National Attachment and the Integration of Second Generation Immigrants in the U.S.

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Abstract

This paper analyzes how the national identity of immigrants, measured as attachment to their origin country, influences the long-run 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 in order 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 the origin country have less contact to natives, speak less and worse English, and perform worse in school than peers whose parents are less attached to their origin country. Results from the CPS suggest that there exist negative long-run effects on labor market outcomes as well.

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1 Introduction

In recent years, the national identity of immigrants has increasingly attracted attention in public debates on the integration of immigrants. In particular, the weak record of integration in many European countries is often associated with a perceived strong origin attachment of immigrants and their descendants. This topic has even caused diplomatic disturbances between Turkey and some European countries, e.g. Germany and the Netherlands, since Turkish politicians' plans in 2017 of conducting referendum rallies for Turkish immigrants in those countries have also exported domestic conflicts to these immigrant populations. The public debate that surrounded this issue was centered around the identity of immigrants. One main concern was that the pronounced origin identity observed among Turkish immigrants, especially among second and third generation immigrants, was impeding the long-run integration of immigrants (e.g. The Economist, 2017).

In fact, there exist a couple of theoretical arguments to be interested in the identity of immigrants, since identity can influence preferences, create externalities, and affect economic behavior (e.g. Akerlof and Kranton, 2000). A strong national identity is likely to affect an immigrant's social preferences, leading to different network choices, lower incentives to invest in country-specific human capital (e.g. destination country language), and different information on the labor market. These factors could ultimately have negative effects on an immigrant's and her descendants' long run integration with respect to school or labor market performance.

However, despite the increasing public attention, little is known whether and how the national identity of immigrants affects long-run integration. Only a few papers in economics have analyzed the link between national or ethnic identity and the integration of immigrants and second generation immigrants, mostly reporting correlations and ambiguous results for European countries (e.g. Casey and Dustmann, 2010; Bisin et al., 2011).[1] For the United States, previous research on ethnic identity has exclusively been focused on racial achievement gaps, and has not considered potential effects on the performance of immigrants and their descendants (e.g. Austen-Smith and Freyer, 2005; Fryer and Torelli, 2010). However, the increasing and more diverse immigration to the U.S. since the 1960s is also reflected in a larger heterogeneity in assimilation patterns among immigrant groups.[2] Therefore, questions regarding factors that favor or impede the long-run integration of immigrants and their descendants become more and more prevalent also in classic immigration countries like the U.S.

[1] The national identity of immigrants is generally treated as a concept of ethnic identity in this literature, and therefore also this paper treats national identity as ethnic identity.

[2] For example, 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 percent less than natives, there exists substantial heterogeneity across origin countries even among immigrants from origin countries that are located within more homogeneous geographical areas.

In this paper, I investigate how the national identity of immigrants, measured as attachment to their origin country, influences the long-run integration of the second generation. In particular, this paper addresses the following research question: How does the origin attachment of immigrant parents affect the integration success of their children in the dimensions identity, social networks, language use and skills, and school performance?

To answer this research question, I use a sample of immigrant parents and their children in the United States from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Survey (CILS), and rely on an IV-strategy to identify the effect of parents' attachment to the origin country on their children's integration outcomes in the different dimensions considered. National attachment is measured as a composite measure, constructed from different questions that reflect the orientation of an immigrant parent to the origin country.[3] An immigrant's origin attachment might be endogenous for different reasons. On the one hand, it is possible that a disappointing performance in the host country might lead to higher origin attachment of immigrants. On the other hand, immigrants with strong origin attachment might have other traits that hinder integration. In order to overcome the potential endogeneity, national attachment is instrumented with an aggregate measure of national pride in the origin country of immigrants, taken from the Integrated Values Survey (IVS). The idea of the instrument is that immigrants from different backgrounds might be differently attached to their origin country, because the national identity plays a different role across countries due to historical or cultural reasons. I motivate this empirical strategy with a theoretical model on the transmission of identity across two generations. The model illustrates that immigrants from countries with a higher weight on the origin country identity will choose an identity for themselves and their children that deviates less from the origin norms.

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 to natives, speak less and worse English, and perform worse in school than peers whose parents are less attached to their origin country. In addition, reduced form estimates in the CPS indicate that a stronger origin identity leads to disadvantages in the labor market for male adult second generation immigrants.

The results in this study suggest that the long-run integration of immigrants and their descendants does not only depend on factors like potential or education. Instead, it is shown that also attitudes, in this case the origin attachment of immigrants, play a role. These results can be interpreted as an argument for policies that promote an immigrant's feeling of belonging to the destination society, since they have the potential to weaken

[3]The composite measure comprises variables regarding a parent's pride of the origin country, how often a parent talks with her child about origin country, whether origin holidays are celebrated a lot, whether a parent buys from origin-shops, and whether the contact to compatriots is considered as very important.

origin ties and encourage the formation of a destination country identity. Examples of such policies could be a liberal access to citizenship and other policies that foster social integration. Also the recent efforts in many countries of targeting the identity of immigrants more directly through immigration policies might help to overcome those negative effects of national attachment.[4]

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. The link between ethnic identity and education or labor market outcomes has been studied theoretically by different authors who model the formation of oppositional identities and the potential trade-off between ethnic identity and school or labor market opportunities (e.g. Austen-Smith and Freyer, 2005; Battu et al., 2007; Patacchini and Zenou, 2016). Empirically, a few paper provide evidence on the relationship between ethnic identity and labor-market outcomes of immigrants in terms of correlations. Most of these papers use variables such as ethnic self-identification, language use, number of same-origin friends, attachment to religion, and other as proxies for ethnic identity and find mixed 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 a strong ethnic identity (e.g. Bisin et al., 2011), other find no clear disadvantages of having a strong ethnic identity (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). This paper's contribution to this strand of 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 assimilation outcomes.[5] Furthermore, it uses a novel concept of identity, namely the attachment to the origin country. This measure of ethnic identity has on the one hand the advantage that it is not an integration outcome itself unlike some imposed measures of ethnic identity in the literature, e.g. language use or number of same-origin friends. On the other hand, this concept of national identity represents well the idea of identity that is present in public debates on the identity of immigrants. A third contribution of this paper to the literature on ethnic identity is that it investigates the effect of national identity among immigrants in the United States, where previous research on ethnic identity has been

[4] One type of those policies are compulsory integration courses that exist for example in France (Service-Public, 2018) and Germany (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge, 2016). A second type of policies 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.).

[5] 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 of immigrants, this paper does not consider the effects of changes in the destination country identity of immigrants. The focus lies exclusively on the origin identity of immigrants, since the exogenous variation does affect merely the origin country identity in this setting.

focused on explaining racial achievement gaps (e.g. Austen-Smith and Freyer, 2005; Fryer and Torelli, 2010).

Second, this paper contributes to the large literature on immigrant assimilation as 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). Since this study focuses on the outcomes of second generation immigrants, it also contributes to the literature on second generation immigrants (Dustmann and Glitz, 2011; Blau et al., 2013; Borjas, 1992, 1993; Card, 2005; Sweetman and Van Ours, 2014). Furthermore, this study is related to the literature on ethnic capital and ethnic networks (Battisti et al., 2016; Bisin et al., 2011; Borjas, 1992; Cutler and Glaeser, 1997; Damm, 2009; Dustmann et al., 2016), as the social networks of parents are found to depend on their national attachment.

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).[6] My approach exploits a similar type of variation as the epidemiological approach, namely variation in the average national pride across origin countries of second generation immigrants. However, compared to studies that apply the epidemiological approach in order to assess the effects of origin country characteristics on second generation immigrants' outcomes, the IV-approach allows to narrow down the channel through which this cultural effect works, in this case the origin attachment of parents. At the same time, the rich data allows to control for many important characteristics that might bias results when applying the epidemiological approach, e.g. the education, labor market position, and years since migration of the parents. Hence, this paper attempts to illustrate how the transmission of culture can affect economic outcomes.

The paper proceeds as follows. The next section discusses the theoretical mechanisms through which a parent's national identity could affect the integration of her children. Further, 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 and 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.

[6]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 Theoretical Considerations

In this section, I discuss theoretical mechanisms that enable me to derive expectations for the empirical analysis. In a first step, I argue why the attachment of immigrants to their origin country could theoretically affect the integration of their children. In a second step, I introduce a simple model on the intergenerational transmission of identity that is used to motivate my empirical strategy.

2.1 Origin attachment and long-term integration

From an economics point of view, there exist several potential reasons to be interested in the identity of immigrants and their descendants. A growing literature in economics has focused on identity, and points out that the concept of identity may affect important life choices. 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 might affect the long-run integration of their children. These theoretical arguments are illustrated in Figure 2 and discussed below.

