinos had no health insurance compared to a little more than 10% for other immigrant groups.

**Factors Associated with Successful Aging for Latinos**

For this paper, we focused on several factors associated with successful aging and well-being. Factors that have been positively associated with successful aging from the scale included life satisfaction—or a positive evaluation of one’s past and present (Neugarten, Havighurst, & Tobin, 1961; Cumming & Henry, 1961), social support—how much a person feels emotionally supported by members of his or her community and the extent of social relationships (Berkman et al., 2000; Seeman et al., 2001), general health ratings, and self-acceptance. We also examined perceived discrimination, a factor that is well established in the literature to be inversely associated with health (Williams & Mohammed, 2009).
We examined subjective health by asking participants to indicate if their general health was poor, fair, good, very good, or excellent. In our Latino sample, 32.5% reported fair or poor health, 38.8% reported good health, and 28.8% reported very good or excellent health.

For social support, participants were prompted to rate on a 5-point scale the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with seven statements from the UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell, 1996): “My family really tries to help me;” “I can talk about my problems with my family;” “I can talk about my problems with my friends;” “I have people with whom I can share my joys and sorrows;” “I can count on my friends when things go wrong;” “I feel a sense of belonging in my community.” Latinos in our study, on average, had a score close to agree ($M = 3.94, SD = .53$) between neutral and agree.

Discrimination was measured using items developed by the research team. The participants were asked how much they agree with statements that indicated there were times they felt discriminated against in different locales (e.g., workplace, housing, during health care provision, public places, or their neighborhood). The average response across the scenarios was between disagree and neutral ($M = 2.62, SD = .86$), suggesting perceived discrimination was present but not high across the scenarios.

Self-acceptance was measured using Ryff’s Scales of Psychological Well-Being (RPWB) four-item self-acceptance subscale with a 5-point agreement scale (Ryff, 1989). Latinos in our study, on average, had a score close to agree ($M = 3.92, SD = .71$) between neutral and agree.

General life satisfaction was measured with five items from the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) rated on a 5-item agreement scale. The average score from Latinos was 3.46 ($SD = .74$), indicating that, in general, the participants in the study perceived their life conditions in terms slightly higher than neutral but lower than agree.

**Discussion of Descriptive Statistics**

It is important to note that the Latino sample was notably more economically impoverished and less formally educated compared to other immigrant groups as a whole in our study. Moreover, Latinos, more than any other immigrant group in our study, lacked health insurance. The profile of our Latino study participants mirrors the findings of other studies that point to a lower socioeconomic index overall for Latinos in the United States. A new report on the senior population found a majority of elderly Latinos living precariously close to poverty, with 70% of Latinos age 65 and over considered economically vulnerable (Gould & Cooper, 2013). For decades now, Latinos have also been underrepresented in health insurance, with Medicare often being the only health insurance coverage obtained in their lifetimes (Burciaga, Valdez, & Arce, 2000).

Latinos in our study scored between neutral and positive on scales of self-acceptance and life satisfaction. However, we predicted that Latinos might score higher than they did on the scale for social support, due to what has been found in the literature to be a high degree of family support among Latino families that is correlated with better health (Mulvaney-Day et al., 2007). Nonetheless, studies have suggested that older Latinos value a sense of community at the same time that they value being able to take care of themselves (Hilton et al., 2012). For example, in a study by Hilton et al. (2012), Latino participants ranked the importance of “friends and family (being) there for me” very low on their survey’s ranking list. The authors explain

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2 Defined in the Economic Policy Institute’s report (2013) as an income that is less than two times the supplemental poverty threshold.
that this seemingly paradoxical finding makes sense when one understands that while Latinos enjoy being involved in their children and grandchildren’s lives, “their focus is on sharing and community, not on what is in it for ‘me,’” or becoming a burden to others (Hilton et al., 2012). In other words, “their relationships with others are based on a sense of community rather than as a source of emotional and physical support” (ibid:195). Therefore, a largely neutral to only slightly positive score for social support as we found in our study may not necessarily conflict with life satisfaction. Still other studies have found a link between a sense of well-being in Latino elders and perceived social support (Beyene et al., 2002).

In our study, discrimination was present, but it was likely context dependent. More analysis is needed to determine if there is a link between discrimination and other psychosocial variables in this particular study. Researchers have uncovered a link between more negative health outcomes and general quality of life for those who are targets of discrimination (Pascoe & Richman, 2009), and this is especially true for mid- and later-life individuals and their families (Salari, 2002). Furthermore, they have found that discrimination may be an important predictor of poor mental health status among Latino (and Black) immigrants (Gee et al., 2006).

Conclusion and Limitations

This study was conceived under a framework of social justice to address the gap in research on older foreign-born immigrants and how these adults imagine and prepare for old age in the United States. As Latinos become one of the fastest growing populations in the United States, a better understanding of factors associated with their aging experiences is needed. Further analyses of our study data will need to be conducted to better understand the relationship between discrimination, social support, self-acceptance, and life satisfaction on the well-being of Latinos in our study and to explore the implications of these findings for models of successful aging. While much remains to be understood about the psychological, social and cultural experiences of middle and later life immigrants, it is our hope that this study on aging among older foreign-born Latinos in the region—as well as their similarities to and differences from other ethnic immigrant groups in the region—can help inform the delivery of health and social services and create a base for future studies.

This study has several limitations. First, the study relied on self-report, and therefore, inaccuracies in reporting may have affected measurement of the variables. Also, there was a limitation of the research instrument as it had to be translated into five different languages (Bosnian, Spanish, Chinese, Vietnamese, and Korean; the Indian participants received a survey in English). Although each survey was translated by a bilingual, native speaker into English and certified by another native-speaker, it is possible that the questions and answers may not have reliably transmitted the original intent of the survey’s contents. In addition, because at least some of the concepts and assumptions inherent in the survey did not readily translate into other languages, some interviewers had to provide additional explanations to the study participants, which may have also affected measurement of the variables across the sample. There is a strong possibility that explanations of the survey questions to participants varied in meaning from interviewer to interviewer.
References


Start-Up Experiences of Latino Business Owners in Lansing and Saginaw, Michigan
Rubén Martinez, Roger Calantone, and William Escalante, Michigan State University

In the years 2011 and 2012 the Julian Samora Research Institute and the Institute for Entrepreneurship and Innovation at Michigan State University partnered to conduct research on the start-up experiences of Latino and Latina business owners in Michigan. The project focused on start-up experiences of Latino business owners, their motivations for venturing into business ownership and entrepreneurship, the source of initial funding/resources, the roles family members play in the start-up and operation of their business, and obstacles and opportunities encountered. The current paper presents preliminary results from 14 interviews with Latino and Latina business owners in Saginaw and Lansing, Michigan.

Latino-Owned Businesses: An Overview

At the national level, according to the 2007 Survey of Business Owners, the number of Latino-owned businesses increased by 44% from 2002 to 2007, resulting in approximately 2.3 million Latino-owned businesses. In the Midwestern United States (North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, Ohio, and Michigan), the number of Latino-owned businesses increased by approximately 47% during the same time period. While Michigan is home to the second largest Latino population in the Midwest, next to Illinois, the state experienced only a 9.4% increase in Latino businesses. Most Latino-owned firms are “non-employer firms” (those without employees), and tend not to be as profitable as “employer firms.” This characteristic implies barriers to integration in the local, state, and national economies (Martinez & Tello Buntin, 2011).
Latino business owners, like other racial/ethnic minority groups, tend to initially fund their businesses through informal funds such as personal savings, family loans, and credit cards. Business owners who utilize funding from formal sources, venture capitalists, government agencies, and/or other funding sources are 11% less likely to go out of business than those who do not (Martinez, Avila, Santiago, & Tello Buntin, 2011; Martinez & Avila, 2011). Latinos tend to be younger (approximately 42 years old), have fewer years of work experience (approximately 11.5), and are less likely to have a college degree than their White counterparts when venturing into business ownership. Businesses owned by Latinos are also typically concentrated in the low-technology, low-barrier, but high-risk industries, such as the service industries. Businesses owned by Latina women are the most susceptible to closure (Martinez, Avila, Santiago, & Tello Buntin, 2011; Martinez & Avila, 2011). Our current research seeks to illuminate the experiences of Latino business owners in Michigan.

**Methods**

**Participants**

The snowball sample consisted of 11 males and three females. Nine of the 14 respondents were 51 years of age and older; of these, five were between the ages of 51 and 60, and four were 61 years of age or older. There was only one respondent who was under 30, and the remaining four were between the ages of 31 and 40. Ten of the 14 respondents were born in the United States, and of these, seven were born in Michigan. All of the respondents completed high school or its equivalent. However, most (10) had some postsecondary education either through vocational training, the traditional four-year college experience, and/or graduate school. Five had completed a vocational training program, earned an associate’s degree, or attended college but had not earned a degree; three had obtained a bachelor’s degree, and two held advanced degrees from graduate programs. Of the 14 interviews conducted, seven were conducted in Lansing and seven in Saginaw.

**Sampling Procedures**

Respondents were known as business owners in the community or were identified through referrals and networks of community leaders and business owners. Initial contact was made either by telephone or an in-person visit by a project interviewer. Interview times were scheduled in advance, and a formal protocol was used to guide the interview. Each interview was audio recorded and then transcribed for analysis using Atlas.ti. In addition to the interview, the researcher requested a tour of the business facilities to gain a better understanding of the operation. An “observational inventory” with accompanying field notes was completed for each tour. The observational inventory was not completed for two interviews because it was not possible to conduct the interview at their place of business. All respondents were informed that they were participating in research, agreed to have the interviews audio recorded, and completed an “informed consent” form consistent with Institutional Review Board Policy.
Results

Respondents’ initial funding for their enterprises came from personal savings and investment, external funding in the form of loans and investments, or a combination of the two. Five respondents stated that initial funding came from personal savings. Another five reported having used only external funding either through business loans or grants from local banks or other organizations/entities. The remaining four stated that they had utilized their personal finances, but also obtained external funding either through small business loans or grants from banks or other formal and informal entities.

Most respondents had a family history of business ownership. Nine respondents indicated that at least one family member currently or had previously owned and operated a business; five reported that none of their family members owned businesses. Of the nine respondents who stated that other family members owned businesses, six of them reported multiple family members having owned a business or businesses in their lifetime. Respondents most often referred to immediate family members (i.e., parents or siblings) as others who owned businesses. However, three respondents shared that their extended family members (aunts, uncles, or grandparents) also owned, or had owned, businesses. Of the nine respondents who reported business ownership among family members, seven of them reported that their parents were, or had been, business owners.

Motivation

Family played a major role in the start-up experiences of Latino and Latina business owners in Michigan. In many cases, family members, particularly the need to support a family, were the primary motivational factors. Three respondents indicated that they had started businesses to offer their children and grandchildren different opportunities and life lessons. Respondent # 008 took formal action to ensure that his children had an opportunity for future success in the family business:

My children not only were a part of my decision making over the last five years...we taught them how to be business people...They’ve learned not only from our side of the business, but are learning the operational side from a decision making process...They’ve been attending a family business program at Saginaw Valley State University for the last four years... So they did their part, they’re ready, and they’re young...They’ve got a great opportunity to do well (Case# 008).

Another respondent was motivated by the desire to have his children avoid the hardships of the migrant farmworker lifestyle:

I used to work the fields with my parents. We used to come up north to go to different states throughout the year, and...since a young age, I knew I wanted to do something different in my life. I knew I needed to work for myself and for my kids so they could have something they could look up to; I knew I could do it... Me working in the fields all those years, I didn’t want to work in the fields no more, I didn’t want, if I had a family, for my family to work in the fields like I did. I wanted better for my kids (Case #001).
Similarly, another respondent stated that the business provides working experiences for her grandchildren (and presumably their parents before them):

My vision was to take care of the family; it was something for my children, something for my grandchildren, something that could be their own. Like my granddaughter who works in the company, she helps me do housekeeping. I will take her with me…to show them the value of work and earning their money. My granddaughter is 17 now. She doesn’t particularly care to do housekeeping. She’ll be the first one to tell you, “That’s not what I want to do for life.” I say that’s good, I’m glad you’re doing it now, because you know that it’s important for you to go to college (Case #005).

Another respondent indicated that she believes her sons began working and became partners in her business out of the desire to support the family:

I am sure that they would have wanted a different industry, but this is what I knew how to do. I think that they knew that I needed help…[talking about one son]. But I think he felt, “Hey, why am I doing work for somebody else and why not have a family business?” So I think it was his loyalty to our family that made him come back (Case # 012).

**Intergenerational Business Families**

In our sample, business ownership seems to beget business ownership, or at least make it more feasible. Seven of the nine respondents who reported a family member or relative having owned a business stated that it was their parents who had owned, or currently own, a business. Growing up in a business family not only exposed respondents to the realities of business ownership and operation, but also offered the invaluable perspective or orientation that business ownership and entrepreneurship are realistic and lucrative possibilities.

My mom and dad owned a grocery store; we grew up in a family business …I think that when one has been raised in a business, you’re a little bit braver to start one. Just for the fact that my dad, who didn’t have much of an education, had a grocery store; he and my mom, neither one of them graduated from high school (Case# 014).

