

KOREAN MOTHERS' PARENTING PRACTICE DURING ADOLESCENCE

A DISSERTATION

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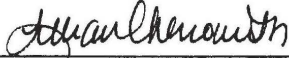
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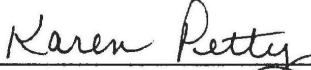
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Jang, Dukrae entitled "Korean Mothers' Parenting Practice during Adolescence." I have examined this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy with a major in Family Studies.

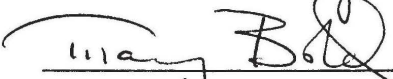


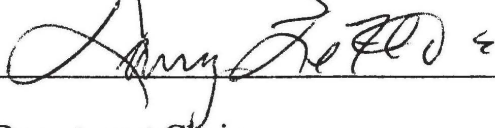
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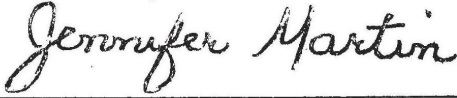






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ABSTRACT

DUKRAE, JANG

KOREAN MOTHERS PARENTING PRACTICE DURING ADOLESCENCE

MAY, 2006

The purpose of this study was to examine how cultural and contextual factors influence parenting practice during adolescence by comparing parenting practice of Korean mothers in Korea and immigrant mothers in the United States with three dimensions of independence, control, and involvement. The sample consisted of 100 Korean and 84 Korean immigrant mothers who had an adolescent between the ages of 11 and 17 who completed self-administered questionnaires. This study found that the Korean culture in raising children strongly influenced the Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice even though they were more likely to adjust to American culture. This research suggests that English learning or parenting education programs will be needed for the Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Parenting is an important element of culture in which parental values, goals, norms, behaviors, and attitudes are translated from one generation to the next. Many researchers have studied parenting styles as critical familial variables (Lim & Lim, 2003), affecting family and child development outcomes (Baumrind, 1971; Bornsteinm 1991; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Lim & Lim, 2003). Furthermore, parental behaviors (e.g., warmth, methods of punishment and reward, expectations, communication skills, and control) have been found to be associated with academic achievement in adolescents (Juang & Silbereisen, 2002; Mariory & Steinberg, 1999; Marjoribanks, 1996; Marshall, 1995; Melby & Conger, 1996; Park & Bauer, 2002; Paulson, 1994; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994).

With children's ages, parenting practice changes in regard to independence and control, expression of positive and negative affection, and disciplinary practices. Although some practices were considered continuous from early childhood to early adolescence, achievement and independence increased while the expression of physical affection between parent and child decreased (Block, 1984; McNally, Eisenberg, & Harris, 1991). Although school and teacher were also important, parenting practice as an outside of school factor significantly affected children's performance and achievement (Juang & Silbereisen, 2002; Marjoribanks, 1996). Since the 1970s, according to the U.S.

Census Bureau 2000, Korean immigrations have dramatically increased to about 1.3 million in the United States (Barnes & Bennett, 2002). Koreans have settled down with a balance between their original of culture and the mainstream culture to which they have immigrated and acculturated. While Koreans have emerged as one of the most visible ethnic groups in the United States, little has been known about how cultural and contextual factors influence parenting practices in Korean ethnic groups (Bornstein, 1991).

Even though there has been more attention to how parenting practice and child outcomes have been linked in different types of families (Demo & Cox, 2000), there have been few studies about Korean parenting practice during adolescence and the relationship between practices of Korean parents and their adolescents' academic achievement. Furthermore, without recognizing cultural differences such as parental goals, parental attitudes, values, and norms of parenting, researchers of cross-cultural studies of parenting have tendencies to overgeneralize about the particular effects of European-American over other ethnic groups (Chao, 1994, 2001). Thus, this study examines the difference in independence, control, and involvement of parenting practice during adolescence, comparing Korean mothers in Korea and Korean immigrant mothers in the United States.

Statement of the Problem

Culture has influenced parenting across diverse societal contexts in which the beliefs and values of traditional parenting practices have changed. In Korean traditional

culture, collectivism has influenced parenting, valuing a child who is harmonious and obedient within the hierarchical relationships. Unlike American society, Korean culture does not emphasize independence and autonomy of individuals in rearing children (Lee, 2000). Adolescents' autonomy is related to family factors, such as parenting style, family interaction, and transitions of the family life cycle (Pardeck & Pardeck, 1990).

Korean parents have often faced cultural conflicts with their children because they have tended to insist on holding to tradition while their children want to be Americanized (Fang & Wark, 1998; Park, 2001). Also, Korean parents have used their traditional ways of parenting because they have difficulty understanding the family laws in a new culture. Sometimes cultural practices (e.g., a traditional form of punishment) with no violent intent can be perceived as child abuse in a different cultural context (Park, 2001).

Several parenting studies during adolescence have examined the relationships between parenting practice (e.g., parental involvement) and adolescent school achievement (Paulson & Sputa, 1996). The empirical studies found that parental involvement and monitoring were positively related to adolescents' achievement. Also, the studies indicated that authoritative parenting styles were often associated with higher levels of student achievement (Juang & Silbereisen, 2002).

However, these findings are not consistent across cultures and racial groups (Chao, 1994; Lim & Lim, 2003). Following the theory of parenting practice, Asian American students would be expected to have lower academic achievement than European American students (Park & Bauer, 2002) because Asian Americans parents were more

authoritarian that was negatively related to academic achievement for European American students (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). However, Chao (1994) argued that Chinese American children interpreted differently the meaning of the concept of authoritarian parenting because of cultural differences. Unlike European American children, Chinese American children understood authoritarian parenting behaviors (strictness, or control) as an expression of affection rather than as a rejection.

Many studies on the effects of parenting practice including parenting style and parental involvement on adolescent academic achievement considered only adolescents' self-perceptions of parenting (Paulson, 1994). Marchant, Paulson, and Rothlisberg (2001) found that children's perceptions of parenting style and parental involvement were significantly related to the children's academic achievement.

However, parents' perception of parenting practice was different from adolescents' perception (Paulson & Sputa, 1996). While parents rated themselves as more accepting and stricter in control, their children rated them differently (Noller, Seth-Smith, Bouma, & Schweitzer, 1992; Paulson, 1994). Parenting studies have tended to over generalize to all ages even though several studies have shown that parenting differs by the age of the adolescent (Block, 1984; McNally, Eisenberg, & Harris, 1991).

According to Bornstein (1991), difficulties of translation between languages and insufficient cross-cultural measurement instruments are challenges of studies across different ethnic groups. However, the potential benefit of such work is obvious because

cross-cultural studies on parenting contribute knowledge and offer needed direction to education efforts (e.g., parent education) for the increasingly culturally diverse population in the United States (Solis-Camara & Fox, 1995).

There is an inadequate base of research on Korean parenting practice during adolescence even though parenting and its influence on developmental outcomes have been considerably studied with Euro-American parents. There are numerous cross-cultural researches of child-rearing practice with different cultural groups; however, there are few researches of parenting practice with the same cultural groups in different cultural contexts. As a result, sometimes Korean parenting can be misunderstood because little has been known about how their original cultural and contextual factors influence their parenting practice.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine how cultural and contextual factors influence parenting practice during adolescence by comparing the parenting practice of Korean mothers in Korea and Korean immigrant mothers in the United States with three dimensions: independence, control, and involvement. This study examined 1) the difference in independence, control, and involvement of parenting practice during adolescence between Korean mothers in Korea and Korean immigrant mothers in the United States, 2) the difference between Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice in independence, control, involvement and acculturation levels, and 3) the relationship between Korean mothers' and Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice in independence, control, and involvement and adolescents' academic achievement.

This study provided information about Korean mothers' and Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice in independence, control, and involvement during adolescence and the impact on adolescents' academic achievement. This study may provide information about how cultural and contextual factors influence Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice during adolescence and the relationship between their parenting practice and acculturation and adolescents' academic achievement.

Furthermore, this effort may help Korean immigrant parents in the United States find the direction toward their adaptation to a new culture and increase awareness about what they are doing and how what they do impacts adolescents' academic achievement. In an increasingly diverse society, it could be useful for child development professionals, teachers, and parent educators to better understand the relationship between culture and contextual factors and parents' parenting practice and their relation to adolescents' academic achievement. The result may help those professionals to provide culturally relevant services for Korean families and for others.

Theoretical Framework

Ecological theory was a useful framework to understand how parenting practice can be influenced by different environmental factors and to investigate how culture as a macrosystem affects parenting practice and child development (Meyers, Varkey, & Aguirre, 2002). Environment is the entirety of surroundings and contexts including physical, biological, social, economic, political, aesthetic, and structural features (Bubolz, & Sontag, 1993).

There are four systems that affect each other in reciprocal ways. The microsystem as the basic unit is the immediate environment of the child (e.g., interactions with caregivers at home). The next level of the system is the mesosystem that refers to relationships between the child's main situations (e.g., parent-child relationship and the child's social behavior at school). Exosystem, occurring between mesosystem and microsystem, refers to the settings that affect the child's functioning (e.g., parental work patterns and the child's psychological function). Finally, the macrosystem refers to the overarching economic, political, cultural, and social factors that influence the child (Meyers, 1998).

Ecological theorists believe that families and the environment are interdependent. Also, families are a part of the total life system in which they are interdependent with others. They can respond, change, develop, and behave and modify their environment in multiple ways. Family ecosystem is the family system interacting with its environment. According to Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (1976), family processes (such as parental behaviors) and contextual factors (such as parents' social class or race) often interact in affecting children's development.

Belsky (1984) applied the ecological perspective to develop a comprehensive model of the patterns of parenting behaviors. He stated that parenting behaviors were produced by parental characteristics (e.g., parents' personality or family background), child characteristics (e.g., child temperament), and aspects of the broader social context (e.g., marital relations or work experiences). Roer-Strier and Rosenthal (2001) studied

how immigrant adults socialized in different social contexts with the ecological perspective. They found that many ecological components were interdependent and that these components affected the image of the adaptive adults living the immigration process. They include both their cultural background and individual characteristics.

With the ecological perspective, this study examined the difference between Korean mothers' and Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practices during adolescence and the relationship between their parenting practice and adolescents' academic achievement by recognizing the uniqueness of the Korean culture and the process of immigration in the United States as the macrosystem.

Research Questions

1. What is the difference in independence, control, and involvement of parenting practice during adolescence between Korean mothers in Korea and Korean immigrant mothers in the United States?
2. What is the difference between Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice in independence, control, and involvement and acculturation levels?
3. What is the relationship between Korean mothers' and Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice in independence, control, and involvement and adolescents' academic achievement?

Hypotheses

1. There will be no statistically significant difference in independence, control, and involvement of parenting practice during adolescence

between Korean mothers in Korea and Korean immigrant mothers in the United States.

2. There will be no statistically significant difference in independence, control, and involvement between Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice and acculturation levels.
3. There will be no statistically significant relationship between the three dimensions of independence, control, and involvement in parenting practice of Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers and adolescents' academic achievement.

Delimitations

1. The study compares Korean mothers' and Korean immigrant mothers' practicing practice by focusing on only three specific dimensions of independence, control, and involvement.
2. The Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers have adolescents between the ages of 11 and 17 years old.
3. The sample is Korean mothers in Seoul, Korea, and Korean immigrant mothers in the North Texas area of the United States.
4. The Korean mothers have lived for most of their lives in Korea.
5. The Korean immigrant mothers who were born in Korea have lived in the United States for more than a year.

Definitions of Terms

Academic Achievement:

Academic achievement refers to achievement in particular academic subjects such as English and math. Korean (instead of English in the United States) and math for Korean adolescents and English and math for Korean immigrant adolescents reported by their mothers based on the most recent semester report card. Average scores are the sum of two subject scores and divided by 2 ($GPA = (\text{math} + \text{English (or Korean)})/2$). The average scores are changed into four categories (4: between 90 and 100, 3: between 80 and 89, 2: between 70 and 79, and 1: between 60 and 69).

Acculturation:

Acculturation refers to the process of adapting the beliefs, values, and behavioral norms of mainstream culture with which Korean immigrant mothers come in contact (Kumable, Nishida, & Hepworth, 1985).

Culture:

Culture consists of patterns or traditions, beliefs, patterns of thinking, values, behavioral norms, style of communication, and meanings that are shared in varying ways by interacting members of a group (Ting-Toomey, 1999).

Ethnic group:

Ethnic group refers to relationships between groups whose members considered themselves distinctive by sharing the attitudes, values, customs, lifestyles, and ritual of

groups, as unique social and cultural heritages that are transmitted from generation to generation (Mindel, Habenstein, & Wright, 1988).

Parenting Practice:

Parenting practice was defined as more specific parental behaviors (Daring & Steinberg, 1993) such as, encouraging children to be independent, controlling children's behaviors, and involvement in children's academic learning and school activities initiated by parents.

Summary

Parenting practice has been influenced by cultural and contextual factors and changed over time with children's ages. Several parenting studies during adolescence have focused on the relationships between parenting practice and adolescents' academic achievement (Paulson & Sputa, 1996) even though the findings are not consistent across cultures and ethnicities (Chao, 1994; Lim & Lim, 2003).

This study used a quantitative research method with the ecological perspective to examine the difference in three dimensions of parenting, such as independence, control, and involvement between Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers. This study may help professionals including family life educators, teachers, or social workers understand Korean cultural values and norms related to parenting practice during adolescence. The study also may help them provide culturally relevant services for Korean families.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature focused on parenting practice and academic achievement by considering specific dimensions of independence, control, and involvement in parenting practice, Korean tradition and Korean family, and children's education in Korea. Also, it focused on Korean immigrant parents in the United States, characteristics of the Korean ethnic group, acculturation and Korean immigrants, Korean immigrant parental involvement, and their children's academic achievement.

Parenting Practices and Academic Achievement

Some studies have examined parenting practice involving the specific dimension of children's schooling, such as parental involvement in education (Chao, 2000). Parental warmth, patterns of punishment and reward, expectations, and control have been associated with academic achievement in adolescents (Baumrind, 1971; Deslandes, Potvin, & Leclerc, 1999; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994).

As central dimensions of parenting practice, parental support (e.g., helping children solve problems, praising children's accomplishment, and showing affection) and monitoring (supervising children's school work, peer relationships, and conformity to family and community norms) and avoidance of harsh punishment were positively associated to children's adjustment, school work, and behavioral

problems. However, parents' use of harsh punishment was negatively related to grades (Amato & Fowler, 2000).

