Mexican-Origin Children's Trajectories of Ethnic-Racial Pride From Childhood Through Emerging Adulthood: Associations With Mothers and Fathers' Trajectories

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Abstract

Ethnic-racial pride (positive feelings about one's ethnic-racial group) is critical to healthy identity development across the lifespan. Research on ethnic-racial pride development among Latinx populations has focused exclusively on youth, without regard to pride development amongst parents and relations between pride within family units. Using multivariate Latent Growth Curve Modelling among 674 Mexican-origin youth and their parents (673 mothers; 437 fathers), the trajectory of youth's pride from 5th grade through emerging adulthood (14 years/12 waves of data) as well as relations with parental pride trajectories were examined. Respondents' pride generally decreased from waves 1 to 7 (~age 11-17 in youth) and increased after wave 7. Youth's and mothers' trajectories were unrelated, but complex associations emerged between youth's and fathers' trajectories. This study supports the dynamic nature of ethnic-racial pride across distinct life stages and underscores the complex interplay of youth and parental pride trajectories, emphasizing the pivotal role parents may play in co-shaping identity development alongside their children.

Keywords. Ethnic-racial Pride; Ethnic-racial Affirmation; Mexican American; Latent Growth Curve Modeling.

Introduction

Ethnic-racial identity development, a multifaceted construct influencing the beliefs, feelings, and attitudes towards their ethnic-racial group memberships, represents a pivotal developmental milestone for Latinx youth (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014). A significant dimension of this identity is ethnic-racial pride, which has implications for the functioning and well-being of Latinx youth (Rivas-Drake et al., 2014) and is an important coping strategy when facing discrimination (e.g., Brittian et al., 2015; McDermott et al., 2019) as it promotes resilience in youth from ethnic-racial minority groups by strengthening their ability and confidence to handle ethnic-racial prejudices and bias prevalent due to the systemic racism in the U.S. (Neblett et al., 2012). However, a majority of existing research overlooks the child's position within the family context and the concurrent identity development in their parents, as youth's pride may be influenced by parental pride and vice versa (Armenta et al., 2011). Addressing this gap, the present study examines the relationship between the ethnic-racial pride development of Latinx children and their parents over 14 years and 12 waves of data to provide insights into the trajectories of ethnic-racial identity development among Latinx youth, mothers, and fathers, as well as their interrelations.

The Lifespan Model of Ethnic-racial Identity: Youth and Parents' Pride

This manuscript is guided by the lifespan model of ethnic-racial identity, which highlights the continuous development of an individual's ethnic-racial identity not only from childhood through adolescence – periods of development that are most commonly studied – but across the entire lifespan (Williams et al., 2020). In this model, childhood and adolescence are important stages in development as they are marked by a process of exploration and affirmation of their ethnic-racial identity (Williams et al., 2020). During these stages, individuals may be more likely to engage in behaviors that help them establish their identity and develop a sense of belonging, which, in turn, engenders feelings of pride in their ethnic-racial group (Rogers et al., 2020). Despite progress in understanding the development of ethnic-racial identity in childhood and adolescence, there is little empirical work conducted on the development of ethnic-racial identity in adulthood (Rogers et al., 2020). The lifespan model emphasizes the importance of understanding how ethnic pride continues to develop into adulthood and highlights the transition into adult social roles as a potential mechanism of identity change (Williams et al., 2020). Specifically, during the transition into early adulthood,

youth often move away from home to continue their schooling, enter the workforce, form long-term romantic relationships, and become parents. All of these transitions entail fundamental changes in the individual's social context and a unique set of expectations, responsibilities, norms, and values that are likely to have a powerful impact on identity. Although foundational identity models (e.g., Sellers et al., 1998) propose that pride is relatively stable across time, little is known about how ethnic pride changes during the potentially transformative transition into adulthood. Moreover, less is known about how changes in parent ethnic-racial identity might impact child ethnic-racial identity across the transition into adulthood. Trajectories of parents' ethnic-racial pride are essential to investigate, not only because they are highly understudied and may offer insights into continuity/discontinuity in their children's ethnic-racial identity and generational shifts, but also because parents often serve as primary socialization agents in the transmission of cultural values and pride (Stein et al., 2023). Finally, it is important to document normative changes in ethnic pride as to identify when it is particularly low across the lifespan, since these dips in ethnic pride may be windows of opportunity for interventions aimed at boosting ethnic pride, which is an importance resilience factor associated with positive psychosocial functioning (Umaña-Taylor & Hill, 2020).

Ethnic-racial Pride Development

Ethnic-racial identity development is a key developmental milestone for Latinx youth (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014) and a complex multidimensional construct influencing their beliefs, feelings, and attitudes about their ethnic-racial group and how those beliefs, feelings, and attitudes develop over time (Ong et al., 2010). Ethnic-racial identity is frequently separated in *content*, more stable trait-like aspects of identity, and *process*, or the components of identity most malleable to development and change over time (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014). Under the umbrella of the ethnic-racial identity process are three important dimensions: exploration (doing things to learn more about the significance of one's ethnic-racial identity), resolution (the sense of belonging to one's ethnic-racial group; also called commitment; Phinney, 1992), and affirmation or pride (the positive feelings associated with ethnic-racial group membership; Umana-Taylor et al., 2004). Within the identity process, pride may be of particular importance to the functioning and well-being of Latinx youth as higher levels of ethnic-racial pride have been associated with better mental health and academic outcomes,

improved self-esteem, and less risky behaviors (e.g., substance use) among Latinx youth (for a comprehensive review, see Rivas-Drake et al., 2014).

The present paper focuses specifically on ethnic-racial pride. While some studies have used an average score combining exploration and pride, researchers have encouraged the independent study of each dimension (Roberts et al., 1999). Previous research has also found that pride has more basis in social context than in development, making it susceptible to showing a different developmental trajectory than exploration (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2009), thus supporting the independent examination of each dimension. Regardless, ethnic-racial pride is proximally and positively related to other positive psychosocial outcomes such as the 5Cs of positive youth development (Johnson et al., 2023), and investigation into trajectories of pride across Mexican-origin youth and parents across such a large (14-year) time frame may facilitate new insights as to contextual and developmental changes over time.

