

6-2023

PARENTING AND STUDENTS' GPA IN THE LATINO POPULATION: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

Carolina Arboleda

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.nl.edu/diss>



Part of the [Clinical Psychology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Arboleda, Carolina, "PARENTING AND STUDENTS' GPA IN THE LATINO POPULATION: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY" (2023). *Dissertations*. 724.

<https://digitalcommons.nl.edu/diss/724>

This Dissertation - Public Access is brought to you for free and open access by Digital Commons@NLU. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons@NLU. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@nl.edu.

Parenting and Students' GPA in the Latino Population: An Exploratory Study

Carolina Arboleda

Charles Davis, PhD.
Chair

Emese Vitalis, PhD, MBA
Member

A Clinical Research Project submitted to the faculty of the Illinois School of Professional Psychology at National Louis University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Psychology in Clinical Psychology

Chicago, Illinois

December 2022

The Doctorate Program in Clinical Psychology
Illinois School of Professional Psychology
at National Louis University

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

Clinical Research Project Title
Parenting in the Latino Population: a Exploratory Research

This is to certify that the Clinical Research Project of

Carolina Arboleda

has been approved by the CRP
Committee on

01-17-23

as satisfactory for the CRP requirement
for the Doctorate of Psychology degree
with a major in Clinical Psychology

Examining Committee:

DocuSigned by:

Dr. Charles Davis

CD84A11B09694E5

Committee Chair

DocuSigned by:

Emese Vitalis

FB6F43439612446...

Reader

Reader

Table of Contents

List of Appendices.....	3
List of Tables.....	4
Abstract.....	5
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	6
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	9
Chapter 3: Research Design and Method.....	39
Chapter 4: Results.....	43
Chapter 5: Discussion, Implications, Limitations, and Conclusion.....	48
References.....	55

List of Appendices

Appendix A: Demographic Questionnaire	70
Appendix B: Recruitment Flyer.....	76
Appendix C: Raffle Information.....	78
Appendix D: Informed Consent Form.	79
Appendix E: Assent Form.....	84
Appendix F: Demographic Characteristics.....	87
Appendix G: Acknowledgment and Dissemination of Results.....	90

List of Tables

Table 1: Predominant Parenting Styles.....	45
Table 2: Correlations between GPA and Parental Style Dimensions.....	46

Abstract

The present study experimentally investigated Latino high school students' grade point averages (GPA) and the parenting styles used by their parents based on Baumrind's (1968, 1971, 1989, 1991) theory of parenting behaviors. Participants (N=52) were asked to take a survey of 62 questions total addressing three parenting dimensions as measured by the Escala Parental Breve to categorize their parents' behaviors into parenting styles. Participants also responded to demographic questions such as English proficiency, household income, parents' education level and other relevant factors impacting parenting and GPA. Results from the study were limited as there was a limited number of participants, however data trends were explored. The results indicate no significant relationship between Latino students' GPAs and parenting styles. The majority of Latino parents were described by their highschoolers as engaging in protective and neglectful II parenting. Given the results, more research is needed about parenting in the Latino population from a cultural lens and to understand the relationship between parenting and GPA in these diverse communities.

Keywords: Latino Parenting, GPA, adolescents, highschoolers, academic achievement

Chapter 1: Introduction

Parenting behaviors significantly affect child development in several areas, such as psychological and cognitive development. One crucial area of cognitive development is demonstrated by academic achievement. As such, research has focused on academic outcomes as they relate to parenting styles. Several parental factors influence students' academic achievement, such as parental educational level, their level of involvement, family structure, social status, the influence of peers, school environment, family income, preschool experiences, efforts, and self-efficacy (Vreeland et al., 2019). Despite the vast number and complexity of influencing factors, a significant body of research suggests that child-rearing practices play a major role in students' academic achievements (Mekonnen, 2017). Often grounded on Baumrind's (1968, 1971, 1989, 1991) theory of parenting behaviors, influential studies have established a positive relationship between authoritative parenting style (i.e., high responsiveness and demandingness) and advantages in children's outcomes, such as academic achievements and positive behaviors in school (Baumrind, Larzelere, & Owens, 2010). In contrast, authoritarian parenting practices have been shown to hinder the development of the capacities needed for academic achievement. However, most of the research in this area has focused on middle-class European-American children. In the Latino population, research is inconclusive concerning the influence and nature of parenting practices and academic achievement of Latino students.

Academically, there is an achievement gap based on race in the United States, even when accounting for socioeconomic status. Latinos are often characterized as having limited academic achievement (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010; Oberman & Walsh, 2005). It is necessary to consider Latino culture and values and how associated behaviors may influence academic obtainment to comprehend the achievement gap and the necessities of this dynamic community. Latinos have a lower average level of education than any other racial groups in the US. Latinos are less likely to complete high school, reducing their likelihood of furthering their education (Elliot & Parks, 2018; Gandara & Mordechay, 2017). Despite this, between 2005 and 2009 and

between 2015 and 2019, Hispanics or Latinos (of any race) and those identifying as two or more races saw a rise in bachelor's degree attainment of at least 30% (U.S Census Bureau, 2021). Academic success has been linked to better outcomes, better employment possibilities, and greater opportunities for future generations. More precisely, having a bachelor's degree is associated with improved health outcomes, lower unemployment risk, and greater lifetime earnings (Oreopoulos & Petronijevic, 2013).

Understanding the relationship between Latino parenting and academic achievement and the needs of this diverse community requires considering the current parenting research, factors impacting parenting, factors influencing academic achievement, and recent research on academic achievement and parenting. This study focusses on the Latino community, since it is the fastest-growing minority group in the U.S. (U.S Census Bureau, 2010). Alongside the steady growth and essential role of Latinos in the United States, this community processes unique values that significantly impact their parenting behaviors. Similarly, Latinos face a variety of stressors, such as socioeconomic factors that significantly impact their children's access to, and quality of, the education they receive.

Statement of the Problem

While many studies have examined parenting practices, little research has focused on the specific parenting practices of Latino parents. The majority of subjects of parenting studies have been Anglo and middle-class. As a result, less research exists on the role of parenting and academic achievement of Latino students. Mixed findings regarding parenting styles used by Latino parents and their relevance to positive child outcomes govern the current body of research. Given the significant projected increase in the Latino population in the U.S., it is concerning that there continues to be a gap in Latino parenting research (U.S Census, 2010). Therefore, this study aims to decrease the gap in parenting and its relationship to the academic outcomes of Latino students, and so increase understanding of the connection between parenting styles and academic performance of Latino high school students.

Below are the specific questions examined in this study:

- a. Is there a relationship between parenting styles (as measured by the Short Parental Scale-Escala Parental Breve (EPB)) and high school students' grade point average (GPA)? That is, do parents' utilization of any of the specific parenting styles correlates with the students' academic achievement?
- b. Is there a relationship between grade point average (GPA) and demographic factors, such as parents' country of origin, number of siblings, student's proficiency in Spanish, etc.?
- c. Are there any differences between fathers and mothers in their parenting styles?
- d. What are the more frequent parenting styles utilized by Latino parents as reported by their high school students? Does the gender of the student affect the parenting styles used by Latino parents?

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Parents play several vital roles in their children's lives and play a paramount role in their children's development. They provide education and buffer their children from negative experiences in their environment. They have a significant influence on their children's psychological and academic outcomes (Parra-Cardona et al., 2008). As a result, several theories have been developed to gain insight and a greater understanding of parenting behaviors and their impact on children's functioning. Rather than focusing on specific parenting practices (such as breast- versus bottle-feeding or physical punishment versus time out), past researchers have tried to identify the child development correlates based on a general parenting approach, often referred to as parenting styles or dimensions such as acceptance, warmth, and support. (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

The traditional parenting studies of the 1930s to the 1960s focused primarily on the quality of parent-child interactions (i.e., warmth) and the nature of parental discipline (control/demandingness), which yielded only these two factors. Warmth entails showing an interest in the child's activities, paying attention to them, and showing them encouragement (Broderick & Blewitt, 2003). Demandingness is the degree to which a parent controls their child (e.g., through expectations for behavior), implements standards and regulations, and enforces those standards and rules (Broderick & Blewitt, 2003). As parenting research continued to expand, a more comprehensive range of parenting characteristics began to be examined starting in the 1960s, such as cognitive stimulation, scaffolding (assistance during problem solving), monitoring, and family rituals (Power, 2013). As a result, a third general dimension of parenting assessment emerged: structure/autonomy-granting. The dimension of structure refers to the extent to which parents give their children a stable, orderly, and predictable environment (Power, 2013). Allowing children independence and individual expression inside the family is referred to as offering them autonomy (Steinberg et al., 1994).

Early research from the 1930s to 1960s used observer ratings of parenting characteristics and identified two dimensions: the first assessed constructs such as parental acceptance, warmth, or support, and the second assessed constructs related to parental control (Power, 2013). A typical early study of parenting involved trained observers that interviewed or observed parents for a long time (or occasionally went through extensive material on parents), then used Likert scales to score parents on generic trait terms (such as strict, accepting, and harsh). Two dimensions of parent behavior were typically identified by factor analyses of the data from these primarily European-American, middle-class samples: the first dimension assessed constructs such as parental acceptance, warmth, or support, and the second assessed constructs related to parental control (Power, 2013). These early parental dimensions were later labeled as parental support and control or parental responsiveness and demandingness. The research that supported classifying parenting practices in these two parental dimensions used observer ratings, parent and child reports, and observational data to gather information.

Concerns emerged about the validity of self-reports and global rating measures in parenting research. Later in that decade, to address validity concerns, there was a shift away from self-reports and worldwide ratings to in-depth observational coding or factor analytic studies (Power, 2013). In these studies, observers record the frequency of various parenting actions (such as directives, suggestions, and threats) and the incidence of those behaviors. Such studies are less vulnerable to general person perception processes involved in making broad judgments about oneself or others since they train coders to merely record the incidence of specific parent behaviors as they happen (Power, 2013). Due to the labor-intensive nature of behavioral coding, such studies are relatively rare.

As previously mentioned, between the 1930s and 1960s, only two primary factors of parenting behaviors were studied: warmth and control. Researchers became interested in exploring a more comprehensive range of parenting characteristics, such as monitoring, cognitive stimulation, family rituals, and scaffolding. Due to this shift in research focus during

the 1960s, a third parenting dimension was added to the study of parenting, namely structure. Structure refers to the degree to which parents provide children with a predictable, organized, and consistent environment (Power, 2013). Researchers studying structure used self-report questionnaires and included the following aspects: (1) involvement, consistency, and organization; (2) clear and consistent guidelines, expectations, and rules for children's behaviors; and (3) rules, routines, and organization (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Sessa et al., 2001; Slater & Power, 1989) In conclusion, warmth, control, and structure are the major parenting dimensions currently identified by researchers.

Baumrind's Contributions

As previously mentioned, Diana Baumrind was an influential researcher in parenting style research. Baumrind's work was conducted to evaluate childrearing practices and attitudes associated with children's competence. Her work appears to have been driven primarily by the need to dispel misunderstandings about the effectiveness of parental punishment methods and to offer empirical proof that reasonable parental control was the best approach to childrearing. Baumrind created a link between parenting practices, parenting styles, and pre-existing studies to expand knowledge derived from animal models to people. She contributed empirically based evidence to help build intervention strategies. She identified twelve myths and dispelled each one in her 1966 paper, including evidence to support her claims (Baumrind, 1966). She specifically advocated for "mild punishment" with detailed parental explanations of the cause for the punishment and suggesting a more appropriate behavior to the child. She also provided evidence supporting the necessity of actively correcting children's misbehavior. Parenting solutions now clearly and widely include both of these suggestions (Baumrind, 1967).

In her initial investigation into parenting practices, Baumrind identified three distinct behavioral subgroups among preschoolers: those who were assertive, self-reliant, self-controlled, buoyant, and affiliative (n = 13); those who were dissatisfied, withdrawn, and distrustful (n = 11); and those who had little self-control or self-reliance and shied away from novelty (n = 8)

(Baumrind, 1967). These children were selected from a pool of 110 children in her study that were rated on these behaviors by their teachers and a psychologist. Baumrind utilized home and laboratory observational data and parent interviews to identify three parenting styles associated with these three patterns of child behaviors. The parenting styles corresponded to high and low levels of responsiveness (warmth) and demandingness (control). The authoritative style was associated with assertive, self-reliant child behavior; the authoritarian style was related to discontented, withdrawn child behavior; and the permissive style was associated with child behavior characterized by low self-control and low self-reliance (Baumrind, 1967).

In her second study, a second sample of preschool children was used to examine the correlations between child behavior as rated by observers in their school and parenting practices. She included both parents in the interviews as well as home observations. In this study, only parental dimensions were used. Her second study's findings support her previous research, but only 10% of the correlations were significant (Baumrind & Black, 1967).

Continuing with her use of observational data, her third study included parents from 134 families who were observed in their homes. Sixteen African American families participated in this study but were excluded from data analysis because of the variation in their patterns compared to the rest of the sample. Based on the prototypes from her first study, eight parenting styles emerged. These parenting styles included two authoritarian types (not rejecting and rejecting), two authoritative styles (nonconforming and not nonconforming), two permissive styles (nonconforming and not nonconforming), and two additional styles— nonconforming (not permissive or authoritative) and rejecting-neglecting (not authoritative). Gender differences were examined based on child behavior as a function of parenting styles. The results of this study supported her original study even at follow-up when the participants were 9 and 15 as compared to when they were three and four-years old (Baumrind, 1971).

Parenting Styles

The concept of parenting styles is instrumental in intervention and clinical training contexts because they effectively "bundle" complex information into four easily remembered and understandable categories (authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and neglectful) (Domenech et al., 2009). Diana Baumrind was an influential researcher who developed a framework of parenting styles (Baumrind, 1967, 1971). She believed four components must be present to provide adequate guidance to children: nurturing, communication, maturity demands, and control (Baumrind, 1967). Based on those components, she proposed three primary parenting styles to encapsulate a range of parent behaviors and childrearing goals: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Maccoby and Martin (1983) later added a 4th style of parenting, neglectful. Baumrind was able to identify the first three styles by simultaneously examining how parents differed in several variables and categorizing them into different parenting styles. The four parenting labels (authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and neglectful) are now widely accepted and central to the study of socialization in the family context (Domenech, 2009). However, it is debatable if this typology can be applied across cultures to various groups. Some scholars argue that a model established primarily with middle-class European-Americans has limited applicability to other populations, particularly Latinos, because it is value- and culture-laden (Domenech Rodriguez et al., 2009; García Coll & Pachter, 2002). Following is a detailed explanation of the specific parenting styles and a summary of Baumrind's contributions.

Four Parenting Styles

Parents' patterns of parenting behavior or techniques, such as warmth, affection, involvement, punitiveness, and control, are referred to as parenting styles (Reitman, Rhode, Hupp, & Altobello, 2002). Parent characteristics such as warmth, demandingness, and autonomy-granting are often measured to determine parenting styles. While the four parenting styles are based on three dimensions, only two of these three dimensions—warmth and demandingness—are commonly measured (Domenech et al., 2009). The four parenting styles are

described in more detail, including specific parent behaviors and characteristics of children based on their parents' behavior toward them.

