

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Chapter 1 : Immigrant generations - Wikipedia

adolescents change their perspective on many issues that they had previously viewed as ones their parents had legitimate authority to regulate Family Stems Theory A perspective on family functioning that emphasizes interconnections among different family relationships (such as marital, parent-child, sibling).

This article has been cited by other articles in PMC. Eighteen studies met full inclusion criteria. First generation immigrant adolescents experience higher rate of bullying and peer aggression compared to third generation and native counterparts. Refugee status and advanced parental age were associated with increased parent to child aggression among South East Asians. Family cohesion was associated with lower rates of violence. Bullying and peer aggression of immigrant children and adolescents and potential mitigating factors such as family cohesion warrant research and program attention by policymakers, teachers and parents. Each year, tens of millions of children and adolescents immigrate to new communities in new countries with or to join their parents [2]. One example of risk to safety and security for immigrant adolescents is bullying and peer aggression. These forms of violence have emerged as particular concerns, with studies out of Australia, North America and Europe demonstrating risks to immigrant adolescents [5]. This may have implications for the identity and mental health of immigrant adolescents [10]. In the general population, several studies have shown an association between bullying and suicide-related behaviors, [1 , 2 , 13 – 15] and a study found evidence consistent with a causal link, at least for girls [16 , 17]. Immigrant adolescents may be particularly vulnerable to safety and security risks when there is conflict between familial and school or societal expectations [18]. In a study of Vietnamese and Cambodian immigrant adolescents in the U. Despite evidence demonstrating increased risk of immigrant adolescents to bullying, peer aggression, and mental health problems, there is little explicit information comparing the experiences of new immigrant adolescents with their later-generation counterparts [20 – 22]. Our review seeks to address this gap by examining the likelihood of new immigrant adolescents to experience bullying and peer aggression, other forms of violence including parent-to-child aggression and sexual abuse , and suicidal behaviours. We also sought to identify potential moderators of these risks and variations across immigrant groups. We define first generation immigrant adolescents as those born in the country of cultural origin and who have immigrated with their parents to a new host country. Second generation immigrant adolescents are those born in the host country to at least one immigrant parent. Third generation immigrants are born in the host country to parents who were born in the host country. Our comparison groups were non-immigrant or third generation immigrant adolescents living in the same community [20 – 22]. This review aimed to address two research questions: Do first generation immigrant adolescents face a higher likelihood of bullying, aggression, and violence than their third generation or native born counterparts? Do first generation immigrant adolescents face a higher likelihood of suicide and suicidal ideation compared to third generation and native born counterparts? Methods The methodology for this systematic review was based on the six stage framework outlined by the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions [23]: Search and Selection A sensitive search of electronic bibliographic databases was performed to retrieve all articles combining the concepts of cultural discordance, immigrant and refugee children and adolescents, and safety and security. The search strategy was devised on Ovid Medline and then adapted for other databases. All references were imported into an EndNote Library and tagged with the name of the database. Duplicates were removed within EndNote, leaving the final total of results at 2, 2, from the electronic databases and 4 from other sources. Two reviewers independently screened titles and abstracts of all 2, studies, applying inclusion and exclusion criteria and identifying relevant articles. Inclusion criteria included observational designs, a sample of greater than participants, and reporting on our outcome variables and our target populations: Discrepancies were resolved by consensus. However, if consensus could not be made between two reviewers, a third party expert was involved for tiebreaking. This occurred in only three instances. Papers which met criteria were then subject to a full text review. Certainty of

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Effect Assessment Two reviewers independently appraised and extracted details of the selected articles using standardised abstraction forms, and resolved discrepancies by consensus. We report the quality rating for outcomes in the results. We used a narrative synthesis method to integrate related findings into descriptive summaries [23]. Of the initial 2, studies, met our criteria for full appraisal. After repeated appraisals, 18 studies met full inclusion criteria.

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Chapter 2 : Adolescent-parent attachment: Bonds that support healthy development

Adolescent fathers are more likely to live in poverty, with adolescent fatherhood, like adolescent motherhood, often repeated from one generation to the next. 6,26 Adult men who father children with adolescent mothers are also more likely to be impoverished. 6 One study found that 64% of unwed fathers ages 19 to 26 years lived with a parent or.

Telephone , fax , e-mail ac. All rights reserved This article has been cited by other articles in PMC. Abstract Adolescence is characterized by significant neurological, cognitive and sociopsychological development. With the advance of adolescence, the amount of time spent with parents typically drops while time spent with peers increases considerably. Adolescent-parent attachment has profound effects on cognitive, social and emotional functioning. Secure attachment is associated with less engagement in high risk behaviours, fewer mental health problems, and enhanced social skills and coping strategies. The present article provides a brief synopsis of the changes that occur during adolescence and describes what attachment is, why it continues to be important and how it is transformed during adolescence. It summarizes major findings on the impact of attachment on adolescent adjustment and discusses strategies for supporting healthy adolescent-parent attachment. It is a period of biological, cognitive and social change of such magnitude and rapidity that it is no surprise to find that it is associated with the onset or exacerbation of a number of health-related problems including depression 1 , eating disorders 2 , substance abuse and dependence 3 4 5 , risky sexual behaviour 6 , antisocial and delinquent activity 7 and school dropout 8. In recent years, the role of parental influence in adolescent adjustment has been seriously questioned. Some researchers have argued that parents make little or no difference in how their children navigate the adolescent period, pointing instead to data showing that peer influence dominates this period 9. Contrary to this position, there is growing evidence that parents do make a difference, and that this difference operates through the nature of their attachment bond with their child 10 11. Although this has long been recognized by social scientists and mental health professionals eg, psychiatrists, psychologists and other adolescent health specialists , the true depth of the changes that occur during this period have yet to be fully understood. New research points to significant transformations in neurological structure and function. Dopamine production and functional levels of other neuro-transmitters change throughout adolescence, reaching adult stabilization levels at approximately 16 years of age. Significant transformations occur in prefrontal cortex function, supporting increasing capacity for abstract thinking and problem solving 14 and strategic response inhibition. Rapid hormonal changes also characterize this developmental period. Contrary to popular opinion, hormonal changes do not directly account for behavioural changes during adolescence. However, changes in neurological structure and neurotransmitter function have been implicated in increased irritability, anhedonia and risk taking behaviour which have been documented to increase during adolescence. Changes in neurological development are accompanied by significant cognitive development; in particular, the capacity for abstract thought and complex problem solving. Metacognitive and representational capacity grows from early to late adolescence 17 18. Adolescents are increasingly able to simultaneously represent and compare multiple perspectives and attributes, promoting a more differentiated view of the world, including how adolescents see themselves and others around them 20 21. Early in adolescence, however, the ability to differentiate outstrips the capacity to integrate diverse information, leading adolescents to view the world in black and white terms, and to feel at odds with seemingly contradictory aspects of themselves. It is not until late adolescence that conflicting aspects of the self can be integrated into a coherent sense of self 24. Alongside these rapid biological changes, adolescents enter a new social-psychological phase of life. It is normal for the amount of time spent with parents to drop precipitously while time spent with peers increases. New social roles open up for adolescents, taking them further from their families. Dating relationships begin in early adolescence 22 23 around 13 years of age for girls and 14 years of age for boys 34 35 although it is not until late adolescence that these relationships are characterized by genuine intimacy and deep emotional involvement. In summary, adolescence involves significant