Influential models of ethnic-racial identity development (Phinney, 1992; Williams et al., 2020) do not specify a predicted direction of pride development, and subsequent empirical work has been mixed regarding the presence of, absence of, and direction of systematic change in different aspects of ethnic-racial pride among youth of color and Latinx youth. For example, significant increases in ethnic identity dimensions during adolescence, which were positively correlated with self-esteem, were observed in a study of 1,082 ethnically diverse adolescents (French et al., 2006). In contrast, no significant longitudinal changes were found in ethnic-racial identity processes of exploration, commitment, and salience in diverse adolescents (Wang et al., 2017) as well as no significant group-level changes in ethnic identity (pride/belonging and exploration) during high school years for adolescents from various backgrounds (Kiang et al., 2010). However, group-level fluctuations in levels of ethnic exploration and pride/belonging have been observed (Kiang et al., 2010). This stability might be due to individual variations masking group trends, a notion supported by prior research indicating that identity formation during adolescence can be considerably variable, yet not consistently predictable or linear (Fuligni et al., 2008). Other studies have found a decline in pride from ages 10 to 19 among Mexican-origin youth (Lu et al., 2020), but also an increase in Latinx students' ethnic-racial pride between ages 15 and 19 (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2009). Overall, the direction of pride development in Latinx youth remains unclear.

Interrelations Between Parents and Youth Pride

As youth's development of ethnic-racial pride may be influenced by parental pride (e.g., Armenta et al., 2011), youth's own pride development may also, in turn, influence that of their parents. Therefore, despite being rarely studied, it is likely that parents' ethnic-racial identity development influences youth's trajectories of identity development – and vice versa. Despite the strong empirical work regarding parents' influence on youth's pride, there is a clear lack of research on youth's influence on parents' pride in ethnic-racial minorities. We therefore turned to the literature on transactional models of development, which suggest that the influence between parents and youth is bidirectional (Sameroff, 2009). For instance, a child who continually develops a stronger sense of ethnic-racial pride across childhood and adolescence may elicit growth in the ethnic-racial pride of their parents (Sameroff, 2009). Conversely, a parent who, potentially due to harmful contextual factors, such as negative rhetoric about Latinx people fueled by the Trump presidency, or developmental processes like life transitions (e.g., having children), may be waning in their ethnic-racial pride and provide a model to their children, thus influencing a decrease in their own pride. This concept was further illustrated in a study of recently immigrated Latinx families, which explored the bidirectional pathways between adolescents' and caregivers' consolidated sense of *belonging* to both Latinx and U.S. cultures. This study found a bidirectional relationship with significant differences between the two cultures (Meca et al., 2021). Although specific examinations of bidirectional associations in Latinx *pride* are lacking, these findings support the hypothesis that youth can reciprocally shape their parents' pride development, outside of cultural socialization processes. Understanding pride development as a familial process involving both the child and their parents is crucial in understanding healthy development in these populations.

Sociodemographic Context and Pride Trajectories

Ethnic-racial pride development occurs in a context of multiple intersecting factors like gender/sex, socioeconomic status, and nativity or immigrant status (Schroeder & Bámaca-Colbert, 2019). Developmental theory (Erikson, 1968) suggests that identity development, including ethnic-racial identity (Phinney, 1990), is shaped by gender. Latinx communities, known for more pronounced gender role socialization patterns, have traditionally placed women as the bearers of culture, which would lead to higher levels of ethnic-racial socialization and, in turn, higher growth of pride over time (Rotheram-Borus et al., 1998). This aligns with

prior research indicating that adolescent girls tend to report faster ethnic identity growth than boys (Umana-Taylor et al., 2009). Additionally, socioeconomic status, most commonly captured by three independent proxy measures: education, occupation and/or income (Galobardes et al., 2007) provide an important contextual factor for pride development. However, while one study found that youth with less educated parents showed greater increases in ethnic-racial *exploration* over the course of an intergroup intervention (Aldana et al., 2012), there is no longitudinal examination of whether socioeconomic status impacts the development of ethnic-racial *pride* known to the authors. The association between socioeconomic status and ethnic-racial pride remains therefore variable (Azmitia et al., 2008). Finally, many longitudinal studies have not found significant differences in ethnic-racial identity trajectories between youth born outside of the U.S. and youth born in the U.S. (e.g., French et al., 2006; Kiang et al., 2010).

The Current Study

Guided by the lifespan model of ethnic-racial identity (Williams et al., 2020), the current study examined how Mexican American youth's and parents' ethnic-racial pride develops across a large window of development, how they influence each other, and how nativity, sex, and household income is associated with those trajectories. Trajectories of pride in Latinx youth from childhood (age 10) to early adulthood (age 23) were first examined, followed by mothers' and fathers' pride trajectories across the same timespan, and finally the interrelations between the youth's, mothers', and fathers' pride trajectories. Considering the inconsistent findings on the direction of youth's pride development and the lack of research on parents' pride, the direction for each trajectory is treated as exploratory, although changes in pride across time are expected to be positively correlated among family members. Sensitivity analyses were conducted to investigate whether trajectories were robust to the inclusion of covariates, including biological sex, socioeconomic status, and respondent country of birth (nativity). Specific effects of socioeconomic status and nativity for parents' pride are treated as exploratory, but higher levels of pride in female youth and parents are expected. In line with previous longitudinal studies, differences in ethnic pride trajectories between youth born outside of the U.S. and those born in the U.S. are also not expected. Socioeconomic status's association with ethnic-racial pride is uncertain given mixed findings in the literature.

Method

Participants and Procedures

The current study uses data from the California Families Project, an ongoing longitudinal study of Mexican-origin families approved by the University of California at Davis Institutional Review Board (Protocol # 217484-21). At Wave 1, collected from 2006 to 2008, participants were 674 Mexican-origin 5th graders (50% girls, M_{age} = 10.8, SD = 0.50) and their parents – specifically, 673 mothers (M_{age}=37.3, SD = 5.91) and 437 fathers (M_{age}=39.9, SD = 6.05). Participants were randomly recruited from school rosters from the Woodland and Sacramento school districts in California during the 2006-2007 and 2007-2008 school years. In order to participate, youth had to be living with their biological mothers and, if applicable, their biological fathers. To the participants' preference, bilingual trained research staff conducted the individual home interviews either in English or in Spanish.

A small number of families (19%; N = 125) were single-parent households (mothers only), and 549 of the families (81%) were two-parent households. The median total household income was between $25,000 - 30,000 (overall range of income from $5,000 to $95,000), with 71.3% of the sample below 35,000$. For parental education level, 63% of mothers and 65% of fathers had less than a high school education (median of ninth grade for both mothers and fathers). Youth's generational status was 28.4% first generation (born in Mexico), 62.7% second generation (born in the US and 1 parent born in the US), and 9.0% third generation (born in the US and both parents born in the US). For parents, 83.6% of mothers and 89.4% of fathers were born in Mexico, and 16.4% of mothers and 10.6% of fathers were born in the United States.