The attachment of an immigrant to her origin country is likely to have an influence on her preferences with respect to her social network. After immigrating to the destination country, an immigrant with a strong national attachment to the origin country will therefore choose a social surrounding with a stronger emphasis on the origin country, i.e. they are likely to have more friends and acquaintances who are also immigrants from the origin country (e.g. Fryer and Torelli, 2010, use a measure that is based on the share of same-race friends as a proxy for ethnic identity). Hence, the children of parents with a strong ethnic identity grow up in another, more ethnic, social surrounding which is induced by their parents' choices. Bisin and Verdier (2011) describe e.g. 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, neighborhood, peers, and so on, and thereby influence their children, who pick traits by matching in society.
These more pronounced ethnic networks are likely to have negative effects on the long-run integration of children for different reasons. First, growing up in a more ethnic surrounding will decrease incentives and opportunities to invest in country-specific human capital, such that children of immigrants with strong origin-country networks might end up having e.g. a lower language proficiency. This lower language proficiency will ultimately have negative effects on the immigrant child's school and labor market position (e.g. Chiswick and Miller, 2002; Bleakley and Chin, 2004). A second reason why these strong ethnic networks might affect the long-run integration of immigrants and their children negatively is that investing in ethnic rather than native networks will lead to differences in job offers

and less information about labor market opportunities. Battu et al. (2007) model such a trade-off between labor market opportunities and ethnic social preferences. In both cases, the social preferences of a parent will affect her child's education and labor market success negatively through a different horizontal socialization.

Apart from inducing a different social network, immigrant parents affect their children also through vertical socialization. Immigrant parents with a strong origin attachment are likely to transmit their origin attachment to the children. They might, for example raise their children more according to their origin culture, talk more positively about the origin country, or visit the origin country more often. This vertical transmission of the ethnic identity could on the one hand affect the child, because the stronger origin attachment of a child will lead to social preferences that are similar to those of their parents. Hence, the same mechanisms will apply to a child's network with the consequences described above. Another reason why a strong ethnic identity of an immigrant child might affect her performance negatively is that it might be more likely to form oppositional identities. As an example, Austen-Smith and Freyer (2005) formalize a particular peer effect, "acting White". The idea is that individuals face a two-audience signaling problem. Ethnic minorities face a tension between signaling their type to the outside labor market and signaling their type to their peers, as signals that induce high wages can be signals that induce peer rejection. A similar mechanism could 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 less and worse the destination-country language, and perform worse in school and in the labor market. Furthermore, one might expect immigrant children of parents who are more attached to the origin country to have a more pronounced origin identity which might 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 affects the long-run integration negatively, I introduce in this subsection a simple model on the transmission of ethnic identity from parents to children. National attachment to the origin country is conceptually treated as ethnic identity, and the transmission of the ethnic identity of immigrants across two generations is modeled. The model allows to formalize ideas regarding the mechanisms that form the ethnic identity of immigrants and their children, and will be useful to motivate the choice of 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 a parent has to take are therefore the decisions on how much the parent and how much her child should assimilate and deviate from the origin identity.
In general, parents have an interest preserving their origin identity, since they grew up in the origin country and have been raised according to its norms and values. However, as argued in the previous section, a strong origin identity might also affect an immigrant's labor market position negatively. Hence, the decision for the parent's identity depends on the one hand on the effect of acculturation on her labor market position, and on the other hand on the disutility of deviating from the origin culture, or the importance an immigrant ascribes to the ethnic identity.
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 the child's identity. Marks et al. (2007) illustrate that the level of immigrant parents' acculturation influences the development of their child's ethnic identity. This may be the case because they prefer that their children become similar to themselves, but they might also simply not be able to educate their children in a way that does promote destination country 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 the child decreases its chances in the labor market in the future, or if it creates disutility for the child through other channels, e.g. due to a higher risk of social marginalization, then this will also influence their decision.
Parents therefore face a trade-off: On the one hand, parents want to maximize their utility by maintaining origin norms and by raising their children similar to themselves and ultimately similar to those origin norms. On the other hand, 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:

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

In this formulation, the utility U_p of a parent p depends on her consumption 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, 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 θ and μ 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,

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

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 discussed, a stronger ethnic identity may affect the utility that a child gains from its social status, if, for example, it causes the child to feel marginalized throughout its life.
The future earnings of parents and children are given by

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

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

Earnings depend on the individual earnings potential t_p and t_c, as well as functions $\zeta(I_p)$ and $\eta(I_c)$ through which the ethnic identity of both, children and parents, 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.

Hence, parents who have to decide on their own and their child's ethnic identity in this model face 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 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 of a parent for a strong ethnic identity of a child has negative effects on the utility of parents through its negative effects on the child's social position $S(I_c)$ and its negative effects on the labor market position of children.

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

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

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

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

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

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

As one can see in Equations (5) and (7), in the absence of negative effects of a pronounced ethnic identity of the parent and the child with respect to earnings of the parent or the future utility of a child, parents would choose an identity for their children that is equal to the identity of the parent, and ultimately resembles the origin norms x_o. However, due to

the negative effects of a strong ethnic identity, the identity of the parent will deviate from the origin norms, and the identity of immigrant children will deviate from the identity of the parent, and acculturate even more than the parent's identity. In Equation (7) one can see that the deviation of a child's optimal identity I_c from 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 π, which reflects the altruism of the parent, and negatively on the weights on the loss functions, θ and μ. It is an intuitive result that an altruistic parent deviates more from the preferred level of ethnic identity when facing negative consequences of a strong ethnic identity for a child's future utility. Further, it is also plausible that parents who are more interested in raising their children similar to themselves (high θ), as well as those immigrants who care more about being similar to their origin country norms (high μ) will deviate less from the origin norms when facing negative effects of a strong ethnic identity.

The basic results of the model show 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 or culture. In Germany, for example, national identity plays a less important role than in countries like the United States or France. If one compares immigrants from origin countries with a different sense of national feelings, one could argue that deviations from origin country norms might be differently important for immigrants from different origin countries. In the model, such a heterogeneity will translate into an origin country-dependent weight on the second loss function: μ_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 μ_o) will choose an identity for themselves and their children that deviates less from the ethnic group. 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 μ_o and thus in I_i and I_c, will lead to negative effects for both, parents and children.

As will be discussed in the next section, I use a proxy for μ_o in the empirical part of the analysis in order to predict the origin country identity of a parent and to identify its causal effect on the integration of immigrants and 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 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) that contains both, information on the origin attachment of immigrant parents as well as 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 μ_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 in 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. Each of the two follow-up surveys retrieve about 85 percent of the previous sample. Together with the first follow-up survey, a parental survey was conducted. For reasons of cost, this survey targeted half of the total universe of parents, selecting them on a random basis. Hence, parents of only 46 percent of the original student sample were interviewed.

In my sample, second generation immigrants are defined as those children who are born in the United States but have at least one foreign-born parent, or as those who migrated at very young age (younger than 9 years old).[7] I define the origin country of second generation immigrants as the place of birth of her respective parent from the parent survey.[8]

[7] 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 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.

[8] About 80 percent of the responding parents have partners who originate from the same origin country, and about 13 percent 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

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. It is different than a representative distribution in the Current Populations Survey as it reflects the composition of immigrants in the cities where the interviews took place. The majority of parents in this sample immigrated from Asia (especially the Philippines and Vietnam) or North-American countries (especially Mexico). Summary statistics are reported in Table A2. About 53 percent of the children are female, 13 percent are born to an intermarried couple, and about 43 percent of the children have been born outside the US. Parents are on average 47 years old and immigrated to the United States on average 20 years ago.[9]

The key independent variable in my analysis is the composite measure 'Origin Ties' that 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: whether a parent is very proud of the origin country; whether she talks a lot about the origin country with her child; whether she celebrates origin country holidays a lot; whether she agrees a lot that contact to compatriots is very important; and whether a parent buys from shops owned by origin country people. The composite index explains roughly 40 percent 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 country. About 80 percent of the parents state that they are very proud of their country of origin and about half of the parents talks a lot with their children about it or consider contact to compatriots as very important. One third of the parents celebrates origin holidays a lot and about 20 percent 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.[10] 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 ob-

the education of the child.

[9]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 5.2. Hence, selective attrition seems not to drive my results.

[10]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.

served children self-identify by national origin as opposed to American, hyphenate, 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 speaking, reading, understanding, and writing. The mean value of those four categories gives a composite measure on English skills that is used as 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.

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 percent of the children have mostly foreign friends. They have a strong tendency to avoid speaking English with friends (63 percent at age 14), family (84 percent at age 14) and even future children (70 percent 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. Reflecting the immigration background of the sample, the mean in reading percentile rank is substantially lower (48.41). 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 percent are still in school. On average, the second generation immigrants in my sample have spent 14.5 years in education and about 37 percent have graduated from college within the last five years at age 24.

