

5-2024

THE EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLES ON COMMUNICATION AMONG ASIAN AMERICAN YOUNG ADULTS

Abigail Camarce

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.lib.csusb.edu/etd>



Part of the [Child Psychology Commons](#), and the [Social Work Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Camarce, Abigail, "THE EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLES ON COMMUNICATION AMONG ASIAN AMERICAN YOUNG ADULTS" (2024). *Electronic Theses, Projects, and Dissertations*. 1902.
<https://scholarworks.lib.csusb.edu/etd/1902>

This Project is brought to you for free and open access by the Office of Graduate Studies at CSUSB ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses, Projects, and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of CSUSB ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact scholarworks@csusb.edu.

THE EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLES ON COMMUNICATION AMONG
ASIAN AMERICAN YOUNG ADULTS

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Social Work

by
Abigail Camarce
May 2024

THE EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLES ON COMMUNICATION AMONG
ASIAN AMERICAN YOUNG ADULTS

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

by
Abigail Camarce
May 2024

Approved by:

Dr. Yawen Li, Faculty Supervisor, Social Work

Dr. Yawen Li, M.S.W. Research Coordinator

© 2024 Abigail Camarce

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between parenting styles and communication difficulties. Prior studies examined parenting styles' effects on mental health and child behavior, yet the link to communication challenges has been under explored. This study aimed to fill this gap by examining data from Asian American (AA) young adults aged 18 to 30, investigating the impact of different parenting approaches affect communication. Quantitative data for this study was gathered through Qualtrics from AA participants aged 18 to 30 raised by first-generation (FG) Asian parents. Lower AFD scores and verbal communication difficulties (VCD) scores were seen if both mothers and fathers scored high on emotional responsiveness behaviors. Lower VCD scores in mothers were negatively related to the length of time participants lived in the United States. Participants reported higher VCD scores if their father spoke English only. Participants with fathers who were bilingual in English and another language were more likely to report lower AFD scores. Our findings can influence and promote parental education tailored towards decreasing AFD scores, among populations where there may be a mismatch between cultural identities. Studying the relationship between family dynamics, communication, and parenting styles reveals valuable insights for social workers. These insights provide culturally sensitive care, offering personalized interventions, diagnostic tools, and programs aimed at addressing communication issues, conflict resolution, healthier family dynamics, and improved mental health outcomes.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I want to express my gratitude to my parents for their love and unwavering support as I pursued this degree. Your delicious home-cooked meals and reliable help with emergencies have been invaluable throughout this process. Without you, I wouldn't be the person I am today. Thank you for instilling in me the importance of hard work and perseverance. To my dear siblings, Cesar, and friends, thank you for reminding me to find moments of joy and relaxation amidst the demands of my studies. Your companionship has been a source of strength and balance. A special thank you to Chris, whose expertise in data analysis and mentorship in the field of research have been instrumental in shaping this project. Your guidance has been invaluable, and I am deeply grateful for your support. Lastly, I extend my appreciation to my research supervisor, Dr. Yawen Li, for her unwavering assistance and guidance every step of the way. Without your expertise and encouragement, I would not have been able to complete this research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	vi
CHAPTER ONE: PROBLEM FORMULATION	1
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	3
Parenting Styles	3
Relationship of Parenting Styles with Communication Difficulties.....	5
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	8
Study Design	8
Participants.....	8
Procedures.....	8
Measures	9
Data Analysis.....	11
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS	13
Sample Characteristics	13
Parenting Styles and AFD scores.....	13
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION	21
APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT	27
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE	29
APPENDIX C: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER	35
REFERENCES	37

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Sample Characteristics.....	17
Table 2: Correlation Between Parenting Styles and AFD Scores.....	18
Table 3: Regression Analysis of AFD on Mothers' Parenting Styles.....	19
Table 4: Regression Analysis of AFD on Fathers' Parenting Styles.....	20

CHAPTER ONE

PROBLEM FORMULATION

Asian Americans (AAs), the fastest growing immigrant population in the United States, face a significant mental health crisis. Serious mental illness (SMI) among AA/Pacific Islander/Native Hawaiian young adults has risen dramatically, from 2.9% to 5.6% between 2008 and 2018 (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2018). Suicide was the leading cause of death for Asian/Pacific Islanders aged 15 to 24 in 2019, with AA males in high school being 30% more likely to consider attempting suicide compared to their non-Hispanic white peers (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2021). One significant contributor to this dire mental health landscape is the complex family dynamics prevalent among second-generation (SG) Asian Americans. These individuals often navigate a challenging cultural landscape, born and raised in American culture while their first-generation (FG) parents remain deeply rooted in the traditions of their Asian heritage. This cultural dichotomy can lead to unique stressors and misunderstandings within families, further aggravating the mental health challenges faced by this community.

SG AAs adopt the western culture consisting of new beliefs, languages, and habits that are unlike their own. Communication difficulties occur due to a contrast in direct, indirect, verbal, and nonverbal communication styles and expressions (Hwang et al., 2010). This adaptation causes emotional disconnection and arguments, stemming from absence of affection and a democratic relationship, exacerbating family dynamics. Studying how parenting

styles contribute to communication difficulties in AAs holds important practice implications, shedding light on parenting education in the AA population. This study adds specific knowledge on how family relationships, parenting styles, and communication intersect for AAs. Understanding influential factors in communication difficulties can benefit social workers (SW) in providing culturally sensitive care.

Our study's findings offer crucial insights for social workers (SW) to reduce family conflict and enhance the mental health of AAs. SWs can create individualized interventions, diagnostic tools, and programs focusing on communication skills, conflict resolution, and family relationship improvement. It is known that communication issues and parenting styles influence mental health outcomes (Hwang et al., 2010; Zou et al., 2021). SWs can provide a supportive environment for AAs to encourage them to seek mental health services more readily.

We aimed to assess how parenting styles influence communication difficulties among SG AAs. The clash of the American and Asian cultures may affect parenting styles that contribute to communication difficulties. We aimed to answer the research question: How are different parenting styles related to communication difficulties among AA young adults? Authoritative parenting may reduce the likelihood of communication difficulties from occurring. Authoritarian, permissive, and uninvolved parenting may aggravate communication difficulties in the AA family.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Parenting Styles

Scholars define authoritarian parents as strict and uncompromising with rules (Azman et al., 2021; Baumrind, 1971; Hong et al., 2021; Power, 2013). Parents command full obedience, often dismissing children's thoughts and feelings. This parenting style correlates with children experiencing anxiety, aggressiveness, lower academic abilities, and difficulty expressing emotions (Baumrind, 1971; Hong et al., 2021; Kiel et al., 2019; Kim, 2013; Kuppens et al., 2019; Power, 2013).