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

transformations in almost every domain of functioning. However, in the adolescent phase of development, the parent-child relationship is thrown into flux as children strive toward autonomy and parents struggle to find new ways of supporting their children in the context of a different relationship. It is not surprising that the nature of the adolescent-parent attachment bond is paramount to how both parties negotiate this transition. The concept of attachment was proposed by Bowlby 39 – 41 more than three decades ago to describe the fundamental bond between parent and infant that is essential to survival and development. Under conditions of stress such as illness, unfamiliar environments and being left alone, infants direct certain behaviours toward their caregivers to gain protection and safety. In the absence of stress, proximity-seeking behaviours are reduced and the attachment system enables children to engage in other adaptive behaviours that promote exploration and mastery of the environment. Parental attunement and appropriate responsiveness give rise to secure attachment, marked by a view of the self as worthy of care and competent in mastering the environment, and a view of others as reliable and effective. Securely attached children readily seek out their caregivers when distressed, but feel sufficiently safe to explore their environment at times of low stress. In contrast, parental unavailability and harsh rejection is associated with insecure anxious-avoidant attachment. These children view themselves as unlovable and unable to attract care from their parents, and they view others as punitive and disinterested in them. Anxious-avoidant children are reluctant to approach their parents even when distressed, because they fear their overtures for comfort will be rejected or punished. Parental inconsistency is associated with anxious-ambivalent attachment. These children view themselves as unable to sustain the interest and care of others. However, they view others as able to provide support if their attention can be secured and sustained. Anxious-ambivalent children are vigilant about the whereabouts and responsiveness of their parents and display heightened overtures of need to provoke parental responsiveness. Their preoccupation with the availability of their parents inhibits appropriate exploration of their environment. Evidence of the impact of parental attachment on early to middle childhood development is indisputable and immense. Attachment has been shown to influence almost every aspect of early childhood development, from neurocognitive development to social-behavioural competence 42 . Importantly, research demonstrates that the quality of attachment varies according to the nature of parent-child interactions, ruling out the notion that it is determined entirely by dispositional qualities of the infant and young child. Studies also show that while early attachment exerts substantial influence over later development, attachment status can change as a function of deterioration and stress in the parent-child relationship or improvements in the relationship 46 . Adolescence also presents an attachment dilemma, that is, maintaining connection with parents while exploring new social roles away from the family and developing attachment relationships with peers and romantic partners. Of great importance is the fact that the successful transition of adolescence is not achieved through detachment from parents 48 . In fact, healthy transition to autonomy and adulthood is facilitated by secure attachment and emotional connectedness with parents. In a nutshell, research shows that attachment security in adolescence exerts precisely the same effect on development as it does in early childhood: Studies of nonclinical samples 52 , 53 show that securely attached adolescents are less likely to engage in excessive drinking, drug use and risky sexual behaviour. Among females, attachment security is related to lower rates of teenage pregnancy. Securely attached adolescents also suffer fewer mental health problems such as anxiety, depression, inattention, thought problems, conduct disorder, delinquency and aggression 52 , 54 –” Attachment security in female adolescents is related to fewer weight-related concerns 57 and less frequent eating disorders. Attachment security in adolescence also predicts more constructive coping skills 53 , 59 and significant gains in social skills from 16 to 18 years of age. Securely attached adolescents manage the transition to high school more successfully, enjoy more positive relationships and experience less conflict with family and peers than do insecurely attached adolescents 61 –” Findings from clinical samples are consistent with those from normative samples: Secure attachment is clearly important to healthy adolescent adjustment. Research suggests that the attachment function of parents changes in some ways, but remains stable in others. For example, while young children require close proximity and physical availability of parents to provide

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

comfort when they are distressed, adolescents do not need the same degree of proximity and can derive comfort from knowing their parents are supportive even when they are not present. However, parental sensitivity and attunement continue to be essential in maintaining attachment security during adolescence, especially in the domain of autonomy needs. Conflict itself is not a sign of poor relationship quality, because it will unquestionably arise in healthy relationships as parents exert appropriate levels of behavioural control over their adolescents, negotiating increasing responsibility as competence develops. In summary, while the presence of conflict in the parent-adolescent relationship is normal, how the parent-adolescent dyad negotiates conflicts and sustains their relationship is diagnostic. Adolescents who feel understood by their parents and trust their commitment to the relationship, even in the face of conflict, confidently move forward toward early adulthood. These securely attached adolescents do not avoid conflict, exploration and individuation, nor do they prematurely push to independence without the support of their parents. They need to know what to expect in their relationship with their child, and how best to manage the transition of adolescence. Many parents experience the increase in parent-child conflict that occurs during adolescence as a personal rejection of the relationship and their importance to their child. This perception is mistaken, although entirely understandable in light of the conflict and communication difficulties that often occur between parents and their teenage children. Helping parents to reframe the meaning of conflict as an opportunity to build their relationship with their adolescent child can be of great assistance to parents. Many parents of adolescents require in-depth support to develop the skills that are necessary to support their children through adolescence. A number of therapeutic interventions have evolved from attachment theory, although the majority of these focus on families with younger children or on marital relationships. Fortunately, therapeutic interventions are emerging for families with adolescent children, and many show considerable promise in reducing risk behaviour in adolescents (12, 72). Parental interventions that focus on attachment and the development of sensitivity, attunement and conflict negotiation can be particularly beneficial. Changing the myth of adolescent detachment, however, requires efforts that extend beyond the mental health system. Public health initiatives that encourage parents to stay connected with their adolescents would help to change the general impression that parents and society hold about adolescent disinterest and rebellion. Support within the educational system, emphasizing the continued importance of attachment to parents and other adults during adolescence, would also be beneficial. In summary, evidence clearly points to the continued importance of adolescent-parent attachment as a determinant of health during this development phase and beyond. It is essential for mental health and other health and education professionals to be knowledgeable about adolescent development and the value of adolescent-parent attachment. Shifting our assumptions about adolescence as a period of detachment and rebellion to a view that better fits the reality of this developmental period and stresses the importance of staying connected is well overdue.

Eating disorders in the adolescent population: Developmental neurocircuitry of motivation in adolescence: A critical period of addiction vulnerability. National survey results on adolescent drug use: National Institute on Drug Abuse; A comparative analysis of cigarette, alcohol, and illicit drug use among an ethnically diverse sample of hispanic, African American, and non-hispanic white adolescents. Romerl D, Stanton BF. Feelings about risk and the epidemic diffusion of adolescent sexual behavior. Natural histories of delinquency. US Department of Education. A group socialization theory of development. Health Canada, Child and Family Division; Attachment to parents and adjustment in adolescence: Literature review and policy implications. Parent child relationships and adjustment in adolescence: Moretti MM, Holland R. Navigating the journey of adolescence: Parental attachment and the self from a systemic perspective.