3.2 Empirical Strategy

This study examines the causal effect of national attachment of immigrant parents on their child's integration outcomes. However, there are reasons to believe that the national attachment of parents is not exogenous to the parents' situation or background. On the

one hand, there might be reversed causality, such that an immigrant who is less successful in a new society forms a stronger origin identity. On the other hand, immigrants' origin attachment could be endogenous to other traits that affect integration. For example, immigrants who migrate for different reasons, e.g. political vs. economic reasons, could differ both, in terms of their integration success and in terms of their origin attachment. In order to overcome this endogeneity issue, I apply an instrumental variable strategy. As instrument for the national attachment of immigrant parents, I use 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 as the weight μ_o. I estimate two-stage-least-squares regressions with the first stage

$$\widehat{origin\_ties}_{ipc} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 national\_pride_p + \alpha_2 X_{ipc} + \nu_c + \delta_o + u_{ipst}, \tag{8}$$

and the following second stage:

$$Y_{ipc} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \widehat{origin\_ties}_{ipc} + \beta_2 X_{ipc} + \nu_c + \delta_o + u_{ipc}. \tag{9}$$

Y_{ipc} represents an integration outcome of child i, who lives in city c and originates from country p. The predicted origin ties of the child's parent from the first stage are $\widehat{origin\_ties}_{ipc}$. X_{ipc} 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).[11] Furthermore, equations (8) and (9) control for city fixed effects and region of origin fixed effects (ν_c and δ_o).[12] The error terms are clustered at the level of origin countries.

The parameter of interest is β_1, which identifies the effect of national attachment of parents, given that national pride is correlated with national attachment (relevance) and that 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) asking the respondents how proud they are of their nationality.[13] The variable

[11] The share of compatriots in each city is calculated from census data in 1990. Data on real GDP per capita in 2000 is taken from Gleditsch (2002).

[12] I define broad regions of origin: Europe, Asia, Africa, Middle East, South America, North America, and Oceania.

[13] 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

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 applied 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.[14]

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 estimated country fixed effects from the regressions for national pride using the IVS, which is the measure of national pride I rely on in most of my analysis. In column (2), the simple country-averages of national pride from the IVS are displayed. One can see that 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 in the IVS is 2.39, indicating that national pride is on average important around the world. However, national pride varies considerably among 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.[15] 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

countries.

[14] Using the mean values of wave-specific country fixed effects, as well as using simply country-averages as measure of national pride, does not change the results.

[15] 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.

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 on the one hand blind nationalistic pride, but on the other hand, it could also reflect 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.[16] 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, as 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.[17]

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 identification. First, my measure of national pride could not only pick up differences in the importance of national feelings across countries, but proxy differences in, for example, education or economic development across origin countries that affect unobserved human capital. In this case, my estimates would be biased. This problem is common to all studies that use aggregate culture proxies from origin countries of immigrants, since they could always reflect other macro-differences than those intended. One advantage of this setting compared to the epidemiological approach is that I observe parents and therefore can control for parent characteristics such as age, years since migration, education, and the labor market position. This should decrease the problem of unobserved human capital to some extent. Looking at raw correlations between national pride and other macro-variables, one can see in Figure 3a that there exists in fact a negative correlation between real GDP per capita and national pride across countries. So, poorer countries exhibit more national pride on average. Further, respondents in English-

[16] 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.

[17] In a robustness check, I show that all measures of national feelings, also from the ISSP, gain fairly similar results.

speaking countries are more proud of their nationality than those in others. However, simply conditioning on origin regions does eliminate the correlation of those variables as one can see in Figure 3b. 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 in order to address this concern further. Including these controls does not change my results.

Another issue in studies that are concerned with immigrants in general is selective in- or out-migration. If return migrants, for instance, are negatively selected from the pool of immigrants in the host country, return migration leads 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. This is unlikely as one might expect that a higher national attachment of immigrants would increase the probability of return migration. If this is the case, selective return migration would downward bias my results, since the remaining second generation immigrants in my sample would be positively selected. The literature suggests that 20-50 percent of an immigrant cohort leave within 10 years of arrival in the host country (Lubotsky, 2007; Dustmann and Görlach, 2014, for a survey). Parents in my sample are on average already in the United States since 20 years. Hence, my sample is likely to include those immigrants and their children that stay permanently in the US, since major return migration movements should have already happened before the survey has been conducted. However, this potentially selected sample should also reflect the policy-relevant population when studying determinants of successful long-term integration.

Selective attrition is another potential problem given that I look at those who remain in the sample throughout all three waves. It might be the case that attrition from the sample, especially at age 24, is correlated with educational success. Selective attrition could therefore bias my results. As a sensitivity check, I conduct the same analysis for earlier waves without imposing this sample restriction and results remain unchanged.

It should be noted that this empirical approach has a couple of important advantages to methods applied in the previous literature. First, I exploit exogenous variation across origin countries in order to overcome the potential endogeneity problem that is present in all studies that analyze correlations between measures of ethnic self-identity of immigrants and assimilation outcomes. Second, compared to studies that apply the epidemiological approach in order to assess the effects of origin country characteristics on second generation immigrants' outcomes, this approach allows to narrow down the channel through which this cultural effect works, in this case the origin attachment of parents. At the same time, I can control for many important characteristics that might bias results when

applying the epidemiological approach, e.g. the education, labor market position, and years since migration of the parents.

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 as well. Further, they are more likely to talk a lot with the child about the origin country, to celebrate their origin holidays, to buy from stores that people from their origin community own, and to consider contact to 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, but also their magnitude is reasonably large, e.g. a standard deviation increase in national pride in the country of origin (0.157) increases the probability of being very proud of the origin country of immigrant parents 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 the 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

I next turn to the main results of the IV-regressions. Here, the question is whether a stronger 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. Also the discussion of theoretical mechanisms through which a strong ethnic identity of parents would affect a child's integration, considered the transmission of a strong origin identity as one main channel. Table 2 presents the IV-results for the effect of parents' national attachment on the origin identity of children in all three CILS-waves.[18] The estimates show that a higher national attachment of parents increases significantly the probability that 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 of a 14 years-old child to 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 the country of origin. Recalling the theoretical discussion, a stronger national identity of immigrant children could affect successful integration in two ways: On the one hand, a stronger origin identity of a child could influence its social network, its language use and skills, and ultimately school and other integration outcomes. On the other hand, it could affect school and other integration outcomes more directly since it may favor the formation of oppositional identities such that immigrant children with a stronger origin identity might 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 the origin country are not less likely to self-identify as American, and the results do not suggest that there exist effects on agreeing or disagreeing to statements whether the U.S. are the best country, or whether Americans feel superior when they interact with foreigners.

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 stronger oppositional attitudes with regard to the majority society. In the following, I will therefore investigate whether the identity choices of parents affect the integration process of their children through the other main channel discussed in the Section 2, namely whether they affect choices in terms of social networks, language use, and ultimately school performance and labor market prospects.

[18]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 this 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 have at the same time better integration outcomes than those who immigrated for other reasons.

4.3 Social Networks

As discussed in the theoretical discussion, a strong origin attachment could affect the social preferences of immigrants and their children. A more pronounced origin identity should therefore be reflected in a more ethnic network of parents and children. Results in Table 4 support this idea, as the IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and integration outcomes in the dimension social networks of parents and their children in different CILS-waves point in this direction: Estimates in columns (2) and (3) show that parents with a more pronounced 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 the 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 native neighbors by 18.9 percentage points. In columns (4) and (5), the effect of parents' national attachment on the probability that a child has mostly foreign friends at age 14 or age 17 is analyzed. Both coefficients are positive, but it is statistically significant at age 17 only. 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 of immigrant children to invest in destination country-specific as well as general human capital, which will be analyzed in the following subsections.

4.4 Language Use and Language Skills

Since a stronger 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. When growing up in a surrounding with less natives and having more foreign friends, children might have less often the need or possibility to speak English and therefore also 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 of 14 years-old children to speak no English with their friends by 27.6 percentage points.

Further, the origin attachment of parents increases significantly the probability of children to speak no 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 even less likely to hope to raise their own children in English. 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 incentives and the habit of their children to speak English. In a next step, it is further analyzed whether these lower incentives to speak the language are also translated 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 the age of 24, a standard deviation increase in national attachment of parents lowers language skills by 0.18 points (measured on a scale from 1 to 4). The finding that the effect becomes larger with an increasing age of the immigrant children could be explained by a divergence throughout adolescence due to the different social surrounding and different language habits.

Overall, 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. The fact that immigrant children, whose parents are more attached to the origin country, have a lower probability to speak English with friends and the family, are consistent with the results that they have stronger ethnic networks and a stronger national identity with respect to the origin country. 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 show that immigrant children whose parents are more attached to the origin country have a different social network and speak less and worse English than those whose parents are less attached to their origin country. Different networks, and in particular different language skills should also affect the integration in other dimensions that are often considered as indicators of long-term integration, e.g. they could lead to a worse performance of second generation immigrants in school and later in the labor market. I investigate whether there exists this negative effect of parents' national attachment on the human capital formation of children in Table 7, where I report IV-estimates of the relationship between origin attachment of parents and education outcomes of their children. In fact, results indicate that a strong origin identity of parents affects their children's education outcomes negatively: The origin attachment of parents has sizable and highly significant negative effects on 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 worse grade point average. 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 percent. Among 24 years-old immigrant children, estimates show in the same direction but are statistically not significant. However, the coefficient in column (7) for the effect of parents' national attachment on the probability that the 24 years-old immigrant child has graduated from college within the last five years is very close to be 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, since these outcomes are not as precise and objective as test achievements or grade point averages.