Other researchers also found that acceptance-involvement, strictness-supervision, and encouraging psychological autonomy for the adolescent examined as authoritative parenting were positively related to academic achievement (Deslandes, Potvin, & Leclerc, 1999; Marjory & Steinberg, 1999). For American children, restrictive parenting, using parental authority to control, and monitoring of child behavior were negatively related to academic performance, and supportive parenting practices were positively related to academic performance (Dearing, 2004).

Some comparative cross-cultural studies of parenting found that significantly different parenting practices related to children's academic achievement between European Americans and Asian Americans. Those studies showed that Europeans were more authoritative than other ethnic groups, but the relationship between having an authoritative parenting style and student academic achievement was supported for the majority group (Park & Bauer, 2002; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). Asian Americans parents were more authoritarian, but children showed better academic achievement than European Americans (Chao, 1994, 2000; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). Chao (1994) explained that the high parental control as an authoritarian parenting characteristic occurred in a caring context in the Chinese families. Also, Asian parents usually push their children to attain

McCloskey (1998) studied the Mexican culture in relation to harsh parenting that includes cultural practices and attitudes such as beliefs regarding the positive effects of punishing children and the use of corporal punishment as disciplinary practices. However, the Mexican-American children attained greater gains in task performances than did Anglo-American children (Moreno, 1997). For Latino-American parents, researchers suggested that the high level of parental control and management were predictors of concerned, involved, and effective parenting (Elder, Eccles, Ardel, & Lord, 1995).

Parental involvement as a dimension of parenting practice has been significantly emphasized in relation to children's education even though parents are involved in many different ways with their children depending on their available resources (Muller, 1995). Several studies found that parental involvement was significantly related to children's academic achievement (Chao, 2000; Keith & Keith, 1993; Muller, 1995), and immigrant Chinese parents showed structural parental involvement practices in comparison with European American mothers (Chao, 2000). Parental involvement included communication between parents and adolescent, home supervision, support, and parents' participation in school (Epstein, 1992). Parent-child communication regarding children's school was positively related to children's academic achievement (Epstein, 1990; Gonzalez & Blanco, 1991; Trivette & Anderson, 1995) by delivering directions and problem-solving strategies to their children (Portes, Franke, & Alsup, 1984). Parental expectations for children's educational achievement showed positive impacts on

children's aspirations and expectations, which influence their academic performance and achievement (Keith & Keith, 1993; Xitao & Chen, 1999), whereas parental participation in school activities had no effect on achievement of eighth-grade students (Trievette & Anderson, 1995).

Parental involvement and academic achievement are challenging for other ethnic groups, such as African American, Hispanic American, and Asian American adolescents because the relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement is inconsistent (Chao, 2000). Furthermore, a number of studies of parental involvement have been conducted with respect to European American adolescents so that parental involvement and adolescents from other ethnic groups have been inadequately explored (Kim, 2002).

Korean Tradition and Korean Family

The Korean family has been traditionally affected by Confucianism that has emphasized patriarchal authority and hierarchical relationships between generations and genders. Even though Korean family life has been changing rapidly with modernization and the equalizing of status between men and women, families have still been influenced by the traditional values (Hurh, 1998). In modern Korean society, the basic norms and values governing interpersonal relationships have continued to be based on Confucianism (Park & Cho, 1995).

Korean culture consists of three main characteristics with family-centered collectivism, we-ness, and authoritarianism. It is influenced by Confucianism as a

philosophy of life by emphasizing virtues, values, filial piety, and family relationships. Filial piety is characterized by children's compliance and respect to parents, responsibility for caring for parents and self-sacrifice for family honor (Chung & Yoo, 2000).

The five significant relationships in Confucianism are between father and son with affection, between ruler and subjects with righteousness, between husband and wife with separate role, between old and young with proper order, and between friends with faithfulness (Park & Cho, 1995).

Unlike European American cultures as individualistic, Asian culture emphasizes collectivistic values regarding group orientation, family harmony, respect for authority, and tradition (Jo, 1999; Peterson, Steinmetz, & Wilson, 2004).

The traditional Korean parenting is to raise a whole individual who is psychologically, physically, and intellectually well developed, as an ideal person. Korean culture, as a collectivistic culture, has emphasized the value of the ideal person who is harmonious and obedient within hierarchical relationships. For a person, self is recognized as an essential part of society without emphasizing independence and the autonomy of the individual (Lee, 2000).

In Korean culture, there are proper roles of mothers and fathers: strict father and nurturing, affectionate, and warm mother (Bronstein, 1991). In general, Korean parents think that corporal punishment is necessary for the purpose of disciplining children, and mothers direct most of the punishment if a child does not study hard (Ellinger &

Beckham, 1997). Parents have several reasons for disciplining children, such as fighting with a sibling, failing to do homework, getting poor grades, talking back to parents, or coming home late (Doe, 2000).

Children's Education in Korea

Enthusiasm for education is a Korean traditional characteristic. Confucianism values academic achievement and hard work that is motivated by group or collectivistic values as providing a high level of social capital (Sorensen, 1994). Unlike American children in an individualistic culture, Asian children are expected to honor their families and themselves (Rao, McHale, & Pearson, 2003).

Traditionally, Korean education starts before children are born. Prenatal care during pregnancy emphasizes building children's personality and intelligence. Korean mothers have primary responsibilities for their children's education. When a child enters school, the mother makes sure that the child completes homework. If the child needs some help, the mother helps the child with instruction or provides private tutoring or lessons after school. Korean children spend most of their time studying. If a child is in a high school, the child usually attends school from 8 a.m. until 4 p.m. and takes extra study in an evening study hall. When the child arrives at home, the child does homework, watches an educational television, or attends evening "hagwan", a private educational institution, in which the child takes supplementary academic lessons. Their study time lasts almost until midnight, and some high school students sleep for four or five hours a day (Ellinger Beckham, 1997).

Korea has developed remarkable economic growth in short periods with heavy industry, such as steel, construction, ship building, and automobiles. The major contribution for this significant economic achievement is the Korean education system that has been a major source of trained and skillful workers with a substantial investment in high technology.

Education is important for a person's success in social status and economic wealth, and public education only focuses on college entrance examination preparation without regarding extra-curricular activities (Kim, 1999). Thus, more Korean students are engaged to prepare early for the college entrance examinations and to get an admission from highly ranked universities even while they are still elementary and middle school students (Lee, 2005).

Korean parents require their children to study extra after or before school, not just to do homework. Parents also have the heavy burden of huge expenses for extra lessons in private educational institutions or for private tutors (Kim, 1999; Lee, 2005; Sorensen, 1994). Furthermore, they share the same goals and assumptions by cooperation with teachers, which is necessary for motivating students. However, the educational enthusiasm also causes the problems of extra study, excessive competition, and pressure for educational success (Sorensen, 1994). In addition, because of the lack of public financing of school education and parents' dissatisfaction with public education, parents suffer from the heavy costs of education while the Gross National Product (GNP) of Korea has reached the 12th highest rank in the world (Kim).

Korean students often feel that they are in “examination hell”, and they are physically and mentally overly anxious while they try to meet their parents’ expectations by studying hard and by using all available resources (Kim, 1999). The rate of adolescent suicides has increased 30% since 1990’s. Because of parental pressure on academic achievement and the lack of leisure time, Korean adolescents have shown more depression symptoms than adolescents in the United States (Lee & Larson, 2000).

Korean parents usually have tended to regard American education as the best with its English skills and global experience (Ly, 2005). According to the Survey of the Korean Educational Development Institution (KEDI) (cited in Moon, June 9, 2005), one of three Korean parents wants to send their children abroad to study as young as possible even though many students fail to achieve their academic goals because of lack of information and lack of preparation. Some Korean families are living separately only for their children’s education, which is called “kirogi (wild geese) family”. Fathers are living in Korea to provide financial support for their families, and mothers are living with children in the United States. Even though Korean officials cannot count how many families are “kirogi”, they have estimated approximately 10,000 school-age children left Korea to study abroad in 2002 (Ly).

Korean students spent \$1.85 billion on tuition and living costs while studying overseas in 2003. Korea is the top on the list of household education spending to total consumption expenditure among the thirty Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries with a ratio of 5.8 percent due to students studying

abroad and students attending private institutions after school, while the United States was listed with 2.5 percent (Kim, 2005).

Korean Immigrant Parents in the United States

Koreans have immigrated to the United States for different reasons, at different time, and with different skills. The number of Korean immigrants in the United States has increased rapidly during recent years. Like other ethnic groups, Korean immigrants have faced several challenges depending on their situations while they have adjusted to the American culture.

History of Korean Immigration

The United States and Korea signed the first Treaty in 1882 and approved Korean immigration in 1886. During the first wave of immigration between 1903 and 1905, 7,843 Korean immigrations came to Hawaii, and they separated to various plantations. Some of them formed a self-governing village and adjusted to the new environment. In the second wave between 1912 and 1924, 951 Korean “picture brides” immigrated to Hawaii because the number of Korean men outnumbered Korean women. The Korean men insisted on marrying Korean women only. However, the Oriental Exclusion Act of 1924 resulted in anti-Japanese feelings, and the immigration of Koreans stopped. Between 1924 and 1960’s, the third wave, the United States allowed Korean students to come and study here. The Korean War occurred between 1950 and 1953, and American solders that were stationed in Korea married Korean women, called “War-Brides” or “Peace-Brides”. The fourth wave is between 1965 and the present. The rate of Korean immigration to the United States has gradually increased since 1965, and this trend has

been expected to continue in the twenty-first century (“Korean Immigration”, 2001). According to the U.S. Census Bureau 2000 (as cited in Reeves & Bennett, 2004), approximately 1.3 million Korean immigrants now reside in the United States. With the dramatic increase of the Korean immigrant population, they have emerged as one of the most visible and yet misunderstood ethnic groups in America (Taahan Chang, 2000).

Reasons for immigration to the United States vary based on a particular person’s circumstance in a certain time. In the early 1990s, Korean immigrants who faced social and economic hardships were unskilled and motivated by purely economic reasons. These immigrants usually worked on farms; however, recent immigrants coming from the upper middle class in Korea have different reasons (e.g., children’s education, finding a job, or personal education) and have been highly educated (Jo, 1999).

Characteristics of the Korean Ethnic Group

Korean immigrants’ culture is characterized by a race, a language, and a strong ethnic centered social system with strong ethnic attachment to their culture of origin (Lee, 2000). A strong ethnic network plays an important role for Korean immigrants to overcome their social and cultural isolation and loneliness, particularly for those who have limited English (Jo, 1999).

Limited English proficiency has been the number one stressor for most Korean immigrants, and has led many Korean immigrants to become self-employed workers in small businesses. The language barrier for Korean immigrants has prevented them from having choices of occupation, and has damaged self-esteem and self-image. Furthermore, Korean immigrants’ limited capacity of effective communication in English has

prevented them from joining many social and voluntary groups or organizations which are present in the communities. As a result, their activities and interactions have been limited to those involving their families or ethnic communities (Jo, 1999).

Korean ethnic churches have been a major source of social interaction and help for a number of Korean immigrants (Kim, 2002), and Korean language schools have been important to transmit their ethnic culture to the next generation. Also, family social support exchange has been more intergenerational among Koreans than other ethnic groups (Lubben, 2001).

Acculturation and Korean Immigrants

Korean immigrant families have encountered difficulties with many elements of culture including language and role adjustment and have experienced isolation. Also, Korean immigrant families in a society of diverse ethnic groups have dealt with various difficulties on the process of acculturation during the transition period to survive in the United States (Lee, 2000). The major problems for adjustment were language, employment, health, family relations, and child rearing (Nah, 1993). Korean immigrants were acculturated to the mainstream culture, but they maintained their identification with Korean culture and social networks within the Korean community (Hurh & Kim, 1990).

According to Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, and Buriel (1990), there are some adaptive strategies that immigrant families use to adjust to a new culture: 1) Extended family systems and role flexibility as the family support network helps families solve problems when they have stress, 2) Biculturalism as the ability of an individual to behave effectively in two different cultures, and 3) Ancestors' worldview as the traditional

values of culture and family passed from parents to their children. Parents integrate different degrees of these strategies in their parenting practices.

Researchers suggested that there are two types of acculturative adaptation, assimilation and integration (Berry & Kim, 1988). According to assimilation strategy, immigrants incorporate multiple characteristics of the mainstream culture (e.g., interpersonal relationships, language, values, and practices). According to integration (bicultural), immigrants integrate the mainstream culture and their own culture.

Korean immigrants' acculturation was related to language use, social interaction, traditional value, and identity. Korean immigrants who had high levels of English proficiency and had more social relationships showed less stress while abandonment of Korean identity, traditions, and values were directly related to higher depression (Oh, Koeske, & Sales, 2002).

Korean immigrant parents' attitudes of acculturation were important for their relationship with adolescents. The different rate of acculturation between Korean adolescents and their parents caused conflicts with discipline, social interactions, or curfews even though they had strong and emotional bond with each other (Fang & Wark, 1998).

Current parenting behaviors and attitudes have been influenced by the cultural beliefs or factors, such as ethnicity (Ferrari, 2002). Korean immigrant parents have encountered difficulties in child-rearing and in discipline as a common problem. Also, Korean parents have reported general parental anxiety about child-rearing including a sense of inadequacy as parents because of their inability to help their children with school

work or to support higher education. Furthermore, they think that their children have been losing their ethnic identity and traditional values by becoming Americanized (Nah, 1993).

Korean immigrant parents believe that physical punishment is essential in certain specific situations in which parents need to correct their children's behaviors with love. Korean immigrant parents discipline children to obey and respect family as the most valued goal. Korean immigrant parents restrict their children in expressing their feelings and seldom allow them to comment regarding parents' thoughts or behaviors (Lee, 2000). Parent acculturation, length of time in U.S., involvement, adjustment stress, value of children in Korean culture, perceived discrimination as ecological factors were related to the attitude toward child physical punishment (Park, 2001).

Korean immigrant parents practiced authoritative (Kim, Gim, & Ruth, 2003; Lee, 2000), family centered, male dominant, and academic achievement oriented strategies in the United States. They had conflicts with their traditional parenting practice because of life stresses, different parenting styles from those of American parents, educational enthusiasm, language barriers, and strong ethnic bonds while they adapt to mainstream culture (Lee, 2000). Park (2001) suggested that more attention is required regarding how Korean immigrant parents adapt to the mainstream, and the impact of Korean culture and their immigration status on their children's discipline.