Because ethnic-racial pride was not assessed at every wave, the present study uses Waves 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, and 12 for youth and Waves 1, 3, 5, 7, 11, and 12 for parents. Pride was assessed biennially from Wave 1 (when children were around age 10; data collected between 2006 and 2008) through 9 (~ age 18) and annually from Wave 10 through 12 (~ age 23; data collected between 2019 and 2021). After Wave 10, data collection changed to every two years but with pride assessments collected at each Wave – making Wave 11 Year 12 of the study and Wave 12 Year 14 of the study. Concerning retention of families, respondents were able to participate in the study even if they did not complete the previous wave(s) assessment(s), except for Wave 1). For example, if a parent or child did not participate at Wave 2, they were still invited to complete the

Wave 3 interview. Table 1 details missing pride assessments at each wave for youth, mothers, and fathers. As such, retention rates based on the number of families in which the child, mother, or father participated at each wave compared to the full initial sample size ($N = 674$) were as follows: 100% (Wave 1), 86% (Wave 3), 91% (Wave 5), 90% (Wave 7), 91% (Wave 9), 92% (Wave 10), 88% (Wave 11), and 89% (Wave 12). These retention rates do not account for missingness on specific items within the interview, which were very minimal.

Measures

Ethnic-racial Pride

Youth, mothers, and fathers completed the six-item pride subscale of the Mexican American Ethnic Identification Scale adapted from the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (Phinney, 1992). Participants were asked to rate how much each statement was true for them (e.g., *"You are happy that you are Mexican/Mexican American"*) using a four-point Likert scale. Possible responses included: *Not at all true* (1), *Somewhat true* (2), *Mostly true* (3), and *Very true* (4). The mean of the six items created a total ethnic-racial pride score at each wave and for each respondent (mother, father, and child). Across the waves, ethnic-racial pride has good to excellent reliability for youth (α range = [0.75 – 0.93]), for mothers (α range = [0.84 – 0.93]), and for fathers (α range = [0.87 – 0.93]). Table 1 shows the amount of ethnic-racial pride assessments collected and reliability analyses at each wave for all three respondents.

Covariates

Covariates included socioeconomic status (as measured by parental education level and household income), youth and parents' biological sex, and nativity. Youth's and parents' biological sex was coded such that 0 = female and 1 = male. For youth's nativity status, a dichotomous code was created to compare 1st generation (born in Mexico = 0) with 2nd or 3rd generation (born in the United States = 1). Second and third generations were combined because of the low percentage (9%) of 3rd generation youth. Parents born in Mexico were coded as 0, and parents born in the United States were coded as 1.

Results

Analysis Plan

Ethnic-racial pride trajectories were estimated using Latent Growth Curve (LGC) modelling using Mplus Version 8.7 with maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR) to account for potential non-normality in each wave of data (Allison, 2003) and full information maximum likelihood (FIML) to handle data missing at random (Enders, 2010; Schafer & Graham, 2002). Out of 674 mothers and youth, 3 youth and 4 mothers were missing on all ethnic pride assessments. Overall, our analyses included ethnic pride data for 671 youth, 670 mothers, and 520 fathers across all waves. While 437 fathers were recruited at Wave 1, there was an additional 83 fathers provided data on ethnic pride at subsequent waves, totalling in 520 observations for father's ethnic pride (see Table 1 for missingness at each wave). Examining missingness at Wave 12 for those who gave pride data at Wave 1 (670 moms, 671 youth, 437 fathers), where female youth were more likely to be missing at Wave 12 than male youth $(\chi^2_{(1)} = 6.91, p = .009; N_{youth\ missing} = 131; 52$ females and 29 males). No other covariates (age, socioeconomic status, and nativity) were associated with missingness on pride assessments at Wave 12 for youth, mothers, or fathers ($N_{youth\ missing} = 131$, $N_{mothers\ missing} = 135$; $N_{fathers\ missing} = 200$; all p's $\geq .107$).

First, five univariate models were compared for each respondent based on the shape of growth trajectories (raw means) in order to select the pattern of growth most representative and accurate to our observed data (Figure 1): *no growth* (1), where the slope is fixed at zero; linear *growth* (2), where the slope increases by one unit each year; *latent basis* (3), where the first and last point are fixed (0 and 1, respectively) with the middle ones freely estimated; *quadratic* (4) where a quadratic slope factor is added to the model, and; *piecewise* (5) two linear growth trajectories – one from Wave 1 to 7 and one from Wave 7 to 12 – were estimated and connected with a 'knot' at Wave 7 (see Table S1 for the scaling of time in the models for each respondent). Since foundational ethnic-racial identity stage theories suggest that individuals differ with respect to their development of pride (among other dimensions of ethnic-racial identity), that is there may not be a single age at which people should increase or decrease in pride (Phinney, 1992; Williams et al., 2020), the piecewise knot location (i.e., Wave 7; ~age 16) was determined by examining the raw means of ethnic-racial pride for each respondent (see Figure 1). Examining these raw means, Wave 7 seemed to serve as in inflection

point, where prior decreases in ethnic-racial pride stopped and pride began to steadily increase in subsequent

waves. Overall fit was examined using the Chi-square (χ^2), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square

Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Overall model fit

was assessed as "good" when CFI ≥ .95, RMSEA ≤ .05, and SRMR ≤ .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). When

comparing models, Chi-Square difference tests for nested models and Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC) for

non-nested models were referred to, where a lower BIC would indicate a better fit (Muthén, 2016).

Second, a multivariate model was created with all three trajectories (youth's, mothers', and fathers')

using the best-fitting growth curve for each respondent. Model fit was evaluated, then associations between

these trajectories of pride over time, and finally sensitivity analyses, adding sociodemographic variables (youth

and parents' sex, nativity, and socioeconomic status reported at Wave 1) to the multivariate model to

determine whether trajectories were robust to the inclusion of these covariates.

Bivariate Correlations

Pride amongst youth, mothers, and fathers was generally correlated with itself at subsequent waves

and correlated among family members (see Table 2).

Competing Univariate Models

Table 3 shows the univariate LGC models for youths' pride. For youth, comparative analyses of

model fit showed that a piecewise growth fit the data best ($\chi^2_{(27)}$ = 154.315; p < .001; RMSEA = .084; CFI =

.912; SRMR = .088). For mothers (Table 4), a latent basis growth curve fit the data best ($\chi^2_{(12)}$ = 26.357; p <

.001; RMSEA = .042; CFI = .984; SRMR = .050). The latent basis model for fathers was not possible to

estimate due to convergence issues, but a piecewise growth curve (Table 5) fit the data best ($\chi^2_{(12)}$ = 91.970; p

< .001; RMSEA = .113; CFI = .829; SRMR = .221)[1].

