Spanish Translation of the Children's Hope Scale Using
Quantitative Methods for Verifying Semantic Equivalence

by

Victoria E. Frehe-Torres

Submitted to the graduate degree program in the Department of Psychology and Research
and the Graduate Faculty of the University of Kansas in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

<div align="right">

_____

Chairperson   Thomas Krieshok

_____

Tamara Mikinski

_____

Bruce Frey

_____

Barbara Kerr

_____

Sally Roberts

</div>

Date Defended:12/11/2010

The Dissertation Committee for Victoria Elena Frehe-Torres certifies
that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

Spanish Translation of the Children's Hope Scale Using
Quantitative Methods for Verifying Semantic Equivalence

_____

Chairperson   Thomas Krieshok

Date Approved: 12/11/2010

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to translate the Children's Hope Scale (CHS) from English
to Spanish using quantitative methods in order to verify semantic equivalence of the
adapted measure. The study utilized bilingual, English and Spanish-speaking children
between the ages of 8 and 16 from different school districts across Kansas (N=161).
Results indicated semantic equivalence between the English and the Spanish Children's
Hope Scale. The creation of a linguistically and culturally competent scale will increase
the involvement of Spanish speaking children in the measure of positive psychological
constructs such as hope. This study contributes to the literature on multicultural
assessment competency and the procedures of translating measures from English to
Spanish using quantitative methods for verifying semantic equivalence. Because of the
steadily growing Spanish speaking population in the U.S., it is imperative to teach
children the concept of *Esperanza* (Hope). By introducing to Spanish speaking children
the main components of Hope (Agency thinking and Pathways thinking), a practical
method to reach their goals and aspirations in life can also be introduced.

Acknowledgements

I dedicate this work to my husband Mark and son Joaquin who have been a great source of strength and love. They have taught me that during difficult times a simple smile makes it all much better; happiness then is found in little things such as a hug, a giggle, a kiss, and a word "ma-ma!". Thanks to my parents and siblings for being always there for me and for loving me unconditionally. Additionally, thanks to my aunt "tia" who taught me so many things in life and was there since the first day I was born.

I also want to express my gratitude and respect to Thomas Krieshok for his support and guidance not only during this time but also through my development as a psychologist. His professionalism and caring attitude has defined a big part of the work I do with patients, peers, and mentees. Thanks to Tamara Mikinski for her inspiration and encouragement, thanks to Shane Lopez for sharing a piece of Hope, thanks to Barbara Kerr for a creative way to see our multicultural world, and thank you to the faculty and staff of the Department of Psychology and Research in Education for all their helpful assistance, clever advice, and warming words during unpleasant days.

Finally, I want to extend my gratitude to everybody that made possible this research, many thanks to Stacy Mendez and Harvest of Hope Leadership Academy, Topeka public schools district, National Latino Psychological Association, Washburn University- Spanish Department, Mickey Waxman, Luz marina Torres, German Torres Forero, Ana Vargas, Arnoldo Alegria, and especial thanks to Lisa Edwards for her mentorship and collaboration.

Table of Contents

Chapter I

Introduction and Literature Review

The purpose of this study was to translate the Children's Hope Scale (CHS) from English to Spanish using quantitative methods in order to verify semantic equivalence of the adapted measure. The creation of a linguistically and culturally competent scale will increase the involvement of Spanish speaking children in the measure of positive psychological constructs such as hope. As mentioned by the Surgeon General's Report (1999), census projections indicate that the number of Latinos will increase to 97 million by 2050, defining nearly one-fourth of the U.S. population. Moreover, predictions for Latino youth are even higher as it is predicted that nearly one-third of those under 19 years of age will be Latinos by 2050. Because of a steadily growing Spanish speaking population in the U.S., it is imperative to teach children the concept of *Esperanza* (Hope). By introducing to Spanish speaking children the main components of Hope, Agency thinking, and Pathways thinking, a practical method to reach their goals and aspirations in life will also be introduced.

Currently, there are Spanish adapted materials, but in many cases they are poorly translated and directed to a specific Spanish speaking subgroup (e.g. Mexican Americans, Cubans, Puerto Ricans), instead of to the general group. There is a great need for proficiently translated measures, free of jargon and complicated words, and directed to a neutral Spanish speaking population (Frehe, 2008).

The most important issue in this domain of inquiry is to culturally and linguistically translate the CHS in order to obtain a semantically equivalent scale that will accurately measure Spanish-speaking children's dispositional hope. This study will contribute to the literature on multicultural assessment competency and the procedure of translating measures from English to Spanish using quantitative methods for verifying semantic equivalence.

Hope

When developing Hope Theory, Snyder (2002) was primarily interested in the other side of making excuses, the desire to reach out for positive goals. Hope is seen as the perceived capability to derive pathways to desired goals and to motivate oneself via agency thinking to use those pathways (Snyder). More specifically, hope is "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991, p. 287). Hope can be both a stable personality disposition or trait, or a more temporary frame of mind or state. Hopeful thought can occur at different levels of abstraction: goals in general, goals in a certain life arena, or one goal in specific (Lopez et al., 2003).

Goals play an important role in Snyder's (2002) Hope Theory. Goals are the cognitive components that make human actions goal directed. They provide targets of mental action sequences and can be both visual and verbal, depending on the person's style. There are two types of goal outcomes, *positive goal outcomes* and *negative goal outcomes*. Positive goal outcomes refer to reaching a goal for the first time, sustaining a

present goal outcome, and expanding a goal that has been initiated. On the other hand, a negative goal outcome can be seen as delaying the appearance of a goal by stopping something that has not been started. It is important to observe that goals need to be realistic and of sufficient value in order to warrant conscious thought.

Even though vague and difficult goals are less likely to be achieved, Snyder (2002) discovered that for some people with high hope, vague and seemingly unsolvable tasks are not an impediment to a goal. For example, in one of his laboratory experiments he gave people difficult anagrams to solve; these anagrams were very complex and they had not been solved in any of his previous experiments. The impossible became achievable and very high-hope people found ways to solve the anagrams.

Pathways thinking is another important component of Hope Theory. Pathways thinking is the perceived capacity to create routes to get from point A to point B (e.g., "I have more than one way to solve my problem"). A person with high hope who is pursuing a goal has a higher production of plausible routes in order to attain his or her goal. Conversely, for a low-hope person it may be more difficult to find routes or pathways to achieve the desired goal. People with low hope are not as flexible or successful at producing alternate routes to get to their goal (Snyder, 2002).

The last element of Hope Theory is Agency thinking, which is defined by Snyder as "the perceived capacity to use one's pathways to reach desired goals" (Snyder, 2002, p. 251). This ingredient is the motivational force or mental energy to continue using routes or pathways to get to the desired goal (e.g., "I know I can reach my goal of graduating by studying harder when the subjects are most difficult to me"). Agency

thinking is crucial in all goal-directed thinking, but it plays a big role when impediments or obstacles appear. Accordingly, Snyder (1994b) observed that during such blockages, agency thinking helps to channel the requisite motivation to the best alternate pathway.

High hope is associated with elevated optimism, better problem-solving skills, perception of control, positive emotions, competitiveness, self-esteem, and positive goal expectancies, as well as lower levels of anxiety, negative emotions, and depression. In contrast, low hope people have fewer pathways to reach goals, doubt the use of the pathways they already have, set easy or very difficult goals, perceive a lower chance of attaining a desired goal, and experience feelings of uncertainty, failure, and negative emotions while pursuing a goal (Snyder et al., 1998).

Dweck (1999) suggested that intelligence and ability are not the only predictors of academic success. Instead, there are other motivational forces that keep students on the right path toward the pursuit of their academic goals. Hope is identified when students are successful at overcoming different challenges during an academic pursuit; they are capable of generating multiple alternative pathways (routes to overcome impediments) in order to attain their desired goal. Alternatively, low-hope students, who struggle to think of alternative pathways, are more prone to give up when encountering an impediment or obstacle to their desired goal. Thus, students with low hope may experience frustration, low self-esteem, and lack of confidence (Snyder et al., 2002). Research findings have depicted that hope and academic performance are highly correlated in different groups of students (grade school, high school, and college students). Hope relates to higher achievement tests among grade-school children, higher overall GPA for high school

students, and better semester academic performance and overall GPA for college students (Snyder, 2002).

In one study, levels of Hope among college students predicted final grade in an introductory Psychology class (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). In another study, hope predicted higher cumulative GPAs among college students over a six-year period. Hope scale scores were taken from 100 men and 100 women at the beginning of their first semester in college; and after six years, Hope Scale scores predicted overall GPAs and graduation rates. GPAs of the high- and low-hope students were 2.85 and 2.43 respectively, high-hope students had higher graduation rates, and low-hope students had higher dropout rates (Snyder, Shorey, et al., 2002; Snyder, Wiklund, & Cheavens, 1999).

Snyder (2002) reported that high-hope students do better due to their search for and finding of multiple pathways, plus agency thinking that drives them to attain a desired goal. High-hope students remain focused and do not get easily distracted by self-deprecatory thinking and counterproductive negative emotions.

Rakke (1997) examined how problems can be barriers when pursuing goals by minimizing a person's agency. In a study, she randomly assigned people to fill out a checklist of problems, a neutral checklist, or no list. Subsequently, the Agency Subscale scores for people in the problem checklist condition were lower than in the other two conditions, while the Pathways scores were not significantly different. The author concluded that when problems or barriers appear, agency gets deflated. It was predicted that when people face problems or barriers, they usually rebound from such a problem

exposure, and people with high hope should be quicker to overcome the problem or barrier.

Emotions are highly salient within Hope Theory, reflecting people's feelings about how they are doing when working toward a goal. Positive emotions are experienced when there is a perception of successful goal pursuit, whereas negative emotions flow due to unsuccessful goal pursuit. Insufficient agentic and pathway thinking, and inability to overcome an uneasy circumstance or stressor, usually result in negative emotions while trying to reach a goal (Snyder, 2002).

