

# National Identity and the Integration of Second-Generation Immigrants

Ole Monscheuer\*

*University of Heidelberg*

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## **Abstract**

This paper analyzes how the national identity of immigrants, measured as attachment to their origin country, influences the long-term integration of the second generation. The empirical analysis relies on data from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study (CILS) and an IV strategy, where the national attachment of parents is instrumented with an aggregate measure of national pride in the country of origin. A theoretical model on the transmission of identity across two generations is introduced to motivate this instrument. I find strong support for the theoretical prediction that a pronounced origin attachment of parents is transmitted to their children, and that it impedes children's assimilation. Children whose parents are strongly attached to their origin country have less contact with natives, speak English less frequently and more poorly, and perform worse in school than peers whose parents are less attached to their origin country. Furthermore, results from the CPS suggest that there exist negative long-term effects on labor market outcomes.

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\*Ole Monscheuer, Department of Economics, Alfred-Weber-Institut, Bergheimer Strasse 20, 69115 Heidelberg, Email: ole.monscheuer@awi.uni-heidelberg.de. I thank Marianne Bitler, Christina Gathmann, Stefan Klöpper, Martin Lange, Andreas Lichter, Joël Machado and participants at CReAM/RWI Workshop on the Economics of Migration, internal seminar at the University of Heidelberg, 11th RGS Doctoral Conference in Economics, Workshop on Microeconomics in Lüneburg, and the 21st IZA Summer School in Labor Economics, 32nd Annual ESPE Conference, 30th Annual EALE Conference, 8th Annual Conference on Immigration in OECD Countries for valuable comments.

# 1 Introduction

In recent years, the national identity of immigrants has increasingly attracted attention in public debates on immigrant integration in several destination countries. In particular, the weak record of integration in many European countries is often attributed to a strong attachment of immigrants to their origin countries. The observed persistence of pronounced origin country identities among immigrants, even among the second and third generation, is often argued to have detrimental effects for their long-term integration (e.g., *The Economist*, 2017, on the recent discussions about Turkish immigrants in Europe).

The economics literature proposes different theoretical arguments why the national identity of immigrants may affect their integration (e.g., Akerlof and Kranton, 2000, argue that identity affects preferences and economic behavior). A pronounced origin identity is likely to influence the ethnic composition of immigrants' social networks, leading to lower incentives to invest in country-specific human capital, and access to different information on the labor market (e.g., Battu et al., 2007). Furthermore, it may foster the formation of oppositional identities (e.g., Austen-Smith and Fryer, 2005). These factors may ultimately have negative effects on the school and labor market performance of immigrants and their descendants.

Despite the increasing public attention, little is known about the effects of immigrants' national identities. Only a few papers in economics have analyzed the link between national or ethnic identity, and the integration of first and second-generation immigrants. These studies have mostly reported correlations, and produced ambiguous results for European destination countries (e.g., Casey and Dustmann, 2010; Bisin et al., 2011).<sup>1</sup> For the United States, previous research on ethnic identity has exclusively focused on racial achievement gaps, and has paid little attention to its potential effects on the performance of immigrants (e.g., Austen-Smith and Fryer, 2005; Fryer and Torelli, 2010). However, questions regarding the factors that favor or impede long-term integration have become more prominent also in the United States, as the changing composition of immigrants since the 1960s is also reflected in a larger heterogeneity in assimilation patterns among more recent immigrant cohorts.<sup>2</sup>

In this paper, I investigate how the national identity of first-generation immigrants, measured as attachment to their origin country, influences the long-term integration of the second generation. In particular, this paper addresses the research question how the origin attachment of immigrant parents affects the integration of their children in the

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<sup>1</sup>The national identity of immigrants is generally treated as a concept of ethnic identity in this literature, and therefore, this paper also treats national identity as ethnic identity.

<sup>2</sup>Figure 1 illustrates this heterogeneity in terms of real wages for male second-generation immigrants. It reports origin country coefficients of second-generation immigrants in a log-wage regression for men in the CPS (1994-2015). While second-generation immigrants in the U.S. earn, conditional on education, on average 3% less than natives, there exists substantial heterogeneity across origin countries, even among immigrants from countries that are located within more homogeneous geographical areas.

dimensions of identity, social networks, language use and skills, and school performance.

To answer this question, I use a sample of immigrant parents and their children from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Survey (CILS). The CILS data include several variables reflecting a parent's attachment to her origin country, which are used as a composite measure to proxy national identity. The major challenge for identifying causal effects of immigrants' national attachment on their children's integration outcomes lies in its potential endogeneity. First, there might exist reverse causality such that a low performance of immigrants in the destination country may increase attachment to their origin country. Furthermore, immigrants with a strong origin attachment may have other traits that favor or impede integration.

Therefore, the empirical approach of this paper relies on an IV-strategy to overcome potential endogeneity. More specifically, the instrument for immigrants' national attachment is the average national pride of the population in their origin country, which is taken from the Integrated Values Survey (IVS). The instrument is based on the idea that immigrants from different backgrounds might be differently attached to their origin countries, since historical and cultural reasons affect the importance of national identity across countries. Since the instrument only uses variation across origin countries, it is by definition exogenous to parental experiences in the destination country that might make parents more origin-oriented. I motivate this empirical strategy with a theoretical model on the transmission of identity across generations. The model illustrates that immigrants from countries with a higher weight on national identity will choose an identity for themselves and their children that deviates less from the origin country's norms.

The empirical results indicate that immigrants from countries with high national pride are indeed more attached to their origin countries. Moreover, I find strong support for the theoretical prediction that a more pronounced origin attachment of parents is transmitted to their children, and that it impedes children's assimilation. Children whose parents are strongly attached to the origin country have less contact with natives, speak English less frequently and more poorly, and perform worse in school than peers whose parents are less attached to their origin country. Furthermore, reduced-form estimates in the Current Population Survey (CPS) suggest that a stronger origin identity leads to disadvantages in the labor market for male second-generation immigrants. All results are highly robust across various robustness checks.

The results of this study illustrate that the national identity of immigrants influences long-term integration. It affects their and their children's social networks and (country-specific) human capital investments, and leads to disadvantages in the labor market. Thus, whether immigrants are emotionally oriented towards their origin country or open to the new society, plays an important role for the integration process. The results therefore support inclusive policies that promote an immigrant's feeling of belonging to the destination society, since they have the potential to weaken origin ties and encourage the formation of a destination country identity. One example of such policies could be a

liberal access to citizenship. Furthermore, the recent efforts made by many countries to target the identity of immigrants more directly through immigration policies, might help to reduce negative effects of national attachment.<sup>3</sup>

The analysis in this paper contributes to three strands of literature. First, it is closely related to the rapidly growing literature on identity in economics, and in particular to the literature on ethnic identity, its intergenerational transmission, and its effects on school or labor market performance. A couple of theoretical studies analyze the link between ethnic identity and education or labor market outcomes. Their main focus lies on the formation of oppositional identities among ethnic minorities, and on potential trade-offs between a pronounced ethnic identity and school or labor market opportunities (e.g., Austen-Smith and Fryer, 2005; Battu et al., 2007; Patacchini and Zenou, 2016). Empirically, a few papers study correlations between ethnic identity and labor market outcomes of immigrants. Most of these papers use variables such as ethnic self-identification, language use, number of same-origin friends, or attachment to religion as proxies for ethnic identity, and produce ambiguous results on its link with labor market outcomes (e.g., Casey and Dustmann, 2010; Bisin et al., 2011; Nekby and Rödin, 2010; Battu and Zenou, 2010). While some find penalties for having a strong ethnic identity (e.g., Bisin et al., 2011), others do not find negative effects (e.g., Casey and Dustmann, 2010). Again other papers focus on the formation of the destination country identity rather than the origin country identity (e.g., Manning and Roy, 2010). The main contribution of this paper to this literature is that it exploits exogenous variation in the importance of the origin country identity of immigrants, in order to estimate its causal effects on integration outcomes.<sup>4</sup> Furthermore, it uses a novel concept of ethnic identity, namely the attachment of immigrants to their origin country. This measure of ethnic identity has the advantage that it is not an integration outcome itself unlike some imposed measures of ethnic identity in the literature (e.g., the language use of immigrants). Another advantage of this measure is that it represents effectively the idea of identity that is present in public debates on immigrants' identity. A third contribution of this paper to this literature is that it investigates the effects of national identity on the integration of immigrants in the U.S., whereas most previous research on ethnic identity in the U.S. has focused on explaining racial achievement gaps.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>One type of these policies are compulsory language and integration courses that exist for example in France (Service-Public, 2018) and Germany (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge, 2016). A second type are requirements for naturalization that demand immigrants to commit to the destination country's culture and value system, and have been introduced in many countries in recent years (e.g., civics test in the U.S.).

<sup>4</sup>As opposed to other papers, such as Nekby and Rödin (2010), who differentiate four dimensions of the national identity of immigrants by considering combinations of the origin and the destination country identities, this paper does not consider the effects of changes in immigrants' destination country identity. The focus lies exclusively on the origin identity, since the exogenous variation only affects the origin country identity in this setting.

<sup>5</sup>For instance, the studies of Austen-Smith and Fryer (2005) and Fryer and Torelli (2010) are concerned with the achievement gaps between Black and White students in the U.S.

Second, this paper contributes to the sizable literature on immigrant assimilation, since it analyzes identity as a factor that influences long-term assimilation (e.g., Chiswick, 1978; Borjas, 1985, 1995; Duleep and Regets, 1999; Lubotsky, 2007; Card, 2005). It also contributes to the literature on the assimilation of second-generation immigrants by focusing on outcomes of this population (Dustmann and Glitz, 2011; Borjas, 1992, 1993; Card, 2005; Sweetman and Van Ours, 2014). Furthermore, this study is related to the literature on ethnic capital and ethnic networks, since the social networks of parents are found to depend on their national attachment (Battisti et al., 2016; Bisin et al., 2011; Borjas, 1992; Cutler and Glaeser, 1997; Dustmann et al., 2016).

Finally, the empirical approach in this paper is related to a growing literature that tries to identify the economic effects of culture through the use of the epidemiological approach (e.g., Blau, 1992; Blau et al., 2011; Giuliano, 2007; Fernández and Fogli, 2009; Fernández, 2011).<sup>6</sup> My approach exploits a similar type of variation to the epidemiological approach, namely variation in an aggregate measure across origin countries of second-generation immigrants. However, compared to studies that apply the epidemiological approach, the IV-approach allows to narrow down the channel through which culture works. Moreover, the data provide rich information on the parents such that I can control for many important characteristics that might be omitted when applying the epidemiological approach (e.g., parents' education, labor market position, and years since migration).

The paper proceeds as follows. The next section discusses the theoretical mechanisms through which parents' national identity could affect the integration of their children. Furthermore, a theoretical model on the transmission of identity is introduced in order to motivate the empirical strategy of this paper. Section 3 introduces the data sources as well as the empirical strategy to identify the effects of national attachment. Section 4 discusses the empirical results. Section 5 presents additional results and a range of sensitivity checks in order to demonstrate the robustness of the results, and Section 6 concludes.

## 2 Theoretical Considerations

In this section, I discuss mechanisms through which immigrants' attachment to their origin country could affect the integration of their children. Building on this discussion, I then introduce a simple model on the intergenerational transmission of identity that motivates my empirical strategy.

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<sup>6</sup>The epidemiological approach “is the attempt to identify the effect of culture through the variation in economic outcomes of individuals who share the same economic and institutional environment, but whose social beliefs are potentially different” (Fernández, 2011, p. 489). In this empirical literature, cultural variation across origin countries is used to investigate how culture affects outcomes like female labor supply, fertility (Fernández and Fogli, 2009) or living arrangements (Giuliano, 2007) in the host country among second- or third-generation immigrants (see Fernández, 2011, for a survey).

## 2.1 Origin Attachment and Long-Term Integration

The identity of immigrants and their descendants might matter for important life choices for several potential reasons. Identity influences preferences, creates externalities, and affects economic behavior. All of these factors have effects on economic performance (e.g., Akerlof and Kranton, 2000). In the given context, there are two particularly relevant channels through which a stronger origin attachment of immigrant parents could affect the long-term integration of their children.

The attachment of immigrants to their origin country is likely to have an influence on their preferences with respect to social networks. After immigrating to the destination country, immigrants with a strong national attachment to the origin country will therefore choose social networks with a higher emphasis on the origin country, i.e., they are likely to have more friends and acquaintances who are immigrants from the same origin country.<sup>7</sup> Thus, the children of parents with a strong ethnic identity grow up in a different social surrounding, which is induced by their parents' choices. Bisin and Verdier (2011) describe, for example, that self-segregation of parents is a decision where the cultural composition of the surrounding is at least partly under control of the parents. They can choose schools, neighborhoods, peers, and so on, and thereby influence their children, who then pick traits by matching in society.

These more pronounced ethnic networks are likely to have negative effects on the long-term integration of children for different reasons. Growing up in a surrounding with more persons of the same national background will decrease incentives and opportunities to invest in country-specific human capital, such as the destination country language. Hence, children of immigrants with strong origin-country networks might end up having a lower language proficiency – with negative consequences for their school and labor market performance (e.g., Chiswick and Miller, 2002; Bleakley and Chin, 2004). Another reason is that ethnic rather than native networks are likely to provide different information regarding labor market opportunities. Battu et al. (2007) model such a trade-off between labor market opportunities and ethnic preferences. In both cases, parents' preferences with respect to social networks will negatively affect their children's education and labor market success through a different horizontal socialization.

Apart from inducing a different social network, parents also affect their children through vertical socialization. Immigrant parents with a strong origin attachment are likely to transmit their origin attachment to the children. For example, they might raise their children more according to their origin culture, talk more positively about the origin country, or visit the country more often. This vertical transmission of the ethnic identity could affect the child because the stronger origin attachment of a child will lead to social network preferences that are similar to those of their parents. Hence, the same mecha-

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<sup>7</sup>For example, Fryer and Torelli (2010) use a measure that is based on the share of same-race friends as a proxy for ethnic identity.

nisms will apply to a child's network with the consequences described above. Additionally, immigrant children with a strong origin identity might be more likely to form oppositional identities. For example, Austen-Smith and Fryer (2005) formalize a particular peer effect, "acting White," as a two-audience signaling problem: In their model, ethnic minorities face a tension between signaling their type to the outside labor market and their peers, since signals that induce high wages can be signals that induce peer rejection. A similar mechanism could also apply for children of immigrants.

The discussion of theoretical mechanisms gives reasons to expect that a stronger origin attachment of immigrant parents could have negative effects on the integration of second-generation immigrants. In particular, one can form the expectation for the empirical analysis that children of parents with a strong origin attachment have a more ethnic social network, speak the destination country's language less frequently and more poorly, and perform worse in school and in the labor market. Furthermore, immigrant children of parents who are more attached to the origin country are more likely to develop a more pronounced origin identity, and consequently, this may result in an oppositional identity.

## 2.2 The Transmission of Ethnic Identity

After discussing theoretical arguments for the expectation that a stronger origin attachment of immigrants negatively affects the long-term integration, I introduce in this subsection a simple model on the transmission of ethnic identity from parents to children.<sup>8</sup> The model allows to formalize ideas regarding the mechanisms that form the ethnic identity of immigrants and their children, and will furthermore be useful to motivate the choice of the instrument in the empirical setting.

In this model, parents who migrate to a country face the decision to what extent they acculturate and how to raise their children. Very simplified, the identity choices that parents have to take are therefore the decisions on how much they and their children should assimilate and deviate from the origin identity.

Parents are assumed to have an interest in preserving their origin identity, since they grew up in the origin country and were raised according to its norms and values. However, as argued in the previous section, a strong origin identity might negatively affect an immigrant's labor market position. Hence, the decision for the parents' identity depends on the effect of acculturation on their labor market position, and on the disutility from deviating from the origin culture.

Parents further have to decide how to educate and raise their children, and which values and norms to transmit to them, thereby implicitly deciding on their identity. Marks et al. (2007) illustrate that the level of immigrant parents' acculturation influences the development of their children's ethnic identity. This may be the case because they prefer that their children become similar to themselves, but they may also simply not be able to

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<sup>8</sup>National attachment to the origin country is conceptually treated as ethnic identity in this model.

educate their children in a way that promotes the destination country's views and norms. At the same time, altruistic parents have incentives to maximize the future prospects of their descendants. Hence, if a strong ethnic identity of children decreases their future chances in the labor market, or if it creates disutility through other channels, for example due to a higher risk of social marginalization, then this will also influence the identity decision of parents.