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[1] The authors acknowledge that the growth model for fathers demonstrated a poor fit. Despite attempts to fit
alternative models such as autoregressive models (without growth) and growth models with structural residuals
(accounting for autocorrelation across time), the piecewise model remained the best fitting. While this is a
limitation, the inclusion of fathers in the multivariate model was deemed essential due to their often overlooked
presence in similar literature, and the authors desire not to contribute to this lack of representation of fathers in a rare
case such as this when such rich longitudinal data are available.

Multivariate Model

When combining youth's piecewise model, mothers' latent basis model, and fathers' piecewise model, the resulting multivariate model (see Figure 2 for plots of estimated means) had acceptable fit ($\chi^2_{(162)}$ = 407.627, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .048, CFI = .915, SRMR = .089). Table 6 presents the multivariate model results with unstandardized coefficients. Every year until Wave 7, mothers' mean ethnic-racial pride decreased, then showed an upward trajectory until Wave 11, and finally decreased again at Wave 12. Fathers and youth's pride significantly decreased every year from Wave 1 to Wave 7 (B_{dad} = -.02, $p < .001$; B_{child} = -.02, $p < .001$) and increased from Wave 7 to 12 (B_{dad} = .03, $p < .001$; B_{child} = .03, $p < .001$). There was also significant variance around the intercepts and slopes for all variables except mothers' slope.

Associations Between Starting Levels and Trajectories of Pride Within Respondents

Mother's Trajectories. Mothers with higher initial pride scores showed a greater level of nonlinear change over time (r = .57, p = < .001).

Fathers' Trajectories. Fathers' initial level of pride was not associated with the decreasing slope of pride from Waves 1 to 7 but was associated with the increasing trajectory of pride scores from Waves 7 to 12; specifically, fathers who demonstrated smaller increases in pride from Waves 7 to 12 tended to have higher pride at Wave 1 (r = -.43, p = .032). Slope 1 and slope 2 were negatively correlated among fathers (r = -.88, p = < .001), meaning larger decreases in pride up to Wave 7 were associated with more modest increases in pride from Wave 7 onwards.

Adolescents' Trajectories. Youth who showed greater decreases in pride from Waves 1 to 7 (5th to 11th grade) had higher initial levels of pride at Wave 1 (r = -.29, p = .001). The increase in youth's pride from Waves 7 to 12 was not associated with youth's initial level of pride at Wave 1 (r = -.09, p = .315). Similar to fathers, slope 1 and slope 2 were negatively correlated among youth (r = -.46, $p < .001$), meaning larger decreases in pride up to Wave 7 were associated with more modest increases in pride from Wave 7 onwards.

Associations Between Starting Levels and Trajectories of Pride Between Respondents

Starting levels of pride at Wave 1 were positively correlated amongst all family members.

Mothers and Adolescents. Generally, youth's trajectories of pride over time were not correlated with their mothers' trajectories.

Fathers and Adolescents. Youth and fathers' Waves 1 to 7 decreases in pride were positively correlated ($r = .30$, $p = .037$), meaning youth whose pride decreased more steeply from 5th to 11th grade tended to have fathers' whose pride decreased more steeply across the same timeframe. However, youth's and fathers' increases in pride from Waves 7 to 12 were not associated with each other ($r = .17$, $p = .249$). Interestingly, a complex association emerged where youth with smaller *increases* in pride from Waves 7 to 12 had fathers who displayed slower *decreases* in pride from Waves 1 through 7 ($r = -.30$, $p = .041$).

Sensitivity Analyses: Including Covariates

Potentially due to the high number of parameters being estimated in these complex models and the lower number of fathers relative to mothers and youth, estimation errors arose when attempting to examine how covariates impacted fathers' intercept and slopes. Therefore, covariates were only allowed to impact youth's and mothers' intercepts and slopes. Additionally, estimation errors appeared when attempting to add mothers' and fathers' education level in addition to income as measures of socioeconomic status - potentially due to significant overlap between these indices. Therefore, family income remained as our proxy measure of socioeconomic status. Both family income and maternal nativity were assessed as predictors of mothers' initial levels of pride and the shape of their trajectory, while family income, child biological sex, and child nativity were assessed as predictors of youth's initial pride and trajectories from Waves 1 to 7 and 7 to 12.

When these time-invariant covariates were added, sensitivity analyses showed some differences in slope and intercept correlations (see Table S2 in supplementary materials). Namely, the following correlations became non-significant; the correlation between fathers' downward slope at Waves 1 through 7 with *1.* youth's downward slope at Waves 1 to 7 ($r = .25$, $p = .209$), and *2.* youth's upward slope at Waves 7 to 12 ($r = -.13$, $p = .535$) and the correlation between fathers' upwards slope at Waves 7 to 12 with fathers' intercept ($r = -.48$, $p = .057$). Importantly, mean effects of fathers' slope from Waves 7 to 12 and both of youth's slopes became non-significant ($B_{dad} = -.02$, $p = .288$; $B_{child\ 1} = .00$, $p = .819$; $B_{child\ 2} = .01$, $p = .144$), meaning that, after accounting for the effects of covariates, there was no significant change or growth in fathers' pride from Waves 7 to 12 and youth's pride from Waves 1 to 12. The variance of fathers' slope from Waves 1 to 7 also became non-significant ($B_{dad} = .00$, $p = .145$) while all other significant variances remained.

Covariates had three specific, significant effects. First, household income was positively associated with mothers' intercept, that is, mothers with higher income also had higher initial levels of ethnic-racial pride ($B = .01$, $p = <.001$). Second, youth born in the United States had lower initial pride ($B = -.10$, $p = .018$). Third, boys had a steeper decline in their slopes compared to girls from Waves 1 to 7 ($B = -.03$, $p = .003$). In summary, certain intercepts and slopes were not robust to the inclusion of covariates, and there were certain between-person differences with respect to intercepts and slopes. Potential explanations behind these discrepancies can be found in the discussion.

Discussion

Ethnic-racial identity development is a key developmental milestone for Latinx youth, and the development of pride in one's group may be especially important given its strong associations with positive psychosocial functioning (Rivas-Drake et al., 2014). While there has been some longitudinal exploration into trajectories of pride across development, these studies have not been able to capture trajectories from childhood through emerging adulthood, nor have they examined trajectories of identity development in parents over the same time period. Parents not only play an important role in shaping their children's sense of ethnic-racial pride, but youth's development of pride may also influence the trajectory of parents' pride over time. This, however, has not yet been tested empirically.