Similarly another respondent indicated being influenced by having grown up in a family with a business:

My parents owned a restaurant for 35 years…I grew up around it…I wound up working at the restaurant, working at the business, and I learned a lot just tagging along with my dad when I was young. And I remember all those things, you know, tagging along with him going to business meetings or to this or that and the other, and it was stuff that the everyday kid doesn’t really see…I got to see who he emailed with, who he talked to, and how he, you know, how he presented and comported himself in those settings, and I learned, you know, I picked up a bunch of stuff from him (Case#002).
In the case of another respondent, family firm succession is a matter of both importance and pride:

I’ve brought my family in: my son Jose, who’s our president, my son Armando, who’s our vice president, and then my daughter-in-law, Maria, who’s our office manager, and then my daughter joined us too a couple of years ago, Juana. So, it’s definitely a family-owned business now . . . We’re working on a buyout agreement right now with me, so they’ll be the owners. So, it’s a family-owned business, and it’ll stay in the family now (Case# 008).

**Initial Funding**

In addition to serving as a source of motivation and knowledge, the family also served as the main locus for resources such as access to networks, labor, new ideas, and development, as well as investment funds to start and grow the business successfully.

The guys had come in and totally revamped it. They have education, so they have gone in there and are changing things. I’ve never been good in that area. I’ve always been more the hairdresser. Again, you’ve got to have people who know what they’re doing . . . they actually saved the salon (Case #012).

Much of the initial financial capital used to start businesses came from respondents’ family members and their personal savings, or loans acquired through using their home as collateral. For example, one respondent emphasized personal savings:

So I basically started saving, and when I was ready, I had become a supervisor at General Motors at the time, and I decided it was the right time to open my own business (Case# 001).

Another respondent points to the financial support provided by his father in getting his business started:

So, I borrowed from my father. I put a down payment on an office and I started my own kitchen-remodeling firm which, after a few years grew where I built a showroom and then built a cabinet shop and did well for a few years (Case# 009).

A Latina started her business by obtaining a loan with the support of her husband [at the time]:

My ex-husband took out a loan for us. He worked for General Motors, and truly I wouldn’t have been able to...at that time. So, we financed, I think it was our house or whatever, but he was supportive, he didn’t like me working, but when it came to this he was supportive in that (Case# 012).

Another respondent had a different path and began by only providing investment for a business that would be run by a partner:
This particular business, I was supposed to have been the fiduciary only. I was going to be the money bag and somebody else had the know-how, the technical knowledge, the desire, the drive, and they were going to be the driving force. But the type of personality that I am, right off the bat wanted to know everything there was to know . . . The person had no problem with it, they thought “That’s great.” So, in [an] effort to help our children succeed . . . we decided to help them. (Case# 005)

**Barriers**

Business owners acknowledged that there were several challenges they faced when starting their business. Respondents identified issues with funding and cash flow, building business relationships, staffing, and maintaining inventory that met client needs. Lack of start-up funds was emphasized by one of the respondents:

> When I started up there were a few bucks in the bank account and we just had to go for it. Other than that, people started coming in, at first they were kind of wary about us because we were new, and started asking questions, but finally they kind of accepted us, and they kept coming back anyway. They asked for different stuff and we tried to get it for them. So that made them happy to come back. If they asked for a certain brand, we try to get it (Case# 006).

Another respondent, one in the beauty industry, found employee management a challenge:

> Employees. Constant obstacle. Drama…Today I don’t have to deal with them: the guys do all that. They’re a whole lot more focused than I am . . . They [the guys] think totally differently. And that’s been an adjustment too, realizing that they think so different from how I do (Case# 012).

Another respondent had difficulties estimating the inventory of goods and the number of employees needed:

> Overbuying nearly killed me. I don’t know how many dozens of times, trying to satisfy the customer too much by having too many goods on the floor and not having enough sales, that was one of them . . . In the beginning too many employees, staffed too many employees, and now I realize . . . we know what hours we need the employees (Case 14).

Business owners also experienced racism and discrimination as a result of being Latinos. These experiences, including discrimination, were understood as inherent obstacles in the start-up process that had to be overcome. Some of these challenges, like money, were understood to be a part of the business start-up process.

One respondent related having difficult experiences with customers because of his “race”:

> This industry is traditionally not one for minorities to be in. So that was, I think more of a challenge for my customers than it was for me. There were times that no matter what I did, how good I was, I didn’t get anywhere, and I’m certain it had to do with my race. You could tell by their demeanor, you could tell by the lack of opportunity they would give you. So, there’s not much you can do about that…There’s only so
many hours in the day that you can work…You find where you’re best spending your time and you focus your time on where you might have a chance (Case# 008).

Similarly, another participant shared the challenges faced due to institutional racism:

The prejudice and discrimination was so bad in this town . . . In Saginaw, you could stay north of Lapeer but you couldn’t go south. You could go east until Buena Vista, because it was farmland, but you couldn’t go across the river, to live or work for business . . . that was an unspoken agreement . . . So, that’s what made it harder . . . they wouldn’t rent to you, they wouldn’t sell to you, it was just “no.” But it started changing slowly, very slowly, and now, hell if you want to open up a business, they might even provide you your own credit account and a loan (Case# 013).

Conclusion

The preliminary findings for the Start-Up Experiences of Latino Business Owners in Michigan Study indicate that for Latino business owners in Lansing and Saginaw, Michigan, family played a key role in their decision to start a business or pursue entrepreneurship. The influence of family was also a significant factor as many of our respondents were first introduced to the prospect of business ownership by immediate or extended family members. Many of our respondents also mostly used either informal or a combination of formal and informal means to fund the initial stages of the business. This finding is consistent with those of Martinez, Avila, Santiago and Tello Buntin (2011). Discrimination, prejudice, and exclusion were also seen as inherent in Latinos’ start-up experiences and are still a salient concern for Latino business owners in Lansing and Saginaw. Even though generalization is difficult, and more research needs to be done, the current project begins to fill the gap in knowledge of Latino business owners in the United States and provides findings from the Midwest.

References


Developing Entrepreneurship Programs to Assist New Destination Latino Immigrants
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It is well documented that Latinos have migrated to “new destination” states, including Arkansas, and that they have contributed to the local and state economies in which they reside (Farmer & Moon, 2009; Appold, 2013). From 2007 to 2010, the foreign-born population in Arkansas increased 11 percent compared to only 5 percent nationally (Capps, 2013). While immigrants’ contribution to the Arkansas economy as labor is well known, their role as entrepreneurs is also important.

Entrepreneurship among long-term residents and immigrants alike provides advantages at the community level that are widespread and varied. Empirical studies consistently show that entrepreneurship positively impacts regional growth through job development, expanded economic activity, and community revitalization projects (Low, 2005; Flota, 2001). Additionally, there is recent evidence that increases in self-employment accompany decreases in county-level poverty rates in nonmetropolitan counties (Rupasingha & Goetz, 2013). The centrality of local entrepreneurs in the creation of employment opportunities rather than “smoke-stack chasing” has been well documented (Dabson, Malkin, Matthews, Pate, & Stickel, 2003). This is especially evident in rural Arkansas which has experienced the downsizing and closing of large-scale and smaller manufacturing facilities alike. From 2000 to 2010, 47 of Arkansas’ 75 counties experienced a net loss of jobs, primarily due to the loss of manufacturing employment (Farmer et al., 2013).

As a realization of this potential, an integrated research and outreach program was designed to better understand and to ultimately assist Latino immigrant entrepreneurs establish businesses in Arkansas. In this paper, we explain the process for developing the educational materials and pilot training created for Latino immigrant entrepreneurs and we present the findings and key components of a successful outreach effort to this target audience.

This project, “Entrepreneurial development targeting rural Hispanic immigrants: A collaborative research and extension effort,” was funded to identify the barriers and constraints that Latino entrepreneurs faced in Arkansas. Based on these research findings, an outreach program was designed to develop resource materials and a pilot training program to address their needs. Drawing from the classical Land Grant model of an integrated research and education approach, the current effort focused on 59 local communities in 26 counties. It engaged local community leaders and local Extension personnel in both the development and implementation of the research and outreach programs.

An essential component of gaining access to, and obtaining information from, the entrepreneurs was the interviewer and the affiliation with a respected organization, in this case the Division of Agriculture at the University of Arkansas. Thus, a key element in the success of the effort was having a team member who spoke the language and understood the culture and different cultural nuances among diverse Latino populations. It is clear that without such a team member, access to many of the entrepreneurs would have been more limited and subsequent information less complete.
Identifying Latino Immigrant Entrepreneurs’ Needs

There is no lack of programs throughout the U. S. that are designed to encourage and support entrepreneurs. However, there is a dearth of programs that are tailored to specific needs and nuances of recent immigrants with entrepreneurial inclinations. Given the recent dramatic increase in Latino immigrants to Arkansas (and other rural areas of the United States), this program was conceived to identify entrepreneurial training needs and barriers to entrepreneurship in the Latino immigrant community. The needs assessment included a survey that was administered to Latin American immigrant entrepreneurs from the 59 communities in western Arkansas. Participants completed a total of 171 surveys representing more than 200 businesses.

To guide the project in the development of programs and resources to assist entrepreneurs, the survey focused on barriers business owners encountered in the process of establishing their businesses in the local community. Survey findings indicate the top five barriers to Latino immigrant entrepreneurship to be:

- Insufficient start-up capital
- Difficulty in understanding local and state regulations and taxes
- Advertising
- Finding a location
- Obtaining licenses and permits

Given that a key component of the overall project was to develop an outreach program to provide tailored training in entrepreneurship, the survey also asked respondents to describe what information would have helped them start their businesses. Participants reported that the following information would have been helpful in the business start-up process:

- Understanding licensing and/or business regulations
- Assistance in the development of a business plan
- Management training
- Information concerning the loan application process
- Language classes or interpretation assistance

Although many of the barriers identified in the current effort are similar to those of entrepreneurs in general, the Latino immigrant respondents indicated a greater need for assistance in understanding the regulatory processes and requirements and perhaps most importantly, where to go to obtain this information. They must also learn about the institutions, requirements and procedures, as they are sometimes vastly different in their country of origin.

Identifying and Developing Resource Materials

Once the barriers and training needs were identified, the next step was to identify existing resources that could be marshaled to develop a pilot training program targeted to the needs of Latino entrepreneurs in Arkansas. The materials identified as appropriate were published as “A Resource Guide to Latino Entrepreneurship Training Materials” (Abreo et al., 2011a).

These materials left some gaps and were not tailored to address all the specific needs of Latino entrepreneurs in different communities. Further, some resource materials, while directly relevant, were not accessible to those fluent only in Spanish. Therefore, additional resource/
training materials were developed to address the specific needs of Latino entrepreneurs in Arkansas. In addition to the resource guide mentioned above, these materials include:

- Business Owner’s Record Portfolio: A Handbook for Entrepreneurs (Abreo et al., 2011d)
- Checklist of Licensing a New Business (town/county specific)

While some of these materials may be appropriate for generic Latino entrepreneur audiences, others such as the “Checklist” are specific to the town and county of the entrepreneur. This tailoring of materials was necessitated because of differences in the licenses required, including the order and location in which they could be obtained among towns and counties in Arkansas. Therefore, it is not surprising that Latino entrepreneurs were often confused as to what licenses were required and where they could get them. Study participants often stated they wanted “a piece of paper” that lists the licenses and permits that were required and where to go to obtain them. To address this concern, separate checklists that included license and licensing agency information were developed for 26 counties and 16 towns in the study area.

Once the resource materials were developed, the research team conducted entrepreneurial training workshops in two of the communities in the study area. The communities were selected based upon:

- Business owners’ interest in receiving entrepreneurial training
- Community level support for emerging entrepreneurial endeavors
- Institutional support for hosting the workshops.

During the workshop registration process, Latino entrepreneurs were asked to identify priority topics that they wanted addressed in a training program. Each of the identified Latino-owned businesses in the selected community was visited by the workshop trainer and personally invited to participate in the training sessions. This individual contact allowed business owners to meet the trainer before the workshops and ask questions about the registration and training process. Registration forms were distributed during this initial encounter and were collected a week later.

Based on participant responses, a Spanish language pilot training program was developed to address their priority training needs in three areas: a) business organization; b) how to write a business plan, and opening and marketing; and c) accounting and cash flow. Each topic was addressed in a two-hour evening workshop, over a period of three weeks.

The workshop objective was to provide participants with information they could use to either start new businesses or improve and grow their existing businesses. Our experience suggests there are several factors that are critical to meeting this objective. They are:

- Have participants identify priority topics to be addressed in the workshop,
- Provide personal invitations and repeated contact before workshops by a respected colleague,
- Conduct the training in Spanish, and
- Provide the opportunity for and encourage interaction with local government officials.

Providing participants the opportunity to identify the workshop topics allowed buy-in to the process and showed that the trainers were concerned about their specific needs. Given the fact that the needs also varied from community to community, it was essential that the final training components be developed after the potential participants identified topical areas in which information and assistance were needed. This can be done by listing possible workshop
topics on the registration form. This experience also pointed to the importance of providing a personal invitation with follow-up telephone calls in obtaining commitment and ensuring workshop participation. Many of the participants indicated they would not have attended if the workshop was conducted in English.

A critical component of the workshops was for local government officials to meet, greet, and interact with the Latino entrepreneurs. This face-to-face interaction improved understanding by local officials of the issues and concerns faced by Latino entrepreneurs. It also provided the Latino participants with assurance that local officials wanted to assist and support their efforts. The Small Business Technology Development Center’s participation in one of the pilot workshops led to a greater awareness, understanding, and utilization of the services offered to Latino entrepreneurs. This is the first step in building a sustained and mutually beneficial relationship between the two groups.

Participant Feedback

Two pilot workshops were conducted to address the information needs of Latino entrepreneurs and to obtain feedback to enable revisions of materials and workshop design to better address their needs. While the resource materials and workshop sessions were well received, many participants expressed a desire for more workshops to expand on the topics addressed, and they identified additional topics for future workshops. They also expressed appreciation for their improved awareness of the Small Business Technology Development Center’s services, for getting to meet local government officials, and for learning more about how they could access and participate in Cooperative Extension Service’s programs.