Korean Immigrant Parental Involvement and Academic Achievement

Korean immigrant parents put much more emphasis on children's education than do American parents (Kim & Chun, 1994) without considering individual differences and

abilities. Korean immigrant mothers were satisfied with the quality of American education; however, they believed that abundant freedom was given to children in American schools (Lee, 2000).

Parental acculturation levels were strongly related to parental involvement and children's educational achievement among Korean immigrant families. Korean parents who had a higher level of acculturation with a higher level of English proficiency tended to have higher levels of parental involvement (Kim, 2002).

Korean immigrant parents tended to evaluate their children's academic grades by the degree of the children's effort and believed that a good grade was guaranteed their children's future lives. They believed that a unique way to achieve a family goal was to get admission from a distinguished college for children's success, wealth, and fame. Their American dreams coming from strong expectations for their children's success were related to their children's future (Lee, 2000).

Here is an example communicated between a Korean mother and daughter about school grades (LY, 2005):

Mom, are you going to kill me if my grades are underwater? You know, 'under C.' Get it? Her mother shot her a look of mock threat: "I'll have to think about going back to Korea." "Then I'll get all F's," Hannah retorted. "I've forgotten most of my Korean." Kim touched her daughter's hand lightly. "No, I don't care if you don't get straight A's. But I know you probably will. You work hard. You're special and you're smart," she said, and then smirked. "Because your mom's smart (p. 2)".

According to Korean American mothers, the meaning of academic success was getting an admission from highly ranked colleges, an Ivy League University. They expected the behavioral goal of studying hard with the straight “A” grades. Korean American mothers used many different ways to help their children in recognizing the value of academic success, such as moving to a good school district, creating learning environments, providing for private tutors, and providing unconditional financial support. Korean parents pressured their children for reaching their expectations, which caused conflict between parents and children (Yang, 2000).

For Asian American adolescents’ academic achievement, parental values for education, high expectations, and parental beliefs about success were very important factors (Chao, 1994). According to Kim (2002), Korean parenting practice as authoritarian with strict home supervision was considered to be positive on children’s education while strict home supervision had a negative impact on academic achievement among American adolescents. Parents’ school contact was not significantly related to children’s educational achievement like home based parental involvement including parental expectations, parent-school communication, or home supervision. Parents’ education level and English proficiency were related to parental involvement and children’s academic achievement. However, parents’ extremely high expectation caused children psychological problems while parental involvement showed positive impacts on children’s educational achievement.

Kim and Rohner (2002) examined parental warmth, control, and involvement in schooling related to Korean American adolescents’ academic achievement based on

adolescents' perceptions of parental behaviors. There was no significant difference in adolescents' perceptions of maternal and paternal behaviors. Also, both maternal and paternal styles that adolescents perceived did not fit into any category of Baumrind's parenting styles. However, parental involvement was significantly related to Korean American adolescents' academic achievement: adolescents who perceived more maternal and paternal involvement achieved better grades. Korean American adolescents' academic achievement was influenced by perceived paternal involvement, maternal acceptance, and family acculturation.

Summary

The traditional Korean values and norms of parenting have been influenced by Confucianism. Children's education has been a primary parental task in Korea. Korean immigrant history covers approximately 100 years even though the reasons for immigration have been different. Korean Immigrants have unique characteristics such as, race, language, and strong ethnic attachment to their culture of origin. Korean immigrant parents have been highly involved in children's education at home.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study examined the differences of Korean mothers' and Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practices in three dimensions (encouragement of independence, control, and involvement) during adolescence and the relationship between their parenting practice and their adolescents' academic achievement. This chapter includes a discussion of the research design, sample and sample selection, instrumentations, measurement, and methods of data collection and analysis.

Research Design

The design of the study was quantitative by using a survey research method that was the most frequently used method of observation in the social sciences to describe the characteristics of a large population (Babbie, 2001). Furthermore, the survey research method was excellent for measuring parenting practice during adolescence from Korean ethnic groups by indirect observation in Korea and in the United States by using self-administered questionnaires.

Sample and Sample Selection

The participants in this study were 100 Korean mothers and 84 Korean immigrant mothers. Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers had adolescents between the ages of 11 and 17 years old. Korean mothers who were born in Korea had lived most of their lives in Seoul, Korea. Korean immigrant mothers who were born in Korea had

immigrated to the United States and had lived for at least one year in the United States. In this study, Korean immigrant mothers included both Korean American citizens and Korean foreigners. The sample was recruited by using a snowball sampling technique in both Korea and in the United States. For Korean mothers in Korea, the researcher used a trained research assistant.

For this study, 170 questionnaires were distributed in Korea and 103 questionnaires (60.6%) were returned. However, three questionnaires (2.9%) were discarded: 2 of them did not meet a criterion for having an adolescent between 11 and 17 years old, and another one did not complete all questions. In the United States, 160 questionnaires were distributed and 85 (53.1%) were returned. One of 85 (1.2%) was discarded because it did not complete all questions.

Sample Characteristics

The participants consisted of 100 Korean mothers in Korea and 84 Korean immigrant mothers in the United States. The mean age of Korean mothers was 43.63 years old ($SD=2.86$, range=36-50), and the mean age of Korean adolescents was 15.08 years old ($SD=1.75$, range=11-17). Fifty-four Korean mothers (54%) had male adolescents and 46 Korean mothers had female adolescents (46%). Forty-two Korean mothers (42%) finished high schools, 6 (6%) finished 2 or 4-year colleges (but had not graduated), 46 (64%) finished four-year-colleges, and 4 (4%) had master's or doctoral degrees. Sixty-eight percent ($n=68$) of Korean mothers finished 4-year-college or post graduate schools. Fifty-five Korean mothers (55%) were housewives, 12 (12%) were part-time, and 33 (33%) were full-time employees.

The mean age of Korean immigrant mothers was 42.92 years old ($SD=3.73$, range=33-56), and the mean age of Korean immigrant adolescents was 14.46 years old ($SD=1.98$, range=11-17). Forty-two (50%) of Korean immigrant mothers had male adolescents and 42 (50%) had female adolescents. Sixty Korean immigrant mothers (71.4%) were educated in Korea, 2 (2.4%) were educated in the United States, and 22 (26.2%) were educated in both Korea and the United States. Thirteen (15.5%) Korean immigrant mothers finished high school. Eight (3.1%) finished 2 or 4-year college, but did not graduate, 43 (16.8%) finished 4-year college, and 20 (7.8%) had master's or doctoral degrees. Sixty-three Korean immigrant mothers (75%) finished 4-year-colleges or post graduate schools. Twenty-four (28.6%) Korean immigrant mother were housewives, 13 (5.1%) were part-time employees, and 47 (18.4%) were full-time employees.

The mean age of Korean mothers was slightly higher (43.6 years old) than that of Korean immigrant mothers (42.9 years). The mean age of Korean adolescents (15.1 years old) was slightly higher than that of Korean immigrant adolescents (14.5 years old). Korean immigrant mothers' education level was higher than that of Korean mothers: 52% of Korean mothers and 75% of Korean immigrant mothers finished 4-year-college or graduate schools. Korean mothers were less likely to be employed than Korean immigrant mothers; 55% of Korean mothers and 71.5% of Korean immigrant mothers were employed in part-time or full-time jobs.

For Korean immigrant mothers, there were three more demographic questions: place of education, years of residence in the United States, and reasons for immigration to

the United States. First, Korean immigrant mothers reported their education places. Sixty Korean immigrant mothers (71.4%) finished education in Korea; 2 (2.4%) finished it in the United States; and 22 (26.2%) finished or were completing it both in Korea and in the United States. Second, for years of residence in the United States, Korean immigrant mothers reported that 8 Korean immigrant mothers (9.5%) had lived for more than a year and less than 3 years in the United States. Twenty-eight (33.3%) had lived for more than 3 years and less than 10 years in the United States. Forty-eight (57.1%) had lived for more than 10 years in the United States. Third, Korean immigrant mothers reported reasons of immigration to the United States (multiple answers accepted): 35 for economic opportunities (41.7%), 32 for children's education (38.1%), 25 for personal education (29.8%), 7 for sociopolitical stability (8.3%), and 9 for other reasons (10.7%), such as family invitations (see Table 1).

Table 1.

Demographic Characteristics (N=184)

	Korean Mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	Korean Immigrant Mothers (<i>n</i> =84)
Characteristic		
Adolescent age (<i>M</i> , in years)	15.1	14.5
Adolescent gender (%)		
Female	46.0	50.0
Male	54.0	50.0
Maternal age (<i>M</i> , in years)	43.6	42.9
Maternal education (%)		
Completed high school	42.0	15.5
2-4-year college or university	6.0	9.5
Completed college or university	46.0	51.2
Post-graduate study, professional	6.0	23.8
Maternal employment status (%)		
Housewife	55.0	28.6
Part-time	12.0	15.5
Full-time	33.0	56.0

Table 1. (continued)

	Korean Mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	Korean Immigrant Mothers (<i>n</i> =84)
Characteristic		
Immigrant mothers' education place (%)		
Korea		71.4
Korea and the United States		26.2
The United States		2.4
Years of residence in the United States (%)		71.4
More than 1 and less than 3 years		9.5
More than 3 years and less than 10 years		33.3
More than 10 years		57.1
Reasons of immigration (%)		
Children's Education		38.1
Economic Opportunities		41.7
Sociopolitical stability		8.3
Personal Educational Opportunities		29.8
Others		10.7

Instrumentation

The instruments consisted of demographic information questionnaires, academic achievement report, a parenting practice questionnaire (43 items), and the Suinn-lew Asian Self-identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASIA) (19 items) (Suinn, Ahuna, & Khoo, 1992). These instruments all were written in both English and Korean versions.

Academic Achievement

Grade-point average (GPA) may not be the most accurate reflection of adolescents' achievement in school; however, it is the most widely used as an indicator by which parents, teachers, or other school personnel make judgments concerning children's performance in school (Paulson, 1994). Adolescents' academic achievement was obtained from mothers in both Korea and the United States. Korean mothers were asked to report Korean (instead of English) and math scores, and Korean immigrant mothers were asked to report English and math scores based on the most recent semester's report card. Average scores are the sum of two subject scores and divided by 2 ($GPA = (\text{math} + \text{English (or Korean)})/2$).

Acculturation

This study used 19 items selected from the Suinn-lew Asian Self-identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASIA) to measure Korean immigrant mothers' acculturation. The instrument consisted of 26 items, including four that Suinn, Ahuna, and Khoo (1992) to the original 21-items of the SL-ASIA (Suinn, Rikard-Figueroa, Lew, & Vigil, 1987). Suinn, Khoo, and Ahuna (1995) found that in their survey 17.9 years of length of

residency in the United States tended to be influenced by Western Culture; however, respondents tended to retain their ethnic origins, reflecting a bicultural orientation.

This instrument was selected because it was used by many researchers to measure Asian Americans' acculturation. Some items were modified to fit the Korean immigrant mother population by changing the terms from "Asian" to "Korean". Also, 6 items relating to generation-geographic background were excluded because the sample for the study was immigrants. Items were combined (e.g., numbers 6 and 7, and numbers 20 and 26) and modified to ask the ethnic origin of friends and peers since the respondents had been in the United States.

For the study, 19 items consisted of language (4 questions), identity (3 questions), friendship choice (1 question), preference of associations (4 questions), preferred behaviors (5 questions), and values (2 questions).

Demographic Information Questionnaire

The form of demographic information questionnaires was two types, one for Korean mothers and one for Korean immigrant mothers. The demographic questionnaire included the mother's age, the adolescent's age and gender, the mother's highest education level, and the mother's employment status. Especially, for Korean immigrant mothers, there were three more questions including the length of residence in the U.S, education places, and reasons for immigration.

Parenting Practice Questionnaire

The Child Rearing Practices Report (CRPR), a Q-sort procedure, consists of 91 items with all phrased in the first-person form for both mothers and fathers and the third-

person for children who are asked to describe their mothers and/or fathers' child-rearing practice. The 91 items consist of different types of child-rearing practices, such as encouragement of independence, punishment, emphasis on achievement, expression of affection, and emphasis on conformity. The CRPR has been translated into several languages and proven to be an appropriate instrument for use in cross-cultural research of parenting practice. The reliability of the instrument was .71 (range = .38 to .85; sigma= 1.0) (Block, 1965).

The original items of CRPR were modified in order to facilitate data collection. Some words was changed (e.g., from "him" into "her/him", from "himself" into "herself/himself").

Thirty-two items were derived from the CRPR. Eleven items were designed based on Epstein's framework of six types of parental involvement (parenting, communication, volunteering, learning at home, decision making, and collaboration with community) (1995) and Keith and Keith's four components of parental involvement (parents' educational expectations, parent-child communication about school learning, parents' home supervision for children's school work, and parents' school participation related to school (1993). The total items of the parenting practice questionnaire were 43.

Measurement

The major variables for this study were the three dimensions of parenting practice, (such as independence, control, and involvement), acculturation variables for Korean immigrant mothers, adolescents' academic achievement, and demographic information (mothers' age, adolescents' age and gender, mothers' educational level, and

maternal employment status). For only Korean immigrant mothers, there were three more variables of places of education, years of residence in the United States, and reasons for immigration to the United States.

Academic Achievement

To measure adolescents' academic achievement, test scores were reported by mothers in both Korea and the United States. The GPA was made of the sum of total scores of math and English (or Korean) and divided by 2 ($GPA = (\text{math} + \text{Reading}) / 2$). All raw scores were translated into four grade levels: 4 (scores between 90 and 100), 3 (scores between 80 and 89), 2 (scores between 70 and 79), and 1 (scores between 60 and 69).

Korean Immigrant Mothers' Acculturation

The Suinn-lew Asian Self-identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASIA) (Suinn, Ahuna, & Khoo, 1992) had 19 items. Each item was answered on a range of 1 to 5, with the higher response scored to represent greater assimilation to the American culture. For example, "Which language do you speak?" was answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1) Korean only, 2) Mostly Korean, some English, 3) Korean and English about equally well (bilingual), 4) Mostly English, some Korean, and 5) Only English). Items 16 and 17 were asked about attachment to values of Korean or American culture and were rated from 1 (e.g., do not strongly believe in Korean value) to 5 (strongly believe in Korean values). Items 18 and 19 were asked about degree of bonding to Korean ethnicity or other ethnicity and were rated from 1 (do not fit at all) to 5 (fit very well). Scores were on a range from 20 to 39, which were regarded as Koreans, a range from 40 to 69 regarded as Korean-Americans, and a range from 70 to 95 regarded as Americans (see Table 2).

Table 2.