Guided by the lifespan model of ethnic-racial identity development (Williams et al., 2020), the present study examined ethnic-racial pride trajectories among Mexican-origin youth and their parents across 14 years. We examined each respondent's (mothers, fathers, and youth) individual trajectories of pride, how they correlated with each other, and whether covariates (income, child sex, and nativity) changed the trajectories. Overall, for youth and fathers, ethnic-racial pride decreased when youth were 10 years old (2006-2008; Wave 1) until 16 years old (2012-2014; Wave 7) and increased from age 16 (2012-2014; Wave 7) to age 23 (2019-2021; Wave 12). For mothers, pride had a similar trajectory to fathers and youth, that is, a decrease from Wave 1 to Wave 7; however, they showed an increase in pride from Wave 7 to Wave 11 (2017-2019) and a decrease again starting at Wave 12 (2019-2021).

Developmental Trajectories during Adolescence and Emerging Adulthood

Ethnic-racial pride decreased for youth from ages 10 to 16. This finding holds with a previous examination of youth's pride using the same dataset as the present study (Lu et al., 2020). It is possible that minority youth's assessment of their ethnic culture may become less favorable as they grow into adolescents and come into contact with the mainstream culture at school and other social contexts (Lu et al., 2020). As they do so, they may begin to identify with the broader national culture and strive for a bicultural identity (Nguyen & Benet-Martinez, 2007; Schwartz et al., 2010). In the United States, where being American and maintaining a connection to one's ethnic culture may often fall into conflict (Rodriguez et al., 2010), minoritized youth decrease their positive feelings toward their culture to achieve more assimilation with mainstream American culture (Baldwin-White et al., 2017).

Ethnic-racial pride later increased for youth from ages 16 to 23. This finding supports previous results in which pride increased across 4 years from ages 15 to 19 in Latinx adolescents (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2009). From a developmental perspective, this increase may be linked to the typical identity exploration processes that take place during late adolescence and early adulthood. As proposed by Erikson (1968), these years represent a stage of identity versus role confusion, where individuals engage in extensive self-exploration to solidify a coherent and integrated sense of self. For ethnic-racial minority youth, this exploration often includes a deeper dive into their cultural roots and heritage (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014). As adolescents transition into adulthood, they develop greater cognitive flexibility, allowing them to view their identity in multifaceted terms (Arnett, 2000). The shift from a more simplistic understanding of identity, where one might feel the need to choose between their ethnic identity and mainstream culture, to a more nuanced bicultural or multicultural identity can result in an increase in ethnic-racial pride (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014). Moreover, the process of leaving high school and entering college or the workforce can expose young adults to more diverse environments where they encounter peers and mentors who validate and celebrate ethnic-racial backgrounds (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014). Such positive reinforcements can further solidify pride in one's ethnic-racial identity.

Developmental Trajectories of Parents in Adulthood

Similar to youth, parents' ethnic-racial pride decreased from Wave 1 to 7 and increased from Waves 7 to 12. Given the absence of longitudinal research on ethnic-racial pride trajectories across adulthood, research and theory on ethnic-racial identity during young adulthood will be discussed to inform the present findings. The nature and focus of ethnic-racial identity evolves distinctly across developmental phases. By the time individuals transition into young adulthood, they begin to contemplate the interplay of ethnic-racial identity with other vital identity facets, such as gender, social class, career, and political beliefs (Umana-Taylor et al., 2014). This interconnectivity signifies a departure from considering ethnic-racial identity alone but rather as an intertwined element of a holistic self-identity (Bowleg, 2008; Syed, 2010). This integrative process is in line with Erikson's (1968) assertions about the evolution of a coherent overall identity.

Translating this to parents' in their later stages of life, it is possible that as adults advance in age, the foundational aspects of their ethnic-racial identity, including pride, get continually reshaped (Gill & Cross, 2010). Especially given that family has been highlighted as a pivotal social context influencing ethnic-racial identity development (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014), the evolving ethnic-racial identity of their children might reciprocally influence parents' own perceptions and feelings about their ethnic-racial pride. Youth's acculturation processes, in addition to the possible, albeit unmeasured, bidirectional effect of parent and youth-directed ethnic-racial socialization (parents affect youth and youth affect parents), may explain why parents also displayed a decrease in pride until Wave 7 (Reitz et al., 2014). This dynamic exchange within the family unit can further drive fluctuations in parents' ethnic-racial pride as they navigate the complexities of their multifaceted identity in relation to the changing identities of their children.

Further, from a lifecourse perspective changes in parents' ethnic-racial pride may overlap with change along broader Eirksonian developmental stages (1968); specifically, parents may – depending on age – be moving from solving conflicts of intimacy vs isolation (i.e., aiming to form deep, meaningful social connections) to generativity in the midlife period. The overlap between these stages and ethnic-racial pride development are avenues for future research that should be explored using age-grade longitudinal models, where change over time in pride amongst adults coincides with age-related change (unlike the present study, where adults were different ages at each wave).

Interrelations between Respondents

While youth's trajectories were not associated with that of mothers, there was a positive association between fathers' and youth's trajectories from Waves 1 to 7. Specifically, when youth's pride decreased more steeply, their fathers also decreased more steeply across this timeframe. This may be related to a bidirectional effect of ethnic-racial socialization where the child influences their parent's pride as the child becomes more interested in acculturation and becoming more "mainstream" with the majority culture in early adolescence. However, mothers' and youth's trajectories were not associated; only fathers' and youth's were. In one longitudinal acculturation study of Latinx immigrant caregiver-adolescent dyads, the authors indicated that caregivers (67.5% mothers) may hold on to their Latinx culture as a response to their adolescent's own cultural identification changes over time (Meca et al., 2021). Considering the gender roles theory of socialization wherein women are responsible for carrying the cultural traditions in the family (Rotheram-Borus et al., 1998), it is possible that mothers may not be affected by their child's pride as much as fathers. After Wave 7, however, when youth were around 16 years old, the increase in independence and autonomy associated with adolescence may explain the non-significant association between youth's both parents' pride from waves 7 to 12 (Lerner et al., 2001).

Fathers who displayed smaller *decreases* in pride from Waves 1 through 7 had youth with smaller *increases* in pride from Waves 7 to 12. Taken together with the finding that larger decreases in fathers' slope from Waves 1 to 7 were associated with larger Wave 1 to 7 decreases in youth's slopes, it appears that youth's trajectory of identity development begins to be less coupled with father's identity development as the child moves through adolescence. This would also explain the lack of association between fathers' and youth's trajectories from Waves 7 to 12. Ultimately, more research is needed to better capture the relative impact of parents' identities on the identity development of their youth at different ages and stages.

