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**The Role of Ethnic-Racial and National Identities on U.S. Latino Adolescents' Global
Identity Coherence and Adjustment**

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Abstract

Objectives: Ethnic-racial minoritized adolescents are tasked with concurrently developing and balancing their ethnic-racial and national identities. The current study investigated the extent to which these two social identities were simultaneously associated with U.S. Latino adolescents' psychological adjustment via their associations with global identity coherence. **Method:** This cross-sectional study included 370 self-identified Latino middle-to-late adolescents ($M_{age} = 16.14$ years; $SD = 1.12$; range 14–18; 52.8% female; 96.2% U.S.-born; 50% had at least one foreign-born parent) who completed paper surveys in class. Structural equation path analyses with bias-corrected bootstrapping were conducted to test a theoretical mediational model of identity and adjustment. **Results:** Findings indicated that each social identity component explained significant variance in adolescent psychological adjustment (i.e., lower depressive symptoms; higher life satisfaction and self-esteem) via its unique association with identity coherence (i.e., synthesis and confusion). Results generalized across adolescent gender but were qualified by family immigrant status (i.e., having no foreign-born parent vs. having at least one foreign-born parent). Additionally, there was no support for an alternate model with the order of predictors and mediators reversed. **Conclusions:** This study highlights the importance of multifaceted, multicomponent social identity development and exemplifies ways in which social position factors may set adolescents onto different developmental pathways.

Keywords: Ethnic-racial identity; national identity; global identity coherence; adolescents; adjustment

Public Significance

Developing a clear understanding and positive feelings about one's heritage or ethnic-racial background and having a sense of connection to the country in which one resides may foster adolescent psychological adjustment by promoting a cohesive general sense of self. It is

important, therefore, to support ethnic-racial minoritized adolescents' efforts to learn about their heritage background and simultaneously consider their sense of belonging to the nation in which they reside, as these youth are increasingly tasked with developing identities and competencies to successfully manage demands associated with these group memberships in multicultural societies across the world.

The Role of Ethnic-Racial and National Identities on U.S. Latino Adolescents' Global Identity Coherence and Adjustment

Consistent with notions of general identity formation (Erikson 1968), developing a global, general sense of identity comprises searching for and attaining some clarity relative to the many domains of one's identity. Thus, identity formation is a normative developmental task involving the integration of one's identity across multiple domains, including one's social identities (Erikson, 1968). Developing a clear, cohesive sense of self (i.e., global identity coherence) promotes youth psychosocial adjustment (Phinney et al., 1997; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014b). For ethnic-racial minoritized youth, identity formation involves efforts to integrate into their global, general sense of identity ("global identity" hereafter) their social identities that are derived from their ethnic-racial group memberships (i.e., ethnic-racial identity), and their connection to the country in which they reside (i.e., national identity; Jugert et al., 2020; Knight et al., 2018). Furthermore, developing an ethnic-racial identity (ERI) and a national identity has been positively associated with psychosocial adjustment (Cheon et al., 2020; Meca et al., 2017). However, the extent to which these two social identities simultaneously inform youths' global identity coherence and, in turn, youths' psychosocial adjustment is unclear. Consistent with recent calls to explore the links between these two social identities and global identity (Crocetti et al., 2018; Schwartz et al., 2013), the current study investigated the associations between adolescents' ethnic-racial and national identities with global identity coherence and adjustment among U.S. Latino adolescents who varied in family immigrant status.

ERI, Global Identity Coherence, and Adjustment

ERI has been conceptualized as a multidimensional, psychological construct that reflects one's beliefs and attitudes regarding one's membership in a specific ethnic-racial group, and the

processes through which those are formed (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014b). This conceptualization primarily stems from Erikson's conceptual notions (1968) postulating that individuals need to examine themselves and be able to synthesize who they used to be, currently are, and hope to become. The current study focused on the *content* and *process* of developing one's ERI. Particularly, *ERI affirmation*, or the affect associated with one's ethnic-racial group membership captured content. In contrast, *ERI exploration* and *resolution* captured the developmental processes of seeking information to learn more about one's background and gaining a sense of clarity regarding the meaning and significance one attaches to membership in a particular ethnic-racial group, respectively (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2004, 2014b). Together, ERI exploration and resolution inform one's ERI achievement, which has been described as the result of seeking information and attaining clarity vis-à-vis one's ERI (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2004). Notably, ERI resolution achieved via ERI exploration reflects a profound understanding regarding one's ethnic-racial background because it emerges from one's own search and examination, rather than as a function of something provided by others and accepted without questioning (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018). A secure or achieved ERI, therefore, is most likely to emerge when one's sense of clarity is actively developed rather than passively attained by blindly adopting others' views (Phinney, 2003; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014b).

Prior work has documented that ERI content and process are significant correlates of adolescent adjustment (Rivas-Drake et al., 2014). First, ERI affirmation has been negatively linked to depressive symptoms among U.S. Latino adolescents accounting for gender and immigrant generation status (i.e., first-generation vs. second-generation; Cross et al., 2018). A consistent negative association has also been documented for ERI developmental processes and depressive symptoms among U.S. Latino female and male adolescents from first and second

immigrant generation; Umaña-Taylor & Updegraff, 2007) and in a U.S. ethno-racially diverse youth sample controlling for gender and ethnic-racial minoritized status (i.e., White vs. non-White; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018). Further, ERI affirmation (see Romero & Roberts, 2003; Rivas-Drake et al., 2014) and ERI developmental processes (see Umaña-Taylor & Updegraff, 2007; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2008) have each been positively associated with self-esteem among U.S. Latino adolescents. Additionally, prior work using a composite of subscales assessing content and process has found higher ERI to be associated with better psychological well-being among U.S. Latino adolescents (Roberts et al., 1999). These studies considered the role of social position (i.e., gender, ethnic-racial minoritized status, ethnic-racial group, language use, and immigrant generation) on Latino youth adjustment by including these indicators as covariates. Notably, only one study examined whether the links of ERI process and content with psychological well-being were consistent across social position factors, namely gender and immigrant generation, and documented a consistent association across female and male adolescents and first- and second-generation immigrant youth (Umaña-Taylor & Updegraff, 2007). These findings highlight the need to investigate the role of social position factors on these associations.

Importantly, Erikson (1968) postulated that identity formation involves one's overall feeling of synthesis, clarity, and purpose with one's self or the balance between synthesis and confusion across identity domains (e.g., ethnic-racial, national), which we refer to as *global identity coherence*. *Synthesis* reflects the integration of various aspects of one's sense of self, whereas *confusion* refers to the lack of clarity regarding different parts of one's self-definition. Achieving greater global identity synthesis and lower confusion, or developing a clear, integrated sense of self has been theorized to promote youth psychosocial adjustment (Phinney et al., 1997;

Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014b). Thus, global identity coherence may play an important role in explaining the positive links between ERI and adjustment (Syed et al., 2013; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018). Specifically, ERI development may contribute to adolescent adjustment by promoting global identity synthesis and undermining confusion (i.e., a more developed ERI would be associated with greater global identity coherence).

By actively seeking information and participating in activities to learn about their ethnic-racial background (i.e., ERI exploration), adolescents achieve a confident, clear sense of the role that their ERI plays in how they define themselves (i.e., ERI resolution; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014a). It is likely, therefore, that adolescents who have explored and attained a clear, confident sense of their ERI may also have more psychological resources (Fuller-Rowell et al., 2013) that enable them to explore and clarify the meanings associated with other identity domains; hence, achieving greater global identity synthesis and lower confusion. Moreover, formulating positive feelings about one's ERI (i.e., ERI affirmation; Phinney et al., 1997) has been associated with the affective capacity for resolving conflicts between identity domains (Huynh et al., 2011); thus, a more positive affect regarding one's ERI likely contributes to greater confidence and understanding of one's self by facilitating global identity coherence. Hence, both ERI process and content may inform adolescents' understanding of how their ERI plays a role in their general sense of self. We posit that adolescents' greater engagement in ERI development and positive feelings about their ERI can promote integration of their global identity and, conversely, reduce overall feelings of confusion by promoting greater understanding of how their ERI fits within their global identity. We theorize, therefore, that ERI content and process promote adolescent psychological adjustment (i.e., lower depressive symptoms; higher self-esteem and life

satisfaction) because they contribute to a greater sense of synthesis and clarity about oneself (Syed et al., 2013; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018).