Authoritative parents, observed more in Western cultures, also set firm rules while being emotionally supportive and open to discussion (Azman et al., 2021; Baumrind, 1971; Dwairy et al., 2006; Hong et al., 2021; Power, 2013). This warm and rational parenting style encourages children to be autonomous, assertive and expressive with their feelings (Hong et al., 2021; Kuppens et al., 2019; Power, 2013).

Permissive parents, marked by a nurturing yet relaxed approach to discipline and rules (Azman et al., 2021; Baumrind, 1971; Hong et al., 2021; Power, 2013), results in children with low confidence and self-discipline (Kuppens et al., 2019; Power, 2013). Uninvolved parenting lacks warmth and authority (Azman et al., 2021; Hong et al., 2021; Power, 2013), affecting the children's sense of responsibility or self-regulation.

AAs, often guided by collectivist and Confucian, Taoist, or Buddhist values, commonly adopt authoritarian parenting styles (Choi et al., 2013; Choi et al., 2018; Garcia et al., 2017; Hong et al., 2021; Kim, 2013; Park et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2012; Sung, 2010; Tummala-Narra et al., 2021). Tiger parenting, characterized by an authoritarian approach in academics and family responsibilities, shows similarities to authoritarian parenting, as they both emphasize less warmth and independence (Kim et al., 2013). Contrary to negative associations, this parenting style, coupled with authoritative elements and positive motivation, correlates with better academic performance among AAs (Kim, 2013).

Scholars found that Chinese American families prioritize hierarchical and harmonious relationships (Hwang, 2000; Qin et al., 2012). Preservation of traditional values is emphasized, as parents socialize their children to obey and respect authority (Choi et al., 2018; Garcia et al., 2017; Hwang, 2000; Park et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2012). The parent-child relationship reflects incompatibility: the children seek autonomy while the parents desire control (Qin et al., 2012). In Chinese families, children are expected to maintain harmony by suppressing their negative emotions (anger and discontent) and avoiding direct expression of their needs (Hwang, 2000; Qin et al., 2012). FG AAs do not expect dissenting views when they communicate with their children, otherwise FG AAs can be perceived as disrespectful (Qin, 2008; Sung, 2010).

SG AAs perceive a lack of parental warmth and closeness from their FG AA parents, marked by less affection and emotional support (Cheah et al., 2013;

Choi et al., 2018; Ko et al., 2018). FG AAs often resort to guilt, shame, degrading words, and corporal punishment to raise their children (Garcia et al., 2017; Sung, 2010). This, combined with differing communication styles and language barriers, impedes accurate message transmission (Hwang et al., 2010; Ko et al., 2018; Qin, 2008; Tummala-Narra et al., 2021). Due to their limited fluency in their heritage language, SG AAs are frustrated with their hindered ability to fully express their thoughts (Qin et al., 2012). This leads to misunderstandings and conflict within the parent-child relationships(Qin et al., 2012).

Relationship of Parenting Styles with Communication Difficulties

Conflict resolution styles between FG AAs and SG AAs include yelling, avoidance and compliance (Qin et al., 2012; Sung, 2010). SG AAs often leave arguments unresolved, reporting parental anger when attempting compromise (Qin et al., 2012).

Cultural differences between FG and SG AAs strain family relationships, impacting communication styles (Hwang et al., 2010) and parenting styles (Dwairy et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2013; Tajima et al., 2010). Parenting styles could be a factor that contributes to communication difficulties. SG AAs report experiencing stricter, less warm parenting(Choi et al., 2013; Park et al., 2021; Qin, 2008). This resembles authoritarian parenting style (Azman et al., 2021; Hong et al., 2021; Power, 2013). As SG AAs navigate into adulthood, they desire more independence (Qin, 2008). Discrepancies between SG AAs family experiences and societal norms in the United States (Qin et al., 2012) can contribute to increased communication difficulties .

FG AAs tend to practice authoritarian parenting due to their collectivist, Confucian beliefs that highlight family honor, educational achievements, and social ladder advancements (Cheah et al., 2013; Choi et al., 2018; Choi et al., 2020; Garcia et al., 2017; Kim, 2013; Lee et al., 2014; Park et al., 2021; Md-Yunus et al., 2017; Qin, 2008). Authoritarian parenting style can lead to communication difficulties in AA families (Cheah et al., 2013).

Communication problems exacerbate family conflicts, rooted in differing expectations between FG AAs and SG AAs (Hwang et al., 2010). Parenting styles can contribute to increased communication difficulties stemming from contrasting parent-child expectations and interactions. Asian parents attempt to maintain traditional beliefs that SG AAs often dismiss (Choi et al., 2018; Garcia et al., 2017; Sung, 2010; Wang et al., 2011). Parenting style dimensions encompasses emotional responsiveness and control (Azman et al., 2021; Baumrind, 1971; Power, 2013; Smetana, 2017). These dimensions are integral to the communication dimension of Hwang's 2010 Acculturative Family Distancing (AFD) study. It examines communication difficulties arising from verbal and nonverbal communication patterns.

Authoritarian parenting is hypothesized to exacerbate the communication difficulties between FG and SG AAs. This strict and uncompromising style, as shown in studies, can be strict and uncompromising (Azman et al., 2021; Hong et al., 2021; Power, 2013). It can foster ineffective communication patterns. Conversely, authoritative parenting is hypothesized to prevent communication difficulties by being emotionally supportive. They are known for open

communication and fostering independence. (Azman et al., 2021; Baumrind, 1971; Hong et al., 2021; Power, 2013). Permissive and uninvolved parenting may also contribute to communication difficulties in the AA family. Both of these parenting styles are linked to low self control in children and increased likelihood of misconduct (McKinney et al., 2018).