Lessons Learned

This study reinforces the idea that resource materials and training programs provided for Latino entrepreneurs need to be driven by locality-specific barriers and information needs. One size does not fit all. Taking the time to identify the concerns and needs of local entrepreneurs, and in turn providing training and resources tailored to address these needs, can greatly increase the effectiveness of outreach programs.

Also critical for an effective research and outreach program for a new immigrant audience are personnel who speak the language, understand the nuances of the culture, and are able to gain the confidence of the target audience. These professionals are essential to obtain reliable information from a new immigrant audience to develop effective outreach programs. Also, these professionals can modify existing materials or develop new resource and training materials that are nuanced for the new immigrants.

Another component to an effective outreach program is to foster relationships between the new immigrant community and local officials and key individuals in organizations that can provide support and assistance. Fostering these relationships can accelerate the integration of the new immigrants into the community and enhance the benefits the community receives from the immigrants.
References


Latin Youth Involved in Urban Community Gardening
Sonia G. Morales Osegueda, Washington State University Extension

Review of Literature

According to the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), around 15% of the world’s food is now grown in urban areas (Municipal Research and Services Center, 2012). The economic well-being of our society depends on agriculture to supply affordable, safe, and abundant food as well as clothing, shelter, plants, animals, and natural resources. Introducing agriculture through gardens strengthens community bonds, and individuals meet others who are dedicated to making a difference in the lives of youth.

Urban gardening, now called “community gardens” (Lawson, 2005; Draper & Freedman, 2010), is not a new concept. It began in the United States around 1890 where individuals raised much of their own food at home. This concept is gaining new support among diverse citizen groups all over the country (Adam, 2011). Schools, colleges, and governmental and nonprofit organizations are coming together to give a fresh new meaning to “greening the city.” Like other large projects, working in community gardens requires detail and finesse (Betterley, 2012).

What is more, community gardens, farmers’ markets, and urban agriculture involve land use decisions, employment and job training, food processing and delivery, the creation of clean, green working spaces in urban areas, and much more. Community gardens can supply most, if not all, of a family’s produce needs (Hagey, Rice, & Flourney, 2012). Lastly, gardening instills an appreciation for agriculture and its importance in providing food and fiber for a growing world population (Upson, 2002).

Gardening is not just for adults! Gardening is a valuable tool for a variety of settings and content areas (National Gardening Association, 2012; University of Maryland Extension, 2013). It boosts kids’ interest in school and learning and improves their attitudes about eating healthy foods and caring for the environment. Previous studies have demonstrated that children and youth who are actively engaged in garden projects show better and positive attitudes toward learning and education (Canaris, 1995; Dirks & Orvis, 2005). Denver Urban Gardens (2012) stated that school gardens are “outdoor classrooms” that expand learning and provide engaging spaces for children to develop both a respect and a nurturing relationship with nature and their community. Furthermore, Habib and Doherty (2007) conducted a survey of community gardeners in Denver and found that 80% of participants who gardened at a young age had positive attitudes that impacted their lives more broadly.

Gardening offers children hands-on tasks that help them master skills and concepts involving science, math, reading, and writing (Upson, 2002; Betterley, 2012). Further, a study conducted by Klemmer, Waliczec, and Zajicek (2005) consisted of 3rd, 4th, and 5th grade students from seven elementary schools in Temple, Texas. Their findings revealed that students who participated in school gardening activities scored significantly higher on science achievement tests compared to the students who learned science without garden activities. Nurturing plants from seed to harvest can lead to increased feelings of confidence, self-esteem, and pride. In the garden, kids learn to cooperate and solve problems together.

Community gardens promote stronger neighborhood leadership, outreach, and volunteerism (Teig et al., 2009). Community involvement increases as parents, adult staff members, or volunteer educators usually lead informal education programs with youth (Carlson
Because of their knowledge and skills, these individuals are needed to engage youth in hands-on agriculture and garden projects in school and community settings.

Washington State University Extension has worked in partnership with interested youth organizations to implement gardens at schools and in communities. Through the agriculture program, youth increase their ability to function more effectively as agriculturally literate citizens. They learn to break the misconception that food is produced at the grocery store. Additionally, youth learn that agriculture is everywhere, and many crops are used in food production. Through the wonder of a garden, students experience hands-on lessons in soil texture by feel, pH concepts, soil preparation, and seed collection (Morales, 2009).

**Purpose and Objectives**

The purpose of the agriculture/gardening project is to implement gardening programs that use learning strategies to increase agriculture/gardening and life skills among Latino youth and community-based education programs in King County, Washington. The objectives were:

1. To engage youth in gardening projects,
2. To increase the number of youth with knowledge in agriculture,
3. To develop life skills through agriculture and gardening.

**Program Implementation**

Washington State University Extension sets clear objectives in order to effectively serve the diversity of communities across the state. To engage Latino youth in gardening opportunities in King County, in 2012, 4-H Youth Development Program implemented gardening in South Park, Federal Way, Des Moines, and Renton communities with the participation of 54 Latino youths between 6 and 14 years old. The program focused on bringing together Latino youth and parents as volunteers to work in a multicultural environment. Youth experienced hands-on agricultural lessons supported by parent volunteers who came to help build the garden and to become involved in community growth.

**Findings and Discussion**

At South Park, 23 children ages 6 to 13 participated in outdoor activities, such as planting, during the summer. The gardening captured kids’ interest, taught them nurturing skills, and introduced them to healthful foods. At Federal Way, 18 elementary students identified different types of tomatoes and collected different types of beans. Students learned where beans come from and that they are a healthy source of protein. In addition, students cultivated life lessons from gardening. In Des Moines, 10 elementary students and their families planted a garden with tomatoes, beans, chilis, cucumbers, pumpkins, and corn. One adult pointed out that she supported the children because they are the future, not just of gardening, but of life itself. Children learned that gardening not only taught them agricultural subjects, but it also taught them how to communicate and to solve problems together. Finally, at Renton, children explored and learned to solve real-world problems through hands-on activities. They learned to work cooperatively with others. The youth practiced patience and felt pride in their accomplishments. Also, they learned about the origin of crops planted while taking on the responsibility to care for the garden.
Conclusions

Children increased their knowledge and awareness of gardening as a great tool to demonstrate that there is more to agriculture than planting and harvesting. Gardening offered a hands-on approach to learning. They learned the importance of the role that soil plays in agriculture and how their work has contributed to the food chain. Children also developed personal connections to the food system, and they felt inspired to care for their gardens with confidence, responsibility, and respect.

Parent involvement has a positive influence on the quality of their relationship with their children and enhances students’ achievement (Henderson & Mapp, 2002; Morales, 2012). Caring parent volunteers enriched, enhanced, and helped create a safe environment for the garden activities. Moreover, gardening gave parents a sense that their children learned subjects necessary for their future and gained knowledge about growing food. Parent volunteers stated that gardening helped them to develop mentorship, leadership, conflict resolution, community organization, and teamwork skills. In addition, parents commented that community gardens helped children learn how to communicate effectively, to solve problems together, and to make good decisions.

The gardens allowed individuals and groups to contribute their knowledge, skills, and experience in order to successfully work with children. This also provided opportunities to create an effective team that will actively be involved in all gardening needs and will support children.

Overall, the community garden empowered urban youth to be effective in many areas. Youth recognized that garden activities teach life and work skills through hands-on educational activities that helped them develop skills such as leadership, communication, teambuilding, and more. Finally, gardening offered a safe environment for kids to confidently interact with each other.

WSU Extension, on behalf of 4-H Youth Development, is making a positive contribution to diverse communities. WSU Extension partners with schools and youth organizations to create and facilitate opportunities for gardening education. This provides the opportunity to develop future agriculture professionals who are academically prepared to function in a rapidly changing food, fiber, and natural resources industry.

References


Program Description

The Native Plants Program (NPP) at Lincoln University Cooperative Extension (LUCE) was created to make communities in Missouri aware of the uses, abundance, and availability of native plants. The main focus of the NPP is to work with underserved populations including minorities, women, and those of low income. LUCE’s mission is to provide educational tools for individuals to improve their way of life. Since 2010, the NPP has offered seminars and field days to increase knowledge about native plants, especially to promote their use as food and to provide habitats for pollinators that indirectly improve food production.

Native Edible Plants

There are more than 3,000 species of native plants in Missouri, many of which are edible. Fruits, greens, and bulbs were gathered in the past for food, fiber, dyes, art, and construction and could offer direct benefits for communities. Native plants can also provide indirect benefits such as beautification and enhanced environmental quality. Native plants can attract birds, pollinators, and butterflies, which can enrich the lives of people, especially children.

A native plant is indigenous to a certain location when records show that it was naturally growing before the arrival of European settlers. Native plants are naturally found in conservation areas and plant community remnants across Missouri. Farms and backyards can often host useful species. Commonly found plants like pokesalad (Phytolacca americana) and persimmon (Dyospiros virginiana) can be consumed as food and are known by only a few (Kindscher, 1987). Others, like elderberry (Sambucus canadensis), with high nutritional and commercial value (Byers et al., 2012) grow in marginal or idle land. Other species with high nutritional value include wild leeks, paw paw, and stinging nettles (Allium tricoccum, Asimina triloba, Urtica dioica, and Laportea canadensis). This knowledge that was once a part of the daily life of inhabitants of urban and rural areas in the United States is being lost. By rediscovering this knowledge, food security and income could be improved. Gathering of wild foods is still common in developing countries like El Salvador, where information about edible wild foods is transferred from generation to generation (FAO, n.d.). This knowledge can be a great tool to obtain readily available nutritious foods, materials for crafts, medicine, and items that can generate income. We believe that by learning about uses of native plants and by understanding the natural world, locals and immigrants can be empowered with little or no monetary investment.

Searching for native plants similar to those from the tropics. The NPP is exploring native plants in Missouri that are familiar to Latino immigrants to help them achieve a sense of belonging in their new surroundings. By learning about the indigenous plants, especially edible plants, the NPP hopes to assist these immigrants to become adapted to Missouri. For example, Passiflora incarnata, a passion fruit native to Missouri, has similar flavor and nutrition to Central America’s Passiflora quadrangularis. Paw paw (Asimina triloba), a fruit native to the
Midwest, has similar characteristics to tropical relatives of custard apple (*Anona* spp.) (Chizmar Fernandez, 2009). Immigrants may find it rewarding to find edible plants like those from their own countries. Families can enjoy the outdoors and intergenerational activities, helping to maintain ties among members of different generations and promote pride in their heritage.

**Methodology**

The most commonly used methods to evaluate the impact that the NPP has on communities and individuals are observations, interviews, and surveys during educational events and pretesting and posttesting during training seminars or workshops (Swanson et al., 1997). The NPP works across the state, especially in Jefferson City at LU’s main campus, Kansas City, and in the Bootheel region, with the help of LUCE’s satellite offices. In Marshall, the program cooperates with the Martin Community Center, and in Rolla, with the U.S. Forest Service. A full-time Native Plant State Extension specialist manages the program with the assistance of a native plant technician, a landscape designer, an AmeriCorps volunteer, student workers, and volunteers.

For promotion, the NPP has a webpage on the LUCE’s website and a Facebook page where information about the program and events is included. Links to publications are also included. Personal communication on the phone or online is done before events. NPP staff also reaches out to their audience via emails, public events, and the LU’s Farmers Market. Radio and newspaper interviews and newsletter articles are also done. The NPP collaborates with other institutions (MU Bradford Research Center, MU Extension in several locations, and Missouri Department of Conservation) and organizations (Grow Native! Program of the Missouri Prairie Foundation, Capital Garden Club, Master Gardeners and Master Naturalists, and the Missouri Native Plant Society).

**Native Plant Outdoor Laboratories**

Native Plant Outdoor Laboratories in Marshall and at the LU campus are completed and used for training. Handouts about plant species and a diagram of the laboratories are available at the sites. Bilingual publications are available in some locations. Native Plant Gardens have been established at LU-Allan T. Busby Farm, Washington Carver Farms, and other areas at LU’s campus. In the Bootheel region, a pilot FINCA is being established in Haywood City, and native plant gardens in Caruthersville are being constructed with community participation. These locations offer people opportunities for participating and learning on their own. FINCA is the acronym for the project “Families Integrating Nature Conservation and Agriculture” and is the name given to small, highly diversified farms in Latin America.

**Evaluating Outcomes**

We evaluate NPP short, medium, and long-term outcomes in communities and individuals (NIFA, 2013). The acquired knowledge (short-term outcome) is evaluated during short-term training, classes, or seminars with pre- and post-examinations. Change in behavior (medium-term outcome) is evaluated by determining if participants are growing or eating native plants as a result of the training. Change in condition (long-term outcome) is evaluated by determining if by growing or eating native plants, participants are saving money or increasing their income and/or improving their way life. Surveys and personal communication are used.
Pre- and post-examinations are done following procedures developed by Aruguete (unpublished) and include the following requirements.

- A short test composed of five multiple-choice questions is administered at the beginning and end of each class.
- Each multiple-choice question has four response options.
- Response options should include one right answer and three wrong answers.
- True/false questions, “all of the above,” “none of the above,” and “both b & c” should be avoided, as should negative questions.
- All response options should be equally plausible, and the length of each option should be similar.
- The bulk of the content should be included in the question, not in the responses.