Authoritative Parenting. Authoritative parenting is also known as autonomy-supportive parenting. High responsiveness, demandingness, and autonomy-granting are characteristics of this parenting style. Authoritative parents frequently work to raise children who are assertive, socially responsible, and self-reliant. (Baumrind, 1989). The focus of this type of parenting is to promote exploration and individuality. Communication is generally open and constructive, particularly in response to misbehavior. Learning is seen as a shared responsibility of the parent and child, and rules are usually explained in contrast to demanding pure obedience. Children of authoritative parents may take part in the rules set at home. These children are allowed to select their classes and extracurricular activities to express their uniqueness as individuals (Baumrind, 1967; Dornbusch et al., 1987). Authoritative parents give their children emotional, generally warm, support respecting their autonomy and upholding clear expectations, which enables them to actively engage in career development (Kerka, 2000). Authoritative parenting can benefit a child's development by promoting self-esteem, maturity, responsibility, and independence (Baumrind, 1967). Research suggests social responsibility and freedom are more prominent in preschool students of authoritative parents than children of authoritarian parents (Cardona, Nicholson, & Fox, 2000).

Authoritarian Parenting. Regarding the main parenting dimensions, authoritarian parents are characterized by low responsiveness, high demandingness, and low levels of autonomy granting. The authoritarian approach is very demanding and not very receptive. Obedience is demanded in an authoritarian parenting style without hesitation or justification (Baumrind, 1991). Respect for authority, emphasis on rules, and punishment for disobedience are fundamental aspects of authoritarian parenting (Baumrind, 1967). These parents expect their children to conform to their requests and to be obedient. Some examples of behaviors authoritarian parents engage in include choosing extracurricular activities, social interactions or

events, and class schedules for their children. Child input is not needed for authoritarian parents to make these choices for their children (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987). Although an authoritarian parenting style has been linked to academic performance, there may be a conflict between a child's career choice and parents' preferences (Kerka, 2000).

Permissive Parenting. In general, little reinforcement of rules characterizes a permissive parenting style. Permissive parents place few demands on their children and generally accept all behavior, good or bad. In other words, permissive parents show high responsiveness and low demandingness levels. The experience of a child with permissive parents includes no curfew, few or no chores, and lack of academic direction from their parents (Dornbusch et al., 1987). With low expectations to increase their child's maturity, permissive indulgent parents are typically non-punitive and forgiving of a child's actions (Baumrind, 1989). While this setting promotes a child's independence, the lack of expectations makes it more challenging for children to gain self-awareness and dedicate themselves to their own goals (Kerka, 2000). Some characteristics of children from permissive homes include a lack of self-reliance, low frustration tolerance, and less likelihood of persisting in learning tasks. (Gonzalez et al., 2002).

Neglectful. Neglectful parenting is characterized by low warmth, low demandingness, and high monitoring. Neglectful parenting styles have been associated with adverse outcomes for children. Research on parenting styles and adolescents' psychological well-being found a negative correlation between psychological well-being and neglectful parenting in the southern Indian region (Francis et al., 2021). Similarly, research in Nigeria focused on evaluating parental history, work-family conflict, and the psychological well-being of neglectful parenting practices among middle-class women. The findings showed a positive correlation between work-family conflict, parental history, and neglectful parenting and a negative correlation between psychological well-being and neglectful parenting (Akanbi & Adaramoye, 2018). Neglectful parents are disengaged and show low levels in all the dimensions of parenting: responsiveness, demandingness, and autonomy-granting (Karavasilis, Doyle, & Markiewicz, 2003). Overall,

studies in a variety of settings in child populations show that severe deprivation and neglect are associated with negative outcomes such as high risk of attentional, emotional, cognitive, and behavioral disorders. Parent neglect is also associated with greater risk for anxiety, depression, cardiovascular problems, and other chronic health conditions. Similarly, risk for learning difficulties and poor school achievement have been associated with parenting neglect including poor executive functioning and attention regulation, low IQ scores, deficits in reading skills, and low rates of high school graduation (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2012).

Factors Impacting Parenting Styles

Parenting styles or, more generally speaking, parent behaviors are influenced by characteristics of the individual, family background, and the nature of the marital relationship (Vreeland et al., 2019). Factors such as the number of children in the household, the age and gender of the parents, and parents' characteristics influence their parenting behavior. Becoming a parent is considered one of the significant life-changing transitions. There are some advantages and disadvantages associated with both early and late parental age. Advantages and disadvantages will be described below. Research suggests that well-being is negatively affected by entering parenthood at an early age. Some future disadvantages of being a young parent include low parental education, family poverty, single parenthood, low occupational status, and job stability. These disadvantages have been studied, and there is a consensus in the literature indicating they predict risk for children's cognitive, social-emotional, and physical development (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002; Serbin & Karp, 2004). Other parental behaviors, such as play, are also negatively impacted by age. Parents' generation moves their engagement in physical play, with less robust play present as parents age, even when controlling for the child's age (Kline & Wilcox, 2013).

In contrast, advanced age may be a protective factor for new parents. Research suggests the age that a person enters parenthood influences parenting behavior. For example, individuals who became parents later tend to be more egalitarian regarding parental responsibilities

compared to individuals who became parents “on time” (Kline & Wilcox, 2013). Furthermore, research on parenting and age indicates a link between advanced parent age and warm parent practices and more praise and affection towards children (Nelson et al., 2014). Also, older parents reported higher levels of well-being and life satisfaction, feeling more mature and competent compared to parents 25 years old and younger (Nelson et al., 2014). Concerning social support and concrete support, Conrad-Hiebner et al. (2019) found a positive relationship between social help and concrete support and parent age, with older parents reporting higher levels of both. This finding could be a function of advanced-age parents' increased time to establish and solidify their social networks and financial resources. Another perceived protective factor impacted by child and parent age is family functioning and resiliency, with observed interactions between child age and younger parent age interacting to yield lower family functioning and resiliency (Conrad-Hiebner et al., 2019).

Fathers and mothers present different interactions with their children based on their gender and the child's developmental level. Fathers spend more time playing with their children than on activities such as feeding and changing diapers (with young children) and providing meals and clothing. The mother typically does the latter. These differences are observed in North American families regardless of ethnicity (Kline & Wilcox, 2013). Based on the child's developmental level, parents interact with children distinctly. In infants and toddlers, fathers' more common way of interacting is through physical play that is characterized by arousal, excitement, and unpredictability in terms of the pace of the interactions (Kline & Wilcox, 2013). In comparison, the pace of mothers' interaction is characterized as more modulated and less arousing. When looking at physical play, children aged four and three experienced more physical play from their fathers, compared to their mothers who use objects in play. Likewise, fathers of two-year-olds had higher rates of physical play, in contrast to a decrease in physical play between the ages of two and ten (Kline & Wilcox, 2013).

As the task of development changes so does parental involvement of mothers and fathers to reflect the new developmental task. During adolescence the task of development is connectedness and separateness and as such parents model the development of independence, through their interactions with their adolescents (Younis & Smolar, 1985). In a longitudinal study exploring four parenting domains in relation to adolescent age and puberty, it was found that warmth, behavioral control and rules/limit-setting and knowledge solicitation was decreased as a function of children's age. These declines began at age 8 to 16 and were present for both girls and boys with greater declines after age 11 or 12 in 3 of the 4 parenting domains (Lansford et al., 2021). Physical play also decreases as a function of age. Physical play of fathers with their children decreases as children get older and is replaced by verbal playfulness in the form of sarcasm, humor, and word play. This shift from physical play to verbal playfulness often decreases emotional connection but may encourage independence. A sense of identity and autonomy is fostered by adolescent fathers by acting more "peer-like" and playful, and this is likely to promote more leveled interactions. Similarly, fathers more than mothers share the message with their adolescents that they can count on them. Mothers on the other hand, are more emotionally available and spend more time together with their teenagers. Emotional closeness and open communication are often hallmarks of mother-adolescent interactions with an emphasis on activities such as arts, crafts, and reading (Kline & Wilcox, 2013). Similarly, to the effects of mother's parenting in their children's outcomes, the effects of fathers on children have also been well studied. In a review of literature conducted by Marsiglio et al., (2000) a moderate negative association between authoritative fathering and internalizing problems was revealed. When controlling for age (children vs adolescents) this correlation was still observed. Furthermore, parental involvement of fathers has been associated with moderate to high gains in their children's cognitive functioning, more specifically when the father-child interaction is focused on educational activities (Cano et al., 2019).

Parenting behaviors are impacted by the personal characteristics of the parents. One recent study, looking at parental socioeconomic characteristics and time spent educating children, found that parents with greater levels of education devote more time to their children's education, whereas low income and employment have the opposite effect. During COVID-19, fathers are more likely than mothers to spend more time instructing and educating their children (Milovanska-Farrington, 2022). This suggests a potential academic advantage for students who have parents with higher levels of education. Another study examined the role of SES and undergraduate students' perceptions of their parents' parenting behaviors in relation to the emerging adults' risk-taking behavior. The parenting behaviors that were examined included behavioral control, psychological control, and helicopter parenting. Behavioral control refers to the degree to which parents attempt to monitor children's friends, money, and activities. Psychological control is described as parents' intrusive and manipulative behaviors aimed at children's thoughts and feelings with the goal of exerting power. Helicopter parenting refers to the degree to which parents make important decisions for their emerging-adult children. According to the study's findings, parental psychological control was positively correlated with a change in risky behaviors. For higher-SES, but not lower-SES, emerging adults, parental behavioral control was also linked to a bigger change in risk behaviors. The results offer fresh perspectives on the differential effects of parental behavioral control, psychological control, and helicopter parenting on changes in risk behaviors in emerging adults (Romm et al., 2020). Given the variety of factors impacting parenting behavior, it is important to understand how race and ethnicity play a role in such factors, below is a detailed description of the Latino population in the U.S, Latino parenting research, academic achievement in the Latino population and the current research on the relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement of Latinos.

Latinos/Hispanics

A great topic of debate between Americans whose heritage is from Latin America or Spain, is whether they are Latino or Hispanic. In many censuses whether someone considers themselves Hispanic or not is based on their self-identification. Based on these standards, and according to the 2020 U.S Census Bureau, the U.S population is composed of about 62.1 million Hispanics or 19% of the U.S population (Lopez et al., 2021).

What it means to be Latino or Hispanic in the U.S has evolved through the years based on changing cultural norms. Cultural norms shifts are also reflected in the changing labels and categories and question wording in the census. The terms “Hispanic” and “Latino” are umbrella terms meant to describe- and summarize individuals living in the U.S. of those ethnic backgrounds. Those two terms have been used interchangeably in different censuses. However, significant distinctions of Latino and Hispanic have been made by others saying that Hispanics are people from Spain or predominately Spanish speaking counties in Latin America (excluding Brazil where Portuguese is the official language). In contrast, Latinos are people from Latin America regardless of language (including Brazil but excluding Spain and Portugal) (Lopez et al., 2021). The terms “Latino” and Hispanic were created to label people, however many of the people it was intended to label do not identify or embrace these labels. Hispanics more often describe themselves by their country of origin or their families' countries of origin (47%); 39% identify as Latino or Hispanic and 14% describe themselves as Americans. (Lopez et al., 2021). Generational preferences differed, with first-generation immigrants preferring (62%) to identify by their nation of origin whereas second-generation and later immigrants favored Hispanic (Taylor et al., 2012). Finally, Taylor and Colleagues (2012) note that ethnic self-identification for Latinos varies considerably depending on racial identity, socioeconomic status (SES), immigration status, and countries of origin.

It is important to note that Latinos living in the USA face unique challenges. As previously mentioned, Latinos are a very diverse population, but they deal with common

challenges. Many Latino families face numerous difficulties connected to poverty, inadequate English proficiency, documentation status, acculturation, and discrimination. This is especially true for individuals who are undocumented or recent immigrants (Ayón & Becerra, 2013; Bacallao & Smokowski, 2013). The immigrant experience is also influenced by the country of origin. Baum and Flores (2011), for instance, report that children from low-skilled Latin American, Caribbean, and some Southeast Asian countries do not achieve the same level of education as the children of educated or highly skilled immigrants, citing data from the U.S. Current Population Survey. Country of origin differences continue over subsequent generations. In comparison to other second-generation Latino immigrant groups like Cubans and those from South America, Tran (2016) claims that immigrants from Mexico and Central America exhibit lower college completion rates and report lower rates of professional work over time (Tran, 2016). When compared to the other non-Mexican, Latino contemporaries, second generation Mexican immigrants are one of the most disadvantaged ethnic groups. This is likely due to legal status and relatively low levels of human capital among the immigrant first generation. Another possible explanation is that due to the Great Recession Mexicans faced an occupational disadvantage because their labor force is most concentrated in sectors such as service and construction that were negatively impacted by the economic downturn (Tran, 2016). The diversity of the Latino culture and experience of being in the U.S, is also reflected in their parenting practices.

Due to the complexity of the term Latino and Hispanic, for the purposes of this study, the term will be used interchangeably. In addition, information is collected about the participants' country of origin in line with many Latinos' preference to identify by their country or origin.

Parenting styles in the Latino Population

Hispanics are the largest minority group in the United States, more specifically 16% of people residing in the United States are Hispanic or Latino origin and are the fastest growing minority (U.S Census Bureau, 2010). Despite the prevalence of the Latino or Hispanic

population in the United States, most of the research in parenting behaviors has been focused on Caucasian individuals. Being a parent is a very important role in the life of Latinos (Parra-Cardona et al., 2008). Based on Baumrind's paradigm, a study of the literature describing Latino parenting is inconclusive. Parenting styles found in the dominant culture are not consistent with Latino parenting and as such parenting in the Latino population has been described as “nontraditional.” (Domenech et al., 2009). It is important to understand that the notion of parenting styles is based on Western terminology, and it may not align with cultural norms in the Latino population. Lack of consensus rules the body of research of Latino parenting regarding the nature and influence of parenting practice. Some studies have found that Latinos practice more authoritarian parenting (Hill et al., 2003), while others have found that they use more authoritative practices (Varela et al., 2004; Calzada et al., 2012). Some studies described Latinos as permissive, others as authoritative and others as authoritarian.

A common criticism of parenting research on diverse ethnic/cultural groups involves the conceptualization and measurement of parenting styles. Compared to the dominant culture, ethnic minorities may have different childrearing practices and goals, which creates a great gap between the concepts (e.g., authoritative parenting) and the observable parent behaviors (e.g., responsiveness). This gap can aid in explaining the lack of consensus in the Latino parenting literature. Another possible explanation for the lack of agreement in understanding Latino parenting is the methods used to identify parenting styles, such as the use of surveys instead of the gold standard established by Baumrind, which included direct observation of parenting behaviors. (Domenech et al., 2019).

Inconclusive Latino Parenting Research. The use of these parenting style designations in a majority culture is generally supported by research. However, the evidence for their usefulness is weaker when it comes to the parenting practices of Latinos. The observation of various parenting styles in Latino populations has been the subject of ambiguous research,

raising issues about the definition and measurement of parenting style in this particular ethnic/cultural group (Domenech et al., 2009).