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Chapter 3 : Immigration: Intergenerational differences | Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development

d. both adolescents and their parents begin to deal with the potential gap that exists between what they have thus far aspired to be, and what they have actually become B One of the major stressors in many U.S. families during adolescence is the fact that adolescents, compared to younger children, require greater.

The process of acculturation begins when immigrants enter a new country and involves changes in language, behaviour, attitudes and values. Children become involved in the new culture relatively quickly, particularly if they attend school, but their parents may never acquire sufficient comfort with the new language and culture to become socially integrated into their new country. In addition, immigrant children may have few opportunities to participate in and learn about their heritage culture. As a result, immigrant parents and children increasingly live in different cultural worlds. For adult immigrants their native language will remain primary, even many years after resettlement. Yet most children learn the new language very quickly, becoming conversationally proficient within years, and attaining academic mastery of the language within Parents and children may also misunderstand one another because of cultural differences in expectations for parent and child behaviour and family relationships. Immigrant parents may endorse cultural beliefs that children must put family needs before their own, and that adolescents should delay dating or even avoid friendships with members of the opposite sex. Immigrant parents may also have strict and controlling parenting styles that in their heritage culture are considered warm and attentive to the child,¹⁰ but that in the host culture are considered authoritarian. At the same time, adolescents may embrace the opportunity to engage in unsupervised activities and behaviours that may be normative in the host society such as dating but unacceptable in their heritage culture and to their parents. Problems A growing number of studies assess acculturation gaps in immigrant families, but some have argued that acculturation gaps may not always occur in the direction stipulated by the acculturation gap hypothesis, and the negative impact of acculturation gaps may be overstated. Measures of acculturation dissonance ask adolescents to report on their perceptions of cultural differences or conflict between them and their parents. The acculturation gap hypothesis stipulates that parents are more acculturated to the heritage culture than their children, and adolescents are more acculturated to the new culture than their parents. Research Context The majority of acculturation gap research is based on questionnaire studies of immigrant families. This research has largely focused on adolescents because they are in a developmental stage when many of them are embarking on gaining independence from their parents. For immigrant youth, gaining independence is also associated with forging a new cultural identity. Studies include first, second or later generation immigrant adolescents. Some restrict their samples to first generation immigrant children and their parents;¹ some focus on children of immigrant parents born in the host culture;¹⁵ still others include mixed samples and do not specify generational status or conduct separate analyses by generational status. Do acculturation gaps predict family conflict or other problems in family adjustment? Recent Research Results Do acculturation gaps predict difficulties in adolescent adjustment? Research shows that both acculturation gaps and cultural dissonance between parents and adolescents are linked to adolescent adjustment, including depression, problem behaviours and academic achievement. Symptoms of depression were linked to parent-child acculturation dissonance for Chinese-American adolescents. In another study, alcohol and tobacco use was also associated with acculturation gaps in heritage culture for Mexican-American adolescents. Academic achievement has been predicted by acculturation gaps in several studies. Gaps in Chinese language proficiency predict lower academic achievement for Chinese-Americans. Do acculturation gaps predict problems in family adjustment? Family conflict has been linked to acculturation gaps in a number of studies with different populations. Family conflict was predicted by acculturation gaps in Chinese language use⁷ and behavioural and psychological acculturation²³ for Chinese-Canadian adolescents. Father-child gaps in degree of assimilation were related to parent-child conflict for Mexican-American families. In addition, gaps in Vietnamese and American identity were linked to conflict in Vietnamese and former Soviet families,

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

respectively. Finally, Chinese-American immigrant mothers who perceived larger gaps with their pre-adolescent children were more likely to report less success in parenting. In a study of Mexican-American adolescents, acculturation gaps in heritage culture and American acculturation did not predict family adjustment. Family conflict appears to mediate the relation between acculturation gaps and adolescent adjustment. Discrepancies in acculturation were linked to more family conflict, which was negatively related to less family bonding; less bonding was in turn related to more problem behavior for Cambodian- and Vietnamese-Americans. For Chinese-American adolescents, discrepancies in heritage and American acculturation between parents and adolescents predicted fewer supportive parenting practices inductive reasoning techniques, parental monitoring, which mediated the relations between gaps and adolescent depressive symptoms. Conflict and poor adolescent outcomes in immigrant families may be a function, not of acculturation gaps per se, but of other contextual factors. It is plausible that well-functioning families with good communication and close relationships are able to handle acculturation gaps without disrupting family functioning. Family functioning alone is a better predictor of adolescent delinquency than acculturation gaps. These complexities need to be unraveled through longitudinal and qualitative research that aims to understand the dynamics of acculturation gaps in immigrant families. Conclusions The acculturation gap hypothesis states that, because immigrant children and their parents acculturate at different rates, acculturation gaps emerge between them. In particular, acculturation gaps are expected to occur such that parents are more acculturated to the heritage culture than their children, and children are more acculturated to the host culture than their parents. Such acculturation gaps or acculturation dissonance are thought to give rise to family misunderstandings and conflict, which in turn have negative impact on immigrant children. Dissonance or gaps between parents and children predict adolescent adjustment, family conflict or parenting difficulties. Furthermore, family conflict mediates the relation between acculturation dissonance or gaps and adolescent adjustment. Thus, existing research largely supports the acculturation gap hypothesis. However, a few studies report no evidence of the negative impact of the gap on family adjustment²⁵ or that gaps between parents and children exist in opposite directions than predicted by the theory. Implications for Parents, Services and Policy The implications of this line of research are that reducing acculturation gaps between parents and children may also reduce family conflict and improve child and adolescent adjustment in immigrant families. In particular, several studies have noted the importance of gaps in heritage language proficiency or use for family conflict^{1,6} and adolescent adjustment. This finding suggests the potential importance of helping immigrant children retain their heritage language. Services designed to reduce acculturation gaps can take a variety of forms. Schools may reach out to immigrant parents to orient them to schooling in their new culture, and in this way help reduce gaps in knowledge and understanding between the generations. Acculturation gap and family adjustment: Findings with Soviet Jewish refugees in the U. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* ;37 5: Acculturation and Parent-Child Relationships: Birman D, Trickett EJ. Cultural transitions in first-generation immigrants: Acculturation of Soviet Jewish refugee adolescents and parents. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* ;32 4: Szapocznik J, Kurtines W. Acculturation, biculturalism and adjustment among Cuban Americans. Theory models and some new findings. *Family psychology and cultural diversity: Opportunities for theory, research, and application.* Ho J, Birman D. Acculturation gaps in Vietnamese immigrant families: Impact on family relationships. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* ;34 1: Costigan CL, Dokis D. Relations between parent-child acculturation differences and adjustment within immigrant Chinese families. *Child Development* ;77 5: Acculturation and Latino family processes: How cultural involvement, biculturalism, and acculturation gaps influence family dynamics. *Family Relations* ;57 3: Bilingualism and minority language children. Ontario Institute for Studies in Education; Ethnic identity, acculturation, parenting beliefs, and adolescent adjustment. The acculturation gap-distress hypothesis among high-risk Mexican American families. *Journal of Family Psychology* ;19 3: Intergenerational discrepancies of parental control among Chinese American families: Links to family conflict and adolescent depressive symptoms. *Journal of Adolescence* ;30 6: Chinese immigrant mothers of adolescents: Self-perceptions of acculturation