Parents therefore face a trade-off. They want to maximize their utility by maintaining origin norms and by raising their children similarly to themselves and ultimately similar to those origin norms. Conversely, they want to minimize possible disadvantages from an identity that deviates too much from the native norms.

The following utility function of parents formalizes these ideas:

$$U_p = y_p + \pi u_c - \theta(I_c - I_p)^2 - \mu(I_p - x_o)^2. \quad (1)$$

In this formulation, the utility  $U_p$  of a parent  $p$  depends on her income  $y_p$  and the future utility of her child  $c$ ,  $u_c$ .  $I_p$  and  $I_c$  represent the identity of the parent and the child respectively, and  $x_o$  are the norms and values of the origin country. The latter two parts of the utility function are loss functions, decreasing the utility of a parent if children deviate from parents, as well as if parents deviate from the origin country norms. The weights  $\theta$  and  $\mu$  determine how important each part is for the utility of a parent.

The child's future utility  $u_c$  depends on future earnings and the social status of a child,

$$u_c = y_c - S(I_c), \text{ with } S'_{I_c}(\cdot) > 0, \quad (2)$$

where  $y_c$  represents future earnings of a child, and the function  $S(I_c)$  describes potential effects of a strong ethnic identity on the child's social position in society. As previously discussed, a stronger ethnic identity may affect the utility that a child gains from its social status, for example, if it causes the child to feel marginalized throughout her life.

The future earnings of a parent and her child are given by

$$y_p = t_p - \zeta(I_p), \text{ with } \zeta'_{I_p}(\cdot) > 0 \quad (3)$$

$$y_c = t_c - \sigma\zeta(I_p) - \eta(I_c), \text{ with } \eta'_{I_c}(\cdot) > 0 \text{ and } 0 \leq \sigma \leq 1. \quad (4)$$

Earnings depend on the individual earnings potentials  $t_p$  and  $t_c$ , as well as functions  $\zeta(I_p)$  and  $\eta(I_c)$  through which the ethnic identity of the child and the parent, may have an effect on the labor market position. The assumption that the first derivatives of those functions are positive, meaning that the earnings of parents and children depend negatively on identity, are reasoned in the previous section.

Therefore, a parent who has to decide on her own and her child's ethnic identity in this model faces the trade-off outlined above: A strong ethnic identity of a parent



minimizes losses from the latter loss function, since the parent does not deviate so much from the origin country's norms. At the same time, it decreases utility due to its effects on the earnings of the parent and future earnings of the child. A decision for a strong ethnic identity of a child might decrease the distance between the parent's and the child's identity, and therefore increase utility. However, the decision for a strong ethnic identity of a child generates disutility for the parent through its negative effects on the child's social position, and the future earnings of the child.

The parent maximizes  $U_p$  with respect to  $I_c$  and  $I_p$ . Maximizing equation (1) with respect to the child's identity  $I_c$  and solving the first order condition gives

$$I_c = I_p - \frac{\pi}{2\theta} \left( \eta'(I_c) + S'(I_c) \right). \quad (5)$$

Maximizing equation (1) with respect to the parent's identity  $I_p$  gives the parent's optimal choice of identity:

$$I_p = \frac{1}{\theta + \mu} \left[ \mu x_o + \theta I_c - \left( \frac{1 + \pi\sigma}{2} \right) \zeta'(I_p) \right]. \quad (6)$$

Substituting the parent's optimal identity from equation (6) into equation (5) and solving by  $I_c$  gives:

$$I_c = x_o - \left( \frac{1 + \pi\sigma}{2\mu} \right) \zeta'(I_p) - \frac{\pi(\theta + \mu)}{2\theta\mu} \left( \eta'(I_c) + S'(I_c) \right). \quad (7)$$

Equations (5) and (7) illustrate that in the absence of negative effects of a pronounced ethnic identity of the parent and the child (with respect to the earnings of the parent or the future utility of the child), a parent would choose an identity for her child that is equal to her own identity, and ultimately resembles the norms of her origin country,  $x_o$ . However, due to the negative effects of a strong ethnic identity, the identity of the parent will deviate from her origin country's norms, and the identity of the child will deviate from the parent's identity. In equation (7) one can see that the difference between a child's optimal identity  $I_c$  and the origin norms  $x_o$  is larger, the larger the negative effects of a strong identity of parents and children are, i.e., the larger  $\zeta'(I_p)$ ,  $\eta'(I_c)$  and  $S'(I_c)$ . Furthermore, the size of the deviation depends positively on the weight  $\pi$ , which reflects the altruism of the parent, and negatively on the weights on the loss functions,  $\theta$  and  $\mu$ . It is an intuitive result that altruistic parents deviate more from the preferred level of ethnic identity when facing negative consequences of a strong ethnic identity for their children's future utility. Additionally, it is also plausible that parents who are more interested in raising their children similar to themselves (high  $\theta$ ), as well as immigrants who care more about being similar to the norms of their origin country (high  $\mu$ ), will deviate less from the origin norms when facing negative effects of a strong ethnic identity.

The basic results of the model illustrate that immigrants are likely to transmit their ethnic identity to their children. More interestingly, they also allow to think of sources of exogenous variation that cause differences in ethnic identity among immigrants and their children, in order to empirically identify the effects of ethnic identity. For example, the

national identity might play a different role across countries, since the national feelings might be shaped over a long time and be based on historical events and culture. In Germany, for instance, national identity plays a less important role than in countries such as the United States or France. Immigrants from origin countries with a high importance of national feelings might also be more affected by deviations from the origin country's norms after immigration. In the model, such a heterogeneity will translate into an origin country-dependent weight on the second loss function:  $\mu_o$ . In equation (6) and (7), one can see that immigrants from countries with a higher importance of the national identity (which translates into a higher value of  $\mu_o$ ) will choose an identity for themselves and their children that deviates less from the origin norms. The discussion on the assumptions  $\eta'_{I_c}(I_c) > 0$  and  $\zeta'_{I_i}(I_i) > 0$  support the idea that ceteris paribus, an increase in  $\mu_o$  and thus in  $I_i$  and  $I_c$ , will lead to negative effects on the labor market position of both parents and children.

As will be discussed in the next section, I use a proxy for  $\mu_o$  in the empirical part of the analysis to identify the causal effect of immigrants' origin identity on the integration of their children. This proxy will be the average national pride in the origin country of immigrant parents, since it reflects differences in the importance of national feelings across countries.

### 3 Data and Empirical Strategy

Based on the theoretical discussion in Section 2.1, the empirical analysis is concerned with the effects of national attachment of immigrant parents on their children's integration in the dimensions of ethnic identity, oppositional identities, social networks, language use and skills, and education. For this purpose, I use data from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study (CILS), which contains information on both the origin attachment of immigrant parents and integration outcomes of their children at different ages. Since origin attachment of first generation immigrants might be endogenous, I apply an IV-strategy where I instrument national attachment of parents with a measure of national pride in the country of origin. The idea is that immigrants from different backgrounds assign a different importance to their national identity, as captured by the weight  $\mu_o$  in the theoretical model in the previous section.

#### 3.1 Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study (CILS)

The main analysis builds on data from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study (CILS), which was designed to study the assimilation process of immigrant children in the United States. It includes a broad range of information including variables on demographics, language knowledge and preference, ethnic identity, self-esteem, school and academic attainment, and social networks of both parents (first-generation immigrants)

and their children (second-generation immigrants). The first survey was conducted in 1992 with 5,262 children in junior high school, at average age 14, in Miami and Fort Lauderdale, Florida, and in San Diego, California. The survey observes the children two more times in 1995 and between 2001 and 2003 at age 17 and 24, respectively. Each of the two follow-up surveys retrieve about 85% of the previous sample. In addition, a parental survey was conducted together with the first follow-up survey. For reasons of cost, this survey targeted half of the total universe of parents, selecting them on a random basis. Hence, only 46% of the original student sample's parents were interviewed.

In my sample, second-generation immigrants are defined as children who were born in the United States but have at least one foreign-born parent, or migrated at very young age (younger than nine years old).<sup>9</sup> I define the origin country of second-generation immigrants as the place of birth of their respective parent from the parent survey.<sup>10</sup> Only children who are observed in all three waves and whose parents attended the survey are considered in the main analysis. The resulting main sample includes 799 children and their parents who immigrated from 24 different origin countries. The distribution of origin countries can be seen in Table A1.<sup>11</sup> It is different than the representative distribution in the Current Populations Survey, since it reflects the composition of immigrants in the cities where the interviews took place. The majority of parents in this sample immigrated from Asian countries (i.e., the Philippines and Vietnam) or North-American countries (i.e., Mexico). Summary statistics are reported in Table A2. About 53% of the children are female, 13% are born to an intermarried couple, and about 43% of the children are born outside the U.S. Parents are on average 47 years old and immigrated to the United States on average 20 years ago.<sup>12</sup>

The key independent variable in my analysis is the composite measure 'Origin Ties,' which measures parents' national attachment to their origin country. This variable is obtained with a principal component analysis of the following five dummy variables that reflect whether the country of origin plays an important role for the identity of a parent:

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<sup>9</sup>Literature in psychology and economics suggests that childhood immigrants who arrived at age nine or younger from non-English-speaking countries are able to learn English better than those who arrived at an older age (e.g., Bleakley and Chin, 2010). However, also restricting the sample to children that immigrated at an age younger than 4 years old does not change the results.

<sup>10</sup>About 80% of the responding parents have partners who originate from the same origin country, and about 13% have native partners. For children, whose parents were born in different origin countries, I use the birth country of the parent who responded in the survey for two reasons: First, I am interested in the effect of the origin attachment of parents on the child's integration, and hence I need the information from the survey on the parent's origin attachment; second, since the parent answers the survey, the parent seems to be responsible to interact with the school and to play an important role in the education of the child.

<sup>11</sup>The sample is further restricted to immigrants and their children whose origin countries take part in the Integrated Values Survey, since it is the source of the instrumental variable. For that reason, immigrant children with parents from Cuba, which is among the most important source countries of immigrants in Miami, had to be dropped.

<sup>12</sup>When I do not restrict the sample to those children who participated in all three waves, the sample comprises 1218 children from 28 origin countries. As one can see in Table A2 (right columns), the summary statistics do not differ systematically. Also the results are fairly similar as will be discussed in Section 5. Hence, selective attrition seems not to influence my results.

1) whether a parent is very proud of the origin country; 2) whether she talks a lot about the origin country with her child; 3) whether she celebrates origin country holidays a lot; 4) whether she agrees a lot that contact to compatriots is very important; and 5) whether a parent buys from shops owned by compatriots. The composite index explains roughly 40% of the total variance. Factor loadings show that it is almost equally driven by the first four variables, whereas the fifth contributes to a lesser extent. In fact, summary statistics of the different components illustrate that parents have a rather strong orientation to their origin countries. About 80% of the parents state that they are very proud of their country of origin, and about half of them talks a lot with their children about the country or consider contact with compatriots as very important. One third of the parents celebrates origin country holidays a lot, and about 20% buy from shops owned by compatriots.

My main dependent variables comprise outcomes of parents and children in all three waves and cover the different dimensions of integration discussed in Section 2: ethnic identity and the formation of oppositional identities, social network choices, language use and skills, and school performance.<sup>13</sup> The ethnic identity of second-generation immigrants is conceptualized empirically by the respondents' ethnic self-identification, which is observed in the all three waves. I use a dummy variable indicating whether the observed children self-identify by national origin as opposed to American, hyphenated, racial or mixed identities. Oppositional identities are approximated by variables that indicate some sort of negative feelings towards the native population. In order to study whether a higher national attachment of parents influences the social network of their children, I exploit parents' information on the racial composition of their neighborhood and children's information on their social network. To study differences in language use, I analyze outcomes that indicate whether English is the preferred language with friends, parents, and own potential children in the future. Language skills are measured in each wave comparably as self-assessed skills on a scale from 1 to 4 in the areas of speaking, reading, understanding, and writing. The mean value of those four categories gives a composite measure on English skills that is used as a dependent variable in my analysis. Finally, I analyze the effect of national attachment of immigrant parents on the integration of their children with respect to educational outcomes. The first CILS wave includes Stanford mathematics and reading achievement tests. I use the percentile rank with regard to the national percentiles of those tests as dependent variables, in order to analyze objective measures of skills. Furthermore, grade point averages from school are available in the first and second wave when children are 14 and 17 years old. At age 24, different and less precise measures of education are available, and therefore I only analyze the effects of parents' national attachment on the years of education and whether a respondent graduated from college within the last five years as education outcomes.

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<sup>13</sup>Whenever possible, the same questions are used in different waves in order to compare the results at different ages. However, the questionnaires change a lot throughout the three waves, such that it is not always possible to compare results.

Summary statistics of all dependent and independent variables are shown in Table A2. One can see that the national origin identity of second-generation immigrants in my sample is relatively pronounced in all three waves, while only a minority of immigrant children identify themselves as American. About 60% of the children have mostly foreign friends. They have a strong tendency to avoid speaking English with friends (63% at age 14), family (84% at age 14), and even future children (70% at age 24), despite having good (subjective) English skills on average. Children in the CILS sample have better math skills on average (56.93) than the national mean; however, the mean in reading percentile rank is substantially lower (48.41), reflecting the immigration background of the sample. The mean grade point average in my sample is about 2.8 for children aged 14 and 17. Among the 24 years-old second-generation immigrants, 54% are still in school. On average, the second-generation immigrants in my sample have spent 14.5 years in education, and about 37% have graduated from college in the last five years at age 24.

### 3.2 Empirical Strategy

This study aims to examine the causal effect of national attachment of immigrant parents on their children’s integration outcomes. However, there are reasons to believe that the national attachment of parents is not exogenous to the parents’ situation or background. There might be reverse causality, such that an immigrant who is less successful in a new society forms a stronger origin identity. Furthermore, immigrants’ origin attachment could be endogenous to other traits that affect integration. For example, immigrants who migrate for different reasons, such as political or economic reasons, could differ both in terms of their integration success and their origin attachment.

In order to overcome this potential endogeneity, I apply an instrumental variable strategy. More specifically, the national attachment of immigrant parents is instrumented with a measure of national pride in a parent’s origin country. The instrument exploits variation in the importance of the national identity over origin countries, in the theoretical model captured by the weight  $\mu_o$ . I estimate two-stage-least-squares regressions with the first stage

$$origin\_ties_{pod} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 national\_pride_o + \alpha_2 X_{cpod} + \nu_d + \lambda_r + u_{cpod}, \quad (8)$$

and the following second stage:

$$Y_{cpod} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \widehat{origin\_ties}_{pod} + \beta_2 X_{cpod} + \nu_d + \lambda_r + \varepsilon_{cpod}. \quad (9)$$

$Y_{cpod}$  represents an integration outcome of child  $c$ , who lives in destination city  $d$  and whose parent  $p$  originates from country  $o$ . The predicted origin ties of the child’s parent from the first stage are  $\widehat{origin\_ties}_{pod}$ .  $X_{cpod}$  consists of control variables on the level of the parents (polynomials of years since migration and age, gender, education, employment status,

having a native partner), the children (gender, foreign-born), and the origin country (share of origin-immigrants in the city, real GDP per capita, English language).<sup>14</sup> Furthermore, equations (8) and (9) control for city fixed effects and region of origin fixed effects ( $\nu_d$  and  $\lambda_r$ ).<sup>15</sup> The error terms are clustered at the origin country level.<sup>16</sup>

The parameter of interest is  $\beta_1$ , which identifies the effect of parents' national attachment if the average national pride in the origin country is correlated with national attachment (relevance), and if the exclusion restriction holds. The identifying assumption as well as threats to identification are discussed in detail in Subsection 3.2.2, after introducing and discussing the instrument in the following subsection.

### 3.2.1 The Instrument – National Pride in the Country of Origin

The measure of national pride that is used as an instrument for the national attachment of immigrant parents is obtained from a question in the Integrated Values Survey 1981-2014 (IVS), which asks the respondents how proud they are of their nationality.<sup>17</sup> The variable can take values from 0 to 3, with 0 being “not proud at all”, 1 “not very proud”, 2 “quite proud”, and 3 “very proud”. When aggregating this variable on country-level, simple country averages might reflect to some extent the composition of the EVS sample. Hence, I apply a procedure similar to that conducted by Giavazzi et al. (2013): I estimate a regression model for national pride, controlling for individual characteristics and wave fixed effects, and include country fixed effects which capture the country-specific feature of national pride.<sup>18</sup>

Table A3 shows the countries covered and the corresponding values of national pride and other aggregated variables on national feelings that I use in the analysis. Column (1) shows the measure of national pride that I utilize in most of my analysis (country fixed effects). In column (2), the simple country-averages of national pride from the IVS are displayed. The values of the two national pride measures differ for some countries more than for others. However, they are strongly correlated and therefore produce similar results.