SG AAs face family conflicts due to communication difficulties, desiring family relationships similar to those portrayed in the USA (Qin et al., 2012). FG AAs implement parenting and communication practices that are normally used in their heritage country. The impact of parenting styles on communication difficulties remains underexplored. This literature will address this gap by gathering data from AA young adults aged 18 to 30 years old to investigate how parenting styles impact their communication difficulties.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Study Design

Through an explanatory research project, we aimed to understand the relationship between parenting styles (the independent variable) and communication difficulties (the dependent variable). A quantitative research design will be used to test the researcher's hypothesis. This research design yielded quantifiable data, such as numerical values and statistics, allowing for testing the variables' relationship. This allows the study to be replicated and compared with other similar studies.

Participants

73 participants were chosen based on meeting the criteria: SG AAs aged 18 through 30, raised by FG Asian parents. The term "parents" in this study are defined as biological or nonbiological adults who had the most significant influence on the SG AAs during their upbringing. This can include biological parents, foster parents, or grandparents. In particular, individuals adopted by non Asian parents or those whose parents are not Asians will be excluded from this sample. This selective sample may be able to provide useful insights regarding SG AAs perspectives on their childhood upbringing and how the parenting they experienced affected their family dynamics.

Procedures

We used purposive, convenience, and snowball sampling methods. Initially, personal contacts and AA associations were contacted through text,

social media, and email to participate based on our set criteria. Participants were requested to share the self-reported Qualtrics questionnaire with their relevant contacts. These methods leverage personal connections to facilitate survey distribution and attract suitable participants.

To ensure confidentiality, participants received an anonymous link and QR code to access the questionnaire. Participants provided informed consent. They were treated with dignity. They were informed of the voluntary nature of their participation and their ability to withdraw at any time without repercussions. They were given the option to skip questions they found uncomfortable.

Anonymous data devoid of direct identifiers (e.g., name, social security number, IP address, and contact information) was collected and presented solely in group format to avoid linking results to any participants. Access to the data was limited to authorized study personnel only. The data was stored on secured computers with personal ID and password access. The data will be destroyed after three years.

Measures

Demographics. Basic demographics such as the participants' gender (female, male, transgender, non binary, prefer not to answer), year of birth (years), race (American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Black or African American, White, Hispanic or Latino, prefer not to answer), United States of America residence (yes, no, not applicable). Participants were also asked to provide these information about themselves, as well as details about their mothers and fathers: length of time in years that they

have been living in the United States of America (USA) (less than one year, 1-5 years, 5-10 years, 10-20 years, 20-30 years, 31+ years, prefer not to answer), their country of birth (USA, other, prefer not to answer, not applicable) and their primary language spoken at home (English only, native language or other language, both English and another language). Gender is a nominal measurement. Year of birth is a ratio measurement. The length of time spent living in the USA is a ratio measurement. Country of birth, race, country of residence, and primary language spoken at home are nominal measurements. Parental responsiveness, demandingness, and autonomy granting are ordinal measurements. VCD and NVCD are ordinal measurements. Mean, median, and mode identified important information that is pertinent to the study.

Parenting Style Inventory-II scale (PSI-II). The PSI-II is a 15-item self-report scale that contains three subscales that measure parental responsiveness ($\alpha = .74$), demandingness ($\alpha = .72$), and autonomy granting ($\alpha = .75$) (Darling et al., 1997). This scale aimed to classify the participant's perceived parenting style they received based on those subscales (Darling et al., 1997). This second version was altered from the original scale to include a 5-response format that allows participants to select neutral responses. The participants rated his or her level of agreement with each statement by using a 5-point Likert scale [strongly disagree, disagree, I'm in between, agree, strongly agree]. This version also decreased positive response bias and obtained a general view of the construct of parental demandingness (Darling et al., 1997). Examples of statements include: "My mother doesn't really like me to tell her my troubles" "My

mother tells me that her ideas are correct and that I shouldn't question them" and "My mother really expects me to follow family rules".

Acculturative Family Distancing (AFD) Scale. Fujimoto and colleagues (2014) developed a 36-item self-report scale of the acculturative family distancing scale. For this study, only the verbal and nonverbal communication difficulties variables (21 items) were utilized. It measured four refined dimensions that include: 16 items of verbal communication difficulties (VCD, reliability $R=.90$) and five items of nonverbal communication difficulties (NVCD, $r=.75$).

The participants rated his or her level of agreement with each statement using a 7-point Likert scale [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree].

Examples of statements participants are asked are: "I can communicate effectively with my parents", "I feel like there is a communication barrier between me and my parents", and "My parents' ability to communicate effectively with me is hindered because of our inability to fluently speak the same languages", and "my parent (s) can communicate effectively with me"..

Data Analysis

SPSS aided in the organization of the variables, their different attributes, and different levels of measurement. We began by conducting descriptive statistics to examine the demographic characteristics of our sample. This allowed us to see the composition of our study participants. We performed correlation analysis to explore the relationship between parenting styles (independent variable) and communication difficulties (dependent variable). The parenting style

variables included parental responsiveness, demandingness, and autonomy granting. The AFD variables included VCD, NVCD. This analysis helped us understand the strength and direction of the association between these variables. We conducted two separate regression analyses to gain deeper insight of the impact of parenting styles on communication difficulties within the mother-child and father-child relationships. These analyses allowed us to assess how different parenting styles may influence communication challenges uniquely within each parent-child dyad.

CHAPTER FOUR:

RESULTS

Sample Characteristics

Table 1 demonstrates the demographic characteristics of the participants in this study. More than half identified as female (78.1%). The average age of the participants was 25.9 (SD=2.32) years. Participants were predominantly born in the United States (65.8%). Over half of the participants spoke English as their primary language (54.4%). Over 93.2% of the participants' mothers do not speak English. On average, participants reported living in the United States for 4.74 years (SD=.58), while their mothers lived in the United States for 5.2 years (SD=0.77). Parenting styles were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest level of agreement in the Parental Style Inventory II (PSI-II). The reported average parenting styles for mothers was 3.28 (SD=.88) for the dimension of emotionally responsive, 3.48 (SD=.82) for autonomy granting, and 3.6 (SD=.69) for demanding. The reported average parenting styles for fathers was 3.12 (SD=.88) for emotionally responsive, 3.32 (SD=.79) for autonomy granting, and 3.57 (SD=.69) for demanding.

Parenting Styles and AFD Scores.