In sum, 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 less contact to natives. Further, 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 in terms of objective measures such as test achievement scores and grade point averages.

5 Additional Results and Specification Checks

5.1 Labor Market Outcomes – 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 identity, social networks, language use and skills, and education. This weaker integration should ultimately have negative effects on the labor market position of adult second generation immigrants as well. Due to a low number of second generation immigrants that are active in the labor force in the CILS data, I use in this section data from the Current Population Survey (CPS) between 1994 and 2015. Due to a lack of parents' information, I estimate the reduced form, analyzing the relationship between average national pride in the country of origin of second generation immigrants on their labor market outcomes.

My sample includes second generation immigrants who are aged between 25 and 65. I define second generation immigrants in the CPS as those respondents who are born in the United States, but have at least one foreign-born parent. The origin country of a second

generation immigrant is defined as her 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. I analyze the effect of national pride in the country of origin on classic labor market outcomes of second generation immigrants: My dependent variables are whether a respondent is active in the labor market or not; whether she is unemployed;[19] the natural logarithm of her yearly wage income; and the total income of the respondent.[20] The sample restrictions leave a total sample of 966,771 observations from 87 origin countries (492,368 women and 474,403 men). When using the income variables that are obtained only once a year, the sample size is 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 percent have at least a Bachelor's degree). The parents of most second generation immigrants came from Europe or other North-American countries.

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

$$Y_{ipst} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 national\_pride_p + \beta_2 X_{ipst} + \nu_s + \sigma_t + \delta_o + u_{ipst}. \tag{10}$$

The left hand side variable Y_{ipst} represents the realization of a dependent variable for individual i in state s at time t, whose parents originate from country p. The variable of interest in these regressions is $national\_pride_p$, which represents the measure of the national pride in the parents' country of origin p that has been used as an instrument for national attachment of parents in the main analysis. This OLS-regression can therefore be interpreted as a reduced-form estimate and is very similar to the epidemiological approach. X_{ipsc} are the individual and aggregate origin country control variables.[21] I further control for state fixed effects, year-month fixed effects and region of origin fixed effects (ν_s , σ_t, and δ_o, respectively). The error terms are clustered at the level of origin countries.

The results for second generation immigrants in the CPS are presented separately for men and women in Panel A and B of Table 8, respectively. One can see that the effects of national pride in the country of origin for men support the idea that there are long-run disadvantages from national attachment on the labor market assimilation of 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 second generation immigrant men. When including controls for education of the respondents in even columns (one potential channel), the effects of national pride decrease in size and loses significance for labor force participation. However, there is a robust negative association for all other three variables

[19] Additional sample restriction that the respondent is active in the labor market.
[20] Additional sample restriction that the respondent is full-time employed.
[21] Individual: Polynomials of age, gender, being non-white; Origin: English language, GDP per capita.

also in this more strict specification. A one 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 percent (4.6%/0.26%). Compared to the effects of other relevant controls, such as the origin country being 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 one standard deviation increase in national pride in the origin country leads to a 2.1 percent decrease in wages for second generation immigrant men. For comparison, the effect of coming from an English-speaking country is 7.2 percent.

For female second generation immigrants, I do not find negative effects of national pride in the origin country on the labor market position. However, when running the main analysis from the previous section separately for male and female immigrant kids, negative effects of parents' origin attachment are found to be similarly prevalent for both genders. One possible explanation for this gender difference in the long-run effect of origin attachment on the labor market position of female second generation immigrants 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. Another possible explanation could be that they do in fact catch up human capital differences over lifetime.

Overall, national pride in the country of origin is negatively associated with the labor market performance of male second generation immigrants, while having no effect fore females. However, as it is not possible in the CPS to control for parent 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 Specification Checks

As discussed in Section 3.2, the identifying assumption of the IV-strategy might not be fulfilled for a couple of reasons. First, the exclusion restriction could be violated if the aggregate measure of national pride proxies low unobserved human capital that is not captured by my control variables. As argued above, this problem is common to all studies that use aggregate culture proxies from origin countries of immigrants and 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 to some extent. Also the origin-country controls GDP per capita, English-speaking as well as origin region fixed effects aim to minimize this problem. In the first four rows of Table A6, I add the following control variables that are supposed to proxy human capital quality in the origin country in order to address this concern in different dimensions:[22] The average

[22]These further control variables are taken from the Quality of Government data (Teorell et al., 2017).

years of education of women aged 25 and older in the country of origin (Original data from Gakidou et al., 2010);[23] 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. Results in Table A6 show that my results are fairly robust to all additional independent variables that aim to control for unobserved human capital.
In further robustness check, I control in row 5 of Table A6 for school fixed effects instead of city fixed effects. Again, results remain highly significant.

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 A7 presents IV-results of the main specification for different sample restrictions. More specifically, in the first three rows I drop the main immigrant groups as 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 that I only keep those 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 A6 addresses this concern, where I drop this restriction. The results remain unchanged. Hence, selective attrition seems not drive the main results.
Furthermore, one could question the validity of the main results, because the sample includes a large share of immigrant children that were in fact born abroad and migrated at an age below 9. As an argument for this sample choice serves the critical period hypothesis. 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 older age. They are ultimately able to speak English as well as those immigrant children who migrated from English-speaking countries, while immigrant children who immigrated at an age above nine from non-English-speaking countries have significantly lower English-skills and perform in the long run worse with respect to socioeconomic outcomes (e.g. Bleakley and Chin, 2010). Additional to this argument, results in row 5 of Table A7 show that restricting my sample to those children that immigrated at an age below four does not affect my results.

Finally, one might question the empirical strategy because it relies on only one measure of national pride in the origin countries. As argued in Section 3.2.1, there are reasons to believe that this measure of national pride reflects the idea of nationalism and that it is comparable to measures of national pride in other surveys as well. The disadvantage of

[23] Same results for average years of education of men.

other surveys, such as the ISSP, is that it has been conducted in only a few countries. In Table A8, one can see reduced form regressions where different measures of national pride (columns (1)-(4)), nationalism (column (5)), and civic pride (column (6)) are used as independent variables. The source of those variables are the Integrated Values Survey (IVS, columns (1)-(3)), and the International Social Survey Programm in 2003 (ISSP, columns (4)-(6)). The dependent variables cover parent and child outcomes from the different integration dimensions analyzed in the main analysis (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, but 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. One can see that the reduced form estimates are significant for all variables and point in the same direction as the estimates from IV-regressions. The estimates in column (2) show that using mean values across countries in the IVS give the same results as using country fixed effects from regressions within 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 that the reduced-form estimates are fairly similar to those in the first two columns, even if it is 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 A8 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 the attention of public debates on integration in many countries. A strong attachment to the origin country of immigrants, especially among the second and third generation, is in this public debate often considered as a problem for successful integration or as a symptom of a weak record of integration. The identity of immigrants is also increasingly of interest for policy makers, since they try to actively establish norms and values of the destination society among immigrants through compulsory integration courses or through requirements for citizenship.

This paper examines the causal effects of a strong national identity of immigrants on the integration of the second generation. In particular, I use a sample of immigrant par-

ents and their children in the United States from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Survey (CILS) and analyze whether parents' national attachment to the country of origin affects their children's ethnic self-identity and oppositional identities, social networks, language use and skills, and school outcomes. In order to overcome potential endogeneity issues, an IV-strategy is applied where national attachment of parents is instrumented by an aggregate measure of national pride in the origin country of the parent. In fact, immigrants from countries with a high average national pride are found to be more attached to their origin country than those from countries with low national pride. The main results in Section 4 have shown that the origin attachment of immigrant parents affects the integration of their children negatively: Children whose parents are strongly attached to the origin country develop a stronger ethnic identity, have less contact to natives, speak less and worse English, and perform worse in school than peers whose parents are less attached to their origin country. The formation of oppositional identities seems not to be strongly affected by the national attachment of parents. Further, 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 integration, since it shows that the long-run integration of immigrants and their children does not only depend on factors such as potential or education, but also on the attitude with which immigrants come to a new country. Whether an immigrant is emotionally oriented back to the origin country or open to the new society plays an important role for the development of immigrants and their descendants.

In the light of the public debate in many European countries, the results in this paper could serve as an argument for opponents Turkish politicians' attempts to maintain close ties to immigrant populations originating from their country. However, it is legit that politicians address potential voters who live in other countries. Instead, policy makers should address this issue by offering better economic, social and political opportunities to immigrants, since greater participation in the destination country might weaken immigrants' origin ties and encourage the formation of a destination country identity. 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 of targeting the identity of immigrants more directly through compulsory immigration courses or citizenship requirements could be another way to support long-run integration of immigrants.