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

effects on parenting. Rick K, Forward J. Acculturation and perceived intergenerational differences among Hmong youth. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* ;23 1: *Journal of Family Psychology* ;16 3: Mother-adolescent language proficiency and adolescent academic and emotional adjustment among Chinese American families. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence* ;38 4: Asvat Y, Malcarne VL. Acculturation and depressive symptoms in Muslim university students: *International Journal of Psychology* ;43 2: The influence of family functioning and parent-adolescent acculturation on North American Chinese adolescent outcomes. *Family Relations* ;54 3: Le TN, Stockdale G. Acculturative dissonance, ethnic identity, and youth violence. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology* ;14 1: *Journal of Immigrant Health* ; 7 1:

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Chapter 4 : Second-Generation Americans | Pew Research Center

and adolescent adjustment vary as a function of parents' ethnic socialization of their children was also examined. Participants included high school students from Mexican or Mexican-American backgrounds (pri-

A native-born citizen or resident of a country whose parents are foreign born, or a foreign-born citizen whose parents immigrated when that person was very young, that is, the first native-born generation. A foreign born citizen or resident who has immigrated to a new country of residence, that is, the first generation to immigrate. OED definition of "generation," section 6b. They earn the label the "1. Oftentimes, in the case of small children, a battle of linguistic comprehension occurs between their academic language and the language spoken at home. Sociologist Ruben Rumbaut was among the first to use the term to examine outcomes among those arriving in the United States before adolescence, but since then the term has expanded to include foreign students, as well as other unique individuals. However, their identification is affected by their experiences growing up in the new country. Second generation[edit] The term "second-generation" extends the concept of first-generation by one generation. As such, the term exhibits the same type of ambiguity as "first-generation," as well as additional ones. Like "first-generation immigrant," the term "second-generation" can refer to a member of either: The second generation of a family to inhabit, but the first natively born in, a country, or The second generation born in a country In the United States, among demographers and other social scientists, "second generation" refers to the U. Generation labeling immigrants is further complicated by the fact that immigrant generations may not correspond to the genealogical generations of a family. For instance, if a family of two parents and their two adult children immigrate to a new country, members in both generations of this family may be considered "first generation" by the former definition, as both parents and children were foreign-born, adult, immigrants. Likewise, if the two parents had a third child later on, this child would be of a different immigrant generation from that of its siblings. For every generation, the factor of mixed-generation marriages further convolutes the issue, as a person may have immigrants at several different levels of his or her ancestry. These ambiguities notwithstanding, generation labeling is frequently used in parlance, news articles [1] , and reference articles without deliberate clarification of birthplace or naturalization. It may or may not be possible to determine, from context, which meaning is intended. Likewise, Statistics Canada defines second generation persons as those individuals who were born in Canada and had at least one parent born outside Canada. Rumbaut has coined the terminology "1. Children who arrive in their adolescent years ages 13â€”17 are referred to as 1. Immigrant children usually have more in the way of family obligation than children not born of immigrants, so they are more likely feel pressure to study seriously at school and gain the ability to provide for their relatives. As bilinguals, they have "advantages on all tasks especially involving conflicting attention".

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Chapter 5 : The Parenting of Adolescents and Adolescents as Parents: A Developmental Contextual Perspective

Helping parents to reframe the meaning of conflict as an opportunity to build their relationship with their adolescent child can be of great assistance to parents. Many parents of adolescents require in-depth support to develop the skills that are necessary to support their children through adolescence.

From Lerner, et al. For example, among 10 to 12-year-old African American youth, social support from kin was related to self-reliance and good school grades; however, when kinship support was low the youth experienced feelings of distress Taylor, Students from intact families are least likely to drop out. Similarly, youth from such families are less likely to experiment with drugs than are adolescents from single-parent families Turner, Irwin, Millstein, Of course, however, adults differ in the ways in which they enact their role as parent. They show different styles of raising their children. Differences in child rearing styles is associated with important variation in adolescent development. Child rearing styles in adolescence The classic research of Diana Baumrind, resulted in the identification of three major types of child rearing styles: Authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. The first style of rearing is marked by parental warmth, the use of rules and reasoning induction to promote obedience and keep discipline, non-punitive punishment e. Indeed, because of the diversity of behavioral patterns that can characterize the permissive parenting style, Maccoby and Martin proposed that this approach to parenting can best be thought of as two distinct types: Whether the three categories of rearing style originally proposed by Baumrind, the four categories suggested by Maccoby and Martin, or other labels are used, it is clear that the behavioral variation summarized by use of the different categories is associated with differences in adolescent behavior and development Lamborn, et al. For example, in a study of over 4, 14 to 18 year olds, adolescents with authoritative parents had more social competence and fewer psychological and behavioral problems than youth with authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful parents Lamborn, et al. In fact, youth with neglectful parents were the least socially competent and had the most psychological and behavioral problems of any group of adolescents in the study. In turn, youth with authoritarian parents were obedient and conformed well to authority, but had poorer self concepts than other adolescents. Finally, while youth with indulgent parents had high self confidence, they more often abused substances, misbehaved in school, and were less engaged in school. Moreover, adolescents with authoritative parents are more likely to have well-rounded peer groups, that is, groups that admire both adult as well as youth values and norms, e. In turn, youth with uninvolved parents had peer groups that did not support adult norms or values, and boys with indulgent parents were in peer groups that stressed fun and partying Durbin, et al. Considerable additional research confirms the generally positive influence on adolescent development of authoritative parenting and, in turn, of the developmental problems that emerge in youth when parents are authoritarian, permissive, indulgent, or uninvolved e. Socialization in adolescence Whatever style parents use to rear their adolescents, the goal of parenting is to raise a child who is healthy and successful in life, who can contribute to self and to society, who accepts and works to further the social order. The process--the behaviors that are used over time--to reach these goals is termed socialization. Although all societies socialize their youth in order that, as future contributors to society, the society can survive and prosper, there are marked differences in what different societies, or groups within society, want to see in a youth that has been "successfully" socialized. Said another way, there is great diversity in the specific goals parents have in socializing their youth. One way of illustrating this contextual variation and, as well, of judging whether parents and society at large have been successful in shaping youth to accept social values, is to ask youth what it means to be a good or a bad child. In one study that took this approach American, Japanese, and Chinese adolescents were asked "What is a bad kid? In America, youth answered that a lack of self control and substance abuse were the marks of being bad. In China, a youth who engaged in acts against society was judged as bad. In Japan, a youth who created disruptions of interpersonal harmony was regarded as bad. Another way of understanding the socialization process is to see how immigrants to a new country give up the