National Identity, Global Identity Coherence, and Adjustment

Drawing from the literature on ERI, national identity has been conceptualized as a multidimensional, psychological construct that reflects one's beliefs and attitudes regarding membership in their country of residence, and the processes through which those are formed (Jugert et al., 2020; Phinney & Devich-Navarro, 1997). This conceptualization relies on Erikson's theoretical notions (1968) and on social identity theory postulating that one's sense of group membership contributes to one's global identity formation (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The current study focused on the *content* of one's national identity. Specifically, *American identity belonging*, or the extent to which one feels American and part of the U.S. (Phinney & Devich-Navarro, 1997). Given the ethno-racial diversity of the U.S., a connection to the nation may be especially important for adolescent adjustment, regardless of ethnic-racial background. However, because the term "American" is often associated with being ethno-racially White (Devos & Banaji, 2005; Rodriguez et al., 2010), further work is needed to understand the links between sense of belonging and adjustment among minoritized youth, including Latino youth, who are questioned or denied an American identity.

Although national identity (i.e., American identity) has received less empirical attention than ERI (Meca et al., 2020; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2020), emerging work supports the promoting influence of national American identity (NAI) content on adjustment. For instance, NAI content was negatively associated with depressive symptoms among Latino college students with diverse immigrant generation status (Meca et al., 2020). Additionally, NAI belonging was positively associated with self-esteem in an ethno-racially diverse youth sample, and findings were

consistent across youth from first, second, and third immigrant generation accounting for gender (Santos et al., 2013). Further, prior work using a composite of subscales assessing content and process has also found higher NAI to be associated with higher optimism via higher global identity synthesis among first-generation U.S. Latino adolescents accounting for gender (Meca et al., 2017).

Developing a sense of belonging to the U.S. reflects youths' connection to the country and the degree to which they perceive their ethnic-racial group to be a part of the U.S. culture (Phinney et al., 1997). NAI belonging may promote youths' understanding of how their national group membership plays a role in their general sense of self by promoting integration and clarity about how their NAI fits within their global identity. Further, feelings of belonging to the U.S. may promote greater synthesis and less confusion by enabling Latino youth to integrate their NAI more easily with other identity domains. Thus, similar to ERI, we expect that NAI belonging will promote psychological adjustment through its links with global identity synthesis and confusion.

Simultaneous Examination of ERI and NAI

Ethnic-racial minoritized adolescents, and Latino youth in particular, are tasked with concurrently developing and navigating their ethnic-racial and national identities (Knight et al., 2018; Meca et al., 2017). ERI and NAI development takes place simultaneously (Cheon et al., 2020; Gartner et al., 2014). For instance, youth may search for the meaning of their ethnic-racial group membership in relation to their national American group membership and explore the degree to which their ERI informs their NAI and vice versa. Notably, the process of identity formation involves a sense of balance between identity synthesis and confusion across multiple identity domains (Erikson, 1968). Further, the importance of ERI and national identity

development is theorized to arise, in part, from one's basic need for identity coherence (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018, 2020). It is likely, therefore, that as youth form their ethnic-racial and national identities, they negotiate how to integrate them within other identity domains (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018). Indeed, prior work using a composite of subscales assessing content and process documents that increases in ERI and NAI were associated with increases in global identity synthesis among first-generation U.S. Latino adolescents accounting for gender (Meca et al., 2017). It is important, therefore, to investigate these two social identities simultaneously because the formation, and possibly the integration, of youths' ERI and NAI may lead to a clearer and more synthesized general sense of self and, in turn, promote their psychological adjustment. Furthermore, their simultaneous examination more accurately reflects Latino youths' lived experiences in which they are concurrently a member of an ethnic-racial minoritized group and a member of U.S. American society – social identities that they may need to regularly balance (Safa et al., 2019, 2020).

Variability by Social Position Factors: Family Immigrant Status and Youth Gender

Family immigrant status (i.e., having at least one parent born outside of the U.S.) and gender are key social position factors that can inform daily activities and set youth onto different developmental pathways (García Coll et al., 1996; Stein et al., 2016). Specifically, such factors may influence the affordances and demands youth encounter, and thereby the benefits and costs associated with a given developmental competence (e.g., ERI; White et al., 2018). Thus, it follows that these factors may inform the links among ERI and NAI components, global identity coherence, and psychological adjustment. Immigrant generation and gender have been some of the most commonly studied social position factors in ERI research among Latinos but have yet to be studied consistently enough to allow for any conclusions (Rivas-Drake et al., 2014).

Furthermore, research on the influence of these factors on the links among NAI, global identity coherence, and psychological adjustment is limited.

Importantly, youth in immigrant families, in particular, need to explore and resolve who they are in relation to the diverse and often conflicting attitudes, values, and practices of their ethnic-racial and national contexts (García Coll & Marks, 2009; Motti-Stefanidi et al., 2012). U.S. Latino youth developing in families with immigrant parents, who have a closer generational connection to their Latino roots due to their family's relatively more recent immigration, experience different affordances and demands that inform the salience of their ethnic-racial and national identities. For instance, they may benefit from simultaneous exposure to the ethnic-racial culture at home and the national culture at school. They may also, however, experience unique demands such as needing to serve as language brokers or to teach national social norms to their parents (Portes & Rumbaut, 2001). In addition, they may have to grapple with societal messages suggesting that they are not considered to be full or real "American" (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2018). Thus, it is likely that achieving a clear and more positive sense of their ethnic-racial background and simultaneously developing a sense of belonging to the U.S. contribute more strongly to their overall sense of self (i.e., higher global identity synthesis and lower confusion) compared to youths in non-immigrant families. As such, the current study will examine variability by family immigrant status.

Gender differences have been infrequently observed in ERI research as demonstrated by the lack of differences documented in two meta-analyses (Rivas-Drake et al., 2014; Smith & Silva, 2011). Similarly, no consistent differences have been documented in the emerging NAI research. Despite these findings, it is important to consider gender as an influential social position factor informing youth ethnic-racial and national identities. Thus, consistent with prior

recommendations to avoid gender analytic bias in the psychological sciences, the current study will examine if findings are consistent across males and females.

The Current Study

This study investigated the extent to which different components of adolescents' ERI and NAI inform their global identity coherence and, in turn, their psychological adjustment among U.S. Latino middle-to-late adolescents with diverse family immigrant status (i.e., having no foreign-born parent vs. having at least one foreign-born parent; "immigrant status" hereafter; see Figure 1). Given the importance of achieving a clear, cohesive sense of self, we focused on global identity synthesis and confusion as mediating mechanisms. Hypothesis 1 postulated that higher ERI achievement, ERI affirmation, and NAI belonging would be associated with higher global identity synthesis and lower confusion, which in turn would be associated with lower depressive symptoms and higher life satisfaction and self-esteem. Hypothesis 2 postulated that the associations of ERI and NAI components with global identity synthesis and confusion and, in turn, with psychological adjustment would be stronger for youths from immigrant families compared to youths from non-immigrant families. Further, we examined whether findings generalized equally to males and females.