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

	Origin Ties (PCA)	*Very Proud of the country of Origin*	*Talk a lot with Child about Origin*	*Celebrate a lot Origin Holidays*	*Buy from Origin-Stores*	*Contact to Compatriots very important*
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
National Pride in Origin Country	2.395***	0.426***	0.465**	0.665***	0.509***	0.429***
	(0.410)	(0.139)	(0.216)	(0.131)	(0.145)	(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	0.1966	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 are 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 national pride in the country of origin. It is calculated as a weighted average of the responses to a question regarding national pide in the WVS. The sammple 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, Middle East, Africa, Oceania, 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

		14 years-old	**17 years-old**	**24 years-old**
	First Stage	*Ethnic Self-Identity: National*		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		0.100***	0.113*	0.064*
		(0.038)	(0.059)	(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		31.4152	35.5453	40.3808

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 self-identifying as Amercian, 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 national pride in the country of origin, measured as a weighted country-average in the WVS. 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, Middle East, Africa, Oceania, 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

		14 years-old			**17 years-old**			**24 years-old**
	First Stage	*Ethnic Self-Identity: American*	*USA best country*	*Americans feel superior*	*Ethnic Self-Identity: American*	*USA best country*	*Americans feel superior*	*Ethnic Self-Identity: American*
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		-0.063	-0.077*	0.078	0.001	0.059	0.060	0.035
		(0.063)	(0.046)	(0.053)	(0.039)	(0.068)	(0.045)	(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		31.4152	33.3851	34.2461	35.5453	34.9089	34.1034	40.3808

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and outcomes regarding potential 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 Amercian (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 national pride in the country of origin, measured as a weighted country-average in the WVS. 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, Middle East, Africa, Oceania, 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

		Parents		14 years-old	17 years-old
	First Stage	*Most Neighbors Foreigners*	*Most N. White Americans*	*Most Friends Foreigner*	*Most Friends Foreigner*
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		0.141*	-0.138**	0.057	0.210***
		(0.075)	(0.070)	(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		34.1189	34.1189	46.9338	32.8045

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and integration outcomes in the area 'socialization' 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 natives (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 national pride in the country of origin, measured as a weighted country-average in the WVS. 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, Middle East, Africa, Oceania, 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

		14 years-old		**17 years-old**		**24 years-old**	
	First Stage	*No English with Friends*	*Often / Always no English with Parents*	*No English with Friends*	*Only English with Friends*	*No English with Parents*	*Hope to raise Children in English*
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		0.201***	0.134**	0.176***	-0.199***	0.109*	-0.236***
		(0.071)	(0.062)	(0.052)	(0.050)	(0.057)	(0.081)
National Pride in Origin Country	1.796***						
	(0.544)						
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		10.8942	21.7827	34.0931	30.1623	30.0417	28.4388

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 national pride in the country of origin, measured as a weighted country-average in the WVS. 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, Middle East, Africa, Oceania, 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

		Parents	**14 years-old**	**17 years-old**	**24 years-old**
	First Stage	*English Skills*	*English Skills*	*English Skills*	*English Skills*
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		-0.084	-0.059	-0.109*	-0.132***
		(0.198)	(0.050)	(0.059)	(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		30.3671	34.1034	34.1034	33.6967

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 national pride in the country of origin, measured as a weighted country-average in the WVS. 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, Middle East, Africa, Oceania, 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

		14 years-old			**17 years-old**	**24 years-old**	
	First Stage	*Math Achievement Percentile*	*Reading Achievement Percentile*	*Grade Point Average*	*Grade Point Average*	*Years of Education*	*College degree*
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)		-12.828**	-11.960***	-0.383***	-0.433**	-0.210	-0.129
		(6.313)	(4.636)	(0.138)	(0.187)	(0.297)	(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		26.3463	29.2449	38.4368	38.4368	33.8465	33.4871

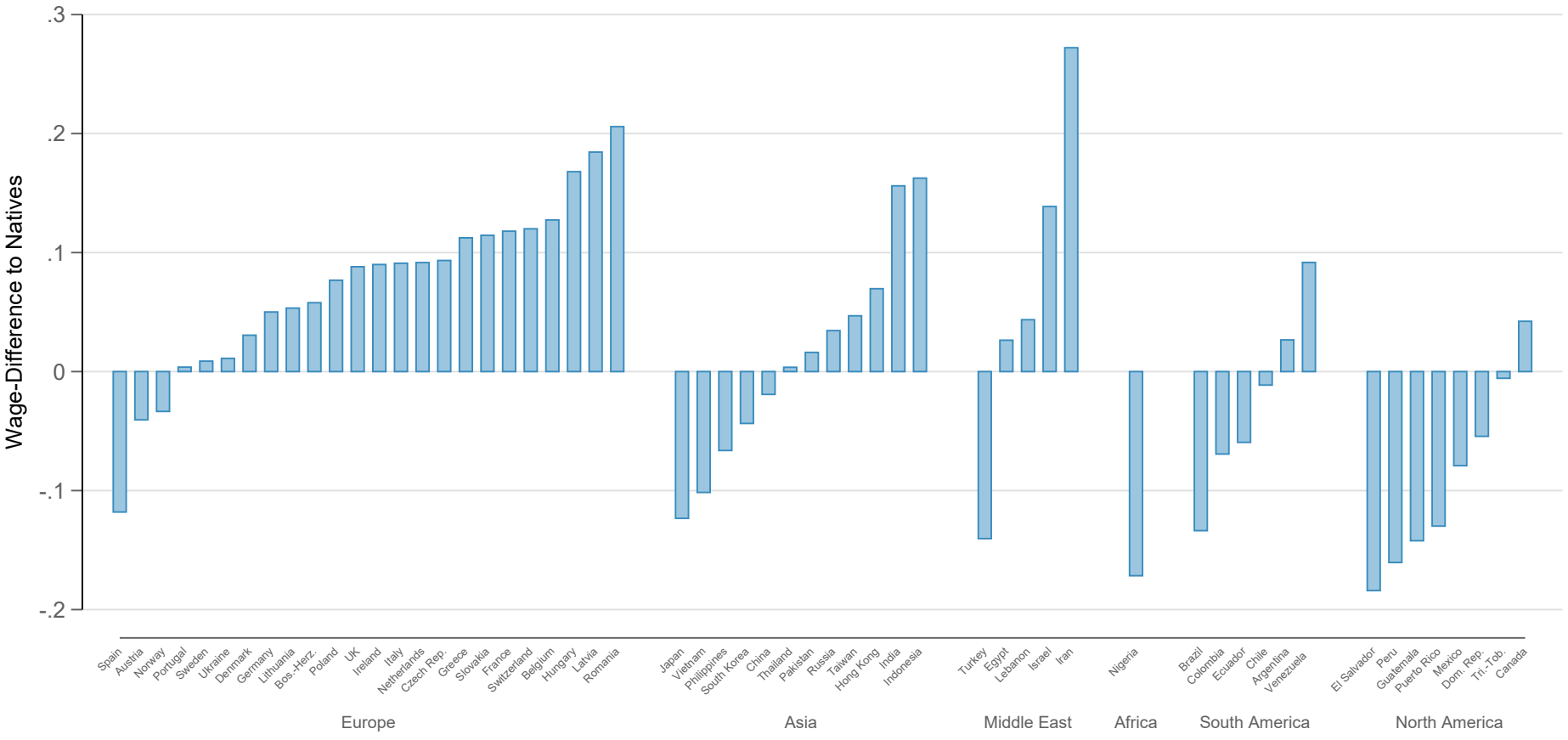
Notes: The table reports IV-estimates of the relationship between national attachment of parents and education outcomes of their children in different CILS-waves (child aged 14 in columns (2)-(4), aged 17 in column (5), aged 24 in columns (6)-(9)). The dependent variables are Standford math and reading 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 within 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 national pride in the country of origin, measured as a weighted country-average in the WVS. 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, Middle East, Africa, Oceania, 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 Labor Market Outcomes

	Labor Force Participation		*Unemployed*		*Log Wage*		*Log Total Income*	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Panel A: Men								
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
Panel B: Women								
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. 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 national pride in the country of origin. It is calculated as a weighted average of the responses to a question regarding national pride in the World Values Survey. The sample includes all second generation immigrant women who are between 25 and 65 years old. In columns (3)-(8), the sample further excludes those 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



Notes: The graph displays coefficients of second generation immigrant origin country indicators from log-wage regressions for men in the CPS (1994-2015). The regression includes an indicator for 1st-generation immigrants, the indicators for each group of second-generation immigrants, polynomials of age, education controls, month-year-FE, and state-FE.