Table 2 portrays the correlation between each parenting style, AFD, VCD, and NVCD scores. The independent variables in this table include emotionally responsive, autonomy-granting, and demanding behaviors of mothers and fathers. The dependent variables are the AFD scores, verbal communication difficulties (VCD) and nonverbal communication difficulties (NVCD). Scores in

emotionally responsive mothers and fathers are significantly and negatively correlated with AFD scores, VCD, and NVCD. Autonomy granting by mothers is significantly and negatively correlated with both AFD scores and VCD, whereas autonomy granting by fathers only shows a significant negative correlation with AFD scores. Scores in demanding mothers and fathers did not show significant correlations with AFD scores, VCD, and NVCD.

Table 3 displays the regression analyses for the relationship between mother's parenting styles and AFD, VCD, and NVCD scores. Results from the table showed that higher scores in emotionally responsive mothers was significantly associated with lower scores for AFD ($B = -.59, p < .001$), VCD ($B = -.79, p < .001$), and NVCD ($B = -.53, p < .05$). Additionally, longer years of United States residence in participants had significantly associated with VCD scores ($B = -.42, p < .05$).

Table 4 displays the regression analyses for the relationship between father's parenting styles and AFD, VCD, and NVCD scores. Results from the table showed that higher scores in emotionally responsive fathers was significantly associated with lower scores for AFD ($B = -.53, p < .001$) and VCD ($B = -.801, p < .001$). Additionally, if fathers spoke English and another language, there is a significant association with lower AFD scores ($B = -.14, p < .05$). If a participant was English speaking only, there is a significant association with higher scores of VCD ($B = 0.51, p < .05$).

An unexpected finding in our study was that there was no significant relationship between mothers' and father's scores for demanding behaviors and

AFD, VCD, and NVCD scores. This suggests that the effects of demanding parenting behaviors on AFD, VCD, and NVCD may be less pronounced among SG AAs, who often develop resilience and adaptability to these behaviors. Further research is needed to explore other factors that can impact AFD, VCD, and NVCD.

It was observed that American parents tended to rate family closeness negatively with control (Chao et al., 2002). In North America and Germany, parental control was linked to perceived parental hostility and rejection (Chao et al., 2002). Authoritarian parenting style was consistently found to have negative effects on European American adolescents (Chao et al., 2002). The negative effects of authoritarian parenting and the positive effects of authoritative parenting were less pronounced among Asian Americans compared to European Americans (Chao et al., 2002).

Parental control means differently between European and Asian families, as it is associated with warmth and caring in Asian families (Chao et al., 2002). For example, *guan* can mean to govern, to care for, and to love (Chao et al., 2002). In China, lack of *guan* portrays parents are negligent and uncaring (Chao et al., 2002). In Japanese culture, family closeness was positively associated with control, unlike European culture (Chao et al., 2002). Asian children associate control with care and concern (Chao et al., 2002). Typically, the measurement of demandingness in parenting styles emphasizes expressions of warmth and responsiveness like praising or physical affection to the child (Chao et al., 2002). However, this approach fails to fully capture the Asian approach to

parental involvement, which often prioritizes caregiving and education as primary forms of nurturing their children (Chao et al., 2002).

Table 1. Sample Characteristics

Variables	n	%	M (SD)
Gender			
Female	57	78.1	
Not Female	16	21.9	
Age			25.97 (2.32)
Born US			
US Born	48	65.8	
Not US Born	25	34.2	
Participant's primary language at home			
English	39	53.4	
Not English	34	46.6	
Mother's primary language at home			
English	5	6.8	
Not English	68	93.2	
Years lived in the US			4.74 (.58)
Years lived in the US (mom)			5.20 (0.77)
Responsive Mother Score			3.28 (.88)
Autonomy Mother Score			3.14 (.82)
Demanding Mother Score			3.6 (.69)
Responsive Father Score			3.12 (.88)
Autonomy Father Score			3.32 (.79)
Demanding Father Score			3.57 (.69)

Note. N = 73.

Table 2. Correlation between Parenting Styles and AFD Scores

Variables	n	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Responsive mother	73	3.3	.9	1								
2. Autonomy mother	73	3.1	.8	.6***								
3. Demanding mother	73	3.6	.7	-.3*	-.5***							
4. Responsive father	70	3.1	.9	.7***	.4**	-.2						
5. Autonomy father	70	3.3	.8	.3**	.6**	-.3*	.5***					
6. Demanding father	70	3.6	.7	-.2	-.4**	.7***	-.3*	-.6***				
7. AFD Score	73	4.4	.9	-.7***	-.5***	.2	-.6***	-.2*	.1			
8. AFD Verbal	73	4.4	1.2	-.5***	-.4**	.1	-.5***	-.2	.1	.8***		
9. AFD Nonverbal	72	4.7	1.2	-.4***	-.2	.01	-.3*	-.1	0	.6***	.2*	1

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, two-tailed.

Table 3. Regression Analysis of AFD on Mothers' Parenting Styles

	AFD Score		AFD VCD		AFD NVCD	
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β
Age	.03	.08	.07	.15	.06	.12
Female	.23	.11	.18	.07	.31	.11
Born US	.21	.11	.52	.22	-.21	-.09
English	.35	.19	.28	.13	.37	.15
English (mother)	-.36	-.11	.24	.06	-.74	-.16
Years lived in the US	-.003	-.002	-.42*	-.21	.09	.04
Years lived in the US (mother)	-.24	-.21	-.23	-.15	-.39	-.26
Responsive Mother	-.59***	-.56	-.79***	-.58	-.53*	-.38
Autonomy Mother	-.17	-.16	-.25	-.18	-.06	-.04
Demanding Mother	-.09	-.07	-.08	-.05	-.31	-.18
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	.41		.042		.14	

p*<.05, *p*<.01, ****p*<.001, two-tailed.