The mean value of national pride (country fixed effects) among the different countries

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<sup>14</sup>The share of compatriots in each city is calculated from census data in 1990. Data on real GDP per capita in 2000 (in U.S. dollars) is taken from Gleditsch (2002). Using information on real GDP per capita in 1990 or 1980 does not affect results, but reduces the number of observations (not reported).

<sup>15</sup>Using school fixed effects instead of city fixed effects does not change results. I define broad regions of origin: Europe, Asia, Africa, Middle East, South America, North America, and Oceania.

<sup>16</sup>Alternatively, I implement a wild cluster bootstrap procedure for instrumental variables to estimate confidence intervals with a small number of clusters (Cameron et al., 2008; Davidson and MacKinnon, 2010; Roodman et al., 2018). Wild cluster bootstrap confidence intervals confirm the results from the main specification. These additional results are available upon request.

<sup>17</sup>The IVS combines the European Values Longitudinal data File 1981-2008 (EVS) and the World Values Surveys Longitudinal data File 1981-2014 (WVS). The aggregated data set that is used in order to obtain country-averages for national pride includes more than 470.000 interviews, covering in total 110 countries.

<sup>18</sup>Using the mean values of wave-specific country fixed effects, as well as using simple country-averages as measure of national pride, does not change the results.

in the IVS is 2.39, indicating that national pride is on average important around the world. However, national pride varies considerably across countries, with the lowest value of 1.54 in Hong Kong and the highest value of 2.89 in Ghana. The values resonate quite well with other research on national pride and national attachment. Leading countries in a ranking of general national pride among 21 countries by Smith and Kim (2006), such as the United States, the Philippines or Australia, also have considerably high average values of national pride in the Integrated Values Survey (United States 2.62, Philippines 2.69, Australia 2.59), whereas low ranked countries like Latvia and Germany also have low average values of national pride (Latvia 2.06, Germany 1.77).

In order to argue that the measure of national pride in the IVS actually reflects national pride or national feelings, I additionally use data from the International Social Survey Programm (ISSP), which conducted studies on National Identity in 1995 and 2003.<sup>19</sup> Comparing the values of the IVS national pride variable with an identically phrased question about national pride in column (3) in Table A3 shows a high correlation (0.873). This supports the claim that the pattern of the national pride variable is not unique to the World Values Survey or the European Values Survey.

The ISSP data is further useful in order to gain a deeper understanding of the variable ‘National Pride’ and its relationship to other concepts of national feelings. Generally, the sociological literature distinguishes between two distinct sub-dimensions of national feelings: nationalism and constructive patriotism. While nationalism can be characterized as a blind idealization of the nation, patriotism rather rejects an idealization of the nation and reflects a constructive and critical view of it (Schatz et al., 1999; Sidanius et al., 1997). National pride could in general represent both of these two categories, since it could reflect blind nationalistic pride, and conversely well differentiated pride on certain achievements of a nation like human rights. Davidov (2011) proposes composite measures of nationalism and constructive patriotism that are constructed in the ISSP data and presented in columns (4) and (5) of Table A3.<sup>20</sup> All three indicators, national pride, nationalism, and constructive patriotism, are positively correlated. However, the question regarding national pride in the IVS reflects rather nationalism than constructive patriotism, since the correlation between the IVS-country effects and the nationalism variable from the ISSP is about 0.6, while it is just about 0.4 for constructive patriotism. A similar gap exists between the same question regarding national pride in the ISSP and the two variables.<sup>21</sup>

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<sup>19</sup>Most literature in political sciences and sociology on national identity/feelings uses this data source. It covers much less countries than the IVS – at most 34 in 2003.

<sup>20</sup>Nationalism is measured as a principal component of the two statements: 1. “The world would be a better place if people from other countries were more like the [Country Nationality of the Respondent]”; and 2 “Generally speaking, [Respondent’s Country] is a better country than most other countries”. Both could be answered on a 5-point scale. Civic pride is measured by three questions about civic and political pride: 1. “How proud are you of [Respondent’s Country] in the way democracy works?”; 2. “How proud are you of [Respondent’s Country] social security system?”; and 3. “How proud are you of [Respondent’s Country] fair and equal treatment of all groups in society?”. All three questions could be answered on a 4-point scale.

<sup>21</sup>In a robustness check, I show that all measures of national feelings, also from the ISSP, gain fairly

### 3.2.2 Identifying Assumption and Discussion

The exclusion restriction demands that the instrument affects the integration outcomes of second-generation immigrants only through the national attachment of their parents. In other words, the identifying assumption of my IV-approach is that the average national pride of the population in the origin country of immigrants is exogenous to the integration outcomes of immigrants' children, conditional on the large set of controls.

There exist three major threats to the exclusion restriction. First, my measure of national pride could not only pick up differences in the importance of national feelings across countries, but proxy differences in (the quality of) education or economic development across origin countries that affect unobserved human capital. In this case, my estimates would be biased. This problem is common in all studies that use aggregate culture proxies from origin countries of immigrants, since they could always reflect other aggregate differences. It should be somewhat less of a concern here as I observe parents and therefore can control for parent characteristics such as age, years since migration, education, and the labor market position. Looking at raw correlations between national pride and other aggregate variables, one can see in Figure 2a that there exists in fact a negative correlation between real GDP per capita and national pride across countries. Thus, poorer countries exhibit more national pride on average. Furthermore, respondents in English-speaking countries are more proud of their nationality than those in others. However, simply conditioning on regions (Europe, Asia, Africa, Middle East, South America, North America, and Oceania) does eliminate the correlation of those variables as demonstrated in Figure 2b. In all regressions, I include region of origin fixed effects, and further control for GDP per capita and whether the origin country shares the same official language. Hence, I use variation in national pride within geographical regions that are more homogeneous. In sensitivity checks, I additionally control for different measures of school quality in the origin country as well as the quality of potential ethnic networks in the city of residence to address this concern further. Including these controls does not change my results.

The second threat to the exclusion restriction is of a similar nature. More specifically, national pride in the origin country could reflect alternative dimensions of culture that affect integration through similar channels. If, for example, national pride is higher in countries that exhibit strong family ties, this omitted factor may favor the formation of ethnic networks among immigrants and drive the results. In additional sensitivity checks, I address this concern by controlling for variables that cover different dimensions of culture. In particular, I use proxies for family ties, religiosity, and generalized trust. The main results are very robust to the inclusion of these additional control variables.

Finally, the exclusion restriction could be violated if the level of national pride in the origin country affects children's integration outcomes through other channels than parent's national attachment. For example, national pride in the origin country could

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similar results.



affect the integration of immigrant children through other family members than their parents or through media consumption. However, there are reasons to believe that these other channels play a minor role. Parents can in general be expected to have an influence on how other family members or media consumption affect their children – especially because internet access was not common at the time that the survey was conducted (i.e., the 1990s). Furthermore, parents are likely to be affected by other family members and media themselves, such that these other channels will shape parents’ origin attachment. Therefore, the main effect would still go through the instrumented variable. However, in case that immigrant children are directly affected by the average national pride in the origin country, the effect of parents’ origin attachment on their children’s education could be overestimated. In order to address these concerns, I provide further sensitivity checks of the IV results by performing the Conley, Hansen, and Rossi (2012) analysis of plausible exogeneity. It suggests that to render the IV results insignificant, more than 40% of the overall effect of my instrument would have to come through these alternative channels.

Another issue that is common to all studies on assimilation is the selective in- or out-migration of immigrants. If return migrants, for instance, are negatively selected from the pool of immigrants in the host country, return migration will lead to an overestimation of general assimilation effects. This well-known bias from selective return migration does not affect my estimates, as long as the selection into return migration is uncorrelated with the national attachment of immigrants. However, high national attachment of immigrants might increase the probability of return migration. If this is the case, selective return migration will downward bias my results, since the remaining second-generation immigrants in my sample would be positively selected. The literature suggests that 20-50% of an immigrant cohort leave within 10 years in the host country (Lubotsky, 2007; Dustmann and Görlach, 2015, for a survey). Parents in my sample have on average been in the United States for 20 years. Hence, my sample is likely to include those immigrants and their children that stay permanently in the U.S., since major return migration movements should have already happened before the survey had been conducted. However, this potentially selected sample should also reflect the policy-relevant population when studying determinants of successful long-term integration. In additional robustness checks, I show that a pronounced origin attachment of parents in my sample does not affect the probability to plan return migration or to move temporarily to the origin country.

Selective attrition is another potential problem given my sample includes only those respondents who participated in all three waves. If attrition from the sample is correlated with educational success, my estimates would be biased. Yet, when I rerun my analysis on a sample without imposing this restriction, I find very similar results. Hence, selective attrition does appear to be a problem.

## 4 Main Results

### 4.1 First Stage

In a first step, the first-stage relationship between the instrument and the independent variable of interest is investigated in detail. Table 1 presents OLS-estimates of the effect of national pride in the origin country on ‘Origin Ties’ and each of its components.

One can see that national pride in the country of origin has a strong and highly significant effect on all variables considered. Immigrants from countries with a higher average national pride are more likely to be very proud of their origin country. Furthermore, they are more likely to converse a lot with their children about the country, celebrate the origin country’s holidays, buy from stores owned by people from their community, and consider contact with compatriots as very important. The principal component measuring national attachment is also significantly positively associated with national pride in the country of origin. The coefficients are not only statistically significant, also their magnitude is reasonably large. For example, a standard deviation increase in national pride in the country of origin (0.157) increases the probability that immigrant parents are very proud of their origin country by 6.7 percentage points, which corresponds to the magnitude of the negative effect of having a native partner. If one relates this effect to specific origin countries, a more illustrative example can be constructed: Immigrants from Germany, for instance, have a 14.6 percentage points lower probability of being very proud of their origin country than immigrants from France.

Overall, national pride in the country of origin appears to have strong explanatory power to predict the origin ties of immigrants, as well as all single variables that are combined in the composite measure. The results in Table 1 therefore support the empirical strategy to use national pride in the country of origin to instrument the national attachment of parents. Regarding the relevance of this instrument, one can also see in all Tables that report IV-estimates (Tables 2-7) that the instrument is clearly relevant, since the first stage is strong (see column (1) in all Tables), and all specifications have F-Statistics varying between 11 and 46.

### 4.2 Identity

Next, I turn to the main results of the IV-regressions. Here, the question is whether a strong national attachment of immigrant parents has a negative effect on the integration of second-generation immigrants in different dimensions. One of the major results of the theoretical model was that a stronger ethnic identity of parents is transmitted to the child. Furthermore, the theoretical discussion in Section 2.1 considered the transmission of a strong origin identity as one of the main channels through which parents’ national attachment may affect the long-term integration of immigrant children. Table 2 presents

the IV-results for the effect of parents' national attachment on the origin identity of children in all three CILS-waves.<sup>22</sup> The estimates show that a higher national attachment of parents significantly increases the probability that their children self-identify by their origin nationality. This result holds throughout all three waves, for children at age 14, 17, and 24. Also the magnitude of the effect is relatively sizable, since a standard deviation increase in origin ties of parents (1.371) leads to a 13.7 percentage points increase in the probability that a 14 years-old child will self-identify by its origin country.

The IV-results in Table 2 suggest that the origin identity is in fact more pronounced for those second-generation immigrants whose parents are more attached to their country of origin. Recalling the theoretical discussion, a stronger national identity of immigrant children could affect successful integration in two ways: First, a stronger origin identity of children could influence their social networks, language use and skills, and ultimately school performance and other integration outcomes. Second, it could affect school and other integration outcomes more directly since it may favor the formation of oppositional identities. In that case, immigrant children with a stronger origin identity might be more likely to reject or oppose the majority population and its norms. This latter channel is investigated in Table 3, where I analyze the effect of parents' national attachment on outcomes reflecting oppositional identities. The estimates in Table 3 do not indicate that a stronger attachment to the origin country of parents has a significant influence on the relationship of an immigrant child to the majority population. Immigrant children whose parents are more attached to their origin country are not less likely to self-identify as Americans. Additionally, the results do not suggest that there exist effects on agreeing or disagreeing to statements whether the U.S. is the best country, or whether Americans feel superior to foreigners when they interact with them.

Overall, the results in Tables 2 and 3 support the idea that national identity is transmitted across generations; however, this stronger national identity is not found to foster oppositional attitudes with regard to the majority society. In the following subsections, I will therefore investigate whether parents' identity choices affect the integration process of their children through the other main channel previously discussed, namely in terms of social networks, language use and skills, and ultimately school performance and labor market prospects.

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<sup>22</sup>For ease of comparison, I report the corresponding OLS and reduced-form estimates for most integration outcomes in Table A5. The OLS estimates are closer to zero than the IV estimates, and mostly insignificant. The apparent bias does not support the idea that a failed integration of immigrants causes a stronger attachment to the origin country. A possible explanation for the positive bias of the OLS estimates could be an omitted variable bias, since there is some suggestive evidence in the data that immigrants who immigrated for political reasons are more attached to their origin country, and simultaneously have better integration outcomes than those who immigrated for other reasons.

### 4.3 Social Networks

As discussed in the theoretical discussion, the origin attachment of immigrants could affect their preferences with respect to the ethnic composition of their social networks. A stronger origin identity should therefore be reflected in more pronounced ethnic networks of parents and children. Results in Table 4 support this idea because the IV-estimates for outcomes regarding the ethnic composition of social networks in different CILS-waves point in this direction. Estimates in columns (2) and (3) show that parents with a stronger origin attachment live in neighborhoods with more foreign and less White American neighbors. Both coefficients are statistically significant at a 10 and 5 percent level, respectively. The magnitude of these effects is fairly large, as a standard deviation increase in origin ties leads to a 19.3 percentage points higher probability of living in a neighborhood with mostly foreign neighbors, and decreases the probability of living in a neighborhood with mostly White American neighbors by 18.9 percentage points. In columns (4) and (5), I further analyze the effect of parents' national attachment on the probability that their offspring has mostly foreign friends at age 14 or age 17, respectively. Both coefficients are positive, but it is statistically significant only for immigrant children at age 17. A standard deviation increase in origin ties of a second-generation immigrant's parent raises the probability of having mostly foreign friends at age 17 by 28.9 percentage points.

Results in Table 4 suggest that the national attachment of parents has an impact on the ethnic network of their children. They grow up in different neighborhoods where they are exposed to less natives and more foreigners. Furthermore, they have more foreign friends throughout their adolescence. These different and more ethnic social networks are likely to reduce the incentives that immigrant children would invest in destination country-specific and general human capital.

### 4.4 Language Use and Language Skills

Since the origin attachment of parents affects the ethnic composition of the social network of their children, theoretical considerations suggest that the returns to country-specific human capital might be lower for children whose parents are strongly attached to the origin country. For instance, growing up in an environment with fewer natives and having more foreign friends, immigrant children may not need to use or speak English often, and would therefore develop lower English skills. Tables 5 and 6 present the IV-results for outcomes regarding language use and skills, respectively. The estimates in columns (2), (4), and (5) in Table 5 illustrate that adolescents whose parents are more attached to the origin country are significantly less likely to speak English with their friends at all ages. The magnitude of this effect is relatively large throughout all waves. For example, a standard-deviation increase in origin ties of the parents increases the probability that 14 years-old children will not speak English with their friends by 27.6 percentage points.

Furthermore, the origin attachment of parents significantly increases the probability that their offspring will not communicate in English with their parents (columns (3) and (6) for age 14 and 24). Finally, immigrant children at age 24, whose parents are very attached to the origin country, are less likely to want to raise their own children with English as the primary language at home (column (7)). Hence, potential differences are likely to be transmitted even to the third generation.

Generally, the results in Table 5 support the idea that a stronger origin attachment of parents lowers the incentives and habit of their children to speak English. In the following, it is further analyzed whether these lower incentives to speak the destination country's language also translate into disadvantages in terms of language skills. In fact, one can see in Tables 6 that the effect of origin ties on language skills is negative, but insignificant for parents and 14 years-old children. However, the coefficient becomes larger and statistically significant throughout adolescence. At 24 years old, a standard deviation increase in national attachment of parents lowers language skills by 0.18 points (measured on a scale from 1 to 4). This finding could be explained by a divergence throughout adolescence due to the different social surrounding and different language habits.

Overall, the results in this subsection indicate that there exist negative effects of the national attachment of parents on the language use and skills of second-generation immigrants. These findings are consistent with the results that they have stronger ethnic networks and a stronger origin country identity. The negative effects on language skills suggest that there exist in fact lower incentives to invest in country-specific human capital. Lower language skills are likely to affect the human capital formation of second-generation immigrants with consequences for labor market prospects.