Figure 2: Theoretical Considerations

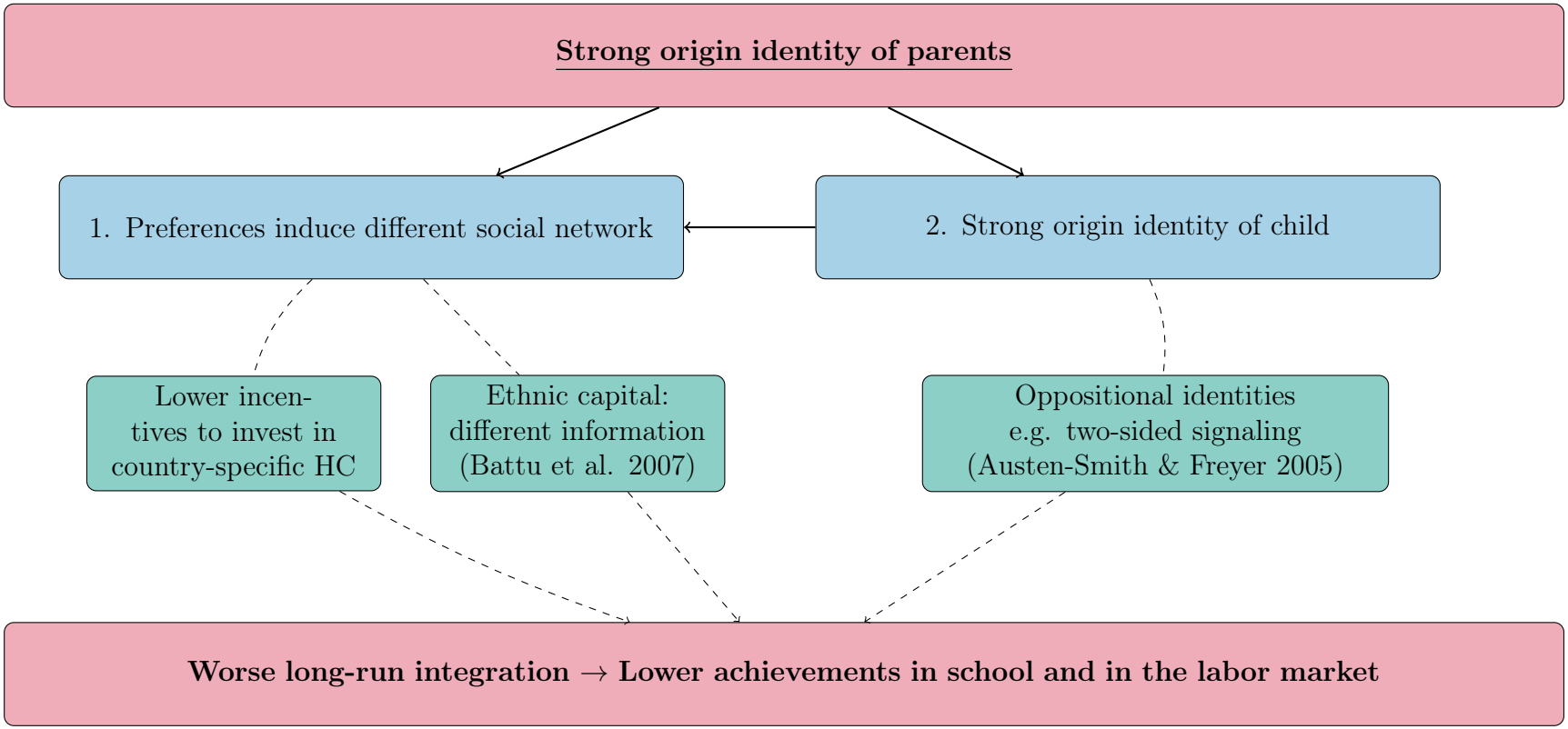
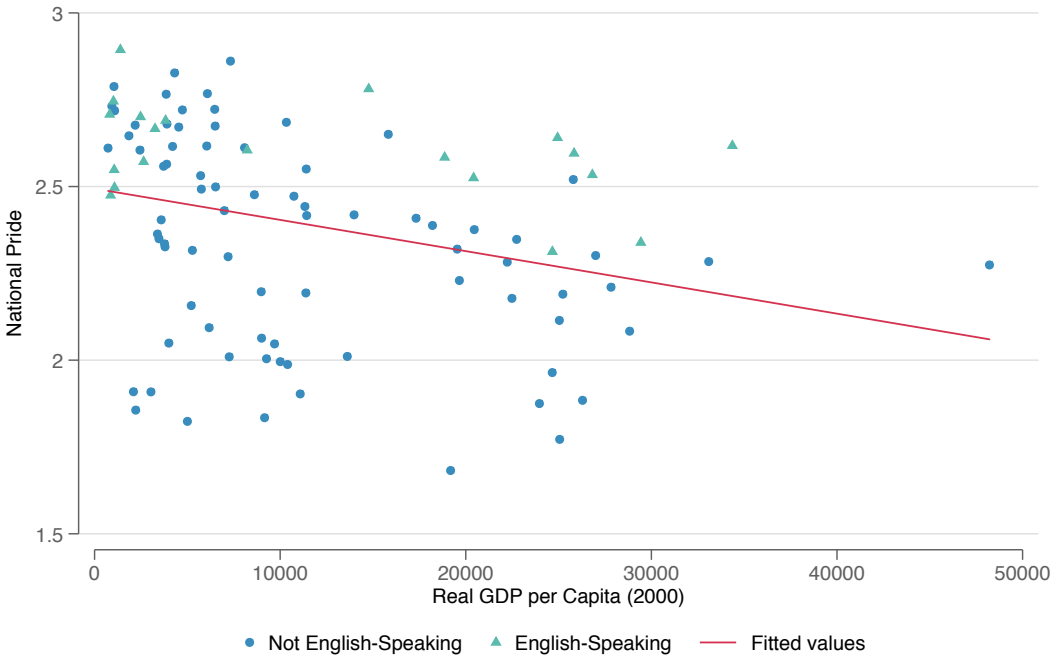
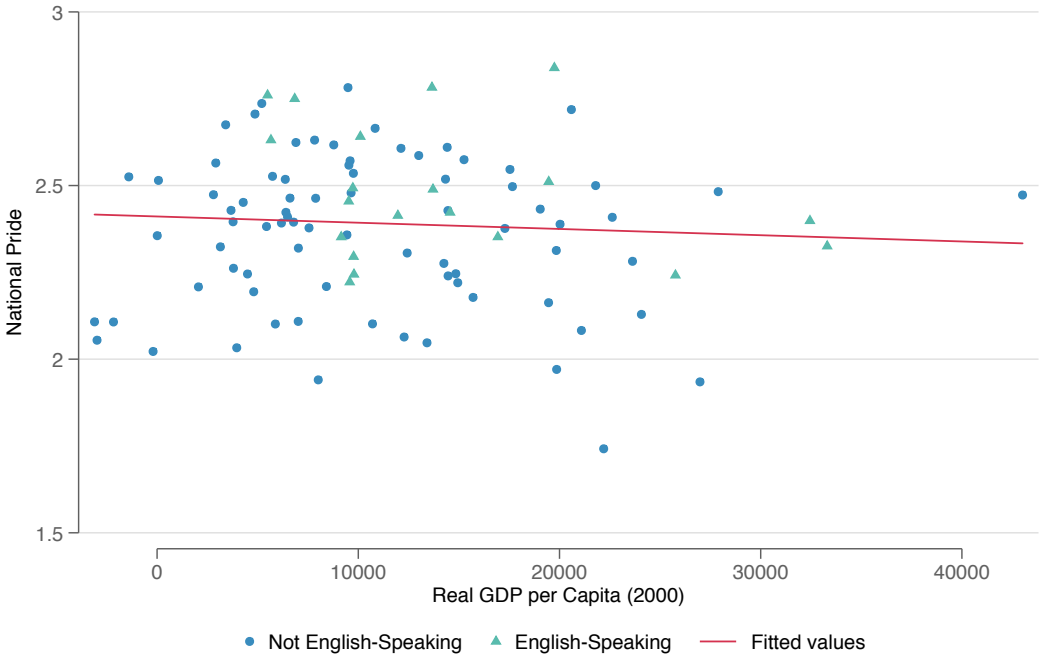


Figure 3: National Pride and Real GDP per Capita



(a) Correlation



(b) Conditional on Region

A Appendix: Additional Tables

Table A1: Countries covered in the CILS

Origin Country	**Main Sample** (1)	**Less restricted** (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. 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 A2: CILS: Summary Statistics