See example of pretest and posttest on Figure 1. In addition, the posttest includes eight items assessing participants’ satisfaction with the event. These eight questions (including the open-ended question asking for “additional comments”) will remain constant on all posttests (Figure 2). For the purposes of this paper, we are presenting a real example of a pre- and post-evaluation and the change of knowledge during one class.

**Results/Impacts**

In 2011 and 2012, the NPP offered an average of 20 seminars per year, two to three workshops, three field days, participated in five to 10 field days, and responded to 80 to 100 personal emails or phone inquiries. The NPP reached out directly to more than 1,500 people and indirectly to at least 2,500 people. Roughly 50% had little knowledge about native plants. Of these, 21% were children and 79% were adults. Classes were offered in English and Spanish. In Marshall, Latinos visit the Outdoor Laboratory frequently, and in Haywood City, Caruthersville, and other locations in Southeast Missouri (Bootheel region), at least 80% of our audience is African American.

Some of the primary results and impacts include:

- Brochures, factsheets and other publications are offered in English and Spanish. Special publications include recipe cards with descriptions of species used and growing requirements.
- We found that short-term impact or “change of knowledge” differs highly in most cases. For instance, 17 participants attending the workshop titled ‘Native plants for food’ on April 25 took the example pretest and posttest shown in Figures 1 and 2. The group averaged 25% at the pretest and averaged 89% at the posttest, suggesting an evident change of knowledge regarding native edible plants. Change of behavior was observed on various occasions. Participants in Caruthersville workshops last year established native wildflowers in their yards. Long-term outcomes were evident when three participants expressed satisfaction and enjoyment from having native plants in their yards.
- Once participants learn that native plants in the nursery trade can cost from $2 to $4.50, they learn that native plants can be economically important.
- During surveys and personal communications, many expressed that native plants have improved their surroundings, and they are enjoying the indirect results of observing wildlife diversity.
• There has been a change of knowledge in that participants learned that native plants are mostly perennial, which means they can live for many years and do not have to be replaced year after year like most non-native species. Student participation has increased, and some members of the community are volunteering during events. In Jefferson City, more than 30 Lincoln University students and more than 50 seniors have been exposed to native plants for the first time.

• Seniors enjoy remembering plants that they used to gather with grandparents, and young adults are often interested in learning about wild edibles. In Haywood City, for example, people are now eating some of their “weedy natives” after trying food samples prepared by NPP staff.

• In Kansas City, participants have learned about the importance of native plants as habitats for pollinators that will help increase fruit and vegetable production in their community gardens. They have also learned about some of the uses of these plants as edible greens, making jellies or jams, decorative arrangements, erosion control, and fibers.

• Based on pretests and posttests done before and after classes, we have seen an increase in knowledge about identification of native plants and their uses. Classes are very popular, especially when food samples prepared with native plants are served.

• General observations show an increase in the number and diversity of birds, honeybees, and other beneficial insects where gardens have been established in Jefferson City, Kansas City, and Haywood City. During a brief monitoring study of three native plants at the Outdoor Laboratory in Jefferson City, done in the fall by Aaron Mbogho (unpublished), honeybees, native bees, and butterflies were observed visiting all species in the fall.

Future Implications/Plans

• To evaluate medium- and long-term impacts, we will continue offering classes about native plants and will conduct surveys twice a year to determine if the participants have adopted native plants into their lives, and if they are benefiting as a result of that.

• To develop highly diversified urban farms called “FINCAs” with native plants for food and for value-added products. Evaluate growth, development, and nutritional value of at least 10 native plants as alternative crops.

• Continue working closely with underserved communities, especially very small communities in the Southeast region (Bootheel) of Missouri.

• Create a partnership between institutions in El Salvador and Lincoln University that will involve LU students and Salvadoran experts.

• Develop collaborative work with communities, native plant experts, applied anthropologists, sociologists, and community developers to conduct plant inventories in small communities to identify useful plants.
Figure 1. Pretest and posttest example, used to determine change of knowledge during a class about native edibles.

**Date and name of Instructor:**
**Participant's name**

Please circle the right answer

1) Wild leek is a very popular native plant also known as ‘ramps’ whose
   a) Leaves grow all year long
   b) Flowers are produced in early spring
   c) Need shade to grow
   d) Need full sun to grow

2) Lambsquaters (*Chenopodium album*) is an common plant related to quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa*)
   a) Both have high nutritious value
   b) Both are native plants
   c) Both grow in the shade
   d) Both are poisonous

3) Jerusalem artichoke is commercially available in supermarkets and
   a) It is native to Israel
   b) It is an annual plant
   c) It is a plant related to potatoes
   d) The plant produces sunflower-like flowers

4) Passion fruit can be used to prepare a refreshing drink, it
   a) Only grows in the tropics
   b) It is a vine
   c) It is a tree
   d) It grows better in the shade

5) Wing sumac and smooth sumac with red berries
   a) Are poisonous
   b) Some are used to prepared a refreshing drink
   c) Sumacs are related to blackberries
   d) Sumac berries mature in the spring
Figure 2. Information included in posttest during training to determine satisfaction with presenter and classes offered.

1) I enjoyed this event.
   Strongly Agree    Agree    Uncertain Disagree    Strongly Disagree

2) I learned new information at the event.
   Strongly Agree    Agree    Uncertain Disagree    Strongly Disagree

3) The speaker was knowledgeable.
   Strongly Agree    Agree    Uncertain Disagree    Strongly Disagree

4) The speaker was easy to understand.
   Strongly Agree    Agree    Uncertain Disagree    Strongly Disagree

5) The speaker was engaging.
   Strongly Agree    Agree    Uncertain Disagree    Strongly Disagree

6) I am satisfied with this event.
   Strongly Agree    Agree    Uncertain Disagree    Strongly Disagree

7) I would recommend this series to other community members.
   Strongly Agree    Agree    Uncertain Disagree    Strongly Disagree

Additional comments:

References


Building Community with a Farmers Market, Commercial Kitchen and Community Garden: The Sprouts and Roots Program (SRP) at Lincoln University

Nadia E. Navarrete-Tindall, Mara Aruguete, Yvonne Matthews, Margaret Hopper, Veronica Taylor, Jeff Hargrove, and Robert Channer, Lincoln University of Missouri

Introduction

Access to affordable, fresh, and nutritious foods in adequate quantities is important for all populations, especially the young and elderly. Most elderly are on fixed incomes, and their income level is not always enough to support their needs at retirement. Inflation, increased energy costs, increased food costs, and rapidly rising medical costs can reduce available incomes. Yen (2004) reported that 40% of elderly who rely only on their own resources do not receive adequate food and nutrients. Children are the second critical target group; they need exercise, green space, and a source of nutritious food. This seems clear due to the exploding prevalence of obesity in children in the United States (DeMattia & Denny, 2008). Because most people have little or no background or training in agriculture, these two groups can benefit from learning how to grow their own food. At present, less than 2% of the U.S. population is involved in production agriculture.

Program Description

The Sprouts and Roots Program (SRP) was created in 2011 to introduce youth and seniors, 50 or older, to gardening, nutrition, and wellness education to test the effects on their health and well-being in an urban area in Jefferson City. LUCE’s mission is to provide educational tools for underserved populations to improve their way of life. A community garden, native plant gardens, farmers market, and kitchen at Lincoln University (LU), all created with funding from a National Institute of Food and Agriculture (NIFA) Capacity Building grant, have provided a sense of community between the university and neighboring communities, and provide a place for participants to grow vegetables, to have access to local, fresh food, and to socialize with people of different ethnicities and ages.

This study has the following objectives: a) determine whether participation in gardening, along with dietary education, improves food choices, decreases obesity, and improves general health, and b) determine whether participating in gardening and a farmers market results in an improved sense of well-being. We are presenting results obtained in 2012.
Methodology

Indoor and outdoor training is offered at the community garden, farmers market, and kitchen at Lincoln University (LU), and different measures are being taken to gauge the impact of these activities. The LU-Community Garden has been in operation since 2010. It is located at the edge of campus, allowing Sprouts and Roots participants, students, and other members of adjacent communities to grow their own food. Raised beds are available free for Sprouts and Roots participants and for a minimal fee for other members of the community. We are measuring attendance and retention and the amount of produce grown.

The LU-Farmers Market was developed adjacent to the garden. The market provides locally grown healthy foods for communities surrounding Lincoln University and offers opportunities to local farmers, producers, and Sprouts and Roots participants to sell their produce or value-added products. An ongoing survey will determine customer and vendors’ ethnicity, age, gender, number, and satisfaction with the market every year.

The LU-Commercial Kitchen recently opened to the public. It is located at the LU campus, across the street from the community garden. Classes and training about food safety and nutrition are offered at this facility by Sprouts and Roots personnel and other faculty at Lincoln University. Usage frequency and types of usage by producers and LU faculty and staff are being evaluated.

In 2012, a total of 12 training sessions with topics related to nutrition, gardening, and wellness were offered once a week from March 22 to May 31 for senior adults. Youth were offered 18 classes, which were held twice a week during the summer session. The target groups were underserved populations including minorities, women, and those of low income.

The efficacy of programming was measured using three main evaluative techniques, including the overall effect of each program on the self-reported health and well-being of participants, the participants’ knowledge about each of the topics presented in the sessions, and how satisfied participants were with programming.

Health and well-being were measured in spring and summer programming during the first session using presurveys and during the last session using postsurveys for both youth and senior adults. Survey results were compared to examine changes in well-being that corresponded with participation in programs. Surveys included demographic questions such as height, weight, gender, and age. Measures of physical health included health-related quality of life, sleep, and exercise habits. Physical health was assessed using questions adapted from the Center for Disease Control (2010) Behavior Risk Factor Surveillance System. Mental health was assessed by examining life satisfaction and depression. Life satisfaction was measured using the Subjective Happiness Scale (Lyubomirsky, n.d.). Depression was measured using questions from the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale -CES-D- (Radloff, 1977).

Food and nutrition knowledge was measured using scales from the Nutrition Knowledge Questionnaire with multiple-choice questions about nutrition (University College London, 2012). Food quantity knowledge was measured using questions about what nutrition experts recommend that people eat. Food ingredient knowledge was measured using questions which named foods and asked participants to identify whether the foods were high or low in added sugar, fat, salt, protein or saturated fat. Health problem knowledge was examined by asking if participants were aware of health problems caused by various nutritional choices.
Change of knowledge was measured at the beginning and at the end of each session (pretests and posttests). The same five multiple-choice questions were used in both tests. Satisfaction was measured after each session. Participants completed a seven-item Likert-type evaluation (Siegle, 2010) assessing the degree to which they were satisfied with the session (e.g., a) Strongly Agree, b) Agree, c) Uncertain, d) Disagree, e) Strongly Disagree).

**Results/Impacts**

**LU-Farmers Market**
In 2012, during the second year of this program, there were 43 vendors in addition to LU groups throughout the season. On average, there were five vendors in 2011 and 14 vendors in 2012 at Saturday markets. Local items included vegetables, fruits, eggs, beef, lamb, pork, chicken, baked goods, flowers, crafts, and services. An average of 139 people came on Saturdays in 2012, and 60 came in 2011. Approximately 4,000 people of diverse ethnicity, age, and gender attended the market on Saturdays in 2012, compared to 1,305 in 2011.

**LU-Community Garden**
The community garden expanded from 25 raised beds in 2011 to 51 in 2012. Twenty-eight children and adults adopted raised beds in 2012. A native plant demonstration garden was established for native pollinators and other wildlife. More than 80 native plants, including some edible species, were established in demonstration gardens for educational purposes. About 500 lbs of produce, including tomatoes, greens, potatoes, melons, herbs, cucumbers, and peppers, was grown by Sprouts and Roots participants and staff.

**Commercial Kitchen**
The commercial kitchen was finished in mid-summer and was used for cooking classes for SRP participants and for other programs offered by Lincoln University Cooperative Extension and Research. The kitchen opened to the public in early 2013.

**Sprouts and Roots Participants**
In 2012, 16 adults and 16 children participated in the spring and summer sessions, respectively, and 80% of the participants were minorities. Numbers of both children and adults varied from seven to 16 per session.

**Results of Program Evaluation**
Presurvey and postsurvey results of Body Mass Index (BMI), weight, subjective happiness, social support, intergenerational interactions, and food and nutrition knowledge were measured using paired samples t-tests. For senior adults participating in the 12-week program in the spring, the results were not significantly different. The children involved in the 9-week summer program showed minor changes associated with participation in the program. Of all these measures, food quantity knowledge showed a significant increase from presurveys ($M = 6.86, SD = 1.77$) to postsurveys ($M = 8.29, SD = 1.50; t (6) = -2.50, p < .05$). This indicates that children made slight improvements in the accuracy of their judgments about which foods are high in fat, sugar, and other nutrients. To examine whether participants learned about topics presented in individual sessions, pretests and posttests were done. Adults’ scores significantly increased (*) in four of six sessions (Figure 1).
Children’s scores significantly increased (*) in five of eight sessions (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Children’s change of knowledge for individual sessions in summer 2012.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructor</th>
<th>Number of Participants</th>
<th>Pre Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Post Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Mean Evaluation of session on 5-pt. satisfaction scale (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Gardening</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.93 (.96)</td>
<td>4.60 (.63)</td>
<td>4.44 (.51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Food safety</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.81 (1.64)</td>
<td>5.81 (1.80)</td>
<td>4.41 (.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Native Plants and Pollinators</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.12 (.83)</td>
<td>4.75 (.46)</td>
<td>4.79 (.22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutrition</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.38 (.92)</td>
<td>4.88 (.35)</td>
<td>4.55 (.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Pasta nutrition</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.64 (.81)</td>
<td>4.55 (.52)</td>
<td>4.55 (.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar Oven</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.72 (.65)</td>
<td>4.90 (.30)</td>
<td>4.68 (.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wetzel/Aquatic Insects</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.88 (.40)</td>
<td>3.13 (.23)</td>
<td>4.55 (.55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Chickens</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.57 (.30)</td>
<td>3.43 (.53)</td>
<td>4.80 (.36)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant difference between pretest and posttest (paired samples t-test, p < .05)
Mean scores from the satisfaction survey administered after each session showed that satisfaction scores for both seniors and children were high (five is the maximum), indicating that participants were pleased with the sessions. Mean scores for adults are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Satisfaction with spring programs about gardening and nutrition for senior adults.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Number of Participants</th>
<th>Mean Evaluation on 5-pt scale</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fighting obesity through gardening</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to vegetable gardening</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food safety</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules for the community garden</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving your garden soil with compost</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growing native plants for pollinators</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Impacts

- Many of our SRP participants and buyers at the farmers market expressed an increased awareness of healthy eating habits and eating local foods.
- Although no significantly different results were obtained, half of the seniors reported that they lost weight.
- Participants had either never done any gardening before or they had not done it in a long time.
- Many expressed that this program has provided opportunities to socialize with people their own age and that they like the program because it offers them the opportunity to learn new things.