Political and Social Context in California

Although the present study did not directly measure political and social context, it is important to acknowledge the contextual impact on pride development coupled with developmental processes at the time of each Wave. While youth undergo intense self-exploration and identity formation (Erikson, 1968), they simultaneously interact with the broader societal context which can impact their ethnic-racial pride (Umaña-

Taylor et al., 2014). Their growing autonomy (Lerner et al., 2001) and the increasing significance of peer and societal influences could lead political and social climates to have a more pronounced effect on their evolving sense of ethnic-racial pride. Adults, with their established identities, may be less influenced by internal developmental changes compared to youth. However, they remain highly susceptible to external societal shifts. The observed pride trajectories in parents, especially during periods of heightened political tension, may reflect their reactions to the evolving societal climate. As adults experience changes in the broader sociopolitical landscape, their pride and connection to their ethnic-racial identity can either strengthen as a form of resistance (Branscombe et al., 1999) or diminish due to a protective mechanism against potential discrimination (Gonzales-Backen et al., 2018). Recognizing these dynamics is critical to understanding the complexities of ethnic-racial pride development across the lifespan.

The decrease in pride from Waves 1 (2006-2008) to 7 (2012-2014), followed by an increase in pride from Waves 7 to 12 (2019-2021), may be partly explained by the political and social context in California. During the years leading up to 2012-2014, there was a shift in the political climate towards more inclusive policies and rhetoric around immigration (e.g., the *Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals* and the *Deferred Action for Parents of Americans and Lawful Permanent Residents*; Cohn, 2015). This more inclusive climate could have contributed to a decrease in ethnic-racial pride because they did not feel their identity to be as threatened as it was before. However, during the years around the 2016 the context shifted back to anti-immigrant rhetorics through government threats to remove immigrant-protecting policies like DACA and the implementation of several harmful policies (Rosenberg, 2018). These policies may have contributed to a sense of fear and uncertainty among Mexican Americans (Wray-Lake et al., 2018), which could have impacted their sense of ethnic-racial pride. While some suggest that this kind of rhetoric may contribute to a lowered ethnic-racial pride among some Mexican Americans (Gonzales-Backen et al., 2018), the present study showed increases in pride from 2014-2016 onwards, coinciding with and maybe even in reaction to the election of President Trump. Therefore, as Mexican Americans faced increased stigmatization and pressure to assimilate, they may have responded by embracing their cultural heritage (Moreno et al., 2021) through political mobilization and resistance, which could have strengthened their sense of ethnic-racial pride (McCann & Jones-Correa, 2020). Although not specific to this particular moment in history, studies often find positive

associations between discrimination and ethnic identity among Latinx youth and emerging adults, both cross-sectionally (Baldwin-White et al., 2017; Cronin et al., 2012; Umaña-Taylor & Guimond, 2010), and longitudinally (Fuller-Rowell et al., 2013). Therefore, the current findings where ethnic-racial pride decreased leading up to the election of President Trump but increased throughout and past his presidency are supported by research showing positive associations between pride and discrimination (i.e., Branscombe et al.'s 1999 rejection-identification hypothesis) and with work showing a strengthening of pride in response to the discriminatory social climate against Latinx communities.

Robustness of Findings

Ultimately, sensitivity analyses indicated that trajectories of pride flattened out when including covariates in our models. This may have happened for a number of reasons, and thus findings are treated with caution and are not seen as indicative of a lack of growth and change in pride over time. Firstly, the multivariate models were extremely complex (3 growth trajectories across 6-9 waves of data estimated simultaneously) in terms of the number of parameters being estimated, even given the large sample size (which is notably smaller for fathers). Attempts to add covariates for fathers resulted in intractable estimation errors, and the inclusion of covariates for mothers and fathers when so many parameters had already been estimated may have led to instability in the estimates of the intercepts and slopes. Secondly, covariates are intended to capture variability in the intercepts and slopes, meaning that the inclusion of covariates may have led to between-person variability in intercepts and slopes being accounted for and 'pulled out' to the point where there was less residual or unaccounted for variability left. Regardless of the mechanism by which this happened, these results both imply that these trajectories exist and are interrelated amongst family members in interesting and complex ways and that these trajectories may be sensitive to sociodemographic variables such as biological sex, nativity, and household income. Future work with larger samples may benefit from focusing more closely on this potential variability in pride development by different demographic factors.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are some limitations to this study. Pride data points for parents at Waves 9 and 10 were not available. It was therefore not possible to examine the increase in pride from Wave 7 to Wave 10 in comparison to youth. Both the poor model fit and smaller sample size for fathers relative to model complexity

may also introduced estimation errors, especially when incorporating covariates, therefore interpretations involving fathers should be made with caution. Further, while a single trajectory for the groups of youth, mothers, and fathers were estimated, there is potential heterogeneity in the trajectories in these groups not captured by this approach. Although allowing for multiple trajectories through latent growth curve mixture modeling would have been difficult given the sample size, future work may benefit from examining the heterogeneity of developmental trajectories in Latinx populations as well as predictors and outcomes associated with heterogeneity in these trajectories.

Future research should also seek to understand factors that may influence how youth impact their own parents' pride and potential mechanisms through which pride develops such as parental socialization and social environment (e.g., peer groups, school, and extra-curricular contexts). It is well understood that parents influence their youth's pride development through the process of cultural socialization or teaching youth about their culture and instilling cultural pride (Umaña-Taylor & Fine, 2004). Several studies have shown a positive association between Mexican American parental cultural socialization and their youth's own ethnic-racial pride (Berkel et al., 2010; Knight et al., 2011; Umaña-Taylor & Fine, 2004). These socialization messages are themselves influenced by parents' own ethnic-racial identities (Phinney et al., 1990). Therefore, future studies should examine how socialization impacts the development of pride.

The development of pride is also influenced by others' perception of one's ethnic-racial group (Umaña-Taylor et al., 2009). As such, other studies should also consider contextual challenges like ethnic-racial discrimination to examine its longitudinal effect on pride (Lu et al., 2020). It would be important to know if the trajectories in pride post-Wave 7 are present in another time and context, that is, whether the increases in pride are independent of the political context or representative of a true developmental stage. Overall, the presence of both a decreasing slope and an increasing slope of pride (a piecewise growth model) for Latinx youth in our results may explain the current contradictions in the direction of trajectories in the literature. Capturing not only adolescence but also young adulthood may be essential to understand how pride develops, as the trajectories may not always reflect a single linear change.