Stressors are seen as any impediment of sufficient magnitude to jeopardize hopeful thought. Indeed, high-hope people tend to have more positive emotions while seeking a goal, and when an impediment or a stressor arises, high hope people do not see it as a stressful event, but as a challenging one. High-hope people often are successful in dealing with the stressor or impediment, and this success feedback cycles back via approach emotions so as to reinforce the person's dispositional and situational hopeful thinking (Snyder, 2002). High-hopers' emotions are marked by friendliness, happiness, and confidence (Snyder, Cheavens, & Michael, 1999; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder, Sympson, et al., 2000) that contribute to the attainment of new goals, or extensions of their previous outcome tasks. Consequently, high-hopers enjoy pursuing goals with a positive emotional set, and they engage in this process by being focused, attentive, and predisposed to overcome unexpected challenges in order to succeed and attain the desired goal.

Low-hope people are likely to have more negative emotions that evolve into stressful situations (impediments), blocking their present and future goal pursuit. As a result, people with low hope engage in the process of pursuing a goal by being apprehensive about what may happen (stressors) and feeling uncontrolled negative emotions that evolve into self-critical rumination and off-task cognitions. Stressors are perceived by low-hopers as an impediment to achieve the desired goal, and the resulting disruptive negative emotions cycle back to register on the person's dispositional and situational hopeful thinking (Snyder, 2002).

When looking at affect among high vs. low hope people, it is reported that high-hope people tend to experience fewer negative emotions than low-hope people. In a 28-day study, researchers tracked participants' thoughts (negative and positive) and found that high-hope participants had fewer negative thoughts in comparison to low-hope participants (Snyder et al., 1996). Moreover, college students with high hope reported feeling more confident, inspired, energized, challenged by their life goals (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991), perceived elevated feelings of self-worth and life satisfaction, and low levels of depression (Chang, 1998; Kwon, 2000; Snyder, Hoza, et al., 1997; Snyder et al., 1996).

In the context of health, Snyder (2002) indicated that hope is seen as playing a role in two types of health prevention, primary and secondary. Primary prevention entails those cognitions or actions that are directed to eliminating or reducing subsequent physical or psychological health problems before they occur. Secondary prevention refers to those cognitions that are aimed at eliminating, reducing, or containing problems once

they have already appeared. In the two types of prevention, high-hope people approach health in a more preventive and better coping manner. High-hope people without a physical illness may use information about these topics as pathways for prevention. Once the physical illness has been developed, high-hope people tend to cope better with the pain, the disability, or any other potential impediment. Snyder (2002) also observed that hopeful thinking contributes to enduring physical pain and the finding of better ways of coping, and the motivational forces to keep using strategies to tolerate pain or discomfort. The cold pressor experiment is a clear example of pain tolerance among high vs. low hope individuals. Results of this experiment concluded that high-hope participants were able to keep their hand in the cold pressor twice as long, finding ways to cope and deal with the pain, whereas low-hope participants quit the task more quickly (Snyder, Odle, & Hackman, 1999).

In a multicultural context, hope may have different variations across cultures. Snyder (2002) noted that the image of a rainbow often symbolizes hope, however, what appears to be missing is the consideration of the different colors of the rainbow. To date, the majority of published and unpublished studies about hope have been done with European American samples, with little to no examination of possible racial/ethnic variations. Having in mind that hope has to do with goal-seeking behaviors and experiences with obstacles, Snyder (1995) indicated that persons of color, in comparison to European Americans, may have lower hope due to differential goal availability. Even though there has been an effort to promote multiculturalism, many racial/ethnic groups continue to encounter challenges and obstacles to their goal pursuits. For instance,

African Americans have been victims of oppression and discrimination that often leave them with distrust of European Americans. Racism and racial discrimination do not appear to be as overt as in the past, but studies continue to show that perceptions of racism keep influencing African Americans' lives (Whaley, 2001). For Asian Americans, strong implicit and explicit expectations of others (e.g., parents) may provide unique challenges and obstacles to fostering intrapersonal and interpersonal happiness for this group (Uba, 1994). And the Latino population increased by 58% from 1990 to 2000 but the percentage of Latinos living below the poverty level has remained the same. Researchers indicate that linguistic barriers and the challenges of acculturation may lead to severely limiting social, economic, political, educational, and health service opportunities for this group (Biever et. al, 2002; Cervantes et al, 1991; Rogler et al., 1991).

Hope may be perceived by victims of prejudice as laden with barriers and obstacles. Valued goals are impeded by interpersonal, societal, and institutional influences. Snyder (1994) described negative influences on the hope game that exemplifies all of the stages of goal blockage: acculturative stress, language barriers, prejudice, and poverty block important goals and continue to thwart goal pursuits over time; broad-scale goal blockage produces anger; anger or rage may be replaced by feelings of demoralization, and hope dwindles; despair about goals may follow helplessness; despair turns into apathy- people may abandon their goals and the pursuit of them; and finally, people may adopt the attitude that these goals are not available to them. When minority children see their parents or caregivers go through this death of hope

sequence, they also become influenced by barriers and society's placating messages. As they grow, they encounter covert and overt barriers themselves, decreasing their pathways thinking. With the constant experiencing of goal blockages and the implicit and explicit messages from society, it becomes apparent that pursuit of their goals is not available to them. Agency thinking decreases and hope wanes (Lopez et al., 2000).

In contrast to the perspective that minority groups have lower levels of hope due to their experiences of goal-related obstacles for their racial/ethnic status, recent studies have shown that under the same circumstances these experiences may develop *more* hope. Early experiences or anticipation of obstacles to desired goals may increase hope (especially more pathways thinking) and adaptive mechanisms. By anticipating potential obstacles, members of minority groups are able to manage or circumvent exposure and experience of goal-limiting barriers in their future (Chang & Banks, 2007). For example, Latinos who anticipate problems with language barriers or acculturation may focus on ways to effectively foster knowledge and skills valued in both cultures, Latino and European American (Suarez et al., 1997).

When working to enhance hope among different racial and ethnic minorities it is important to consider cultural variables such as language, racial/ethnic identity, acculturation level, and perceived discrimination, in order to provide meaningful and effective interventions (Helms & Cook, 1999).

Children's Hope

Snyder (1997) believed that children are also goal-directed and that their goal-related thoughts can be understood according to agency and pathways thinking. When developing the Children's Hope Scale (CHS), he focused on how children think and handle stressors, especially those related to physical illnesses. Children with high levels of hope can imagine and embrace goals related to the successful treatment of their physical difficulties. Hope in children is assessed by both the child's ability to create routes to their goals (pathways) and their self-related beliefs concerning their ability to follow those routes toward goal achievement (agency). Hopeful thinking provides many benefits to healthy children such as the search for routes and the initiation and efforts made when working towards a goal. Problems related to health can become obstacles for children. These impediments will make the child shift direction, create new goals, and find new ways to accomplish the desired goal while keeping the mental energy to begin and continue treatment regimens. Snyder concluded that hope applies to children when they are healthy and when they are ill (Snyder, 1997).

As children mature, their natural cognitive processes such as vocabulary, memory capacity and speed, and the ability to think in an abstract manner also develop and improve, making hopeful thought more refined. This developmental improvement of hope helps children set and achieve personal goals, facilitates their sense of identity, and helps them form peer relationships when adolescence emerges (Snyder et al, 2002).

Children's perceptions of goals and barriers to those goals may have greater individual impact than for adults (Valle et al., 2004). Barker, Dembo and Lewin (1941) indicated that when encountering impediments to their goals, children become upset. Similarly, according to Hope theory, obstacles to a desired goal elicit negative emotions; on the other hand, the successful pursuit of goals, especially when overcoming obstacles, results in positive emotions. Children's positive (successful) and negative (unsuccessful) emotions are the accurate reflection of actual or anticipated goal pursuit. In other words, when children perceive they successfully can attain a goal, they experience positive emotions, a good sense of self-worth and high self-esteem. Children with high hope tend to think about the future in a more optimistic way; they concentrate on success rather than on failure when working toward desired goals, develop many life goals, and perceive themselves as more capable of finding solutions to problems (Snyder, 1997). Hopeful children often use their memories of positive experiences to stay focused and overcome obstacles during difficult times (Snyder, 2003). Conversely, when children think they will not be successful at attaining a goal, they feel negative about themselves, experiencing low levels of self-worth and self-esteem (Snyder, 1997). Additionally, Kwon (2000) reported that low hope among children is correlated with depressive symptoms.

In regard to individual differences, findings do not support differences in hope between girls and boys, though some studies have depicted differences related to race. When examining hope levels across different ethnic groups, it was found that European Americans seemed to have fewer obstacles (e.g., oppression, prejudice) in their lives than

other minority groups (Snyder et al., 2003). For example, a study with a sample of eight ethnically diverse schools found that European American and African American children had higher hope scores in comparison to Hispanic and Native American children (McDermott et al., 1997).

Edwards et al. (2007) reported that when examining hope, the CHS demonstrated support for the reliability and validity among a sample of Mexican American youth (English-speaking). Additionally, hope scores were positively correlated with measures of positive affect, life satisfaction, support form family and friends, and optimism.

Goal orientation is also an important factor in achievement among minority students. Caraway et al. (2003) found that when students set and reached goals, they were more likely to continue with goal-setting behavior. A high level of hope is related to scholastic and social competence, as well as creativity (Onwuegbuzie, 1999). When children reported high levels of hope, they seemed to have better interpersonal relationships by enjoying getting to know others (Snyder, 1997). There is a positive correlation between academic achievement and hope, it has been found in grade school students' achievement tests (Snyder, 1997) and high school and beginning college students' overall grade point averages (Snyder, 2002).