Future Implications/Plans

- To determine the medium-term effect of gardening, wellness, and nutrition on well-being and health, additional measurements are being done in 2013 and 2014.
- Since spring 2013, the program was expanded to other regions where Lincoln University Cooperative Extension works, including Kansas City, Saint Louis, and the Bootheel region in Southeast Missouri.
- Native edible plants are being incorporated in nutrition programming.
- Youth summer camps that emphasize the integration of nature and agriculture in urban areas are being offered for children in 4th through 8th grade in 2013 and 2014.
- Entrepreneurial training will be offered to seniors and adults to promote participation in the farmers market and to increase per capita income.
- Additional garden space will be created to accommodate the increasing demand for gardening plots at Lincoln University for students and the community.
Immigration and Trauma: Examining Coping and Resiliency Among Latina/o Immigrants

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Oscar F. Rojas Perez, University of California, Irvine

Immigration and Trauma: An Overview

Latina/os are the largest racial/ethnic minority group, accounting for 16% of the U.S. population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Between 2000 and 2010, more than half of the growth in the United States was due in part to Latina/os (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). According to the Department of Homeland Security Report (2009), Mexican and Central American immigrants together account for 37% of all U.S. immigrants (4.7% of the total U.S. population). Given the high influx of Latina/os that are arriving in the United States, it is important to assess the likelihood that traveling immigrants will experience dangers, obstacles, and trauma. In addition, Latina/o immigrants experience discrimination not only in the United States upon arrival, but also within their home countries (Fortuna, Porche, & Alegria, 2008; Finch, Kolody, & Vega, 2000). This may serve as one factor towards increasing motivation to immigrate. Therefore, it is vital to examine the various dangers and traumas experienced during the immigration process and the negative psychological and behavioral effects on Latina/o immigrants. This exploratory
paper summarizes the available literature relating to trauma, coping, and resiliency among Latina/o immigrants and suggests next steps for interventions.

There are a vast number of perilous obstacles that Latina/os may face en route to the United States when traveling from their home countries. The dangers encountered by undocumented immigrants crossing the U.S.-Mexico border consist of environmental conditions (heat and cold injuries), traumatic injuries (dehydration), and encounters with wild animals (DeLuca, McEwen, & Keim, 2008). However, there are additional traumatic events that Latina/o immigrants may encounter en route to the United States. Traumatic events can also include, but are not limited to, deaths of others who are traveling in the same group, encounters with border patrol, physical injuries, physical assault at the hands of their coyote, and sexual abuse (DeLuca et al., 2008). Also, DeLuca et al. (2008) reported that even with the known dangers and potential adversity, 63% of their sample stated that they would attempt crossing a second and third time if they were not successful on the first attempt. An encounter with such experiences during immigration may increase the likelihood of experiencing some form of psychological distress and negative behavioral outcomes.

Historically, the immigration process for Latina/os has been known to cause significant distress and present hazardous obstacles. Specifically, traumatic experiences and stressors while crossing the U.S.-Mexico border were commonly found among Latina/os (Shattell et al., 2008). In regards to rates of trauma, 76% of Latina/o immigrants have experienced other traumatic experiences such as personal, physical, and sexual violence in addition to political violence (Fortuna, Porche, & Alegria, 2008). With regard to sexual trauma, Cuevas and Sabina’s (2010) research suggests that lifetime rates of sexual assault may be as high as 17.2% among Latina women, whereas research among Latino men is virtually nonexistent. The rates of personal, physical, and sexual violence warrant further investigation regarding sexual assault, in addition to the research that has been conducted on political violence. This does not suggest that personal, physical, and sexual violence are weighted higher in severity of psychological distress among Latina/o immigrants than political violence, rather, it is necessary to continue the examination of all possible traumas that may be experienced.

Trauma and violence are additional societal concerns in Latin American countries. With violence among the five main causes of death in Latin America and after years of political violence in their countries of origin, immigrants cross into the United States with major physical and mental health concerns such as psychosocial trauma (Asner-Self & Marotta, 2005; Rousseau & Drapeau, 2004). Eisenman et al. (2003) reported that 54% of immigrant Latina/os of diverse backgrounds had been exposed to some sort of political violence in their home country. As a result, studies have associated exposure to political violence with psychiatric disorders such as heat-related injuries and post-traumatic stress disorder, anxiety, and depression (Eisenman et al., 2003; Fox et al., 2001; Pederson, 2002; Rousseau & Drapeau, 2004). With immigration rates increasing and trauma rates significantly high, it is important to analyze the various coping mechanisms utilized by and the resiliency of Latina/o immigrants who experienced adverse events as they transition into the United States. The purpose of further examining trauma and coping among Latina/o immigrants is to inform culturally relevant interventions that may assist in the healing process of survivors and reduce the psychological sequelae that may emerge as a result of these traumatic experiences.
Cultural Values and Their Influence on Coping Among Latina/o Immigrants

Coping strategies are often shaped by cultural and individual differences, which influence the perception of what resources are available and acceptable for individuals (Bonnano, 2004). Latina/o cultural values, particularly amongst Mexican individuals, enact family and religious rituals that create a sense of collectivism, support, and familismo, ultimately emphasizing the prominence of support (Cervantes & Ramirez, 1992). Familism is a cultural-specific value that socializes an ideal for interdependent family relationships that are close and supportive; the cultural value of familism is considered to be a core characteristic and one of the most important culture values for Latina/os and other collectivistic cultural groups (Moore, 1970; Sabogal et al., 1987; Schwartz et al., 2010). A key element of familism is support that stems from within the family and extended family, where individuals can find various types of assistance (e.g., emotional support, protection, problem solving solutions) on a regular basis. People who emphasize familism prioritize their obligations to family, regard family members as a first source of social support, and take family needs into consideration when making important decisions. Additionally, previous studies on familism among Latina/os have proposed support rooted in familism as an explanation for the relatively “trouble free adaptation” of immigrants to the United States (Cohen, 1979; Rumbaut & Rumbaut, 1976; Szalay et al., 1978), in addition to relatively better mental health.

Although familism support has been vital to the transition of Latina/o immigrants within the United States, there is limited literature on coping mechanisms that they possess. Research suggests that Latina/os engage in positive reinterpretation, focusing and venting emotions, social support, active coping, religion, emotional support, and planning as ways to cope, and these were associated with positive physical and psychological health (Vaughn & Roesch, 2003). Additionally, Lucid (2010) reported that self-affirmation coping was a common Latina/o cultural value, which was found through religious faith. Pargament et al. (1998) defines religious coping as the use of religion in constructing appraisals, engaging in coping activities and processes, and shaping the coping process. Additionally, religious coping may involve the use of techniques that are cognitive or behavioral in relation to religion or spirituality (Tix & Frazier, 1998). Some examples of religious coping include seeking social support from a religious community or taking part in contemplative prayer. Harrison et al (2005) reported religious coping as a multidimensional construct related to physical and psychological health, health behaviors, and feelings of efficacy. In a recent study of religious coping among Central Americans, participants reported moderate to high levels of positive religious coping, for example, endorsing benevolent religious appraisal and collaborative religious coping (Dunn & O’Brien, 2009). In the same study, participants reported looking for strength and support from God and reported collaborating with God to alleviate worries (Dunn & O’Brien, 2009). Also, participants endorsed negative religious coping at low to moderate levels, with the exception of pleading for direct intercession. The limited research previously conducted on Latina/o coping strategies has primarily targeted college students, leaving a large portion of the Latina/o population understudied and raising questions regarding the generalizability to the larger Latina/o population. Therefore, further investigation into the use of various coping strategies among Latina/o immigrants is needed.
The Emergence of Coping Strategies Following a Traumatic Experience

The immigration experience is not only daunting, but is also traumatic as Latina/os encounter unknown terrain. As noted previously, various types of trauma experienced by Latina/os during migration include, but are not limited to, exposure to political violence, psychosocial trauma, sexual violence, and witnessing violence (Fortuna, Porche, & Alegria, 2008). Little research examines the coping following the immigration process as various barriers could influence the discussion of the traumatic journey. For example, barriers that Latina/os may face in reporting sexual violence may include fear of deportation (Bryant-Davis, Chung, & Tillman, 2009). This may suggest that the discussion of their immigration process as well as trauma that emerged en route to the United States (e.g. sexual victimization) may also minimize discussion with mental health professionals and researchers. Therefore, it is possible that many coping strategies and forms of support that are utilized within the Latina/o population may be unexamined or not understood.

The implications for further research and culturally competent interventions are crucial in assisting Latina/o immigrants. There is a need for a cultural-specific coping scale that examines various coping strategies used by Latina/o immigrants towards alleviating the detrimental psychological effects of trauma. In addition, culturally competent interventions that focus on various types of trauma (e.g. political trauma, physical trauma, sexual trauma, psychological trauma, emotional trauma) may benefit Latina/o immigrants once they have settled in the United States. Additionally, empowerment programs that assist Latina/o survivors of violence may potentially decrease significant psychological distress and conversely increase resiliency. With regard to undocumented Latina/o immigrants, psychoeducational interventions that discuss U.S. public policies that protect undocumented immigrants who have experienced sexual and domestic violence (e.g. Violence Against Women Act) may encourage the reporting of sexual assault, as knowing that the law guarantees protection may reduce fear of deportation. Intervention and prevention strategies are highly needed. Thus, this paper urges mental health professionals and researchers to further investigate the needs of Latina/o immigrants.

References


Latinos are the largest and fastest growing ethno-racial group in the United States, as well as in Iowa (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Currently, the Latino population constitutes 5.2% of Iowa’s total population. According to the Woods & Pool Economics Inc. projections for 2012, cited by Iowa Division of Latino Affairs (2010), it is expected to grow to 12.7% by 2040. Thus, there is a need to monitor the health and well-being of this rapidly growing population. While there has been increased research focused on the Latino population over the past decade (Grant & Demerath, 1999), including studies focused on Latino health-related beliefs, practices, and decisions (Mendelson, 2003; Mejia et al., 2008; Romero de Slowing, 2012), and factors associated with health behavior change (Ashida, Wilkinson, & Koehly, 2010), much of the research has focused on Latinos living in urban areas or who were born in the United States.
Research focused on Latino immigrant families living in rural communities remains scarce (Grant & Demerath, 1999). This study examines data from Latina immigrant mothers living in rural Iowa and has two objectives: 1) to understand how Latina immigrant mothers define good health; and 2) to identify strategies that Latina immigrant mothers employ to maintain or improve their health.

**Literature Review**

**Definitions of Health**

The World Health Organization (WHO) describes health as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity” (2003, p. 2). Additionally, research indicates that a person’s perception of health, as well as health behaviors, are influenced by race, ethnicity, and culture (Bonder, Martin, & Miracle, 2001; Bagley et al., 1995; Northam, 1996). For example, the concept of health among Latinos commonly refers to the balance of the social, physical, spiritual, and psychological aspects of an individual (Spector, 1991). Grant and Demerath (1999) found that Hispanic women living in urban New Mexico related good health with absence of illness and control over personal health, and they identified body, mind, and spirit as foundational to good health.

**Health Strategies**

While Grant & Demerath (1999) found that Latinas engaged in health maintenance and disease prevention behaviors (e.g., monitor caffeine, cholesterol, alcohol consumption; maintain high fluid intake; avoid tobacco; exercise; practiced monthly breast self-examinations; scheduled mammograms), Corbie-Smith et al. (2002) and Clark (1995) found Latinas to be inclined to forego formal healthcare, and to be more involved in health care activities within the home. Romero de Slowing (2012), Mendelson (2003), and Clark (1995) found that Latinas used traditional herbal cures and home-base remedies to treat common illnesses and utilized biomedical resources to cure serious diseases. Ashida, Wilkinson, and Koehly (2012) report that social networks among Latinos commonly serve as protective factors against poor health.

**Methodology**

**Study Procedures**

In-depth interviews were conducted with 19 Spanish-speaking Latina immigrant mothers living in rural Iowa, who had participated in a larger, multistate study, Rural Families Speak about Health (RFSH) (http://ruralfamieliesspeak.org/). Interviews were conducted by a bilingual, bicultural Mexican woman who lived in one of the study communities. Interviews were audio-taped, and mothers were offered $30 gift cards for their participation in the interview.