Method

Data were from a cross-sectional study conducted in 2013 of 1,552 adolescents in a U.S. southwestern high school. The school had a Title I classification, and 17% of students were eligible for free or reduced lunch (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2019). The ethnic-racial demographics of the student body (45% White, 24% Latino/Hispanic, 21% Black, 4% Asian, 3% Native American, 3% other) were consistent with the U.S. student population (52% White, 23% Latino/Hispanic, 16% Black, 5% Asian/Pacific Islander, 2% other; [NCES],

2013). The current study included students who self-identified as Latino/Hispanic ($n = 370$; $M_{age} = 16.14$ years; $SD = 1.12$; range 14–18). All participants reported gender as binary with 52.8% identifying as female. Consistent with the U.S. Latino student population (Pew Research Center [PRC], 2017), most study participants (96%) were U.S.-born. Youth immigrant generation status was as follows: 6.8% first-generation, 43.2% second-generation, 24.3% third-generation, 24.3% fourth-generation and beyond, and 1.4% did not provide relevant information. Importantly, half (50%) lived in an immigrant family or had at least one immigrant or foreign-born parent. Most foreign-born youth (80%) were Mexico-born. Further, 24.9%, 25.7%, 33%, and 16.5% of participants were in the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grades, respectively. Regarding parents' educational attainment, participants indicated that 31-32% had at least a high school education or equivalent, 39-48% had some education beyond high school, and 21-29% had less than a high school degree. These statistics are consistent with U.S. Latino adults' educational attainment (28% high school, 39% beyond high school, and 33% less than high school; NCES, 2019).

Data were collected via self-administered paper surveys. All enrolled students were eligible to participate and were provided with printed parental consent forms and student assent forms. Of all students, 78% returned signed parental consent forms and student assent forms, and 69% completed the survey. Survey administration took place during class time and lasted approximately one hour. Participants completed the survey in English and were compensated with a pair of sunglasses. All procedures were approved by the university Institutional Review Board.

Measures

ERI Achievement and Affirmation

Adolescents' ERI achievement was assessed using the exploration (7 items; "I have participated in activities that have exposed me to my ethnicity") and resolution (4 items; "I am clear about what my ethnicity means to me") subscales of the Ethnic Identity Scale (EIS; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2004). Responses ranged from 1 (*does not describe me at all*) to 4 (*describes me very well*). Consistent with our theoretical model (Erikson 1968) and prior work (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014a), a mean composite score across subscales was created. Higher scores indicated greater ERI achievement. The affirmation subscale (6 items; "I feel negatively about my ethnicity") was used to assess adolescents' affect regarding their ERI. Responses ranged from 1 (*does not describe me at all*) to 4 (*describes me very well*). Items were reverse-coded, and a mean score was computed with higher scores indicating higher affirmation (see Table 1 for all reliability coefficients by immigrant status group). Previous work supported the subscales' factor structure, construct validity, and reliability with Latino adolescents (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2008).

NAI Belonging

Adolescents' sense of belonging in the U.S. was assessed using the American Identity Questionnaire (7 items; "I think of myself as being American;" Phinney & Devich-Navarro, 1997). Responses ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A mean score was calculated with higher scores indicating stronger belonging. Previous work supported the scale's construct validity and reliability with Latino adolescents (Santos et al., 2013).

Global Identity Synthesis and Confusion

Adolescents' global identity coherence was assessed with a modified version of the Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (Rosenthal et al., 1981) including two subscales: synthesis (e.g., "I've got a clear idea of what I want to be") and confusion (e.g., "I don't really know who I

am”). Although the original scale contains 12 items, we omitted one item (i.e., “I work hard to keep up a certain image when I’m with people”) due to previous work suggesting it did not fit the examined factor structure (Schwartz et al., 2009). Responses ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A mean score was calculated for each subscale, with higher scores indicating greater synthesis and confusion. Previous work supported the subscales’ factor structure, construct validity, and reliability with Latino adolescents (Meca et al., 2017).

Depressive Symptoms

Adolescents’ experiences of depressive symptoms were assessed using the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (20-items; “I was bothered by things that don’t usually bother me;” Radloff, 1977). Responses ranged from 0 (*rarely or none of the time*) to 3 (*most of the time*). A sum score was calculated, with higher scores indicating more symptoms. Prior work supported the scale’s construct validity and reliability with Latino adolescents (Umaña-Taylor & Updegraff, 2007).

Life Satisfaction

Adolescents’ overall satisfaction with life was assessed using the Satisfaction with Life Scale (5-items; “I am satisfied with my life;” Diener et al., 1985). Responses ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A mean score was computed, with higher scores indicating higher satisfaction. Previous work supported the scale’s construct validity and reliability with Latino youth (Syed et al., 2013).

Self-Esteem

Adolescents’ self-esteem was assessed using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (10-items; “On the whole I am satisfied with myself;” Rosenberg, 1979). Responses ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A mean score was computed, with higher scores

indicating higher self-esteem. Previous work supported the scale's construct validity and reliability with Latino adolescents (Umaña-Taylor & Updegraff, 2007).

Demographics and Covariates

Adolescents self-reported their age and gender (0 = female; 1 = male). Additionally, they reported on their parents' country of birth and based on this information an immigrant status variable was calculated indicating if they had at least one immigrant parent (0 = no foreign-born parent; 1 = at least one foreign-born parent).

Analytic Strategy

First, descriptive statistics were examined. Next, path analyses investigating direct and indirect associations among ERI and NAI components, global identity coherence, and psychological adjustment were conducted in *Mplus* Version 8.1 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) and included age as a covariate. Missing data were handled using full information maximum likelihood (Arbuckle, 1996). Good model fit was determined by a non-significant chi-square test, comparative fit index (CFI) values greater than or equal to .95, and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) values less than or equal to .05 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). We used bias-corrected bootstrapping with 10,000 draws to obtain unbiased confidence intervals for the indirect effects (MacKinnon et al., 2004). We conducted multi-group analyses to assess whether associations of interest varied by immigrant status or gender. Specifically, a fully unconstrained model was compared to a constrained model using a chi-square difference test. A non-significant chi-square suggested invariance. If there was misfit, we sequentially constrained individual paths for each hypothesized association to determine which constraint contributed to misfit (MacKinnon, 2008). Further, we conducted sensitivity analyses to explore the robustness of findings. First, we tested whether results

generalized across early (up to 15 years) versus late (16 years and above) adolescents.

Additionally, we tested an alternate model in which we reversed the order of the predictors and mediators. Consistent with our main analytical approach, we also tested whether findings from the alternate model were qualified by immigrant status or gender.

Results

Correlations and descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1. Our initially estimated path model was a just-identified model. Because the correlations of NAI belonging with ERI achievement and affirmation were not significant across immigrant status groups, they were set equal to zero to overidentify the model enabling the assessment of model fit. A chi-square difference test indicated no difference between the more parsimonious (i.e., constrained correlations) and the initial models [$\Delta\chi^2(2) = .99, p = .607$]. Therefore, we proceeded with the more parsimonious model indicating good fit, $\chi^2(2) = .10, p = .607$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00, 90% CI [.00, .08]; SRMR = .01.

Next, multi-group analyses with gender (i.e., male vs. female) as the grouping variable indicated that the estimated paths among adolescents' ERI and NAI components, global, identity coherence, and indicators of adjustment did not differ [$\Delta\chi^2(21) = 24.75, p = .258$]. Conversely, multi-group analyses with immigrant status as the grouping variable (i.e., adolescents who had at least one vs. no foreign-born parent) indicated that the estimated paths differed [$\Delta\chi^2(21) = 40.71, p = .006$]. Follow-up analyses in which each path was sequentially constrained revealed some differences between adolescents in immigrant versus non-immigrant families (see Table 2). Based on these findings, we included gender as a covariate and let four paths vary by immigrant status. Model fit was good for the final, partially constrained model (see Figure 2), $\chi^2(21) = 15.48, p = .798$; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00, 90% CI [.00, .04]; SRMR = .04.