The lack of alternative pathways when trying to succeed in school can be the greatest impediment to academic achievement for some students with low hope. This lack of alternate routes may lead to higher probabilities of dropping out of school (Snyder et al., 2003). Another concern that has been identified by researchers is when students exhibit low agency. Low agency exists when students' goals are not important or

meaningful to them, as when students may be following goals imposed by their peers, parents, or teachers. When goals are not owned by the student there is a lack of motivation in pursuing goals (Snyder, 2003). Conti (2000) reported that lack of personal goals undermines intrinsic motivations and performances. Concerning athletics, hopeful thinking is linked to better athletic performance and students with high hope are less likely to quit sports (Brown et al., 1999).

Snyder compared the high-hope way of thinking to an immunization process. The earlier we handle obstacles and other difficulties, the better we become prepared to handle other impediments encountered in the future. During the 2nd and 3rd year of a child's life the foundations of agency and pathways thinking get set. Then, during preschool, middle, and adolescent years, basic lessons about hopeful thinking become part of the child's development (Snyder, 1997).

Hope scales have been translated into different languages around the world, including Dutch, French, Slovak, Chinese, Korean, and Spanish (Abdel-Khalek & Snyder, 2007). To date, there is only one reported study that translated the Children's Hope Scale into a non-English language. Marques et al. (2009) developed the Portuguese version of the Children's Hope scale and indicated that this version showed psychometric properties similar to the English version. Marques et al. used a sample of 367 Portuguese students, ages 10 to 16 who completed the Portuguese-language version of the Children's Hope scale, the Students' Life Satisfaction scale, the Global Self-Worth Sub-scale, and the Mental Health Inventory-5. Positive correlations were found among the Children's Hope scale and the related measures. When adapting the scale, the researchers used

translation, back-translation, inspection of lexical equivalence and content validity, and cognitive debriefing. A Cronbach alpha of 0.81 was found with item-scale (corrected) correlations ranging from 0.55-0.64.

Rising Spanish-Speaking Population in the United States

Hispanics' immigration to the United States began when Spaniards conquered and settled in a region near Santa Fe, New Mexico around 1500. During the same century a region from Mexico was taken by the United States and Mexicans fled the economic depression and Mexican Revolution of 1910. Since then, Mexican Americans have struggled to live the "American dream" due to conquest, oppression, and defeat (McGoldrick et al, 1996). Puerto Ricans' entrance into the United States began after WWII in the 1940's and 1950's. Despite their status as U.S. citizens, Puerto Ricans are also victims of prejudice and discrimination similar to other minority group members. Many Puerto Ricans live below the poverty level and societal forces have blocked their goals for security and financial stability. In the 1960's many Cubans emigrated to the United States, escaping from persecution and communism. Despite their wealth, many Cubans also faced the challenges of acculturation and prejudice (Lopez et al., 2000).

As mentioned by the Surgeon General's Report (1999), census projections indicate that the number of Latinos will increase to 97 million by 2050, defining nearly one-fourth of the U.S. population. Mexican Americans account for about 60% of the Latino population. Moreover, predictions for Latino youth are even higher, it is predicted that nearly one-third of those under 19 years of age will be Latinos by 2050, and

according to the latest U.S. Census Bureau report (2008), as of 2050, Latinos are projected to number 102.6 million.

Today, there are 41.3 million Latinos in the U.S., not including Puerto Rico (3.9 million). About 14 % of the total U.S population identifies as Latino/Hispanic. Furthermore, a total of 31 million, 1 in 10 U.S. household residents ages 5 and older, reported speaking Spanish at home. Many Hispanics are monolingual Spanish speakers or, even if they are bilingual, they prefer to speak Spanish (Froman & Owen, 2001). Eighty percent of Mexican Americans speak a language other than English in the home and less than half of them speak English very well, (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008). Marin & Marin (1991) reported that nearly 25% of bilingual Hispanics preferred instruments written in Spanish.

Because of historical and social differences among the main subgroups of Latinos, each subgroup has unique cultural characteristics. For instance, in regard to mental health needs, Central Americans may be more vulnerable to develop trauma-related disorders resulting from their experiences with political terror and other atrocities in their native land which prompted their flight to the U.S. Due to fewer educational and economic resources, Mexican American and Puerto Rican children and adults present a higher risk for mental health problems in comparison to Cuban Americans. Immigrants from all backgrounds are also vulnerable to experience a different set of stressors than long-term Latino residents. Recent immigrants who come to the U.S. without proper documentation have a harder time finding jobs, advancing in a career, and are constantly living in fear of being deported (Surgeon General's Report, 1999). Trying to adapt to a new culture

creates acculturative stress (Smart & Smart, 1995), which is when immigrants discover that their values and beliefs are not valued in their new land. Acculturative stress may create impediments to goal attainment when living with new rules.

Additionally, because of differences among Latino subgroups, there are also variations in their written and spoken Spanish. Each Hispanic group may use different colloquialisms, assign different meanings to the same words, or use different words to identify the same object. Marin & Marin (1991) indicated that these national and regional differences within the Hispanic culture represent challenges for researchers who attempt to translate instruments into Spanish. They suggested the use of standard Spanish that goes beyond regional and national boundaries and is used by the media in the United States, incorporating basic vocabulary, grammar and syntax. Most Spanish-speakers refer to standard Spanish, which is irrespective of national origin.

The Bilingual Child

Language is the tool that allows us to interact and communicate with each other, and language is an important key in goal-directed activities. Snyder (1994) indicated that language is an important component in hopeful thinking when children are attempting to communicate their desires. Often immigrant children have difficulty learning a second language. This struggle has been associated with academic and social difficulties. The child may have difficulty learning a second language due to his or her anxiety, impairing memory and decreasing the willingness to take risks and practice the requisite new skills. Language then, may remain an obstacle for hopeful thinking, even when children are successful at the early stages of second language development. More specifically, subtle

nuances are lost and simple words are used to describe complex goal thoughts (Lopez et al., 2000).

Language is not just a tool we use to communicate, it is also a major symbol of social or group identity. Snyder et al. (1997) found that high-hope individuals experience less anxiety in social situations. These individuals may feel more comfortable in interpersonal situations where they perceive they are proficient in the dominant language. As children develop, their abilities to interact and communicate also develop, and these communication skills become a key element for improving hope-related goal pursuit thinking.

Throughout U.S. history many have reported been threatened by immigrant groups that seem to be unwilling to assimilate into the "American" mainstream culture (Cornelius, 2000). Horace Mann, an educational reformer, argued that public schools were necessary to ensure the assimilation of immigrants. As early as the 1700's immigrant children were enrolled in free state-supported systems of public schools in order to preserve an American culture. Zentella's (2002) research indicated that in contradiction to negative views about immigrants opposing the American culture, Latinos strive to acquire English in order to access the American culture. Olneck (2009) indicated that immigrants have not sought to enlist the schools in programs of cultural and linguistic separatism or to utilize the schools to challenge the singularity of English as the national language. Rather, immigrants have sought to utilize the schools to gain the skills, knowledge, and linguistic ability necessary for successful integration into American society.

In terms of school performance, Latino children tend to experience more difficulties succeeding, and when they exhibit bilingualism they are seen as possessing one more deficit. This deficit assumes that bilingual and Latino students are seen as "missing" certain skills or lacking background knowledge (Brown & Souto-Manning, 2008). Culturally and linguistically diverse students face many obstacles that contribute to their experiences of failure in school. They are more likely than their peers to leave school prior to graduation, report poor school engagement, and experience more behavioral problems (Kaylor & Flores, 2007). Valdes (2001) reported that often Spanish-speaking students are placed in the "ESL ghetto" and are isolated from meaningful interactions with their English-speaking peers. Spanish-speaking children are expected to acquire literacy in a second language, English, without having fully acquired literacy in their native language. The lack of literacy in their native language can create conflicts when developing cognitive skills for learning, a sense of self, and a cultural identity. Many public schools in the U.S. in which Latino students enroll have no experience with the Latino culture. Additionally, these schools do not have enough funding to support bilingual students. Jordan (2004) indicated that some educators refuse to invest in a "migrant" population.

Despite solid empirical evidence about the benefits of speaking more than one language, bilingualism still brings negative stereotypes and consequences (Hammers, 2000). Brown & Souto-Manning (2008) found that Latino parents are concerned about their children learning English and becoming more "Americanized" more than losing their first language, the implications of such loss, and the value of bilingualism. Some of

the strengths that bilingual students bring to the education system are relates to *Skills in their first (native) language*, which includes listening, speaking, reading and writing. Concepts already learned by bilingual learners can be easily transferred into English and developed as students apply to many second language activities. Bilingualism enhances cognitive and social growth, competitiveness in a global marketplace, national security, and understanding of diverse peoples and cultures. *Bicultural cognitive and affective experiences* that enable them to survive successfully in two worlds. By growing up in two or more cultures they possess the information concerning customs, languages, and perceptions of the world from each culture they belong to. This background knowledge will affect their conceptualization of the world and their personal insights. In addition, the use of more than one language increases their fluency, originality, flexibility, and elaboration in thinking. Bilingual learners may have two or more words for a single object or idea, they may enjoy more advanced processing of verbal material, more discriminating perceptual distinctions, more propensity to search for structure in perceptual situations, and more capacity to reorganize their perceptions to feed them back. *Personal psychological insights and the capacity for empathy.* This unique social intelligence allows multicultural students to gather valuable conceptualizations of the world around them in their first language. Proficiency in two or more cultures creates multiple systems for perceiving, evaluating, believing, and acting. It has been suggested that multicultural individuals are more likely to respect other people and other cultures different from their own; they develop an appreciation of the range of cultural competencies available to all human beings. Music, art, science, and social systems are

26

likely to be transformed by the challenge of synthesizing new ideas from the many cultures of the world (Sogunro, 2001).

Caldas & Caron-Caldas (2002) argued that there is a need to be proactive and challenge the pressure that exists in the United States to conform to the linguistic norm of speaking English only. Santos (2004) suggested that assessment tools that take into account the importance and value of bilingualism and multilingualism need to be developed.