Furthermore, given the considerable number of participating parents who are immigrants, it would be beneficial to examine the length of their residency in the US and how it might shape their feelings of pride and

in turn, potentially impact their children's pride development. As levels of acculturation and enculturation can vary over time (Schwartz et al., 2010), understanding how these changes impact with ethnic-racial pride may offer deeper insights into the complexities of ethnic and cultural identity among Mexican-origin youth and their parents.

Conclusion

Understanding the nuances of ethnic-racial identity and its developmental impact is vital; while trajectories of ethnic-racial identity dimensions like exploration are becoming more and more numerous, there are no existing examinations of how ethnic-racial pride, one of the dimensions of ethnic-racial identity, most strongly associated with positive psychosocial functioning, changes and develops over large developmental windows. Furthermore, examinations of trajectories of ethnic-racial identity have exclusively focused on youth identity, thereby overlooking both parental trajectories of pride and potential interrelations between pride trajectories within the family system. This study of Mexican American adolescents from 10 to 23 years old filled a critical gap in the research literature on ethnic-racial pride development specifically, thus helping to advance the lifespan model of ethnic-racial identity development. This study also advanced the transactional model of development by including pride assessments of mothers, fathers, and youth and contextualizing pride development through the family context. Results demonstrated that all three respondents generally showed decreases in pride from 2006 to 2014 (Waves 1-7, ages ~10-16 for youth), followed by an increase from 2014 to 2019 (Waves 7-12, or ages ~16-23 for youth). More complex associations were found between youth's and fathers' trajectories of pride over time, but these trajectories were not associated with that of mothers. The current study supported previous findings in which early adolescents showed decreases in pride, but older adolescents showed increases pride, and contributed new findings on the interrelations between each youth and parental pride. Establishing the longitudinal trajectories of pride in both parents and youth, as well as their links with each other, highlights the importance of familial processes and socio-political contexts across different developmental periods, as well as the need to take a lifespan approach to understanding development and change in ethnic-racial identity over time.

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Table 1

Ethnic-racial Pride Descriptives and Reliability at Each Time Point

Year	Wave (Collection Dates)	Mean Age (SD)	# of Pride Assessments Collected	Mean Pride (SD)	Range	α
Youth (Total N = 671)						
1	Wave 1 (2006–2008)	10.86 (.50)	640	3.58 (.44)	2–4	0.75
3	Wave 3 (2008–2010)	12.81 (.49)	574	3.64 (.46)	1–4	0.86
5	Wave 5 (2010–2012)	14.75 (.49)	605	3.58 (.49)	1.5–4	0.88
7	Wave 7 (2012–2014)	16.80 (.51)	600	3.43 (.56)	1.33–4	0.89
9	Wave 9 (2014–2016)	18.75 (.51)	584	3.57 (.51)	1.67–4	0.85
10	Wave 10 (2015–2017)	19.86 (.52)	584	3.52 (.61)	1.17 –4	0.93
12	Wave 11 (2017–2019)	21.74 (.73)	536	3.66 (.55)	1–4	0.91
14	Wave 12 (2019–2021)	23.18 (.58)	543	3.67 (.50)	1.5–4	0.88
Mothers (Total N = 670)						
1	Wave 1 (2006–2008)	39.89 (6.05)	640	3.65 (.42)	1.83–4	0.84
3	Wave 3 (2008–2010)	41.68 (6.14)	572	3.67 (.44)	2–4	0.87
5	Wave 5 (2010–2012)	43.35 (6.41)	597	3.56 (.51)	1.33–4	0.92
7	Wave 7 (2012–2014)	45.48 (6.57)	586	3.5 (.54)	1.83–4	0.88
12	Wave 11 (2017–2019)	50.40 (6.50)	556	3.69 (.48)	1–4	0.9
14	Wave 12 (2019–2021)	52.01 (6.64)	539	3.59 (.49)	1.67–4	0.93
Fathers (Total N = 520)						
1	Wave 1 (2006–2008)	37.30 (5.91)	405	3.58 (.43)	1.5–4	0.87
3	Wave 3 (2008–2010)	39.49 (6.06)	382	3.65 (.45)	1–4	0.87
5	Wave 5 (2010–2012)	41.27 (6.27)	396	3.53 (.51)	1.67–4	0.91
7	Wave 7 (2012–2014)	43.34 (6.21)	371	3.48 (.53)	1–4	0.92
12	Wave 11 (2017–2019)	48.16 (6.19)	319	3.73 (.43)	2–4	0.93
14	Wave 12 (2019–2021)	49.77 (6.12)	292	3.59 (.52)	1–4	0.91

Note. The number of collected ethnic-racial pride assessments may not correspond to the total sample size for each respondent since participants were able to continue in the study regardless of the completion status of the previous wave (e.g., a participants may have reported their ethnic-racial pride only at Wave 3 and not at Wave 1).