Table 4. Regression Analysis of AFD on Fathers' Parenting Styles

	AFD Score		AFD VCD		AFD NVCD	
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β
Age	.004	.01	.04	.09	.02	.05
Female	.05	.03	-.02	-.01	.19	.07
Born US	-.07	-.04	.31	.13	-.78	-.32
Born US (father)	-.44	-.18	-.201	-.06	-.39	-.12
English	.46	.27	.51*	.23	.41	.18
English and other language (father)	-.14*	-.08	-.29	-.12	.36	.14
Years lived in the US	-.06	-.04	-.44	-.23	-.01	-.003
Years lived in the US (father)	.09	.08	.003	.002	.13	.09
Responsive father	-.53***	-.51	-.801***	-.59	-.23	-.16
Autonomy father	-.007	-.007	-.103	-.07	-.05	-.04
Demanding father	-.04	-.03	-.04	-.02	-.25	-.15
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	.272		0.4		-.01	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, two-tailed.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

Our study investigated the relationship between parenting styles and communication difficulties. Previous research investigated parenting styles and its effects on children's feelings and behaviors. However, the relationship between these styles and communication challenges has been under studied. This study filled this gap by examining how various parenting approaches impact communication difficulties in their families using data collected from AA young adults aged 18 to 30.

This research found a significant relationship between parenting styles and communication difficulties. Higher scores in emotional responsiveness in mothers were associated with lower scores of AFD (VCD, NVCD). A similar relationship is found in emotional responsiveness in fathers and AFD (VCD). This result aligned with existing literature which suggests that a lack of emotional support is linked to increased stress, irritation, and depression levels among Asian youth, while also decreasing their self-esteem (Park et al., 2021). Emotional support from parents can facilitate an environment of understanding, validation, and emotional closeness, since the primary reasons Asian youths fight with their parents are due to ineffective communication (Hwang et al., 2010). These parents are then able to show empathy and attentiveness to their SG AAs emotions, thus allowing SG AAs to feel heard and supported.

Demanding and autonomy granting behaviors in both mothers and fathers did not have a significant relationship with AFD (VCD and NVCD). This result

aligned with existing literature because cultural factors may significantly impact family dynamics and communication patterns in Asian families. Previous studies may have focused on Western definitions of parenting styles, behaviors, and communication styles. Cultural factors shape family dynamics and communication in Asian families. Parental control is often associated with warmth and care (Chao et al., 2013). Absence of parental control can be misconstrued as neglect, potentially causing sadness in children (Chao et al., 2002; Qin et al., 2012). Japanese culture links family closeness with control, unlike European culture (Chao et al., 2002).

Typically, the measurement of demandingness in parenting styles emphasizes expressions of warmth and responsiveness like praising or physical affection to the child (Chao et al., 2002). However, this approach fails to fully capture the Asian approach to parental involvement, which often prioritizes caregiving and education as primary forms of nurturing their children (Chao et al., 2002).

Increased length of participant's residency in the United States had a significant relationship with lower scores of VCD in mothers. While there is limited supporting literature directly supporting this result, it is possible that longer residency allows mothers to improve their ability to effectively communicate through exposure to English language and western culture.

A father's proficiency in English and another language was significantly related to lower AFD scores. Fathers who are bilingual may be able to effectively communicate and bridge a gap between cultural contexts in the family, thus

facilitating understanding, closeness, and less AFD (Hwang et al., 2010). This result aligned with existing literature that links being bilingual to harmonious family dynamics (Hwang et al., 2010).

A participant's English only proficiency was significantly related to increased paternal VCD scores. This is due to the language barrier that may form if the participant's father primarily speaks his heritage language. This language barrier can lead to irritation, misunderstandings, and difficulty communicating verbally (Hwang et al., 2010; Qin et al., 2012).

The study's cross-sectional design is one of the study's limitations because it only shows the correlation between parenting styles and communication difficulties at the time of the study. The study cannot determine if communication difficulties lead parents to adopt certain parenting styles. Other factors that can cause communication difficulties may also be at play, such as the participants' temperament and external stressors. Future research could explore all dimensions of acculturative family distancing simultaneously to understand the factors influencing parenting styles and family conflicts in AA families more comprehensively.

Another limitation lies in the quantitative design, which produced less detailed information compared to qualitative studies. We were not able to follow up on or clarify the participants' answers. To avoid this, we used language that reduces confusion for both participants and researchers. This was achieved by using straightforward language and avoiding jargon. Additionally, we refrained

from using double-negative or double-barreled questions to ensure clarity in the responses.

Self-reported surveys conducted online may not always provide authentic results. The participants may be dishonest about their answers concerning socially undesirable experiences, emotions, or attributes. To avoid this, we prioritized and emphasized confidentiality to make sure that the data collected could not be used against the participants. To encourage genuine responses, we used neutral wording and desensitized the questions. We also avoided using threatening words that could be misinterpreted as criticisms.

Despite the limitations, the study's significant findings on emotional responsiveness and its association with decreased scores of AFD, VCD, and NVCD offer valuable insights for mental health professionals. Educating FG AA parents about the importance of emotional responsiveness can strengthen emotional connection, family bonds, and emotional wellbeing. By emphasizing the role of emotional connection between parents and children, mental health workers can help decrease communication difficulty.

It's important to understand cultural nuances in parental demand and control among Asians is crucial. The lack of significant relationship between parental demanding and autonomy-granting behaviors and AFD, VCD, and NVCD underscores the need for nuanced approach when evaluating parenting dynamics in FG AAs.

Language barriers and acculturation play significant roles in between AFD, VCD, and NVCD. Mental health professionals can develop and advocate for

community resources aimed at supporting acculturation among AA populations. This may include offering language classes, cultural workshops, support groups, and mental health services to enhance family relationships and communication.

Examining the interplay between family dynamics, communication, and parenting styles contributes to specific insights for social workers to provide culturally sensitive care. This can lead to improved conflict resolution and mental health outcomes for AAs. Personalized interventions, diagnostic tools, and programs that target communication issues can further support healthier family relationships.

Our study found correlations between parenting styles and communication difficulties. It highlighted that emotional responsiveness is significantly correlated to lower AFD and VCD scores in both the participant's mothers and fathers. Demanding behaviors in mothers and fathers proved to have an insignificant relationship to AFD, VCD, and NVCD. Language barriers and acculturation play significant roles in between AFD, VCD, and NVCD.

The study highlights the significance of emotional responsiveness in mitigating communication difficulties, offering valuable insights for mental health professionals and emphasizing the need for culturally sensitive approaches in addressing parenting dynamics and communication challenges among Asian American families. Understanding cultural nuances in parental demand and control among Asians is crucial. The lack of significant relationships between parental demand and control to communication difficulties underscores the need for a nuanced approach in assessing parenting dynamics. Language barriers and

acculturation are significant factors in communication difficulties. Advocating for community resources that address communication barriers, acculturation, and mental health can enhance family relationships. Examining family dynamics, communication, and parenting styles provides insights for social workers to offer culturally sensitive care, improving conflict resolution and mental health outcomes for AAs through personalized interventions. In summary, this research can empower AAs and strengthen bonds between families by addressing communication difficulties.