Latino parenting values may be more consistent with authoritative parenting styles. A study aimed at understanding mother's values more specifically, *parent-centered parenting values* (which are the parent qualities considered to be important to be a "successful" parent) found that Latina mothers place high importance on being consistent and setting limits and on being affectionate, which is consistent with authoritative parenting (Fischer et al., 2009). Similarly, Latino parents have been characterized in research as being warm, egalitarian, nurturing and family oriented (Cardona, et al., 2000). These endorsed values are consistent with Baumrind's authoritative parenting style (Baumrind 1967, 1971). Likewise, a discussion of choices and consequences was found to be part of the parenting practices of Mexican and Dominican parents, congruent with authoritative strategies (Calzada et al., 2012). Varela et al. (2004) conducted research comparing Mexican descent to Anglo parents. She concluded that, in contrast to parents of Anglo heritage, parents of Mexican descent utilized authoritative techniques more frequently and were also more likely to employ authoritarian tactics. Research on young Latino students suggests authoritative parenting may be more congruent with Latino cultural values at least during preschool years as well as associated to positive outcomes such as grades, academic engagement, social competence among others (Jabaghourian et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2018). Similarly, authoritative parenting has been related to positive academic achievement for Latino adolescents, particularly girls. (Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Bown,1992).

In contrast, Latino parents are characterized in the literature as harsh and controlling and as utilizing authoritarian parenting with punitive practices (Cardona, et al., 2000; Kim et al.,2018). Hill et al. (2003) discovered that the harsh control and inconsistent discipline of the low-income Mexican American parents in their sample suggested authoritarian parenting. Some studies suggest that Latino parents are very authoritarian but their elementary- and high school-age children may not be negatively affected by this approach to parenting (Sung Seek Moon et

al., 2009). A study conducted by Cardona et al. (2000) examined parenting practices and developmental expectations of Hispanic and Anglo mothers with one focus child between 3 and 5 years of age. The results indicated that Hispanic mothers reported higher frequency of discipline and lower frequency of nurturing with their young children with no difference in expectations compared to Anglo mothers. One explanation for this discrepancy could be cultural differences in the expression of nurturance (displays of affection by hugging, kissing) that might be described or categorized in other research as rough-and-tumble play as well as the measure of nurturing activities (Cardona, et al., 2000). According to a Fischer et al. (2009), Latina moms prefer having strict control over their children. Varela et al. discovered that Mexican American parents employed more authoritarian techniques than nonimmigrant Mexican parents, suggesting that this development may be an adaptive reaction to external pressures (e.g., low-income neighborhoods). When looking at Latino kindergarteners, they show positive effects of authoritarian parenting such as higher academic achievement when their parents were responsive to their needs. (De Von Figueroa-Mooseley, Ramey, Keltner, & Lanzi (2006) Likewise, research focusing on Latino adolescents found that there was a greater prevalence of authoritarian parenting in Latino families in comparison to European- American families (Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Bown,1992). Given the diversity of Latinos, a number of study design issues, such as the use of observation versus self-report, variations in measures, inconsistent operationalization of key concepts, and diverse populations, may offer reasonable reasons for the discrepant findings (Ayon et al., 2015).

In the case of the impact of parenting practices in the Latino population research is inconclusive particularly in relation to authoritarian practices (Kim et al.,2018). Some studies indicated between Latino elementary- and high school students, there is no negative impact of highly authoritarian parenting (Kim et al.,2018). When the ethnicity of the Latinos was examined individually, research suggests, a negative impact of authoritarian parenting on students of Mexican and Dominican decent (Kim et al.,2018). Other studies compared Anglo American and

Hispanic mothers. Their findings indicate Hispanic mothers reported more instances of discipline and less nurturing behaviors with their young children (Cardona et al., 2000). The discrepancy in these findings may reflect changes in developmental stages of the children that may require different types of parenting styles in order to better serve the needs of the children. A young child might require more guidance compared to an adolescent, which aligns with authoritarian and authoritative parenting practices respectively (Kim et al., 2018). In contrast, adolescents may be more protected by authoritarian parenting styles due to the influences of peers and their neighborhood (Kim et al., 2018).

Factors impacting Latino Parenting. The level of the demands placed on the child and the responsiveness of the parents differ across ethnic groups. Likewise, the shared values, beliefs, and experiences of a given culture underline parenting, like all family processes (Guarnaccia & Rodriguez, 1996). Unique cultural values and parenting goals can greatly influence parenting behavior of Latino parents. More specifically, one framework to understand Latino parenting emphasized the premise that cultural values are fundamental to the child rearing goals of parents, and that parents actively seek to inculcate important values in their children through a process known as ethnic socialization and through the use of parenting practices that support their socialization goals (Calzada et al., 2010). Latino parents possess a unique set of values that are shaped by cultural socialization, that influences their parenting styles (Hughes et al., 2006). In addition to cultural values, acculturation and social support are key elements that impact many Latino immigrants (Ayon et al., 2015). To increase the theoretical understanding of parenting, focusing on cultural values is paramount, especially when trying to understand cultural differences.

Familismo and *Respeto* are core cultural values that play an important role in Latino parenting. The focus on obedience and respect - for adults, which is characteristic of Latino parenting, is consistent with their cultural value of *Respeto* and appears to align with the authoritarian parenting style (Calzada, 2010; Calzada et al., 2010). *Respeto* is particularly

important as it relates to respect and obedience to authority, it helps to continue harmony within the extended family and aids individuals navigate social interactions with others based on their age, sex, and social status, such as level of courtesy and etiquette that should be shown (Calzada, 2010). Boundaries are set about appropriate and inappropriate behavior guided by *Respeto*, particularly for Mexican American parents of young children. Moreover, for these parents *Respeto* means that children should not interrupt or argue and be very considerate of adults (Delgado-Gaitan, 1994). As such, children of authoritarian parents depend on authority figures for decision making and are less likely to engage in behavior that includes challenging content or behavior that is exploratory in nature (Gonzalez et al., 2002).

Another cultural value of Latino families is *Familismo* which is defined based on two aspects attitude and behavior. *Attitudinal Familismo* includes loyalty, solidarity, and reciprocity among family members and has several components: (a) belief that family comes before the individual; (b) family interconnectedness; (c) belief in family reciprocity; and (d) belief in familial honor. The behaviors that align with the above-mentioned values are referred to as behavioral *Familismo* (Calzada, 2010). Qualitative research found support for the four components of *Familismo*, including self-sacrifice for the family, the belief that independent adults should maintain a close emotional and physical relationship with their family, the obligation to support other family members when needed, and the belief in maintaining, protecting, and defending the family name and honor. The same study also found support for the concept of behavioral *Familismo* in the Latino community represented in five themes; (a) Shared finances (reliance on extended family members for financial support, such as borrowing money from other family members in case of an emergency), (b) Shared living (Sharing formal and informal living spaces e.g., seeing each other several times per week, giving extended family members the key to their home with free access to it), (c) shared daily activities (most free-time is spent with extended family members), (d) shared childrearing (extended family members play a fundamental role in childrearing practices, e.g., raising cousins when their parents are working

too much or are out of the country for a variety of reasons) and (e) immigration (motivation and means to immigrate are provided by extended family members) (Calzada, 2010).

The unique values of Latinos are mirrored by unique parenting styles utilized by this community. In addition to the four parenting styles, parenting styles unique to Latino parents aligned with their cultural values have been proposed by Domenech, Donovanick, and Crowley (2009), after conducting an observational study. From their sample of 95 Latino parents, 31% were categorized as authoritative, 0% authoritarian, 1% permissive and 1% neglectful. In addition, two parenting styles have been proposed specific to Latino parents when measuring the usual characteristics of warmth and demandingness, along with autonomy granting. Parents who scored high on warmth, high on demandingness, and low on autonomy granting were referred to as “protective” (61%) more aligned with authoritarian styles. While scores high on warmth, low on demandingness and autonomy granting were classified as “affiliative” (6%) (Domenech Rodriguez et al., 2019). The findings in this study also supported no sex differences in parenting behavior. Latino parents in general were high on warmth and demandingness, and lower on autonomy-granting regardless of their sex. However, the sex of the child had an impact on parenting behaviors. Parents scored lower on autonomy granting for their girls compared to boys and higher on demandingness with their daughters as compared to their sons. These findings highlight the importance of studying parenting through a cultural lens particularly in relation to the idea of gendered parenting. These findings also emphasize the benefits of fully utilizing the original theoretical model which included the dimension of autonomy-granting.

In addition to cultural values, acculturation and social support have a major impact on Latino parenting. Both socialization messages and parenting practices are expected to shift in accordance with parents' acculturative status (i.e., acculturation and enculturation) and both are expected to predict child functioning (Calzada et al., 2010). Acculturation refers to the process of assimilating or shifting one's culture to that of the dominant culture (Fuller & Garcia Coll, 2010). Egalitarian parenting has been associated with higher levels of maternal acculturation and

a decrease in antagonistic parenting (Parke et al., 2004). Encouragement to the value of independence has been linked to parents with higher levels of acculturation as well as authoritative parenting (Calzada et al. 2012). When trying to explain acculturation, Emeka and Vallejo (2011) indicated that the desire to move away from identifying with one's own culture is a result of a conscious effort to create distance from stigmatized identities or increase a sense of ethnic neutrality. This is exemplified by Latinos, as early as the third generation, by not identifying as Latinos. The researchers found that Latin American descendants who solely speak English and/or have mixed ancestries, such as both Latin American and non-Latin American origin, are more likely to identify as non-Hispanic (Emeka & Vallejo, 2011). A protective factor for Latinos is social support. Interdependent and collectivist values most described the Latino culture, and as such, Latinos receive more social support from their families. Social support provides a buffering effect to low SES by reducing psychological distress for Latina mothers (Prelow et al., 2010). Likewise, social support is linked to a greater sense of self-efficacy for Mexican immigrant mother that increases the parental dimensions of warmth and control (Izzo et al., 2000).

Academic Achievement in the Latino Population

Just by virtue of being part of a minority group, Latino students are at an academic disadvantage (Lampropoulos, 2015). This unfavorable position is later manifested in income, as long-term economic indicators such as earnings and family income are lower for the Latino community (Morotta & Garcia, 2003). Academic achievement varies significantly based on the cultural and ethnic background of the students. Academically there is a gap in achievement based on race in the United States (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010). Inside and outside of their home, many Latino children and youth experience several risk factors related to their parents' characteristics that can impact their academic achievement. For instance, being born to teenage mothers, being raised by parents with limited English proficiency, and living in a single-mother or large family household (Eamon, 2005). These risk factors result in increased high school

dropout rates as well decreased higher education enrolment rates. Similarly, dropout rates for Hispanics are higher compared to dropout rates for Whites and African Americans (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). Nationally 79% of Hispanic public-school students graduated high school in contrast to 88% of White students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). Despite increased enrollments of Latino students in higher education, they continue to obtain fewer bachelor's degrees compared to African Americans and non-Latinos in the United States (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). However, there was an overall increase in Latino bachelor's degree obtainment by 30% or more from 2005-2009 to 2015-2019 (U.S Census Bureau, 2020). Additionally, when looking at the reasons individuals provided for not completing a four-year college degree, the majority of Hispanic adults (52%) report that they couldn't afford it as the main reason as compared to White (39%) or Black (41%) individuals. Similarly, needing to work to support their families was a major reason provided by Latinos and Black students who did not complete a four-year college degree more so than their White counterparts (Pew Research Center, 2021). The developmental risk faced by Latino students within and outside their homes has adverse effects on their academic achievement. The current statistics demonstrate a discrepancy in the Latino population's academic achievement and highlight the importance of understanding the factors that impact it.

Bronfenbrenner (1977) suggested that academic achievement is directly or indirectly impacted by socio-demographic characteristics of youth and their family. This is explained by the exposure of youth to high-risk environments or by these factors impacting parenting practices within the home. As previously mentioned, Latinos living in the U.S. are a diverse population with different nationalities, immigration experiences, education, income, family structure, and parenting practices (Martinez, 1999). The diversity existing within the Latino population highlights the importance of controlling for subgroup differences when conducting research on this population. Young people go through a lot of personal and social-environmental changes during the early adolescent years, which can have an impact on how well they do in school. The

onset of puberty, changes in schools, a decline in academic interest, an increase in neighborhood and peer involvement, a reduction in reliance on parents, and an increase in conflict with them are some examples of these changes (Eccles et al., 1993). These outside effects probably become more significant as children become more involved in their schools, neighborhoods, and peer groups.

Race impacts students' achievement and shapes their learning. More specifically, racism influences educational philosophies, discourses, policies, practices, staff and resources that negatively impact educational outcomes of Latinos and other students of color. The fact that the schools of Latino children are often large, overcrowded and segregated, is an example of how resources are allocated (Llagas, 2003). Similarly, teachers at these schools tend to be less experienced and have lower qualifications (Eamon, 2005). Despite the meso-level variable that can explain the association between race and academic achievement, the majority of research points to classroom level processes. Bias based on phenotype is observed at the classroom-level, which contributes to lower teacher expectations for the academic growth of dark-skinned Latino students. Despite these expectations being expressed often unconsciously by the teachers' use tone of voice, facial expression, and posture, students perceive them, and their learning is impacted (Hunter, 2016). Similarly, among minority students, particularly boys, racism has been linked to academic underachievement (Lampropoulos, 2015). The disadvantage may be strongest for dark-skinned boys in particular in the Latino population. Given the documented achievement gap between White and Latino students, it is important to further research factors that impact academic achievement in the Latino population.

Acculturation level has been associated with academic achievement outcome of Latinos living in the U.S. According to traditional acculturation theories, upward mobility increases as Americanization increases. That is, as more immigrant generations adopt to the host country's culture, the greater their chances of moving up in society in terms of education and income. Current research on the Latino population contradicts the traditional acculturation theory

assumptions. Livingston and Kahn (2002) found that upward mobility declined as early as the third generation. Similarly, when comparing immigrants and their native peers, research suggests higher education obtainment for first- and second-generation immigrants (Siahaan et al., 2014).

Some studies have concentrated on the gender disparity in academic achievement among Latinos. As stated by the U.S. Census Bureau (2017), Latinas complete college at rates of 14.9 percent vs 12.9 percent for Latino men. Beyond census data, research reports that, regardless of generational status among immigrants, females achieve higher levels of education (Lee & Hatteberg, 2015). In fact, according to Gandara (2017), Latinas' percentage of college graduates surged by 300% between 1980 and 2013, from 6.9% to 18.6%, whereas Latino men's degree attainment increased by 50%. Using data from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study (CILS), Feliciano and Rumbaut (2005) and Feliciano (2012) indicate that female immigrant children have higher aspirations of continuing their education than male immigrant children from as early as middle school. According to Portes and Rumbaut (2006), Latino males are frequently assigned to high school tracks that are neither academically prepare them nor foster academic confidence. According to Feliciano (2012), males from low socioeconomic class households perform less well academically than females from comparable backgrounds, which may be a sign of structural impediments in the educational system. Earlier studies also confirm this gender gap in academic achievement in the Latino population. On standardized reading tests, females outperformed males, while males outperformed females in mathematics. Differing interests, attitudes, and learning opportunities have been suggested as possible explanations for academic achievement differences between males and females (Entwisle et al., 1994).