Estimates for direct associations are presented in Figure 2 and Table 3. Mediation tests (see Table 4) revealed that, for adolescents in immigrant families, higher ERI achievement and NAI belonging were each associated with higher global identity synthesis and lower confusion, which in turn were associated with better psychological adjustment (i.e., lower depressive symptoms; higher life satisfaction and self-esteem). Further, higher ERI affirmation was indirectly associated with better psychological adjustment via lower global identity confusion. The indirect effect between ERI affirmation and depressive symptoms demonstrated only partial mediation; thus, a negative direct effect remained after accounting for the negative indirect effect via global identity confusion. For adolescents in non-immigrant families, higher ERI achievement was associated with higher global identity synthesis and lower confusion and that, in turn, was associated with better psychological adjustment. Further, higher NAI belonging was indirectly associated with better psychological adjustment via lower global identity confusion. The indirect effect between NAI belonging and life satisfaction demonstrated only partial mediation; thus, a positive direct effect remained after accounting for the positive indirect effect via global identity confusion.

Sensitivity analyses in which age and immigrant status together (i.e., early-adolescents in immigrant families, early-adolescents in non-immigrant families, late-adolescents in immigrant families, and late-adolescents in non-immigrant families) were specified as the grouping variable indicated that the estimated paths among adolescents' ERI and NAI components, global identity coherence, and indicators of adjustment did not differ across groups [$\Delta\chi^2(63) = 76.30, p = .121$]. Further, analyses testing an alternate model in which we reversed the order of the predictors and mediators shed light on the robustness of the findings described above. Consistent with findings from the hypothesized model, paths in the alternate model did not differ by gender [$\Delta\chi^2(21) =$

21.15, $p = .450$] but varied by family immigrant status [$\Delta\chi^2(21) = 33.24, p = .044$]. Findings revealed differences between adolescents in immigrant versus non-immigrant families in the associations between global identity confusion and ERI achievement [$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.29, p = .038$]; global identity synthesis and NAI belonging [$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 5.52, p = .019$]; global identity confusion and depressive symptoms [$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 5.23, p = .022$]; and NAI belonging and life satisfaction [$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 9.27, p = .002$]. Based on these findings, we included gender as a covariate and let these four paths vary by immigrant status. Model fit was good for the final, partially constrained alternate model (Figure 3), $\chi^2(23) = 37.57, p = .028$; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .06, 90% CI [.02, .10]; SRMR = .04. Estimates for path a (i.e., predictors to mediators) and path b (i.e., mediators to outcomes) are presented in Figure 3, most of these associations were not significant for adolescents in immigrant and non-immigrant families. Additionally, none of the indirect effects were significant (Table 5). In comparison to the hypothesized model, which included 47 significant paths across constructs of interest, the alternate model only included 20 significant paths. These findings offer no support for an alternate process in which U.S. Latino adolescents' global identity coherence is linked with their psychological adjustment via ERI and NAI components. A negative association emerged between global identity confusion and ERI affirmation, and between ERI affirmation and depressive symptoms; ERI affirmation did not significantly mediate the association between global identity confusion and depressive symptoms (Figure 3; Table 5).

Discussion

Ethnic-racial minoritized adolescents are tasked with concurrently developing and balancing their ethnic-racial and national identities (Knight et al., 2018; Meca et al., 2017). The current study bridges important gaps in adolescent identity formation scholarship by exploring the extent to which these two social identities were simultaneously associated with U.S. Latino

middle-to-late adolescents' global identity coherence and their psychological adjustment.

Adolescence is an important time to examine these associations given that identity formation is a salient developmental task of this period (Erikson, 1968) and because advanced cognitive abilities during these years support adolescents' greater understanding of affordances and demands associated with different social identities (Arnett, 2014). Consistent with the mediational model advanced herein, findings suggest that ERI and NAI components simultaneously contribute to adolescent psychological adjustment via their links with adolescents' sense of identity coherence. Specifically, ERI achievement and NAI belonging were each positively associated with adjustment via greater global identity synthesis and lower confusion. Further, higher ERI affirmation was related to better adjustment via attenuated global identity confusion. Additionally, the positive links between ERI and NAI components with adjustment generalized across adolescent gender but were qualified by immigrant status. This study highlights the importance of multifaceted, multicomponent social identity development – emerging from one's ethnic-racial background and country of residence – for adolescent adjustment. Further, it exemplifies ways in which social position factors (e.g., immigrant status) may set adolescents onto different developmental pathways.

Social Identities, Global Identity Coherence, and Adjustment

Taken together, our findings illustrate ways in which adolescents navigate multiple social identities (Knight et al., 2018; Meca et al., 2017). ERI and national identity are theorized to arise, in part, from one's basic need for identity coherence (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018, 2020).

Consistent with developmental theory postulating that identity formation involves a sense of balance between identity synthesis and confusion across multiple identity domains (Erikson, 1968), we found that both social identities informed adolescent psychological adjustment by

supporting an overall sense of identity coherence. Although our findings were qualified by immigrant status, both ERI and NAI were positively associated with adolescents' sense of global identity coherence and, in turn, with higher psychological adjustment across adolescents from immigrant and non-immigrant families. These findings are consistent with prior work positively linking the content and process of ERI and NAI (i.e., composite scores for each social identity) with global identity synthesis among first-generation U.S. Latino adolescents (Meca et al., 2017) and linking ERI resolution with global identity coherence in a U.S. ethno-racially diverse youth sample (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018). Our findings extend prior work by demonstrating the simultaneous yet unique contribution of different components of ERI and NAI to global identity synthesis and confusion and, in turn, psychological adjustment among U.S. middle-to late Latino adolescents with diverse immigrant status.

Social Identity Process

Hypothesis 1 was informed by developmental theory highlighting the importance of achieving a clear, cohesive sense of self (Erikson, 1968). Consistent with Hypothesis 1, higher ERI achievement was associated with higher global identity coherence (i.e., higher synthesis and lower confusion), which in turn was associated with better psychological adjustment. Contrary to Hypothesis 2, however, the strength of the association between ERI achievement and adjustment via global identity coherence did not differ by immigrant status.

Although based on a cross-sectional sample, our findings align with developmental scholarship underscoring the significance of adolescents' engagement in identity work vis-à-vis their ethnic-racial background for their psychological adjustment (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018). By actively exploring their ERI, youth may attain a degree of resolution about the meaning associated with this social identity. It is likely, therefore, that ERI achievement contributes to

global identity coherence by freeing psychological resources (Fuller-Rowell et al., 2013) that enable youth to explore and clarify the meaning associated with other identity domains, hence attaining greater global identity synthesis and lower confusion. These findings extend prior work focused on ERI process as a correlate of adjustment (e.g., Roberts et al., 1999; Umaña-Taylor & Updegraff, 2007) by elucidating the role of global identity synthesis and confusion as intervening mechanisms informing adolescent adjustment, as recently theorized (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018).

Notably, social position factors can inform daily activities and set youth onto different developmental pathways (García Coll et al., 1996; Stein et al., 2016). In addition to immigrant status, ethnic-racial minoritized status serves as an overarching social position factor for U.S. ethno-racially non-White youth, including Latino youth. Consistent with theoretical notions highlighting minoritized status itself as a social position factor, we found that the strength of the association between ERI achievement and adolescent adjustment via global identity coherence was comparable across youth regardless of immigrant status.

Social Identity Content

Hypothesis 1 was additionally informed by theoretical notions postulating that one's evaluation and sense of group membership have important implications for one's self-perceptions and development (Knight et al., 2018; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Consistent with Hypothesis 1, higher ERI affirmation was associated with lower global identity confusion, which in turn was associated with better psychological adjustment. Further, higher NAI belonging was associated with higher global identity coherence, which in turn was associated with better psychological adjustment. There was partial support for Hypothesis 2, as the positive links with adjustment of ERI affirmation via lower global identity confusion, and of NAI belonging via higher global identity synthesis, were only observed for adolescents in immigrant families. No

moderation by immigrant status was observed for the positive association between NAI belonging with adjustment via global identity confusion.