APPENDIX A:
INFORMED CONSENT

Informed Consent

The study in which you are asked to participate is designed to identify and describe correlation patterns between parenting styles and Acculturative Family Distancing. The study is being conducted by Abigail Camarce, a graduate student, under the supervision of Dr. Yawen Li, a Professor in the School of Social Work at California State University, San Bernardino (CSUSB). The study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at CSUSB.

PURPOSE: The purpose of the study is to assess the perceived parenting styles that Asian American young adults received from their parents and test how different parenting styles may have an impact on their acculturative family distancing.

DESCRIPTION: Participants will be asked a few questions on perceived parenting styles received in childhood, level of acculturative family distancing, and some demographics.

PARTICIPATION: Your participation in the study is totally voluntary. You can refuse to participate in the study or discontinue your participation at any time without any consequences.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Your responses will remain confidential, and data will be reported in group form only.

DURATION: It will take 10 to 15 minutes to complete the survey.

RISKS: Although not anticipated, there may be some discomfort in answering some of the questions. You are not required to answer and can skip the question or end your participation.

BENEFITS: There will not be any direct benefits to the participants. However, findings from the study will contribute to our knowledge in this area of research.

CONTACT: If you have any questions about this study, please feel free to contact Dr. Yawen Li at yawen.li@csusb.edu / (909) 537-5000.

RESULTS: Results of the study can be obtained from the Pfau Library ScholarWorks database (<http://scholarworks.lib.csusb.edu/>) at California State University, San Bernardino after July 2024.

I understand that I must be 18 years of age or older to participate in your study, have read and understand the consent document and agree to participate in your study. To provide your consent, please mark "yes" or "no" Selecting "yes" means you agree with the information above. Selecting "no" will result in dismissal from the survey participation.

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographics

1. Please indicate your year of birth (YYYY)
 - _____
2. Please select your race
 - American Indian or Alaskan Native
 - Asian
 - Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
 - Black or African American
 - White
 - Hispanic or Latino
 - Prefer not to answer
3. Do you live in the United States of America?
 - Yes
 - No
4. Please indicate how long you have been living in the United States
 - Less than one year
 - 1- 5 years
 - 5 - 10 years
 - 10-20 years
 - 20-30 years
 - 31+ years
 - I was born here
 - Prefer not to answer
5. Please indicate your country of birth
 - _____
6. Primary language you speak at home
 - _____
7. Please select the gender you identify with
 - Male
 - Female
 - Transgender
 - Nonbinary
 - Prefer not to answer
8. Please indicate your mother's country of birth
 - _____
9. Primary Language your mother speaks at home
 - _____
10. Please indicate how long your mother has been living in the United States
 - Less than one year
 - 1- 5 years
 - 5 - 10 years
 - 20-30 years
 - She was born here

- Prefer not to answer
- 11. Please indicate your father's country of birth
 - _____
- 12. Primary Language your father speaks at home
 - _____
- 13. Please indicate how long your father has been living in the United States
 - Less than one year
 - 1- 5 years
 - 5 - 10 years
 - 20-30 years
 - She was born here
 - Prefer not to answer

Parenting Style Inventory-II scale (PSI-II) (Darling et al., 1997)

Responsiveness Subscale Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using [strongly disagree, disagree, I'm in between, agree, strongly agree]

- My mother doesn't really like me to tell her my troubles.
- *My mother hardly ever praises me for doing well.
- I can count on my mother to help me out if I have a problem.
- My mother spends time just talking to me.
- My mother and I do things that are fun together.

Autonomy-granting Subscale Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using [strongly disagree, disagree, I'm in between, agree, strongly agree]

- *My mother tells me that her ideas are correct and that I shouldn't question them.
- My mother respects my privacy.
- My mother gives me a lot of freedom.
- *My mother makes most of the decisions about what I can do.
- My mother believes I have a right to my own point of view.

Demandingness Subscale Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using [strongly disagree, disagree, I'm in between, agree, strongly agree]

- My mother really expects me to follow family rules.
- *My mother really lets me get away with things.
- If I don't behave myself, my mother will punish me.
- My mother points out ways I could do better.
- *When I do something wrong, my mother does not punish me.

Responsiveness Subscale Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using [strongly disagree, disagree, I'm in between, agree, strongly agree]

- *My father doesn't really like me to tell her my troubles.
- *My father hardly ever praises me for doing well.
- I can count on my father to help me out if I have a problem.

- My father spends time just talking to me.
- My father and I do things that are fun together.

Autonomy-granting Subscale Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using [strongly disagree, disagree, I'm in between, agree, strongly agree]

- *My father tells me that her ideas are correct and that I shouldn't question them.
- My father respects my privacy.
- My father gives me a lot of freedom.
- *My father makes most of the decisions about what I can do.
- My father believes I have a right to my own point of view.

Demandingness Subscale Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using [strongly disagree, disagree, I'm in between, agree, strongly agree]

- My father really expects me to follow family rules.
- *My father really lets me get away with things.
- If I don't behave myself, my father will punish me.
- My father points out ways I could do better.
- *When I do something wrong, my father does not punish me.

Acculturative Family Distancing Scale (Fujimoto et al., 2014)

Verbal Communication Difficulties

- Communication Positive "I"
 - Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using: [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree].
 - I can communicate effectively with my parents.
 - I talk with my parent(s) a lot.
 - I am able to communicate how I feel to my parent(s).
 - I share personal things with my parent(s).
- Communication Negative "I"
 - Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using: [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree].
 - I feel like there is a communication barrier between me and my parents.
 - Although I can get my basic points across, it is hard for me to talk about things in greater depth with my parent(s).
 - I can communicate concrete or basic needs to my parents), but have a hard time communicating feelings and emotional needs.