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

values and customs of their country of origin and adopt those of their new one--a set of changes termed acculturation. This approach was used in a series of studies involving youth of Chinese ancestry, who were either first generation Americans their parents were born in China and immigrated before the adolescent was born or second generation Americans their grandparents were born in China, but their parents had been born in the United States. These youth were contrasted to Chinese adolescents from Hong Kong, to youth of Chinese ancestry whose parents had immigrated to Australia, to European American youth, and to Anglo Australian youth. Still another approach to understanding socialization is to appraise whether different groups within a society direct their youth to comparable developmental achievements. Research in Israel, for instance, suggests that youth from Arab Israeli families are raised to view the father as having more power than the mother; in turn, Jewish Israeli youth see more maternal than paternal power Weller, Florian, Mikulincer, In turn, male and female adolescent immigrants from Third World countries to Norway differ in their attitudes toward acculturation Sam, ; although both groups place a lot of importance on maintaining their cultural heritage, boys favor acculturation more than girls. In the United States, while there is evidence of consistency in some socialization practices across diverse groups e. By virtue of the fact that society continues to evolve, and is not characterized by intergenerational warfare or revolution, and that the vast majority of youth become contributing adults to society, we can conclude that socialization "works," that the "apple does not fall far from the tree" Adelson, ; Lerner, It is through the relationships that parents and their adolescent children have that the most immediate bases are provided of youth behavior and development. Parent-child relationships in adolescence There are a range of behaviors and associated emotions exchanged between parents and their adolescent offspring: Some of these exchanges involve positive and healthy behaviors and others involve the opposite; some of the outcomes for adolescent development of these exchanges reflect good adjustment and individual and social success, whereas other outcomes reflect poor adjustment and problems of development. As is true for all facets of human development, there is then diversity in the nature and implications of parent-child relations in adolescence. Similarly, among German adolescents, parental behaviors marked by approval and attention to the positive behavior of the youth is associated with an adolescent who feels he or she is capable of controlling events that can affect him or her Krampen, ; however, when parental behaviors disparage the child and fail to attend to his or her specific behavior, the adolescent feels that chance determines what happens to him or her in life. As illustrated by the above studies, warmth, nonhostility, and closeness seem to be characteristics of parent-adolescent interaction that are associated with positive outcomes among youth. Other research confirms these linkages. The characteristics of parent-child interaction that are associated with positive outcomes for the adolescent are similar in that they reflect support for and acceptance of the developing youth. When such emotions occur in adolescence, positive outcomes for the youth are seen. In sum, then, parent-child relationships marked by behaviors supportive of the youth and by positive feelings connecting the generations are associated with psychologically and socially healthy developmental outcomes for the adolescent. However, some families do not have parent-child relations marked by support and positive emotions; and no family has such exchanges all the time. Families experience conflict and negative emotions. Such exchanges also influence the adolescent; but, as we might expect, the outcomes for youth of these influences differ from those associated with support and positive emotions. At the least, conflicts are a ubiquitous part of all families at some times in their history. Just as the reasons for conflicts between individuals, on the one hand, or nations, on the others, varies, so too do the reasons for conflicts in families. In turn, in a study of over 1, Latino, African American, and European American parents of adolescents, conflicts were said to occur in the main over everyday matters, such as chores and style of dress, rather than in regard to substantive issues, such as sex and drugs Barber, The presence of conflicts between youth and parents is, then, a fact of family life during adolescents. Arguments with their youngsters are events with which parents must learn to cope. Nevertheless, despite its developmental course, the presence of conflict at any point in the parent-adolescent relationship may influence the behavior and development of the youth. In addition, conflict is associated with "externalizing" problems e. Moreover, the negative emotions exchanged between

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

adolescents and their parents can themselves result in problems for the youth. Moreover, parents of tenth graders with conduct problems are more hostile than parents of tenth graders with depression Ge, et al. Moreover, the presence of problem behaviors in parents per se is linked to problems in adolescent development. In short, the rearing of adolescents is not accomplished in the same way and with the same outcomes by all parents. Adults vary in their parenting styles and in the manner in which they socialize their children. This variation is linked to different individual characteristics of parents and, as well, to the features of the proximal and distal contexts within which parents and families are embedded. This variation is associated also with differences in other contextual factors--relating, for instance, to parental education, family social support, parental mental health, family stability, and poverty. In turn, in regard to family stability, there is a considerable body of research that indicates that divorce is associated with social, academic, and personal adjustment problems, including those associated with early initiation of sexual behavior e. In addition, parent-child relations are less hierarchical and children are pushed to grow up faster in divorced families Smetana, Furthermore, in some cases there are gender differences in the reaction of adolescents to divorce. However, in the case of remarriage, there is evidence that although both male and female adolescents may have difficulty interacting with stepfathers, girls may have particular problems e. Moreover, both male and female adolescents show no improvement in relationships with their step fathers, or in behavior problems e. For instance, adolescents living with their fathers adjust more poorly than youth living in other arrangements e. These women must support themselves and their children and thus, in such contexts, maternal employment is virtually a necessity. Of course, women work outside the home even when they live in intact, two-parent families. Indeed, the majority of American mothers work outside the home, and do so for personal, social, and economic reasons that correspond to those found among men Hernandez, ; J. Despite their reasons for working, maternal employment per se has generally not been found to have adverse affects on the personal or social development of youth J. Simply, the mother feels stress because of the nature of her multiple roles. Lerner, ; J. Parental work and adolescents in self-care In addition, there may be implications for youth simply because, when their mother is at work, there is no parent in the home. Unsupervised time, especially the hours of 3: However, in such cases it is the lack of supervision and not maternal employment per se that is the source of these difficulties for youth. These problems can be counteracted, however. In addition, effective community programs for youth, for example, 4-H, Boys and Girls Clubs, and community athletics, can provide youth with attractive, positive, and productive ways to spend their time. Current opinion among leaders of such youth-serving organizations is that if such community programs are strengthened young adolescents will have richer experiences and fewer life problems Carnegie Corporation of New York, However, the positive effect of community programs may not be as readily achievable when the parents in a family are themselves adolescents. In such cases, the risks to offspring are increased. We turn, then, to this focus.

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Chapter 6 : Second-generation immigrants in the United States - Wikipedia

Some studies ask parents to report on their perceptions of their children's acculturation; 13 others ask adolescents to report on their perceptions of their parents' acculturation. 14,11 Increasingly, researchers ask parents and children to report on their own acculturation independently and then compute the gaps. 2,8.