Verifying Semantic Equivalence of an Adapted Instrument

A culturally equivalent translation of an instrument is one that has connotative meaning that is equivalent with the original. Beck, Bernal, and Froman (2003) argued that when translating measures, researchers need to go beyond finding the equivalent *denotative* meaning of the items used in the original version to capture their *connotation*. A literal translation of an instrument is not a desired end product. Literal translations can result in misinterpretations of the connotative meaning of words and items. Froman & Owen (2001) have suggested that when doing cross-cultural research, measurement can be the Achilles heel. English-language instruments should not be only translated into other languages and assumed to have the same measurement properties across cultures.

Frehe (2008) worked with Latinos in Kansas to culturally and linguistically adapt and revise the parent/guardian Kansas Family Consumer Satisfaction Survey (KFSS) in order to give voice to Latinos receiving services at the centers. The process aimed to successfully adapt a measure readable to all Spanish-speaking individuals, minimizing misunderstanding because of their original Spanish dialect. The results of this study

27

demonstrated that well-translated materials, free of jargon and complicated words, and directed to a neutral Latino population, are highly important when translating measures into Spanish.

In studies that use an adapted or translated measure, the validity of all cross-cultural comparisons relies essentially on the *equivalence* of the adaptation to the original English version of the measure. Items are equivalent when two individuals with the same amount or level of the construct being measured have equal probabilities of making the same response to the different language versions of the same item (Hulin, 1987).

Flaherty et al. (1988) proposed a hierarchy of five levels of equivalence that an adapted measure must demonstrate as evidence of cross-cultural validity: a) *content equivalence* focuses on the relevance for both cultures of the content domain tapped by each item; b) *semantic equivalence* requires an item-by-item analysis to ensure that each item is conveyed in the adaptation; c) *technical equivalence* refers to whether the data collection method depicts equivalent results in each culture; d) *criterion equivalence* establishes validity through parallel comparisons to within-culture norms; and e) *conceptual equivalence* focuses on whether the underlying construct measured by the instrument has the same meaning in each culture. Flaherty et al identified these dimensions in the order they found to be logically sound. Each of the five equivalence dimensions is discrete from the others. An instrument can be cross-culturally equivalent on one or more of these dimensions and not on others.

Singh et al. (2000) argued that even if cross-cultural equivalence of assessment instruments has been satisfactorily resolved, there is still the issue of intra-cultural

diversity which can bring more problems in assessment. For instance, intergenerational differences in assimilation, acculturation levels, language proficiency and use, and worldviews pose similar assessment problems within a culture, as do differences between cultures.

The most frequently used method by researchers when adapting a measure is the procedure of translation, back-translation, and verification (Brislin, 1970, 1980; Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973). In Flaherty's hierarchy this procedure is to be found at the second level, semantic equivalence. Thus, researchers who only use this procedure may be making careless assumptions about the validity and equivalence of an adapted measure. When findings of these studies are significantly different, doubts arise about whether the differences were due to group differences or due to the lack of equivalence in an adapted measure that was verified only with back-translation methods (Mallinckrodt & Wang, 2004).

Several quantitative approaches have been designed to remedy the limitations of assessing semantic equivalence using subjective judgments alone. Most of these quantitative approaches have been created within the medical research or ability-testing fields, rarely have they been used in counseling psychology (Mallinckrodt & Wang, 2004). For instance, researchers have conducted confirmatory factor analysis after administering the adapted measure to a large sample of native speakers of the target language (e.g., Simonsson-Sarnecki et al., 2000). After imposing the factor structure of the English version on the target language sample, evidence of goodness of fit is interpreted as evidence of the semantic equivalence of the new measure. Moreover,

bilingual samples have been used by researchers to assess adaptation equivalence through direct comparison of parallel forms of the measure (e.g., Beck et al., 2003).

Due to an increased need for adapted measures in counseling psychology, Mallinckrodt and Wang (2004) developed a quantitative method for verifying semantic equivalence that aims to capitalize more fully on the advantages of testing bilingual research participants. The Dual-Language, Split-Half (DLSH) procedure can be used to supplement back-translation methods and to increase the rigor of multicultural comparative research in counseling psychology. The DLSH approach offers advantages over previous approaches. For example, when presenting two parallel forms to a participant there are two risks: a) fatigue inherent in completing two versions of longer instruments and b) the priming effect that occurs when a participant who does not understand a given item in one language can rely on the alternative language version of the item for assistance. Conversely, the DLSH method will present the entire scale in one language on one occasion, followed by a retest interval and presentation of the other language version in its entirety (e.g., Hansen & Fouad, 1984). Additionally, counterbalance is used to control for order effects. Four different types of quantitative evidence can be obtained through this method: a) DLSH reliability, b) internal consistency reliability, c) retest reliability, and d) construct validity. Finally, another advantage of this method is the use of a criterion sample, which increases the statistical power that can be difficult to attain when using a bilingual sample alone (Mallinckrodt & Wang, 2004).

Ægisdóttir et al. (2008) examined methodological issues in cross-cultural counseling research across different studies published between 2000 and 2005 in three major counseling psychology journals. The authors concentrated on equivalence, bias, and translation procedures. In 15 of 615 empirical articles, an instrument translation was performed. In 9 studies, there was some effort to improve and evaluate equivalence between language versions of the measures used. Two studies did not report any translation and verification procedure, and 4 studies used a moderate degree of rigor. After comparing the 15 studies, the authors concluded that Mallinckrodt and Wang's (2004) approach to determine construct equivalence between language versions of a measure was significantly more rigorous.

The Present Study

Hope is seen as the perceived capability to derive pathways to desired goals and to motivate oneself via agency thinking to use those pathways (Snyder, 2002). Hope is "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991, p. 287). For children, hopeful thinking provides many benefits such as the search for routes (pathways) and the initiation and efforts made (agency) when working towards a goal. Because of the importance of this psychological construct as a useful tool to teach children how to get to their goals, it is also vital to reach beyond the English language and teach Spanish-speaking children about hope.

Spanish-speaking children are becoming a large percentage of the total U.S. population. It is crucial to have culturally and linguistically competent measures that

allow us to measure and make accurate cross-cultural comparisons. The purpose of this study was to adapt the Children's Hope Scale (CHS) from English to Spanish using quantitative methods in order to verify semantic equivalence.

Chapter II

Method

Participants

This study utilized bilingual, English and Spanish-speaking children between the ages of 8 and 17 from different school districts across Kansas. Human Subjects approval was obtained from the Institutional review Board at the University of Kansas prior to data collection. The total of participants in the study was originally *180*, and after deleting cases that did not meet criteria for the study (e.g., bilingual proficiency, age range), the total number of participants was reduced to 161. There were 70 (43.5%) male participants and 91 (56.5%) female participants. The students in this study identified themselves culturally as 88 (54.7%) Hispanic/Latino(a); 53 (32.9%) Mexican; 5(3.1%) Mexican-American; 5(3.1) Chicano(a); 2(1.2%) Puerto Rican; 1(.6%) Peruvian; and 1(.6%) Salvadorian. Participants in the study ranged from 3rd grade to 12th grade, with 22 1st to 5th graders (13.7%); 31 6th to 8th graders (19.3%); and 108 high school students (67%). They ranged in age from 8 to 17 years-old, with a mean age of 14.45 (*SD*=2.4).

According to participant's self-report, of all participants, 80 (49.7%) noted Spanish as the language they speak the most and 128 (79.5%) indicated they speak Spanish at home. Forty-five (28%) participants indicated English as the language they speak the most and 4 (2.5%) indicated they speak English at home. Thirty-six (22.4%) answered they used both languages, and 29 (18%) responded they speak both languages at home. A mean of 13.81 (SD=3.1) years was found when responding to the length of

time they have been speaking Spanish, and a mean of 7.92 (SD=4.1) years when responding to the length of time they have been speaking English.

After obtaining school district approval, the researcher worked with principals and ELL (English Language Learners) coordinators at each school in the planning and organization of the research activity in order to minimize inconvenience to the students and the school. After details were agreed upon, bilingual children identified by their teachers were invited to participate in the study. A letter in English and Spanish was sent to their parents, seeking parental consent.

In order to ensure that the sample was bilingual and the students had a good level of reading and comprehension of both English and Spanish languages, students were screened for bilingual language competency. In the demographics survey they were asked to write down their responses to different questions that were asked in English and Spanish. Responses were evaluated by a bilingual researcher who examined the answers given and determined the appropriateness of the answers.

Criterion Sample

The DLSH method requires a large English-speaking sample for comparison with the bilingual students. A sample of 293 English-speaking children, between the ages of 11 and 18, was used from a previous study with the collaboration of the researcher. The previous study examined hope levels and psychometrics of the scale among Mexican-American youth (Edwards et al., 2007).

Instruments

The Children's Hope Scale (CHS)

The CHS has six items, three items measuring agency thinking and three items measuring pathways thinking. The number of items provides a sufficient sample of hopeful thinking, addressing also children's attention span in responding. The pathways thinking items tap content about finding ways to reach one's goals under ordinary circumstances as well as when there are impediments to those goals. The agency thinking items tap content pertaining to an active "doing" orientation about the present and the future.

In response to each item, the children are asked to select the most descriptive phrase from 6-options ranging from "None of the time" to "All of the time". The reported Cronbach alphas for the English version CHS range from .72 to .86, with a median alpha of .77 (Snyder et al., 1997).

The Children's Hope Scale- Spanish version (CHS-S)

This measure was translated in the process of this study. See translation procedure.

Criterion Measure

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

The SWLS is a global, cognitive, five-item measure of life satisfaction. Participants indicate their agreement with each item using a 7-point Likert scale *(1=Strongly disagree, 7=Strongly agree).* The SWLS has adequate psychometric

properties, with internal reliability estimates ranging from .41 to .94, with a mean of .78 (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985).