Cultural values, such as family obligations, particularly Familismo have a positive impact on overall academic achievement of Latinos with higher rates of postsecondary education (Anguiano, 2018; Fuligni & Pedersen, 2002). Research also suggests gender differences in Familismo with females often taking the lead in maintaining family bonds (Updegraff et al., 2005). This can give rise to the idea that women have larger degrees of familism, which has

positive effects, but the focus that familism places on duty might be constricting for women (Raffaelli & Ontai, 2004). A study from Campos and colleagues (2014) of college students of various races and ethnicities examine the relationship of levels of Familismo and psychological wellbeing. The results from this study supported higher levels of Familismo for Latinos compared to European and Asian students, as well as sex differences. Females reported higher levels of Familismo and support and lower psychological health. Contrasting findings from Feliciano (2012) using data from the CILS, indicate males report higher rates of Familismo than females. To continue to explore the sex differences in educational attainment of Latinos, Chaves-Reyes (2010) explored how narrative and familial expectations affected the academic success of Latino men and women. The researchers found that males responded more favorably to stories of parental sacrifice than females did, which may have an impact on a man's desire to provide for his family financially and urge him to work.

Latinas are believed to be more protected and controlled by their families, as a contribution of gendered parenting and traditional Latino cultural perspectives (Feliciano, 2012). This research shows that women place a greater emphasis on relationships and activities outside of the home than men do, possibly defying traditional family authority, which may explain why women are more likely to earn degrees than men are due to lower levels of familism (Lutz & Crist, 2014). Acculturation also plays an important role in the gender gap achievement in the Latino community. Latina girls who integrate into American culture grow more autonomous and gain the self-assurance to consider their own job objectives, which also affects how they regard familism (Lorenzo-Blanco et al., 2012). It may be that Hispanic men internalize conflict differently than women because they feel more pressure to protect their families as a result of conventional gender standards.

In order to understand the academic achievement of Latinos living in the U.S, gender socialization and behavioral outcomes need to be taken into consideration. Traditional gender norms predominate in the socialization of Latinos, which impacts parents' expectations of them

such as expectations that females provide support in the household duties through caretaking (Comas-Diaz, 2001; Feliciano, 2012; Murphy & Murphy, 2018; Raffaelli & Ontai, 2004). A review of the literature on academic achievement in the Latino population revealed a variety of risk-factors, such as race, colorism, SES, family composition (e.g single mother home, large family), English proficiency or bilingualism of parents, and community environment negatively correlating with achievement. Gender differences in educational obtainment were also highlighted when reviewing the current literature. This gender gap seems to be connected to cultural values and gendered parenting practices. This impacts how Latinos and Latinas internalized the conflict of acculturating to a more individualistic culture like the U.S which is in conflict with their cultural value of Familismo.

Parenting styles and Academic Achievement in the Latino Population

Due to the impact of parenting styles in children's outcomes, some researchers have focused on the connection between parenting styles and children's academic achievement. Even though students' academic achievement varies depending on a variety of factors, such as parental educational, involvement, family structure, social status, influence of peers, school environment, family income, preschool experiences, their efforts, and self-efficacy, a vast body of research suggests that child rearing practices play a major role in students' academic achievements (Mekonnen, 2017). Research is inconclusive regarding the influence and nature of parenting practices on the academic achievement of Latino students.

Some researchers have found positive relationships between authoritative parenting and academic achievement and the opposite for other parenting styles, such as authoritarian and permissive. Jabaghourian et al. (2014) found a significant positive relationship between authoritative parenting and child outcomes, such as grades and academic engagement in a population of fifth grade Latino students. They did not find any relationship with any of their measured child outcomes and authoritarian or permissive parenting styles. More specifically, children who viewed their mothers as authoritative had higher grades and self-regulation and

lower aggression. Similarly, fathers who were described as authoritative had children who were more academically engaged, socially competent, and demonstrated greater ability in perspective-taking. This research highlighted the critical role of fathers, not only mothers in children's competency development (Jabaghourian et al., 2014). Similar research focusing on sixth and seventh graders from lower income Latino neighborhoods found that they experienced less frequent problem behaviors when their parents engaged in rule setting, effective discipline, shared time with the child, involvement, and positive parenting. On the contrary, discipline avoidance, which is an aspect of the permissive parenting style, was related to problem behavior in school (Gayles et al., 2009).

Similarly, one study focused on examining the relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement longitudinally, in a sample of first grade Latino students as measured by standardized tests (Kim et al., 2018). This study included two groups of Latino students, one of Mexican origin and one of Dominican origin. Overall, their results suggest authoritative parenting has a protective effect on both Dominican and Mexican students. More specifically, better socio-emotional school readiness was associated with authoritative parenting styles for both student groups. Authoritative parenting was associated with better academic school readiness in Mexican students. In the long term, for all students, being prepared to enter school was related to better academic achievement (Kim et al., 2018). Contrasting findings for authoritarian parenting styles suggests authoritarian parenting styles have a negative impact on social-emotional school readiness for both student groups but lower academic readiness for Mexican students. Despite the negative impacts of authoritarian parenting styles on both groups of students, underachievement was only significant for Mexican students (Kim et al., 2018).

When looking at Latino kindergarteners, research suggests higher academic achievement for those children whose parents were responsive to their input. In contrast, children with less responsive parents demonstrated lower academic achievements (De Von Figueroa-Mooseley, Ramey, Keltner, and Lanzi, 2006). Similarly, lower academic achievement was associated with

authoritarian and permissive parenting styles in adolescents. On the other hand, parenting styles characterized by low control and high responsiveness such as authoritative was associated with higher academic achievement (Cardona et al., 2000).

A very important study conducted by Steinberg, Dornbusch, and Brown (1992) examines the academic achievement of Latino adolescents. Their findings support a relationship between positive academic achievement and authoritative parenting, specifically, the academic outcome of girls. Their finding indicated a higher prevalence of authoritarian parenting in Latino families compared to European American families and that this can have a negative impact on the academic performance of Latino children. Likewise, families of Latino high school students high on authoritarian and permissive parenting often had students who did less well in school. In contrast, students of families scoring higher in authoritative parenting had higher grades (Dornbusch et al., 1987). One study of academic achievement was particularly interested in determining if the positive academic outcomes of independence training, which is an important aspect of authoritative parenting, were also present for Latino adolescents. Results from this study indicate that such positive outcomes might not hold true for Latinos whose values are collectivist in comparison to European- American children with individualistic values (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 1995). Another study aiming to answer a similar question of whether authoritative parenting is the optimum parenting style, found that, for Hispanic adolescents from Spain, the indulgent or permissive parenting style yielded equal or better parenting outcomes compared to authoritative parenting styles on several outcomes, including grades (Garcia, F & Garcia, E, 2009). Moreover, research looking at the relationship between parenting styles and adolescent motivation found that more adaptive motivational beliefs and attitudes were present in adolescents of authoritative parents (Mekonnen, 2017). Motivational beliefs can affect the child's desire to complete schoolwork and thus affect their academic achievements. In this study parenting style was assessed based on the adolescents' perspectives. Intrinsic motivation of adolescents was associated with parents that were described as authoritative, democratic, firm,

communicative, nurturing, and supportive of independence (Mekonnen, 2017). In a different study, similar results were found in the relationship between students' setting of mastery goals and maternal authoritative parenting styles (Gonzalez et al., 2002).

Strictness or Authoritarian parenting has been studied in the Latino population in relation to academic achievement. Findings from Park and Bauer (2002), compared academic outcomes of European American adolescents and Latinos, and their findings indicate that, in contrast to their European counterparts, parental strictness was related to academic achievement. Similarly, according to Portes and Fernández-Kelly (2008), strict parental figures are associated with greater rates of educational attainment for immigrant households who are highly disadvantaged. A portion of the participants in the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study (CILS-IV) were profiled and interviewed by researchers. Despite growing up in the main sample's lowest socioeconomic households, this Latino subsample managed to graduate with at least a bachelor's degree. According to participant interviews and testimonies of rigorous parenting and discipline, there were signs of more authoritarian parenting methods. One explanation for their findings was selective acculturation (Portes & Fernández-Kelly, 2008). Gender variations in achievement may also be influenced by different parenting styles. For instance, it was shown that Latino parents gave young adolescent females more regulations, structure, and supervision than they did for boys (Bulcroft et al., 1996).

The inconclusive nature of research in the area of parenting and academic achievement in the Latino population as well as the diverse and complex experience of Latinos in the US, highlights the need to clarify research. This is particularly important as Latino families and children constitute nearly 17% of the U.S population (Pew Research Center, n.d.).

Aims and Hypotheses

Most research on parenting styles is limited in terms of the participants' culture, as research primarily has been conducted on middle-class Anglo-American families. However,

parenting styles vary based on culture (Cardona et al., 2000). Like parenting styles, academic achievement is impacted by culture (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016).

Latinos are the largest ethnic or racial minority in the United States, accounting for 17.8 percent of the total population (United States Census Bureau, 2017). Despite being the largest minority group in the United States, Latinos' academic achievement is lower compared to Anglo-Americans (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). Current research on the impact of parenting styles in the Latino population is inconclusive (Kim et al., 2018). This brings about a need to focus research on the relationship of parenting styles and academic achievement in the Latino population. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement of Latino high school students living in the United States.

The objective of this study is to demonstrate which parenting style is most highly endorsed by Latino parents, and the relationship of types of parenting styles with academic achievement. The study involves the examination of the four parenting styles described by Baumrind (1967), authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and neglectful, have an impact on the academic achievement of Latino High School students. In addition, this study will examine the impact of the parenting dimensions, responsiveness and warmth, demand/expectations or standards of behavior, and granting autonomy and parental practice (monitoring) on academic achievement.

The hypothesis of the study is that Latino students of parents who endorse more authoritative parenting will have higher academic achievement as measured by their Grade Point Average (GPA) compared to other parenting styles. Another hypothesis of the study is that there is a relationship between parenting styles and demographic factors such as parents' country of origin, number of siblings, student's level of proficiency in Spanish among others. It was hypothesized that Latino mothers and fathers would utilize different parenting styles. The

researcher also hoped to clarify research in the Latino parenting literature by identifying the parenting styles most frequently used by this population.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methods

Research Design

To assess our primary hypothesis of a relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement, a correlational study was conducted. The predictor variable in this study was parenting styles, and the outcome/criterion variable was the academic achievement, as measured by students' self-reported GPA.

Participants

The participants in this study were 53 Latino High School students, 25 male and 28 female identified. The students were primarily from the Northern suburbs of Chicago, IL and their age range was (13-18 years old). Students were excluded if they were in special education except for ESL students due to the likelihood GPA for these students is different from the GPA of students in regular classes.

Participants were recruited from community centers and other public areas such as churches and public libraries. The students accessed the survey by using a QR code placed on the fliers that were distributed. Consent forms were signed electronically by the participants. Participants had the option of taking the survey in English or Spanish. Adolescents' reports of their parents' parenting behavior were obtained as opposed to that of parents', because as Villar, Angeles Luengo, Gomez- Fragueta, and Romero (2006) found with a sample (N = 302) of Latino mothers, fathers, and children that mothers and fathers tended to overestimate their authoritativeness and underestimate their authoritarianism. The students in this study were asked for each of the items twice for the adults they lived with, once in reference to their mother or primary mother figure and a second time in reference to their father/or primary father figure.

Measures

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire was created by the researcher. The measure included items related to grade, gender, age, ethnicity, primary language spoken at home, Spanish language proficiency, SES, and parents' age when they were born among other relevant information (see Appendix A).

Grade Point Average (GPA)

In order to measure academic achievement, the participants reported their Grade Point Average (GPA) by responding to an open-ended question included in the survey. The parents did not report on the students' GPA, as research suggests students' self-reports are often consistent with teacher's reports of their GPAs (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987).

Parenting Styles

To measure parenting styles, the Short Parental Scale-Escala Parental Breve (EPB) was used. The EPB is a 12-item questionnaire that measures three dimensions of parental style (parental responsiveness and warmth, demand/expectations or standards of behavior and granting autonomy and parental practice (monitoring)). The responses are measured on a Likert scale (5=Very much in agreement, 4= Agree, 3= I'm not sure, 2= Disagree," and 1= "Very much at odds."

Earlier results of confirmatory factor analysis supported the metric invariance items scale by gender, socioeconomic status, and age. Study sample comparisons provided evidence for the temporal stability of the instrument. The correlations of the instrument's scales with other indicators of parental behavior and adolescent well-being supported the concurrent validity of the EPB (Cumsille et al., 2014). The psychometric properties of the EPB were examined with Chilean adolescents, this is important for this study as the target population is Latino High School

students. Adolescents' reports of their parents' parenting behavior were obtained as opposed to that of parents', because as Villar et al. (2006) found with a sample (N = 302) of Latino mothers, fathers, and children that mothers and fathers tended to overestimate their authoritativeness and underestimate their authoritarianism. The study participants were asked for each of the items on the EPB twice, once in regard to their mother or primary mother figure and a second time in reference to their father/or primary father figure.

Procedures

The researcher contacted several local organizations (i.e., Waukegan and Highwood public libraries) and public and private schools to obtain participants for the study, via a snowball sampling method by email. The researcher also created a recruitment flyer to post and shared it with colleges and friends by email and in social media (see appendix B). To incentivize student participation, those who completed the survey had the option of participating in a raffle of one of four \$25 Amazon gift cards. A separate link to a Google survey was used to help maintain confidentiality as participants personal information was collected (name and email) in order to deliver the gift card (see Appendix C).

Once a participant chose to engage in the survey, they scanned the QR code on their phones and it opened up a link to the survey. The link connected participants to the informed consent form for their parents, which they had to read and accept prior to student moving forward with the study (see Appendix D). Subsequently, after parental consent, the participants were directed to the student assent form, which they had to read and accept prior to moving forward with the study (see Appendix E).

Participants were reminded that they had the option to stop their participation at any point during the survey if they chose. The data were collected anonymously; no identifying participant information was collected. Following the student assent, participants provided demographic

information. The survey concluded with participants answering questions relating to their parents' behaviors separated by parents' gender (i.e., one EPB for mothers and one for fathers).

The study took approximately 10–15 minutes to complete. After the final EPB questionnaire, participants were thanked for their time and participation and provided the option to enter the raffle of the gift cards. The participants who decided to participate in the raffle used a link provided to access the Google forms which asked them for the information needed to participate (name and email address), indicated the estimated date of the raffle, means of notification in the case of winning and delivery method of the gift card.

Participants who did not meet the inclusion criteria were omitted once they had completed the study and their data was not included in the final analysis.

Ethical Safeguards

To ensure ethical standards of this study, data were not collected until the researcher obtained IRB approval from the Illinois School of Professional Psychology. Once this approval was obtained, the data were collected through a secure online data medium (SurveyMonkey) and the researcher and statistician were the only ones to access the data obtained.

All participants were anonymous and had the option to cease participating in the study at any time if they wished. If a participant were to experience psychological distress, they would have been able to contact the researcher and referrals for services would have been provided; no participants made this request.

Once the CRP is complete (i.e., once the final version is accepted by the school), the data will be erased from the online source.

Chapter 4: Results

This study involved the use of survey data to explore the parenting styles in the Latino population and the relationship, if any, with academic achievement, as measured by Grade Point Average (GPA). The presentation of the results includes an analysis of the descriptive statistics for the participant sample, which helped answer the following question: What are the more frequent parenting styles utilized by Latino parents, as reported by their high school students? Are there sex differences in the parenting styles utilized by Latino parents?