## 4.5 School Performance

The previous results illustrate that immigrant children whose parents are more attached to the origin country have a different social network and speak English less frequently and worse, compared to those whose parents are less attached to their origin country. Different networks, and in particular different language skills, should also affect the integration of immigrant children in other dimensions, which are often considered as indicators of long-term integration. For example, they could lead to poorer performance of second-generation immigrants in schools and later in the labor market. I further investigate whether there exists this negative effect of parents' national attachment on the human capital formation of children in Table 7, where I report the IV-estimates of the relationship between parents' origin attachment and education outcomes of their children.

Indeed, the results indicate that parents' origin identity negatively affects their children's education outcomes. A strong attachment of parents to their origin country has sizable and highly significant negative effects on their children's math and reading achievement test percentiles (columns (2) and (3)). For example, a standard deviation increase

in parents' origin attachment leads to a 16 percentage points decrease in the reading percentile-rank of their children at age 14. In columns (4) and (5), one can further see that for both 14 and 17 years-old children, a higher national attachment of parents leads to a significantly poorer grade point average for them. The magnitude of this effect is quite large, since a standard deviation increase of parents' origin ties decreases the GPA of 17 years old children by about 20%. Among 24 years-old immigrant children, estimates point towards the same direction, but they are not statistically significant. Nonetheless, the coefficient in column (7) for the effect of parents' national attachment on the probability that 24 years-old immigrant children have graduated from college within the last five years, is very close to being significant at a ten percent level. The finding that there are no significant effects on the years of education and other measures of education at age 24 does not necessarily mean that there is no effect on the overall education of second-generation immigrants in the long run. It might instead be caused by the fact that these outcomes are not as precise and objective as test scores or grade point averages.

In sum, the results confirm that origin attachment of parents has sizable negative effects on the assimilation of their children. Second generation immigrants whose parents have a strong ethnic identity also develop a more pronounced ethnic identity. They grow up in different neighborhoods, have stronger ethnic networks, and have less contacts with natives. Additionally, they are less likely to speak English with their friends and families, and have lower language skills. Finally, a stronger origin identity of parents impedes the school performance of their children, especially objective measures such as test achievement scores and grade point averages.

## 5 Additional Results and Robustness Checks

### 5.1 Education and Labor Market Outcomes in the CPS

The main results have shown that a strong origin attachment of parents leads to a weaker record of integration of their children in the dimensions of identity, social networks, language use and skills, and education. This weaker integration is likely to affect the labor market position of adult second-generation immigrants as well. Due to the low number of second-generation immigrants that are active in the labor force in the CILS data by age 24, I use in this section data from the Current Population Survey (CPS) between 1994 and 2015. Since there is no information on parents included in the CPS, I estimate the reduced-form, analyzing the relationship between average national pride in the origin country of second-generation immigrants and integration outcomes.

My sample includes second-generation immigrants who are aged between 25 and 65. I define second-generation immigrants in the CPS as respondents who were born in the United States, but have at least one foreign-born parent. The origin country of second-generation immigrants is defined as their mother's place of birth if she or both parents

are foreign-born, and as the father’s place of birth if only the father is foreign-born. In a first step, I analyze whether the education results from the CILS data persist among adult second-generation immigrants in the CPS. Hence, I estimate the effect of national pride in the origin country on variables indicating whether a respondent is high skilled (university or college degree), medium skilled (high school or vocational degree), or low skilled (no high school or vocational degree). In a second step, I analyze the effect of national pride in the country of origin on classic labor market outcomes of second-generation immigrants. Here, my dependent variables are whether respondents are active in the labor market or not; whether they are unemployed;<sup>23</sup> the natural logarithm of their yearly wage income; and the total income of the respondents.<sup>24</sup> The sample restrictions leave a total sample of 966,771 observations from 87 origin countries (492,368 women and 474,403 men). Since the income variables are obtained only once a year, the sample size for these outcomes is substantially smaller (29,356 women and 38,255 men). Summary statistics for second-generation immigrants can be seen in Table A4. The respondents in the second-generation immigrants sample are on average 44 years old, and they are relatively well educated (37% have at least a Bachelor’s degree). Furthermore, their parents mostly immigrated from European or other North-American countries.

Using this sample of second-generation immigrants from the CPS, I estimate OLS-regressions of the following type:

$$Y_{iost} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 national\_pride_o + \beta_2 X_{iost} + \nu_s + \sigma_t + \lambda_r + u_{iost}. \quad (10)$$

The left hand side variable  $Y_{iost}$  represents the realization of a dependent variable for individual  $i$  in state  $s$  at time  $t$ , whose parents originate from country  $o$ . The variable of interest in these regressions is  $national\_pride_o$ , which represents the measure of the national pride in the parents’ country of origin  $o$  that has been used as an instrument for national attachment of parents in the main analysis. The estimates can therefore be interpreted as reduced-form estimates and are very similar to the epidemiological approach.  $X_{iost}$  are individual and aggregate origin country control variables.<sup>25</sup> I further control for state fixed effects, year-month fixed effects, and region of origin fixed effects ( $\nu_s$ ,  $\sigma_t$ , and  $\lambda_r$ , respectively). The error terms are clustered at the origin country level.

The education results are presented in Table 8. National pride in the country of origin appears to be negatively associated with the formal education of second-generation immigrants. Both male and female second-generation immigrants from countries with high average national pride are significantly less likely to be high-skilled. A standard deviation increase in national pride in the origin country leads to a 3.4 percentage points decrease in the probability that a male second-generation immigrant has obtained a university or college degree ( $-0.115 * 0.298$ ). This corresponds to a decrease of 10.9% ( $37.0/3.4$ ).

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<sup>23</sup>Additional sample restriction that respondents are active in the labor market.

<sup>24</sup>Additional sample restriction that the respondents are full-time employed.

<sup>25</sup>Individual: Polynomials of age, gender, being non-white; Origin: English language, GDP per capita.

The effect is of similar size among female second-generation immigrants (3.1 percentage points or 11.6%). At the same time, second-generation immigrants from countries with high national pride are more likely to be medium-skilled and low-skilled. Overall, the reduced-form estimates indicate that the negative effects of a strong national identity on education persist among adult second-generation immigrants.

The reduced-form results for labor market outcomes are presented separately for men and women in Panel A and B of Table 9, respectively. They suggest that there exist long-term disadvantages of national attachment on the labor market assimilation of male second-generation immigrants. There is a significant negative effect on labor force participation, a positive effect on the probability of being unemployed, and a negative effect on both wage income as well as total income of male second-generation immigrants. When including controls for education of the respondents in even columns (one potential channel), the coefficients of national pride decrease in size, and the effect on labor force participation becomes insignificant. However, there exists a robust negative effect of national pride in the origin country on the other three outcomes in this stricter specification. A standard deviation increase in national pride in the origin country leads to a 0.26 percentage points increase in the risk of unemployment ( $0.009 * 0.298$ ). This corresponds to an increase of 17.7% ( $4.6/0.26$ ). Compared to the effects of other relevant controls, such as originating from an English speaking country, the effect of a one standard deviation increase in origin national pride is about half the size. The negative significant effect of national pride on wage incomes in column (6) is also quite sizable: A standard deviation increase in national pride in the origin country leads to a 2.1% decrease in wages for second-generation immigrant men. In comparison, the effect of coming from an English-speaking country is 7.2%.

For female second-generation immigrants, the results do not indicate any negative effects of national pride in the origin country on the labor market position. This is surprising given the fact that they are found to have lower formal education in Table 8. Furthermore, when running the main analysis from the previous section separately for male and female immigrant children, negative effects of parents' origin attachment are found to be similarly prevalent for both genders. One possible explanation for this gender difference could be that women, and in particular women with a migration background, have different employment careers than men. They are on average less attached to the labor market and are less likely to work full-time.

Overall, national pride in the country of origin is negatively associated with the formal education of adult second-generation immigrants. Moreover, it negatively affects the labor market performance of male second-generation immigrants. However, since it is not possible in the CPS to control for parents' characteristics or attribute this effect to a specific channel, the negative effects of national pride in the origin country have to be interpreted as suggestive evidence for the long-run effects of national attachment.



## 5.2 Threats to the Exclusion Restriction

As discussed in Section 3.2, there exist three major threats to the exclusion restriction. First, it could be violated if the aggregate measure of national pride proxies unobserved human capital that is not captured by the control variables. Second, other cultural values might be correlated with national pride, and therefore drive the results. Third, national pride in the origin country may affect immigrant children's through alternative channels. In this subsection, several sensitivity checks are performed to address these different threats to the exclusion restriction.

### 5.2.1 Unobserved Human Capital

The problem of omitted variables, and in particular unobserved human capital, is common in all studies that utilize aggregate culture proxies from immigrants' origin countries. The fact that I can control for parent characteristics such as age, years since migration, education, and the labor market position should decrease the problem of unobserved human capital. Also the origin-country controls GDP per capita and English-speaking, as well as the region of origin fixed effects aim to minimize this problem.

I address this concern further in columns (1) to (4) of Table A6 by adding the following control variables that proxy human capital quality in the origin country: The average years of education of women aged 25 and older in the country of origin (Gakidou et al., 2010);<sup>26</sup> an index of knowledge distribution that was constructed as the arithmetic mean of the percentage of students and the percentage of literates in the origin country (Vanhanen, 2003); the share of non-agricultural population as a percentage of total population (Vanhanen, 2003); and the Human Development Index (UNDP, 2004). The timing of those variables is as close to the year of migration of the parents as possible. The results in Table A6 show that my results are fairly robust to all additional independent variables that aim to control for the human capital quality in the origin country of immigrants.

In column (5) of Table A6, I further investigate the problem of unobserved human capital by adding the math achievement percentile rank of children at age 14 as a control variable. This variable was used as an outcome variable in the main analysis, since the test is supposed to capture differences in skill learning among children. However, one might argue that math test scores could reflect unobserved human capital or intelligence. Since it is not clear whether this is the case, finding robust negative effects of parents' national attachment on children's integration outcomes with this specification should support the argument that the results are not driven by unobserved human capital. In fact, I find that the results do not change a lot when including math test score percentiles as an explanatory variable.

Another way to think about the problem of unobserved human capital is that it may be

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<sup>26</sup>Same results for average years of education of men.

reflected in the quality of ethnic networks of immigrants and their children.<sup>27</sup> This issue is addressed in Table A7 by controlling for characteristics of the potential social network of immigrants. More specifically, I use data from the CPS (1994-1995) on immigrants' human capital and labor market performance and aggregate them by origin countries and city of residence. These aggregate measures are then used as additional control variables in the main specification. In column (1) of Table A7, I add the shares of high-skilled and low-skilled immigrants in city  $c$  from the origin-country  $o$  to the main specification. Column (2) extends the model by adding the share of compatriots who live below the poverty line. The average labor market performance of compatriots is controlled for in columns (3) and (4), where the labor force participation and unemployment rates (column (3)) and the average log real wage earnings of each origin group are added to equations (8) and (9). The results in Table A7 are very similar to the main results. In particular the results of language and school outcomes are very robust to the inclusion of all additional control variables.

Overall, the specification tests in Table A6 and Table A7 do not suggest that the results are driven by unobserved human capital that is captured by the measure of national pride in the origin country.

### 5.2.2 Other Dimensions of Culture

A second threat to the exclusion restriction is the problem of omitted variables with regard to different dimensions of culture. If the aggregate measure of national pride is correlated with other cultural values that affect the formation of (ethnic) networks among immigrants or integration more generally, this would bias my results. The robustness checks in Table A8 address this concern for the cultural dimensions of family ties, religiosity, and generalized trust.

It is plausible that immigrants from cultures that assign a high importance to the family, could be likely to form different social networks and rely more on ethnic networks in the destination country. If countries' average national pride is correlated with the role of the family in society, my main results might be driven by the importance of family ties rather than national identity. To test for this, I add different aggregate measures of family ties to the regressions in columns (1) to (3) of Table A8. The empirical concept of family ties is based on the famous work of Alesina and Giuliano (2010, 2011) and Alesina et al. (2015). More specifically, I use three different variables from the Integrated Values Survey (1981-2014) on the attitudes and opinions regarding the role of the family, and construct composite measures of family ties by using their principal component (column (1)) or their sum (column (2)).<sup>28</sup> In column (3), I use only the first of the three questions asking

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<sup>27</sup>Furthermore it may be the case that a high national pride may lead to selective emigration with respect to human capital. The robustness check in this paragraph is related to this concern.

<sup>28</sup>The composite measures consist of the following three questions in the Integrated Values Survey 1981-2014: The first question asks respondents about the importance of family in their life, and can take

about the importance of the family in a respondent’s life, since it is similarly coded to the national pride variable (taking values between 1 and 4). To aggregate family ties on the country-level, I use again country fixed effects from regression models for the family ties variables, controlling for individual characteristics and wave fixed effects. The results in columns (1) to (3) of Table A8 show that the main results are robust to the inclusion of the different controls for family ties. Even though the coefficients of the family ties variables are indeed positively associated with the formation of ethnic networks (not reported), and the size of the coefficients of ‘Origin Ties’ is partly reduced when including the additional controls, the estimates show that national attachment of parents significantly impedes the integration of their children in all dimensions considered.

In columns (4) and (5) of Table A8, I control for two more cultural dimensions that the aggregate measure of national pride might take up. More specifically, I add aggregate measures of the religiosity and generalized trust to the models. Both, differences in importance of religion and in trust, might affect immigrants’ formation of social networks and their incentives to invest in country-specific human capital in the destination country. The measures are again taken from questions in the IVS. Religiosity is measured by a question on the importance of the religion, which takes values between 1 (not important at all) and 4 (very important). Generalized trust is a dummy variable taking the value of 1 if a respondent agrees with the statement that most people can be trusted. The estimates in columns (4) and (5) of Table A8 are not affected by including these additional control variables to the main specification.

Overall, the robustness checks in Table A6 do not suggest that the results can be explained by omitted variables regarding alternative dimensions of culture.

### 5.2.3 Local-to-Zero Approach (Conley et al., 2012)

Another concern with regard to the exclusion restriction could be that national pride in the origin country of immigrant children may affect them through other channels than their parents’ origin attachment. As discussed in Section 3.2.2, the effects of national pride through channels such as family members or media consumption are likely to be minor compared to its effect that comes through parents’ origin attachment.

In order to address remaining concerns regarding the exclusion restriction, I conduct a sensitivity analysis of the IV estimates to potential deviations from the exclusion restriction following the local-to-zero approximation method proposed in Conley, Hansen, and Rossi (2012). This approach allows for a direct effect of the instrument on the outcome

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values from 1 to 4 (with 1 being not important at all and 4 very important). The second question asks whether the respondent agrees with one of the two statements (taking the values of 0 and 1 respectively): 1) One does not have the duty to respect and love parents who have not earned it; 2) Regardless of what the qualities and faults of one’s parents are, one must always love and respect them. The third question asks respondents to agree with one of the following statements (again taking the values of 0 and 1 respectively): 1) Parents have a life of their own and should not be asked to sacrifice their own well being for the sake of their children; 2) It is the parents’ duty to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being.

variable and allows to infer how sensitive results from the following second stage equation of the 2SLS are to deviations from the perfect exclusion restriction:

$$Y_{cpod} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \widehat{origin\_ties}_{pod} + \gamma national\_pride_o + \beta_2 X_{cpod} + \nu_d + \lambda_r + \varepsilon_{cpod}. \quad (11)$$

Following Conley et al. (2012), I then assume that the potential direct effect of the instrument  $national\_pride_o$  on integration outcomes  $Y_{cpod}$ ,  $\gamma$ , is uniformly distributed over an interval  $[0, \delta]$  with  $\delta > 0$  for outcomes with positive IV-estimates, and an interval  $[\delta, 0]$  with  $\delta < 0$  for outcomes with negative IV-estimates. By varying  $\delta$ , I can then identify the threshold at which the second-stage coefficient on national attachment of parents becomes insignificant at the ten percent level.<sup>29</sup>

Figure 3 presents the results for different outcomes using my main specification. To gauge magnitudes and in order to compare the results across different outcome variables, I do not plot the interval size  $\delta$  on the  $x$ -axis, but its share with respect to the reduced-form estimates of the national pride instrument on the respective outcomes.<sup>30</sup> Thus, moving along the  $x$ -axis shows how the confidence interval of the IV-estimate is affected if one allows for a larger direct effect of the instrument – measured as percentage share of the reduced-form estimate.

