**Good Parenting : Do Younger Parents Learn from their Mothers?**

An adolescent's transition to adulthood is often marked by the formation of a new family. A key component of family formation is the adaptation to the parenting role by adolescents and young adults. Parenting practices and behaviors have been shown to impact children's well-being, adjustment and development. Parenting behaviors have been linked intergenerationally; however, often these studies focus on negative or ineffective parenting behaviors and likewise often rely on retrospective reporting (see van Ijzendoorn 1992 and Putallaz for review). Increasingly, effective parenting which consists of high level of support and low levels of harsh punishment has become the focus of intergenerational parenting transfers (Chen and Kaplan 2001, Belsky et al 2005). The construction of what constitutes effective parenting does not seem to vary across family contexts of race, ethnicity, class, or family structure (Amato and Fowler 2002). The 2004 survey round of the NLSY79 Young Adult data includes over 1000 respondents, male and female, between the ages of 15 and 33 who have at least one child, either biological or nonbiological, identified as living in their household, which we define as "residential parenthood". A number of these households contain children who are identified as either a stepchild or their partner's child. We will examine patterns of residential parenthood based on the Young Adult's race, gender and marital or partnership status. After describing the demographics of Young Adults transition into a parenting role, through co-residence with children, we will look at parenting behaviors for the Young Adults. We will explore the young adults' parenting roles using a series of parenting practices described by Bradley and Caldwell's abbreviated HOME scale (Caldwell and Bradley 1984).

This study seeks to advance the knowledge about effective parenting and its transfer from mothers to their children in several ways. First, considerable amount of information both demographic, family structure, and social and behavioral characteristics are available for the NLSY79 Original cohort mothers (Generation 1), who were aged 13 to 29 at the time of their first births. This allows us more comprehensive controls for Generation 1. The HOME-SF was given to these NLSY79 Mothers about their biological children living in the household, and these data were collected at multiple survey points and different developmental ages.

The HOME-SF scale, which contains different specific items for different developmental ages, consists of measures across all the ages which tap both support (such as praising child for accomplishments and showing physical affection) as well as punishment (such as spanking child, placing child in time-out, or grounding the child). The HOME-SF has considerable validity and reliability and has been used throughout the literature (Mott 2004, Baker and Mott 1989).

Second, these biological children of NLSY79 Mothers have been followed at multiple survey points and are interviewed separate and apart from their mother. Beginning at age 15 they enter the NLSY79 Young Adult cohort. These Young Adults (Generation 2) have an interview schedule which also has numerous social, behavioral, relationship history, and demographic items and follows closely to their mother's interview schedule. Items from the HOME-SF are asked of all Young Adult respondents (Generation 2) for each child living in the Young Adults' household in 2004 (Generation 3). Unlike prior research, this study is able to compare contemporaneous measures of parenting practices

and behaviors for both Generation 1 and Generation 2. In addition the use of the NLSY79 Youth and Young Adult surveys allows us to compare *identical* items and measures of contemporaneous parenting practices and behaviors for Generation 1 and Generation 2. Finally, the NLSY79 Youth cohort of mothers provides a unique opportunity to study the transmission of effective parenting practices across a nationally representative sample, when weighted, of women aged 14-21 in 1979. The NLSY79 Youth cohort also contains oversamples of black and Hispanic mothers permitting greater study of these mothers and their behaviors. The Young Adult children (Generation 2) who have at least one child living in the household are more likely to have been born by younger NLSY79 Mothers (Generation 1), but a considerable variation in both Generation 1 age at first birth (ages 13-29) and Generation 2 age at current child-rearing (ages 15 to 30) is evident, allowing us to control for early fertility and child-rearing patterns, unavailable to researchers in other studies.

In addition to describing the patterns of parenting practices for NLSY79 Mothers and Young Adult raising children, we will explore in a multivariate context the ways in which family structure, education, gender, race and other socio-demographic factors mediate the intergenerational transfer of parenting behaviors. We expect that those Young Adult parents, both mothers and fathers, who are younger will follow more closely to their NLSY79 Youth mother's patterns of parenting behaviors. We also expect that the effects of the intergenerational transfer from mothers will be stronger for Young adult women than for Young Adult men. We will also test to see if the Young Adults' current marital and relationship status and other factors impact the transfer of parenting patterns.

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