Our findings are consistent with scholarship highlighting the importance of formulating positive feelings and a sense of belonging towards one's social groups for adolescents' psychological adjustment (Knight et al., 2018; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Prior work has demonstrated that holding positive feelings about one's ERI is associated with the affective capacity for resolving conflicts between identity domains (Huynh et al., 2011). Additionally, as the term American is often associated with being ethno-racially White (Devos & Banaji, 2005; Rodriguez et al., 2010), developing a sense of belonging to the U.S. reflects adolescents' connection to the country and the degree to which they perceive their ethnic-racial group to be a part of the U.S. culture (Phinney et al., 1997). It is possible, therefore, that increased feelings of inclusion and connection to one's ethnic-racial group and country of residence enable adolescents to resolve conflicts between identity domains and easily integrate both social identities with other domains, thus promoting greater global identity coherence. These findings extend prior work focused on ERI content (e.g., Cross et al., 2018; Roberts et al., 1999) and NAI content (Meca et al., 2020; Santos et al., 2013) as correlates of adjustment by describing key intervening mechanisms promoting their benefits.

Importantly, the positive links with adjustment of ERI affirmation via lower global identity confusion and of NAI belonging via higher global identity synthesis only emerged for adolescents in immigrant families. These findings align with theoretical perspectives on immigrant families and youth development (Garcia Coll & Marks, 2009; Motti-Stefanidi et al., 2012), underscoring the importance of adolescents' efforts to integrate and balance feelings and

attitudes regarding who they are in relation to the diverse and often conflicting attitudes, values, and practices within their proximal immigrant family contexts and their distal societal contexts.

Taken as a whole, our findings indicate that multifaceted, multicomponent social identity development plays a role in adolescent overall sense of self and adjustment. It is likely that the simultaneous development of ERI and NAI influences the development of other identity domains (e.g., gender), and thus contributes to adolescent global identity formation (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2018). Erikson (1968) underscored that a sense of global identity coherence comprising one's past, present, and future identity domains is essential for developing a secure sense of self that promotes psychosocial adjustment. This study suggests that the ability to incorporate into one's sense of self, as evidenced by demonstrating higher global identity coherence, social identities that may involve, at times, competing meaning and demands can confer multiple psychological benefits for adolescents.

Constraints on Generality

This research illustrates ways in which adolescent adjustment is associated with multiple identity domains and social stratification mechanisms generally, and the extent to which multifaceted, multicomponent social identity development and social position factors are jointly linked to U.S. Latino adolescent adjustment specifically. Our sample reflects some aspects of the U.S. Latino youth population, such as the fact that U.S. Latino youth are predominantly (95%) U.S.-born (PRC, 2017); but this also means that the generalizability of our findings to *foreign-born* Latino youth is more limited. Although we examined immigrant *family* status as a key moderator, future work with a larger sample of foreign-born Latino youth is needed. The process for developing an ERI and a NAI, and the extent to which they are linked with adjustment, may be different for foreign-born youth who may need more time to recognize and understand the

manner in which ethnicity-race is a salient social construct in the U.S. (Schwartz et al., 2006). Foreign-born youth also may show greater hesitancy in identifying as “American” due to their nativity and their reception by the host country (Bacallo & Smokowski, 2009).

Relatedly, our sample was drawn from a large metropolitan area in the U.S. Southwest a context with a long history of Latino migration and an established Latino population. Such a context may offer youth additional affordances to develop their ethnic-racial identity (Umaña-Taylor & Bámaca, 2004) and to draw a sense of belonging to the U.S. (Safa et al., 2018). Our findings may generalize well to Latino youth in similar geographic contexts, but it will be important to examine whether findings replicate for youth growing up in more emerging immigrant destinations. Importantly, our data was collected when the first U.S. President of color had been reelected. A president who put issues of inequality and social injustices disproportionately affecting children and families of color at the forefront of the nation’s priorities. Yet the years that followed exposed deep-seated ethnic-racial tensions (Rivas-Drake & Umaña-Taylor, 2019), unprecedented ethnic-racial inequities in access to education (O’Brien et al., 2018), and increased xenophobia inside and outside of the U.S. (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2018). Given the current sociocultural context, it will be important for future research to examine whether youth’s content associated with American identity has changed and how those changes may relate to adjustment.

Future Directions

The current study had several strengths that should be considered in light of its limitations. First, we examined a theoretical model of identity and adjustment in a U.S. Latino adolescent sample, a growing segment of the population (Colby & Ortman, 2015). To shed light on the robustness of findings from this model, we tested an alternate model and found no

evidence supporting an association between global identity coherence and adjustment via ERI and NAI components for youth in immigrant and non-immigrant families. It is important to note that cross-sectional approaches to longitudinal mediation can over or underestimate longitudinal effects (Maxwell & Cole, 2007). Mediation analyses based on cross-sectional data, however, can shed light on longitudinal mediation processes when they are grounded in well-founded theories that describe the causal direction of the processes, and for which the interpretation of the cross-sectional measures is informative about the temporal process (Shrout 2011). Thus, our findings should be interpreted with caution as they only provide a snapshot of a theoretically informed process rather than information regarding its dynamic nature. Future work would benefit from longitudinal designs that could offer a more rigorous examination of these questions and explore potential bidirectional associations among the examined identity constructs and how this may inform youths' adjustment over time. Indeed, Meca and colleagues (2017) found bidirectional associations between ERI and NAI components and global identity synthesis (but not confusion) among first-generation U.S. Latino adolescents. It will be important to further examine links with adjustment and variability by nativity status. Last, we focused on an important NAI content component for U.S. ethno-racially non-White youth, namely, NAI belonging. Future work, however, should focus on other NAI components including process components like resolution to examine whether both developing a sense of belonging and achieving clarity regarding one's national identity confer similar psychological benefits. Additionally, it will be important to examine the degree to which identity conflicts between ERI and NAI inform links with global identity coherence and adjustment. Finally, quantitative work is limited in elucidating how youth are making meaning of these identity domains. Given the complex, multifaceted nature of one's identity, future work should pursue mixed-method approaches to better understand the content of

youth's ethnic-racial and national identities and how they relate to one another and to youth's adjustment.

Conclusions

This research elucidates mechanisms by which the simultaneous development of adolescents' ethnic-racial and national identities informs their psychological adjustment. Findings suggest that ERI and NAI components may foster adjustment by promoting a cohesive global identity and that social position factors qualify these associations. These findings capture ways in which multifaceted, multicomponent social identity development and social stratification jointly contribute to adolescent adjustment. Further, they underscore the importance of supporting adolescents' efforts to learn about their ERI and simultaneously consider their sense of belonging to the nation in which they reside. This knowledge is important as ethnic-racial minoritized youth are tasked with developing identities and competencies to successfully manage demands associated with these group memberships based on increasingly salient social identities.

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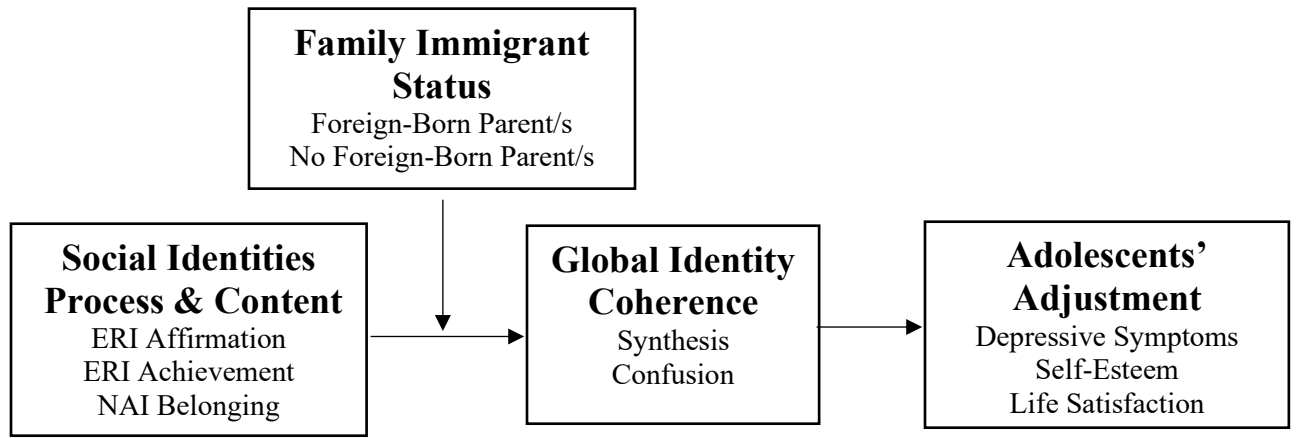
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Figure 1

Conceptual Model of the Implications of ERI and NAI for Adolescents' Adjustment via Global Identity Coherence by Family Immigrant Status



Note. ERI = ethnic-racial identity; NAI = National American identity.