The results in Figure 3 are fairly similar across the different outcome variables: the thresholds for  $\delta$  for all six integration outcomes is found to be at values that correspond to about 40% of the reduced-form estimates. For example, the threshold at which the IV-estimate for the outcome “English Skills (Age 24)” would turn insignificant is  $\delta = -0.155$ . That is, as long as the direct effect of the instrument on “English Skills (Age 24)” is of lower magnitude than  $-0.155$ , the second stage is still significant at the ten percent level. Relating this  $\delta$ -threshold to the reduced-form effect, which is  $-0.330$  (see Table A5), leads to a threshold of 47% of the size of the reduced-form effect.

Overall, Figure 3 suggests that to render the IV results insignificant, about 40% of the overall effect of the instrument would have to come through some omitted third variable that is also captured by average national pride in the origin country. Given the discussion in Section 3.2.2, it seems implausible that national pride in the origin country would affect children’s integration through channels like the family in the home country or media consumption with a magnitude as large as 40% of the total effect. Furthermore, it seems unlikely that unobserved human capital would cause so much endogeneity given the detailed control variables included in the main specification, and the previous robustness checks. Hence, the local-to-zero approach of Conley et al. (2012) supports the robustness of my main results.

<sup>29</sup>Satyanath et al. (2017) implement the Conley et al. (2012) local-to-zero approach very similarly in order to identify thresholds at which their IV-estimates turn insignificant.

<sup>30</sup>The reduced-form estimate is obtained in the regression  $Y_{cpod} = \beta_0 + \beta_{RF} national\_pride_o + \beta_2 X_{cpod} + \nu_d + \lambda_o + u_{cpod}$ , and the results are presented in Panel B of Table A5. The values on the  $x$ -axis in Figure 3 are therefore calculated as follows:  $\frac{\delta}{\beta_{RF}}$ .

### 5.3 Alternative Samples

Another concern about the main results may be that the particular composition of immigrant populations in the cities where the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Survey took place or the sample composition may drive the results. In order to test for this, Table A9 presents IV-results of the main specification for different subsamples. More specifically, in the first three rows I drop the main immigrant groups, since one might be concerned that the large number of second-generation immigrants with parents from Mexico or the Philippines could cause the results. As one can see, results are very robust to these changes of the sample.

The sample restriction to only keep the respondents who are observed throughout all three CILS-waves could bias my results, if selective attrition exists. The robustness check in row 4 of Table A9 addresses this concern, where this restriction is dropped. The results remain unchanged. Hence, selective attrition seems not to drive the main results.

Furthermore, one could question the validity of the main results because the sample includes a large number of immigrant children who were born abroad and migrated at an age younger than nine. This sample choice is based on the critical period hypothesis. Literature in psychology and economics suggests that immigrants who arrived at age nine or younger from non-English-speaking countries are able to learn English better than those who arrived at an older age. They are ultimately able to speak English just as well as immigrant children who migrated from English-speaking countries. On the contrary, immigrant children who immigrated at an age above nine from non-English-speaking countries have significantly poorer English-skills, and perform worse with respect to socioeconomic outcomes in the long term (e.g., Bleakley and Chin, 2010). In addition to this argument, results in row 5 of Table A9 illustrate that restricting my sample to those children that immigrated at an age below four does not affect my results.

### 5.4 Alternative Channels

The theoretical argument of this paper is that immigrants who are strongly attached to their origin country are more likely to select into networks with compatriots and expose their children to lower incentives to integrate. These incentives lead children to invest less in country-specific human capital and thus to perform worse in school and in the labor market. This argument could be challenged if there exist alternative channels through which a strong origin attachment of immigrants or their decision to select into ethnic networks affect assimilation. In Table A10, I investigate two alternative explanations for the negative effects of national attachment on children's integration. First, I investigate whether a higher probability to remigrate or remit to the origin country could cause my results. Second, I analyze whether a differing quality of the schools that children attend drives the main results.

A pronounced origin attachment could change immigrants' and their children's incentives to invest in country-specific human capital since they might be more likely to remigrate or to remit to their origin country. If immigrants plan to return to their country of origin, it could be rational to invest less effort in building networks with natives or learning the host country's language. Hence, instead of impeding the long-term integration through the consequences of different network preferences, a strong origin identity could reduce the returns to integration due to a shorter time horizon in the host country. As discussed earlier, about 20-50% of an immigrant cohort leave within 10 years in the host country (Dustmann and Görlach, 2015, for a survey). Since the parents in my sample reside in the U.S. on average for 20 years, my sample is likely to include those immigrants and their children that stay permanently in the U.S. In addition, I investigate whether return migration is affected by the national attachment of immigrants in columns (1) and (2) of Table A10 (Panel A). The outcome variables indicate whether a parent plans to return to her origin country at some point (column (1)), and whether a child has lived more than six month before in the country of origin at age 24 (column (2)). The IV-estimates show that there is no significant effect of national attachment on both dimensions of return migration. Thus, these results do not support the idea that a higher probability to remigrate causes my main results. A similar argument is that immigrants who are strongly attached to their origin country could be more likely (to be obliged) to send remittances. In order to earn and send money as soon as possible to their origin country, children of immigrants with strong origin ties might therefore chose different career paths, have less contact with natives, and invest less in human capital. In column (3) of Panel A, the dependent variable is indicating whether a child has ever sent remittances to the origin country at age 24. However, the insignificant coefficient of 'Origin Ties' does not support this alternative argument.

Another alternative argument as to why the attachment of immigrants to their origin could influence the school performance of their children is based on their location choices. The results in Table 4 illustrate that parents who are strongly attached to their origin country live in neighborhoods with more foreigners and less white Americans. It is possible that the quality of schools in these neighborhoods is lower, which may cause the less favorable outcomes of immigrant children in language skills and school performance. In Table A10, I investigate this issue by looking at different outcomes of school quality (Panel A), and by adding school fixed effects to the main specification (Panel B). The results columns (4) and (5) of Panel A illustrate that the schools of immigrant children whose parents are strongly attached to their origin do not differ significantly in their percentage share of white students or in the probability that the child agrees that there are many gangs in school.<sup>31</sup> In Panel B, I change the specification of the IV-regressions by replacing

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<sup>31</sup>Similar insignificant estimates are found for all other potential proxies for school quality that CILS includes, e.g., number of students, share of minorities, feeling safe, and different types of crime. Results are available upon request.

city fixed effects by school fixed effects. The results are very robust to this specification. Overall, the results in Table A10 do not support alternative theoretical arguments for the main results.

## 5.5 Alternative Measures of National Pride

Finally, the empirical strategy of this study relies on only one measure of national pride in the origin countries. As argued in Section 3.2.1, the national pride measure from the IVS is very similar to measures of national pride in other surveys, and it rather reflects the concept of nationalism than that of constructive patriotism. The disadvantage of other surveys, such as the ISSP, is that it has only been conducted in a few countries. In Table A11, one can see reduced-form estimates where different measures of national pride (columns (1)-(3)), nationalism (column (4)), and civic pride (column (5)) are used as independent variables. The source of those variables are the Integrated Values Survey (IVS, columns (1)-(2)), and the International Social Survey Programm in 2003 (ISSP, columns (3)-(5)). The dependent variables cover parent and child outcomes from the different integration dimensions analyzed in the main analysis (i.e., identity, social networks, language use and skills, education). Due to the low number of origin countries covered in the ISSP, IV-regressions were not always feasible. However, it should support the credibility of the measure used in the main analysis if it gains similar reduced-form estimates than other measures of national pride. In column (1), reduced-form estimates of the measure of national pride that is used as an instrument in the main analysis are presented. The coefficients are significant for all outcomes and point in the same direction as the corresponding IV-estimates. The estimates in column (2) show that simply using the mean value of national pride from origin countries produces the same results as using country fixed effects from regressions in the IVS. Column (3) reports the results for the identical question regarding national pride from the ISSP. One can see that the number of observations is much lower than for the variables from the IVS, but the estimates are fairly similar to those in the first two columns, even if they are not always significant. Columns (4) and (5) report the reduced-form estimates for the composite measures on nationalism and civic pride that have been introduced in Section 3.2.1. The direction of the coefficients is again the same as for the IVS-variables on national pride. However, the coefficients of the nationalism-variable seem to be slightly more in line with the main results than those of civic pride. Overall, the results in Table A11 support the idea that the results do not depend on some artifact of the national pride variable in the Integrated Values Survey.

## 6 Conclusion

In recent years, the identity of immigrants has increasingly attracted attention in public debates on integration in many countries. In particular, a strong attachment to the origin country of immigrants, especially among the second and third generation, is often considered a problem for successful integration or as a symptom of a weak record of integration. At the same time, the identity of immigrants is increasingly becoming a focus of interest for policy makers, since they actively try to establish norms and values of the destination society among immigrants through compulsory integration courses or through requirements for citizenship.

This paper examines how the national identity of immigrants, measured as attachment to their origin country, influences the long-term integration of the second generation. The empirical analysis relies on data from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study (CILS) and an IV strategy, where the national attachment of parents is instrumented with an aggregate measure of national pride in the country of origin. I find that the origin attachment of immigrant parents negatively affects the integration of their children. Children whose parents are strongly attached to the origin country develop a stronger ethnic identity, have less contact with natives, speak English less frequently and more poorly, and perform worse in school compared to peers whose parents are less attached to their origin country. Furthermore, results from the CPS suggest that a stronger origin identity leads to disadvantages in the labor market for adult male second-generation immigrants.

This study has some important implications for the public and political debate on the integration of immigrants in many countries, since it illustrates that the long-term integration of immigrants and their children does not only depend on factors such as potential or education. Instead, the results indicate that also the national identity of immigrants influences their development. Whether immigrants orient themselves towards their origin country or whether they are open to the new society, matters for the integration success of immigrants and their descendants.

The results of this study support inclusive policies that promote incentives for immigrants to participate in the new society. Policy makers could address this issue by offering better economic, social and political opportunities to immigrants, since greater participation in these dimensions might weaken immigrants' origin ties and encourage the formation of a destination country identity. Further, it may reduce the probability that immigrants develop a strong origin identity in response to negative experiences in the destination country. Policies in question include a liberal access to citizenship and other measures that promote the feeling of belonging to the destination society. The recent efforts in many countries for targeting the identity of immigrants more directly through compulsory immigration courses or citizenship requirements could be another way to support the long-term integration of immigrants.



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Table 1: National Pride in the Origin Country and the Origin Attachment of Immigrants

	<i>Origin Ties (PCA)</i>	<i>Very Proud of the country of Origin</i>	<i>Talk a lot with Child about Origin</i>	<i>Celebrate a lot Origin Holidays</i>	<i>Buy from Origin-Stores</i>	<i>Contact to Compatriots very important</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
National Pride in Origin Country	2.396*** (0.411)	0.426*** (0.139)	0.465** (0.216)	0.665*** (0.131)	0.509*** (0.145)	0.429*** (0.126)
Parent Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Country Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Child Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	715	715	715	715	715	715
R-Squared	0.1847	0.0933	0.0737	0.1965	0.1940	0.0938

Notes: The table reports estimates of the relationship between national pride in the origin country and national attachment of the parents in the CILS. The dependent variables indicate whether a parent is very proud of the country of origin (column (2)); whether a parent talks a lot about the origin country with her child (column (3)); whether a parent celebrates origin country holidays a lot (column (4)); whether a parent buys from shops owned by compatriots (column (5)); whether a parent agrees a lot that contact to compatriots is very important (column (6)); and the principal component of all five variables (column (1)). The main independent variable is the average national pride in the country of origin, based on a question in the IVS. The sample includes all foreign-born parents whose children participated in all three CILS-waves. All specifications include parent and origin level controls, as well as city fixed effects (Miami, Fort Lauderdale, San Diego) and region of origin fixed effects (Europe, Asia, South America, North America). Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

Table 2: National Attachment and Identity

		<u>14 years-old</u>	<u>17 years-old</u>	<u>24 years-old</u>
	<i>First Stage</i>	<i>Ethnic Self-Identity: National</i>		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		0.099*** (0.038)	0.113* (0.059)	0.064* (0.038)
National Pride in Origin Country	2.312*** (0.413)			
Parent Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Child Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Country Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	710	710	711	695
F-Statistic		31.3643	35.4791	40.3067

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and the self-identity of their children in different CILS-waves (child aged 14 in column (2), aged 17 in column (3), and aged 24 in column (4)). The dependent variable in all columns is whether the child self-identifies by origin nationality as opposed to self-identifying as American, hyphenated, or in terms of race. The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The sample includes all children of foreign-born parents who participated in all CILS-waves. All specifications include parent, child and origin level controls, as well as city fixed effects (Miami, Fort Lauderdale, San Diego) and region of origin fixed effects (Europe, Asia, South America, North America). Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

Table 3: National Attachment and Oppositional Identities

	<u>14 years-old</u>				<u>17 years-old</u>			<u>24 years-old</u>
	<i>First Stage</i>	<i>Ethnic Self-Identity: American</i>	<i>USA best country</i>	<i>Americans feel superior</i>	<i>Ethnic Self-Identity: American</i>	<i>USA best country</i>	<i>Americans feel superior</i>	<i>Ethnic Self-Identity: American</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		-0.063 (0.063)	-0.077* (0.046)	0.078 (0.053)	0.001 (0.039)	0.059 (0.068)	0.060 (0.045)	0.035 (0.046)
National Pride in Origin Country	2.312*** (0.413)							
Parent Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Child Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Country Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	710	710	711	710	711	710	715	695
F-Statistic		31.3643	33.3260	34.1857	35.4791	34.8462	34.0421	40.3067

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and outcomes regarding oppositional identities of their children in different CILS-waves (child aged 14 in columns (2)-(4), aged 17 in columns (5)-(7), and aged 24 in column (8)). The dependent variables are whether a child self-identifies as American (columns (2) and (4)); whether a child agrees that the United States are the best country (columns (3) and (5)); and whether a child agrees that Americans feel superior when they interact with foreigners (columns (4) and (6)). The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The sample includes all children of foreign-born parents who participated in all CILS-waves. All specifications include parent, child and origin level controls, as well as city fixed effects (Miami, Fort Lauderdale, San Diego) and region of origin fixed effects (Europe, Asia, South America, North America). Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

Table 4: National Attachment and Social Networks

		<u>Parents</u>		<u>14 years-old</u>	<u>17 years-old</u>
	<i>First Stage</i>	<i>Most Neighbors Foreigners</i>	<i>Most N. White Americans</i>	<i>Most Friends Foreigner</i>	<i>Most Friends Foreigner</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		0.141*	-0.138**	0.057	0.211***
		(0.075)	(0.071)	(0.059)	(0.068)
National Pride in Origin Country	2.393*** (0.410)				
Parent Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Country Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Child Individual Controls	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
City Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	714	714	714	698	690
F-Statistic		34.0561	34.0561	46.8658	32.7514

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and outcomes regarding the ethnic composition of the social networks of parents and their children in different CILS-waves (parents in columns (2)-(3), child aged 14 in column (4), aged 17 in column (5)). The dependent variables are whether most of the parents' neighbors are foreigners or whether most neighbors are White Americans (columns (2)-(3)); and whether most or all of the child's friends are foreigners (columns (4) and (5)). The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The sample includes all foreign-born parents or their children if they have participated in all CILS-waves. All specifications include parent and origin level controls, as well as city fixed effects (Miami, Fort Lauderdale, San Diego) and region of origin fixed effects (Europe, Asia, South America, North America). Regressions on child-outcomes further include child characteristics. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .



Table 5: National Attachment and Language Use

	<u>14 years-old</u>			<u>17 years-old</u>		<u>24 years-old</u>	
	<i>First Stage</i>	<i>No English with Friends</i>	<i>Often / Always no English with Parents</i>	<i>No English with Friends</i>	<i>Only English with Friends</i>	<i>No English with Parents</i>	<i>Hope to raise Children in English</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		0.201*** (0.071)	0.134** (0.062)	0.176*** (0.052)	-0.199*** (0.050)	0.109* (0.057)	-0.236*** (0.081)
National Pride in Origin Country	1.796*** (0.545)						
Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	645	645	686	714	701	703	696
F-Statistic		10.8689	21.7457	34.0319	30.1103	29.9904	28.3860

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and variables regarding their children's language use in different CILS-waves (child aged 14 in columns (2)-(3), aged 17 in column (4), aged 24 in columns (5)-(7)). The dependent variables are whether the child speaks no/only English with friends (columns (2), (4), (5)); whether the child speaks (often/always) no English with its parents (columns (3) and (6)); and whether the child hopes to raise own children in English (column (7)). The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The sample includes all children of foreign-born parents who participated in all CILS-waves. All specifications include parent, child and origin level controls, as well as city fixed effects (Miami, Fort Lauderdale, San Diego) and region of origin fixed effects (Europe, Asia, South America, North America). Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

Table 6: National Attachment and Language Skills

		<u>Parents</u>	<u>14 years-old</u>	<u>17 years-old</u>	<u>24 years-old</u>
	<i>First Stage</i>	<i>English Skills</i>	<i>English Skills</i>	<i>English Skills</i>	<i>English Skills</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		-0.084 (0.198)	-0.059 (0.050)	-0.109* (0.059)	-0.132*** (0.028)
National Pride in Origin Country	2.248*** (0.408)				
Parent Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Child Individual Controls	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Country Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	698	698	715	715	652
F-Statistic		30.2995	34.0421	34.0421	33.6631

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and language skills of parents and their children in different CILS-waves (parents in column (2), child aged 14 in column (3), aged 17 in column (4), aged 24 in column (5)). The dependent variable English skills is a combination of different self-assessed language skills (speak, read, understand, write). The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The sample includes all foreign-born parents or their children if they have participated in all CILS-waves. All specifications include parent and origin level controls, as well as city fixed effects (Miami, Fort Lauderdale, San Diego) and region of origin fixed effects (Europe, Asia, South America, North America). Regressions on child-outcomes further include child characteristics. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

Table 7: National Attachment and Education

	<u>14 years-old</u>			<u>17 years-old</u>		<u>24 years-old</u>	
	<i>First Stage</i>	<i>Math Achievement Percentile</i>	<i>Reading Achievement Percentile</i>	<i>Grade Point Average</i>	<i>Grade Point Average</i>	<i>Years of Education</i>	<i>College degree</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		-12.837** (6.316)	-11.964*** (4.638)	-0.383*** (0.138)	-0.433** (0.187)	-0.210 (0.297)	-0.129 (0.079)
National Pride in Origin Country	2.431*** (0.474)						
Parent Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Child Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Country Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	663	663	689	711	711	703	702
F-Statistic		26.3081	29.2024	38.3736	38.3736	33.7868	33.4284

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and education outcomes of their children in different CILS-waves (child aged 14 in columns (2)-(4), aged 17 in column (5), aged 24 in columns (6)-(9)). The dependent variables are Stanford math and reading achievement percentiles (columns (2) and (3)); the grade point average (columns (4) and (5)); years of education (column (6)); and whether the child has graduated from college in the last 5 years (column (7)). The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The sample includes all children of foreign-born parents who are if they and their parents have participated in all CILS-waves. All specifications include parent, child and origin level controls, as well as city fixed effects (Miami, Fort Lauderdale, San Diego) and region of origin fixed effects (Europe, Asia, South America, North America). Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .

Table 8: National Pride in the Origin Country and Education Outcomes

	<u>Men</u>			<u>Women</u>		
	<i>High Edu.</i>	<i>Med Edu.</i>	<i>Low Edu.</i>	<i>High Edu.</i>	<i>Med Edu.</i>	<i>Low Edu.</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
National Pride in Origin Country	-0.115** (0.057)	0.084* (0.046)	0.031* (0.019)	-0.106* (0.058)	0.082* (0.044)	0.024 (0.021)
Observations	474456	474456	474456	492375	492375	492375
R-Squared	0.0829	0.0355	0.0559	0.0970	0.0405	0.0675
Individual and Origin Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year-Month Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
State Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: The table reports estimates of the relationship between national pride in the country of origin and second-generation immigrants' level of education in the CPS (1994-2015). The binary dependent variables indicate whether a second-generation immigrant is high skilled, i.e., university or college degree (column (1) and (4)); medium skilled, i.e., high school or vocational degree (columns (2) and (5)); or low skilled, i.e., no high school or vocational degree (column (3) and (6)). The main independent variable is the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The sample includes all second-generation immigrants who are between 25 and 65 years old. All specifications include individual and origin level control variables. Furthermore, year-month fixed effects, state fixed effects, and region of origin fixed effects (Europe, Asia, Middle East, Africa, Oceania, South America, North America) are included. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

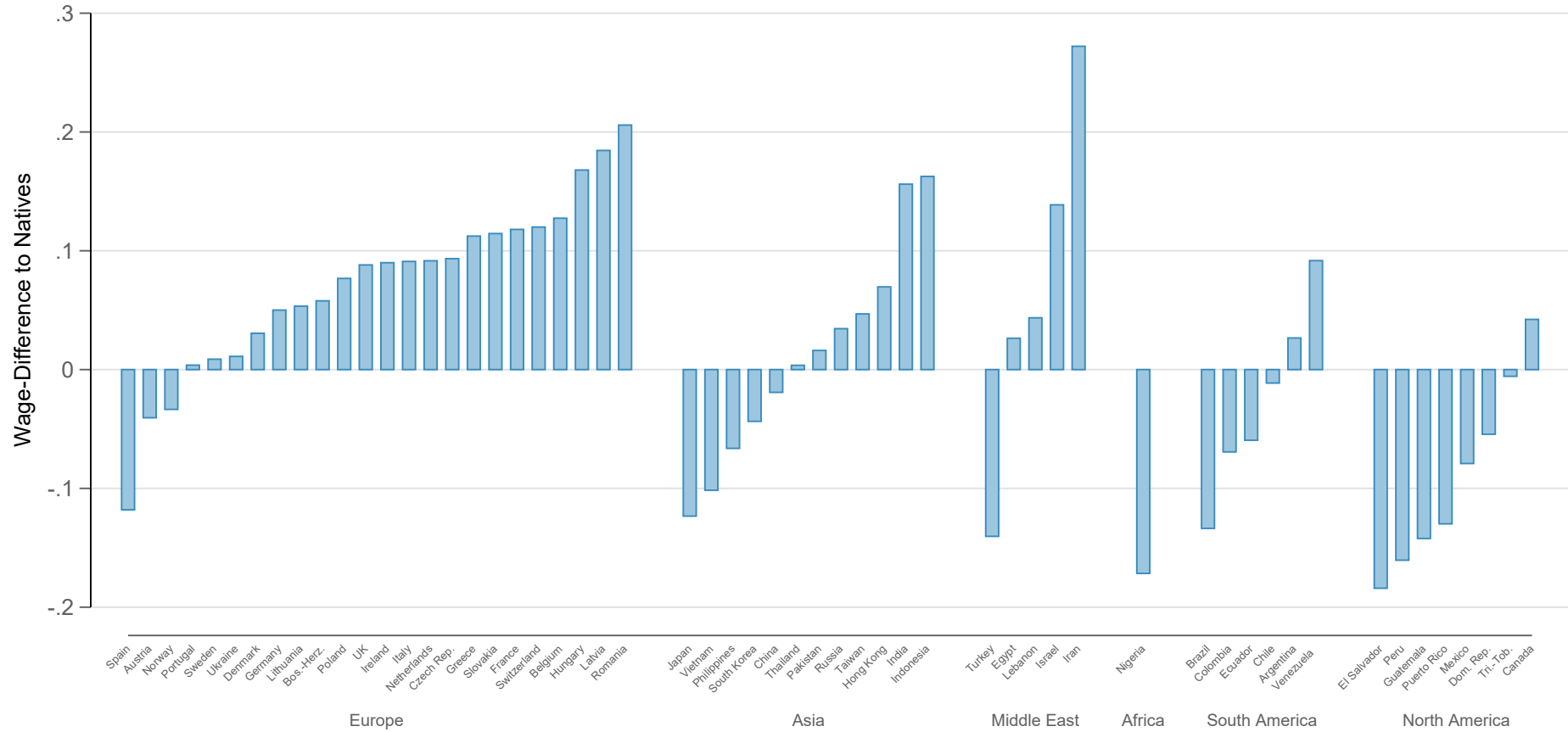
Table 9: National Pride in the Origin Country and Labor Market Outcomes

	<i>Labor Force Participation</i>		<i>Unemployed</i>		<i>Log Wage</i>		<i>Log Total Income</i>	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
<b>Panel A: Men</b>								
National Pride in Origin Country	-0.018*	-0.007	0.013***	0.009***	-0.121*	-0.071**	-0.116*	-0.065*
	(0.009)	(0.008)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.067)	(0.034)	(0.068)	(0.034)
Observations	474403	474403	410328	410328	38255	38255	38244	38244
R-Squared	0.1072	0.1269	0.0119	0.0178	0.1488	0.2446	0.1747	0.2884
<b>Panel B: Women</b>								
National Pride in Origin Country	-0.001	0.013	0.006	0.003	-0.101	-0.049	-0.082	-0.029
	(0.010)	(0.009)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.068)	(0.036)	(0.067)	(0.033)
Observations	492368	492368	364096	364096	29356	29356	29340	29340
R-Squared	0.0574	0.0847	0.0085	0.0146	0.1456	0.2584	0.1648	0.2936
Education Controls	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Individual and Origin Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year-Month Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
State Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: The table reports estimates of the relationship between national pride in the country of origin and labor market outcomes of second-generation immigrants in the CPS (1994-2015). The dependent variables are whether a second-generation immigrant is active in the labor market (column (1) and (2)); whether a respondent is unemployed or not (column (3) and (4)); the natural logarithm of wage income (column (5) and (6)); and the natural logarithm of the second-generation immigrants' total income (column (7) and (8)). The main independent variable is the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The sample includes all second-generation immigrants who are between 25 and 65 years old. In columns (3)-(8), the sample further excludes respondents who are not active in the labor market. Finally, columns (5)-(8) include only those respondents who are full-time employed. All specifications include individual and origin level control variables. Even columns include education controls. Furthermore, year-month fixed effects, state fixed effects, and region of origin fixed effects (Europe, Asia, Middle East, Africa, Oceania, South America, North America) are included. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

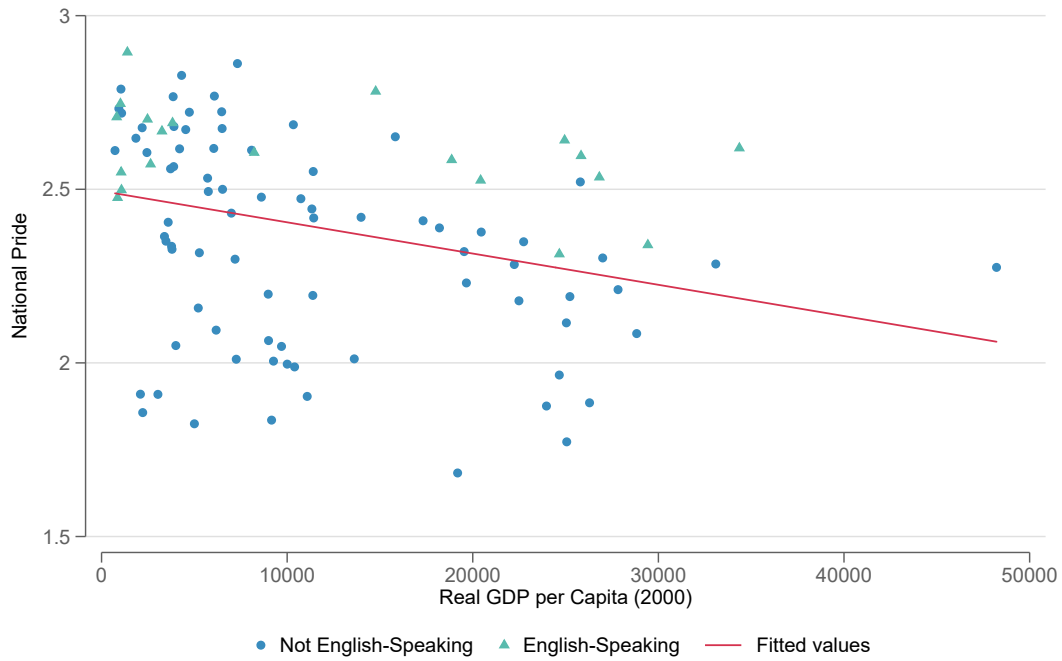
Figure 1: Heterogeneity in the Wage-Penalty of Second-Generation Immigrants

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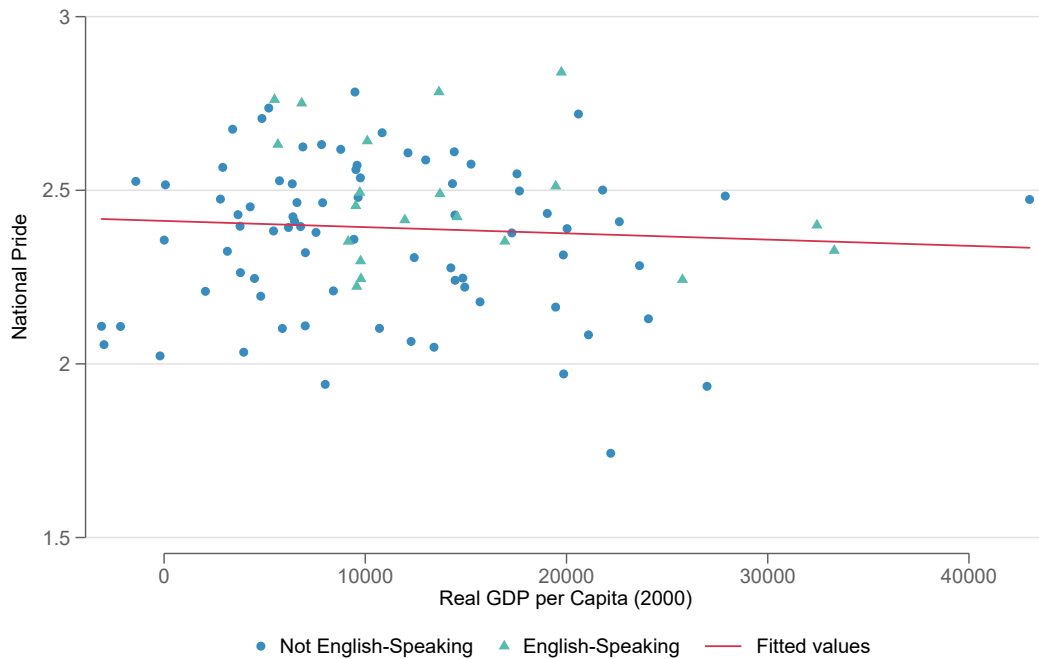


Notes: The graph displays coefficients from log-wage regressions for men in the CPS (1994-2015). The coefficients refer to dummy variables indicating second-generation immigrants by their origin. Additional to these second-generation immigrant indicators, the regression includes an indicator for first-generation immigrants, polynomials of age, education controls, month-year fixed effects, and state fixed effects.

Figure 2: National Pride and Real GDP per Capita



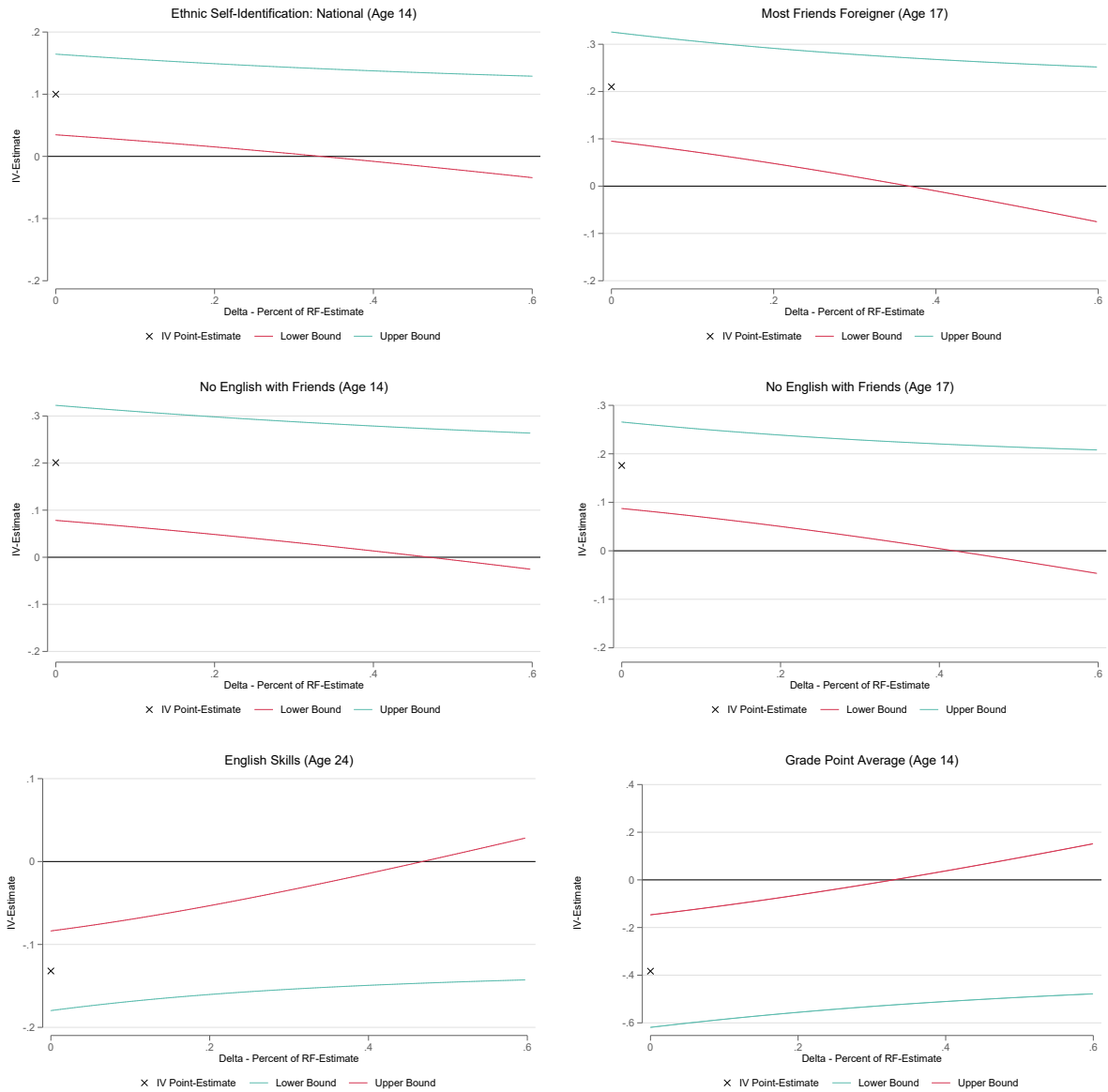
(a) Correlation



(b) Conditional on Region

Notes: The figure illustrates the correlation between the average national pride and real GDP per capita across countries. The upper graph plots the average national pride of countries in the IVS (1981-2014) on the y-axis, and real GDP per capita (in the year 2000) on the x-axis; in the bottom graph, residuals from regressions of real GDP per capita on region fixed effects (Europe, Asia, Africa, Middle East, South America, North America, and Oceania), are plotted on the x-axis.