- Fluency
 - Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using: [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree].
 - My parents' ability to communicate effectively with me is hindered because of our inability to fluently speak the same languages.
 - My ability to communicate effectively with my parent(s) is hindered because of our inability to fluently speak the same languages.
- Communication Positive “My”
 - Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using: [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree].
 - My parent(s) can communicate effectively with me.
 - My parent(s) talk with me a lot.
 - My parent(s) are able to communicate how they feel to me.
 - My parents) share personal things with me.
 - My parent(s) talk to me about their problems.
- Communication negative “My”
 - Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using: [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree].
 - Although my parent(s) can get their basic points across, it is hard for them to talk about things in greater depth with me.
 - My parent(s) can communicate basic or concrete needs to me. but they have a hard time communicating feelings and emotional needs.

Nonverbal Communication Difficulties

- Nonverbal “I”
 - Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using: [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree].
 - Sometimes I misunderstand my parents' nonverbal communication (e.g. gestures, facial expressions, body language, eye contact, personal space).
 - Sometimes I have a hard time understanding the implied meanings behind my parents' verbal and nonverbal communication

- Nonverbal “my”
 - Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using: [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree].
 - Sometimes my parents' misunderstand my nonverbal communication e.g. gestures, facial expressions, body language, eye contact, personal space).
 - Sometimes my parents' have a hard time understanding implied meanings behind my verbal and nonverbal communication
- Nonverbal Physical
 - Rate your level of agreement with each statement by using: [strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree].
 - If I communicated emotional distress through physical symptoms, my parents) would understand what the physical symptoms meant

APPENDIX C:
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER



May 1, 2023

CSUSB INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
Administrative/Exempt Review Determination
Status: Determined Exempt
IRB-FY2023-205

Yawen Li Abigail Camarce
CSBS - Social Work
California State University, San Bernardino
5500 University Parkway
[San Bernardino, California 92407](#)

Dear Yawen Li Abigail Camarce:

Your application to use human subjects, titled "THE EFFECTS OF PARENTING STYLES ON ACCULTURATIVE FAMILY DISTANCING AMONG ASIAN AMERICAN YOUNG ADULTS," has been reviewed and determined exempt by the Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of CSU, San Bernardino. An exempt determination means your study had met the federal requirements for exempt status under 45 CFR 46.104. The CSUSB IRB has weighed the risks and benefits of the study to ensure the protection of human participants.

This approval notice does not replace any departmental or additional campus approvals which may be required including access to CSUSB campus facilities and affiliate campuses. Investigators should consider the changing COVID-19 circumstances based on current CDC, California Department of Public Health, and campus guidance and submit appropriate protocol modifications to the IRB as needed. CSUSB campus and affiliate health screenings should be completed for all campus human research related activities. Human research activities conducted at off-campus sites should follow CDC, California Department of Public Health, and local guidance. See CSUSB's [COVID-19 Prevention Plan](#) for more information regarding campus requirements.

You are required to notify the IRB of the following as mandated by the Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) federal regulations 45 CFR 46 and CSUSB IRB policy. The forms (modification, renewal, unanticipated/adverse event, study closure) [are located in the Cayuse IRB System](#) with instructions provided on the IRB Applications, Forms, and Submission webpage. Failure to notify the IRB of the following requirements may result in disciplinary action. The Cayuse IRB system will notify you when your protocol is due for renewal. Ensure you file your protocol renewal and continuing review form through the Cayuse IRB system to keep your protocol current and active unless you have completed your study.

REFERENCES

- Azman, Ö., Mauz, E., Reitzle, M., Geene, R., Hölling, H., & Rattay, P. (2021). Associations between parenting style and mental health in children and adolescents aged 11–17 years: Results of the KiGGS cohort study (second follow-up). *Children*, 8(8), 672. <https://doi.org/10.3390/children8080672>
- Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental Psychology*, 4(1, Pt.2), 1–103. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0030372>
- Chao, R., & Tseng, V. (2002). Parenting of Asians. In *Handbook of Parenting* (2nd ed., Vol. 4, pp. 59–93). essay, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cheah, C. S. L., Leung, C. Y. Y., & Zhou, N. (2013). Understanding “tiger parenting” through the perceptions of Chinese immigrant mothers: Can Chinese and U.S. parenting coexist? *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, 4(1), 30–40. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031217>
- Choi, Y., He, M., & Harachi, T. W. (2008). Intergenerational cultural dissonance, parent–child conflict and bonding, and youth problem behaviors among Vietnamese and Cambodian immigrant families. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 37(1), 85–96.
- Choi, Y., Kim, T. Y., Noh, S., Lee, J., & Takeuchi, D. (2018). Culture and family process: Measures of familism for Filipino and Korean American parents. *Family Process*, 57(4), 1029–1048. <https://doi.org/10.1111/famp.12322>
- Choi, Y., Kim, Y. S., Kim, S. Y., & Park, I. J. K. (2013). Is Asian American

- parenting controlling and harsh? Empirical testing of relationships between Korean American and Western parenting measures. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, 4(1), 19–29. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031220>
- Choi, Y., Lee, M., Lee, J. P., Park, M., Lee, S. Y., & Hahm, H. C. (2020). Disempowering parenting and mental health among Asian American youth: Immigration and ethnicity. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 66, 101077. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appdev.2019.101077>
- Darling, N., & Toyokawa, T. (1997). *Construction and Validation of the Parenting Style Inventory II (PSI-II)*. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.22528.87048>
- Dwairy, M., Achoui, M., Abouserie, R., Farah, A., Sakhleh, A. A., Fayad, M., & Khan, H. K. (2006). Parenting styles in Arab societies: A first cross-regional research study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 37(3), 230–247. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022106286922>
- Fujimoto, K. A., & Hwang, W.-C. (2014). Acculturative family distancing: Psychometric analysis with the extended two-tier item response theory. *Psychological Assessment*, 26(2), 493–512. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035757>
- Garcia, A. S., & de Guzman, M. R. T. (2017). *Filipino Parenting in the USA*. 29(2). <https://doi-org.libproxy.lib.csusb.edu/10.1177/0971333617716848>
- Grinnell, R. M., Unrau, Y. A., & McKinney, R. (2018). Research with Minority and Disadvantaged Groups. In *Social work research and evaluation: Foundations of evidence-based practice* (11th ed., p. 202). essay, Oxford University Press.