Table 1
Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α
1. ERI Achievement	—	.30***	-.03	.40***	-.34***	-.24**	.22**	.38***	2.91	.60	.85
2. ERI Affirmation	.27***	—	.10	.26**	-.32***	-.34***	.18*	.34***	3.78	.35	.69
3. NAI Belonging	.09	.04	—	.33***	-.21**	-.23**	.11	.20**	3.45	.83	.92
4. Global Identity Synthesis	.24**	.11	.12	—	-.71***	-.55***	.54***	.66***	3.78	.68	.78
5. Global Identity Confusion	-.05	-.05	-.14	-.54***	—	.58***	-.49***	-.66***	2.74	.84	.77
6. Depressive Symptoms	-.12	-.20**	-.16*	-.51***	.69***	—	-.62***	-.71***	18.48	12.39	.92
7. Life Satisfaction	.10	.10	.22**	.53***	-.49***	-.59***	—	.66***	3.11	.89	.83
8. Self-Esteem	.15*	.11	.16*	.57***	-.68***	-.70***	.59***	—	3.60	.82	.92
<i>M</i>	2.82	3.74	3.76	3.86	2.77	20.23	3.07	3.47			
<i>SD</i>	.60	.49	.86	.70	.85	13.31	.93	.78			
α	.84	.84	.92	.79	.72	.93	.85	.88			

Note. ERI = ethnic-racial identity; NAI = National American identity. Statistics for adolescents in immigrant families ($n = 185$) are reported above the diagonal and statistics for adolescents in non-immigrant families ($n = 185$) are reported below the diagonal.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 2

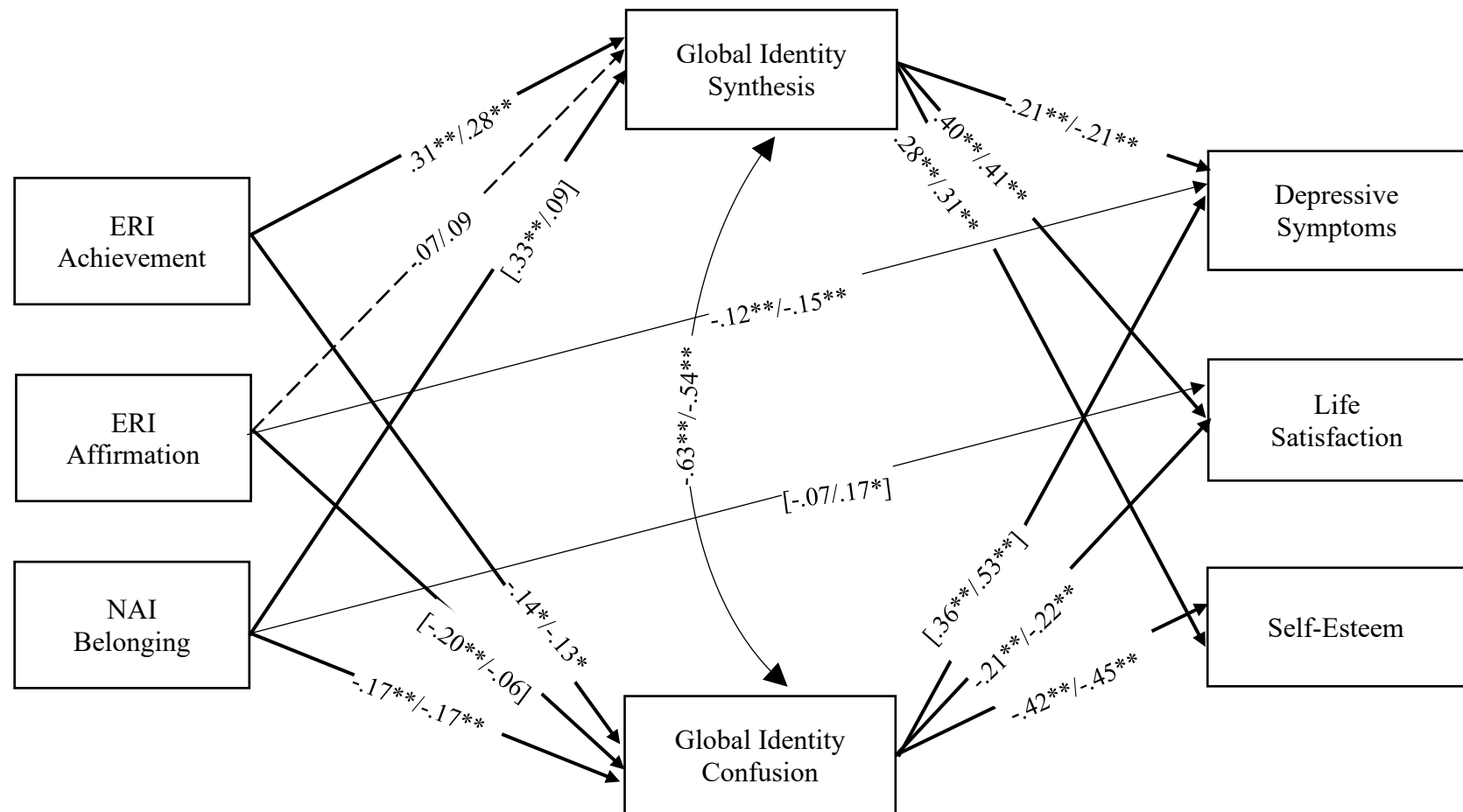
Model Comparisons Between Adolescents in Immigrant vs. Non-Immigrant Families (N = 370)