Pearson correlations were used to test the research hypotheses: (a) There is relationship between types of parenting styles (as measured by the Short Parental Scale-Escala Parental Breve (EPB)) and high school students' grade point average (GPA). That is, do parents' utilization of any of the parenting styles correlate with students' academic achievement. And single factor ANOVAs were used to determine if (b) There is a relationship between any of the parenting styles and demographic factors such as parents' country of origin, number of siblings, student's level of proficiency in Spanish among others.

Descriptive Statistics

Demographic Variables

A total of 320 individuals responded to the survey; however, only 53 participants were included in the data analysis due to missing answers or invalid answers (see Table 1). Of the 53 participants in the final sample, 28 (80%) were female-identified, and 25 (20%) were male-identified. Nineteen (38%) reported that they were in the 12th grade, twelve (22.6%) of the participants were in 11th twelve (22.6%) in the 10th grade and 10 (18.9%) were in 9th grade. The participants were between the ages of 13 and 18 years old and their reported socio-economic status (SES) was low 8 (15%), medium 38(72%) and high 7 (13%) Regarding the country they were born, 50 (94%) stated they were born in the U.S.A, one (2%) Spain and two (4%) other. Half of the participants indicated that their ethnicity or their parent's origin was Mexican 26

(50%), six (11%) were Cuban, six were (11%) Salvadorian, five (9%) were Colombian, 4 (8%) were Puerto Rican, three were (6%) Dominican and three were (6%) other. Results show 37 (70%) of students listed “mother” as their primary parent and 16 (30%) “father.” The mother was listed as the secondary parent by 29 (55%) of the participants and 23 (45%) indicated their father has their secondary parent. It is important to note, 14 (26.4%) listed their mother as both their primary and secondary parent and one student listed father as both. In relation to the parents’ first language, 35 (66%) reported English and 18 (34%) reported Spanish. Forty (76%) of the students reported the primary language spoken at home was English and 13 (25%) reported Spanish. (See Appendix F)

Parenting Styles

As reported by their high school students three fathers (6%) demonstrated authoritative parenting, 22 (42%) protective, four (6%) permissive, one (2%) affiliative, six (11%) cold, five (9%) authoritarian, one (2%) neglectful, and 11 (21%) neglectful II. In contrast, mothers were described as utilizing the following parenting styles by their highschoolers; four (8%) authoritative, 28 (53%) protective, two (4%) permissive, two (4%) affiliative, 2 (4%) cold, three (6%) authoritarian, two (4%) neglectful, and 10 (20%) neglectful II. (See table 1).

Table 1*Predominant Parenting Styles*

Parenting Style	Father		Mother	
	n	%	n	%
Authoritative	3	5.7%	4	7.5%
Protective	22	41.5%	28	52.8%
Permissive	4	7.5%	2	3.8%
Affiliative	1	1.9%	2	3.8%
Cold	6	11.3%	2	3.8%
Authoritarian	5	9.4%	3	5.7%
Neglectful	1	1.9%	2	3.8%
Neglectful II	11	20.8%	10	18.9%

Analyses of Hypotheses*Parenting Styles and GPA*

To determine if there was a relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement (GPA) of the students a Pearson correlation was performed. None of the three parenting dimensions measured (warm, demandingness, and monitoring) were significantly correlated to GPA for either mothers or fathers. (See table 2).

Table 3*Correlations between GPA and Parental Style Dimensions*

	Mother			Father		
	Warmth	Demand	Monitoring	Warmth	Demand	Monitoring
r	-.02	-.09	-.18	-.04	-.04	-.03
p	.89	.52	.20	.78	.78	.83

GPA and Demographic Factors

Multiple Single Factor ANOVAs were utilized to determine if there was a relationship between GPA and demographic factors. The results examining students' gender and GPA demonstrated no significant difference on GPA between male and female students (Male=3.23, Female=3.26, $F(1,50) = 0.04$, $p = .85$). Similarly, results of the Single Factor ANOVA, for SES (Low=3.38, Middle=3.16, High= 3.54, $F(2,49) = 2.20$, $p = .12$); parents' primary language (English=3.23, Spanish=3.29, $F(1,50) = 0.08$, $p = .77$); language spoken at home (English=3.18, Spanish= 3.36, $F(1,50) = 1.39$, $p = .24$); and students' primary parent (Mother=3.22, Father=3.28, $F(1, 50) = .17$, $p = .63$) indicated no significant differences between these factors and GPA.

Parenting Dimensions

To examine three parenting dimensions most present in the Latino population (parental responsiveness and warmth, demand/expectations or standards of behavior, and parental practice (monitoring)), t-tests were conducted. Although not statistically significant ($t(51)=1.47$, $p=.15$), the results indicated that mothers ($M= 3.62$, $SD= 0.72$) had a slightly higher score on warmth compared to fathers ($M= 3.43$, $SD= 0.81$). When looking at male and female students' perception of their mothers' warmth the t-Test results were not significant ($t(51) = 1.15$, $p = .13$).

Likewise, there were no sex differences on students reports of their father's warmth ($t(51) = 0.23, p = .82$). Mothers ($M= 3.68, SD= 0.70$) had higher scores on demandingness as reported by their high school students than fathers ($M= 3.43, SD= 0.75$). These scores were statistically significant, $t(53) = 2.10, p = .04$. There were no sex differences in how male and female students perceived their mothers' demandingness ($t(51) = 1.76, p = .08$) and fathers' demandingness ($t(51) = 0.56, p = .58$). Finally, monitoring behavior of mothers ($M= 3.54, SD= 0.64$) was significantly ($t(53) = 2.4, p = .02$) higher than monitoring of fathers ($M=3.23, SD= 0.87$). There was no significant difference for mothers' monitoring for male or female students, ($t(51) = 0.65, p = .51$). Similarly, there was no sex difference on how students perceived their father's monitoring ($t(51) = -0.03, p = .98$).

Summary of Results

The average GPA of Latino High School students was 3.19 out of 4.0. Results indicated no significant relationship between parenting styles and GPA. Results indicated no significant impact of demographic factors and GPA. Most Latino parents exhibited protective parenting and neglectful II parenting styles as reported by their highschoolers. No sex differences were found in relation of parenting styles of mothers or father. Similarly, there were no sex differences in the students' perception of parenting dimensions. Students endorsed their mothers as having high scores on demandingness and monitoring compared to fathers.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Implications, Limitations, and Conclusion

This study explored several research questions. First, the relationship between parenting styles of Latino highschoolers grade point average (GPA) was examined. Second, this study explored students GPA and demographic factors such as parents' country of origin, number of siblings, student's level of proficiency in Spanish among others. Similarly, this studied aimed to study the relationship between parenting styles and demographic factors. Finally, this study explored sex differences in parenting dimensions by comparing mothers and fathers and sex of the students who reported.

Discussion of Findings and Clinical Implications

The results indicate the average GPA of Latino High School student was 3.19 which is above the average GPA of high School students in the U.S. (What is a Good GPA). This supports research suggesting that, despite disadvantages, children of immigrants tend to outperform children of native-born parents (Lauderdale & Heckman, 2017; Waters & Jimenez, 2005). One important factor in the upward mobility of Latinos is immigration generation. When compared to first generation, second generation Latino immigrants report significant improvement in educational and occupational outcomes (Tran, 2016). It is important to note that most of the students in the sample reported being second generation immigrants.

The results indicated no significant relationship between parenting styles, and academic achievement of Latino High School students, this is consistent with research on the adolescent population that did not find a positive relationship between parenting styles and students GPA (Rivers et al., 2012). This conclusion could be explained in part by the possibility that parenting styles are mediated by other personal traits that influence academic success (Fang et al., 2003). In fact, some researchers have argued that the effects of parenting and academic achievement are not consistent based on cultures, ethnicities, and socioeconomic status (Spera, 2005).

Future research implications include examining academic performance from a contextual perspective. Within the family environment, parenting is just one dimension based on parenting practices. According to other researchers (e.g. Mullis et al., 2003), contextual factors such as social capital (e.g., parental networks, student networks), resource capital (e.g., parent education, parent income, education-related items at home), and student misbehavior can all be used to predict academic performance. An examination of family environment traits, such as parental and sibling motivation, would enable professionals to approach families from a more systemic perspective.

To help with the discussion of parenting styles the following keys will be utilized: Warmth (W), Demandingness (D), Monitoring (M), high (+) and low (-).

Consistent with the theoretical model of Baumrind (1991) and the work carried out by Steinberg, Dornbush et al. (1992) and Steinberg, Lamborn et al. (1992), *authoritative* (+W, -D, -M), *authoritarian* (-W, +D, +M), *permissive* (+W, -D, -M) and *neglectful* (-W, -D, +M) parenting styles were created. In addition, based on parental categories explored by Domenech Rodriguez et al. (2009), in a Latino cultural context the following parenting styles were also examined: *protective*, *cold*, *affiliative* and *neglectful*. This was completed by using high and low scores across the parenting dimensions (parental responsiveness and warmth, demand/expectations or standards of behavior and parental practice (monitoring). Domenech Rodriguez (2009) measured parental autonomy granting, in contrast, this study measured monitoring. In order to utilize the same parenting styles categorized by Domenech Rodriguez et al. (2009) reversed scores were utilized. *Protective* parents scored high on warmth, high on demandingness and high on monitoring. Low scores on warmth and demandingness and monitoring described *cold* parents. Parents who scored high on warmth, low on demandingness and high on monitoring were labeled as *affiliative*. The last parenting style was *neglectful II*, and parents' scores were low on warmth and demandingness and low on monitoring.

Parenting Styles Frequently Used by Latino Parents

The results indicated the majority of Latino parents utilized protective parenting (Fathers=41.5%, Mothers= 52.8%) or neglectful II (Fathers=20.8%, Mother=18.9%) parenting styles as reported by their highschoolers. Results indicate no sex differences between Latino parents (Mother vs. Father) on the four parenting dimensions as reported by their high school students. The majority of both mothers and fathers were categorized as protective or neglectful II. This is consistent with one observational study suggesting that Latino parents engaged in protective parenting when including autonomy-granting as one of the parenting dimensions measured. (Domenech-Rodriguez et al.,2009) Reported that the four traditional parenting styles did not reflect Latino families parenting. Most research on parenting excludes autonomy-granting as a parenting dimension and so research including protective parenting is scarce, particularly when considering only the Latino population.

Similarly, results indicate no sex differences in the students' perceptions of their parents parenting. This is consistent with research that explored whether there was an interaction effect between the parent's gender and the child's gender in parenting in their Latino sample (Domenech-Rodriguez,at al., 2009).

Limitations

There are a few significant limitations to consider when analyzing the study's findings. The most apparent limitation is an inability to reach the desired sample size, resulting in insufficient power to reach significance. The relatively small sample size indicates that the failure to reach significance, may be due to the small sample size, though the effect sizes were very small, indicating that a very large sample might have been needed in order to find significant results. As a result, rather than relying on statistically significant results, the findings were evaluated in a more exploratory manner and by looking at trends. The trends included that the majority of Latino parents were reported as utilizing permissive and neglectful II parenting

styles. There may be a number of causes for the lack of respondents, some of which include the study's scope, accessibility (global pandemic), and duration.

The limited size of the study's sample restricts the usefulness of the conclusions and the depth of our ability to evaluate them. Similarly, reduced sample size also limited the researcher's ability to further explore the data due to the increased likelihood of the results lacking statistical significance. Results found to be significant should be interpreted with caution. Fifty-one Latino High School students participated in the survey, which included questions about their demographics, GPA and a report of their parent's behaviors or parents' dimensions to determine parenting styles. Despite offering monetary incentives (raffle of four \$25 gift cards) for the completion of the survey. Only 53 out of 300 students solicited completed the survey. This could be due to the developmental stage of the target participants. This is consistent with reported challenges when collecting data from adolescents due to developmental and context influences on adolescents' behaviors. Some of the challenges anticipated can be explained by developmental capacities, developmental change and stability, gender and ethnicity (Dashiff, 2001). Younger teenagers are more likely to be concrete in their reasoning and less likely to consider how their choices would affect them in the future. Considering this, unless the purpose is to evaluate cognitive development, interview questions or questionnaire items that call for a more abstract response, such as imagining hypothetical scenarios or applying formal logic, may not accurately or fully tap the domains of interest for younger adolescents (Dashiff, 2001). Similarly, the use of Likert responses could impact the validity of the instruments used in researching adolescent population. If their experience is limited, adolescents have difficulty discriminating between the presented response options. Sex difference are also document in data collection of adolescents. Teenage girls take more time to complete questionnaires but were more patient than adolescent boys. With longer instruments adolescent boys were easily frustrated which could be a reflection of differing maturity levels between the sexes (Dashiff, 2001). Future researchers interested in working with the Latino highschooler should considerer

increasing monetary incentives for participation, keeping the survey short and concrete and avoid using Likert scales.

Similarly, the study asked high school students to respond to questions about their parents' behaviors; they might have been uncomfortable answering these questions. Adolescents tend to avoid talking about five topics: relationship issues, negative life experiences, friendships, dating, and sexual experiences (Afifi. W & Afifi. T, 2022). Similarly, adolescents from divorced families avoid talking about other family members, particularly, they avoid talking about one parent in front of the other parent (Golish & Caughlin, 2002). It is possible that Latino High School students avoided talking about their parents specifically if they had a conflictual relationship with them. Likewise, if the participants of the study were from divorced families, it is likely this impacted their willingness to answer a survey addressing their parenting behaviors. A second potential limitation is the accessibility of the survey. Recruitment of participants was conducted by sharing links to study on social media platforms and in person by posting recruitment material on local business and agencies. However, the reach was limited as it was only advertised on one social media platform. Also, data collection took place during the peak of the pandemic, thus limiting accessibility to this population, as schools and other public places were closed. The survey consisted of 61 questions including demographic information and questions assessing parenting styles which required about 10-15 minutes to complete. Adolescents might have become impatient or bored and discontinued taking the survey as evidenced by the 23% completion rate. Three hundred and twenty adolescents began the survey but only (53) responses could be used for data analysis). If this study were to be conducted again, it might be possible to increase accessibility by having posters or flyers in high schools or discussing with teachers the possibility of using classroom time to fill out the survey (assuming students are taking classes in person). Another recommendation is to collect parent data from the parents directly as this will require only their own consent versus students' perspective that requiring their parents' consent in addition to the students' assent.

Conclusion

This study was designed to address the gap in research on Latino parenting and determine if there is a relationship between parenting styles and their student's GPA. It was hypothesized that authoritative parenting practices would be related to higher GPA and authoritarian parenting styles would be associated with lower GPA's in adolescent students. Similarly, it was hypothesized that Latino mothers and fathers would utilize different parenting styles. The researcher also hoped to clarify research in the Latino parenting literature by identifying the parenting styles most frequently used by this population.

Though the findings were not statistically significant, exploratory analyses and examination of results qualitatively helped identify that Latino mothers and father tend to have similar parenting styles: protective or neglectful II. This contradicts the initial hypothesis about sex differences in parenting styles. The hope was to demonstrate that parenting styles had an impact in academic achievement of Latino adolescents. The results of this study did not support a relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement (GPA) of Latino High School students. This contradicts the initial hypothesis that students with authoritative parents were going to have higher GPAs. This study aimed to determine that demographic factors impacted the GPAs of Latino students and the results did not provide support. The results of the study indicated that Latino mothers scored higher on demandingness and monitoring compared to Latino fathers.