**Demographics and Characteristics of the Mothers**

Mothers were born in Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador, and Argentina, and lived in households at or below 185% of the federal poverty level. The mean age of the 19 mothers was 34 years, and almost half (n =9) had participated in some high school or had earned a G.E.D. One fifth (n =4) had completed 8th grade or had fewer years of formal education, and one third (n =6) had participated in specialized technical/business training or some college. The majority
of the mothers \((n=17)\) reported having limited or no English language skills and only spoke Spanish. A large number of the mothers were overweight \((n=7)\) or obese \((n=5)\), and about one third \((n=7)\) were normal weight. While only two mothers rated their health as excellent, almost all of the other mothers rated their health as very good \((n=4)\) or good \((n=11)\). Only two mothers rated their health as poor. Mothers reported three to six people living in their households, including one to four of them being children. Almost all of the mothers were married \((n=16)\), and only three identified themselves as single. Ten mothers were unemployed and nine were employed.

**Data Analysis**

Audiotapes were transcribed verbatim in Spanish and then translated to English by a bilingual, bicultural graduate student who taught Spanish at the associated university. The researcher who was responsible for the initial coding of the transcripts is a native Spanish speaker and reviewed all transcripts for accuracy by listening to the interview audio recordings. Transcripts were read line by line to identify concepts that illustrated how mothers defined being healthy and strategies they used to maintain or improve their health. Analytic notes expressing the meaning of the concepts were recorded. Concepts and notes were further analyzed to develop codes. MAXQDA 10 software (Qualitative Text Analysis Software) was used to facilitate the coding process.

**Findings**

**Meanings of Being Healthy**

Mothers identified good health in terms of absence of illness in the whole family, and full integration of physical and mental well-being within a healthy environment. Two of the mothers, Amparo and Berta, expressed their perceptions in the following statements.

Amparo noted:

Well, first of all, I think it is not getting sick. This is what it means for me being healthy; it is not getting sick by things such as colds. What I can say is that all of us have good health because my daughters hardly get sick, neither my baby, my husband nor I.

Berta declared, “Being healthy is related to many things. Healthy…well, have a healthy mind, being physically healthy, eating healthy … for me that is being healthy.”

Mothers also defined health as having a good harmony at home, being in peace with God and others around them, eating healthy, and participating in physical and social activities. Catalina, another mother, relates being healthy with peace with God and other family members: “in reference to health, to have good harmony in the house, to be well at peace…not in peace… in peace with God, amongst us… that we don’t have trouble or difficulty in anything.”

Mothers stated that being healthy involved taking care of themselves and family members, and related “good health” with having a happy and healthy family. Good health was described as not having addictions (e.g., alcohol, tobacco, drugs) or suffering from metabolic diseases (e.g., diabetes), and not having to regularly take medicine or visit a doctor. They associated health with “pure happiness,” having a good mood, not having stress, and living in good surroundings.
Strategies for Maintaining Health

Some mothers identified techniques to incorporate nutritious foods, such as vegetables, into their diets. For example, Marisol explained:

Well, I don’t like the sweet pepper by itself, but I try to make it as a meal where I can eat it. The broccoli I try to make it like…I don’t know if you… have you seen the Chinese food? That sometimes there is broccoli in the meat… I try to make it like that to be able to eat the broccoli…because otherwise, I won’t eat it.

Other mothers, like Rebeca, avoided drinking soda and put fresh fruit into her water:

I only make fruit-flavored water or mineral water, but I avoid drinking pop… I don’t like mineral water (laugh). And I know that I have to drink it a lot… I drink a lot of juice. And to …to drink mineral water, when I go for a run I take my bottle of water because I have to drink it there because I’m thirsty… or I made fruit-flavored water from fresh fruit or something like that, to drink the water.

Mothers also reported participating in moderate and vigorous physical activities with their families such as walking the dog or taking walks, walking up the stairs instead of taking the elevator, exercising at the school’s playground, running outside, and practicing aerobics or playing basketball. Strategies to consume nutritious food included using healthy cooking techniques such as steaming, using less salt or sugar, incorporating nutritious foods like fruits and vegetables into their diets, and monitoring intake of snack foods and soda. Some mothers indicated washing vegetables and fruits before they ate them, and many mothers reported that they practiced preventative care by going to the doctor for checkups. One mother relied on faith to provide her strength to move forward. Victoria shared:

I am Catholic, I believe in God, I try to, how do you say… there is a word, that tells you, your spiritual part, you try to fill it up with strength, with getting closer to the religion, in my case, it’s the Catholic religion, I try to read the Bible, I try to read books about desperation, I try to understand, um, why this why that, you read books, sometimes when you have big problems we have the Bible and we go and read the Joseph part, there we will learn something good, it’s a way it’s like, it’s like a medicine, your spiritual part to move forward with all the things that are coming.

Mothers also reported the use of specific food/plants to promote their family’s health. Elena described the use of nopales (cactus) in their family’s food to keep sugar levels in check. She shared: “I give them nopales, it’s good for making your sugar go down, I give them nopales, black beans, and lentils.” Other participants, like Isabel, prepare home care remedies: “We try to make home medicines at home, and then if it is not working, then we go to the doctor.” These cultural care practices enabled mothers to deal with illnesses and improve their health.
Discussion and Implications

This study increases our understanding of health definitions and strategies among Latina immigrant mothers that can inform public health interventions. First, the results of this study suggest that Latina immigrant mothers perceive health in a holistic manner (physical, mental, social, and spiritual) (Grant & Demerath, 1999). Thus, it is critical to embrace a holistic notion of health when planning interventions and providing care for Latina immigrant families.

Second, when the mothers discussed health and strategies to improve or maintain health, they emphasized the interconnected nature of the overall health of their entire family unit and their own health. Latinas commonly do not view health in terms of Body Mass Index (BMI). They perceive health in terms of energy level, happiness, healthy-looking skin and hair, and family bonding (Woodward-Lopez & Flores, 2006). This study found data supporting this idea, thus, a focus on a family’s healthy eating and activity level is likely to be more effective than a focus on individual weight loss or a sole dependence on BMI as the focus of attention (Crawford, 2004). Furthermore, the cultural value of familismo, or family loyalty (Galanti, 2003), and the close social ties between family members have been shown to be important to Latino populations (Marín & Marín, 1991). Given that health care practices of Latina immigrant mothers are interrelated and interconnected with the overall health of their entire family, it is essential that health education and promotion should focus on healthy eating and active living as a family, instead of strategies to promote individual health.

Third, mothers perceived health as being happy and in peace with God and other people around them. Some mothers relied on their religious beliefs to gain strength needed to tackle their problems. This finding can be explained from the Leininger’s cultural care theory tenets, health and culture. Leininger (1991; 1993) describes health as the state of welfare often defined and valued by a specific culture, and defines culture as “learned, shared, and transmitted values, beliefs, norms, and life-ways of a specific individual or group that guide their thinking, decisions, actions, and patterned ways of living” (p. 9). Thus, cultural values linked to religious beliefs, which are often transmitted from one generation to the next, influence the way Latinas perceive their own health as they “may enjoy a sense of vicarious control over their affairs through their alliance with an omniscient, omnipotent deity” (Ellison & Levin, 1998, p. 707).

Lastly, mothers associated good eating habits, physical activity, healthy relationships, and emotional stability with the concept of health (Mendelson, 2003). Mothers emphasized health strategies such as eating a healthy diet and avoiding tobacco, alcohol, and drugs. Other strategies for good health include using healthy cooking techniques such as steaming foods or using less salt or sugar; incorporating fruits and vegetables into meals; monitoring intake of snack foods and soda; going to the doctor for check-ups for preventative care; using specific foods or plants to promote their health; and participating in moderate and vigorous physical activities both on their own and with family members.
References


Pathways to Community Leadership in Rapidly Diversifying Communities: Preliminary Results

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Ryan Allen and Amanda Hane, University of Minnesota

Introduction

The rural population of the United States is more ethnically diverse than it has ever been in our history and, given prevailing demographic projections, the population is poised to become even more diverse in the coming decades (Lichter & Johnson, 2006). Minnesota’s rural communities are diversifying at a rapid pace, and much of this diversity is due to growth in the rural Latino population. In 2010, 2.9% of Minnesota’s population was Latino, but in some counties this percentage was much higher. For example, the Latino population in Nobles County (located in Southwest Minnesota) increased from 11.2% in 2000 to 22.5% in 2010. With this in mind, developing effective leadership in diversifying rural communities is a practical necessity now and will be more urgent in the future.

How do leaders in the Latino community differ from Anglos in their leadership biographies and pathways into community leadership? Is this about Latinos stepping into dominant cultural leadership roles (assimilation), or is this about new ways of defining and practicing leadership that don’t just take ideas from Anglo culture? Based on these ideas, what strategies best support leadership development among Latinos? In this paper, we argue that understanding the personal leadership biographies and pathways to leadership is an important first step for those who work in community leadership programs who wish to increase cross-cultural collaboration and integrative leadership.

Literature Review

According to Hewlett, Luce, and West (2005), a significant difference exists in terms of how Latinos develop leadership skills in comparison to their other ethnic counterparts. Without an understanding of cultural background differences in Latino communities, traditional leadership development approaches are ineffective. Latino leaders can be categorized under two...
types, reluctant leaders and unknown leaders (Griffin, 2003). Reluctant leaders are those who appear to have all the necessary skills to become excellent leaders but can’t imagine themselves succeeding in a leadership position. Unknown leaders have the right mix of humility, confidence, and leadership skills, but they are not effective in developing the necessary relationships that allow them to make their skills noticeable.

Many barriers hinder the broader community leadership potential, including a lack of social networks between established and emerging leaders, insufficient cultural understanding and respect, and a failure by established leaders to conduct outreach into Latino communities. Cross-sector collaboration is crucial for the success of community leadership. A recent analysis of the social sector affiliations of leadership program participants revealed a strong and positive correlation between the breadth of social sector affiliations among cohort members and self-reported measures of shared future and purpose at the end of the cohort program (Chazdon & Winchester, 2011).

Latinos embrace a unique set of characteristics within their culture. They are known as collectivists and polychromic individuals (Espinoza, 1999). They value group orientation and loyalty to the extended family or group of which one is a part. Family is the most important cultural value for Latinos (Chong & Baez, 2005; Espinoza, 1999; Holvino & Gallegos, 2008). They focus more on promoting the interests of the group over the interests of the individual.

Unfortunately, many white residents in small communities perceive Latinos as “irresponsible” and “uncaring” because of their absence from community events (Chavez, 2005; Curiel, 2007). According to Chavez (2005), Latinos have a different sense of community and of being involved: “They construct their own sense of belonging by forming communities of need that provide the same social, emotional, and political support found lacking in mainstream society” (p. 332).

Data/Methods

This study utilized an explanatory case study approach focusing on four rural Minnesota communities that experienced rapidly increasing Latino populations in the last decade. Yin (1993) describes an explanatory case study method as being most suitable for situations in which the phenomenon under study is difficult to distinguish from its context. He suggests that an explanatory case study uses pattern-matching techniques to generate theories of cause-effect relationships.

Sample

U.S. census data was used to determine the rural communities in Minnesota with the highest percentage increase in the Latino population between 2000 and 2010. Of the cities with the highest rates of increase, four were selected based on the total population of the city to provide a range of sizes, and on percentages that were practically significant (e.g. cities that had only two Latinos in 2000 and four in 2010 were excluded, even though the percentage increase matched or exceeded cities that were included in the study). As Tables 1 through 3 indicate, each of these communities experienced a rapid influx of Latinos between 1990 and 2010, and by 2010 the proportions of their populations that were Latino ranged from 8% to nearly 36%.
Table 1: Latino population, 1990 - 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>% change from 1990 to 2000</th>
<th>% change from 2000 to 2010</th>
<th>% change from 1990 to 2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alder</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>1426</td>
<td>3796</td>
<td>956.3</td>
<td>166.2</td>
<td>2711.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawthorn</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>796</td>
<td>1805.0</td>
<td>308.9</td>
<td>3880.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ironwood</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>529.4</td>
<td>320.6</td>
<td>2547.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sumac</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>2175</td>
<td>4521</td>
<td>454.8</td>
<td>107.8</td>
<td>1053.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.
Note: The city names used in this table are pseudonyms.

Table 2: White non-Hispanic population, 1990 - 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>% change from 1990 to 2000</th>
<th>% change from 2000 to 2010</th>
<th>% change from 1990 to 2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alder</td>
<td>21548</td>
<td>21589</td>
<td>21466</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawthorn</td>
<td>2532</td>
<td>2900</td>
<td>3098</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ironwood</td>
<td>5489</td>
<td>5191</td>
<td>4954</td>
<td>-5.4</td>
<td>-4.6</td>
<td>-9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sumac</td>
<td>9343</td>
<td>8667</td>
<td>7936</td>
<td>-7.2</td>
<td>-8.4</td>
<td>-15.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.
Note: The city names used in this table are pseudonyms.

Table 3: Percentage of total population that was Latino, 1990 - 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alder</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawthorn</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ironwood</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sumac</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.
Note: The city names used in this table are pseudonyms.

Participants for the study were identified based on researcher knowledge of community stakeholders and snowball sampling techniques. Six participants were sought from each city, one White and one Latino participant with leadership roles in each of the three sectors: public, private, and nonprofit. Hawthorne was the only city with five participants, as a Latino public sector representative could not be identified from the researchers’ sources. There were 11 females and 12 males (5 Latino females, 6 Latino males, and 6 White females and 6 White males). Participants were contacted by telephone and given a short overview of the purpose of the study and what their participation would involve. They were given a written consent form at the time of the interview that was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Minnesota.
Data Collection

Data collection involved semi-structured interviews with participants. Interviews were conducted either in person at a location convenient to the study participant or over the phone, and were completed by the graduate research assistant and one of the researchers. The interviews lasted between 60 and 90 minutes. All interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed for coding.