Korean Immigrant Mothers' Acculturation

Variable	Measure	Score	Range
Acculturation	Suinn-lew Asian Self-identity	Korean	20-39
	Acculturation Scale (SL-ASLA),	Korean-American	40-69
	Suinn, Ahuna, & khoo, 1992)	American	70-95

Note. Suinn-lew Asian Self-identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASLA) (Appendix C)

Parenting Practice

To measure three dependent variables of independence, control, and involvement of parenting practice, 32 items selected from the Child-rearing Practice Report (CRPR) (Block, 1965) and 11 items specifically designed were used. The participants responded on each item of parenting practice with the 5-point Likert-type scale (from 1=never to 5=most time). For example, for the statement: "I respect my child's opinions and encourage him/her to express them", the participants chose an answer based on the way that reflected their real practice. If they did most time respect and encourage their adolescents to express their opinions, they would circle the number 5, "Most time" (see Table 3).

Table 3.

Parenting Practice

Variables	Measure	Scores
Independence	32 items selected from the	5-point Likert-type scale (1=never, 2=rarely, 3=often, 4=sometimes, and 5=most time)
Control	Child-rearing Practice Report	
Involvement	(CRPR) (Block, 1965) and 11 designed items	

Data Collection

The researcher provided a packet that had a consent form and questionnaires including the Parenting Practice Questionnaire, Demographic Information Questionnaire, and Academic Achievement Report. The questionnaires included detailed instructions for self-administering the instruments. Acculturation measurement was provided for only Korean immigrant mothers, and all items were written in both Korean and English. The participants chose a language that was more convenient for them. The participants completed all questionnaires by following the instructions. Korean mothers took approximately 25-30 minutes, and Korean immigrant mothers took approximately 35-45 minutes for completing the questionnaires.

This study conducted a pilot study with 5 American mothers and 3 Korean immigrant mothers who took a pretest of the Korean version of the questionnaires. Two American mothers did not return the questionnaires. The revisions were made as

suggested by participants in the pilot study, such as making a phrase to be specific for only an adolescent between the ages of 11 and 17 years old while the participants completed the questionnaires.

Analysis of Data

In this study, the data were coded and classified into categories (e.g., kp= Korean mother and ap=Korean immigrant mother). First, the demographic information was analyzed by descriptive statistics for the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers. Second, for analyzing parenting practice, the data were recorded with the numerical scores for each response as follows: 1=never, 2=rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often, and 5=most time. Scores of item 5, item 10, item 17, item 23, item 25, item 26, item 27, and item 29 were reversed (e.g., 1-5, 2-4, 4-2, and 5-1). Three *t*-tests were used for examining the differences of parenting practices between Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers in the three variables of independence, control, and involvement. Third, the Korean immigrant mothers' level of acculturation was coded based on the scores of the questionnaire: 1=Korean (scores between 20 and 39), 2=Korean-American (score between 40 and 69), and 3=American (scores between 70 and 95). However, the Korean immigrant mothers were categorized into only two groups of "Korean" and "Korean-American." Three *t*-tests were used for examining the differences between these two groups. These two groups were independent variables, and independence, control, and involvement of parenting practice of Korean immigrant mothers were dependent variables. Fourth, for examining the relationship of adolescents' academic achievement

and the parenting practice of Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers, GPA reported by mothers was evaluated by using multiple regressions. Three dimensions of parenting practice were predictors, and GPA was the criterion. Fifth, factor analyses were conducted to identify a set of measures by reducing a larger number of overlapping measured variables. Also, by using internal consistency approaches, the *Cronbach's alpha* of the selected items was presented.

For comparing the dependent variable of independence between Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers, 7 items (1, 3, 4, 7, 33, 34, and 35) were selected based on the result of factor analysis. Item 18 ("I make sure I know where my child is and what she/he is doing") was deleted because it was not relevant to the independent variable. The *Cronbach's alpha* of these items was .74. Second, 12 items (9, 11, 12, 13, 15, 19, 21, 28, 30, 31, 37, and 38) were selected as representing the control variable. The *Cronbach's alpha* of these items was .76. Third, for comparing the parental involvement variable, 6 items (36, 39, 40, 41, 42, and 43) were selected. The *Cronbach's alpha* was .78 (see Table 4 and Appendix H).

Table 4.

Factor Analysis and Cronbach's alpha (N=184)

Measure and variable	Factor loading	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>
PPQ- Independence-item 1	.49	
3	.49	
4	.48	

Table 4. (continued)

Measure and variable		Factor loading	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>
PPQ- Independence–item	7	.55	
	33	.54	
	34	.38	
	35	.43	
Total: 7 items (possible scores: 7-35)			.74
PPQ- Control–item	9	.40	
	11	.39	
	12	.48	
	13	.52	
	15	.44	
	19	.45	
	21	.39	
	28	.45	
	30	.35	
	31	.44	
	37	.46	
	38	.61	
Total: 11 items (possible scores: 11- 55)			.75

Table 4. (continued)

Measure and variable		Factor loading	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>
PPQ-Involvement-item	36	.60	
	39	.49	
	40	.43	
	41	.71	
	42	.67	
	43	.70	
Total: 6 items (possible scores:6- 30)			.78

Note. PPQ= Parenting Practice Questionnaire (Appendix B).

For the independent variable from the Korean mothers, 5 items (3, 7, 33, 34, and 35) were selected based on the factor analysis. Items (11 and 18) were deleted because these were not relevant to the independent variable. The *Cronbach's alpha* of these items was .77. For the control variable from the Korean mothers, 13 items (9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 19, 20, 21, 30, 31, 32, 37, and 38) were selected based on the factor analysis. The *Cronbach's alpha* of these items was .79. Third, items 36, 39, 40, 41, 42, and 43 represented for the involvement variable, and the *Cronbach's alpha* of these items was .79 (see Table 5 and Appendix I).

Table 5.

Factor Analysis and Cronbach's alpha (N=100)

Measure and variable		Factor loading	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>
PPQ- Independence-item	3	.51	
	7	.38	
	33	.68	
	34	.56	
	35	.60	
Total: 5 items (possible scores: 5-25)			.77
PPQ- Control-item	9	.53	
	12	.44	
	13	.54	
	14	.38	
	15	.44	
	19	.42	
	20	.47	
	21	.60	
	30	.43	
	31	.50	
	32	.37	
	37	.44	

Table 5 (continued)

Measure and variable		Factor loading	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>
PPQ- Control-item	38	.58	
Total: 13 items (possible scores: 13-65)			.79
PPQ-Involvement-item	36	.46	
	39	.45	
	40	.35	
	41	.62	
	42	.78	
	43	.82	
Total: 6 items (possible scores:5- 30)			.79

Note. PPQ= Parenting Practice Questionnaire (Appendix A).

The independent variable items were selected from the factor 2. Three items (12, 18, and 19) were deleted because these were more likely related to control variables. Items 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 33, and 34 represented the independent variable for the Korean immigrant mothers. The *Cronbach's alpha* of these items was .73. Second, items 9, 24, 25, 27, 28, and 30 represented the control variable for the Korean immigrant mothers. The *Cronbach's alpha* of these items was .65. Third, for the involvement variables, items 11, 35, 36, 37, 39, 40, 41, 42, and 43 represented the involvement variable for the Korean immigrant mothers. The *Cronbach's alpha* of these items was .83. Item 11 was selected

for the control variable when comparing the Korean mothers with Korean immigrant mothers' groups while item 11 was as an involvement variable for only the Korean immigrant mothers (see Table 6 and Appendix J).

Table 6.

Factor Analysis and Cronbach's alpha (N=84)

Measure and variable		Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
PPQ- Independence–item	1	.50	
	3	.48	
	4	.47	
	7	.68	
	8	.53	
	33	.43	
	34	.42	
Total: 7 items (possible scores: 7-35)			.73
PPQ- Control–item	9	.53	
	24	.44	
	25	.54	
	27	.38	
	28	.44	
	30	.42	

Table 6. (continued)

Measure and variable		Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
Total: 6 items (possible scores:6-30)			.65
PPQ-Involvement-item	11	.55	
	35	.45	
	36	.78	
	37	.65	
	39	.46	
	40	.54	
	41	.84	
	42	.54	
	43	.44	
Total: 9 items (possible scores: 9-45)			.83

Note. PPQ= Parenting Practice Questionnaire (Appendix B).

This study examined the difference of parenting practice during adolescence between Korean mothers in Korea and Korean immigrant mothers in the United States. Parenting practice of both Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers, acculturation of Korean immigrant mothers, and their adolescents' academic achievement were measured. The data were analyzed t-tests, and multiple regressions (see Table 7).

Table 7.

Summary of the Study

Research Questions	Null Hypothesis	Instruments	Analysis
1. Difference of parenting between Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers	No statistically significant difference of parenting practice between Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers	* Parenting Practice Questionnaire 1) Independent 2) Control 3) Involvement	<i>t</i> -tests
2. Difference between Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice and acculturation levels	No statistically significant difference between Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice and acculturation levels	* Korean immigrant mothers' Parenting Practice Questionnaire * SL-ASIA Korean immigrant acculturation 1) Korean 2) Korean-American 3) American	<i>t</i> -tests
3. Relationship between Korean mothers' parenting practice and adolescents' academic achievement	No statistically significant relationship between Korean mothers' parenting practice and adolescents' academic achievement	* Both Korean mothers' and Korean immigrant Parenting Practice Questionnaire * Academic Achievement Report	Multiple regressions Bivariate & Partial Correlations

Summary

For the study, a survey research method was used with questionnaires for collecting data from a Korean ethnic group. A snowball sampling technique was used to

recruit Korean mothers who had lived for most their lives in Korea and Korean immigrant mothers who had lived for more than a year in the North Texas area of the United States. Korean mothers had an adolescent between the ages of 11 and 17 years old. This study measured Korean mothers' parenting practice in three dimensions during adolescence, Korean immigrant mothers' acculturation level, the demographic information, and adolescents' academic achievement. The data were coded by the numbers, and SPSS was used to analyze the data by using *t*-tests and multiple regressions. The factor analyses and the reliabilities were presented to explain the variation among measures.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study examined the differences in independence, control, involvement of parenting practice during adolescence between Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers. The sample size was 100 Korean mothers in Korea and 84 Korean immigrant mothers in the United States who had adolescents between the ages of 11 and 17 years old. Korean mothers' parenting practice during adolescence, adolescents' academic achievement, and acculturation of Korean immigrant mothers were measured. For analyzing the data, *t*-tests and multiple regressions were used. This chapter presents the results of the analyses relevant to each of the research questions.

The Differences in Parenting Practice

Three *t*-tests were performed to investigate the difference in three dimensions of independence, control, and involvement of parenting practice between the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers. Factor analysis was used to select representing items of independence, control, and involvement from the Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers' responses on the parenting practice questionnaire (Table 4). The independent variable was two groups of the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers, and the dependent variables were independence, control, and involvement in parenting practice. First, an independent *t*-test was conducted to find the difference means of the independent

variable between two groups of the Korean mothers and the Korea immigrant mothers. The result was not significant, $t(182) = -1.55, p = .12$. The Korean mothers ($M = 27.59, SD = 4.01$) on the average of independence were very close to the Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 28.48, SD = 3.78$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -2.04 to .24 (see Table 8).

Table 8.

Comparison of Independence (N=184)

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig	95%	
							Confidence	
							Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Independence	Korean							
	mothers	27.59	4.02					
	(<i>n</i> =100)							
	Korean			-1.55	182	.12	-2.04	.24
	immigrant							
	mothers	28.49	3.78					
	(<i>n</i> =84)							

Second, an independent *t*-test was conducted to find the difference means of the control variable between two groups of the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers. The result was significant, $t(182) = -2.15, p = .03$. The Korean mothers ($M = 31.60, SD = 4.46$) on the average of control were less than those of the Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 32.97, SD = 4.15$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was wide, ranging from -2.64 to -.11 (see Table 10).

Table 10.

Comparison of Control (N=184)

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95% Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Lower	Upper
Control	Korean mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	31.60	4.46					
	Korean immigrant mothers (<i>n</i> =84)	32.98	4.15	-2.15	182	.03	-2.64	-.11

Furthermore, when comparing each item of the control variables, some items were statistically significant. The result of item 9 was significant, ($t(182) = -2.94, p = .00$): the Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 2.77, SD = 1.12$) were more likely to control their adolescents to keep them away from others who have different values and ideas from their own than were the Korean mothers ($M = 2.30, SD = 1.05$). The result of item 13 was significant, ($t(182) = -2.98, p = .00$). The Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 3.91, SD = 1.04$) were more likely to encourage their adolescents to do things better than others than were the Korean mothers ($M = 3.42, SD = 1.19$). Also, the result of item 28 was significant, ($t(182) = -2.65, p = .01$). The Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 2.32, SD = 1.14$) were more likely to take away a privilege for their adolescents when punished than were the Korean mothers ($M = 1.89, SD = 1.06$). The result of item 38 was significant, ($t(182) = -2.24, p = .03$). The Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 3.12, SD = 1.16$) were more likely to limit their adolescents to go out with friends than were the Korean mothers ($M = 2.77, SD = .96$) (see Table 11).

Table 11.

Comparison of Items in Control (N=184)

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95% Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Lower	Upper
Control Item 9	Korean mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	2.30	1.05					
	Korean immigrant mothers (<i>n</i> =84)	2.77	1.12	-2.94	182	.00	-.79	-.16
Item 13	Korean mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	3.42	1.19					
	Korean immigrant mothers (<i>n</i> =84)	3.91	1.04	-2.98	182	.00	-.83	-.17

Table 11. (continued)

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig	95% Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Lower	Upper
Control Item 28	Korean mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	1.89	1.06					
	Korean			-2.65	182	.01	-.75	-.11
	immigrant	2.32	1.14					
	mothers (<i>n</i> =84)							
Item 38	Korean mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	2.77	.96					
	Korean			-2.24	182	.03	-.66	-4.10
	immigrant	3.11	1.16					E-02
	mothers (<i>n</i> =84)							

Third, an independent sample *t*-test was also conducted to find the difference means of the parental involvement variable between the two groups of the Korean

mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers. The result was not significant, $t(182) = .40$, $p = .69$. The Korean mothers ($M = 16.36$, $SD = 4.83$) on the average of involvement were very close to the Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 16.08$, $SD = 4.60$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -1.10 to 1.65 (see Table 12).

Table 12.