	Main Sample		**Less restricted**	
	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.
Parents:				
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
14-Years Old:				
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
17-Years Old:				
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
24-Years Old:				
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	14.53	1.672	14.49	1.704
College degree	0.366	0.482	0.362	0.481
Controls:				
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	46.55	6.558	46.33	7.093
Parent: Age Squared	2210	643.5	2197	703.8
Parent: High education	0.250	0.433	0.212	0.409
Parent: Medium education	0.478	0.500	0.472	0.499
Parent: Unemployed	0.0488	0.216	0.0550	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	0.0309	0.0273	0.0313	0.0285
Origin: English Language	0.350	0.477	0.296	0.457
Origin: Real GDP per Capita	5672	3875	5620	3818
Region of Origin:				
Europe	0.0188	0.136	0.0148	0.121
Asia	0.537	0.499	0.536	0.499
Middle East	0	0	0.00164	0.0405
South America	0.121	0.327	0.103	0.304
North America	0.323	0.468	0.345	0.476
Total	799		1218	

Notes: The table reports summary statistics for the two samples from the CILS. 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 for Analysis

Country	National Pride			Nationalism	Civic Pride
	IVS: Country-FE	IVS: Mean Value	ISSP: Mean-Value	ISSP: Principal C.	ISSP: Principal C.
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Albania	2.3259	2.4615	.	.	.
Algeria	2.4922	2.6188	.	.	.
Andorra	2.2290	2.2555	.	.	.
Argentina	2.4421	2.4449	.	.	.
Armenia	2.3493	2.4719	.	.	.
Australia	2.5950	2.6668	2.6494	0.6431	0.6811
Austria	2.3010	2.4047	2.3940	0.4160	0.7713
Azerbaijan	2.4035	2.4854	.	.	.
Bangladesh	2.6457	2.7243	.	.	.
Belarus	1.9951	2.0694	.	.	.
Belgium	1.9637	2.0332	.	.	.
Bosnia & H.	1.9081	2.0552	.	.	.
Brazil	2.2977	2.3573	.	.	.
Bulgaria	2.0092	2.1299	1.9273	-0.2924	-1.1298
Burkina Faso	2.7314	2.8057	.	.	.
Canada	2.5332	2.5886	2.6558	0.7505	1.0270
Chile	2.4161	2.4714	2.7188	0.2459	0.0650
China	2.0488	2.1206	.	.	.
Colombia	2.7671	2.8209	.	.	.
Croatia	2.1966	2.2581	.	.	.
Cyprus	2.3756	2.4950	.	.	.
Czech Rep.	2.0104	2.1000	1.9950	-0.4147	-0.9107
Denmark	2.2096	2.2664	2.2145	0.2275	0.7964
Dom. Rep.	2.6736	2.6749	.	.	.
Ecuador	2.8268	2.8924	.	.	.
Egypt	2.6707	2.7020	.	.	.
El Salvador	2.7206	2.8047	.	.	.
Estonia	1.9021	1.9669	.	.	.
Ethiopia	2.6102	2.6477	.	.	.
Finland	2.3473	2.3663	2.3113	0.0508	0.5243
France	2.1140	2.1667	2.1658	-0.4761	0.3356
Georgia	2.5639	2.6419	.	.	.
Germany	1.7714	1.8343	1.7083	-0.5321	-0.0101
Ghana	2.8933	2.9305	.	.	.
Greece	2.4181	2.5051	.	.	.
Guatemala	2.7652	2.8265	.	.	.
Hong Kong	1.5416	1.6232	.	.	.
Hungary	2.1932	2.3787	2.3901	-0.2891	-0.4310

Iceland	2.5197	2.5345	.	.	.
India	2.5711	2.6491	.	.	.
Indonesia	2.3345	2.3937	.	.	.
Iran	2.6162	2.6907	.	.	.
Iraq	2.6044	2.6332	.	.	.
Ireland	2.6400	2.7068	2.7256	-0.0457	0.4875
Israel	2.2819	2.3452	2.2990	-0.2001	-0.5148
Italy	2.1776	2.2462	.	.	.
Japan	1.8745	1.8707	2.3257	0.3332	0.1143
Jordan	2.6795	2.7355	.	.	.
Kazakhstan	2.4985	2.5609	.	.	.
Kosovo	2.7800	2.8658	.	.	.
Kyrgyzstan	2.3627	2.3589	.	.	.
Latvia	2.0628	2.1057	2.0496	-0.7625	-1.2334
Lebanon	2.0932	2.1465	.	.	.
Libya	2.6845	2.7376	.	.	.
Lithuania	1.8337	1.9042	.	.	.
Luxembourg	2.2737	2.3603	.	.	.
Macedonia	2.3157	2.4291	.	.	.
Malaysia	2.5500	2.6248	.	.	.
Mali	2.7870	2.8840	.	.	.
Malta	2.5835	2.7016	.	.	.
Mexico	2.6113	2.6437	.	.	.
Moldova	1.8556	1.9421	.	.	.
Montenegro	2.0141	2.1111	.	.	.
Morocco	2.5579	2.6322	.	.	.
Netherlands	1.8838	1.9630	1.9650	-0.3620	0.5542
New Zealand	2.5244	2.6370	2.6673	0.5083	0.3683
Nigeria	2.4966	2.5256	.	.	.
Norway	2.2834	2.3465	2.2199	-0.1051	0.3483
Pakistan	2.7000	2.7806	.	.	.
Palestine	2.5563	2.6246	.	.	.
Peru	2.6151	2.6604	.	.	.
Philippines	2.6898	2.7674	2.7602	0.3752	0.1264
Poland	2.4760	2.5953	2.3688	-0.2782	-0.9784
Portugal	2.4083	2.5449	2.5023	-0.0408	-0.6542
Puerto Rico	2.7927	2.8922	.	.	.
Romania	2.1567	2.2694	.	.	.
Russia	2.0036	2.0639	2.1999	-0.0927	-1.4875
Rwanda	2.7452	2.7872	.	.	.
Saudi Arabia	2.6499	2.6837	.	.	.
Serbia	2.2068	2.2885	.	.	.
Singapore	2.3384	2.4002	.	.	.
Slovakia	2.0462	2.1554	2.1680	-0.6018	-1.2890
Slovenia	2.3874	2.4692	2.4867	-0.5197	-0.4164
South Africa	2.6043	2.5598	2.6403	0.5744	0.5002

South Korea	1.9870	2.1156	2.0031	-0.2122	-0.7786
Spain	2.3194	2.4352	2.3376	0.0432	0.5797
Sweden	2.1895	2.2436	2.1682	-0.3869	0.2537
Switzerland	2.0829	2.1632	2.1645	-0.8862	0.8774
Taiwan	1.6817	1.7544	2.2791	0.0501	-0.4698
Tanzania	2.7067	2.7431	.	.	.
Thailand	2.7222	2.8392	.	.	.
Trinidad & Tob.	2.7808	2.8715	.	.	.
Tunisia	2.4303	2.5025	.	.	.
Turkey	2.5309	2.6550	.	.	.
Uganda	2.5477	2.5541	.	.	.
Ukraine	1.8232	1.8899	.	.	.
United Kingdom	2.3120	2.3988	2.3103	0.0281	0.4400
United States	2.6170	2.6667	2.7717	0.5977	0.8917
Uruguay	2.4718	2.6022	2.6795	0.0366	0.1985
Venezuela	2.8607	2.9151	2.9109	0.4052	0.4176
Vietnam	2.6763	2.7815	.	.	.
Yemen	2.7181	2.7903	.	.	.
Zambia	2.4745	2.4928	.	.	.
Zimbabwe	2.6660	2.6873	.	.	.
Total	2.3868	2.4594	2.3569	-0.0357	0.0016

Notes: The table reports the macro variables for different countries. Columns (1) and (2) show the measures of national pride from the International Values Survey. Column (3) shows the mean value of national pride in the ISSP. Column (4) and (5) show different dimensions of national attachment, namely nationalism (Column (4)) and civic pride (Column (5)).

Table A4: Current Population Survey: Summary Statistics

	LFP-Sample				**Wage-Sample**			
	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	0	1	0
Unemployed	0.046	0.21	0.0427	0.202	0.0404	0.197	0.0305	0.172
Log Wage	10.56	0.96	10.06	1.073	10.68	0.821	10.37	0.776
Log Total Income	10.19	2.116	8.992	3.062	10.75	0.775	10.45	0.725
Age	44.04	11.47	43.99	11.51	41.84	10.52	41.53	10.56
Race: non-white	0.122	0.328	0.122	0.327	0.136	0.342	0.155	0.361
High Education	0.37	0.483	0.361	0.48	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	0.0843	0.278	0.0776	0.268	0.0728	0.260	0.0516	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	0.46	0.304	0.46	0.279	0.449	0.276	0.447
Origin: Real GDP per Capita	16939	9068	16833	9077	15817	9074	15285	9096
Region of Origin:								
Europe	0.461	0.498	0.454	0.498	0.407	0.491	0.382	0.486
Asia	0.134	0.34	0.13	0.336	0.136	0.343	0.146	0.353
Middle East	0.0143	0.119	0.0136	0.116	0.0127	0.112	0.0118	0.108
Africa	0.00521	0.072	0.00504	0.0708	0.00515	0.0716	0.00473	0.0686
Oceania	0.00468	0.0682	0.00435	0.0658	0.00439	0.0661	0.00409	0.0638
South America	0.0193	0.137	0.0183	0.134	0.0241	0.153	0.0242	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 men and women samples from the CPS.