Researchers interested in studying the Latino high school population should reach out to the students in a variety of social media platforms and offer higher monetary compensation or other incentives to increase the number of participants. Researchers should also consider making the survey shorter and avoid using Likert-scale measures. Having access to a variety of schools and school districts could be very helpful in efforts to study this population. In-person conversations with school principals could potentially be more effective in trying to recruit participants. Also having teachers assigned a time within the school day to give students

interested in participating the opportunity to do so, could significantly impact participation and completion rate. When assessing GPA, it would be beneficial to obtain GPA directly from the school. A broader cultural context should be considered when studying parenting in the Latino population. Cultural beliefs impact parenting practices and family dynamics- and including information about cultural beliefs and family dynamics can help shed light into understanding Latino parenting. Finally, looking at ethnic/country of origin differences could be an important aspect of studying the Latino population as the term Latino encompasses people from a variety of countries.

REFERENCES

- Afifi, W. A., & Afifi, T. D. (2009). Avoidance among adolescents in conversations about their parents' relationship: Applying the theory of motivated information management. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 26(4), 488–511. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1177/0265407509350869>
- Akanbi, S. T., & Adaramoye, T. O. (2018). Influence of parental history, work-family conflict and psychological well-being on neglectful parenting practices among middle-class women in selected states in south-west, Nigeria. *Gender & Behaviour*, 16(3), 11970–11983.
- Anguiano, R. M. (2018). Language brokering among Latino immigrant families: Moderating variables and youth outcomes. *Journal of Youth Adolescence*, 47, 222-242.
- Aud, S., Fox, M. A., & KewalRamani, A. (2010). *Status and trends in the education of racial and ethnic groups*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
- Ayón C, Becerra D. (2013). Latino immigrant families under siege: The impact of SB1070, discrimination, and economic crisis. *Advances in Social Work*. 14:206–228.
- Ayón, C., Williams, L. R., Marsiglia, F. F., Ayers, S., & Kiehne, E. (2015). A latent profile analysis of Latino parenting: the infusion of cultural values on family conflict. *Families in Society: Journal of Contemporary Social Services*, 96(3), 203–210. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1606/1044-3894.2015.96.25>
- Bacallao ML, Smokowski PR. (2013). Obstacles to getting ahead: How assimilation mechanisms impact undocumented Mexican immigrant families. *Social Work in Public Health*. 28:1–20. doi: 10.1080/19371910903269687.
- Baum, S., and Flores, S.M. (2011). Higher education and children in immigrant families. *Future Child*, 21(1), 171–93.

- Baumrind D, Black AE. (1967), Socialization practices associated with dimensions of competence in preschool boys and girls. *Child Development* 38:291–327.
- Baumrind, D. (1966). Effects of authoritative parental control on child behavior. *Child Development*, 37, 887–907.
- Baumrind, D. (1967). Childcare practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behavior. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 75(1), 43-88.
- Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental Psychology*, 4 (1, Pt. 2), 1-103.
- Baumrind, D. (1989). Rearing competent children. In W. Damon (Ed.), *The Jossey-Bass social and behavioral science series. Child development today and tomorrow* (pp. 349-378). San Francisco, CA, US: Jossey-Bass.
- Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, 11(1), 56-95.
- Baumrind, D., Larzelere, B., & Owens, E. (2010). Effects of preschool parents' power assertive patterns and practices on adolescent development. *Parenting: Science and Practice*, 10, 157-201. doi:10.1080/15295190903290790
- Bradley, R. H., & Corwyn, R. F. (2002). Socioeconomic status and child development. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53, 371–399.
- Broderick, P.C., & Blewitt, P. (2003). *The life span: Human development for helping professionals*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1977). Toward an experimental ecology of human development. *American Psychologist*. 32: 513–531.

- Bulcroft, R. A., Carmody, D. C., & Bulcroft, K. A. (1996). Patterns of parental independence giving to adolescents: Variations by race, age, and gender of child. *Journal of Marriage & Family*, 58(4), 866–883. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.2307/353976>
- Calzada EJ, Huang KY, Anicama C, Fernandez Y, Miller Brotman L. (2012). Test of a cultural framework of parenting with Latino families of young children. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*. 18:285–296.
- Calzada, E. J. (2010). Bringing culture into parent training with Latinos. *Cognitive and Behavioral Practice*, 17, 167–175. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cbpra.2010.01.003>
- Calzada, E. J., Fernandez, Y., & Cortes, D. E. (2010). Incorporating the cultural value of respeto into a framework of Latino parenting. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 16, 77–86. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0016071>
- Campos, B., Ullman, J. B., Aguilera, A., & Dunkel Schetter, C. (2014). Familism and psychological health: The intervening role of closeness and social support. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 20(2), 191-201.
- Cano, T., Perales, F., & Baxter, J. (2019). A matter of time: Father involvement and child cognitive outcomes. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 81(1), 164–184. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/jomf.12532>
- Cardona, P. G., Nicholson, B. C., & Fox, R. A. (2000). Parenting among Hispanic and Anglo-American mothers with young children. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 140, 357–365. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00224540009600476>
- Chavez-Reyes, C. (2010). Starting at the top: Identifying and understanding later generation Chicano students in schools. *Journal of Latinos in Higher Education*, 9(1), 22-40.
- Comas-Diaz, L. (2001). Hispanics, Latinos or Americanos: The evolution of identity. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 7(2), 115-120.

- Conrad, H. A., Wallio, S., Schoemann, A., & Sprague, J. J. (2019). The impact of child and parental age on protective factors against child maltreatment. *Child & Family Social Work, 24*(2), 264–274. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/cfs.12611>
- Cumsille, P., Martínez, M. L., Rodríguez, V., & Darling, N. (2014). Análisis psicométrico de la escala parental breve (EPB): Invarianza demográfica y longitudinal en adolescentes chilenos = Psychometric analysis of the escala parental breve (EPB): Demographic invariance in Chilean adolescents. *Psykhé: Revista de La Escuela de Psicología, 23*(2), 1–14. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.7764/psykhe.23.2.665>
- Cumsille, P., Martínez, M. L., Rodríguez, V., & Darling, N. (2014). Escala Parental Breve Scale. *PsycTESTS*. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/t54760-000>
- Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting styles as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin, 113*, 487-496. doi:10.1037//0033-2909.113.3.487
- Darlow, V., Norvilitis, J. M., & Schuetze, P. (2017). The relationship between helicopter parenting and adjustment to college. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 26*(8), 2291–2298. <https://doi-org.libproxy.edmc.edu/10.1007/s10826-017-0751-3>
- Delgado-Gaitan, C. (1994). Socializing young children in Mexican- American families: An intergenerational perspective. In P. M. Greenfield, & R. R. Cocking (Eds.), *Cross-cultural roots of minority child development* (pp. 55–86). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Domenech Rodríguez, M. M., Donovanick, M. R., & Crowley, S. L. (2009). Parenting Styles in a Cultural Context: Observations of “Protective Parenting” in First-Generation Latinos. *Family Process, 48*(2), 195–210. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/j.1545-5300.2009.01277.x>

- Dornbusch, S. M., Ritter, P. L., Leiderman, P. H., Roberts, D. F., & Fraleigh, M. J. (1987). The relation of parenting style to adolescent school performance. *Child Development, 58*(5), 1244–1257. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.2307/1130618>
- Eamon, M. K. (2005). Social-demographic, school, neighborhood, and parenting influences on the academic achievement of Latino young adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 34*, 163–174. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10964-005-3214-x>
- Eccles, J. S., Midgley, C., Wigfield, A., Buchanan, C. M., Reuman, D., Flanagan, C., and MacIver, D. (1993). The impact of stage- environment fit in young adolescents' experiences in school and in families. *American Psychologist 48*: 90–101.
- Elliott, J. D., & Parks, R. (2018). Latino students and degree attainment. *College and University, 93*(1), 10-18.
- Entwisle, D. R., Alexander, K. L., and Olson, L. S. (1994). The gender gap in math: Its possible origins in neighborhood effects. *American Sociology Review 59*: 822–838.
- Fang, P., Xiong, D., & Guo, C. Y. (2003). The effect of parenting styles on children's academic achievement. *Psychological Science China, 26*, 78–81.
- Feliciano, C. (2012). The female educational advantage among adolescent children of immigrants. *Youth & Society, 44*(3), 431-449.
- Feliciano, C., & Rumbaut, R. G. (2005). Gendered paths: Educational and occupational expectations and outcomes among adult children of immigrants. *Ethnic and Racial Studies, 28*(6), 1087-1118.
- Fischer, C., Harvey, E. A., & Driscoll, P. (2009). Parent-centered parenting values among Latino immigrant mothers. *Journal of Family Studies, 15*(3), 296–308. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.5172/jfs.15.3.296>

- Francis, A., Pai, M. S., & Badagabettu, S. (2021). Psychological well-being and perceived parenting style among adolescents. *Comprehensive Child & Adolescent Nursing*, 44(2), 134–143. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1080/24694193.2020.1743796>
- Fuligni, A. J., & Pedersen, S. (2002). Family obligation and the transition to young adulthood. *Developmental Psychology*, 38(5), 856-868.
- Gandara, P. (2017). The Latino gender divide in education: Are Latinas really faring better than their brothers? In S. Salas & P.R. Portes (Eds.), *U.S. Latinization: Educational and the new Latino South* (pp.241-250). Albany, NY: SUNY Press.
- Gandara, P. & Mordechay, K. (2017). Demographic change and the new (and not so new) challenges for Latino education. *The Educational Forum*, 81(2), 148-159.
- García Coll C, Pachter LM. Ethnic and minority parenting. In: Bornstein MH, editor. *Handbook of parenting: Vol. 4. Social conditions and applied parenting*. Mahwah, NJ: Psychology Press; 2002. pp. 1–20.
- García, F., & Gracia, E. (2009). Is always authoritative the optimum parenting style? Evidence from Spanish families. *Family Therapy*, 36(1), 17–47.
- Gayles, J. G., Coatsworth, J. D., Pantin, H. M., & Szapocznik, J. (2009). Parenting and neighborhood predictors of youth problem behaviors within Hispanic Families. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Science*, 31, 277-296.
- Golish, T. D., & Caughlin, J. (2002). “I’d rather not talk about it”: Adolescents’ and young adults’ use of topic avoidance in stepfamilies. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 30, 78–106
- Gonzalez, A. R., Holbein, M. F. D., & Quilter, S. (2002). High school students’ goal orientations and their relationship to perceived parenting styles. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 27(3), 450–470. <https://doi-org.libproxy.edmc.edu/10.1006/ceps.2001.1104>

- Gonzalez, A., & Wolters, C. A. (2006). The relation between perceived parenting practices and achievement motivation in mathematics. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 21(2), 203-217. Retrieved from <https://login.libproxy.edmc.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.libproxy.edmc.edu/docview/203864019?accountid=34899>
- Grolnick WS, Ryan RM. (1989). Parent styles associated with children's self-regulation and competence in school. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 81:143–154.
- Guarnaccia, P. J., & Rodriguez, O. (1996). Concepts of culture and their role in the development of culturally competent mental health services. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 18, 419–443. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/07399863960184001>
- Hill NE, Bush KR, Roosa MW. (2003). Parenting and family socialization strategies and children's mental health: Low-income Mexican-American and Euro-American mothers and children. *Child Development*. 74:189–204
- Hughes, D., Rodriguez, J., Smith, E. P., Johnson, D. J., Stevenson, H. C., & Spicer, P. (2006). Parents' ethnic-racial socialization practices: A review of research and directions for future study. *Developmental Psychology*, 42, 747–770. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.42.5.747>
- Hunter, M. (2016). Colorism in the classroom: How skin tone stratifies African American and Latina/o students. *Theory Into Practice*, 55, 54–61. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2016.1119019>
- Izzo C, Weiss L, Shanahan T, Rodriguez-Brown F. (2000). Parental self-efficacy and social support as predictors of parenting practices and children's socioemotional adjustment in Mexican immigrant families. *Journal of Prevention & Intervention in the Community*. 20:197–213.

- Jabaghourian, J. J., Sorkhabi, N., Quach, W., & Strage, A. (2014). Parenting styles and practices of Latino parents and Latino fifth graders' academic, cognitive, social, and behavioral outcomes. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 36(2), 175–194. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1177/0739986314523289>
- Jimerson, S., Egeland, B., Sroufe, L. A., & Carlson, B. (2000). A prospective longitudinal study of high school dropouts examining multiple predictors across development. *Journal of School Psychology*, 38, 525– 549. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4405\(00\)00051-0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4405(00)00051-0)
- Karavasilis, L., Doyle, A. B., & Markiewicz, D. (2003). Associations between parenting style and attachment to mother in middle childhood and adolescence. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 27(2), 153. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1080/0165025024400015>
- Kazdin, A.E. (2005). *Parent management training: Treatment for oppositional, aggressive, and antisocial behavior in children and adolescents*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Kerka, S. (2000). Parenting and career development (Report No. EDO-CE-00-214). Columbus, OH: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Career and Vocational Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 440251).
- Kim, Y., & Calzada, E. J. (2018). Skin color and academic achievement in young, Latino children: Impacts across gender and ethnic group. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*. <https://doi-org.libproxy.edmc.edu/10.1037/cdp0000230>
- Kim, Y., Calzada, E. J., Barajas-Gonzalez, R. G., Huang, K.-Y., Brotman, L. M., Castro, A., & Pichardo, C. (2018). The role of authoritative and authoritarian parenting in the early academic achievement of Latino students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 110(1), 119–132. <https://doi-org.libproxy.edmc.edu/10.1037/edu0000192>

- Lamborn, S.D., Mounts, N.S., Steinberg, L., & Dornbusch, S.M. (1991). Patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, neglectful families. *Child Development*, *62*, 1049–1076.
- Lansford, J. E., Rothenberg, W. A., Riley, J., Uribe Tirado, L. M., Yotanyamaneewong, S., Alampay, L. P., Al, H. S. M., Bacchini, D., Bornstein, M. H., Chang, L., Deater, D. K., Di Giunta, L., Dodge, K. A., Gurdal, S., Liu, Q., Long, Q., Malone, P. S., Oburu, P., Pastorelli, C., & Skinner, A. T. (2021). Longitudinal trajectories of four domains of parenting in relation to adolescent age and puberty in nine countries. *Child Development*, *92*(4), e493–e512. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/cdev.13526>
- Lauderdale, M.K. & Heckman, S.J. (2017). Family background and higher education attainment among children of immigrants. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, *38* (3), 327–337.
- Lee, J.C. & Hatteberg, S.J. (2015). Bilingualism and status attainment among Latinos. *The Sociological Quarterly*, *56*, 695-722.
- Limperopulos, N. (2015). Our forgotten sons: The underachievement of boys of color in America’s urban centers. In M. C. K. Esposito & A. H. Normore (Eds.), *Inclusive practices and social justice leadership for special populations in urban settings: A moral imperative*. (pp. 165–187). IAP Information Age Publishing.
- Livingston, G. & Kahn, J.R. (2002). An American dream unfulfilled: The limited mobility of Mexican Americans. *Social Science Quarterly*, *83* (4), 1003–1012.
- Llagas, C. (2003). Status and trends in the education of Hispanics. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/e492162006-025>
- Lopez, M. H., Krogstad, J. M., & Passel, J. S. (2021, September 23). Who is Hispanic. Medium. <https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2021/09/23/who-is-hispanic/>