Comparison of Involvement (N=184)

				<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95%	
							Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Involvement	Korean							
	mothers	16.36	4.84					
	(n=100)							
	Korean			.40	182	.69	-1.10	1.66
	immigrant							
	mothers	16.08	4.60					
	(n=84)							

When comparing the individual items of the involvement variable, 1) the result of item 40 was significant, $t(182) = -3.08, p=.00$: The Korean immigrant mothers ($M=3.23, SD=.89$) were more likely to take their adolescents to educational places than were the Korean mothers ($M=2.78, SD=1.10$). 2) The result of item 42 was significant, $t(182) = 2.05, p=.04$: The Korean immigrant mothers ($M=2.33, SD=1.07$) were less likely to participate in parent organizations than were the Korean mothers ($M=2.69, SD=1.26$). 3) The result was significant for item 43, $t(182) = 2.16, p=.03$: The Korean immigrant mothers ($M=1.82, SD=.98$) were less likely to spend time in their adolescents' classroom as volunteers than were the Korean mothers ($M=2.17, SD=1.17$). Furthermore, even though the result of item 39 was not significant ($t(182) = 1.47, p=.15$), the Korean immigrant mothers ($M=3.17, SD=1.36$) were less likely to provide extra lessons related to school than were the Korean mothers ($M=3.45, SD=1.15$) (see Table 13).

Table 13.

Comparison of Items in Involvement (N=184)]

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Involvement Item 39	Korean mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	3.45	1.15					
	Korean			1.47	182	.15	-9.40E-02	.64
	immigrant mothers (<i>n</i> =84)	3.17	1.36					
	Korean mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	2.78	1.09					
Item 40	Korean			-3.08	182	.00	-.75	-.16
	immigrant mothers (<i>n</i> =84)	3.24	.89					

Table 13. (continued)

Variable	Group	M	S D	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Involvement Item 42	Korean mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	2.69	1.26					
	Korean immigra nt mothers (<i>n</i> =84)	2.33	1.06	2.05	182	.04	1.301E- 02	.70
	Korean mothers (<i>n</i> =100)	2.17	1.17					
	Korean immigra nt mothers (<i>n</i> =84)	1.82	.98	2.16	182	.03	3.012E- 02	.67

In summary, even though the results showed that the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers were not statistically significantly different in the independent variable, the Korean immigrant mothers were more likely to allow their adolescents to have free time than were the Korean mothers. When comparing the control variables, the Korean immigrant mothers were more controlling of their adolescents. They sought to keep them away from others who had different values and ideas against their own; to encourage their adolescents to do things better than others; to take away a privilege from their adolescents when punishing them; and to limit their adolescents from going out with friends. In the involvement variable, even though the result was not significant when comparing the summed items, when comparing each item the Korean immigrant mothers were more likely to take their adolescents to educational places than were the Korean mothers, but less likely to participate in parent organizations, to spend time to volunteer in their adolescents' classrooms, and to provide extra lessons related to school than were the Korean mothers (see Table 14).

Table 14.

Summary of Comparison of Parenting Practice (N=184)

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Independence	Korean							
	mothers	27.59	4.02					
	(<i>n</i> =100)							
	Korean			-1.55	182	.12	2.04	.24
	immigrant							
	mothers	28.49	3.78					
	(<i>n</i> =84)							

Table 14. (continued)

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95%	
							Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Control	Korean							
	mothers	31.60	4.46					
	(n=100)							
	Korean			-2.15	182	.03	-2.64	-.11
	immigrant							
	mothers	32.98	4.15					
	(n=84)							
Involvement	Korean							
	mothers	16.36	4.84					
	(n=100)							
	Korean			.40	182	.69	-1.10	1.65
	immigrant							
	mothers	16.08	4.06					
	(n=84)							

The Differences in Parenting Practice and Acculturation

Three t-tests were conducted to examine the differences of means between three dimensions of independence, control, and involvement in parenting practice of the Korean immigrant mothers and acculturation levels. Factor analysis was used to select representing items of independence, control, and involvement from the Korean immigrant mothers' responses on the parenting practice questionnaire (Table 6). The independent variable was the Korean immigrant mothers' level of acculturation in the United States, and the dependent variables were independence, control, and involvement in parenting practice.

The Korean immigrant mothers' acculturation measured by the Suinn-lew Asian Self-identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASLA), Suinn, Ahuna, & Khoo, 1992) (Appendix C) was divided into three categories: "Korean (scores between 20 and 39)", "Korean-American (scores between 40 and 69)", and "American (scores between 70 and 95)". However, the result showed there were only two groups: 26 "Korean" who mostly kept Korean culture, and 58 "Korean-American" who adopted American culture while maintaining their own culture. To determine whether the Korean immigrant mothers' education place was related to the acculturation levels, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted. The result of ANOVA was significant, $F(2, 81) = 4.33, p = .02$. The Korean immigrant mothers who took their education in the United States or both in Korea and in the United States showed a higher degree of acculturation levels than those of the Korean immigrant mothers who took their education only in Korea. The years of

residence in the United States was not significant, $F(2, 81) = 1.39, p = .26$. The Korean immigrant mothers' educational level was also not significant, $F(3, 80) = 1.21, p = .31$. The years of residence in the United States and education levels were not significantly related to the degree of the acculturation.

First, an independent sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the difference of means of independence variable between two categorized groups: "Korean" and "Korean-American." The results indicated that the difference of means of independence between the two groups was not significant, $t(82) = .48, p = .64$. The mean of the Korean mothers in the independence ($M = 28.53, SD = 2.94$) were very close to the Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 28.10, SD = 4.22$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -1.39 to 2.26 (see Table 15).

Table 15.

Comparison of Independence (N=84)

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95% Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Lower	Upper
Independence	“Korean” (<i>n</i> =26)	28.54	2.94					
	“Korean-American” (<i>n</i> =58)	28.10	4.22	.48	82	.64	-1.39	2.26

Second, an independent sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the difference of means in the control variable between groups categorized as “Korean” and “Korean-American”. The result indicated that the difference of means of the control between two groups was not significant, $t(82) = -1.35, p = .18$. The Korean immigrant mothers of the “Korean” category ($M = 11.89, SD = 2.54$) on the average of control were very close to the Korean immigrant mothers of “Korean-American” ($M = 13.07, SD = 4.12$). Even though there was no statistically significant difference in the average of control, Korean

immigrant mothers of “Korean-American” showed slightly higher than those of Korean immigrant mothers in “Korean”. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means ranged from -2.92 to .56 (see Table 16).

Table 16.

Comparison of Control (N=84)

Variable	Group	M	SD	t-test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95% Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Lower	Upper
	“Korean” (<i>n</i> =26)	11.89	2.54					
Control	“Korean-American” (<i>n</i> =58)	13.07	4.12	-1.35	82	.18	-2.92	.56

Third, an independent sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the difference of means in the involvement variable between two groups categorized as “Korean” and “Korean-American”. The results indicated that the difference of means in the involvement between two groups was not significant, *t* (82) = -1.21, *p* = .23. The Korean immigrant mothers of the “Korean” category (*M* = 25.69, *SD* = 6.63) on the average of

involvement were slightly less engaged than those of the Korean immigrant mothers of the “Korean-American” ($M=27.50$, $SD=6.21$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was wide, ranging from -4.79 to .117 (see Table 17).

Table 17.

Comparison of Involvement (N=84)

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95% Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Lower	Upper
Involvement	“Korean” (<i>n</i> =26)	25.69	6.63					
	“Korean-American” (<i>n</i> =58)	27.50	6.21	-1.21	82	.23	-4.79	1.17

Those categorized into both the “Korean” and “Korean-American” groups of the Korean immigrant mothers showed there were no statistically significant differences in the three dependent variables of independence, control, and involvement during adolescence. However, the Korean immigrant mothers of “Korean-American” showed slightly higher means in the control and involvement variables than those of the Korean

immigrant mothers identified as “Korean”. The summary of parenting practice comparing the Korean immigrant mothers in “Korean” and in “Korean-American” categories was presented here (see Table 18).

Table 18.

Summary of Comparison of Parenting Practice (N=84)

				<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95%	
							Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Independence	“Korean” (<i>n</i> =26)	28.53	2.94					
	“Korean- American” (<i>n</i> =58)	28.10	4.22	.475	82	.64	-1.39	2.26

Table 18. (continued)

Variable	Group	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means				
				<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	95% Confidence	
							Interval of the	
							Lower	Upper
Control	“Korean” (<i>n</i> =26)	11.89	2.54					
	“Korean-American” (<i>n</i> =58)	13.06	4.12	-1.35	82	.18	-2.92	.56
Involvement	“Korean” (<i>n</i> =26)	25.69	6.63					
	“Korean-American” (<i>n</i> =58)	27.50	6.21	-1.21	82	.23	-4.79	1.17

Parenting Practice and Academic Achievement

Factor analysis was used to select items representing independence, control, and involvement from the Korean mothers' (Table 5) and Korean immigrant mothers' responses on the parenting practice questionnaire (Table 6). Three multiple regressions

for the combination were conducted to evaluate how well the three dimensions of parenting practice predicted adolescents' academic achievement. The predictors were the three dimensions of independence, control, and involvement in parenting practice, while the criterion variable was the Korean and Korean immigrant adolescents' GPA. In addition, three bivariate and partial correlations were used to investigate the relationship between the three dimensions of independence, control, and involvement and adolescents' GPA.

First, a multiple regression was conducted to evaluate how well the three dimensions of the Korean and Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice predicted adolescents' academic achievement. The linear combination of three dimension measures was not significantly related to the adolescents' GPA, $R^2 = .04$, adjusted $R^2 = .02$, $F(3, 180) = 2.39$, $p = .07$. The same multiple correlation coefficient was .20, indicating that approximately 4% of the variance of the GPA in the sample was accounted for by the linear combination of three dimension measures of independence, control, and involvement (see Table 19).

Table 19.

Regression Analysis for Variables for Predicting GPA (N=184)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.
Independence	-6.72E-02	.07	-.37			
Control	8.571E-02	.06	.52	2.39	180	.07
Involvement	7.038E-03	.01	.05			

From the bivariate correlation between the three dimensions of parenting practice of the Korean and the Korean immigrant mothers and the GPA, the result indicated that two of three predictors of independence ($r = .16, p < .05$) and control ($r = .18, p < .05$) were statistically significant. However, the partial correlation between the three predictors and the GPA was not significant (see Table 20).

Table 20.

The Bivariate and Partial Correlations of the Predictors with GPA (N=184)

Predictors	Correlation between each predictor and the GPA	Correlation between each predictor and the GPA controlling for all other predictors
Independence	.16*	-0.74
Control	.18*	.10

Table 20.(continued)

Predictors	Correlation between each predictor and the GPA	Correlation between each predictor and the GPA controlling for all other predictors
Involvement	.10	.04

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Second, a multiple regression was conducted to evaluate how well the three dimensions of the Korean mothers' parenting practice predicted adolescents' academic achievement. The linear combination of three dimension measures was not significantly related to the adolescents' GPA, $R^2 = .02$, adjusted $R^2 = .01$, $F(3, 96) = .63$, $p = .60$. The same multiple correlation coefficient was .14, indicating that approximately 2% of the variance of the GPA in the sample was accounted for by the linear combination of three dimension measures of independence, control, and involvement (see Table 21).

Table 21.

Regression Analysis for Variables for Predicting GPA (N=100)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.
Independence	2.706E-02	.03	.11			.60
Control	-1.02E-03	.01	-.01	.63	96	
Involvement	9.360E-03	.02	.49			

Both the bivariate and the partial correlations between the three predictors of independence ($r=.13, p> .05$), control ($r= .02, p> .05$), and involvement ($r=.10, p> .05$) and the GPA indicated that the results were not significant. The Korean mothers' parenting practice was not statistically significantly related to the GPA (see Table 22). Table 22.

The Bivariate and Partial Correlations of the Predictors with GPA (N=100)

Predictors	Correlation between each predictor and the GPA	Correlation between each predictor and the GPA controlling for all other predictors
Independence	.13	.10
Control	.02	-.01
Involvement	.10	.05

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Third, a multiple regression was conducted to evaluate how well the three dimensions of the Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice predicted adolescents' academic achievement. The linear combination of three dimension measures was not significantly related to the adolescents' GPA, $R^2 = .07$, adjusted $R^2 = .04$, $F(3, 80) = 2.02$, $p = .12$. The same multiple correlation coefficient was .27, indicating that approximately 7% of the variance of the GPA in the sample was accounted for by the linear combination of three dimension measures of the Korean immigrant mothers (see Table 23).

Table 23.

Regression Analysis for Variables for Predicting GPA (N=84)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.
Independence	.668E-04	.014	.001			
Control	.900E-03	.014	.048	2.02	80	.12
Involvement	.886E-02	.008	.259			

For the Korean immigrant mothers, both the bivariate and partial correlations indicated that only involvement was statistically significant, $r = .26$, $p < .05$. The Korean immigrant mothers' involvement in their adolescents' education was significantly related to the GPA (see Table 24)

Table 24.

The Bivariate and Partial Correlations of the Predictors with GPA (N=84)

Predictors	Correlation between each predictor and the GPA	Correlation between each predictor and the GPA controlling for all other predictors
Independence	.05	.00
Control	.05	.05
Involvement	.26*	.25*

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

The result of these analyses indicated that the linear combination of the three dimensions of independence, control, and involvement in parenting practice of the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers was not significantly related to the adolescents' achievement. However, the bivariate and partial correlations showed that only involvement was statistically significant with the GPA.

Summary

The t-tests were conducted to examine the difference of three dimensions in parenting practice during adolescence between the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers. The results showed there were no statistically significant differences in independence and involvement in parenting practice during adolescence between the two groups. However, the Korean immigrant mothers were more likely to give their adolescents more free time while they were also more likely to exert control over their adolescents' behaviors than the Korean mothers. Also, the results showed there was no significant difference between the Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice during adolescence and their own acculturation levels. In addition, multiple regressions found that the three dimensions of parenting practice of the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers were not predictive of their adolescents' academic achievement. However, for the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers, the results of the bivariate showed independence and control variables in parenting practice were related to adolescents' academic achievement. For only the Korean immigrant mothers, the result of the bivariate and the partial correlation showed that involvement was related to adolescents' academic achievement.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study examined the differences in independence, control, involvement of parenting practice during adolescence between Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers. The participants were 100 Korean mothers in Korea and 84 Korean immigrant mothers in the United States who had adolescents between the ages of 11 and 17 years old.

The findings of this study as related to the Korean mothers' parenting practice during adolescence are discussed in this chapter. Second, the results related to the Korean immigrant mothers' parenting practice and acculturation are also discussed. Third, the results related to the relationship between the Korean mothers' parenting practice and adolescents' academic achievement are discussed. Furthermore, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations, suggestions for future research, and implications.

Comparison of Parenting Practices

Knowledge about parenting values, beliefs, and behaviors among Korean parents in the United States has not been well known. Thus, this research is necessary to understand parenting practice among parents of Korean origin and Korean immigrant parents in the United States. Results of this study provide additional knowledge about parenting practice among Korean immigrant mothers by comparing Korean mothers' parenting practice in Korea.

First, when comparing the difference of the summed independent variables of parenting practice between the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers, there was no statistically significant difference ($t(182) = -1.55, p = .12$). Both the Korean mothers ($M = 27.59, SD = 4.01$) and the Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 28.48, SD = 3.78$) encouraged their adolescents to be independent. This finding was different from the Korean traditional parenting that does not emphasize independence and autonomy (Lee, 2000). However, this result might support the inference that Korean parenting practice has changed during adolescence to encourage more independence than when children are young (McNally, Eisenberg, & Harris, 1991) or that practicing has been influenced by Western parenting values that emphasize children's autonomy and independence.

This result was similar to that of another study (Chen & William, 1998) which examined American, Chinese-American, and Chinese students' scores on independence of feelings from their parents. The results of the study did not differ significantly when they measured independence as a subscale to compare the difference among American, Chinese-American, and Chinese high school students regarding their eagerness to accomplish their parents' expectations of achievement. Another research study that compared the differences of child-rearing practice among Chinese, immigrant Chinese, and Caucasian-American parents found Chinese and Chinese immigrant parents were more likely to encourage their children to be independent (Lin & Fu, 1990). From these findings, the researchers assumed that Chinese parental value of independence which is not a traditional Chinese cultural value in rearing children has been changing like that in Western society because of rapid social and political changes.

In the Korean tradition of rearing children, independence is not much emphasized; however, it can be assumed that Korean parents' parenting practice has been changing with children's ages or from influence of Western culture. However, some contextual factors might explain differences in independence, control of parenting practice between the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers. One of the independent variables, item 4 ("I feel a child should have free time to think, day-dream, and play sometimes") was significantly different ($t(182) = -2.03, p = .04$) when comparing the individual variable of independence. The Korean immigrant mothers ($M = 4.02, SD = .98$) were more likely to allow their adolescents to have free time than the Korean mothers ($M = 3.72, SD = 1.04$). The Korean mothers might want their adolescents to spend more time on study without having free time because of competition among peers, which might be a cause of depression. Actually, a research study found Korean adolescents who spent more time in studying and less time in unrestricted activities showed more depression symptoms (Lee, 2000).

Second, when comparing the means of control between two groups, the result was significant, $t(182) = -2.15, p = .03$. The Korean immigrant mothers were more likely to control their adolescents than were the Korean mothers in keeping them away from others who had different values and ideas from their own and limiting them to hang out with their friends. Also, the Korean immigrant mothers tended to encourage their adolescents to do things better than others, which might mean the Korean immigrant mothers tried motivate to their adolescents to compete with their peers. Also, the Korean

culture might impact the Korean immigrant mothers' discipline of adolescents because they were more likely to take away a privilege from their adolescents when punished.

The Korean immigrant mothers might worry more that their adolescents might be influenced by their peer group. That influence is especially important in adolescent deviant behaviors, such as drugs and sex. The Korean mothers were less concerned because of different situations related to their adolescents' problems. In fact, the United States has still recorded the highest record of adolescent pregnancy and childbearing in the world. In 2002, 46 percent of females and males between 15 and 19 years old had sexual intercourse. Thirteen percent of female and male adolescents had sex before 15 years old (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2002). Approximately 4 million sexually active adolescents were infected with a sexually transmitted disease (STD) each year (Alan Guttmacher Institute, 2000).

A survey, "Report of Youth's Sex Experience and Attitude," was conducted by Seoul YMCA (from December, 2004 to February, 2005) with 1255 sophomore high school students in Seoul, Korea. The result showed that 22.1 percent of male and 8.8 percent of female sophomore high school students reported that they had sexual experience (cited in Aha Sexuality Education & Counseling Center for Youth, 2005).

Furthermore, the United States still has the highest rate of adolescent drug use among developed countries. Between the ages of 12 and 17, 56 percent reported that marijuana was easy to obtain (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1998). Among adolescents aged 12 to 17, the rate of illicit drug use among adolescents was approximately 12 percent in 2002, 11 percent in 2003, and 10 percent in 2004 (U.S.

Department of Health and Human Services, 2005). In Korea, drug abuse cases for adolescents between the ages of 10 and 17 were reported at approximately 10 percent of the total drug cases (National Youth Commission, 2001). These statistics showed that contemporary adolescents in Korea are more sexually active and have more deviant problems than in the past, which might support the view that Korean society has been changing.

The Korean immigrant mothers likely controlled their adolescents to keep them away from others who had different values and ideas and also controlled their socialization with friends. In fact, Baer (1999) found that direct parental control was significant for both male and female adolescents in all the ethnic groups for preventing adolescents' deviant behaviors.

Third, the difference of the summed parental involvement variable between the Korean and the Korean immigrant mothers was not significant ($t(182) = .40, p = .69$). However, the Korean immigrant mothers took their adolescents more often to educational places than the Korean mothers; meanwhile, the Korean mothers provided more extra lessons related to school than the Korean immigrant mothers. This result could be evidence that the support of the Korean mothers tends to be more directly connected to improve their adolescents' academic achievement than that of the Korean immigrant mothers.

Also, the Korean immigrant mothers' school-based parental involvement (e.g., attending PTA or volunteering in the school) was lower than the Korean mothers. These findings might be consistent with the previous study by Kim (2002), which found that

Korean immigrant parents were mostly involved in home-based academic work. Korean immigrant parents who had a higher English proficiency and were more acculturated to the American culture tended to have higher levels of parental involvement. Muller (1993) also found immigrant parents' English proficiency was significantly related to the frequency of parental contact with school. For most Korean immigrant parents, language barriers might prevent Korean immigrant mothers from contacting teachers or school personnel more often regarding their children's educational concerns and joining in voluntary participation in their children's classes.

Even though the Korean immigrant mothers had resided in the United States, their parenting practice was not statistically significant by different from that of the Korean mothers in Korea. The findings might support the notion that the Korean immigrant mothers are acculturated to the American culture, but they keep their Korean culture of parenting practice by maintaining social ties in their ethnic community (Hurh & Kim, 1990). Another possible interpretation of the results is that Korean parenting practice has been changing by the influence of Western values of rearing children, family policies, family structure, or rapid economic development.

Korean Immigrant Mothers' Parenting Practice and Acculturation

The Korean immigrant mothers' education places were more likely related to the degree of acculturation ($F(2, 81) = 4.33, p = .02$). The Korean immigrant mothers (28.6%) who obtained education in the United States or in both Korea and in the United States exhibited a high level of acculturation even though the sample size was smaller than those who obtained their education only in Korea (71.4%). The Korean immigrant

mothers' acculturation was not related to the length of residence in the United States ($F(2, 81) = 1.39, p=.26$), and their education levels.

The Korean immigrant mothers' acculturation measured by the Suinn-lew Asian Self-identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASLA) (Sunin, Ahuna, & Khoo, 1992) was divided into three categories, "Korea," "Korean-American," and "American" based on scores. The "Korean" group is more likely to use more Korean language, keep their original identity, keep more Korean values in family, marriage, and education, and interact with more Koreans. The "Korean-American" group is more likely to use both Korean and English, interact with others, and beliefs both Korean and American values in families, marriage, and education, just as Americans. The "Korean-American" group is more Americanized in language, preferences of food and association, and values of family, marriage, and education. However, the results found that there were only two groups in this sample: "Korean" and "Korean-American." In other words, no mothers in this sample scored "American."

When comparing the differences of the Korean immigrant mothers' ($N=84$) parenting practice between the Korean immigrants ($n=26$) in "Korean" and the Korean immigrant mothers ($n=58$) in "Korean-American," there were no differences in independence, control, and involvement. The trend of Korean immigrant mothers' acculturation supported the evidence that they adjusted to a new culture while they maintained ethnic cultural values in terms of food preference, language, and social activity, as well as Korean cultural values in rearing children, family, marriage, and education (Lee, 2004).

These findings support that Korean traditional values and parenting practice still have an important influence on Korean immigrants, in spite of their residing in a new cultural context of the United States. The Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers are seemingly adapting to the necessary changes, while keeping Korean traditional parenting values and norms.

Parenting Practice and Academic Achievement

A number of research studies examined the influence of certain parental educational practices in the academic achievement of the adolescent. This study also examined the relationship between parenting practice reported by mothers and their adolescents' academic achievement.

The results of the multiple regressions indicated that independence, control, and involvement in the parenting practice of both the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers were not predictive of their adolescents' academic achievement. While the result of the bivariate correlation showed that two dimensions, independence ($r = .16, p < .05$) and control ($r = .18, p < .05$), were significantly related to the adolescents' academic achievement, involvement ($r = 1.00, p > .05$) was not related to the academic achievement.

This result that found encouragement of independence by the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers was related to their adolescents' academic achievement was consistent with the study of Lin and Fu (1990). They found that encouragement of independence by the Chinese mothers ($r = .33, p < .03$) and Chinese immigrant mothers ($r = .41, p < .005$) was correlated to their children's academic achievement. Furthermore,

control of the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers was positively related to their adolescents' academic achievement; however, parental control was negatively related to European American adolescents' academic achievement (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). According to Chao (1994), Asian-American adolescents interpreted differently the meanings of their parent control as a concern of parenting behavior while European adolescents perceived as a rejection.

The three dimensions of independence, control, and involvement of the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers were not predictive of the adolescents' academic achievement ($F(3, 180) = 2.39, p = .07$). However, the bivariate correlations showed two variables of independence ($r = .16, p < .05$) and control ($r = .18, p < .05$) were related to the adolescents' academic achievement when combined for the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers. This finding does not support the view that parental involvement significantly predicted achievement of adolescents (Paulson, 1994; Pelegrina, Garcia-Linares, & Casanova, 2003), and does support the assumption that parental control in Asian-Americans was not negatively related to adolescents' academic achievement unlike European-Americans (Chao, 1994). Parental encouragement of independence in both groups might promote their adolescents' intrinsic motivation related to adolescents' academic achievement. In fact, Bronstein, Ginsberg, and Herrera (2005) found that parent behaviors encouraging independence and support predicted a more intrinsic motivation that was positively related to adolescents' academic achievement. On the other hand, the result of both the bivariate and partial correlations of the Korean immigrant mothers' involvement was significantly related to the adolescents'

academic achievement, which was consistent with previous research (Kim, 2002) and found that Korean immigrant parents' involvement was positively related to their adolescents' academic achievement.

In sum, parenting practice during adolescence between the Korean mothers in Korea and the Korean immigrant mothers in the United States was not much different in three dimensions of independence, control, and involvement. The results indicated that the Korean immigrant mothers maintained the Korean culture in rearing children even though they had acculturated to American culture, but some contextual factors made differences between the two groups. As a result, in Korea, parents may not want to give their adolescents free time because of educational situations while they are differently encouraging them to be independent based on Western parenting values. The Korean immigrant mothers were more controlling of their adolescents to keep them away from adolescents' delinquency behaviors in the United States.

The degree of the Korean immigrant mothers' acculturation did not make any statistical difference in independence ($t(82) = .48, p = .64$), control ($t(82) = -1.35, p = .18$), and involvement ($t(82) = -1.21, p = .23$) of parenting practice. Parenting practice of both groups was not predictive of their adolescents' academic achievement. The Korean immigrant mothers keep Korean culture in rearing children while they live in the United States and are mostly associated with members their own ethnic group. The social networks might work to continuously maintain traditional values and culture.

Limitations

Even though this study yielded insights into the Korean mothers' parenting practice during adolescence, several limitations were evident. First, because this study focused on the parenting practice of only mothers, it is not comprehensive to judge whether effective parenting takes the same form among fathers as it does among mothers. Furthermore, this study did not evaluate the adolescents' perceptions about their mothers' and fathers' parenting practice. However, future research should consider all three components because parenting is considered a reciprocal process in which parents affect the child's behavior that affects the parents' behaviors (Stice & Barrers, 1995).

Second, the results of this study may be not enough to generalize the findings to the entire population because of the small sample size, limited locations (Seoul, in Korea and the North Texas area in the United States), and a lack of randomization. Third, this study has a weakness of validity because language difficulty for translating words of the research instruments from English to Korean, such as the structural characteristics of Korean. Korean is a verb-final language, a language in which the verb always comes in the end of a sentence: The word order is subject-object-verb unlike English (subject-verb object). For example, in English, "I love you"; however, in Korean, "I you love". Fourth, socioeconomic status, parental demographic factors, and individual characteristics of possible effects of intelligence on Korean adolescents' academic achievement were not considered. Adolescents' academic achievement as reported by their mothers did not specify regular, advanced placement, or ESL classes.

Future research studies should consider designs combining quantitative and qualitative approaches (e.g., field observation, open-ended interviews, or in-depth interviews) to collect, analyze, interpret, and report data. This approach could incorporate the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methodology, which could provide a more comprehensive view of Korean parenting practice.

Even though questionnaires have two advantages of saving time and costing less for collecting data from wide geographic areas, questionnaires cannot probe deeply into respondents' beliefs, attitudes, or personal experience about their parenting practice. Furthermore, research should ideally be longitudinal to track changes of parenting practices with some specific situations or with children's ages. The research should have a larger sample size and randomization of sampling techniques, which can be more powerful to generalize to target population. Finally, a longitudinal study should be desirable because acculturation is a dynamic process changing over time as a function of individual experiences in the United States.

Implications

Despite several limitations, this study provides numerous implications to research and practice in the field of family science and in a diverse society. There are few empirical research studies of Korean families even though the population of Korean immigrants has been dramatically increased in the United States. This study provides information about Korean parenting practice during adolescence by investigating the difference between Korean mothers in Korea and Korean immigrant mothers in the United States with consideration of Korean culture.

A primary implication of the study is that parenting practice between the Korean mothers and the Korean immigrant mothers is not much different even with different cultural contexts. Their parenting practice might have been changing by contextual factors, such as educational situations, adopting Western parenting values and ideas for rearing children, and situations of adolescents' behavioral problems.

For the Korean immigrant mothers, the Korean culture still influences their parenting practice even though they are experienced in American culture. Korean mothers were less likely to give their adolescents free time than the Korean immigrant mothers because of different educational situations. They are under stress because of excessive competition focusing on college-entrance examination. Adolescents spend most of their time in study to prepare them for acceptance at a prestigious university, often without enough sleep and leisure time, with unconditional financial support from their parents. Therefore, many adolescents are anxious while they try to reach their goals or to meet their parents' expectations by studying hard (Kim, 1999). These situations might affect Korean adolescents to have more depression symptoms and a higher rate of adolescent suicide because of parental pressure on academic success than in the United States (Lee & Larson, 2000).

With those situations, Korean parents should be aware that their adolescents need free time for sufficient sleep or play with friends. Parents can help the adolescents manage their time while they study hard. Also, Korean parents should base their expectations of their adolescents' academic achievement on an understanding of individual differences, such as developmental characteristics, interests, or needs. Also,

they should provide their adolescents with choices and opportunities with personal responsibilities, which might promote intrinsic motivation. In fact, internal factors of adolescents (e.g., self-determination, interest, or effort) advance intrinsic motivation (Covington & Muller, 2001). The result of this study might support the view that parental encouragement of independence between two groups was positively related to adolescents' academic achievement.

Unlike Korean tradition parenting practice, Korean mothers were more likely to encourage their adolescents to be independent, which could be influenced by Western parenting values. If this belief is true, Korean parents might need a parenting education program for developing parenting skills that might fit new trends of rearing children or trends in changing Korean society. In addition, they should be aware that parental involvement (e.g., providing supplemental lessons) has both positive and negative impacts on children's education. They should communicate with their adolescents for exchanging opinions and ideas of what and how they need parental help. They should not compare their adolescents with others. In other words, parents should provide opportunities for their adolescents to develop their individual aptitudes and help them develop a sense of accomplishment and self-confidence.

The Korean immigrant mothers were more willing to allow their adolescents to have free time than the Korean mothers; however, the Korean immigrant mothers were also more likely than the Korean mothers to control their adolescents' behaviors by encouraging their adolescents to do things better than others, keeping them away from

others who have different values and ideas from their own, taking away a privilege from them when punished, and limiting them in going out with friends.

Approximately 90% of the Korean immigrant mothers ($N=84$) had lived in the United States for more than 3 years. Also, the Korean immigrant mothers ($n=58$) in the “Korean-American” level of acculturation had no difference in parenting practice with mothers ($n=26$) in the “Korean” level of acculturation.

These findings suggest that schools, ethnic churches, and communities should provide appropriate counseling services or educational programs to develop parenting skills to understand the possible differences in a new cultural context. For Korean immigrant parents, maintaining a harmonious relationship with their children is one of the most significant challenges (Kim, 2002). Adolescents rapidly accept the American cultural values and norms while the parents maintain the Korean culture.

From counseling services, Korean immigrant parents and adolescents could get help in resolving conflicts that they may have because of cultural differences or different expectations of education. Also, from parenting education programs, Korean immigrant parents could become aware of their parenting practice based on Korean culture, which could cause conflicts with their adolescents. They should develop alternative parenting skills that are appropriate for a new cultural context while helping their adolescents understand Korean culture values and norms by maintaining positive relationships with them.

Also, Korean immigrant parents should learn about effective discipline techniques that use an inductive reasoning respecting their adolescents’ opinions and ideas. Korean

immigrant parents should not try to elevate competition for their adolescents by comparing them with others and should help them to find their individual strengths. As a result, their adolescents could develop positive self-esteem and self-images.

For adolescents, peers are important for support and encouragement as they share their thoughts and feelings. These sharing can help their social growth and identity. Therefore, instead of preventing their adolescents' contacts with their peers, Korean immigrant mothers should develop a strong family relationship that can format resilience for adolescents. In actual fact, adolescents who have a close relationship with their families have the capability to cope when they face risks (Middlemiss, 2005).

Furthermore, both Korean mothers and Korean immigrant mothers should develop effective communication skills by creating an open communication atmosphere with empathy and reflective listening in which their adolescents are willing to share their thoughts and feelings. According to Hartos and Power (2000), open communication between parent and adolescents is significantly related to academic achievement, psychological well-being, drug and alcohol use, and other delinquent behaviors. Furthermore, open communication regarding sexuality could be very important for reducing adolescent pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases. Open communication between parents and adolescents is related to less sexual experience and less risky sexual behavior (Whitaker, Miller, May, & Levin, 1999).

Furthermore, child development professors, teachers, and family life educators should be aware and understand Korean cultural values and norms of rearing children. Also, they should accept these differences through consideration of different sides of

sensitive cultural and ethnic issues of Korean immigrant parents in rearing children. These ways may help the professionals develop cultural competence when they work with Korean families. For example, if a school teacher needs to talk with a Korean immigrant parent who is a limited English speaker, he/she might try to communicate with slow talk or written language. In recent times, Korean immigrants are educated with English from middle school even though they could speak well. As a result, the professionals could help Korean parents and adolescents reach their full potential in the United States by providing culturally relevant services or programs.

In addition, the results indicated that Korean immigrant mothers were less likely to be involved in school-based activities for their children's education. Thus, a high quality of English learning program might be helpful for them to improve effective communication skills and interaction skills. Moreover, they should be willing to learn and to be involved in the new culture by expanding their social interactions with other ethnic groups. As result, they could be less isolated from a new society and more often in contact with teachers and participate in school activities and expand more activities of social and voluntary groups or organizations.

Summary

The overall purpose of this study was to examine whether there were differences of parenting practice during adolescence between Korean mothers in Korea and Korean immigrant mothers in the United States. However, this study found that there was not much difference in parenting practice between two groups. Some contextual factors were found to influence parenting practice, such as giving adolescents free time and

controlling adolescents' behaviors. Some recommendations for future research were made from the results of this study, such as research methods, sampling techniques, and methods of data collecting. Furthermore, for both Korean and Korean immigrant parents, some implications of parenting education programs were suggested for developing effective parenting skills. Also, English learning programs for Korean immigrant parents were suggested for improving English skills. Finally, for professionals, recognizing, understanding, and accepting differences of Korean parenting practice during adolescence were suggested for use when they interact and work with Korean families.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Consent to Practice in Research

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

CONSENT TO PRACTICE IN RESEARCH

Title: Korean Mothers' Parenting Practice during Adolescence

Investigator: Dukrae Jang----- (940) 898-2685

Advisor: Lillian Chenoweth, Ph.D. ----- (940) 898-2685

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the study is to investigate parenting practice of Korean mothers in Seoul, Korea and Korean immigrant mothers in the United States with four dimensions of independence, control, discipline, and involvement during adolescence.

Research Procedures

For this study, the investigator and a trained research assistant will administer questionnaires to Korean mothers in North Texas and Korea. Participants will choose either English or Korean versions of the questionnaires. Your maximum total time commitment in the study is approximately 25-45 minutes to complete the questionnaires.

Potential Risks

Potential risks related to your participation in the study include loss of confidentiality and loss of comfort. Confidentiality will be protected to the extent that is allowed by law. You should know that your information will be confidential, to the extent permitted by the law. You are not asked to write your name anywhere on the questionnaires. The identifiable data will be stored in a locked file cabinet with access from no one else. Code will be stored separately from data. The identifiable data will be destroyed by December 30, 2006. The identifiable data will be destroyed by shredding hard copies and deleting computer files.

Another potential risk to your participation in the study includes loss of comfort. To avoid discomfort, you may take break and stop answering any of the questions at any time without any consequences.

Participant Initial

1 of 2

The result of this study will be published in the investigator's dissertation and in other research publications. However, no identifiable information will be published or released. The researchers will try to prevent any problem that could happen because of this research. You should let the researchers know at once if there is a problem and they will help you. However, TWU does not provide medical services or financial assistance for injuries that might happen because you are taking part in this research.

Participation and Benefits

Since your participation is entirely voluntary, you are free to withdraw at any time without any consequences for you.

The benefit of the study to you is that a summary of the result of the study will be provided if you would like to receive it.

Questions Regarding the Study

You will be given a copy of this signed and dated form to keep. If you have any questions about the research study you should ask the researchers; their phone numbers are at the top of this form. If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this research or the way this study has been conducted, you may contact the Texas Woman's University Office of Research and Sponsored Programs at 940-898-3378 or via e-mail at IRB@twu.edu.

Signature of Participant

Date

* If you would like to receive a summary of the results of this study, please provide an address or e-mail to which this summary should be sent: (optional)

APPENDIX B

Parenting Practice Questionnaire

Parenting Practice Questionnaire

Code:

Instructions: Here are some statements that describe the way you act toward your child.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement, so be as honest as you

can. I would like to you to think about how each one of these fits the way you treat the

child. If the statement is basically true about the way you treat the child then ask yourself,

“Is it most time true?” If you think that you treat your child that way, then circle the

number 5 MOST TIME; if the statement is often true, circle the number 4 OFTEN. If you

think that the statement is sometimes true, circle the number 3 SOMETIMES. If the

statement is rarely true about the way you treat your child then circle the number 2

RARELY, and if the statement is basically never true then circle the number 1 NEVER.

However, if there is not an available answer for you, circle the “N/A”.

Answer each statement the way you think you really are rather than the way you might like to be. Let's practice with two examples.

Example 1

The statement: I respect my child's opinions and encourage him/her to express them. If you most time respect your child's opinions and encourage express them, you should mark the item as follow:

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

Example 2

The statement: I allow my child to get angry with me.

If you never allow your child angry with you, should make the item as follow

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

NOW BEGIN. Remember, there are no right or wrong answer, thus answer each statement the way you really think.

1. I respect my child's opinions and encourage him/her to express them.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

2. If my child gets into trouble, I expect him/her to handle the problem mostly by himself/herself.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

3. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

4. I feel a child should have free time to think, day-dream, and play sometimes.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

5. I let my child make many decisions for himself/herself.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

6. I believe children should have secrets from their parents.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

7. I teach my child that he/she is responsible for what happens to him/her.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

8. I encourage my child to be independent of me.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

9. I try to keep my child away from children or families whose ideas or values are different from our own.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

10. I allow my child to get angry with me.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

11. I have strict, well-established rules for my child.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

12. I teach my child to keep control of his feelings at all time.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

13. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than others.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

14. I believe that too much affection and tenderness can harm or weaken a child.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

15. I believe a child should be aware of how much I sacrifice for her/him.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

16. I expect my child to be grateful and appreciate all the advantages she/he has.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

17. I allow my child to question my decisions.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

18. I make sure I know where my child is and what she/he is doing.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

19. I control my child by warning her/him about the bad things that can happen to her/him.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

20. I punish my child by putting him/her off somewhere by himself/herself for a while.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

21. I believe physical punishment to be the best way of disciplining.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

22. I teach my child that in one way or another punishment will find her/him when she/he is bad.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

23. I talk it over and reason with my child when she/he misbehaves.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

24. I threaten punishment more often than I actually give it.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

25. I believe in praising a child when she/he is good and think it gets better results than punishing him/her when she/he is bad.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

25. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what she/he tries or accomplish.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

26. I encourage my child to talk about her/his troubles.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

27. I punish my child by taking away a privilege she/he otherwise would have had.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

28. I give my child extra privileges when she/he behaves well.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

29. I believe that scolding and criticism make a child improve.

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

30. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when she/he misbehaves.

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

31. I think jealousy and quarreling between brothers and sisters should be punished.

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

32. How often do you discuss your educational expectations with your child?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

33. How often do you communicate with your child about planning for the future school?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

34. How often do you communicate with your child about her/his school work (e.g., home work, school grades, and school activities)?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

35. How often do you supervise your child's home work?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

36. How often do you limit the time that your child wants to watch TV or internet?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

37. How often do you limit the time when your child wants to go out with friends?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

38. How often do you help your child take extra lessons related to her/his school after school or weekends?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

39. How often do you take your child to the library and other places which can help in educating her/him?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

40. How often do you contact your child's teacher?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

41. How often do you participate in PTA or other parent organizations?

1 2 3 4 5 N/A

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Most time

42. How often do you spend time in your child's classroom as a volunteer?

1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most time	

APPENDIX C

Suinn-lew Asian Self-identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASIA)

Suinn-lew Asian Self-identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASIA)

INSTRUCTIONS: The questions which follow are for the purpose of collecting information about your historical background as well as more recent behaviors which may be related to your cultural identity. Choose the one answer and circle on the number which best describes you. Please carefully read the number 17 and 19 questions when answer to them.

1. What language can you speak?

- 1) Korean only
- 2) Mostly Korean, some English
- 3) Korean and English about equally well (bilingual)
- 4) Mostly English, some Korean
- 5) Only English

2. What language do you prefer?

- 1) Korean only
- 2) Mostly Korean, some English
- 3) Korean and English about equally well (bilingual)
- 4) Mostly English, some Korean
- 5) Only English

3. How do you identify yourself?

- 1) Oriental
- 2) Asian
- 3) Korean

4) Korean-American

5) American

4. What is the ethnic origin of the friends and peers you have had since you have been in the United States?

1) Almost exclusively Koreans

2) Mostly Koreans, Korean-Anglo groups

3) About equally Korean groups and Anglo groups

4) Mostly Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups

5) Almost exclusively Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups

5. Whom do you now associate with in the community?

1) Almost exclusively Koreans

2) Mostly Koreans, Korean-Americans

3) About equally Korean groups and Anglo groups

4) Mostly Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups

5) Almost exclusively Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups

6. If you could pick, whom would you prefer to associate with in the community?

1) Almost exclusively Koreans

2) Mostly Koreans, Korean-Americans

3) About equally Korean groups and Anglo groups

4) Mostly Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups

5) Almost exclusively Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, or other non-Asian ethnic groups

7. What is your music preference?

- 1) Only Korean music
- 2) Mostly Korean
- 3) Equally Korean and English
- 4) Mostly English
- 5) English only

8. What is your movie preference?

- 1) Korean-language movies only
- 2) Korean-language movies mostly
- 3) Equally Korean/English English-language movies
- 4) Mostly English-language movies only
- 5) English-language movies only

9. What is your food preference at home?

- 1) Exclusively Korean food
- 2) Mostly Korean food, some American
- 3) About equally Korean and American
- 4) Mostly American food
- 5) Exclusively American food

10. What is your food preference in restaurants?

- 1) Exclusively Korean food
- 2) Mostly Korean food, some American

3) About equally Korean and American

4) Mostly American food

5) Exclusively American food

11. Do you

1) Read only a Korean language?

2) Read a Korean language better than English?

3) Read both Korean and English equally well?

4) Read English better than a Korean language?

5) Read only English?

12. Do you

1) Write only a Korean language?

2) Write a Korean language better than English?

3) Write both Korean and English equally well?

4) Write English better than a Korean language?

5) Write only English?

13. If you consider yourself a member of the Korean group (Oriental, Asian, Korean, Korean-American, American, etc., whatever term you prefer), how much pride do you have in this group?

1) Extremely proud

2) Moderately proud

3) Little pride

4) No pride but do not feel negative toward group

5) No pride but do feel negative toward group

14. How would you view yourself?

1) Very Korean

2) Mostly Korean

3) Bicultural (Korean-American)

4) Mostly Americanized

5) Very Americanized

15. Do you participate in Korean occasions, holidays, traditions, etc.?

1) Nearly all

2) Most of them

3) Some of them

4) A few of them

5) None at all

16. Rate yourself on how much you believe in Korean values (e.g., about marriage, families, education, work):

1

2

3

4

5

Strongly believe

in Korean

Values

Do not Strongly

believe in

Korean values

17. Rate your self on how much you believe in American (Western) values (e.g., about marriage, families, education, work):

1	2	3	4	5
<u>Do not Strongly believe</u>				Strongly believe in
<u>in American values</u>				American values

18. Rate yourself on how well you fit when with other Koreans of the same ethnicity:

1	2	3	4	5
Fit very well				<u>Do not</u> fit at all

19. Rate yourself on how well you fit when with other Americans who are non Korean (Westerners):

1	2	3	4	5
<u>Do not fit at all</u>				Fit very well

APPENDIX D-1

Demographic Questionnaire for Korean Mothers

Demographic Questionnaire for Korean Mothers

1. What is your age? I am -----years old.
2. What is your child age? My child is-----years old.
3. My child is a girl----- or a boy----- (Please check with a V).
4. What is your highest level of education you have completed (Please circle a number)?
 - 1) High school
 - 2) One to four college, but not graduate
 - 3) College graduate
 - 4) Post graduate professional degree (e.g., M.A, M.S.W., Ph.D. M.D.)
5. What is your employment status (Please circle a number)?
 - 1) House wife
 - 2) Employed part-time
 - 3) Employed full-time

APPENDIX D-2

Demographic Questionnaire for Korean Immigrant Mothers

Demographic Questionnaire for Korean Immigrant Mothers

1. What is your age? I am -----years old.
2. What is your child age? My child is-----years old.
3. My child is a girl----- or a boy----- (Please check with a V).
4. Where have you completed your education in Korea or in the United States (please check with a V)?
 - 1) Korea-----
 - 2) The United States-----
5. What is the highest education level you have completed (please circle a number)?
 - 1) High school
 - 2) One to four college, but not graduate
 - 3) College graduate
 - 4) Post graduate professional degree (e.g., M.A, M.S.W., Ph.D. M.D.)
6. What is your employee status?
 - 1) House wife
 - 2) Employed part-time
 - 3) Employed full-time
7. How long have you been in the United States (please circle a number)?

No	Length of years in the United States
1.	More than 1 and less than 3 years
2.	More than 3 years and less than 10 years
3.	More than 10 years

8. What is a reason you have most likely immigrated to the United States (You can choose multiple answer)?

No.	Reasons for Immigration
1.	Children's Education
2.	Economic Opportunities
3.	Sociopolitical stability
4.	Personal Educational Opportunities
5.	Others

APPENDIX E-1

Academic Achievement Report

Academic Achievement Report

Code: 1

You should know that your child's grade will be confidential. This information will be used for only the research. Please write down your child's academic scores including reading and mathematics based on the most recent semester's report card (Please DO NOT assume your child's test scores).

Korean Score-----

Mathematics Score-----

Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaires!

APPENDIX E-2

Academic Achievement Report

Academic Achievement Report

Code: 2

You should know that your child's grade will be confidential. This information will be used for only the research. Please write down your child's academic scores including reading and mathematics based on the most recent semester's report card (Please DO NOT assume your child's test scores).

English Score-----

Mathematics Score-----

Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaires

APPENDIX F

Participant Recruitment Announcement

Participant Recruitment Announcement

Mrs. Dukrae Jang, a doctoral candidate in the Department of Family Science at Texas Woman's University of Texas, is looking for Korean immigrant parents who want to participate in the research. The purpose of this research is to examine the difference of parenting practice of Korean parents in Korea and Korean immigrant parents in the United States and the relationship between parenting practice and adolescents' academic achievement. For this research, we can think about culturally relevant parenting practice during adolescence within a new culture context, and think about effective parenting practice for adolescents' academic achievement.

Any Korean immigrant parent who was born in Korean and has an adolescent between the ages of 11 and 17 can participate in this research. Your maximum total time commitment in the study is approximately 25-45 minutes to complete the questionnaires. If you are interested, please contact with Dukrae Jang by e-mail or calling All participants will be guaranteed confidentiality.

연구에 참여하실 한인 부모님을 찾습니다.

본 연구는 현재 Family Science of Texas Woman's University 에서 박사과정인 장덕례씨가 진행중이며, 한국 부모님과 재미 한국인 부모님들의 자녀양육에 대한 비교 조사연구에 참여할 재미 한국인 부모님을 찾습니다. 본 연구의 목적은 한국 부모님과 재미 한국인 부모님들의 자녀 양육 방법을 비교하고 청소년들의 학업 성취도와 어떻게 관련되어 있는지를 찾는 데 있습니다. 한국에서 태어났고 11 살에서 17 살 사이의 청소년이 있는 분은 본 연구에 참여할 수 있습니다. 설문지를 완성하는데 약 25-45 분이 필요합니다. 관심있으신 분은 이메일또는 전화로 연락 주십시오. 참가자의 신분은 무기명으로 절대 보장됩니다.

APPENDIX G

Protocol for the Research Assistant

Protocol for the Research Assistant

Before seeking a Korean mother, you must understand the importance of confidentiality and voluntary participation in the research to protect the participant's welfare and minimize potential risks. You DO NOT ask the participants to write their names on any questionnaires. You must ask the participants to carefully read the informed consent form. Also, you must make sure that the participant signs signatures on the informed consent form. You must follow procedures below.

Procedures

1. When you meet a Korean mother, ask her if she has lived most of her life in Seoul, Korea and if she has an adolescent between the ages of 11 and 17.
2. If she meets the criteria, ask her if she will participate in the study.
3. If she agrees to participate in the study, give the informed consent form to her with any need explanation.
4. After the participant finishes the informed consent form, you give the packet of questionnaires.
5. If the participant completes the questionnaires, you ask the participant to seal the packet.
6. If the participant wants to mail the packet to you, provide a preaddressed envelop with affixed postage.
7. You must keep the packet that the participant completed in a locked file cabinet.

You may contact the researcher if you have any question.

APPENDIX H

Parenting Practice Factors and Items of the Korean Mothers and the Korean
Immigrant Mothers ($N=184$)

Practice Factors and Items of the Korean Mothers and the Korean Immigrant Mothers (N=184)

Parenting practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
Factor 1: Control				
9. I try to keep my child away from children or families whose ideas or values are different from our own.	2.52	1.11	.40	
11. I have strict, well-established rules for my child.	2.98	1.22	.39	
12. I teach my child to keep control of his feelings at all time.	3.55	1.13	.48	
13. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than others.	3.65	1.15	.52	
15. I believe a child should be aware of how much I sacrifice for her/him.	2.99	1.15	.44	
19. I control my child by warning her/him about the bad things that can happen to her/him.	3.72	1.10	.45	
21. I believe physical punishment to be the best way of disciplining.	1.97	.95	.39	
28. I punish my child by taking away a privilege she/he otherwise would have had.	2.09	1.12	.45	

APPENDIX H (continued)

Parenting practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
30. I believe that scolding and criticism make a child improve.	1.68	.87	.35	
31. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when she/he misbehaves.	3.40	1.16	.44	
37. How often do you limit the time that your child wants to watch TV or Internet?	3.60	1.15	.46	
38. How often do you limit the time when your child wants to go out with friends?	2.93	1.07	.61	
				.75
Factor 2: Independence				
1. I respect my child's opinions and encourage him/her to express them.	4.02	.82	.49	
3. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.	4.09	.89	.49	
4. I feel a child should have free time to think, day-dream, and play sometimes.	3.86	1.02	.48	
7. I teach my child that he/she is responsible for what happens to him/her.	4.41	.83	.55	
33. How often do you discuss your educational expectations with your child?	3.72	.89	.54	

APPENDIX H (continued)

Parenting practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
34. How often do you communicate with your child about planning for the future school?	3.84	.94	.38	
35. How often do you communicate with your child about her/his school work (e.g., home work, school grades, and school activities)?	4.07	.87	.43	
				.74
Factor 3: Involvement				
36. How often do you supervise your child's home work?	3.12	1.33	.60	
39. How often do you help your child take extra lessons related to her/his school after school or weekends?	3.33	1.26	.49	
40. How often do you take your child to the library and other places which can help in educating her/him?	2.99	1.03	.43	
41. How often do you contact your child's teacher?	2.26	.93	.71	
42. How often do you participate in PTA or other parent organizations?	2.52	1.19	.67	
43. How often do you spend time in your child's classroom as a volunteer?	2.01	1.10	.70	

APPENDIX H (continued)

Parenting practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
				.78
Items that were deleted from factor 2 (Independence)				
18. I make sure I know where my child is and what she/he is doing.			.50	

APPENDIX I

Parenting Practice Factors and Items of the Korean Mothers ($N=100$)

Parenting Practice Factors and Items of the Korean Mothers (N=100)

Parenting Practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
Factor 1: Independence				
3. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.	4.07	.94	.51	
7. I teach my child that he/she is responsible for what happens to him/her.	4.35	.82	.38	
33. How often do you discuss your educational expectations with your child?	3.69	.92	.68	
34. How often do you communicate with your child about planning for the future school?	3.80	.96	.56	
35. How often do you communicate with your child about her/his school work (e.g., home work, school grades, and school activities)?	4.01	.92	.60	
				.77
Factor 2: Control				
9. I try to keep my child away from children or families whose ideas or values are different from our own.	2.30	1.06	.53	
12. I teach my child to keep control of his feelings at all time.	3.42	1.21	.44	

APPENDIX I (continued)

Parenting Practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
13. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than others.	3.42	1.19	.54	
14. I believe that too much affection and tenderness can harm or weaken a child.	2.46	1.31	.38	
15. I believe a child should be aware of how much I sacrifice for her/him.	2.96	1.17	.44	
19. I control my child by warning her/him about the bad things that can happen to her/him.	3.64	1.08	.42	
20. I punish my child by putting him/her off somewhere by himself/herself for a while.	1.62	.96	.47	
21. I believe physical punishment to be the best way of disciplining.	1.92	.85	.60	
30. I believe that scolding and criticism make a child improve	1.71	.88	.43	
31. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when she/he misbehaves.	3.46	1.20	.50	
32. I think jealousy and quarreling between brothers and sisters should be punished.	3.24	1.26	.37	
37. How often do you limit the time that your child wants to watch TV or Internet?	3.54	1.14	.44	
38. How often do you limit the time when your child wants to go out with friends?	2.77	.96	.58	

APPENDIX I (continued)

Parenting Practice Factors and Items		Item Analysis			
		Maximum Likelihood			
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
					.79
Factor 3: Involvement					
150	36. How often do you supervise your child's home work?	3.06	1.30	.60	
	39. How often do you help your child take extra lessons related to her/his school after school or weekends?	3.45	1.15	.49	
	40. How often do you take your child to the library and other places which can help in educating her/him?	2.78	1.10	.43	
	41. How often do you contact your child's teacher?	2.21	.90	.71	
	42. How often do you participate in PTA or other parent organizations?	2.69	1.26	.67	
	43. How often do you spend time in your child's classroom as a volunteer?	2.17	1.17	.70	
					.78

APPENDIX I (continued)

Parenting Practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
Items that were deleted from factor 1 (independence)				
11. I have strict, well-established rules for my child.			.40	
18. I make sure I know where my child is and what she/he is doing.			.37	

APPENDIX J

Parenting Practice Factors and Items of the Korean Immigrant Mothers ($N=84$)

Parenting Practice Factors and Items of the Korean Immigrant Mothers (N=84)

Parenting practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
Factor 1: Involvement				
11. I have strict, well-established rules for my child.	3.06	1.11	.55	
35. How often do you communicate with your child about her/his school work (e.g., home work, school grades, and school activities)?	4.13	.82	.45	
36. How often do you supervise your child's home work?	3.19	1.36	.78	
37. How often do you limit the time that your child wants to watch TV or internet?	3.67	1.17	.65	
39. How often do you help your child take extra lessons related to her/his school after school or weekends?	3.18	1.36	.46	
40. How often do you take your child to the library and other places which can help in educating her/him?	3.23	.89	.54	
41. How often do you contact your child's teacher?	2.32	.96	.84	
42. How often do you participate in PTA or other parent organizations?	2.33	1.07	.54	
43. How often do you spend time in your child's classroom as a volunteer?	1.82	.98	.44	.83

APPENDIX J (continued)

Parenting practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
Factor 2: Independence				
1. I respect my child's opinions and encourage him/her to express them.	4.10	.82	.50	.73
3. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.	4.11	.84	.48	
4. I feel a child should have free time to think, day-dream, and play sometimes.	4.02	.98	.47	
7. I teach my child that he/she is responsible for what happens to him/her.	4.49	.83	.68	
8. I encourage my child to be independent of me.	3.88	.99	.53	
33. How often do you discuss your educational expectations with your child?	3.75	.86	.43	
34. How often do you communicate with your child about planning for the future school?	3.88	.91	.42	
Factor 3:Control				
9. I try to keep my child away from children or families whose ideas or values are different from our own.	2.78	1.12	.53	

APPENDIX J (continued)

Parenting practice Factors and Items	Item Analysis			
	Maximum Likelihood			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Loading	<i>Alpha</i>
Factor 3:Control				
24. I threaten punishment more often than I actually give it.	2.70	1.02	.44	
25. I threaten punishment more often than I actually give it.	2.70	1.02	.54	
26. I believe in praising a child when she/he is good and think it gets better results than punishing him/her when she/he is bad.	1.74	1.05	.38	
27. I encourage my child to talk about her/his troubles.	1.52	.94	.44	
28. I punish my child by taking away a privilege she/he otherwise would have had.	2.32	1.14	.42	
30. I believe that scolding and criticism make a child improve	1.64	.86	.54	
				.65
Items that were deleted from factor 2 (independence)				
12. I teach my child to keep control of his feelings at all time.			.49	