Translation Procedure

The following procedure was based on Mallinckrodt and Wang's (2004) recommended procedures for verifying semantic equivalence of an adapted measure. Four college students formed a bilingual team that identified themselves with the target culture. Working independently, they were asked to prepare the first draft translation of the CHS. Then, the first draft was back-translated into English by a second bilingual team composed of three different college students unaware of the original measure and with no special knowledge about the construct. After this, a team of experts recruited from the National Latino Psychological Association (NLPA), two psychologists and two advanced doctoral students in clinical and counseling psychology, and familiar with the psychological construct of Hope, were asked to participate in the study. Independently, they examined the adapted scale item-by-item, verifying the equivalence of the translation and the original version. Finally, a group of three Spanish college professors whose first language was Spanish and who originally came from different Spanish-speaking countries in South America and Europe were asked to examine the adapted scale item-by-item, together with instructions. They were asked to identify any unclear or confusing items or instructions, paraphrase in their own words what they thought each item meant, and describe their understanding of the scale instructions. Discrepancies among the reviewers were discussed until an agreement was reached.

Dual-Language, Split-Half (DLSH)

This procedure required two alternate forms, each composed of half the items presented in the original language and half the items presented in the target language (Spanish) for adaptation. The items are grouped according to subscales, Agency and Pathways. The forms were counterbalanced to control for order effects, for a total of four forms. Each participant was presented with each item only once (either in English or Spanish). Participants were assigned at random to complete one of the four forms.

Procedure

Participants were given at random one of the possible four DLSH forms. Along with this form the packet contained a demographic survey and the SWLS in English. The time to complete the forms ranged from 10 minutes to 15 minutes approximately. Participants were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any point without any consequences. After about one week, participants were asked to complete again one of the DLSH forms. This form corresponded to the same one they had completed previously.

Data Analysis

SPSS 17.0 was used for data management and statistical analysis. The descriptive data explained the sample in terms of Children's Hope Scale (CHS) scores and Satisfaction with Life Scale scores. Despite the order of the items of the CHS in each form, the items were organized according to the English version order $(1 - 6)$.

Before analysis could be conducted, some modifications were made. Nineteen of the total sample (N=180) were left out of the analyses due to the participant's age (>17

years old), lack of enough proficiency in both languages as demonstrated by the

screening questions, and incomplete testing process (test and retest).

Chapter III

Results

This project had the aim of exploring the semantic equivalence between the English and the Spanish versions of the Children's Hope Scale. First, differences between the English and Spanish subscales (Agency and Pathways) were analyzed; second, the reliability of the scales were established; then, construct validity was examined; and finally, the semantic equivalence of the scale in relation to the criterion sample data was explored.

The following data analysis is based on a between-subjects design, which controls for testing effects. Each form with half items in English and half items in Spanish was presented to each participant at test and re-test.

Comparison of the English with the Spanish split-half subscales

First, a univariate analysis of variance was conducted to compare the means of the English split-half subscales with the Spanish split half-subscales. Results shown in Table1 indicate that neither the pair of Agency split-half scales nor the Pathways split-half scales were significantly different at the first testing, $F(1, 159)=.278$, $p=.599$, for Agency; $F(1, 159)=.262$, $p= .610$, for Pathways; or at retest, $F(1, 159)=1.04$, $p=.309$, for Agency; $F(1, 159)=.307$, $p=.581$, for Pathways. When comparing Agency and Pathways items in both languages, English and Spanish, no significant difference was noted. It appears that the subscales in both languages are equivalent.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for CHS split halves in the bilingual sample

Variable	n	English Language		Spanish Language		df	F	p
		M	SD	M	SD			
First Administration	161							
Agency		4.25	1.00	4.33	.98	159	.278	*.599*
Pathways		4.24	1.03	4.16	.96	159	.262	*.610*
Retest	161							
Agency		4.19	1.03	4.36	1.0	159	1.04	*.309*
Pathways		4.17	1.00	4.34	2.50	159	.307	*.581*

Reliability Assessment

Next, reliability was assessed by examining (a) internal consistency and (b) test-retest. Relevant results of these analyses are shown in Tables 2 and 3. Internal consistency estimates of reliability were computed for the Spanish Agency subscale, α=.64, English Agency subscale, α=.63 Spanish Pathways subscale, α=.69 and English Pathways subscale, α=.75. These estimates of reliability depicted moderate consistency of results across items in the English and Spanish subscales. Also, estimates of internal consistency were analyzed for the combined bilingual sample, English and Spanish

Agency subscales, α=.63, and English and Spanish Pathways subscale, α=.72, again

showing moderate internal consistency reliability.

Additionally, estimates of reliability were computed for the criterion sample

(N=292) subscales; α= .69 for Agency; and α=.70 for Pathways. These values were

consistent and similar to results found in this study's bilingual sample.

Table 2

Internal Consistency of the CHS in the bilingual and criterion samples

	Bilingual Sample			Criterion Sample
	(n=161)			(N=292)
	6 Spanish Items	6 English Items	3 English and 3 Spanish items	6 English items
Agency	.64	.63	.63	.69
Pathways	.69	.75	.72	.70

(b) Paired sample *t*-tests were conducted between the CHS split-half subscale

means (Agency and Pathways) at test and at retest. The Agency mean at test (4.29;

SD=.99) and the Agency mean at retest (4.27; SD=1.01) were not statistically

significantly different, *t*(160)=.392, *p*=.696; The Pathways mean at test (4.19; SD=.99)

and the Pathways mean at retest (4.26; SD= 1.94) were not statistically significant

different, *t*(160)= -.466, *p*=.642. Results did not indicate any significant variation of the

scores across the testing times. Additionally, correlation coefficients were computed

among the CHS split-half subscale (Agency and Spanish) means according to language,

Spanish, English and Bilingual sample. Using the Bonferroni approach to control for

Type I error across the correlations, a *p* value of less than .005 (05/10)=.005 was required

for significance. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table 4 show that

the correlations were statistically significant and were greater than .31

Table 3

Test-Retest Reliability

	n	M	SD	t	df	Sig.
Agency	161					
Test		4.29	1.01	.392	160	.70
Retest		4.27	.99			
Pathways	161					
Test		4.19	.99	-.466	160	.64
Retest		4.26	1.94			

Table 4

Correlations Test-Retest

	Agency Retest	Pathways Retest
Bilingual Sample		
Agency	.78**	
Pathways		.39**
Spanish		
Agency	.82**	
Pathways		.76**
English		
Agency	.74**	
Pathways		.31**

** Significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

Construct Validity

Construct validity was examined by conducting Pearson correlations between the

Spanish language split-half subscales, the English language split-half subscales, and the

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) (Table 5). Correlation coefficients were computed

among the CHS split-half subscale (Agency and Spanish) means and the SWLS mean.

Additionally, the SWLS mean was correlated with the subscales means according to

language, English and Spanish. Using the Bonferroni approach to control for Type I error

across the three correlations, a *p* value of less than .005 (05/10)=.005 was required for

significance. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table *5* show that the

correlations were statistically significant and were greater than .43 (Bilingual sample, SWLS-Agency subscale r=.52, p=.001 and SWLS-Pathways subscale r= .46; Spanish Agency subscale and SWLS r=.50, p=.001, Spanish Pathways subscale and SWLS r=.49, p.=.001; English Agency subscale and SWLS r=.54, p=.001, and English Pathways subscale and SWLS r= .43, p=.001). Correlations indicated a moderate relationship between the construct of Hope and the measurement of life satisfaction.

Table 5

Construct Validity Correlations

	Pathways	SWLS
Bilingual Sample Agency	.67**	.52**
Bilingual Sample Pathways		.46**
Spanish		
Agency		.50**
Pathways		.49**
English		
Agency		.54**
Pathways		.43**

** Significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

Semantic Equivalence

Finally, a univariate analysis of variance was conducted to examine semantic equivalence between the CHS (English version) and the CHS (split halves) by comparing the means for the Agency and Pathways subscales with the subscales in the criterion sample (N=292). Results did not indicate a statistically significant difference between the criterion sample means and the bilingual means (F(1, 451)= 1.240, p=.27, for Agency; F(1, 451)=.102, p=.75, for Pathways). Analysis indicated semantic equivalence between the English and the Spanish Children's Hope Scale.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations of the CHS for the Bilingual and the Criterion samples

	n	M	SD
Agency			
Bilingual	161	4.29	.99
Criterion	292	4.40	.98
Pathways			
Bilingual	161	4.19	.99
Criterion	292	4.23	1.01

Table 6

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects of the CHS for the Bilingual and the Criterion Samples

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1.197 [a]	1	1.19	1.24	.27	.003
Intercept	7831.80	1	7831.80	8109.46	.000	.947
Bilingual.Criterion	1.19	1	1.197	1.24	.27	.003
Error	435.56	451	.97			
Total	9044.50	453				
Corrected Total	436.76	452				

a. R Squared= .003 (Adjusted R Squared= .001)

Chapter IV

Discussion

Snyder's (2002) motivational hope, based on the interaction between the mental energy (Agency) to want to accomplish a goal, and the way we plan to meet desired goals (Pathways) has shown relationships with other fundamental domains. High hope has been associated with elevated optimism, positive emotions, self-esteem, competitiveness, pain tolerance, and positive goal expectancies (Snyder et al., 1998). Additionally hope is reported to be an important predictor of academic success (Dweck, 1999).

The research on Hope theory explains how motivational forces help people achieve goals by maintaining the mental energy to plan and to overcome obstacles. The process of hope is then a learned cycle that becomes available every time we set goals, having the mental energy and the option of different ways to get to the final goal in the presence of impediments. To date, most of the studies on hope have been carried out on European American samples who speak English, with very little examination or interest in other racial/ethnic groups that will also benefit from this valuable theory. In a multicultural context, hope may have different variations across cultures, and more importantly across languages.