The interview protocol began with questions about personal leadership stories and biographies, and moved into challenges and opportunities facing the community, questions about collaborations in the community, and ended with a discussion of collaborative efforts to respond to the increasing ethnic diversity of the community. (See Appendix A for the interview protocol)

In addition to the interviews with key informants, the primary investigator also informally interviewed the graduate research assistant about field observations during the data collection process about the cities and context of the interviews. These observations helped to inform later data analysis. Finally, secondary data were collected from an electronic search of the main newspapers in each of the four cities. The search terms “Latino” and “Hispanic” were used to explore relevant media on the Latino population in the cities, and all article hits that resulted were collected for later analysis.

Data Analysis

All interviews were coded using a hybrid coding system consisting mostly of open coding, but also informed by several theories, including the Integrative Leadership framework (Center for Integrative Leadership, 2012) and the Intercultural Development Model (Bennett, 1986). All coding was completed by the primary investigator and the graduate research assistant, who met weekly to discuss themes that emerged and appropriate codes. Meetings with the full research team were also held periodically to discuss preliminary findings. All interviews were entered and coded in NVivo software.

Preliminary Results

Themes from the Latino Interviews (N = 11)

Building trusting relationships with leadership mentors. Almost all the Latino interviewees mentioned some form of mentorship as being an important element of their leadership story. Mentors came from both the Latino and Anglo communities to support them in their leadership. Some reported that they themselves saw the need to use their leadership role to mentor others in the Latino community.

But, I’ve had a lot of great mentors. And I’ve just been so fortunate to have you know other community leaders, both in the public and the private sector help me achieve those goals, um you know the former mayor has been an amazing ally to me and the center. You know, she’s very approachable and a kind hearted person. You know she really understands the community dynamics. And so you know, she’s just a wonderful person to just be able to just talk to and hey what’s going on. You know what I mean? She’s not the mayor anymore, but she’s just awesome. She’s still very involved in the community, and so that’s amazing. (Alder nonprofit sector)
Serving as a cultural liaison or translator. Many of the Latino leaders we spoke with had been recognized as leaders after they spent time in the community working as volunteer or paid translators and community connectors.

I am like a connection. I’m the interpreter, translator for the school district, so you are involved in the Hispanic community but also involved with the Caucasian community, the general community, as I like to call it. And then, you become that, in my case, that bridge between the two communities, you know, and you just stumble into that position to become a leader even if you didn’t ask for it. (Sumac public sector).

Building networks with others in the Latino community for mutual support and to get things done. The need and value in working with others is part of the collectivism culture. The networking relationships developed with others in the Latino community also served as a form of peer support.

Yeah, and I work with one of them. His name is [name removed]. and I’m sure they probably told you about him. And I mean [name removed] and I work a lot together. We’re supportive of each other. Um, I mean he’s huge leader here in the community. Everybody loves him and stuff like that. Um, there’s other people that work in our school systems like [name removed]. She’s the one doing the parent empowerment. And then there’s also, there’s also um, many I don’t know um, you know just other people that work in different institutions, like a bank or something that for us, for us like we’re all leaders. We’re different sectors but it’s a way for us to have a connection or you know, like a communication. Also do like collaborations with each other and stuff like that. (Alder public sector)

Pursuing issues important to the Latino community. The motivation to lead for many of the Latino interviewees came from an interest in addressing issues that were relevant to the Latino community.

And so we’re focusing on these issues because you know when we first met, we said okay, what is keeping our community down. And a lot of it had to do with immigration status, access to education, and deportation, which some of them are started off by getting pulled over and taken to the you know county jail and then deported because you don’t have a driver’s license. And so you know, those are the things that we’re focusing on right now and just given the momentum that they’re actually you know in the legislator’s minds and they’re acting on it and we did a lot with, with um, just last year when the elections were coming up, we did a lot of getting out the vote on voting no for different bills that would affect our community. (Ironwood nonprofit sector)
Moving into mainstream community organizations. Several of the participants described their exploration of mainstream organizations that were effective in getting things done in the community. Some of the participants were actively taking a role at leading these organizations and recruiting Latinos to join them.

It’s the American Association of University Women. We get together like a group of women, like 20 or more, and we have different programming each month that relates to women, leadership and community and all kinds of stuff. It’s actually a nationwide organization, and I’m actually one of the youngest in there. They’re all older and retired. Don’t tell them I said that though, but they are. Great role models. (Alder, public sector)

Themes from the Anglo Interviews (N = 12)

Finding leadership opportunities in positions held. It appears most Anglo leaders that were interviewed became leaders through more traditional avenues, i.e. work or board membership.

I was given opportunity 20 years ago by our CEO, so I want to say that I got into that luck. I was part of it, but I think part of it is some of your family background and having a reputation of being aggressive and involved. (Hawthorn private sector)

Following mentors into leadership. Both Latinos and Anglo interviewees talked about the importance of mentors in their leadership biographies. In comparison to the Latino leaders, almost all the Anglo leaders identified another Anglo as a mentor.

“Um, some of the mentors I’ve had in organizing I had were [name removed], who’s now county commissioner up in [name removed] County. Teaches organizing. He was very influential to me.” (Ironwood, nonprofit sector)

Filling in voids left due to aging of community leaders. Several of the Anglo leaders interviewed described situations in which they moved into leadership roles because of retirements or deaths of community leaders.

Yeah I kind of fell into it in a way actually. Is um way back 27 years ago or so, I was struggling with what I wanted to do in my career and I was going back to school and then I got a lower level job in the county just so I could facilitate myself for that. And then based on some retirements, I ended up in the position that I’m at. And as far as mentors, I don't know if I really had any, any true mentors, other than I had, I would go back and then I guess I would have, I had some guidance from a couple of commissioners. Who in my peer group, would be good people to get together with from other counties. (Alder, public sector)

Working on Multicultural Collaboratives. Some of the Anglo leaders were asked to lead because of their ability to be a bridge between emerging Latino leaders and the community.

I’ve also had the privilege with working with many, many emerging leaders, from the different cultural groups, and so that’s been an exciting part of the journey for myself
as leader, and growing and how to effectively mentor other leaders in their journey to becoming engaged in the community. (Sumac nonprofit sector)

Discussion

The term “leader” was seldom used by our Latino respondents when discussing leadership, but this does not mean that leadership is not being exercised. Our evidence suggests a more complicated reality in which leadership within Latino communities is most energized when it is organized collectively, as a set of tasks that everyone can pitch in to accomplish: “Where we can get together and do stuff and make a difference,” said one respondent. By contrast, more formal structures that parcel out titles or roles to individual committee heads seem to engender less participation.

Our findings are consistent with what Hobbs (2000, 2001) found in Oregon. She noted that “Latinos do not think of their contributions as volunteering . . . ‘Helping’ others, on the other hand, was noted as being second nature to Latinos. It isn’t viewed as something you do at a particular time, for a particular group.”

Building relationships is critical--with other organizations, with community leaders, with collaborations. Relationships are essential for establishing credibility in the community, and there are no short cuts to investing the time required to build those relationships. Nurturing a sense of connectedness creates trust and a level of comfort that encourage community leaders. A focus on building relationships requires patience, but it is a necessary first step in developing leadership programs that are accepted in the Latino community and in which Latinos are likely to be involved.

It appears that most Latinos who were interviewed did not have long leadership histories. Leading had not been something they were necessarily expected to do, nor has it been a tradition within their cultural groups. The interviewees appeared to be moving from a high power distance to a low power distance cultural dimension (Hofstede, 1993).

Implications for Community Leadership Education

These findings pose a challenge to the traditional leadership models used by many organizations, including Extension. The approach to recruiting future leaders needs to be reframed in ways that de-emphasize the traditional concept of a “leader” and instead structure multiple ways for Latinos to participate as helpers and to become part of a leadership team. Organizations should consider framing leadership development as both a group or organization’s responsibility and an individual responsibility. Offering opportunities for new participants to assist with special community events, be part of a small group of friends and family working together, or simply coming to observe and learn without a leadership commitment may be more effective ways of promoting participation and leadership.

Specifically, our findings suggest that community leadership development personnel should:

• Consider the variety of leadership biographies and pathways to leadership in the community. The main goal of the leadership biographies is to discover leadership reality together.
• Work closely with residents to determine leadership program needs, options, and design. This means reciprocal engagement with the Latino community, not trying to sell a prepackaged program.

• Consider a multipurpose leadership development program. One purpose being to build leadership knowledge and skills, a second to aid in the relationship building between Anglo and Latino leaders, and a third to collaboratively address key community issues.

• Collaborate with community groups and organizations that are strong in the Latino community. To be credible, information about a new program should come from sources the community understands and trusts. This involves familiar language, people, institutions, and media.

• Design programs with easy entry points and that allow Latinos to lead without taking on a pre-structured role or a formal, long-term leadership commitment.

• Create opportunities that support and nurture connections among Latinos serving in leadership roles in different sectors of community life.

References


Appendices
Plenary Speakers

Guillermo Cantor, *Immigration Policy Center, Washington D.C.*
Guillermo Cantor is the Senior Policy Analyst at the American Immigration Council’s Immigration Policy Center (IPC), where he leads the Center’s research efforts. He is responsible for identifying key areas of investigation, and developing a broad range of publications that provide analysis of current and emerging policy debates. As a researcher, Dr. Cantor has specialized in immigration and immigrant incorporation, social and political organization of minorities, living conditions of vulnerable groups, and civil society organizations.

Guadalupe Martínez, *Marshall, Missouri*
Guadalupe Martínez has worked as a Parent Educator, interpreter and translator in the Marshall Public Schools and Marshall Hospital systems. Her special field of interest is in prevention of learning delay, health, and early identification of special conditions affecting children’s development. Through the Parents as Teachers program, Guadalupe provides education in Spanish to help parents to be successful in their children’s development and to connect them with information that helps families get adapted to their new communities.

Bertha Mendoza, *Kansas State University*
Bertha Mendoza has worked for Kansas State University Research and Extension Southwest Area as the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Agent in Southwest Kansas since 2009. Bertha’s special field of interest is nutrition, health, and education. She believes in the importance of literacy as the primary road to success in life.

Miguel Carranza, *University of Missouri- Kansas City*
Miguel Carranza serves as director of the interdisciplinary Latina/Latino Studies program and as professor of Sociology and Latina(o) Studies in the Department of Sociology at the University of Missouri – Kansas City. His research has centered on the fields of Chicano, Latino and Mexican-American Studies and Ethnic Studies, with a focus on Latino children, mentoring, Midwestern Latina/Latino and Chicana/Chicano communities, immigration, and language attitudes.

Ryan Barker, *Missouri Foundation for Health*
Ryan Barker, MSW, MPPA, is the Vice President of Health Policy at the Missouri Foundation for Health (MFH). He joined the Foundation in 2002 and assisted in the establishment and growth of the Health Policy area at MFH. He is also the Program Director for the Foundation’s Expanding Coverage initiative. He is currently an adjunct professor at Washington University’s Brown School of Social Work in the Institute of Public Health and at St. Louis University’s Aquinas Institute for Theology.
Katherine J. Mathews, *Saint Louis University*
Katherine J. Mathews, MD, MPH, MBA, is an obstetrician gynecologist with a background in public health, international work, academic medicine, and healthcare administration. She has dedicated her career to enhancing delivery of high quality, evidence-based, cost effective health care with a particular focus on low income and minority populations. For the past two and a half years, Katherine has served as Director of Clinical Services at Casa de Salud. This month she is transitioning to Saint Louis University’s Department of Obstetrics, Gynecology, and Women’s Health to start a new research division in partnership with SSM St. Mary’s Health Center.

Tim Borich, *Iowa State University*
Tim Borich has many roles at Iowa State University including Associate Professor, Community and Regional Planning; Associate Dean for Outreach, Design Administration; and Program Director, Extension Community and Economic Development Extension. His research interests include community economic development, leadership development, rural sociology and development, multi-community collaboration, public policy development, distance education, Latino community and economic development, and citizen participation and planning.

Cornelia Butler Flora, *Iowa State University*
Cornelia Flora is Distinguished Professor Emeritus of Sociology at Iowa State University, and Research Professor at Kansas State University. She served for fifteen years as Director of the North Central Regional Center for Rural Development. Dr. Flora is a fellow of the American Academy for the Advancement of Science. She is author and editor of a number of recent books, including *Interactions Between Agroecosystems* and *Sustainable Agriculture in Temperate Zones*. Her newest book is *Rural Communities: Legacy and Change*, 4th edition. Her current research includes immigrant community inclusion.

William R. Emmons, *Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis*
Bill Emmons is an Assistant Vice President and Economist at the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. He conducts policy analysis and speaks frequently on topics including the economy, housing and mortgage markets, and household financial conditions among other topics. Mr. Emmons has been with the St. Louis Fed since 1995. He also serves as an Adjunct Professor of Finance in the John M. Olin Business School at Washington University in St. Louis.
Program

Day 1 – Wednesday, June 12, 2013

1:00 – 1:50 PM

Conference Welcome Session
Welcoming Words: Domingo Martínez, Conference Director, Cambio Center, University of Missouri – Columbia
Remarks: Thomas F. George, Chancellor, University of Missouri - St. Louis
Remarks: Hon. Maria Chapelle-Nadal, Missouri State Senator
Remarks: Introduction to the Twelfth Annual Cambio de Colores - Latinos in the Heartland Conference. Stephen Jeanetta, Cambio Center, University of Missouri – Columbia

2:00 – 3:00 PM

Plenary Session 1: Civil Rights and Political Participation
“The Road to Comprehensive Immigration Reform. Update: Where Are We Now?”
Presenter: Guillermo Cantor, Ph.D., Senior Policy Analyst, Immigration Policy Center, Washington D.C.
Dr. Cantor's participation is possible thanks to the support of the Immigration Policy Center, Washington, D.C.