Overview Second-generation Americans—the 20 million adult U. They have higher incomes; more are college graduates and homeowners; and fewer live in poverty. In all of these measures, their characteristics resemble those of the full U. They are more inclined to call themselves liberal and less likely to identify as Republicans. And for the most part they are more likely to say their standard of living is higher than that of their parents at the same stage of life. In all of these measures, the second generation resembles the immigrant generation more closely than the general public. S-born children of immigrants are under the age of This is a heterogeneous group that includes many younger Hispanic, Asian-American and white adults who are the children of modern-era immigrants as well as many older adults who are mostly the children of European immigrants who arrived as part of an earlier immigration wave that peaked a century ago. Given the diversity of this population, two caveats are in order. First, the data presented here should not be interpreted as proving or disproving that there has been upward mobility between immigrant parents and their children. Whenever possible in this report, we disaggregate findings by these and other relevant demographic characteristics. Here is a summary of key findings: Educational and Economic Attainment: Still, most in the second generation also have a strong sense of identity with their ancestral roots. The second generations of these groups are also more likely than the immigrants to say they have friends outside of their ethnic or country of origin group. Belief in Hard Work. Similar shares of the immigrant generations of these groups agree. Political and Social Values: Second-generation Hispanics and Asian Americans, as well the first generation of each group, identify more with the Democratic Party than the Republican Party and characterize themselves as liberals at higher rates than the general public. About half or more of the second generation believe that abortion should be legal, and more than two-thirds say homosexuality should be accepted by society. The relative youth of the second generation contributes to, but does not fully explain, their liberal political leanings. About nine-in-ten second-generation Hispanic and Asian-American immigrants are proficient English speakers, substantially more than the immigrant generations of these groups. Perceptions of Generational Mobility. Like immigrants, they also rate the U. S more favorably than their ancestral country in terms of treatment of the poor and the opportunity to get ahead. Less than half of both generations rate the U. Immigrants tend to have higher birth rates than do native-born Americans. Hispanics and Asian Americans are the focus of the Pew Research survey research findings in this report. Each of these groups include immigrants from more than a dozen countries, all with unique cultures, characteristics and migration histories. The bulk of Hispanic immigrants have relatively low levels of formal education and work in low-skilled, low-paying jobs, while the majority of Asian immigrants especially those who have arrived in the past few decades have relatively high levels of education and skills that help position them for jobs in higher-skilled occupations. These large racial or ethnic group differences in the human capital of recent immigrants are echoed in the socioeconomic profile of the second generation. There are also gaps in household income and poverty rates among second-generation Hispanics and Asian Americans. But while large gaps remain between groups, it is also the case that within each group, the second generation is doing better than the first on most key measures of economic success. Most of our data trends do not extend that far back in history. And at this stage of their journey, we can provide some empirical assessments of their economic circumstances. For Hispanics and Asian Americans—the groups that comprise the bulk of the modern immigration wave—we can also provide some empirical assessments of their attitudes and beliefs, based on data gathered from our own surveys and those of the Census Bureau. A Roadmap to the Report The remainder of this report is organized as follows: Chapter 2 presents a detailed analysis of U. Census Bureau data on the second generation in comparison with

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

immigrants, with third and higher generations and with the U. Generational patterns are also examined separately for each of four racial and ethnic groups: Hispanics, Asian Americans, non-Hispanic whites and non-Hispanic blacks. Chapters 3 through 7 supplement this demographic portrait with an analysis of recent Pew Research Center surveys conducted with a nationally representative sample of Hispanics and a separate representative survey of Asian Americans on a range of topics. These chapters compare the second generation with the first generation in each group. No analysis of third-and higher-generation Hispanics or Asian Americans is included due to the small sample sizes of those subgroups in the survey data. Comparisons to the general public using data from other recent Pew Research Center surveys are included wherever possible. Survey data with an adequate number of second-generation whites and blacks for analysis is not available. Thus, the survey comparisons are limited to the two race or ethnic groups comprising the bulk of the modern immigration wave. These comparisons help illuminate the ways in which the second generation tends to be similar and dissimilar to the first generation within each race or ethnic group, but they cannot be used to characterize the second generation in the U. Chapter 3 looks at questions of self-identity, proficiency in English and attitudes about maintaining their ancestral language. Chapter 4 examines how the generations see their quality of life in relation to their parents, their expectations for their children, and their perception of their financial well-being. Chapter 5 examines attitudes about intergroup relations and intergroup marriage. This chapter includes a detailed analysis of data from the U. Census Bureau on the rate of intergroup marriage for all adults in the U. Chapter 6 focuses on attitudes about political party, ideology and social issues. Chapter 7 considers a wide array of other topics, including views about discrimination, personal goals, values and comparisons between the U. The appendices provide a detailed explanation of the methodologies used and a topline summary of the survey findings for Hispanics and Asian Americans. They also provide detailed tables, drawn from census data, that show the socioeconomic characteristics of first, second and third and higher generations of whites, blacks, Hispanics and Asian Americans.

About the Authors This report is a joint effort of survey researchers, demographers and writers in the Pew Research Center. Paul Taylor, executive vice president of the Pew Research Center, wrote the overview and provided editorial guidance for the report. Passel and senior researcher Gretchen M. Wendy Wang, research associate, number-checked Chapter 2 along with the detailed demographic tables in Appendix 1 and the analysis of intermarriage in Chapter 5. Chapter 3 was written by Livingston. Chapters 4 and 6 were written by senior researcher Cary Funk. Rich Morin, senior editor, wrote Chapters 5 and 7 with the assistance of Funk and Livingston. The analysis of intermarriage in Chapter 5 also benefited from the advice of Passel and Wang. Research assistant Eileen Patten number-checked Chapters 1, 3, 4 and 5. Research assistant Seth Motel number-checked Chapters 6 and 7 and prepared charts and tables for Chapters 1 and 2. Patten, Motel and Gonzalez-Barrera also assisted with other aspects of the report including compiling and checking the topline of findings, preparing charts and formatting the final report.

Notes on Terminology All references to whites, blacks and others are to the non-Hispanic components of those populations. Asians include a small number of Hispanics. Whites, blacks and Asians are single-race-only groups. Unauthorized immigrants are included in this group. References to demographic data for all adults or the total population are to the civilian noninstitutional population included in the Current Population Survey. See Methodology for more information. For this report, people born in Puerto Rico or other U. People born in Puerto Rico or other U. These population projections were conducted in The population projections will be updated later this year. There are two main reason for this: This figure is higher than the number of immigrants currently in the U. For some examples, see George J. Papers and Proceedings, 93 2:

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Chapter 7 : Parent-Child Relations in Adolescence

Most parents are unprepared for the normal growth changes that typically occur during their child's adolescence. For most moms and dads this is the hard half of parenting.