Table A5: OLS and Reduced-Form Results

	Identity		**Socialization**		**Language use and skills**				**Education**	
	A14: Et. Self-Id.: Nat.	*A17: Et. Self-Id.: Nat.*	*P: Most N. White Am.*	*A17: Most Fr. For.*	*A14: No Eng. w/ Fr.*	*A17: No Eng. w/ Fr.*	*A24: Only Eng. w/ Fr.*	*A24: Eng. Skills*	*A14: GPA*	*A17: GPA*
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Panel A: OLS										
Ties to Origin Country (PCA)	-0.002	0.011	-0.008	0.041***	0.007	0.016	-0.011	0.009	0.056	0.016
	(0.014)	(0.012)	(0.014)	(0.007)	(0.011)	(0.014)	(0.012)	(0.006)	(0.034)	(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
Panel B: Reduced Form										
National Pride in Origin Country	0.230**	0.269*	-0.331**	0.540***	0.360*	0.423***	-0.472***	-0.330***	-0.968***	-1.094**
	(0.098)	(0.147)	(0.149)	(0.155)	(0.175)	(0.133)	(0.145)	(0.059)	(0.282)	(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 socialization choices (columns (1)-(2)), language use and skills (columns (3)-(6)), identity (columns (7)-(8)), and education outcomes (columns (9)-(10)) as dependent variables of parents and children 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 national pride in the country of origin, measured as a weighted country-average in the WVS. The specifications correspond otherwise to the main analysis. Statistical significance: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table A6: Robustness to other explanatory variables

	Identity		**Socialization**		**Language use and skills**				**Education**	
	A14: Et. Self-Id.: Nat.	*A17: Et. Self-Id.: Nat.*	*P: Most N. White Am.*	*A17: Most Fr. For.*	*A14: No Eng. w/ Fr.*	*A17: No Eng. w/ Fr.*	*A24: Only Eng. w/ Fr.*	*A24: Eng. Skills*	*A14: GPA*	*A17: GPA*
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Origin: Female Avg. Years of Edu.	0.110**	0.091	-0.134*	0.184***	0.186**	0.161***	-0.196***	-0.147***	-0.402***	-0.462**
	(0.045)	(0.057)	(0.069)	(0.054)	(0.073)	(0.053)	(0.053)	(0.038)	(0.155)	(0.210)
Origin: Index of Knowledge Distr.	0.090**	0.118**	-0.149*	0.237***	0.216***	0.165***	-0.191**	-0.127***	-0.345**	-0.387**
	(0.045)	(0.056)	(0.081)	(0.049)	(0.081)	(0.063)	(0.079)	(0.030)	(0.138)	(0.166)
Origin: Non-Agricultural Pop.	0.068	0.233***	-0.194	0.346***	0.232**	0.187**	-0.210***	-0.172***	-0.305**	-0.339*
	(0.073)	(0.079)	(0.128)	(0.109)	(0.105)	(0.081)	(0.078)	(0.054)	(0.154)	(0.204)
Origin: Human Development Index	0.078*	0.141**	-0.185*	0.278***	0.207***	0.187***	-0.204***	-0.143***	-0.350**	-0.397*
	(0.044)	(0.057)	(0.098)	(0.053)	(0.067)	(0.054)	(0.059)	(0.032)	(0.142)	(0.206)
School Fixed Effects	0.113**	0.128**	-0.138***	0.187***	0.316***	0.152***	-0.186***	-0.113***	-0.323***	-0.375**
	(0.052)	(0.059)	(0.053)	(0.063)	(0.089)	(0.053)	(0.045)	(0.027)	(0.113)	(0.163)

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates with identity (columns (7)-(8)), socialization choices (columns (1)-(2)), language use and skills (columns (3)-(6)), and education outcomes (columns (9)-(10)) as dependent variables of parents and children in the different CILS-waves (P: Parents; A14: Age 14; A17: Age 17; A24: Age 24). 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 national pride in the country of origin, measured as a weighted country-average in the WVS. The models vary in different additional origin-country characterstics that are used to test robustness of the main results. The specifications correspond otherwise to the main analysis. Statistical significance: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table A7: Robustness to alternative samples

	Identity		**Socialization**		**Language use and skills**				**Education**	
	A14: Et. Self-Id.: Nat.	*A17: Et. Self-Id.: Nat.*	*P: Most N. White Am.*	*A17: Most Fr. For.*	*A14: No Eng. w/ Fr.*	*A17: No Eng. w/ Fr.*	*A24: Only Eng. w/ Fr.*	*A24: Eng. Skills*	*A14: GPA*	*A17: GPA*
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Drop Mexicans	0.118**	0.132***	-0.101*	0.189***	0.184**	0.160***	-0.209***	-0.143***	-0.342**	-0.388**
	(0.047)	(0.049)	(0.061)	(0.054)	(0.076)	(0.054)	(0.058)	(0.030)	(0.143)	(0.182)
Drop Philipponos	0.088**	0.162**	-0.160**	0.229***	0.204***	0.178***	-0.199***	-0.116***	-0.433***	-0.494***
	(0.040)	(0.065)	(0.063)	(0.064)	(0.068)	(0.061)	(0.052)	(0.032)	(0.135)	(0.187)
Drop Mex. and Phil.	0.099	0.245***	-0.188*	0.262***	0.277***	0.176**	-0.240***	-0.156***	-0.495***	-0.555***
	(0.067)	(0.074)	(0.098)	(0.070)	(0.096)	(0.075)	(0.081)	(0.039)	(0.152)	(0.213)
Drop Attrition Restrictions	0.151***	0.226**	-0.157*	0.212***	0.213**	0.185***	-0.197***	-0.125***	-0.502*	-0.593*
	(0.051)	(0.096)	(0.088)	(0.069)	(0.089)	(0.065)	(0.047)	(0.025)	(0.272)	(0.326)
Age at Arrival < 4	0.035	0.123*	-0.109*	0.224***	0.237***	0.161***	-0.167**	-0.110***	-0.400***	-0.461**
	(0.042)	(0.066)	(0.061)	(0.077)	(0.078)	(0.060)	(0.068)	(0.030)	(0.144)	(0.192)

Notes: The table reports IV-estimates with identity (columns (7)-(8)), socialization choices (columns (1)-(2)), language use and skills (columns (3)-(6)), and education outcomes (columns (9)-(10)) as dependent variables of parents and children in the different CILS-waves (P: Parents; A14: Age 14; A17: Age 17; A24: Age 24). 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 national pride in the country of origin, measured as a weighted country-average in the WVS. 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 A8: Alternative Measures of National Pride in Origin Country

	National Pride			National-ism	Civic Pride
	IVS: Country-FE (1)	*IVS: Mean Value* (2)	*ISSP: Mean-Value* (3)	*ISSP: Principal C.* (4)	*ISSP: Principal C.* (5)
Age 14: Ethnic Self-Id. National	0.230**	0.197**	0.157	0.212	0.546***
	(0.098)	(0.094)	(0.407)	(0.317)	(0.143)
Observations	710	710	254	254	254
R-Squared	0.0906	0.0904	0.1113	0.1114	0.1169
Parent: Most N. White Americans	-0.331**	-0.305**	-1.198**	-1.199*	-1.148***
	(0.149)	(0.140)	(0.452)	(0.613)	(0.229)
Observations	714	714	253	253	253
R-Squared	0.1414	0.1414	0.1273	0.1279	0.1391
Age 17: No English with Friends	0.423***	0.356**	0.608***	0.505*	0.064
	(0.133)	(0.146)	(0.171)	(0.245)	(0.170)
Observations	714	714	254	254	254
R-Squared	0.3620	0.3611	0.0948	0.0938	0.0914
Age 24: Only English with Friends	-0.472***	-0.402**	-0.385	-0.190	-0.120
	(0.145)	(0.154)	(0.301)	(0.345)	(0.274)
Observations	701	701	249	249	249
R-Squared	0.3099	0.3088	0.0907	0.0895	0.0895
Age 24: English Skills	-0.330***	-0.318***	-0.252	-0.072	-0.134
	(0.059)	(0.058)	(0.159)	(0.125)	(0.103)
Observations	652	652	249	249	249
R-Squared	0.0758	0.0760	0.0652	0.0643	0.0651
Age 14: Grade Point Average	-0.968***	-0.881***	-1.314**	-0.947	-0.092
	(0.282)	(0.257)	(0.560)	(0.821)	(0.646)
Observations	711	711	253	253	253
R-Squared	0.2673	0.2667	0.2151	0.2133	0.2109
Age 17: Grade Point Average	-1.094**	-0.946**	-0.785	-0.797*	-0.280
	(0.418)	(0.367)	(0.437)	(0.370)	(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 cover parents and children outcomes from the different areas of the main analysis (socialization, 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.