- Hong, J. S., Kim, D. H., deLara, E. W., Wei, H.-S., Prisner, A., & Alexander, N. B. (2021). Parenting style and bullying and victimization: Comparing foreign-born Asian, U.S.-born Asian, and White American adolescents. *Journal of Family Violence*, 36(7), 799–811.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-020-00176-y>
- Hwang, K.-K. (2000). Chinese Relationalism: Theoretical Construction and Methodological Considerations. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 30(2), 155–178. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-5914.00124>
- Hwang, W.-C., Wood, J. J., & Fujimoto, K. (2010). Acculturative family distancing (AFD) and depression in Chinese American families. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 78(5), 655–667.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020542>
- Kim, J. H., & Silverstein, M. (2021). Are filial piety and ethnic community engagement associated with psychological wellbeing among older Chinese American immigrants? A cultural resource perspective. *Research on Aging*, 43(2), 63–73. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0164027520937477>
- Kim, S. Y. (2013). Defining tiger parenting in Chinese Americans. *Human Development*, 56(4), 217–222. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000353711>
- Kim, S. Y., Wang, Y., Orozco-Lapray, D., Shen, Y., & Murtuza, M. (2013). Does “tiger parenting” exist? Parenting profiles of Chinese Americans and adolescent developmental outcomes. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, 4(1), 7–18. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030612>
- Ko, S. Y., & Wei, M. (2018). Acculturative family distancing, mother–daughter

- relationship, and well-being among Asian Americans. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 46(4), 456–480. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000018776997>
- Kuppens, S., & Ceulemans, E. (2019). Parenting styles: A closer look at a well-known concept. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 28(1), 168–181. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-018-1242-x>
- Lee, H.-H., & Friedlander, M. L. (2014). Predicting depressive symptoms from acculturative family distancing: A study of Taiwanese parachute kids in adulthood. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 20(3), 458–462. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036524>
- Lueck, K., & Wilson, M. (2010). Acculturative stress in Asian immigrants: The impact of social and linguistic factors. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 34(1), 47–57. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2009.10.004>
- Lui, P. P. (2019). Rethinking the acculturation gap-distress theory among Asian Americans: Testing bidirectional indirect relations. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 89(6), 627–639. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ort0000322>
- McKinney, C., Stearns, M., & Rogers, M. M. (2018). Perceptions of differential parenting between Southern United States mothers and fathers. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 27(11), 3742–3752. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-018-1204-3>
- Md-Yunus, S., Mei-Ling Li, Mullins, F., & Gong, R. (2017). The pygmalion effect of the filial piety on immigrant children: The influence on Asian American students. *Journal of Cultural Diversity*, 24(3), 84–90.
- Nesteruk, O. (2022). Family dynamics at the intersection of languages, cultures,

and aspirations: Reflections of young adults from immigrant families.

Journal of Family Issues, 43(4), 1015–1038.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X211007527>

Park, Y. S., Kim, B. S. K., Chiang, J., & Ju, C. M. (2010). Acculturation, enculturation, parental adherence to Asian cultural values, parenting styles, and family conflict among Asian American college students. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*,

1(1), 67–79. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018961>

Park, S.-Y., Lee, J., & Cheah, C. S. L. (2021). The long-term effects of perceived parental control and warmth on self-esteem and depressive symptoms among Asian American youth. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 126,

105999. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2021.105999>

Power, T. G. (2013). Parenting dimensions and styles: A brief history and recommendations for future research. *Childhood Obesity*, 9(Suppl 1), S-14-S-21. <https://doi.org/10.1089/chi.2013.0034>

Qin, D. B., Chang, T.-F., Han, E.-J., & Chee, G. (2012). Conflicts and communication between high-achieving Chinese American adolescents and their parents. *New Directions for Child & Adolescent Development*, 2012(135), 35–57. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cd.20003>

Qin, D. B. (2008). Doing well vs. feeling well: Understanding family dynamics and the psychological adjustment of Chinese immigrant adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 37(1), 22–35. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-007-9220-4>

- Sadeghi, S., Ayoubi, S., & Brand, S. (2022). Parenting Styles Predict Future-Oriented Cognition in Children: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Children*, 9(10), 1589. <https://doi.org/10.3390/children9101589>
- Smetana, J. G. (2017). Current research on parenting styles, dimensions, and beliefs. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 15, 19–25. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsy.2017.02.012>
- Sung, H. (2010). *The Influence of Culture on Parenting Practices of East Asian Families and Emotional Intelligence of Older Adolescents*. 31(2). <https://doi-org.libproxy.lib.csusb.edu/10.1177/0143034309352268>
- Tajima, E. A., & Harachi, T. W. (2010). Parenting beliefs and physical discipline practices among Southeast Asian immigrants: Parenting in the context of cultural adaptation to the United States. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 41(2), 212–235. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022109354469>
- Tavassolie, T., Dudding, S., Madigan, A. L., Thorvardarson, E., & Winsler, A. (2016). Differences in perceived parenting style between mothers and fathers: Implications for child outcomes and marital conflict. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 25(6), 2055–2068. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-016-0376-y>
- Tummala-Narra, P., Li, Z., Yang, E. J., Xiu, Z., Cui, E., & Song, Y. (2021). Intergenerational family conflict and ethnic identity among Chinese American college students. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 91(1), 36–49.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2021). Mental and behavioral

health - Asian Americans. Office of Minority Health.

<https://minorityhealth.hhs.gov/mental-and-behavioral-health-asian->

americans

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2018). 2018 National survey on drug use and health: Asians/Native Hawaiians and Other Pacific Islanders. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration.

https://www.samhsa.gov/data/sites/default/files/reports/rpt23248/3_Aasian

NHOP_2020_01_14.pdf

Wang, J.-Y., Probst, J. C., Moore, C. G., Martin, A. B., & Bennett, K. J. (2011).

Place of origin and violent disagreement among Asian American families:

Analysis across five states. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health*,

13(4), 635–646. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10903-010-9398-5>

Yaffe, Y. (2020). Systematic review of the differences between mothers and fathers in parenting styles and practices. *Current Psychology*.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-020-01014-6>

Yuwen, W., & Chen, A. C. C. (2013). Chinese American adolescents: Perceived parenting styles and adolescents' psychosocial health. *International Nursing Review*, 60(2), 236–243. <https://doi.org/10.1111/inr.12002>

Zou, P., Siu, A., Wang, X., Shao, J., Hallowell, S. G., Yang, L. L., & Zhang, H. (2021). Influencing factors of depression among adolescent Asians in North America: A systematic review. *Healthcare*, 9(5), 537.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/healthcare9050537>