Second-generation immigrants are doing better overall and are assimilating more successfully into U. Income[edit] In comparison to first generation immigrants, second-generation immigrants are more likely to achieve higher earnings. Census Bureau on educational attainments for immigrant generations in the year On the contrary, many immigrant adolescents perform equally or even better than national adolescents, specifically in school. Reports have shown that immigrant adolescents earn better grades in school than their national contemporaries, despite their lower socio-economic status. For Latino immigrants, free access to education is a major factor in deciding to immigrate to the U. Native bilingualism allows immigrants a distinct advantage in the completion of composite tasks. The children of such immigrants in the U. The process by which these second-generation immigrants assimilate into society is increasingly being researched, and multiple theories on the cultural assimilation of second-generation immigrants have been proposed. Segmented assimilation[edit] The theory of segmented assimilation for second-generation immigrants is highly researched in the sociological arena. Segmented assimilation focuses on the notion that people take different paths in how they adapt to life in the United States. Some immigrants assimilate smoothly into the white middle class of America, others experience downward assimilation, and others experience rapid economic success while preserving the values of their immigrant community. These factors are created by the underlying policies of the government, the strength of prejudice in the society, and the makeup of coethnic communities within the society. Factors that enhance such vulnerability include racial discrimination, location, and changes in the economy that have made it harder for intergenerational mobility. If the child belongs to a group that has been exempt from the prejudice experienced by most immigrants, such as European immigrants, they will experience a smoother process of assimilation. A second generation immigrant can also make use of established networks in the coethnic community. These networks provide these children with additional resources beyond those offered by the government, such as gateways into well paying jobs in businesses established by the ethnic community. The lack of good pay and resources available to immigrant parents affects the likelihood of their U. Children born to low skilled immigrants may experience assimilation into the impoverished groups of the United States. Instead of adapting to the mainstream values and expectations of U. This theory predicts that each succeeding immigrant generation exhibits greater assimilation into mainstream society. This theory emphasizes that the process of assimilation for certain immigrant groups is blocked due to their race or ethnicity, meaning that discrimination in society and in the workplace hinders assimilation into mainstream U. Hispanics , Asian Americans , and African Americans are three of the major groups that make up the population of second-generation immigrants in the United States. Latinos[edit] In , the Pew Research Center projected that in the next twenty years, second generation Latinos will account for the largest percentage of the U. In relation to educational achievement, second generation Latinos follow the general trend for second-generation immigrants in the United States. In comparison to first generation Latino immigrants, second generation Latinos are more likely to intermarry with members of other racial groups. These higher rates of racial intermarriage leads to an increase in the birthrates of interracial children, aiding in the elimination of disparities in the U. When location is controlled for, the employment rate of Mexican American second-generation immigrants surpasses that of native born, non-Hispanic whites. This gap in labor participation increases for those with less than a high school diploma. Historically the predominant Asian ethnicity in the U. The diversification of the pool of Asian immigrants, where many are highly educated, plays a pivotal role in the assimilation of the second generation. Highly skilled Asian immigrants tend to settle in suburbs upon their arrival to the United States, further promoting the assimilation of their children into white middle class society. This focus on success, in combination with the common Asian cultural value of family

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

honor , helps explain the high educational successes seen by second generation Asian immigrants. College graduation rates are relatively high among second generation Asian Americans, with the two highest rates seen among the Chinese and Indian second generation. These generalizations are mostly based on outward appearance. Today, however, because of awareness made known by second generation Asian Americans, people are learning to associate and recognize the diverse cultures that exist under the umbrella term of Asian Americans. A popular destination for these black immigrants is New York City , where the second generation black immigrant population is significant. In this community, also referred to as "Little Haiti", the Caribbean influence is clear as shops are decorated in bright Caribbean colors and decorations. In addition, the assimilation into black society and black culture in the U. These first generation Haitians attempt to instill this same Haitian pride in their children as they want the children to succeed on the basis of ethnic solidarity and the preservation of Haitian culture, and not by giving in to American culture. Thus, these children face conflicting pressures from family, non-second generation immigrant peers, and discrimination by the larger society. They make use of so-called "black spaces," which are spaces exclusive to the black community, such as networks and ethnic enclaves designed for African Americans. Thus these spaces are free of racism and are used to connect with other African Americans and reconnect with the cultures of their parents.

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

Chapter 8 : When Grandparents Become Parents to Their Grandchildren – Publications

The population of first- and second-generation immigrant children in the United States grew by 51 percent between and , to million, or one-quarter of all U.S. children. Children and youth living in immigrant families are the fastest growing group of American children. [1] As of

June 6, DOI: RESULTS Compared with young women with no family history of teenage births, young women whose sister had had a teenage birth and those whose sister and mother both had had teenage births were significantly more likely to experience a teenage pregnancy odds ratios, 4. Young women who had only a sister who had had a teenage birth had greater odds of pregnancy than young women who had only a mother who had had a teenage birth 4. Having both a mother and a sister who had had teenage births was independently associated with an elevated risk of pregnancy 3. Frequent companionship with an older sister was associated with increased odds of teenage pregnancy 4. Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health, , 39 2: Such young women are more likely exposed to norms for early parenthood than are women with either a mother or a sister who had teenage births. THIS STUDY We used a sample of adolescent females—many of whom had a family history of teenage births and all of whom were studied prospectively from early adolescence ages 12–14 to late adolescence ages 18–20—to address the following questions: What is the risk of early pregnancy among young women who have both a sister and a mother who had a teenage birth, relative to the risk among young women who have neither? Is having a mother who had a teenage birth associated with a greater risk of pregnancy than having a sister who had a teenage birth? Is having a sister and a mother who had a teenage birth associated with a greater risk of pregnancy than having only one or the other? In addressing these questions, we seek to contribute to the literature in three important ways. First, unlike earlier studies, ours examines the risk of pregnancy associated both with having a sister and with having a mother who had a teenage birth. Second, whereas previous studies compared adolescent women who had a teenage childbearing sister with the general population of adolescent women, many of whom did not have an older sister or even a sibling, 1,5 we restricted our sample to those who had an older, coresidential, biologically related teenage sister. Thus, our study can provide a more accurate estimate of the pregnancy risk associated with having a sister who had a teenage birth versus having a sister who did not. Such models can reveal how socioeconomic and parenting characteristics might operate in explaining the cooccurrence of early pregnancy within a family. Families were eligible to participate if they contained at least one older teenage daughter aged 15–18 and at least one biological younger sibling aged 12–16 who had never been involved in a pregnancy at study enrollment. Only Mexican American and black families were enrolled, because those groups have disproportionately high rates of teenage pregnancy and births. Ninety percent of all eligible individuals invited to participate did so. Overall, families were enrolled in the study. The focus of the current analyses is on the younger sisters; younger brothers were excluded because very few reported fathering a child before age There were younger sisters enrolled in the study average age at enrollment, The younger sisters who participated at the third time point did not differ significantly from those lost to follow-up in terms of key background characteristics i. The younger sisters who were assessed at the last time point form the sample for the current analyses. By design, all youth were living with their older sister and their mother at the time of enrollment. At each time point, two bilingual English and Spanish female research assistants visited participating families in their homes. All adolescent women completed a short interview and a self-administered questionnaire in a room away from the rest of the household to provide for as much privacy as possible. Older sisters were asked additional questions about their pregnancy history. Also, researchers gathered information on whether any other teenage sister living in the household had given birth. All youth completed the interview and questionnaire in English. Fifty-seven percent of mothers completed the interview or questionnaire in Spanish; the responses of mothers who answered in Spanish did not differ significantly from those of mothers who answered in English. Measures Most measures were drawn from the baseline