- Lorenzo-Blanco, E.I., Unger, J.B., Baezconde-Garbanati, L., & Ritt-Olson, A. (2012). Acculturation, enculturation, and symptoms of depression in Hispanic youth: The roles of gender, Hispanic cultural values, and family functioning. *Journal of Youth Adolescence*, *41*(10), 1350-1365.
- Lutz, A., & Crist, S. (2014). Why do bilingual boys get better grades in English-only America? The impacts of gender, language and family interaction on academic achievement of Latino/a children of immigrants. In *Gender, Race and Religion* (pp. 142-164). London: Routledge.
- Maccoby, E.E., & Martin, J.A. (1983). Socialization within the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. In P.H. Mussen & E.M. Hetherington (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology; Vol. 4. Socialization, personality and social development* (4th ed, pp. 1-101). New York: Wiley.
- Marotta, S. A., and Garcí a, J. G. (2003). Latinos in the United States in 2000. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *15*, 13-34.
- Marsiglio, W., P. Amato, R. D. Day, and M. E. Lamb. 2000. Scholarship on father- hood in the 1990s and beyond. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *62*, 1173-1191.
- Martí nez, E. A. (1999). Mexican American/Chicano families: Parenting as diverse as the families themselves. In McAdoo, H. P. (ed.), *Family ethnicity: Strength in diversity*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 121-134.
- Mekonnen, M. A. (2017). Effects of family educational background, dwelling and parenting style on students' academic achievement: The case of secondary schools in Bahir Dar. *Educational Research and Reviews*, *12*(18), 939-949. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com.libproxy.edmc.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ1156278&site=eds-live>

- Milovanska-Farrington, S. (2022). Education in the times of a pandemic: Parental socioeconomic characteristics and time spent educating children. *Journal of Economic Studies*, 49(4), 716–734. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1108/JES-01-2021-0013>
- Mullis, R. L., Rathge, R., & Mullis, A. K. (2003). Predictors of academic performance during early adolescence: A contextual view. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 27, 541–548.
- Murphy, J.P. & Murphy, S.A. (2018). Get ready, get in, get through: Factors that influence Latino college student success. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, 17(1), 3-17.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2016). *Public High School Graduation Rates*. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_coi.asp
- National Scientific Council on the Developing Child (2012). *The science of neglect: The persistent absence of responsive care disrupts the developing brain: Working paper No. 12*. Retrieved from www.developingchild.harvard.edu.
- Nelson, S. K., Kushlev, K., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2014). The pains and pleasures of parenting: When, why, and how is parenthood associated with more or less well-being? *Psychological Bulletin*, 140(3), 846–895. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/a0035444>
- Oreopoulos, P., & Petronijevic, U. (2013). Making college worth it: A review of the returns to higher education. *Future of Children*, 41–65. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1353/foc.2013.0001>
- Parke RD, Coltrane S, Duffy S, Buriel R, Dennis J, Powers J, Widaman KF. (2004) Economic stress, parenting, and child adjustment in Mexican American and European American families. *Child Development*, 75,1632–1656. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2004.00807.x.

- Parke, R. D. and R. Buriel. 2006. Socialization in the family: Ecological and ethnic perspectives. In *Handbook of Child Psychology, vol. 3*, 6th ed. (pp. 429–504). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Parra-Cardona JR, Córdova D, Jr, Holtrop K, Villarruel FA, Wieling E. (2008). Shared ancestry, evolving stories: Similar and contrasting life experiences described by foreign born and U.S. born Latino parents. *Family Process*, 47(2), 157–172.
- Pew Research Center. Statistical portrait of Hispanics in the United States, 2012. n.d Table 1 from Pew Research Center's Hispanic Trends Project tabulations of 2000 Census (5% IPUMS) and 2012 American Community Survey (1% IPUMS). Retrieved from http://www.pewhispanic.org/files/2014/04/FINAL_Statistical-Portrait-of-Hispanics-in-the-United-States-2012.pdf.
- Pong, S., Hao, L. & Gardner, E. (2005). The roles of parenting styles and social capital in the school performance of immigrant Asian and Hispanic adolescents. *Social Science Quarterly*, 86(4), 928-950.
- Portes, A. & Rumbaut, R.G. (2001). *Legacies: The story of the immigrant second generation*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Portes, A., & Fernández-Kelly, P. (2008). No margin for error: Educational and occupational achievement among disadvantaged children of immigrants. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 620(1), 12-36.
- Portes, A., & Hao, L. (2002). The price of uniformity: Language, family and personality adjustment in the immigrant second generation. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 25(6), 889-912.
- Portes, A., & Hao, L. (2004). The schooling of children of immigrants: Contextual effects on the educational attainment of the second generation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 101(33), 11920-11927.

- Portes, A., & Rivas, A. (2011). The adaptation of migrant children. *The Future of Children*, 21(1), 219-246.
- Portes, A., Fernández-Kelly, P., & Haller, W. (2009). The adaptation of the immigrant second generation in America: Theoretical overview and recent evidence. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 35(7), 1077-1104.
- Power T. G. (2013). Parenting dimensions and styles: a brief history and recommendations for future research. *Childhood Obesity* (Print), 9 Suppl(Suppl 1), S14–S21.
<https://doi.org/10.1089/chi.2013.0034>
- Prelow HM, Weaver SR, Bowman MA, Swenson RR. (2010). Predictors of parenting among economically disadvantaged Latina mothers: Mediating and moderating factors. *Journal of Community Psychology*. 38:858–873.
- Raffaelli, M., & Ontai, L. L. (2004). Gender socialization in Latino/a families: Results from two retrospective studies. *Sex Roles*, 50(5-6), 287-299.
- Romm, K. F., Barry, C. M., & Alvis, L. M. (2020). How the Rich Get Riskier: Parenting and Higher-SES Emerging Adults' Risk Behaviors. *Journal of Adult Development*, 27(4), 281–293. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1007/s10804-020-09345-1>
- Serbin, L. A., & Karp, J. (2004). The intergenerational transfer of psychosocial risk: Mediators of vulnerability and resilience. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 55, 333–363.
- Sessa FM, Avenevoli S, Steinberg L, et al. (2001). Correspondence among informants on parenting: Preschool children, mothers, and observers. *Journal of Family Psychology*. 15:53–68.
- Siahaan, F., Lee, D. Y., & Kalist, D. E. (2014). Educational attainment of children of immigrants: Evidence from the national longitudinal survey of youth. *Economics of Education Review*, 38, 1-8.

- Slater MA, Power TG. (1987). Multidimensional assessment of parenting in single-parent families. In: Vincent JP (ed), *Advances in Family Intervention, Assessment, and Theory*. JAI Press: Greenwich, CT, 1987, pp. 197–228.
- Spera, C. (2005). A review of the relationship among parenting practices, parenting styles and adolescent school achievement. *Educational Psychology Review*, 17, 125–146.
- Steinberg, L. (2001). We know some things: Parent-adolescent relationships in retrospect and prospect. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 11, 1-19.
- Steinberg, L., Dornbusch, S. M., & Brown, B. B. (1992). Ethnic differences in adolescent achievement: An ecological perspective. *American Psychologist*, 47, 723-729.
- Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S.D., Darling, N., Mounts, N.S., & Dornbush, S.M. (1994). Overtime changes in adjustment and competence among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child Development*, 65, 754–770.
- Suarez-Orozco, C., & Suarez-Orozco, M. (1995). *Transformations: Migration, family life, and achievement motivation among Latino adolescents*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Sung Seek Moon, Suk-Young Kang, & Soonok An. (2009). Predictors of immigrant children's school achievement: A comparative study. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 23(3), 278–289. <https://doi-org.nl.idm.oclc.org/10.1080/02568540909594661>
- Terriquez, V. (2013). Latino fathers' involvement in their children's schools. *Family Relations*, 62(4), 662-675.
- Terriquez, V. (2014). Trapped in the working class? Prospects for the intergenerational (im)mobility of Latino youth. *Sociological Inquiry*, 84(3), 382–411.
- Tran, V.C. (2016). Social mobility among second-generation Latinos. *Contexts*, 15(2), 28-33.

U.S Census Bureau (2021) Bachelor's Degree Attainment in the United States: 2005-2019.

Retrieved from <https://www.census.gov/library/publications/2021/acs/acsbr-009.html>

U.S Census Bureau (2021). Bachelor's degree attainment in the United States: 2005-2019.

Retrieved from

<https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2021/acs/acsbr-009.pdf>.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2017). Educational Attainment in the United States: 2017. Retrieved from:

<https://www.census.gov/data/tables/2017/demo/education-attainment/cps-detailed-tables.html>

Updegraff, K.A., McHale, S.M., Whiteman, S.D., Thayer, S.M. & Delgado, M.Y. (2005).

Adolescent sibling relationships in Mexican American families: *Exploring the role of familism. Journal of Family Psychology, 19*(4), 512-522.

Varela RE, Vernberg EM, Sanchez-Sosa JJ, Riveros A, Mitchell M, Mashunkashey J. (2004).

Parenting style of Mexican, Mexican American, and Caucasian-non-Hispanic families: Social context and cultural influences. *Journal of Family Psychology. 18*:651–657

Villar, P., Angeles Luengo, M., Gomez-Fraguela, J. A., & Romero, E. (2006). Assessment of the validity of parenting constructs using multitrait-multimethod model. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 22*, 59-68.

Waters, M.C. & Jimenez, T.R. (2005). Assessing immigrant assimilation: New empirical and theoretical challenges. *Annual Review of Sociology, 31*(1), 105–125.

What is a good high school GPA for top US colleges? Crimson Education US. (n.d.). Retrieved December 20, 2022, from <https://www.crimsoneducation.org/us/blog/admissions-news/what-is-a-good-gpa/>

Younis, J. & Smolar, J. (1985). *Adolescent relations with mothers, fathers, and friends*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Appendix A

Demographic Questionnaire

1. How old are you? (13-18)
2. Gender: Male, Female, Other
3. Grade: 9th, 10th, 11th or 12th
4. Grade Point Average (GPA):
5. Socio-economic status:
Low
Middle
High
6. Where were you born: Country
7. Ethnicity:
Mexican
Puerto Rican
Cuban
Salvadorian
Dominican
Guatemalan
Colombian
Honduran
Ecuadorian
Peruvian
Mixed:
Other:

8. How many people live in your household (please include yourself):
9. Whom do you consider your primary parent: Mother, father, other?
10. Whom do you consider your secondary parent? Mother, father, other?
11. How old were your mother when she had you? Mother's age: ____
12. How old were your father when he had you? Father's age: ____
13. Parent's primary language: English, Spanish, other
14. Language spoken at home: English, Spanish, other
15. Mother's level of education: High school diploma or equivalent (GED), technical school, Associated degree or junior college, Bachelor's degree, Doctorate, Professional (Md, JD, DDS, etc.), None of the above (Less than high school)
16. Father's level of education: High school diploma or equivalent (GED), technical school, Associated degree or junior college, Bachelor's degree, Doctorate, Professional (Md, JD, DDS, etc.), None of the above (Less than high school)
17. How many siblings do you have:
18. Out of those sibling how many live in the same household as you?
19. Are they: biological siblings, ½ siblings, adopted or other?
20. Your primary Language: English, Spanish or other
21. Are you bilingual (English and Spanish)? Yes/No
22. Level of proficiency in Spanish:
No proficiency (know a few words, but can't form sentences)
Elementary proficiency (Can form basic sentences, including asking and answering simple questions)

Limited working proficiency (Can carry on limited causal conversation and discuss personal life)

Full professional proficiency (can have advanced discussions on a wide range of topics including Technical topics such as business and finance)

Native/Bilingual proficiency (was raised speaking the language as native tongue or completely Fluent with little to no accent)

23. Immigration generation: 1st generation (the foreign born), 2nd generation (the native born children of foreign born (or mixed) parents) and 3rd and higher generations (the native born children of native born parents)

Demographic Questionnaire Spanish

1. ¿Cuántos años tienes: 13-18
2. Género: Masculino, Femenino, Otro
3. Grado: 9, 10, 11 o 12
4. Promedio de calificaciones (GPA):
5. Estatus socioeconómico:
Bajo
Medio
Alto
6. Donde naciste: País
7. Etnicidad:
mexicano
puertorriqueño
cubano
salvadoreño
dominicano
guatemalteco
Colombiana
Hondureño
ecuatoriano
peruano
Mezclado:
Otro:

8. Cuántas personas viven en su hogar (inclúyase usted mismo):
9. ¿A quién consideras tu padre principal: madre, padre u otro?
10. Padre secundario: ¿madre, padre u otro?
11. ¿Cuántos años tenían tu mama cuando naciste? Edad de la madre:
12. ¿Cuántos años tenían tu papa cuando naciste? Edad del padre__

13. Idioma principal del padre: inglés, español, otro-

On the English versión is asking for the primary language of both mother and father (parents), one question Q 13 vs two question in the Spanish version asking for father's and mother's primary language separately, two questions Q 13 and 14.

14. Idioma principal de la madre: inglés, español, otro-

15. Idioma que se habla en casa: inglés, español, otro

16. Nivel de educación de los padre: diploma de escuela secundaria o equivalente (GED), escuela técnica, título asociado o universidad secundaria, licenciatura, doctorado, profesional (Md, JD, DDS, etc.), otros, ninguno de los anteriores (menos que alto colegio)

On the Spanish versión is only asking for the education level of the parents so one question only vs the English version that divides the question in two mother and father Q 15 and 16

17. Cuántos hermanos tiene usted:

18. De esos hermanos, ¿cuántos viven en el mismo hogar que usted?

19. ¿Son: hermanos biológicos, ½ hermanos, adoptados u otros?