Snyder's (2002) image of the rainbow often symbolizes hope, however, what it appears to be missing is the consideration of the colors of the rainbow. This study had the purpose of helping to close the gap with regards to the lack of multicultural instruments that examine and teach positive constructs such as hope to people who may need it the most. For instance, even though the Latino population increased by 58% from 1990 to

2000, the percentage of Latinos living below the poverty level has remained the same. Some of the obstacles encountered by this minority group have to do with linguistic barriers and the challenges of acculturation that may lead to severely limiting social, economic, political, educational, and health service opportunities for this group (Biever et. al, 2002; Cervantes et al, 1991; Rogler et al., 1991). Also, Snyder (1994) described negative influences on the hope game that exemplifies all of the stages of goal blockage: acculturative stress, language barriers, prejudice, and poverty block important goals and continue to thwart goal pursuits over time; broad-scale goal blockage produces anger; anger or rage may be replaced by feelings of demoralization, and hope dwindles; despair about goals may follow helplessness; despair turns into apathy- people may abandon their goals and the pursuit of them; and finally, people may adopt the attitude that these goals are not available to them.

It is predicted that nearly one-third of those under 19 years of age will be Latinos by 2050. Because of the steadily growing Spanish speaking population in the U.S., it is imperative to teach children the concept of *Esperanza* (Hope). An essential component in this study was to make available the concept of hope to children who speak Spanish. The main reason why the focus of the study was aimed towards Spanish-speaking children rather than adults is the rapid increase of the younger population of Latinos in the U.S. For many years, Latinos in the U.S. have been facing similar problems to those discussed above (acculturation, language barriers, financial constrains, etc.), perhaps this is the time to break the cycle into which this minority group has fallen, in which the word hope is just that, a word. When minority children see their parents or caregivers go through the

death of hope sequence, they also become influenced by barriers and society's placating messages. As they grow, they encounter covert and overt barriers themselves, decreasing their pathways thinking. With the constant experiencing of goal blockages and the implicit and explicit messages from society, it becomes apparent that pursuit of their goals is not available to them. Agency thinking decreases and hope wanes (Lopez et al., 2000).

It is vital that as counseling psychologists we put great effort into making available theories that will potentially enhance the lives of people who lack resources and ways to improve their well-being. High levels of hope among children, especially minority children, will encourage goal-setting behavior, scholastic and social competence, creativity (Onwuegbuzie, 1999), and athletic engagement and performance ((Brown et al., 1999).

Because Spanish-speaking children are becoming a larger percentage of the total U.S. population it is crucial to have culturally and linguistically competent measures that allow us to measure and make accurate cross-cultural comparisons. In this study it was intended not only to translate the English version of the Children's Hope Scale, but also to find a robust method for doing so. The study went beyond the translation and back-translation of the instrument to improve over methods used in the past. By taking specific steps when translating and revising the measure, and by examining the semantic equivalence between languages using quantitative methods, we obtain valid and reliable measures that will help us research, teach, and work with this specific Spanish-speaking younger population.

Translation of the CHS

Marin & Marin (1991) noted that the success of a translated instrument depends on how qualified the translators are concerning their knowledge and experience about the language, the construct, and the population of interest. For the translation procedure and semantic equivalence we employed Mallinckrodt and Wang's (2004) recommended procedures. Several people assisted with this process including college students, psychologists, college professors, and people from the community. The variety of professions, national origin, and experiences in the U.S. contributed to a rich sense of sensitivity and awareness when working on this project.

After translating the Children's Hope scale from English to Spanish, outcomes of the analyses did not indicate a significant difference between the two versions. Split half subscales (Agency and Pathways) were analyzed and results did not depict a statistically significant difference among the subscales. Also, the assessment of reliability demonstrated internal consistency among English and Spanish subscales and there were no significant variations across test and retest.

Construct validity was examined by conducting Pearson correlations between the English and Spanish subscales and the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS). Statistically significant correlations were found among the variables (>.46). The lowest correlation was noted between Pathways and SWLS, perhaps due to the fact that the construct of life satisfaction more to do with mental processes than with ways to do things.

Finally, the last step of the analysis was to verify the semantic equivalence between the English and the Spanish versions using the DLSH frame of reference. A

criterion sample of 292 participants was used to look at differences between the two versions. Outcomes of the analysis did not depict statistically significant differences between the criterion sample means and the bilingual means. This last part of the study suggests that in fact the Spanish version of the CHS has similar psychometric properties to the English version.

The creation of linguistically and culturally competent scales will increase the involvement of Spanish speaking children in the measure of positive psychological constructs such as hope. Findings and procedures of this study contribute to the literature on multicultural assessment competency and the process of translating measures from English to Spanish or any other language using quantitative methods.

Limitations

Despite a Spanish-speaking growing population in the U.S., one of the main limitations of this study was the lack of access to bilingual children, especially in the state where this study took place, Kansas. Today, in the United States most Spanish-speaking children and families live in larger cities. There are a few schools in Kansas where bilingual children attend and it was difficult to target, identify, and obtain permission and collaboration from school districts due to hectic academic schedules and shortage of staff.

Poor Bilingual Literacy

Another important limitation was the children's literacy level in English and Spanish. Some students presented difficulties reading and writing in English, Spanish, or both. Even though they were fluent *speakers* in both languages, they indicated confusion when reading and writing in any language. One ELL coordinator who collaborated with

the study, explained that many of the students she works with have to work harder at improving their literacy in English in order to succeed in their regular classes. Nonetheless, they never work on their Spanish literacy due to the lack of Spanish classes. Thus, many students do graduate speaking "two languages" but only knowing how to read and write in one.

Research indicates that when Spanish-speaking children are expected to acquire literacy in a second language, English, without having fully acquired literacy in their native language, many difficulties can appear. The lack of literacy in their native language can create conflicts when developing cognitive skills for learning, a sense of self, and a cultural identity. Kaylor & Flores (2007) reported difficulties with the CHS. In their study, bilingual High school (9 -12th) students had difficulty understanding the wording of some items. Similar, during this study many participants expressed confusion about some of the words and their meaning. Most of the problems were due to being unable to read the word, but when they heard it they knew what they meant.

Lastly, another limitations in this study was the lack of diversity of the sample. Due to the lack of access to a broad sample, most children were high school students from a Mexican origin. It would have been ideal to have had a more representative sample of the Spanish-speaking population by having children from different national origins and subcultures and being able to reach younger students as well.

Implications

Implications of this study include the addition to the literature in counseling psychology about the use of quantitative methods when adapting measures from English to another language. The study offers evidence on the innovative use of quantitative methods when verifying for semantic equivalence. By using a method that will allow us to have better adapted measures, researchers can make valid cross-cultural comparisons without worrying about the validity and reliability of the translated measure. It is hoped that this detailed illustration can serve as a model for all researchers when adapting measures into other languages, to produce high-quality translated instruments.

Another important implication is the contribution of the Spanish CHS as a resource for teachers, school counselors, psychologists, and parents when introducing and teaching about the positive psychological construct of *Esperanza*, hope. As Snyder noted, "The price of excellence needs to be affordable to more children, and hope is the coin of this realm" (Snyder, 1995, p. 10 in speech notes) it is important that the concept of hope becomes available to all children. Some studies have depicted differences of hope levels related to race. When examining hope levels across different ethnic groups, it has been found that European Americans seemed to have fewer obstacles (e.g., oppression, prejudice) in their lives than minority groups (Snyder et al., 2003). Despite cultural variations such as race and ethnicity, socio economic status, religion, sex, and language, it is imperative to teach children how to set goals, overcome obstacles, and reach their desired goals. By translating the concept of hope into Spanish we will be spreading the talk of hope among Spanish speaking children. These children will benefit from the

concept of hope by learning about maintaining agency thinking and creating pathways thinking as ways to reach their goals while successfully managing potential impediments in the process.

Future directions include more studies attempting to establish the validity of the Spanish Children's Hope scale using a more diverse and representative sample of the Spanish-speaking population in the U.S. and the world, making available the scale to Spanish speaking populations who may benefit from it by learning about hope and doing research that will contribute to the improvement of cross-cultural practices.

Another interesting route is to examine how to best enhance hope among disadvantaged groups such as in the Latino population. Do we focus on raising agency, pathways, or both? After working with disadvantaged Latino children one can see that some don't even have a goal in mind due to the constant lack of pathways and resources during their lives. Maybe the key to making their hope levels higher will be through raising their pathways thinking and then the mental energy (agency) will come along. On the other hand, for privileged populations where it appears that there are more options and resources, it is expected that pathways levels will be higher than agency, so it will be vital in this case to concentrate on the mental energy (agency).

In conclusion, it is imperative to continue Snyder's legacy of preparing and teaching children from all racial and ethnic backgrounds to make positive life choices by instilling hope, and to improve his rainbow of hope by adding lots of colors to it!

References

Ægisdóttir, S., Gerstein, L., Çinarbas, D. (2008). Methodological issues in cross-cultural

    counseling research: Equivalence, bias, and translations. *The Counseling*

    Psychologist, 36(2), 188-219.

Abdel-Khalek, A. & C. R. Snyder. (2007). Correlates and predictors of an Arabic

    translation of the Snyder Hope Scale. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 2, (4),

    228-235.

Barker, R., Dembo, T., & Lewin, K. (1941). Frustration and regression: An experiment

    with young children. *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare,* 18(1), 131-140.

Beck, C. T., Bernal, H., & Froman, R. D. (2003). Methods to document semantic

    equivalence of a translated scale. *Research in Nursing and Health,* 26, 64-73.

Biever, J., Castano, M., de las Fuentes, C., Gonzalez, C., Servin-Lopez, S., Sprowls, C.,

    et al. (2002). The role of language in training psychologists to work with Hispanic

    clients. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 33, 330-336.

Brislin, R. W. (1970). Back-translation for cross-cultural research. *Journal of Cross*

    Cultural Psychology, 1, 185-216.

Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In H.