Figure 3: Local-to-Zero Approximation Bounds (Conley et al., 2012)



Notes: The figure shows the upper and lower bound of the 90% confidence interval of the second-stage coefficient on parents' origin country attachment, using the main IV specification. The instrument is the average national pride in the country of origin. Following Conley et al. (2012), I allow for a direct effect of the instrument on the different integration outcomes, assuming that this is uniformly distributed over an interval  $[0, \delta]$  with  $\delta > 0$  for outcomes with positive IV-estimates, and an interval  $[\delta, 0]$  with  $\delta < 0$  for outcomes with negative IV-estimates. The percentage shares (interval size  $\delta$  / reduced-form estimate) are plotted on the x-axis.



## A Appendix: Additional Tables

Table A1: Countries covered in the CILS

Origin Country	<u>Main Sample</u> (1)	<u>Less restricted</u> (2)
Argentina	15	18
Canada	4	5
Chile	1	1
China	12	22
Colombia	65	83
Dominican Republic	25	41
Ecuador	16	23
Egypt	0	1
El Salvador	7	15
Germany	3	4
Guatemala	9	14
Hungary	5	6
India	8	9
Indonesia	3	3
Iran, Islamic Rep.	0	1
Italy	0	1
Japan	7	10
Mexico	198	325
Peru	15	20
Philippines	264	343
Romania	2	2
Russian Federation	1	1
South Korea	0	3
Spain	1	1
Taiwan	3	8
Thailand	3	8
United Kingdom	4	4
Vietnam	128	246
Total	799	1,218

Notes: The table reports the number of observations for the different origin countries in the CILS. The sample includes immigrant children, who have at least one foreign-born parent and who were born in the U.S., or who immigrated at an age younger than nine. Furthermore, the sample is restricted to those children, whose parents are observed in the parent survey. In column (1), the sample is restricted to those children who are observed in all three waves. In column (2), this restriction is not imposed.

Table A2: CILS: Summary Statistics

	<u>Main Sample</u>		<u>Less restricted</u>	
	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.
<i>Parents:</i>				
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)	-0.166	1.371	-0.0984	1.372
Very proud of the country of origin	0.783	0.413	0.792	0.406
Talk a lot with Child about Origin	0.501	0.500	0.519	0.500
Celebrate a lot Origin Holidays	0.338	0.473	0.362	0.481
Buy from Origin-Stores	0.213	0.410	0.240	0.428
Contact to Compatriots very important	0.451	0.498	0.459	0.499
Most Neighbors Foreigners	0.289	0.453	0.293	0.455
Most Neighbors White Americans	0.338	0.473	0.341	0.474
English Skills	3.002	0.858	2.859	0.899
<i>14-Years Old:</i>				
Ethnic Self-Identity: National Origin	0.287	0.453	0.326	0.469
Ethnic Self-Identity: American	0.076	0.264	0.070	0.255
USA best country	0.626	0.484	0.605	0.489
Americans feel superior	0.738	0.440	0.733	0.443
Most Friends Foreigner	0.606	0.489	0.599	0.490
No English with Friends	0.630	0.483	0.682	0.466
Often/Always no English with Parents	0.841	0.366	0.854	0.354
English Skills	3.789	0.378	3.650	0.541
Math Achievement Percentile	56.93	29.95	54.43	29.87
Reading Achievement Percentile	48.41	29.36	43.64	29.55
Grade Point Average	2.834	0.856	2.765	0.895
<i>17-Years Old:</i>				
Ethnic Self-Identity: National Origin	0.400	0.490	0.434	0.496
Ethnic Self-Identity: American	0.027	0.161	0.023	0.150
USA best country	0.744	0.437	0.719	0.450
Americans feel superior	0.826	0.379	0.811	0.392
Most Friends Foreigner	0.593	0.492	0.585	0.493
No English with Friends	0.516	0.500	0.588	0.492
English Skills	3.809	0.375	3.705	0.476
Grade Point Average	2.816	0.933	2.734	0.951
<i>24-Years Old:</i>				
Ethnic Self-Identity: National Origin	0.268	0.443	0.264	0.441
Ethnic Self-Identity: American	0.027	0.162	0.026	0.158
Only English with Friends	0.561	0.497	0.529	0.499
No English with Parents	0.345	0.476	0.381	0.486
Hope to raise Children in English	0.301	0.459	0.279	0.449
English Skills	3.853	0.366	3.818	0.415

Years of Education	14.527	1.672	14.495	1.704
College degree	0.366	0.482	0.362	0.481
<i>Controls:</i>				
Parent: Female	0.601	0.490	0.606	0.489
Parent: Native Partner	0.130	0.337	0.113	0.317
Parent: Years since Migration	20.18	7.550	18.65	8.128
Parent: Age	46.551	6.558	46.331	7.093
Parent: High education	0.250	0.433	0.212	0.409
Parent: Medium education	0.478	0.500	0.472	0.499
Parent: Unemployed	0.049	0.216	0.055	0.228
Parent: Out of Labor Force	0.202	0.401	0.253	0.435
Child: Female	0.534	0.499	0.501	0.500
Child: Foreign-born	0.431	0.495	0.507	0.500
Origin: National Pride	2.637	0.157	2.632	0.165
Origin: Share of immigrants from origin	0.031	0.027	0.031	0.029
Origin: English Language	0.350	0.477	0.296	0.457
Origin: Real GDP per Capita	5672	3875	5620	3818
<i>Region of Origin:</i>				
Europe	0.019	0.136	0.015	0.121
Asia	0.537	0.499	0.536	0.499
Middle East	0	0	0.002	0.041
South America	0.121	0.327	0.103	0.304
North America	0.323	0.468	0.345	0.476
Total	799		1218	

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Notes: The table reports summary statistics for the CILS sample. The sample includes immigrant children, who have at least one foreign-born parent and who were born in the U.S., or who immigrated at an age younger than nine. Furthermore, the sample is restricted to those children, whose parents are observed in the parent survey. In the two columns on the left, the sample is restricted to those observations who are observed in all three waves. On the right, this restriction is not imposed.

Table A3: Macro Variables on National Pride and National Feelings

Country	<u>National Pride</u>			<u>Nationalism</u>	<u>Civic Pride</u>
	IVS: Country- FE	IVS: Mean	ISSP: Mean	ISSP: Principal C.	ISSP: Principal C.
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Albania	2.326	2.462	.	.	.
Algeria	2.492	2.619	.	.	.
Andorra	2.229	2.256	.	.	.
Argentina	2.442	2.445	.	.	.
Armenia	2.349	2.472	.	.	.
Australia	2.595	2.667	2.649	0.643	0.681
Austria	2.301	2.405	2.394	0.416	0.771
Azerbaijan	2.404	2.485	.	.	.
Bangladesh	2.646	2.724	.	.	.
Belarus	1.995	2.069	.	.	.
Belgium	1.964	2.033	.	.	.
Bosnia & H.	1.908	2.055	.	.	.
Brazil	2.298	2.357	.	.	.
Bulgaria	2.009	2.130	1.927	-0.292	-1.130
Burkina Faso	2.731	2.806	.	.	.
Canada	2.533	2.589	2.656	0.751	1.027
Chile	2.416	2.471	2.719	0.246	0.065
China	2.049	2.121	.	.	.
Colombia	2.767	2.821	.	.	.
Croatia	2.197	2.258	.	.	.
Cyprus	2.376	2.495	.	.	.
Czech Rep.	2.010	2.100	1.995	-0.415	-0.911
Denmark	2.210	2.266	2.215	0.228	0.796
Dom. Rep.	2.674	2.675	.	.	.
Ecuador	2.827	2.892	.	.	.
Egypt	2.671	2.702	.	.	.
El Salvador	2.721	2.805	.	.	.
Estonia	1.902	1.967	.	.	.
Ethiopia	2.610	2.648	.	.	.
Finland	2.347	2.366	2.311	0.051	0.524
France	2.114	2.167	2.166	-0.476	0.336
Georgia	2.564	2.642	.	.	.
Germany	1.771	1.834	1.708	-0.532	-0.010
Ghana	2.893	2.931	.	.	.
Greece	2.418	2.505	.	.	.
Guatemala	2.765	2.827	.	.	.
Hong Kong	1.542	1.623	.	.	.
Hungary	2.193	2.379	2.390	-0.289	-0.431

Iceland	2.520	2.535	.	.	.
India	2.571	2.649	.	.	.
Indonesia	2.335	2.394	.	.	.
Iran	2.616	2.691	.	.	.
Iraq	2.604	2.633	.	.	.
Ireland	2.640	2.707	2.726	-0.046	0.488
Israel	2.282	2.345	2.299	-0.200	-0.515
Italy	2.178	2.246	.	.	.
Japan	1.875	1.871	2.326	0.333	0.114
Jordan	2.680	2.736	.	.	.
Kazakhstan	2.499	2.561	.	.	.
Kosovo	2.780	2.866	.	.	.
Kyrgyzstan	2.363	2.359	.	.	.
Latvia	2.063	2.106	2.050	-0.763	-1.233
Lebanon	2.093	2.147	.	.	.
Libya	2.685	2.738	.	.	.
Lithuania	1.834	1.904	.	.	.
Luxembourg	2.274	2.360	.	.	.
Macedonia	2.316	2.429	.	.	.
Malaysia	2.550	2.625	.	.	.
Mali	2.787	2.884	.	.	.
Malta	2.584	2.702	.	.	.
Mexico	2.611	2.644	.	.	.
Moldova	1.856	1.942	.	.	.
Montenegro	2.014	2.111	.	.	.
Morocco	2.558	2.632	.	.	.
Netherlands	1.884	1.963	1.965	-0.362	0.554
New Zealand	2.524	2.637	2.667	0.508	0.368
Nigeria	2.497	2.526	.	.	.
Norway	2.283	2.347	2.220	-0.105	0.348
Pakistan	2.700	2.781	.	.	.
Palestine	2.556	2.625	.	.	.
Peru	2.615	2.660	.	.	.
Philippines	2.690	2.767	2.760	0.375	0.126
Poland	2.476	2.595	2.369	-0.278	-0.978
Portugal	2.408	2.545	2.502	-0.041	-0.654
Puerto Rico	2.793	2.892	.	.	.
Romania	2.157	2.269	.	.	.
Russia	2.004	2.064	2.200	-0.093	-1.488
Rwanda	2.745	2.787	.	.	.
Saudi Arabia	2.650	2.684	.	.	.
Serbia	2.207	2.289	.	.	.
Singapore	2.338	2.400	.	.	.
Slovakia	2.046	2.155	2.168	-0.602	-1.289
Slovenia	2.387	2.469	2.487	-0.520	-0.416
South Africa	2.604	2.560	2.640	0.574	0.500

South Korea	1.987	2.116	2.003	-0.212	-0.779
Spain	2.319	2.435	2.338	0.043	0.580
Sweden	2.190	2.244	2.168	-0.387	0.254
Switzerland	2.083	2.163	2.165	-0.886	0.877
Taiwan	1.682	1.754	2.279	0.050	-0.470
Tanzania	2.707	2.743	.	.	.
Thailand	2.722	2.839	.	.	.
Trinidad & Tob.	2.781	2.872	.	.	.
Tunisia	2.430	2.503	.	.	.
Turkey	2.531	2.655	.	.	.
Uganda	2.548	2.554	.	.	.
Ukraine	1.823	1.890	.	.	.
United Kingdom	2.312	2.399	2.310	0.028	0.440
United States	2.617	2.667	2.772	0.598	0.892
Uruguay	2.472	2.602	2.680	0.037	0.199
Venezuela	2.861	2.915	2.911	0.405	0.418
Vietnam	2.676	2.782	.	.	.
Yemen	2.718	2.790	.	.	.
Zambia	2.475	2.493	.	.	.
Zimbabwe	2.666	2.687	.	.	.
Total	2.387	2.459	2.357	-0.036	0.002

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Notes: The table reports the macro variables on national feelings for different countries. Columns (1) and (2) show the measures of national pride from the Integrated Values Survey (1981-2014). Column (3) shows the mean value of national pride in the ISSP (2003). Column (4) and (5) displays the country averages of different composite measures on nationalism and civic pride.

Table A4: CPS: Summary Statistics

	<u>LFP-Sample</u>				<u>Wage-Sample</u>			
	Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.
Labor Force Participation	0.865	0.342	0.739	0.439	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000
Unemployed	0.046	0.210	0.043	0.202	0.040	0.197	0.030	0.172
Log Wage	10.564	0.960	10.060	1.073	10.678	0.821	10.369	0.776
Log Total Income	10.186	2.116	8.992	3.062	10.754	0.775	10.450	0.725
Age	44.041	11.475	43.994	11.505	41.845	10.518	41.533	10.558
Race: non-white	0.122	0.328	0.122	0.327	0.136	0.342	0.155	0.361
High Education	0.370	0.483	0.361	0.480	0.387	0.487	0.407	0.491
Medium Education	0.546	0.498	0.561	0.496	0.540	0.498	0.541	0.498
Low Education	0.084	0.278	0.078	0.268	0.073	0.260	0.052	0.221
Origin: National Pride	2.359	0.298	2.365	0.295	2.385	0.298	2.399	0.294
Origin: English Language	0.305	0.460	0.304	0.460	0.279	0.449	0.276	0.447
Origin: Real GDP per Capita	16939	9068	16833	9077	15817	9074	15285	9096
<i>Region of Origin:</i>								
Europe	0.461	0.498	0.454	0.498	0.407	0.491	0.382	0.486
Asia	0.134	0.340	0.130	0.336	0.136	0.343	0.146	0.353
Middle East	0.014	0.119	0.014	0.116	0.013	0.112	0.012	0.108
Africa	0.005	0.072	0.005	0.071	0.005	0.072	0.005	0.069
Oceania	0.005	0.068	0.004	0.066	0.004	0.066	0.004	0.064
South America	0.019	0.137	0.018	0.134	0.024	0.153	0.024	0.154
North America	0.362	0.481	0.375	0.484	0.411	0.492	0.428	0.495
Observations	474,403		492,368		38,255		29,356	

Notes: The table reports summary statistics for the samples of male and female second-generation immigrants in the CPS (1994-2015). The sample includes second-generation immigrants who are aged between 25 and 65. Second-generation immigrants are defined as respondents who were born in the United States, but have at least one foreign-born parent. The LFP-Sample includes all individuals who are active in the labor market. Since wages are observed only once a year, the Wage-Sample includes less observations. Furthermore it is restricted to full-time employed respondents.