3:15 – 4:15 PM

Plenary Session 2: Change and Integration Panel
“Preparing Leaders through Integration and Engagement”
Presenters: Guadalupe Martínez, Parents as Teachers, Marshall, Missouri
Bertha Mendoza, M. S. Extension Agent, Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP), Kansas State University Research and Extension, Garden City, Kansas
Discussant: Miguel Carranza, Professor of Sociology and Latina-Latino Studies; Director, Latina-Latino Studies Program, University of Missouri-Kansas City

4:45 – 6:00 PM

Breakout Sessions I (Concurrent)
Breakout 1: Discussion of the Plenary – Civil Rights and Political Participation
Guillermo Cantor, Ph.D., Senior Policy Analyst, Immigration Policy Center, Washington D.C.
Breakout 2: Discussion of the Plenary – Change and Integration
Breakout 3: Change and Integration Workshop
Latino Urban Youth Involved in Community Gardening
Sonia G. Morales Osegueda, Washington State University Extension
**Breakout 4: Education Promising Practices**  
*Tools for Children of Immigrant Families*

- “An ELL Binder - A Resource for the Mainstream Classroom Teacher”  
  Judy R. Shreves, Warren County R-III School District

- “Bullying Prevention: Creating a Safe and Inclusive Environment”  
  Kimberly Allen, North Carolina State University

**Breakout 5: Change and Integration Research Panel**  
*Destinations, Integration, and Context of Reception*

- “Immigrant Gateways: an Empirical Examination of Primary and Secondary Destinations”  
  J. S. Onésimo Sandoval, Saint Louis University  
  Joel Jennings, Saint Louis University

- “A Qualitative Exploration of Latino Immigrant Integration in Rural Midwestern Communities”  
  Sarah May, University of Missouri – Columbia  
  Lisa Y. Flores, University of Missouri – Columbia  
  Corinna Valdivia, University of Missouri – Columbia  
  Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri – Columbia

- “Community & the Context of Reception: A Comparative View of Community and Community Factors Affecting Community Integration”  
  Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri – Columbia  
  Lisa Y. Flores, University of Missouri – Columbia  
  Alejandro Morales, University of Missouri – Columbia  
  Corinna Valdivia, University of Missouri – Columbia

**7:30 – 9:30 PM**

**Mosaico Latino**  
El Grupo Folclórico Colombia (Folkloric Group Colombia) of Saint Louis presents “Mosaico Latino”.

**Day 2 – Thursday, June 13, 2013**

**8:30 – 9:45 AM**

**Plenary Session 3: Education Panel**

- “Improving the Lives of Children through Relationship Education”  
  Presenter: Kimberly Allen, North Carolina State University

- “The Academic Adaptation of Children of Immigrants in New and Traditional Settlement States: The Role of Family, Schools, and Neighborhoods”  
  Presenter: Stephanie Potoczniak, University of Missouri  
  Discussant: Alejandro Morales, Cambio Center Fellow; Department of Education and Counseling Psychology, University of Missouri – Columbia
10:00 – 11:30 AM

Breakout Sessions II (Concurrent)

**Breakout 1:** Discussion of Plenary - Education

**Breakout 2:** Change and Integration Workshop

*Empowering Hispanic/Latino Families: Meeting their Needs with a Holistic Approach from Nutrition to Higher Education and Community Leadership*

Bertha Mendoza, Kansas State University Research and Extension

**Breakout 3:** Entrepreneurship and Economic Development Promising Practices

*University Extension Programs and Immigrant Entrepreneurs*

• “Developing Entrepreneurship Programs to Assist New Destination Latino Migrants”
  Wayne Miller, University of Arkansas
  Frank Farmer, University of Arkansas
  Zola Moon, University of Arkansas
  Christina Abreo, St. Anna’s Episcopal Church, New Orleans
  Stacey McCullough, University of Arkansas

• “Back to Nature: Native Flora for Wildlife and People. The Lincoln University Native Plants Program”
  Nadia Navarrete-Tindall, Lincoln University of Missouri
  Sue Bartelette, Lincoln University of Missouri
  Amy Hempen, Lincoln University of Missouri

• “Financial and Community Capacity-Building among Beginning Latino Farmers and Ranchers in Missouri and Nebraska”
  Eleazar U. González, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri – Columbia
  David O’Brien, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Kathie Starkweather, Center For Rural Affairs
  Wyatt Fraas, Center for Rural Affairs

**Breakout 4:** Health Research Panel

*Health Components of Integration: Networks, Access, Literacy*

• “Health, Well-being, and Social Connectedness of Rural Hispanic/Latino Populations”
  Debra Bolton, Kansas State University

• “Challenges in Accessing Healthcare Services: Perspectives from Refugee and Immigrant Patients”
  Ioana Staiculescu, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri
  Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Karen Edison, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri
  Stan Hudson, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri
  David Zelmer, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri

• “Examining the Health Literacy of Rural Latina Immigrant Mothers and their Use of the Internet to Seek Health Information”
  Kimberly Greder, Iowa State University
  Kimberly Doudna, Iowa State University
“Meanings and Strategies for Good Health: The Perspectives of Latina Immigrant Mothers in Rural Iowa”
Angelica Reina, Iowa State University
Kimberly Greder, Iowa State University
Tania Lee, Iowa State University

**Breakout 5: Change and Integration**

*Spaces for Community Action, Leadership and Dialogue*

- “Creating an Immigration Friendly Community in a New Destination Community: The Case of Champaign-Urbana Immigration Forum, Illinois”
  Stacy Harwood, University of Illinois
  Ben Mueller, Avicenna Community Health Center
  Ricardo Diaz, CU Immigration Forum
  Jill Capes, CU Immigration Forum
  John Wilkie, Attorney at Law

- “Integrative Leadership in Rapidly Diversifying Rural Communities”
  Tobias Spanier, University of Minnesota Extension Center for Community Vitality

- “Colorful Dialogue: Talking Towards Civic Engagement”
  Kate Olson, University of Missouri – Columbia

**12:00 – 1:30 PM**

Luncheon

“Latino Families and the Financial Crisis”
**Guest Speaker:** William R. Emmons, Economist, Division of Banking Supervision and Regulation at the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis

**1:30 – 3:00 PM**

Plenary Session 4: Entrepreneurship and Economic Development Panel

- “Immigrant Livelihood Strategies: Gender, Food, and Multi-culturalism”
  **Presenter:** Cornelia Butler Flora, Distinguished Professor Emeritus, Iowa State University, and Research Professor, Kansas State University

- “Latinos in the Heartland: Living in a Plural Community”
  **Presenter:** Tim Borich, Program Director, Extension and Outreach Community and Economic Development; Associate Dean, College of Design, Iowa State University

**3:30 – 5:00 PM**

Breakout Sessions III (Concurrent)

**Breakout 1:** Discussion of the Plenary – Entrepreneurship and Economic Development

**Breakout 2:** Education Workshop
  How to Involve Minorities in Programming
  Himar Hernández, Iowa State University
  José Amaya, Iowa State University
Breakout 3: *Education Research Panel*

**New Findings in Education**

- “A Dream Deferred? Advancement Rates of Latino Assistant Principals into the Principalship”
  Emily Crawford, University of Missouri
  Ed Fuller, Penn State University

- “Understanding the Role of University Context on Academic Performance of Mexican American Undergraduate Males”
  Marvyn Arévalo Ávalos, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Lisa Y. Flores, University of Missouri – Columbia

*The following presentation has been moved to Thursday’s morning Plenary Session (8:30 AM):*

- “The Academic Adaptation of Children of Immigrants in New and Traditional Settlement States: The Role of Family, Schools, and Neighborhoods”
  Stephanie Potochnick, University of Missouri

Breakout 4: *Health Research Panel*

**Focus on Mental Health and Aging**

- “Immigration and Trauma: Coping and Resiliency Amongst Latina/o Immigrants”
  Danielle Quintero, University of Missouri
  Oscar F. Rojas Pérez, University of California, Irvine

- “Human Side of Immigration”
  Pilar Horner, Michigan State University
  Laura Sanders, Washtenaw Interfaith Coalition for Immigrant Rights
  Ramiro Martínez, Washtenaw Interfaith Coalition for Immigrant Rights
  Jorge Delva, University of Michigan

- “Exploring Successful Aging among Foreign-born Latinos in the Context of Other Immigrant Groups in Saint Louis, Missouri”
  Jennifer Hale-Gallardo, Saint Louis University
  Hisako Matsuo, Saint Louis University
  Lisa Willoughby, Saint Louis University

- “Dimensions of Acculturative Stress and Mexican American Emerging Adults’ Prosocial Behaviors”
  Alexandra N. Davis, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Gustavo Carlo, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Cara Streit, University of Missouri – Columbia

Breakout 5: *Entrepreneurial Research Panel*

**Latino Entrepreneurs, Capitals, and Businesses: Experiences from the Midwest**

- “Start-Up Experiences of Latino/a Business Owners in Lansing and Saginaw, Michigan”
  Rubén Martínez, Michigan State University
  Roger Calantone, Michigan State University
  William Escalante, Michigan State University

- “Latino Entrepreneurship in Three New Settlement Communities in the Midwest: A Comparative Study”
  Corinne Valdivia, University of Missouri – Columbia
  María Figueroa-Armijos, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Katherine Higgins, University of Missouri – Columbia
“Latino Social Innovators and Economic Entrepreneurs in Four Rural Communities of Iowa: Comparisons using a Capitals Framework”
Jan L. Flora, Iowa State University
Saúl Abarca Orozco, Iowa State University
Diego Thompson, Iowa State University

Breakout 6: Extension Panel

New Methods of Involving Agents and Newcomers

• “Cultural Competency for Working in Agricultural and Extension Education”
  María G. (Lupita) Fabregas Janeiro, Oklahoma State University

• “Building Community with a Certified Kitchen, Farmers Market and a Community Garden. The Sprouts and Roots Program at Lincoln University”
  Nadia Navarrete-Tindall, Lincoln University of Missouri
  Yvonne Matthews, Lincoln University of Missouri
  Mara Aruguete, Lincoln University of Missouri

Day 3 – Friday, June 14, 2013

8:30 – 9:30 AM

Plenary Session 5: Health Research and Policy Panel

“Missouri Trends in Hispanic Health Disparities In the Last Decade”
Presenter: Ryan Barker, Vice President of Health Policy, Missouri Foundation for Health, St. Louis

“Salud de Nuestra Población: A Mixed Methods Strengths and Needs Assessment”
Presenter: Katherine Mathews, MD, MPH, MBA. Director of the Research Division, Department of Obstetrics, Gynecology, and Women’s Health, Saint Louis University; Special Projects Consultant, Casa de Salud, St. Louis

9:45 – 11:00 AM

Breakout Sessions IV (Concurrent)

Breakout 1: Discussion of the Plenary – Health

Breakout 2: Health Workshop

Getting Latinos Covered: The Health Insurance Marketplace
Nancy Ríos, Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services

Breakout 3: Change and Integration; Civil Rights

Analyzing our identity; comparing immigrant detention

• “Mexican Immigrant Women, Identity, Body Image, and the Images of the Virgin of Guadalupe and La Malinche”
  Joanna Méndez, Hand in Hand Multicultural Center
  Judith González, The School of Professional Psychology at Forest Institute

• “Who am I?: An Autoethnographic Analysis of the Negotiation of Mexican American Identity”
  Stephen Christ, University of Missouri – Columbia
• “Detention by Any Other Name: a Comparative Analysis of the Detention Processes in place to Deal with Immigrants in the Heartlands of the Russian Federation and the United States: Lessons learned from Field Visit 1”
  Ricardo Diaz, UC Immigration Forum

**Breakout 4: Health Research Panel**

*Providing Newcomers with Health Services*

• “Creating a Culturally Sensitive Intake Template for Latino/a Populations”
  Sonia Dhaliwal, University of Missouri – Columbia

• “Caring for Newcomer Patients: Provider Perspectives”
  Shannon Canfield, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri
  Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri
  Karen Edison, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri
  Ioana Staiculescu, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri
  Stan Hudson, Center for Health Policy, University of Missouri

**Breakout 5: Change and Integration Research Panel**

*Settling in the Heartland: Isolation, Acculturation, Bridging Spaces*

• “Mobility and English Language Acquisition: Latino Immigrant Adjustment in the Great Plains”
  Sarah Hendricks, University of Tennessee

• “Measures of Subjective Wellbeing, Acculturation Strategies, Networks, and Perceptions of the Context of Reception of Latino and Latina Newcomers in Rural Communities of the Midwest”
  Corinne Valdivia, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Lisa Y. Flores, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Alejandro Morales, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Domingo Martinez, University of Missouri – Columbia

• “Where Does Integration Take Place? A View of Those Places that Facilitate and Discourage Community Integration Using Photovoice”
  Stephen Jeanetta, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Corinne Valdivia, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Alejandro Morales, University of Missouri – Columbia
  Lisa Y. Flores, University of Missouri – Columbia

**11 am – Noon**

*Closing Plenary Session*

*Noon: Conference Adjourns*
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