    C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology* (Vol 2,

    pp. 389-444). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Brislin, R. W., Lonner, W. J., & Thorndike, R. M. (1973). *Cross-cultural research*

    methods. New York: Wiley.

Brown, S. & Souto-Manning, M. (2008). "Culture is the way they live here": Young

Latin@s and parents navigate linguistic and cultural borderlands in U.S. schools. *Journal of Latinos and Education,* 7(1), 25-42.

Caldas S. & Caron-Caldas, S. (2002). A sociolinguistic analysis of the language preferences of adolescent bilinguals: Shifting allegiances and developing identities. *Applied Linguistics*, 23, 490-514.

Caraway, K., Tucker, C., Reinke, W., & Hall, C. (2003). Self-efficacy, orientation, and fear of failure as predictors of school engagement in high school students. *Psychology in the Schools*, 40, 417-427.

Cervantes, R., Padilla, A. & Salgado de Snyder, N. (1991). The Hispanic Stress Inventory: A culturally relevant approach to psychosocial assessment. *Psychological Assessment: A journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 3, 438-447.

Chang, E. C. (1998). Hope, problem-solving ability, and coping in a college student population: Some implications for theory and practice. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 54*, 953-962.

Chang, E. & Banks, K. (2007). The color and texture of hope: Some preliminary findings and implications for hope theory and counseling among diverse racial/ethnic groups. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 13, (2), 94-103.

Conti, R. (2000). College goals: Do self-determined and carefully considered goals predict intrinsic motivation, academic performance, and adjustment during the first semester? *Social Psychology of Education*, 4, 189-211.

Cornelius, W. (2002). Ambivalent reception: Mass public responses to the "new" Latino

immigration to the United States. *In M. Suarez-Orozco & M. Paez (Eds.) Latinos remaking America*. University of California Press: Los Angeles.

Dweck, C. S. (1999). *Self theories: Their role in motivation, personality, and development.* Philadelphia: Psychology Press.

Edwards, L., Ong, A., & Lopez, S. (2007). Hope measurement in Mexican American youth. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 29, (2), 225-241.

Flaherty, J. A., Gaviria, F. M., Pathak, D., Mitchell, T., Wintrob, R., & Richman, J. A. (1988). Developing instruments for cross-cultural psychiatric research. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disorders, 176*, 257-263.

Frehe, V. E. (2008). Beyond translation: *Encontrando la Voz Latina. The Community Psychologist,* 41, (2), p.34.

Froman, R., & Owens, S. (2001). Instrumentation concerns for multicultural research. In N. Chaska (Ed.), *The nursing profession: Tomorrow's vision*. Sage: Thousand Oaks, CA.

Hamers, J. (2000). *Bilinguality and bilingualism*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.

Hanssen, J. C. & Fouad, N. A. (1984). Translation and validation of the Spanish form of the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory. *Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 16,* 192-197.

Helms, J. & Cook, D. (1999). *Using race and culture in counseling and psychotherapy:*

Theory and process. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Hulin, C. L. (1987). A psychometric theory of evaluations of items and scale translations: Fidelity across languages. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology,* 18, 115-142.

Jordan, M. (2004, December 9). Report warns influx of Hispanics in South creates school crisis. *Wall Street Journal. P. B1*

Kaylor, M. & Flores, M. (2007). Increasing academic motivation in culturally and linguistically diverse students from low socioeconomic backgrounds. *Journal of Advance Academies*, 19(1), 66-89.

Kwon, P. (2000). Hope and dysphoria: The moderating role of defense mechanisms. *Journal of Personality, 68*, 199-233.

Leeson, P., Ciarrochi, P., & Heaven, C.L. (2008). Cognitive ability, personality, and academic performance in adolescence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 45, 630-635.

Lopez, S., Gariglietti, K., McDermott, D., Sherwin, E., Floyd, K., Rand, K., & Snyder, C.R. (2000). Hope for the evolution of diversity: On leveling the field of dreams. In C. R. Snyder (Ed.), *Handbook of hope: Theory, measures, and applications* (pp.223-242). New York: Academic Press.

McDermott, D., Hastings, S., Gariglietti, K., Gingerich, K., Callahan, B., & Diamond, K. (1997). *A cross cultural investigation of hope in children and adolescents.* Resources in Education: CG028078.

McGoldrick, M. Giordano, J., & Pearce, J. (1996). *Ethnicity and family therapy*. New
  York: Guildford Press.

Mallinckrodt, B. & Wang, C. (2004). Quantitative methods for verifying semantic
  equivalence of translated research instruments: A Chinese version of the
  experiences in close relationships scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology,* 51,
  (3), 368-379.

Marin, G., & Marin, B. (1991). *Research with Hispanic populations*. Sage: Newbury
  Park, CA.

Marques, S., Pais-Ribeiro, J. & Lopez, S. (2009). Validation of a Portuguese version of
  the Children's Hope Scale. *School Psychology International*, 30, (5), 538-551.

Mental Health: A Report of the Surgeon General. (1999). *Department of Health and
  Human Services*. Rockville, Md.

Olneck, M. (2009). What have immigrants wanted from American schools? What do they
  want now? Historical and contemporary perspectives on immigrants, language,
  and American schooling. *American Journal of Education,* 115, 379-406.

Onwuegbuzie, A. (1999). Relation of hope to self-perception. *Perceptual and Motor
  Skills,* 88, 535-540.

Rakke, B. K. (1997). Impact of self-report check list on level of hope upon. *Dissertation
  Abstracts International, 57(9-B)*, 5973.

Rogler, L., Cortes, D. & Malgady, R. (1991). Acculturation and mental health status
  among Hispanics: Convergence and new directions for research. *American
  Psychologist,* 46, 585-597.

Santos, R. (2004). Ensuring culturally and linguistically appropriate assessment of young children. *Young Children,* 59 (1), 48-50.

Simonsson-Sarnecki, M., Lundh, L. G., Toerestad, B., Bagby, R. M., Taylor, G. J., & Parker, J. D. A. (2000). A Swedish translation of the 20-item Toronto Alexithymia Scale: Cross –validation of the factor structure. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 41,* 25-30.

Singh, N., Baker, J., Winton, A., Lewis, D. (2000). Semantic equivalence of assessment instruments across cultures. *Journal of Child and Family Studies,* 9(2), 213-134.

Smart, J. & Smart, D. (1995). Acculturative stress: The experience of the Hispanic immigrant. *The Counseling Psychologist,* 23, 25-42.

Snyder, C. R. (1994). *The psychology of hope: You can get there from here.* New York: Free Press.

Snyder, C. R. (1995). Conceptualizing, measuring, and nurturing hope. *Journal of Counseling and Development,* 73, 355-360.

Snyder, C. R. (1995). *Children's hope and how we view excellence.* Invited address to the Esther Katz Rosen Symposium of Psychological Development of Children, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

Snyder, C. R. (2002). Hope theory: Rainbows in the mind. *Psychological Inquiry, 13*(4), 249-275.

Snyder, C. R., Cheavens, J., & Michael, S. T. (1999). Hoping. In C. R. Snyder (Ed.), *Coping: The psychology of what works* (pp. 205-231). New York: Oxford University Press.

Snyder, C. R., Irving, L. M., & Anderson, J. R. (1991). Hope and health: Measuring the will and the ways. In C. R. Snyder & D. R. Forsyth (Eds.), *Handbook of social and clinical psychology: The health perspective*. Elmsford, NY: Pergamon.

Snyder, C. R., LaPointe, A. B., Crowson, J., J. Jeffrey, & Early, S. (1998). Preferences of high- and low-hope people for self-referential input. *Cognition and Memory, 12*(6), 807-823.

Snyder, C. R., Hoza, B., Pelham, W. E., Rapoff, M., Ware, L., Danovsky, M., et al. (1997). The development and validation of the children's hope scale. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology, 22*, 399-421.

Snyder, C. R., Hal, S. S., Cheavens, J., Pulvers, K. M., Adams III, V. H., & Wiklund, C. (2002). Hope and academic success in college. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94*(4), 820-826.

Snyder, C. R., Harris, C., Anderson, J. R., Holleran, S. A., Irving, L. M., and Sigmon, S. T. (1991). The will and the ways: Development and validation of an individual-differences measure of hope. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 60*, 570-585.

Snyder, C. R., Lopez, S., Shorey, K. & Feldman, D. (2003). Hope theory, measurements, and applications to school psychology. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 18, 2, 122-139.

Snyder, C. R., Odle, C., Hackaman, J. (1999). Hope as related to perceived severity and tolerance of physical pain. *Paper presented at the American Psychological Association, Boston, MA*.

Snyder, C. R., Sympson, S. C., Michael, S. T., & Cheavens, J. (2000). The optimism and

      hope constructs: Variants on a positive expectancy theme. In E. C. Chang (Ed.),

      Optimism and pessimism (pp. 103-124). Washington, D.C.: American

      Psychological Association.

Snyder, C. R., Sympson, S. C., Ybasco, F. C., Borders, T. F., Bayback, M. A., & Higgins,

      R. L. (1996). Development and validation of the State Hope Scale. *Journal of*

      personality and Social Psychology, 70, 321-335.

Snyder, C. R., Wiklund, C., & Cheavens, J. (1999). *Hope and success in college.* Paper

      presented at the American Psychological Association, Boston, MA.

Sogunro, O. (2001). Toward multiculturalism: implications of multicultural education for

      schools. *Multicultural Perspectives, 3, 3, 19–33*.

Suarez, S., Fowers, B., Garwood, C. & Szapocznik, J. (1997). Biculturalism,

      differentness, loneliness, and alienation in Hispanic college students. *Hispanic*

      Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 19, 489-505.

Uba, L. (1994). *Asian Americans: Personality patters, identity, and mental health*. New

      York: Guildford Press.

U.S. Census Bureau (2008). Hispanic origin population. *Public Information Office*.