Table A5: OLS and Reduced-Form Results

	<u>Identity</u>		<u>Socialization</u>		<u>Language use and skills</u>				<u>Education</u>	
	<i>A14: Et. Self-Id.: Nat.</i>	<i>A17: Et. Self-Id.: Nat.</i>	<i>P: Most N. White Am.</i>	<i>A17: Most Fr. For.</i>	<i>A14: No Eng. w/ Fr.</i>	<i>A17: No Eng. w/ Fr.</i>	<i>A24: Only Eng. w/ Fr.</i>	<i>A24: Eng. Skills</i>	<i>A14: GPA</i>	<i>A17: GPA</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
<b>Panel A: OLS</b>										
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)	-0.002 (0.014)	0.011 (0.012)	-0.008 (0.014)	0.041*** (0.007)	0.007 (0.011)	0.016 (0.014)	-0.011 (0.012)	0.009 (0.006)	0.056 (0.034)	0.016 (0.041)
Observations	710	711	714	690	645	714	701	652	711	711
R-Squared	0.0890	0.2012	0.1385	0.1223	0.2790	0.3586	0.3047	0.0712	0.2656	0.2477
<b>Panel B: Reduced Form</b>										
National Pride in Origin Country	0.230** (0.098)	0.270* (0.147)	-0.331** (0.149)	0.540*** (0.155)	0.360* (0.175)	0.423*** (0.133)	-0.472*** (0.146)	-0.330*** (0.059)	-0.968*** (0.282)	-1.095** (0.418)
Observations	710	711	714	690	645	714	701	652	711	711
R-Squared	0.0906	0.2025	0.1414	0.1196	0.2819	0.3620	0.3099	0.0758	0.2673	0.2563
Parent Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Country Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Child Individual Controls	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: The table reports OLS and reduced-form estimates for outcomes regarding social networks (columns (1)-(2)), language use and skills (columns (3)-(6)), identity (columns (7)-(8)), and education (columns (9)-(10)) in the different CILS-waves (P: Parents; A14: Age 14; A17: Age 17; A24: Age 24). The main independent variable in Panel A is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. In Panel B, the main independent variable is the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The specifications correspond otherwise to the main analysis. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.



Table A6: Robustness: Unobserved Human Capital

	<i>Origin: Female Avg. Years of Edu.</i> (1)	<i>Origin: Index of Knowledge Distr.</i> (2)	<i>Origin: Non- Agricultural Pop.</i> (3)	<i>Origin: Human Development Index</i> (4)	<i>Child: Math Achievement Percentile</i> (5)
<b>Age 14: Ethnic Self-Id. National</b>	0.110** (0.045)	0.090** (0.045)	0.068 (0.073)	0.078* (0.044)	0.127** (0.062)
Observations	710	706	706	707	658
F-Statistic	30.273	24.258	13.048	21.682	27.574
<b>Parent: Most N. Foreigners</b>	0.122 (0.082)	0.104 (0.070)	0.158 (0.116)	0.134 (0.084)	0.079 (0.075)
Observations	714	710	710	711	662
F-Statistic	33.336	29.016	16.411	23.328	31.680
<b>Age 17: Most Friends Foreigners</b>	0.184*** (0.054)	0.237*** (0.049)	0.346*** (0.109)	0.278*** (0.053)	0.218*** (0.066)
Observations	690	686	686	687	639
F-Statistic	30.991	27.307	15.342	25.813	31.638
<b>Age 17: No English with Friends</b>	0.161*** (0.053)	0.165*** (0.063)	0.187** (0.081)	0.187*** (0.054)	0.183*** (0.066)
Observations	714	710	710	711	662
F-Statistic	33.239	28.933	15.364	23.105	31.384
<b>Age 24: English Skills</b>	-0.147*** (0.038)	-0.127*** (0.030)	-0.172*** (0.054)	-0.143*** (0.032)	-0.134*** (0.032)
Observations	652	648	648	649	607
F-Statistic	31.330	26.955	25.071	28.555	30.669
<b>Age 14: Grade Point Average</b>	-0.402*** (0.155)	-0.345** (0.138)	-0.305** (0.154)	-0.350** (0.142)	-0.221* (0.123)
Observations	711	707	707	708	663
F-Statistic	38.505	31.158	19.805	28.556	31.382
<b>Age 17: Grade Point Average</b>	-0.462** (0.210)	-0.387** (0.166)	-0.340* (0.205)	-0.397* (0.206)	-0.224 (0.196)
Observations	711	707	707	708	663
F-Statistic	38.505	31.158	19.805	28.556	31.382

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates for outcomes of parents and children in the different areas covered in the main analysis (social networks, language use and skills, identity, education). The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). IV models include the same control variables as in the main specification, but vary in different additional characteristics that are used to test the robustness of the main results. Statistical significance: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .

Table A7: Robustness: Network Quality in City

	<i>Potential Network: Education</i> (1)	<i>Potential Network: Poverty</i> (2)	<i>Potential Network: LM Status</i> (3)	<i>Potential Network: Avg. Wage</i> (4)
<b>Age 14: Ethnic Self-Id. National</b>	0.056 (0.094)	0.086** (0.040)	0.082 (0.050)	0.123** (0.049)
Observations	708	708	703	688
F-Statistic	12.504	38.244	24.499	64.843
<b>Parent: Most N. Foreigners</b>	0.153 (0.116)	0.131* (0.069)	0.132 (0.099)	0.139* (0.074)
Observations	712	712	707	692
F-Statistic	13.943	45.451	25.393	74.678
<b>Age 17: Most Friends Foreigners</b>	0.331** (0.137)	0.215*** (0.064)	0.264*** (0.084)	0.295*** (0.064)
Observations	689	689	684	669
F-Statistic	13.849	41.018	24.852	79.538
<b>Age 17: No English with Friends</b>	0.213** (0.093)	0.172*** (0.043)	0.176*** (0.058)	0.185*** (0.047)
Observations	712	712	707	692
F-Statistic	13.948	45.308	25.140	73.966
<b>Age 24: English Skills</b>	-0.152*** (0.049)	-0.120*** (0.026)	-0.140*** (0.040)	-0.121*** (0.023)
Observations	650	650	645	631
F-Statistic	15.984	39.873	24.062	65.619
<b>Age 14: Grade Point Average</b>	-0.400** (0.203)	-0.342*** (0.118)	-0.421** (0.205)	-0.401*** (0.154)
Observations	709	709	704	689
F-Statistic	17.006	44.535	29.943	94.749
<b>Age 17: Grade Point Average</b>	-0.455 (0.302)	-0.375** (0.157)	-0.483* (0.256)	-0.348* (0.194)
Observations	709	709	704	689
F-Statistic	17.006	44.535	29.943	94.749

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates for outcomes of parents and children in the different areas covered in the main analysis (social networks, language use and skills, identity, education). The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). IV models include the same control variables as in the main specification, but vary in different additional characteristics that are used to test the robustness of the main results. Statistical significance: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .

Table A8: Robustness: Other Dimensions of Culture

	<i>Origin: Family Ties (PCA)</i> (1)	<i>Origin: Family Ties (Added)</i> (2)	<i>Origin: Family Important</i> (3)	<i>Origin: Religion Important</i> (4)	<i>Origin: Generalized Trust</i> (5)
<b>Age 14:</b> Ethnic Self-Id. National	0.117** (0.046)	0.117** (0.046)	0.091* (0.050)	0.062 (0.064)	0.089** (0.043)
Observations	693	693	710	710	710
F-Statistic	35.599	36.009	19.612	21.890	19.499
<b>Parent:</b> Most N. Foreigners	0.112* (0.062)	0.113* (0.060)	0.173* (0.102)	0.158 (0.096)	0.143* (0.083)
Observations	697	697	714	714	714
F-Statistic	35.448	35.581	20.133	23.331	19.825
<b>Age 17:</b> Most Friends Foreigners	0.057* (0.032)	0.063** (0.031)	0.260*** (0.078)	0.243*** (0.062)	0.214*** (0.053)
Observations	673	673	690	690	690
F-Statistic	38.409	38.425	20.929	25.526	24.437
<b>Age 17:</b> No English with Friends	0.113** (0.047)	0.112** (0.045)	0.214*** (0.053)	0.182*** (0.048)	0.179*** (0.044)
Observations	697	697	714	714	714
F-Statistic	35.227	35.381	19.911	23.017	19.591
<b>Age 24:</b> English Skills	-0.094*** (0.026)	-0.094*** (0.026)	-0.152*** (0.037)	-0.132*** (0.028)	-0.132*** (0.029)
Observations	640	640	652	652	652
F-Statistic	20.518	21.990	25.183	34.831	26.693
<b>Age 14:</b> Grade Point Average	-0.218* (0.116)	-0.205* (0.111)	-0.534*** (0.183)	-0.400*** (0.148)	-0.397** (0.181)
Observations	694	694	711	711	711
F-Statistic	38.151	38.728	28.265	29.972	27.480
<b>Age 17:</b> Grade Point Average	-0.302** (0.131)	-0.293** (0.126)	-0.574** (0.277)	-0.432** (0.195)	-0.453* (0.253)
Observations	694	694	711	711	711
F-Statistic	38.151	38.728	28.265	29.972	27.480

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates for outcomes of parents and children in the different areas covered in the main analysis (social networks, language use and skills, identity, education). The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). IV models include the same control variables as in the main specification, but vary in different additional characteristics that are used to test the robustness of the main results. Statistical significance: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .

Table A9: Robustness to Alternative Samples

	<i>Drop Mexicans</i>	<i>Drop Philipponos</i>	<i>Drop Mex. and Phil.</i>	<i>Drop Attrition Restrictions</i>	<i>Age at Arrival &lt; 4</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
<b>Age 14: Ethnic Self-Id. National</b>	0.118** (0.047)	0.088** (0.040)	0.099 (0.067)	0.151*** (0.051)	0.035 (0.042)
Observations	529	479	298	977	568
F-Statistic	33.911	30.564	22.100	6.910	26.915
<b>Parent: Most N. Foreigners</b>	0.099 (0.072)	0.076 (0.061)	0.023 (0.102)	0.228*** (0.076)	0.160* (0.084)
Observations	531	484	301	985	572
F-Statistic	33.459	31.494	19.940	7.203	29.717
<b>Age 17: Most Friends Foreigners</b>	0.189*** (0.054)	0.229*** (0.064)	0.262*** (0.070)	0.213*** (0.069)	0.225*** (0.077)
Observations	513	464	287	915	556
F-Statistic	36.267	30.606	22.995	7.854	27.060
<b>Age 17: No English with Friends</b>	0.160*** (0.054)	0.178*** (0.061)	0.176** (0.075)	0.185*** (0.065)	0.161*** (0.060)
Observations	532	483	301	950	572
F-Statistic	35.909	32.000	22.928	7.196	29.956
<b>Age 24: English Skills</b>	-0.143*** (0.030)	-0.116*** (0.032)	-0.156*** (0.039)	-0.125*** (0.025)	-0.110*** (0.030)
Observations	475	422	245	661	518
F-Statistic	32.198	35.086	29.575	40.807	29.694
<b>Age 14: Grade Point Average</b>	-0.342** (0.143)	-0.433*** (0.135)	-0.495*** (0.152)	-0.503* (0.272)	-0.400*** (0.145)
Observations	528	480	297	981	570
F-Statistic	40.876	36.821	31.094	7.502	34.706
<b>Age 17: Grade Point Average</b>	-0.388** (0.182)	-0.494*** (0.187)	-0.555*** (0.213)	-0.594* (0.326)	-0.461** (0.192)
Observations	528	480	297	981	570
F-Statistic	40.876	36.821	31.094	7.502	34.706

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates for outcomes of parents and children in the different areas covered in the main analysis (social networks, language use and skills, identity, education). The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The different rows show results for different sample-restrictions. All specifications correspond to the main analysis. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

Table A10: Robustness: Alternative Channels

Panel A: Outcomes indicating different mechanisms					
	Alternative Incentives			School Quality	
	<i>P: Intention to Remigrate</i>	<i>A24: Lived 6 Months in Origin</i>	<i>A24: Ever sent Remittances</i>	<i>A14: Perc. White Students in School</i>	<i>A17: Many Gangs in School</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)	0.057 (0.049)	0.037 (0.055)	-0.008 (0.052)	-1.317 (3.189)	-0.022 (0.078)
Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Country Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	651	692	710	715	710
F-Statistic	48.3088	33.4212	33.3137	34.0421	33.2856
Panel B: Main results including school FE					
	<i>A14: Ethnic Self-Id.: Origin Nationality</i>	<i>A17: Ethnic Self-Id.: Origin Nationality</i>	<i>P: Most Neighbors White Am.</i>	<i>A17: Most Friends Foreign</i>	<i>A14: No Eng. with Friends</i>
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)	0.099*** (0.038)	0.113* (0.059)	-0.138** (0.071)	0.211*** (0.068)	0.201*** (0.071)
Observations	710	711	714	690	645
F-Statistic	31.3643	35.4791	34.0561	32.7514	10.8689
	<i>A17: No Eng. with Friends</i>	<i>A24: Only Eng. with Friends</i>	<i>A24: Eng. Skills</i>	<i>A14: GPA</i>	<i>A17: GPA</i>
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)	0.176*** (0.052)	-0.199*** (0.050)	-0.132*** (0.028)	-0.383*** (0.138)	-0.433** (0.187)
Individual Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Origin Country Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
School Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region of Origin Fixed Effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	714	701	652	711	711
F-Statistic	34.0319	30.1103	33.6631	38.3736	38.3736

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and different outcomes in order to test for alternative channels. Panel A analyzes the effect of national attachment on outcome variables that proxy alternative channels. Panel B adds school fixed effects to the main specification. The main independent variable is the national attachment of parents, a principal component of different variables indicating an attachment to the origin country. National attachment of parents is instrumented with the average national pride in the country of origin (variable from the IVS). The sample restrictions and control variables are the same as in the main specification. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

Table A11: Alternative Measures of National Pride in Origin Country

	<u>National Pride</u>			<u>Nationalism</u>	<u>Civic Pride</u>
	<i>IVS: Country-FE</i> (1)	<i>IVS: Mean Value</i> (2)	<i>ISSP: Mean-Value</i> (3)	<i>ISSP: Principal C.</i> (4)	<i>ISSP: Principal C.</i> (5)
<b>Age 14: Ethnic Self-Id. National</b>	0.230** (0.098)	0.197** (0.094)	0.157 (0.407)	0.212 (0.317)	0.546*** (0.143)
Observations	710	710	254	254	254
R-Squared	0.0906	0.0904	0.1113	0.1114	0.1169
<b>Parent: Most N. Foreigners</b>	0.338* (0.180)	0.283* (0.159)	1.920*** (0.298)	1.586** (0.477)	0.565 (0.369)
Observations	714	714	253	253	253
R-Squared	0.3002	0.2994	0.1290	0.1157	0.0910
<b>Age 17: Most Friends Foreigners</b>	0.540*** (0.155)	0.503*** (0.144)	0.296 (0.580)	-0.020 (0.534)	0.207 (0.252)
Observations	690	690	249	249	249
R-Squared	0.1196	0.1196	0.0806	0.0800	0.0807
<b>Age 17: No English with Friends</b>	0.423*** (0.133)	0.356** (0.146)	0.608*** (0.171)	0.505* (0.245)	0.064 (0.170)
Observations	714	714	254	254	254
R-Squared	0.3620	0.3611	0.0948	0.0938	0.0914
<b>Age 24: English Skills</b>	-0.330*** (0.059)	-0.318*** (0.058)	-0.252 (0.159)	-0.072 (0.125)	-0.134 (0.103)
Observations	652	652	249	249	249
R-Squared	0.0758	0.0760	0.0652	0.0643	0.0651
<b>Age 14: Grade Point Average</b>	-0.968*** (0.282)	-0.881*** (0.257)	-1.314** (0.560)	-0.947 (0.821)	-0.092 (0.646)
Observations	711	711	253	253	253
R-Squared	0.2673	0.2667	0.2151	0.2133	0.2109
<b>Age 17: Grade Point Average</b>	-1.095** (0.418)	-0.946** (0.367)	-0.785 (0.437)	-0.797* (0.370)	-0.280 (0.400)
Observations	711	711	253	253	253
R-Squared	0.2563	0.2548	0.2922	0.2923	0.2914

Notes: The table reports reduced-form estimates where different measures of national pride (columns (1)-(3)), nationalism (column (4)), and civic pride (column (5)) are used as main independent variables. The source of those variables are the International Values Survey (IVS, columns (1)-(2)), and the International Social Survey Programm (ISSP, columns (3)-(5)). The dependent variables are outcomes of parents and children in the different areas covered in the main analysis (social networks, language use and skills, identity, education). All specifications include the same control variables as the main specifications. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered by origin country. Statistical significance: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .