

Variations in Latino Parenting Practices and Their Effects on Child Cognitive Developmental Outcomes

Colmar De Von Figueroa-Moseley

University of Rochester, Rochester, NY

Craig T. Ramey

Bette Keltner

Robin G. Lanzi

Georgetown University, Washington, DC

This research examines variations in parenting and its effects on child cognitive outcomes across Latino subgroups from a national sampling that utilized a subset of 995 former Head Start Latino parents and children. Comparisons of the Parenting Dimension Inventory scaled scores revealed Latino subgroup differences on nurturance and consistency. Puerto Rican parental caregivers scored higher on nurturance and consistency than Mexican Americans and El Salvadorans. Pearson's product-moment correlation revealed a positive relationship between responsiveness to child inputs and higher academic achievement scores for each Latino subgroup. Examination of the Woodcock-Johnson Test of Achievement also revealed a main effect of Latino subgroup differences. Findings suggest that there exist intracultural variations in parenting and academic achievement within the Latino population and confirm previous findings that parenting is related to positive child cognitive outcomes.

Keywords: *Latino parenting; cognitive development; Head Start; Woodcock-Johnson Test of Achievement; Mexican American; Puerto Rican; El Salvadoran*

Much of the existing literature on parenting and child-rearing styles of Latino families has been derived from studies of Mexican American families. Consequently, assumptions concerning normative child-rearing behaviors and practices of Latino families have operated within a Mexican American value system. To achieve a more balanced perspective, the current

research is concerned with illuminating the diversity of the members of this community and the effect of this diversity on parental practices and child cognitive developmental outcomes.

Parenting practices or styles, in the universal sense, shape the lives of children. At the minimal level, Latino families do share a common language (Spanish), religion, ideas concerning family, and Latino ancestry that can lead to a common view of Latino families if examined at the surface level. The Latino family in the United States is characterized by its enormous diversity. Although it is common to view all Latino families in this country as being similar in values, beliefs, behaviors, resources, and concerns, such sweeping assumptions are seriously erroneous (Andrade, 1982; Baca Zinn & Wells 2000; Cortes, 1980; de Silva, 1981; Frisbie, 1986; Mirande, 1977; Staples & Mirande, 1980). Far from being homogenous, the Latino population in the United States represents a heterogeneous group in terms of language, racial composition, socioeconomic status, historical origins, cultural customs and practices, and regions of settlement.

In a general sense, families of Latino descent in the United States subscribe to the integral nature of family in their daily lives; functional dominance of males, complemented by a positive traditional role for women; reinforcement of sex-role distinctions through child-rearing practices; strong kinship bonds; centrality of children; and a precedent for male as head of the household (Wilkinson, 1987). However, it should be noted that the static traditional family role configuration has been called into question concerning male family supremacy, submissive maternal mother, strict sex-role delineations with child-rearing a duty of the mother or other female members and with an aloof father (Vega, Hough, & Romero, 1983).

The role of family is a very important dimension that influences the later social and cognitive performance of Latino youth and children (Belksy & MacKinnon, 1994; Solis, 1995). Children residing in nurturing and responsive environments benefit in social and cognitive growth (Garmezy, 1993; Taylor & Machida, 1994; Walker, Greenwood, Hart, & Carta, 1994). The warmth and positive parental interactions with children and the responsiveness of the caregiver have been shown to be positively related to children's social, linguistic, and cognitive outcomes, which, in turn, influence future academic achievement and readiness (Brody, Stoneman, & McCoy, 1994; Estrada, Arsenio, Hess, & Holloway, 1987; Scott-Jones, 1987).

Research on the cognitive development of Latino children has been extremely limited and narrowly focused. Major focus has been placed on

bilingualism and its relationship to intelligence-test performance, academic achievement, and self-concept (Curiel, 1991). Other investigators have examined cognitive styles and prosocial behavior such as altruism and cooperation among Latino children (Padilla & Lindholm, 1983). The past research has been problematic in that Latino children are generally judged according to standards that use non-Hispanic White children as the reference point (Knight & Kagan, 1977; Knight, Kagan, Nelson, & Gumbiner, 1978). Research on factors related to educational attainment and achievement among Latino youth have been mainly focused in three areas: (a) political and/or institutional factors, (b) cultural and/or linguistic factors, and (c) psychosocial factors. It is known that family plays a key role in their children's educational achievement (Curiel, 1991). For the sake of our argument, we focus on the psychosocial factors that influence educational attainment and achievement.

The study of the role of psychosocial factors clearly illustrates the importance of familial beliefs and value systems in relation to Latino aspirations toward achievement (Buriel & Cardoza, 1988). Latino parents, who value schooling, believe in their child's ability to succeed and participate actively in their schooling to give their child a better chance at academic success (Buriel & Cardoza, 1988). A non-Hispanic but conceptually related study investigated the patterns of child rearing by Filipino urban mothers from middle and upper socioeconomic status (SES) and the relationship of practices to cognitive development (Umali-Razon, 1981). The results show that nurturant and autonomous parents who provided their children with varied activities for growth had children who rated high in cognitive development. Thus, we can see that family parenting styles play a crucial role in later child cognitive development.

The current study examines intracultural variations in parenting techniques or child-rearing practices of three major Head Start Latino subgroups in the United States—Puerto Ricans, El Salvadorans, and Mexican Americans. The specific aims of this current analyses are to (a) determine whether there are fundamental differences intraculturally in Hispanic and/or Latino parenting practices, particularly in the areas of nurturance, parental control, consistency, responsiveness to child inputs, nonrestrictive attitudes, and anger management; (b) to examine the relationship between Hispanic and/or Latino parenting techniques and child cognitive performance on standardized exams; and (c) to determine whether there are fundamental differences intraculturally between these groups on their children's educational achievement.

Method

Participants

The current research is an analysis based on a subset of participants from former National Head Start programs. The National Head Start/Public Schools Early Childhood Transition Project, a comprehensive longitudinal study, was designed to assess the effectiveness of continuing services in the maintaining of benefits gained from participation in a Head Start program. The National Transition Demonstration is a two-cohort study of 4,098 participants in Cohort 1 and 4,303 participants in Cohort 2 of former Head Start children and families identified prior to or in the fall of the child's kindergarten year. The two groups randomly identified as demonstration and comparison groups were created through a random assignment process of 30 sites by schools and families. Children in the demonstration group continue to receive Head Start-like services through the end of third grade, while the comparison group children do not receive any such services. This process of random assignment was verified at the local site level. The data were gathered by local research teams under the direction of the local sites and the national study team to create a national core data set. Children and their families in the demonstration and comparison groups were followed up longitudinally over five data collection points from fall of 1992 to spring of 1997. All former Head Start children and families were eligible. During the fall of their kindergarten years, a total of 6,588 children and families (White 49%, African American 34%, Latino 15%, and Asian American 2%; females 49%, males 52%). This article analyzes a subgroup of 995 Hispanic parents and children.

Procedure

Data collection was conducted twice during the child's kindergarten year—in the fall and in the spring. The instruments were administered in the child's and parents' native language. At some sites, these instruments were administered in English and the child's and parents' native language. The National Head Start/Public School Transition Demonstration Project data were collected through (a) direct assessments and interviews with the child; (b) teacher interview ratings of school, classroom, and children; (c) interviews with families; (d) interviews with members of family concerning their children; (e) direct classroom observations; (f) reviews of children's school records; and (g) principal's ratings of the school. Data for the current analysis include assessment of the child and family. For the purpose of the current

Table 1
Comparisons of Latino Subgroup Children Based on Age, Gender,
Number of Children in Household, and Preferred Language Spoken

	Latino Cultural Group		
	Mexican American (<i>n</i> = 335)	Puerto Rican (<i>n</i> = 185)	El Salvadoran (<i>n</i> = 80)
Child age (mean) Overall = 6.1	6.20	6.07	6.03
Child gender			
Male (%)	50.1	51.9	31.3
Female (%)	49.9	48.1	68.7
Number of children in household			
1 to 3 children (%)	69.9	72.6	75.3
4 to 6 children (%)	26.8	24.9	24.7
7 to 12 children (%)	3.3	2.5	
Preferred language spoken			
English (%)	36.1	39.3	3.5
Spanish (%)	56.9	44.8	90.6
Other (%)	7.0	15.9	5.9
Monthly family income			
U.S. \$1 to \$600/month (%)	25.4	33.2	8.2
\$601 to \$1,000/month (%)	35.2	42.7	43.6
\$1001 to \$2,000/month (%)	32.4	17.6	40.0
\$2001 to \$4,000/month (%)	7.0	6.5	8.2

study, only three measures of family—demographics, parenting practices, and child educational achievement—were utilized through parent and child interviews. The current study used the cross-culturally reliable and valid, Family Background Interview (Landesman & Jaccard, 1988; Cronbach's alpha = .60 to .90), the Parenting Dimensions Inventory (Abbreviated; Slater & Power, 1987; subscale Cronbach's alpha = .68 to .83), and the Woodcock-Johnson Test of Achievement (Woodcock & Johnson, 1990; Cronbach's alpha = .81 to .94) in analyzing ethnic group differences.

Results

Descriptive information as shown in Table 1 reveals that all but the El Salvadoran children (males 31.3%, females 68.7%) had an almost even split of males and females. The overall mean age for the children was 6 years 1 month. The largest Latino groups of children were Mexican Americans 55.8%, followed by Puerto Ricans 30.8% and El Salvadorans 13.3%. The consistent number of children for all three groups was between one to three

children within a household. The preferred language spoken to children in this sample was Spanish. However, the three cultural groups differed remarkably in Spanish language usage. El Salvadorans spoke significantly more Spanish (90.6%) than Mexican Americans (56.9%) or Puerto Ricans (44.8%).

A factorial analysis (Table 2) with varimax rotation was conducted on the 26 items of the Parenting Dimensions Inventory. Six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were obtained that were specifically tailored to the Hispanic and/or Latino population studied. These new factors were nurturance, parental control, consistency, responsiveness to child inputs, nonrestrictive attitudes, and anger management. By assigning one item to the factor with a factorial weight of .40, Factor 1 (21.8% of variance) grouped Items 1, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, and 24, which measure Nurturance. Factor 2 (11.0% of variance) grouped Items 13, 14, 19, 20, and 21 that measure Responsiveness to Child Inputs. Factor 3 (7.0% of variance) grouped items 4, 8, 17, 18, 22, and 26 that measure Parental Control. Factor 4 (5.6% of variance) grouped Items 2 and 12, which measure Nonrestrictive Attitudes. Factor 5 (4.6% of variance) grouped Items 6, 7, 23, and 25 that measure Consistency. Factor 6 (4.1% of variance) grouped Items 3 and 5 that measure Anger Management. These new dimensions were used in further analyses.

A MANOVA indicated that the Hispanic and/or Latino subgroups differed significantly with respect to the six parenting domains, Wilks's $F(12, 942) = 2.48, p < .01$. Table 3 gives the means and standard deviations for the six parenting domains on which significant group differences were found. Subsequent univariate ANOVAs revealed significant group differences for only nurturance, $F(2, 476) = 9.33, p < .0001$, and consistency, $F(2, 476) = 4.29, p < .05$. Bonferroni means comparisons (Table 3) revealed that Puerto Ricans scored significantly higher in nurturance and consistency than Mexican Americans and El Salvadorans.

Bivariate correlations revealed a relationship between parenting techniques and academic achievement within each of the three Hispanic and/or Latino subgroups studied. The Letter Word and Applied Problems subtests are only reported because on the Passage Comprehension and Calculation subtests more than 60% of these children scored on the floor of these tests during the fall and spring of their kindergarten year. Thus, such measures were deemed unreliable. There were more significant correlations for Mexican Americans than for Puerto Ricans or El Salvadorans; however, correlations were essentially in the same direction for all three groups. For all three Hispanic and/or Latino subgroups, the parenting techniques variable of responsiveness to child inputs was significantly correlated to scores on either the Letter Word Identification subtests or Applied Problems subtest. Specifi-

Table 2
Factorial Weight Matrix for the Six-Factor Structure
Using Principal Components and Varimax Rotation

Item Number	Factor I	Factor II	Factor III	Factor IV	Factor V	Factor VI
Nurturance						
1	.695 ^a	.169	-.064	-.128	-.031	-.094
9	.661 ^a	.276	-.065	.056	.046	-.188
10	.771 ^a	.051	-.030	.012	-.051	.071
11	.650 ^a	.233	.013	.173	.095	-.072
15	.763 ^a	.073	.006	.072	-.039	.048
16	.734 ^a	.101	-.015	-.079	-.052	.072
24	.731 ^a	.183	.036	-.130	-.069	.086
Responsiveness to child inputs						
13	-.155	.099	.567 ^a	-.051	.144	.361
14	-.174	.254	.563 ^a	.054	.261	.119
19	-.070	.154	.693 ^a	.151	.100	-.217
20	.359	.195	.425 ^a	-.040	-.053	.124
21	.045	-.162	.718 ^a	.062	.097	-.047
Parental control						
4	.253	.528 ^a	-.006	-.005	.319	.135
8	.095	.689 ^a	-.073	.088	.240	.154
17	.319	.501 ^a	.137	.105	-.233	-.157
18	.182	.720 ^a	.134	.041	-.096	-.011
22	.175	.482 ^a	.363	-.115	-.245	.013
26	.251	.625 ^a	.097	-.269	-.044	-.025
Nonrestrictive attitudes						
2	.361	.077	.224	-.189	.272	-.533 ^a
12	.189	.114	.114	.001	.138	.758 ^a
Consistency						
6	.153	.030	.189	.687 ^a	.239	.050
7	.120	.098	.173	.749 ^a	.226	-.005
23	.397	.165	.261	-.575 ^a	.054	-.106
25	.363	.148	.089	-.445 ^a	.238	.059
Anger management						
3	-.064	-.144	.142	.066	.664 ^a	.008
5	-.047	.097	.150	.189	.661 ^a	.023

Note: a. Values greater than the absolute value of .40.

cally, responsiveness to child inputs was positively correlated with the Letter Word Identification and Applied Problems subtests. Higher scores on responsiveness indicate better Letter Word Identification and Applied Problems subtest results. Responsiveness to child inputs for Mexican Americans was significantly correlated with spring Letter Word Identification ($r = .15$, $p \leq .05$) and Applied Problems ($r = .17$, $p \leq .05$) subtests. For Puerto Ricans,

Table 3
Values for Latino Cultural Group by Parental Behaviors

	Latino Cultural Group		
	Mexican American (<i>n</i> = 286) <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	Puerto Rican (<i>n</i> = 150) <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	El Salvadoran (<i>n</i> = 78) <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)
Parental behaviors			
Nurturance	41.31 (5.42)	3.61 (5.21)	41.17 (5.19)
Parental control	14.26 (6.37)	14.25 (6.67)	13.51 (6.27)
Consistency	14.69 (2.78)	15.46 (2.73)	14.71 (2.85)
Responsiveness to child inputs	10.98 (4.91)	11.59 (5.45)	9.74 (4.49)
Nonrestrictive attitudes	4.90 (3.10)	4.73 (3.37)	4.59 (2.95)
Anger management	2.21 (1.74)	2.11 (1.92)	1.97 (1.72)

however, responsiveness to child inputs was significant only for the fall Applied Problems subtest ($r = .28, p \leq .05$). Responsiveness to child inputs for El Salvadorans was significant for the fall ($r = .56, p \leq .05$) and spring Applied Problems ($r = .44, p \leq .05$) subtests.

A mixed-model MANOVA indicated that the Hispanic and/or Latino subgroups differed significantly with respect to fall and spring achievement test scores, Wilks's $F(8, 604) = 3.55, p < .0001$. Table 4 gives the means and standard deviations for the fall and spring subtest scores on which significant group differences were found. Follow-up univariate ANOVA revealed group differences on the fall Letter Word Identification, $F(2, 305) = 4.72, p \leq .01$, and the fall and spring Applied Problems subtests, respectively, $F(2, 305) = 6.30, p < .01$, and $F(2, 305) = 3.43, p < .05$. Bonferroni means comparisons (Table 4) revealed that El Salvadorans scored higher than Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans on the fall Letter Word Identification and the fall and spring Applied Problems subtests. Puerto Ricans scored lowest on the fall and spring Applied Problems subtests, while Mexican Americans scored lowest on the fall Letter Word Identification subtest.

Discussion

This investigation has followed former Hispanic and/or Latino Head Start children and parents as their children made the transition into kindergarten to (a) access any variations in Latino parenting, (b) to determine if there existed a relationship between parenting techniques and early academic performance, and (c) to study how these groups may vary, based on their children's early academic achievement.

Table 4
Mean Values for Latino Cultural Group
by Academic Achievement Subtests

	Latino Cultural Group		
	Mexican American (<i>n</i> = 253) <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	Puerto Rican (<i>n</i> = 155) <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	El Salvadoran (<i>n</i> = 35) <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)
Achievement subtests			
Fall			
Letter Word Identification	81.01 (11.73)	82.40 (11.84)	87.65 (12.60)
Applied Problems	89.47 (17.70)	81.86 (21.93)	94.94 (15.01)
Spring			
Letter Word Identification	83.44 (14.53)	85.99 (14.26)	87.40 (12.23)
Applied Problems	87.14 (15.52)	86.52 (16.58)	92.29 (15.54)

As expected, there were intracultural Latino subgroup differences in parenting techniques. Puerto Rican caregivers reported more nurturant behaviors with their children than Mexican Americans or El Salvadorans. It is important to note that parental caregivers in Mexican American and El Salvadoran samples score very high overall on this subscale. Although these parents have statistically lower scores, they appear to be having very nurturing parent-child relationships. Parental caregivers differed in consistency, with Puerto Rican parental caregivers reporting more consistency with their children than Mexican Americans or El Salvadorans. It is interesting to note that as the number of adults increased in these subgroups, these caregivers became less nurturing and consistent toward their children (analyses not shown). One is not sure why this happens. However, one can speculate that attention toward any one child may lessen because an adult caregiver has to share his or her time and effort with all the children in the household, thus negating quality time spent with the children.

Although the Hispanic and/or Latino subgroups differed on nurturance and consistency, they did not differ on parental control, responsiveness to child inputs, nonrestrictive attitudes, and anger management. This is consistent with previous literature that Hispanic and/or Latino parental caregivers are often very permissive and indulgent with their young children (Chilman, 1993; Martinez, 1993; Vega, 1995; Zuniga, 1992). The attitude toward the young is to placate them, not to push them toward certain developmental and achievement milestones that are often valued more in White families.

In terms of the relationship between Hispanic and/or Latino parenting and academic achievement of their children, the results reveal that there is a significant relationship between parenting and academic achievement on the

factor of responsiveness to child inputs. Responsiveness of Hispanic and/or Latino parents to their children seems to be related to higher academic achievement scores. Consistent with previous literature (Brody et al., 1994; Buriel & Cardoza, 1988; Estrada et al., 1987; Scott-Jones, 1987), parental responsiveness affects future academic achievement and readiness of children. For Mexican Americans, although they may not be affecting their children's cognitive outcomes through their responsiveness at the beginning of kindergarten, they are affecting their children verbally and quantitatively by spring. El Salvadoran parental caregivers seem to be most influential through their responsiveness on their child quantitatively in the fall and spring. Puerto Rican parental caregivers revealed the least amount of influence based on their responsiveness to their children, with significant relations occurring quantitatively only in fall. Collectively, what these findings suggest is that there exists different relatedness of responsiveness of Hispanic and/or Latino parental caregivers to academic achievement. This offers further support toward the diverse nature of the Hispanic and/or Latino culture.

As expected group differences were also found in the area of academic achievement. These Hispanics and/or Latinos varied by subgroup on Woodcock-Johnson scores in the Letter Word and Applied Problems subtests. El Salvadorans consistently scored the highest on both subtests in the fall and spring. Because there were no significant differences in SES between the subgroups (all Head Start qualified), this is an interesting finding in that individuals with the least level of acculturation would have the highest academic performance scores. In addition, parents did not differ in their responsiveness to their children, which could have accounted for differences in academic performance. One reason for the differences in the scores may be that the Woodcock-Johnson test is given in one's own language. It is important to note that El Salvadoran children spoke significantly less English (3.5%) than Mexican Americans (36%) and Puerto Ricans (39%). More systematic study is needed to determine what other sociocultural factors may be contributing these differences in performance scores.

The current analysis is limited in a few ways. One limitation of the current investigation is that it does not allow one to observe the influence of Latino parenting on cognitive development longitudinally. We are not sure if these differences become larger or smaller as the child transitions through elementary school. Another limitation is that the analyses are limited to low-income Head Start Latinos that may limit the generalizability of the current study to only this socioeconomic group.

Despite these limitations, these analyses have revealed some interesting aspects of the uniqueness of the diversity of Hispanics and/or Latinos. These analyses begin to identify areas of importance concerning the diversity of

Hispanic and/or Latino parenting techniques and their fundamental similarities. More systematic study is needed in examining the diversity of Latino parenting on cognitive development. Therefore, in the future, when we consider Hispanics and/or Latinos, we must recognize that diversity exists and that discussing them as one homogenous group will inevitably exclude true differences that will affect how we understand, interact, and intervene with this very unique population.

References

- Andrade, S. (1982). Social science stereotypes of the Mexican American woman: Policy implications for research. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Science*, 4, 223-243.
- Baca Zinn, M., & Wells, B. (2000). Diversity within Latino families: New lessons for family social science. In D. Demo, K. R. Allen, & M. Fine. (Eds.), *Handbook of family diversity* (pp. 252-273). London: Oxford University Press.
- Belsky, J., & MacKinnon, C. (1994). Transition to school: Developmental trajectories and school experiences. *Early Education and Development*, 5, 106-109.
- Brody, G. H., Stoneman, Z., & McCoy, J. K. (1994). Contributions of protective and risk factors to literacy and socio-emotional competency in former Head Start children attending kindergarten. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 9, 407-425.
- Buriel, R., & Cardoza, D. (1988). Sociocultural correlates of achievement among three generations of Mexican American high school seniors. *American Educational Research Journal*, 25(2), 177-192.
- Chilman, C. (1993). Hispanic families in the United States. In H. McAdoo (Ed.), *Family ethnicity: Strength in diversity* (pp. 141-163). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Cortes, C. (1980). *The Cuban experience in the United States*. New York: Arno.
- Curriel, H. (1991). Strengthening family and school bonds in promoting Hispanic children's school performance. In M. Sotomayor (Ed.), *Empowering Hispanic families: A critical issue for the '90's* (pp. 75-95). Milwaukee, WI: Family Service America.
- de Silva, E. (1981, June). *Survival and adjustment skills to the new culture: Working with Hispanic women who have settled in the United States*. Paper presented at the National Conference on Social Welfare, San Francisco.
- Estrada, P., Arsenio, W., Hess, R., & Holloway, S. (1987). Affective quality of the mother-child relationship: Longitudinal consequences for children's school relevant cognitive function. *Developmental Psychology*, 23, 210-215.
- Frisbie, W. (1986). Variations in patterns of marital instability among Hispanics. *Journal of Marriage and Family Therapy*, 48, 99-106.
- Garmez, N. (1993). Children in poverty: Resilience despite risk. *Psychiatry*, 56, 27-136.
- Knight, G. P., & Kagan, S. (1977). Acculturation of prosocial and competitive behaviors among second- and third-generation Mexican American children. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 8(3), 273-284.
- Knight, G. P., Kagan, S., Nelson, W., & Gumbiner, J. (1978). Acculturation of second- and third-generation Mexican American children. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 9(1), 87-97.
- Landesman, S., & Jaccard, J. (1988). *Family Background Interview*. Seattle: University of Washington.

- Martinez, E. (1993). Parenting young children in Mexican American/Chicano families. In H. McAdoo (Ed.), *Family ethnicity: Strength in diversity* (pp. 184-195). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Mirande, A. (1977). The Chicano family: A reanalysis of conflicting views. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 39, 747-756.
- Padilla, A. M., & Lindholm, K. J. (1983). *Hispanic Americans: Future behavioral science research directions* (Occasional Paper No. 23). Los Angeles: Spanish Speaking Mental Health Research Center, University of California.
- Scott-Jones, D. (1987). Families and academic achievement: Risk and resilience. In M. C. Wang, M. C. Reynolds, & H. J. Walberg (Eds.), *Handbook of special education research and practice: Emerging programs* (Vol. 4, pp. 255-267). Oxford, UK: Pergamon.
- Slater, M. A., & Power, T. G. (1987). Multidimensional assessment of parenting in single-parent families. In J. P. Vincent (Ed.), *Advances in family intervention, assessment, and theory* (pp. 197-228). Greenwich, CT: JAI.
- Solis, J. (1995). Diversity of Latino families. In R. Zambrana (Ed.), *Understanding Latino families: Scholarship, policy, and practices* (pp. 62-80). London: Sage.
- Staples, R., & Mirande, A. (1980). Racial and cultural variations among American families: A decennial review of the literature on minority families. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 42, 157-174.
- Taylor, A. R., & Machida, S. (1994). The contribution of parent and peer support to Head Start children's early school adjustment. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 9, 387-405.
- Umali-Razon, P. (1981). Child rearing practices of Filipino urban mothers: Relationship to children's cognitive development. *Philippine Journal of Psychology*, 14 (1/2), 8-15.
- Vega, W. A. (1995). Diversity of Latino families. In R. Zambrana (Ed.), *Understanding Latino families: Scholarship, policy, and practices* (pp. 3-17). London: Sage.
- Vega, W. A., Hough, R., & Romero, A. (1983). Family life patterns of Mexican Americans. In G. Powell, J. Yamamoto, A. Romero, & A. Morales (Eds.), *The psychosocial development of minority group children* (pp. 194-215). New York: Brunner/Mazel.
- Walker, D., Greenwood, C., Hart, B., & Carta, J. (1994). Predictions of school outcomes based on early language production and socioeconomic factors. *Child Development*, 65, 606-621.
- Wilkinson, D. (1987). Ethnicity. In S. Steinmetz & M. B. Sussman (Eds.), *Handbook of marriage and the family* (pp. 345-405). New York: Plenum.
- Woodcock, R. W., & Johnson, M. B. (1990). *Woodcock-Johnson Test of Achievement*. Allen, TX: DLM Teaching Resources.
- Zuniga, M. (1992). Families with Latino roots. In E. Lynch & M. Hanson (Eds.), *Developing cross-cultural competence* (pp. 209-250). Baltimore: Brooks.

Colmar D. V. Figuroa-Moseley is an assistant professor in radiation oncology in the James P. Wilmot Cancer Center at the University of Rochester Medical Center. He earned his doctorate in developmental psychology at the University of Alabama at Birmingham. He has held positions at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in Atlanta, Georgia, San Diego State University, and at the Mayo Clinic (where he was director of the Office of Diversity in Clinical Research). His research has focused on the sociobehavioral determinants of health and ethnic and gender disparities in health and education. He is a married father of two, whose interests include cooking diverse ethnic dishes and enjoying Latin jazz, salsa, and classical music. He also taught his wife and two very young children how to dance salsa and meringue, though slow at first, they have all become experienced dancers.

Craig T. Ramey, Ph.D., holds the Georgetown University Distinguished Professorship in Health Studies and is the founding director (along with his wife, Dr. Sharon Landesman Ramey) of the Georgetown University Center on Health and Education (also known as CHERITH). He earned his Ph.D. in developmental psychology at West Virginia University and completed a postdoctoral fellowship at the University of California at Berkeley. His research has focused on the effects of the early experience on children's intellectual and social competence. He developed, in 1971, and continues to lead the Abecedarian Project, a widely cited study that has documented multiple real-world and long-lasting benefits of early childhood education and health care for children of poverty. He also has studied the effects of early intervention for premature, low-birth-weight children (the eight-site randomized controlled trial known as the Infant Health and Development Study). Recently, he completed a 31-site study mandated by Congress, known as the Head Start–Public School Early Childhood Transition Demonstration Project. Currently, he collaborates on a multisite project to prevent child neglect and is engaged in conducting evaluations of many new initiatives throughout the country to provide high-quality early educational services to at-risk children. He is a native of West Virginia's beautiful Shenandoah Valley and counts among his interests reading, antique sports cars, entertaining, and sailing (in 2000 to 2001, the whole family had a sabbatical of sailing and home schooling).

Bette Keltner, a public health nurse for more than 30 years, is currently dean and professor at Georgetown University School of Nursing and Health Studies. Her work in the fields of disability and cultural competence are prominent in practice, research, and system development. Prior to joining Georgetown University, she served as a vice president for Honda of America Manufacturing, a corporate officer responsible for medical and health services affecting nearly 13,000 workers and 45,000 covered lives. She has been professor, senior scientist, and research administrator in major universities holding appointments in nursing, psychology, and public health. Her overall research portfolio for the past 10 years exceeds U.S. \$15 million. Among her many professional activities include serving on National Institute of Child Health & Development Study Section, the Secretary's Advisory Council on Infant Mortality, and recently completed a 10-member panel on the National Research Council to establish disability standards for the Social Security Administration. She is a past president and current treasurer of the National Alaska Native American Indian Nurses Association and a founding member and treasurer of the National Coalition for Ethnic Minority Nurse Associations. Her work is directed toward improving the health and well-being for all people. She is a native Cherokee and a wife and mother of two children.

Robin Gaines Lanzi is an assistant professor of human science in the School of Nursing and Health Studies at Georgetown University. She received her B.A. in psychology from Hollins College magna cum laude and her Ph.D. (developmental psychology) and M.P.H. (maternal and child health) from the University of Alabama at Birmingham. She has expertise in adolescent parenting, child abuse and neglect, family systems, early intervention programs, research methods, and social policy. She has conducted hundreds of family interviews, child assessments, home visits, and classroom observations as well as trained key national project officers and local evaluation teams to conduct standardized measures of child assessments. She has led national site visit review teams of local projects participating in a congressionally mandated study of the transition from Head Start to public school. In addition, she has worked with a state agency on child abuse and neglect prevention to improve information dissemination to community members, programs, funders, and policy makers. She is a married mother of four growing boys who keep her busy with soccer practices, school functions, and building forts and tree houses with their dad, Mark.