Model	Models Compared	Constraints	CFI	RMSEA	χ^2 (df)	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)	p	Constraint kept
0		Unconstrained	1.00	.01	4.06 (4)			
1	0 and 1	Fully Constrained	.98	.06	44.77 (25)	40.71 (21)	.006	No
2	0 and 2	ERI ACH → GI Synthesis	.99	.03	5.67 (5)	1.61 (1)	.204	Yes
3	2 and 3	ERI ACH → GI Confusion	.99	.05	8.72 (6)	3.04 (1)	.081	Yes
4	3 and 4	ERI AFF → GI Synthesis	.99	.05	10.39 (7)	1.67 (1)	.196	Yes
5	4 and 5	ERI AFF → GI Confusion	.99	.08	16.44 (8)	6.05 (1)	.014	No
6	4 and 6	NAI BEL → GI Synthesis	.99	.08	18.14 (8)	7.75 (1)	.005	No
7	4 and 7	NAI BEL → GI Confusion	.99	.04	11.06 (8)	0.67 (1)	.412	Yes
8	7 and 8	GI Synthesis → Depressive Sx	.99	.04	11.45 (9)	0.39 (1)	.530	Yes
9	8 and 9	GI Confusion → Depressive Sx	.99	.06	16.74 (10)	5.29 (1)	.021	No
10	8 and 10	GI Synthesis → Life Satisfaction	.99	.03	11.45 (10)	0.00 (1)	.999	Yes
11	10 and 11	GI Confusion → Life Satisfaction	.99	.02	11.63 (11)	0.18 (1)	.673	Yes
12	11 and 12	GI Synthesis → Self-Esteem	1.00	.01	12.19 (12)	0.56 (1)	.455	Yes
13	12 and 13	GI Confusion → Self-Esteem	1.00	.01	13.17 (13)	0.98 (1)	.322	Yes
14	13 and 14	ERI ACH → Depressive Sx	1.00	.00	13.26 (14)	0.09 (1)	.762	Yes
15	14 and 15	ERI ACH → Life Satisfaction	1.00	.00	13.38 (15)	0.12 (1)	.731	Yes
16	15 and 16	ERI ACH → Self-Esteem	1.00	.00	14.30 (16)	0.93 (1)	.336	Yes
17	16 and 17	ERI AFF → Depressive Sx	1.00	.00	14.49 (17)	0.18 (1)	.669	Yes
18	17 and 18	ERI AFF → Life Satisfaction	1.00	.00	14.66 (18)	0.17 (1)	.681	Yes
19	18 and 19	ERI AFF → Self-Esteem	1.00	.00	16.88 (19)	2.22 (1)	.136	Yes
20	19 and 20	NAI BEL → Depressive Sx	1.00	.00	16.90 (20)	0.02 (1)	.896	Yes
21	20 and 21	NAI BEL → Life Satisfaction	.99	.04	26.11 (21)	9.21 (1)	.002	No
22	20 and 22	NAI BEL → Self-Esteem	1.00	.00	17.21 (21)	0.31 (1)	.577	Yes

Note. ERI = ethnic-racial identity; NAI = national American identity; GI = global identity; ACH = achievement; AFF = affirmation; BEL = belonging; Sx = symptoms. Significant Chi-square difference tests are in boldface.

Figure 2

Hypothesized Model Examining Associations Between ERI and NAI with Adolescent Adjustment via Global Identity Synthesis and Confusion ($N = 370$)



Note. ERI = ethnic-racial identity; NAI = national American identity. Age and gender were included as covariates. ERI achievement and affirmation were allowed to correlate. Correlations between ERI components and NAI belonging were constrained to 0 to reduce model complexity. Standardized coefficients reported for immigrant/non-immigrant status. Estimates presented in brackets represent paths that were free to vary by immigrant status; all other estimates were constrained to be equal across groups. Significant mediation depicted with bold lines. Only significant c' paths shown for ease of presentation. Model fit: $\chi^2(21) = 15.48, p = .798$; CFI = 1; RMSEA = .00, 90% CI [.00, .04]; SRMR = .04. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 3
Summary of Direct Effect Coefficients

Direct effects	Immigrant Status		Non-Immigrant Status	
	β (SE)	p	β (SE)	p
<i>Path A</i>				
ERI ACH → GI Synthesis	.31 (.06)	< .001	.28 (.05)	< .001
ERI ACH → GI Confusion	-.14 (.06)	.012	-.13 (.05)	.010
ERI AFF → GI Synthesis	.07 (.04)	.129	.09 (.05)	.118
ERI AFF → GI Confusion	-.20 (.06)	< .001	-.06 (.06)	.258
NAI BEL → GI Synthesis	.33 (.07)	< .001	.09 (.07)	.242
NAI BEL → GI Confusion	-.17 (.05)	< .01	-.17 (.05)	< .01
<i>Path B</i>				
GI Synthesis → Depressive Sx	-.21 (.06)	< .01	-.21 (.06)	< .01
GI Confusion → Depressive Sx	.36 (.07)	< .001	.53 (.06)	< .001
GI Synthesis → Life Satisfaction	.40 (.07)	< .001	.41 (.06)	< .001
GI Confusion → Life Satisfaction	-.21 (.06)	< .001	-.22 (.06)	< .001
GI Synthesis → Self-Esteem	.28 (.05)	< .001	.31 (.05)	< .001
GI Confusion → Self-Esteem	-.42 (.05)	< .001	-.45 (.05)	< .001
<i>Path C</i>				
ERI ACH → Depressive Sx	.02 (.05)	.629	.02 (.04)	.627
ERI ACH → Life Satisfaction	-.04 (.05)	.386	-.04 (.04)	.385
ERI ACH → Self-Esteem	.07 (.04)	.057	.08 (.04)	.054
ERI AFF → Depressive Sx	-.12 (.04)	< .01	-.15 (.05)	< .01
ERI AFF → Life Satisfaction	.03 (.04)	.422	.04 (.05)	.429
ERI AFF → Self-Esteem	.05 (.03)	.109	.07 (.05)	.113
NAI BEL → Depressive Sx	-.06 (.05)	.186	-.06 (.05)	.177
NAI BEL → Life Satisfaction	-.07 (.07)	.334	.18 (.08)	.023
NAI BEL → Self-Esteem	.04 (.04)	.400	.04 (.05)	.396

Note: Standardized coefficients reported. SE = standard error; ERI = ethnic-racial identity; NAI = national American identity; GI = global identity; ACH = achievement; AFF = affirmation; BEL = belonging; Sx = symptoms. Paths that were significantly different between adolescents in immigrant vs. non-immigrant families are in boldface.