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

assessment. Sibling relationship measures were taken from the five-year follow-up because we wanted to examine the relationship dynamics young women shared with a sister who was a teenage parent, if one was present, and this was not known until that visit. In their interviews, mothers provided information about their total annual family income and their highest level of completed education. Also, mothers responded to five questions about the degree to which they approved or disapproved of teenage sex and teenage parenting: For example, mothers were asked whether they approved of "teenagers having children," and whether "teenagers should wait until they are older to have sex. Furthermore, mothers were asked four questions about how important it was to them for their children to pursue educational goals. Scores were averaged and reversed so that a high score reflects low value of education. All scores within each domain had high internal consistency reliability Cronbach alphas greater than 0. Finally, mothers indicated whether they were currently single yes or no. Participants completed the Sibling Relationship Questionnaire, 32 which yields scores for conflict six items. Items were coded such that high scores reflect frequent conflict, a high degree of rivalry, frequent companionship and a high degree of warmth and closeness. The internal consistency of all scales exceeded 0. If participants had a sister who was a teenage parent, they were instructed to complete the questionnaire for their relationship with that sister; if participants had more than one older sister who had had a teenage birth, they were instructed to answer in regard to the sister who had been pregnant first. Respondents answered several questions about their sexual and pregnancy histories at all three study time points. If respondents indicated that they had had sexual intercourse, they were asked whether they had ever been pregnant. At the five-year follow-up, respondents indicated whether they had ever experienced a pregnancy at age 18 or younger. Then, we conducted multivariate logistic regression analyses to determine the likelihood of pregnancy associated with a family history of teenage births. Because we were interested in the risk of pregnancy given particular combinations of family history variables, we computed three separate models specifying three unique reference categories: If the association between a family history of teenage births and the likelihood of pregnancy diminishes in the presence of these mediators, then we can conclude that these factors account for or contribute to the association. These analyses included the four sibling relationship measures, the measure of whether the older sister was a teenage parent and a term for their interaction.

RESULTS Descriptive and Bivariate Analyses Fifty-four percent of the older sisters of the young women who were the focus of this study reported having their first birth at age 18 or younger; among these sisters, the average age at childbearing was 16 standard deviation, 1. Among these, the mean age at pregnancy was 16 years standard deviation, 1. Two of the four sibling relationship measures—companionship and rivalry—were positively associated with teenage pregnancy. In the first logistic regression model (Table 3), young women who had a sister who had had a teenage birth and those who had both a sister and a mother who had had a teenage birth had higher odds of experiencing a pregnancy than young women who had no family history of teenage births (odds ratios, 4). Young women who had only a mother who had had a teenage birth did not differ significantly in terms of pregnancy risk from those who had no family history of teenage births (1). This lack of association between teenage pregnancy and having a mother who had been a teenage parent contradicts a well-established link reported in previous research. In the second model, compared with young women whose mother and sister both had had teenage births, those who had only a sister who had had a teenage birth were not at greater risk of early pregnancy; however, young women who had only a mother who had had a teenage birth had a significantly reduced risk of pregnancy (odds ratio, 0). In the third model, young women who had a sister who had had a teenage birth had more than four times the odds of experiencing a teenage pregnancy of those who had only a mother who had been a teenage parent (4). The first model of Table 4 repeats our findings of the associations between pregnancy and a family history of teenage births shown in Table 3. Of the four sibling relationship measures, only frequent companionship with an older sister was significantly associated with the risk of teenage pregnancy (odds ratio, 4). Having a sister who had had a teenage birth was associated with significantly elevated odds of pregnancy (5). Two of the interaction terms were marginally significant: Frequent companionship with a sister who had had a teenage birth was associated

DOWNLOAD PDF THE SECOND GENERATIONS EXPERIENCE OF PARENTING THEIR ADOLESCENT CHILDREN

with greater odds of pregnancy 5. Having a sister who had had a teenage birth and having both a sister and a mother who had had a teenage birth each were associated with elevated risks of pregnancy; however, having only a mother who had had a teenage birth was not. Latina mothers may more clearly communicate the hardships associated with early parenting in hopes of dissuading their daughters from becoming teenage parents. Alternatively, Latina adolescents may not always look to their mothers as role models for their own choices. More research is needed to corroborate this finding, which appears to depart from previously well established links for white and black motherdaughter pairs. Family stress and tensions probably occur as family members try to cope with caring for an infant. The odds of experiencing a pregnancy among young women who reported frequent companionship with an older sister who had had a teenage birth were similarly high, although the association was only marginally significant. These findings are consistent with a social modeling perspective, which postulates that sibling socialization is greatest for siblings who spend large amounts of time together. Interestingly, having a sister who had had a teenage birth as opposed to having a sister who had not had a teenage birth was significantly correlated with low sibling conflict. In either case, the finding warrants further research. The small group sizes likely reduced the power of some analyses. In addition, the small numbers precluded us from fully exploring the various family history risks for Latinas and black females separately. Furthermore, the age of the data should be considered. Data were collected as early as ; teenage pregnancy rates have declined significantly since that time, 31 and this could have affected our results. The sample consisted largely of Mexican American families; thus, our results likely reflect the dynamics and risk factors present within these families. Also, all study participants were female, and most were from relatively poor families. Although the nature of this sample limits the generalizability of study findings, we believe that the results are relevant to the youth represented here: However, further research is needed among males and among more diverse adolescent populations. In addition, we analyzed only whether an older sister had given birth as a teenager; we did not look at whether a sister had ever become pregnant, how many children she had had as a teenager or how many sisters within the family had had teenage births. They may have wanted their younger sisters to avoid going through what they had experienced; 16 however, some older sisters knowingly or unknowingly may have encouraged their younger sisters to also have children. Although our study had limitations, it also had several strengths. Mothers self-reported their age at first birth; thus, this information is likely to be more reliable and accurate than if provided by teenagers. Moreover, study participants were required to have at least one older teenage sister, so having an older sister who was a teenage parent was at least a possibility for all youth. A random sample that did not include this eligibility criterion would have yielded inaccurate estimates of the risk associated with having a sister who was a teenage parent. Program Implications Overall, our results underscore the high risk of early pregnancy associated with having a family history of teenage parenting, particularly a sister who has had a teenage birth. These results may help clinic and program personnel identify youth who are vulnerable to early pregnancy or to engaging in risky sexual behaviors. Prevention programs and interventions that target youth who have a family history of teenage parenting are sorely needed. An educational program, for example, that helps older sisters recognize ways in which they can positively influence their younger sisters may be beneficial for all. Breaking the cycle of teenage parenting within families may be a constructive and useful approach toward adolescent pregnancy prevention. Thus, young women generally had less conflict and spent less time with a sister who was a teenage parent than with other sisters. Warmth and closeness and rivalry were not associated with having a sister who was a teenage parent. Landry E et al. Friede A et al. American Journal of Public Health, , 76 Hogan D and Kitagawa E, The impact of social status, family structure, and neighborhood on the fertility of black adolescents, American Journal of Sociology, , 90 4: Bonell C et al.