      Retrieved from http://www.census.gov/Press-Release/www/releases/.

Valdes, G. (2001). *Learning and not learning English: Latino students in American*

      schools. Teachers College Press: New York.

Valle, M. & Suldo, S. (2004). Further evaluation of the Children's Hope Scale. *Journal of*

      Psychoeducational Assessment, 22, 320-337.

Whaley, A. (2001). Cultural mistrust: An important psychological construct for diagnosis and treatment of African Americans. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 32, 555-562.

Zentella, A. (2002). Latin@ languages and identities. In M. Suarez-Orozco & M. Paez (Eds.). *Latinos remaking America*. University of California Press: Los Angeles.

Appendix A: Demographics Survey

1. Are you a girl or a boy? _____

2. What is your race/ethnicity? _____

3. How old are you? _____

4. What grade are you in? _____

5. What language do you speak the most? _____

6. What language do you speak at home? _____

7. How long have you been speaking English? _____

8. How long have you been speaking Spanish? _____

9. How well do you read and understand in English? (Please answer in English)

_____

_____

10. Que tan bien lees y entiendes en Español? (Por favor contesta en Español)

_____

_____

11. What is the difference between a zebra and a horse? (Please answer in English)

_____

_____

12. Que día de la semana es tu favorito? (Por favor contesta en Español)

_____

Appendix B: Adapted Children's Hope Scale

CHS-S   **La Escala de Esperanza para los Niños- Preguntas sobre tus objetivos**

Instrucciones: Las siguientes seis oraciones describen como los niños piensan sobre ellos mismos y como hacen las cosas en general. Lee cada oración con cuidado. Por cada oración, por favor piensa como eres en muchas situaciones. Por favor marca el círculo que mejor te describe. Por ejemplo, marca el círculo "En ninguna ocasión", si esto te describe. O, sí tu eres de esta manera "Todo el Tiempo", marca este círculo. Por favor contesta cada pregunta marcando uno de los círculos. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas.

1. Creo que me va muy bien.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

2. Yo puedo pensar en muchas maneras de conseguir las cosas que son importantes para mí en la vida.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

3. Me va tan bien como otros niños de mi edad.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

4. Cuando tengo un problema, yo puedo encontrar muchas maneras de resolverlo.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

5. Creo que las cosas que he hecho en el pasado me ayudarán en el futuro.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

6. Aún cuando otros quieren rendirse, yo sé que puedo encontrar maneras de resolver el problema.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

Nota: Cuando se administre esta escala a los niños no llevará impreso "La Escala de Esperanza para Niños", sino que en su lugar se llamara "Preguntas sobre tus objetivos". El puntaje total de la escala se obtiene al sumar las respuestas de las seis preguntas, con el siguiente valor "En ninguna ocasión" = 1; "En pocas ocasiones"= 2; "En algunas ocasiones"= 3; "En muchas ocasiones"= 4; "La mayoría de las veces"= 5; y "Todo el tiempo"= 6. Las preguntas impares representan agencia (energía mental), y las tres pares representan modos (diferentes maneras de solucionar un problema).

Appendix B: Children's Hope Scale (4 DLSH Forms)

Form A

Instrucciones: Las siguientes seis oraciones describen como los niños piensan sobre ellos mismos y como hacen las cosas en general. Lee cada oración con cuidado. Cuando leas cada oración, por favor piensa como eres en varias situaciones y marca el círculo que mejor te describe. Por ejemplo, si nunca haces lo que la oración dice, marca el círculo (**O**) "En ninguna ocasión." O, sí siempre haces lo que la oración describe, marca el círculo "Todo el Tiempo." Por favor contesta cada pregunta marcando uno de los círculos. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas."

Directions: The six sentences below describe how children think about themselves and how they do things in general. Read each sentences carefully. For each sentence, please think about how you are in most situations. Place a check inside the circle that describes YOU the best. For example, fill in the circle (**O**) below "None of the time", if this describes you. Or, if you are this way "All the time", fill in this circle. Please answer every question by filling in one of the circles. There are no right or wrong answers.

1.   Creo que me va muy bien.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

2.   Me va tan bien como otros niños de mi edad.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

3.   Creo que las cosas que he hecho en el pasado me ayudarán en el futuro.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

4.   I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are most important to me.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

5.   When I have a problem, I can come up with lots of ways to solve it.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

6.   Even when others want to quit, I know that I can find ways to solve the problem.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

Form B

Directions: The six sentences below describe how children think about themselves and how they do things in general. Read each sentences carefully. For each sentence, please think about how you are in most situations. Place a check inside the circle that describes YOU the best. For example, fill in the circle (**O**) below "None of the time", if this describes you. Or, if you are this way "All the time", fill in this circle. Please answer every question by filling in one of the circles. There are no right or wrong answers.

Instrucciones: Las siguientes seis oraciones describen como los niños piensan sobre ellos mismos y como hacen las cosas en general. Lee cada oración con cuidado. Cuando leas cada oración, por favor piensa como eres en varias situaciones y marca el círculo que mejor te describe. Por ejemplo, si nunca haces lo que la oración dice, marca el círculo (**O**) "En ninguna ocasión." O, sí siempre haces lo que la oración describe, marca el círculo "Todo el Tiempo." Por favor contesta cada pregunta marcando uno de los círculos. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas."

1. I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are most important to me.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

2. When I have a problem, I can come up with lots of ways to solve it.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

3. Even when others want to quit, I know that I can find ways to solve the problem.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

4. Creo que me va muy bien.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

5. Me va tan bien como otros niños de mi edad.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

6. Creo que las cosas que he hecho en el pasado me ayudarán en el futuro.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

Form C

Directions: The six sentences below describe how children think about themselves and how they do things in general. Read each sentences carefully. For each sentence, please think about how you are in most situations. Place a check inside the circle that describes YOU the best. For example, fill in the circle (**O**) below "None of the time", if this describes you. Or, if you are this way "All the time", fill in this circle. Please answer every question by filling in one of the circles. There are no right or wrong answers.

Instrucciones: Las siguientes seis oraciones describen como los niños piensan sobre ellos mismos y como hacen las cosas en general. Lee cada oración con cuidado. Cuando leas cada oración, por favor piensa como eres en varias situaciones y marca el círculo que mejor te describe. Por ejemplo, si nunca haces lo que la oración dice, marca el círculo (**O**) "En ninguna ocasión." O, sí siempre haces lo que la oración describe, marca el círculo "Todo el Tiempo." Por favor contesta cada pregunta marcando uno de los círculos. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas."

1. I think I am doing pretty well.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

2. I am doing just as well as other kids my age.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

3. I think the things I have done in the past will help me in the future.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

4. Yo puedo pensar en muchas maneras de conseguir las cosas que son importante para mi en la vida.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

5. Cuando tengo un problema, yo puedo encontrar muchas maneras de resolverlo.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

6. Aún cuando otros quieren rendirse, yo sé que puedo encontrar maneras de resolver el problema.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

Form D

Instrucciones: Las siguientes seis oraciones describen como los niños piensan sobre ellos mismos y como hacen las cosas en general. Lee cada oración con cuidado. Cuando leas cada oración, por favor piensa como eres en varias situaciones y marca el círculo que mejor te describe. Por ejemplo, si nunca haces lo que la oración dice, marca el círculo (**O**) "En ninguna ocasión." O, sí siempre haces lo que la oración describe, marca el círculo "Todo el Tiempo." Por favor contesta cada pregunta marcando uno de los círculos. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas."

Directions: The six sentences below describe how children think about themselves and how they do things in general. Read each sentences carefully. For each sentence, please think about how you are in most situations. Place a check inside the circle that describes YOU the best. For example, fill in the circle (**O**) below "None of the time", if this describes you. Or, if you are this way "All the time", fill in this circle. Please answer every question by filling in one of the circles. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. Yo puedo pensar en muchas maneras de conseguir las cosas que son importantes para mi en la vida.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

2. Cuando tengo un problema, yo puedo encontrar muchas maneras de resolverlo.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

3. Aún cuando otros quieren rendirse, yo sé que puedo encontrar maneras de resolver el problema.

En ninguna ocasión	En pocas ocasiones	En algunas ocasiones	En muchas ocasiones	La mayoría de las veces	Todo el tiempo
O	O	O	O	O	O

4. I think I am doing pretty well.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

5. I am doing just as well as other kids my age.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

6. I think the things I have done in the past will help me in the future.

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
O	O	O	O	O	O

Appendix D: SWLS

Directions: Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

1 - Strongly disagree	2 - Disagree	3 - Slightly disagree	4 - Neither agree nor disagree	5 - Slightly agree	6 - Agree	7 - Strongly agree

_____ In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

_____ The conditions of my life are excellent.

_____ I am satisfied with my life.

_____ So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

_____ If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing

Appendix E: Back Translation of the CHS-S

The Hope Scale for Children- Questions about your goals

Instructions: The following 6 sentences describe how children think about themselves and how they do things in general. Read each sentence with careful attention. For each sentence, please think about how you are in many situations. Please mark the circle that best describes you. For example, mark the circle "none of the time", if this describes you the best. Or, if you are this way "All of the time", mark this circle. Please answer each question marking each one of the circles. There are not right or wrong answers.

Back Translation	**English Version**
I think I am doing well	I think I am doing pretty well
I can think in many ways to get the things that are important for me in life	I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are most important to me
I do as well as other children my age	I am doing just as well as other kids my age
When I have a problem, I can find many ways to solve it	When I have a problem, I can come up with lots of ways to solve it
I think that the things that I have done in the past will help me in the future	I think the things I have done in the past will help me in the future
Even when others want to give up, I know that I can find many ways to solve the problem	Even when others want to quit, I know that I can find ways to solve the problem

Back Translation	None of the time	In rare occasions	In some occasions	In many occasions	Most of the time	All of the time
	O	O	O	O	O	O

English Version	None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	A lot of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
	O	O	O	O	O	O