Table 4*Results of Hypothesis Testing for Indirect Effects*

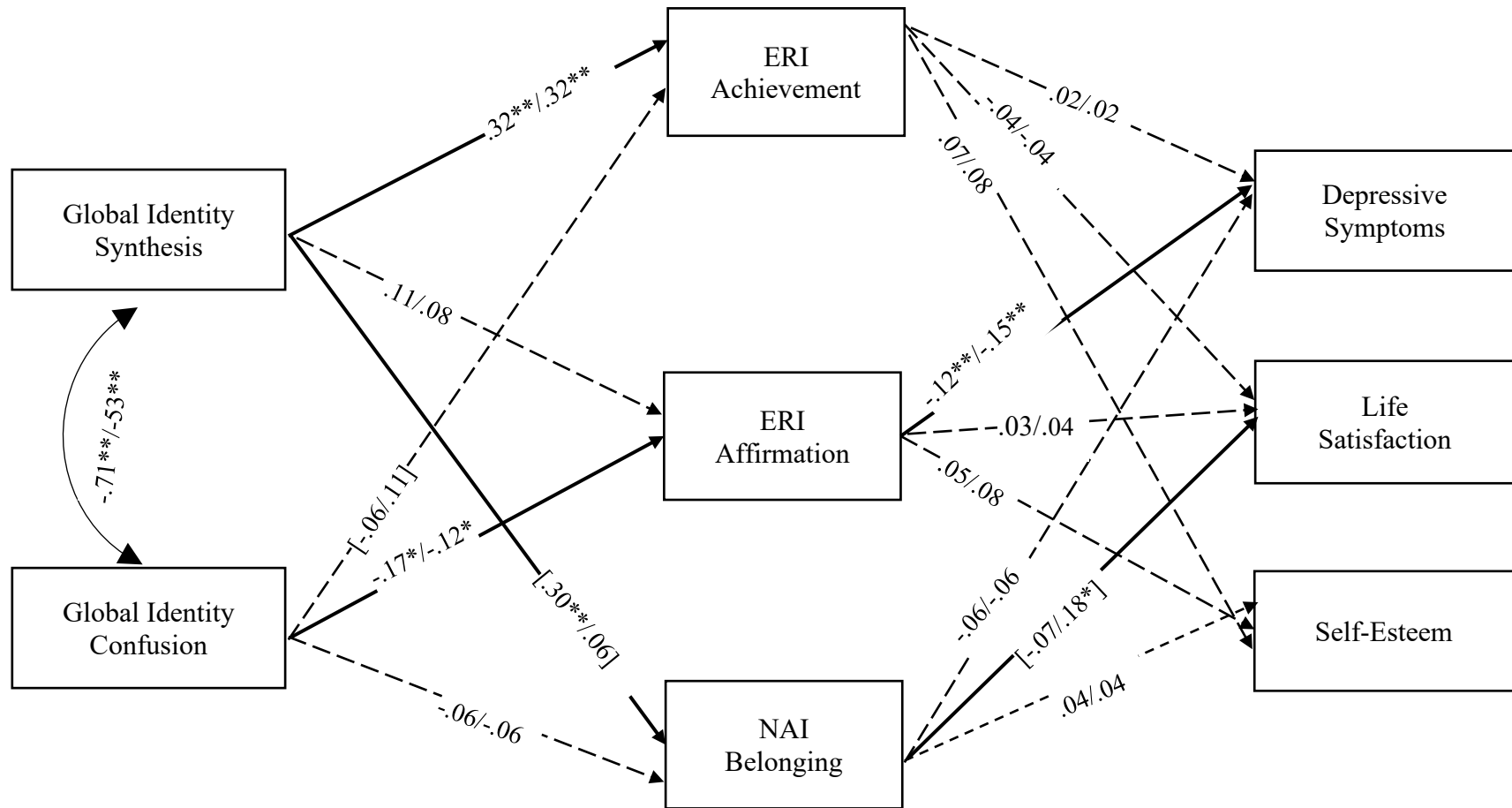
Indirect Effects	Immigrant Status		Non-Immigrant Status	
	β (SE)	BC CI (LL, UL)	β (SE)	BC CI (LL, UL)
ERI ACH → GI Synthesis → Depressive Sx	-.06** (.02)	[-.12, -.03]	-.06** (.02)	[-.11, -.03]
ERI ACH → GI Confusion → Depressive Sx	-.05* (.02)	[-.10, -.01]	-.07* (.03)	[-.13, -.02]
ERI AFF → GI Synthesis → Depressive Sx	-.01 (.01)	[-.04, .00]	-.02 (.01)	[-.05, .00]
ERI AFF → GI Confusion → Depressive Sx	-.07** (.02)	[-.13, -.03]	-.03 (.03)	[-.10, .02]
NAI BEL → GI Synthesis → Depressive Sx	-.07* (.03)	[-.13, -.03]	-.02 (.02)	[-.06, .01]
NAI BEL → GI Confusion → Depressive Sx	-.06** (.02)	[-.11, -.02]	-.09** (.03)	[-.15, -.04]
ERI ACH → GI Synthesis → Life Satisfaction	.12** (.03)	[.07, .19]	.12** (.03)	[.07, .17]
ERI ACH → GI Confusion → Life Satisfaction	.03* (.01)	[.01, .06]	.03* (.01)	[.01, .06]
ERI AFF → GI Synthesis → Life Satisfaction	.03 (.02)	[-.01, .07]	.03 (.02)	[-.01, .09]
ERI AFF → GI Confusion → Life Satisfaction	.04* (.02)	[.02, .08]	.01 (.01)	[-.01, .05]
NAI BEL → GI Synthesis → Life Satisfaction	.13** (.04)	[.07, .22]	.04 (.03)	[-.02, .10]
NAI BEL → GI Confusion → Life Satisfaction	.04* (.01)	[.01, .07]	.04* (.01)	[.01, .07]
ERI ACH → GI Synthesis → Self-Esteem	.09** (.02)	[.05, .14]	.09** (.02)	[.05, .14]
ERI ACH → GI Confusion → Self-Esteem	.06* (.02)	[.01, .11]	.06* (.02)	[.01, .11]
ERI AFF → GI Synthesis → Self-Esteem	.02 (.01)	[-.00, .05]	.03 (.02)	[-.01, .07]
ERI AFF → GI Confusion → Self-Esteem	.08** (.03)	[.04, .14]	.03 (.03)	[-.02, .08]
NAI BEL → GI Synthesis → Self-Esteem	.09** (.03)	[.05, .16]	.03 (.02)	[-.02, .08]
NAI BEL → GI Confusion → Self-Esteem	.07** (.02)	[.03, .12]	.08** (.02)	[.03, .13]

Note: Standardized coefficients reported. SE = standard error; BC CI = 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; ERI = ethnic-racial identity; NAI = national American identity; GI = global identity; ACH = achievement; AFF = affirmation; BEL = belonging; Sx = symptoms.

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

Figure 3

Alternate Model Examining Associations Between Global Identity Synthesis and Confusion with Adolescent Adjustment via ERI and NAI (N = 370)



Note. ERI = ethnic-racial identity; NAI = national American identity. Age and gender were included as covariates. Standardized coefficients reported for immigrant/non-immigrant status. Estimates presented in brackets represent paths that were free to vary by immigrant status; all other estimates were constrained to be equal across groups. Significant associations depicted with bold lines. *c'* paths are not included for ease of presentation. Model fit: $\chi^2 (23) = 37.57, p = .028$; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .06, 90% CI [.02, .10]; SRMR = .04.

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

Table 5
Results of Alternate Hypothesis Testing for Indirect Effects

Indirect Effects	Immigrant Status		Non-Immigrant Status	
	β (SE)	BC CI (LL, UL)	β (SE)	BC CI (LL, UL)
GI Synthesis → ERI ACH → Depressive Sx	.01 (.02)	[-.02, .04]	.01 (.01)	[-.02, .04]
GI Confusion → ERI ACH → Depressive Sx	-.00 (.01)	[-.02, .00]	.00 (.01)	[-.00, .02]
GI Synthesis → ERI AFF → Depressive Sx	-.01 (.01)	[-.04, .00]	-.01 (.01)	[-.04, .00]
GI Confusion → ERI AFF → Depressive Sx	.02 (.01)	[.00, .05]	.02 (.01)	[.00, .05]
GI Synthesis → NAI BEL → Depressive Sx	-.02 (.02)	[-.07, .00]	-.00 (.01)	[-.03, .00]
GI Confusion → NAI BEL → Depressive Sx	.00 (.01)	[-.00, .03]	.00 (.01)	[-.00, .02]
GI Synthesis → ERI ACH → Life Satisfaction	-.01 (.01)	[-.04, .02]	-.01 (.01)	[-.04, .02]
GI Confusion → ERI ACH → Life Satisfaction	.00 (.01)	[-.00, .03]	-.00 (.01)	[-.02, .00]
GI Synthesis → ERI AFF → Life Satisfaction	.00 (.01)	[-.00, .02]	.00 (.01)	[-.00, .02]
GI Confusion → ERI AFF → Life Satisfaction	-.01 (.01)	[-.03, .01]	-.00 (.01)	[-.03, .01]
GI Synthesis → NAI BEL → Life Satisfaction	-.02 (.02)	[-.08, .02]	.01 (.02)	[-.02, .06]
GI Confusion → NAI BEL → Life Satisfaction	.00 (.01)	[-.00, .03]	-.01 (.01)	[-.05, .01]
GI Synthesis → ERI ACH → Self-Esteem	.02 (.01)	[.00, .05]	.03 (.01)	[.00, .06]
GI Confusion → ERI ACH → Self-Esteem	-.00 (.01)	[-.03, .00]	.01 (.01)	[.00, .04]
GI Synthesis → ERI AFF → Self-Esteem	.01 (.01)	[-.00, .02]	.01 (.01)	[-.00, .03]
GI Confusion → ERI AFF → Self-Esteem	-.01 (.01)	[-.03, .00]	-.01 (.01)	[-.03, .00]
GI Synthesis → NAI BEL → Self-Esteem	.01 (.01)	[-.01, .04]	.00 (.01)	[-.00, .03]
GI Confusion → NAI BEL → Self-Esteem	-.00 (.01)	[-.02, .00]	-.00 (.01)	[.02, .00]

Note: Standardized coefficients reported. SE = standard error; BC CI = 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; ERI = ethnic-racial identity; NAI = national American identity; GI = global identity; ACH = achievement; AFF = affirmation; BEL= belonging; Sx = symptoms.