20. Tu idioma principal:

21. ¿Eres bilingüe (inglés y español)? Sí No

22. Nivel de dominio del español:

Sin dominio (conoce algunas palabras, pero no puede formar oraciones)

Competencia elemental (puede formar oraciones básicas, incluidas preguntas y respuestas simples)

Competencia laboral limitada (puede mantener una conversación causal limitada y hablar sobre la vida personal)

Competencia profesional completa (puede tener debates avanzados sobre una amplia gama de temas, incluidos temas técnicos como negocios y finanzas)

Dominio nativo / bilingüe (se crió hablando el idioma como lengua nativa o completamente fluido con poco o ningún acento)

23. Generación de inmigración: 1ra generación (los nacidos en el extranjero), 2da generación (los niños nacidos en el extranjero de padres nacidos en el extranjero (o mixtos)) y 3ra y más generaciones (los niños nacidos en el país de los padres nacidos en el país)

**Appendix B
Recruitment Flyer**

CALLING ALL PARENTS OF **LATINO** HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Allow your student to take a short survey to give them a chance to



***Win a \$25
Gift Card***

THE SURVEY IS ABOUT YOUR BEHAVIOR AS A PARENT
PARENT PERMISSION IS NEEDED TO PARTICIPATE | USE THE QR CODE
TO ACCESS THE SURVEY

UN LLAMADO A TODOS LOS PADRES DE ESTUDIANTES **LATINOS**
DE BACHIDERATO/SECUNDARIA

Permitale a su estudiante/hijo/a participar para darles una oportunidad
de ganar



***Una tarjeta
de regalo de
\$25***

EL QUESTIONARIO ES SOBRE SU COMPORTAMIENTO COMO PADRE
SU PERMISO ES REQUERIDO ANTES DE PARTICIPAR | USE EL CODIGO QR
PARA VER EL QUESTIONARIO

CALLING ALL **LATINO** HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Take a short survey for a chance to



Win a \$25 Gift Card

THE SURVEY IS ABOUT YOUR PARENTS' BEHAVIOR
PARENT PERMISSION IS NEEDED TO PARTICIPATE | USE THE QR CODE
TO ACCESS THE SURVEY

UN LLAMADO A TODOS LOS ESTUDIANTES **LATINOS**
(BACHIDERATO/SECUNDARIA)

Responde un cuestionario corto y tendras la oportunidad de
ganar



una tarjeta de regalo de \$25

EL QUESTIONARIO ES SOBRE EL COMPORTAMIENTO DE TUS PADRES
PERMISO DE ELLOS ES REQUERIDO PARA PARTICIPAR | USA EL
CODIGO QR PARA VER EL QUESTIONARIO

Appendix C

Raffle Information Form

Thank you/Gracias



Please answer the questions below for a chance to win one of four \$25 Amazon gift cards. Please note the raffle will take place by February 2022 at the latest. You will be notified by email or phone if you win. Por favor responda las siguientes preguntas para tener la oportunidad de ganar una de cuatro tarjetas de regalo de Amazon \$25. La rifa se realizara mas tardar en Febrero 2022. En caso de que ganes seras contactado por correo electronico o telefono.

Name/Nombre *

Short answer text

Email/Correo electronico *

Short answer text

Phone number/ Numero de telefono

Short answer text

Appendix D Informed Consent Form

Informed Consent Form

My name is Carolina Arboleda, and I am a **graduate student** at National Louis University. I am asking your permission to have your student participate in this study, **“Parenting styles in the Latino population: clarifying research and its impact on academic achievement,”** occurring from **08-2022 to 12-2022**. This study explores the parenting styles utilized by Latino parents of high school students and the relationship, if any, with the students’ grade point average (GPA).

This study will help researchers develop a deeper understanding of parenting styles in the Latino community that can guide ongoing school interventions to improve students’ academic achievement. This research will also contribute to the body of parenting literature. This form outlines the purpose of the study and describes your involvement and rights as a participant.

By clicking “I agree” below, you are providing consent for your student to participate in a research project conducted by Carolina Arboleda, graduate student, at National Louis University, Chicago.

Please understand that the purpose of the study is to explore the parenting styles utilize by Latino parents of high school students and *not* to evaluate parenting. Participation in this study will include:

Completion of one online survey that takes about 30 minutes to complete.

The participation of your student is voluntary and can be discontinued at any time without penalty or bias. The results of this study may be published or otherwise reported at conferences and employed to inform interventions for Latino parents or students at local schools. Still, participants’ identities will not be revealed (data will be reported anonymously and bear no identifiers that could connect data to individual participants). To ensure confidentiality the researcher(s) will secure the completed surveys in a Survey Money’s platform secured account. The data will be destroyed after 3 years. Only Carolina Arboleda, her Chair Dr. Charles Davis and a statistician will have access to the data.

There are no anticipated risks or benefits, no greater than those encountered in daily life. Further, the information gained from this study could be useful to the schools and other mental health professionals looking to implement interventions for Latino families and their students. After completing the entire survey your student will have the opportunity to participate in a raffle of one of four \$25 Amazon gift cards. The student will be asked to provide their name and email address (phone number optional) in a Google Form in order to be contacted if they win the raffle.

Upon request, you may receive summary results from this study and copies of any publications that may occur. Please email the researcher, Carolina Arboleda at [REDACTED] to request results from this study.

In the event that you have questions or require additional information, please contact the researcher, Carolina Arboleda, email [REDACTED], phone: [REDACTED]

If you have any concerns or questions before or during participation that has not been addressed by the researcher, you may contact Research Chair: Dr. Charles Davis; email: [REDACTED] phone: [REDACTED] the co-chairs of NLU's Institutional Research Board: Dr. Shaunti Knauth; email: [REDACTED]; phone: [REDACTED]; or Dr. Kathleen Cornett; email: [REDACTED]; phone: [REDACTED]. Co-chairs are located at National Louis University, 122 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, IL.

Revised July 2019

Thank you for your consideration.

Parent consent: By clicking "I agree" below you are indicating that you are at least 18 years old, have read this consent form and agree for your student to participate in this study **Parenting styles in the Latino population: clarifying research and its impact on academic achievement**. Your student's participation will consist of the activities below during *30 minutes time period*:

Completion of one only survey taking approximately 30 minutes to complete.

ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below. You may print a copy of this consent form for your records. Clicking on the "Agree" button indicates that

- You have read the above information
- You voluntarily agree for your student to participate
- You are 18 years of age or older

- .. Agree
- .. Disagree

Student Assent: By clicking "I agree" below, I (Student) *agree to participate in the program of research named above and understand that my participation is voluntary. Your participation includes the completion of one online survey taking approximately 30 minutes to complete. You are free to skip any question that you choose.*

Agree

Disagree

Informed consent in Spanish

Consentimiento informado y formulario de consentimiento

Mi nombre es Carolina Arboleda y soy una estudiante en la Universidad Nacional Louis. Le pido su permiso para que su estudiante participe en este estudio, "Estilos de crianza en la población latina: aclarando la investigación y su impacto en el rendimiento académico", que se produce del 08-2021 al 12-2022. Este estudio explora los estilos de crianza utilizados por los padres latinos de estudiantes de secundaria y la relación, si la hay, con el promedio de calificaciones (GPA) de los estudiantes.

Este estudio ayudará a los investigadores a desarrollar una comprensión más profunda de los estilos de crianza en la comunidad latina que pueden guiar las intervenciones escolares en curso para mejorar el rendimiento académico de los estudiantes. Esta investigación también contribuirá al cuerpo de literatura para padres. Este formulario describe el propósito del estudio y describe su participación y sus derechos como participante.

Al hacer clic en "Acepto" a continuación, está dando su consentimiento para que su estudiante participe en un proyecto de investigación realizado por Carolina Arboleda, estudiante graduada, en la Universidad Nacional Louis, Chicago.

Por favor, comprenda que el propósito del estudio es explorar los estilos de crianza utilizados por los padres latinos de estudiantes de secundaria y no evaluar la crianza de los hijos. La participación en este estudio incluirá:

Completar una encuesta en línea que demora aproximadamente 20 minutos en completarse.

La participación de su estudiante es voluntaria y puede discontinuarse en cualquier momento sin penalización ni prejuicio. Los resultados de este estudio pueden publicarse o informarse de otra manera en conferencias y emplearse para informar intervenciones para padres o estudiantes latinos en escuelas locales. Aún así, las identidades de los participantes no se revelarán (los datos se informarán de forma anónima y no tendrán identificadores que puedan conectar los datos con los participantes individuales). Para garantizar la confidencialidad, los investigadores asegurarán las encuestas completadas en una cuenta segura de la plataforma Survey Monkey.

Los datos se destruirán después de 3 años. Solo Carolina Arboleda, su presidente, el Dr. Charles Davis y un estadístico tendrán acceso a los datos.

No hay riesgos o beneficios previstos, no mayores que los que se encuentran en la vida diaria. Además, la información obtenida de este estudio podría ser útil para las escuelas y otros profesionales de la salud mental que buscan implementar intervenciones para las familias latinas y sus estudiantes. Después de completar toda la encuesta, su estudiante tendrá la oportunidad de participar en una rifa de una de una de cuatro tarjetas de regalo de Amazon de \$ 25. Se le pedirá al estudiante que proporcione su nombre y

dirección de correo electrónico (número de teléfono opcional) en un formulario de Google para ser contactado si gana la rifa.

A pedido, puede recibir resultados resumidos de este estudio y copias de cualquier publicación que pueda ocurrir. Envíe un correo electrónico a la investigadora, Carolina Arboleda, a [REDACTED] para solicitar los resultados de este estudio.

En caso de que tenga preguntas o necesite información adicional, comuníquese con la investigadora, Carolina Arboleda, correo electrónico [REDACTED], teléfono: [REDACTED].

Si tiene alguna inquietud o pregunta antes o durante la participación que no haya sido atendida por el investigador, puede comunicarse con el Presidente de Investigación: Dr. Charles Davis; correo electrónico: [REDACTED]; teléfono [REDACTED], los copresidentes de la Junta de Investigación Institucional de la NLU: Dr. Shaunti Knauth; correo electrónico: [REDACTED]; teléfono: [REDACTED]; o la Dra. Kathleen Cornett; correo electrónico: [REDACTED]; teléfono: [REDACTED]. Los copresidentes se encuentran en la National Louis University, 122 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, IL.

Revisado en julio de 2019

Gracias por su consideración.

Consentimiento de los padres: al hacer clic en "Acepto" a continuación, indica que tiene al menos 18 años de edad, ha leído este formulario de consentimiento y acepta que su estudiante participe en este estudio Estilos de crianza en la población latina: aclarando la investigación y su impacto en logro académico. La participación de su estudiante consistirá en las siguientes actividades durante un período de tiempo de 30 minutos:

La finalización de una sola encuesta demora aproximadamente 30 minutos en completarse.

CONSENTIMIENTO ELECTRÓNICO: Seleccione su elección a continuación. Puede imprimir una copia de este formulario de consentimiento para sus registros. Al hacer clic en el botón "Acepto" indica que

- Has leído la información anterior
- Acepta voluntariamente participar
- Tiene 18 años de edad o más

De acuerdo

Desacuerdo

Asentimiento del estudiante: Al hacer clic en "De acuerdo" a continuación, yo (Estudiante) acepto participar en el programa de investigación mencionado anteriormente y entiendo que mi participación es voluntaria. Su participación incluye completar una encuesta en línea que demora aproximadamente 30 minutos en completarse. Eres libre de saltar cualquier pregunta que elijas.

De acuerdo

Desacuerdo

Appendix E

Assent Form

Project Title: **Parenting styles in the Latino population: clarifying research and its impact on academic achievement,”**

Investigator: Carolina Arboleda

We are doing a research study about *the ways in which your parents discipline you*. A research study is a way to learn more about people. If you decide that you want to be part of this study, you will be asked to *fill out an online survey that takes about 30 minutes to complete*.

There are some things about this study you should know. There are no anticipated risks or benefits, no greater than those encountered in daily life. Further, the information gained from this study could be useful to the schools and other mental health professionals looking to help Latino families and their students. These are *procedures, things that take a long time, other risks, discomforts, etc.*

Not everyone who takes part in this study will benefit. A benefit means that something good happens to you. We think these benefits might be *taking time to reflect about how your parents discipline you*.

You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to be. If you decide to stop after we begin, that's okay too. Your parents know about the study too. After completing the entire survey you will have the opportunity to participate in a raffle of one of four \$25 Amazon gift cards. You will be asked to provide your name and email address (phone number optional) in a Google Form in order to be contacted if you win the raffle. The raffle will take place by February 2022 at the latest.

When we are finished with this study, we will write a report about what was learned. This report will not include your name or that you were in the study.

If you decide you want to be in this study, please click “agree” below

Student Assent: By clicking “I agree” below, I (Student) *agree to participate in the program of research named above and understand that my participation is voluntary. Your participation includes the completion of one online survey taking approximately 20 minutes to complete. You are free to skip any question that you choose.*

Agree

Disagree

Assent Form Spanish

Título del proyecto: **Estilos de crianza en la población latina: aclarar la investigación y su impacto en el rendimiento académico ”.**

Investigadora: Carolina Arboleda

Estamos haciendo un estudio de investigación sobre *las formas en que tus padres te disciplinan*. Un estudio de investigación es una forma de aprender más sobre las personas. Si decide que desea ser parte de este estudio, se le pedirá que **complete una encuesta en línea que tarda unos 30 minutos en completarse**.

Hay algunas cosas sobre este estudio que debe saber. No hay riesgos o beneficios anticipados, no mayores que los que se encuentran en la vida diaria. Además, la información obtenida de este estudio podría ser útil para las escuelas y otros profesionales de la salud mental que buscan ayudar a las familias latinas y sus estudiantes. *Estos son procedimientos, cosas que llevan mucho tiempo, otros riesgos, molestias, etc.*

No todos los que participan en este estudio se beneficiarán. Un beneficio significa que te sucede algo bueno. Creemos que estos beneficios podrían *tomarse un tiempo para reflexionar sobre cómo tus padres te disciplinaron*. *Después de completar toda la encuesta, tendrá la oportunidad de participar en un sorteo de una de cuatro tarjetas de regalo de Amazon de \$ 25. Se le pedirá que proporcione su nombre y dirección de correo electrónico (número de teléfono opcional) en un formulario de Google para ser contactado si gana la rifa. La rifa tendrá lugar a más tardar en febrero de 2022.*

No es necesario que participe en este estudio si no lo desea. Si decides detenerte después de que comencemos, también está bien. Tus padres también conocen el estudio.

Cuando terminemos con este estudio escribiremos un informe sobre lo aprendido. Este informe no incluirá su nombre ni que estuvo en el estudio.

Si decide que desea participar en este estudio, haga clic en "De acuerdo" a continuación

Asentimiento del estudiante: Al hacer clic en "Acepto" a continuación, yo (el estudiante) acepto participar en el programa de investigación mencionado anteriormente y entiendo que mi participación es voluntaria. Su participación incluye la realización de una encuesta en línea que tarda aproximadamente 30 minutos en completarse. Puede omitir cualquier pregunta que elija.

De acuerdo

En desacuerdo

Appendix F

Demographic Characteristics

Characteristic	n	%
Gender		
Female	28	52.8
Male	25	47.2
Grade		
Nine	10	18.9
Ten	12	22.6
Eleven	12	22.6
Twelve	19	35.8
Socio Economic Status		
Low	8	15.1
Medium	38	71.7
High	7	13.2
Parent Origin/Ethnicity		
Mexican	26	49.1
Cuban	6	11.3
Salvadorian	6	11.3
Colombian	5	9.4
Puerto Rican	4	7.5
Dominican	3	5.7

Other	3	5.7
Country of Birth		
US	50	94.3
Spain	1	1.9
Blank	2	3.8
Primary Parent*		
Mother	37	69.9
Father	16	30.2
Secondary Parent		
Mother	29	54.7
Father	23	45.3
Parents' First Language		
English	35	66.0
Spanish	18	34.0
Language Spoken at Home		
English	40	75.5
Spanish	13	24.5
Spanish Proficiency		
No Proficiency	6	11.3
Elementary	13	24.5
Limited	19	35.0
Native	9	17.0
Professional	6	11.3

HS GPA	Mean	SD
	3.19	0.08

* 14 listed Mother as both primary and secondary

1 listed father as both

Appendix G

Acknowledgment and Dissemination of Results

Thank you for your participation in my research!

If you would like to be informed of the results of this study, please enter your e-mail address here. Please note: that your e-mail address will **not** be linked to your survey responses.

With great appreciation,

Carolina Arboleda