Figure 1

Raw Pride Means for Youth, Mothers, and Fathers at Each Wave
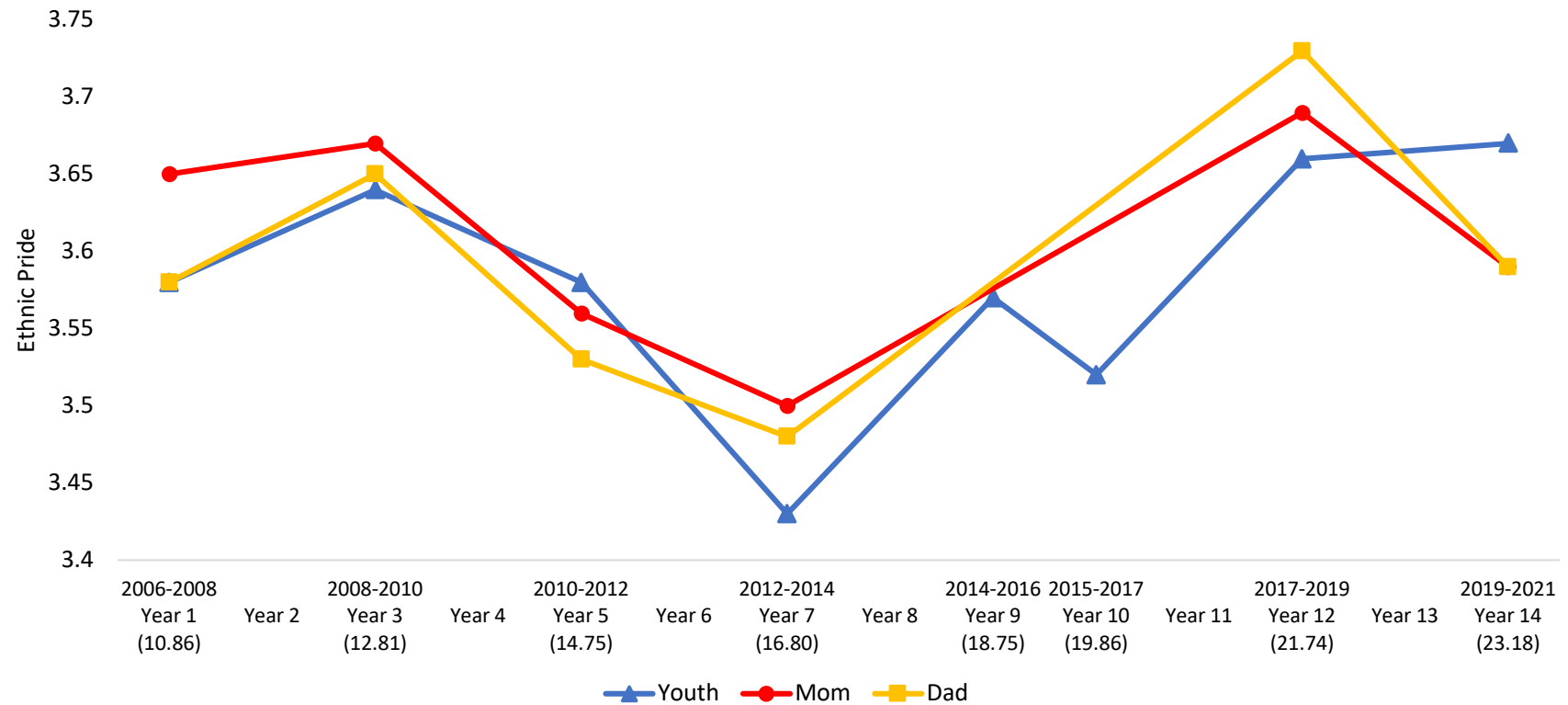
Note. No pride data are available for Years 2, 4, 6, 8, 11, and 13 for youth and Years 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13 for parents. The data collection period for each "study year" is displayed above the Year #. Youth's mean age is displayed in parentheses below the Year #. Year 1 = Wave 1; Year 3 = Wave 3; Year 5 = Wave 5; Year 7 = Wave 7; Year 9 = Wave 9; Year 10 = Wave 10; Year 12 = Wave 11; Year 14 = Wave 12.

Table 2

Means and Correlations among Main Study Variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.
1. c1p	1																										
2. c3p	**.27**	1																									
3. c5p	**.27**	**.49**	1																								
4. c7p	.16	**.36**	**.55**	1																							
5. c9p	**.17**	**.23**	**.37**	**.61**	1																						
6. c10p	**.18**	**.25**	**.32**	**.52**	**.59**	1																					
7. c11p	**.11**	**.23**	**.28**	**.47**	**.49**	**.48**	1																				
8. c12p	**.13**	**.24**	**.26**	**.39**	**.47**	**.46**	**.59**	1																			
9. m1p	**.09**	.04	.04	**.11**	**.09**	**.11**	.06	**.09**	1																		
10. m3p	.04	.04	.03	.07	.08	.02	-.03	.03	**.48**	1																	
11. m5p	**.08**	.04	**.11**	**.10**	**.09**	**.10**	.03	.08	**.44**	**.46**	1																
12. m7p	.06	.02	.08	.07	.07	.06	.03	.04	**.45**	**.48**	**.59**	1															
13. m11p	**.11**	**.13**	**.13**	.05	**.12**	.03	.05	.06	**.26**	**.31**	**.31**	**.36**	1														
14. m12p	**.12**	.05	**.09**	**.10**	**.11**	**.09**	.07	**.12**	**.38**	**.40**	**.41**	**.46**	**.37**	1													
15. d1p	**.10**	.03	.05	.06	.07	.07	**.12**	**.14**	**.17**	**.12**	.10	**.12**	**.16**	**.12**	1												
16. d3p	**.16**	.04	.02	.05	.04	-.01	.02	.06	**.18**	**.25**	**.14**	**.13**	**.15**	**.14**	**.49**	1											
17. d5p	.03	.02	.05	.08	.09	.06	.06	.01	**.16**	**.18**	**.18**	**.14**	.08	**.14**	**.30**	**.53**	1										
18. d7p	-.01	.09	**.11**	**.15**	.09	.10	.07	.06	**.19**	**.24**	**.18**	**.17**	.04	**.15**	**.40**	**.51**	**.55**	1									
19. d11p	-.01	-.03	-.07	.04	.09	.09	.08	.06	**.12**	**.16**	.11	**.12**	**.21**	.06	**.25**	**.30**	**.23**	**.32**	1								
20. d12p	.02	**.14**	.02	**.13**	.10	**.15**	.10	.02	**.12**	**.18**	**.14**	**.18**	.04	**.15**	**.34**	**.4**	**.34**	**.38**	**.30**	1							
21. gender	-.04	**-.19**	**-.12**	**-.18**	**-.21**	**-.22**	**-.21**	**-.16**	.04	.01	-.02	.00	.02	.01	-.04	.10	.04	-.02	-.06	**-.15**	1						
22. c US-born	**-.14**	-.02	**-.11**	**-.12**	-.06	-.04	-.04	-.04	.06	.05	.03	.01	-.07	-.02	.06	.10	-.09	.00	**-.12**	.02	-.07	1					
23. income	-.08	.06	.03	-.07	-.07	.00	-.05	.00	**.14**	**.12**	**.11**	**.13**	**.11**	**.15**	.10	.05	.05	.07	-.02	.09	.03	**.25**	1				
24. m age	.03	-.03	.00	-.03	-.05	.00	-.03	.03	-.01	.00	.01	.05	.00	-.05	.09	.05	.09	.03	-.03	.00	-.05	**.16**	.04	1			
25. m US-born	**.12**	**.10**	**.17**	**.13**	**.11**	.08	**.15**	**.15**	**-.11**	-.04	-.03	-.06	**.13**	-.07	-.05	.04	-.01	-.05	**.14**	-.01	.02	**-.25**	**-.21**	-.02	1		
26. d age	-.03	-.06	.06	.02	.06	.07	.08	.07	-.02	-.04	.03	.05	-.01	.03	.09	.05	.06	.03	-.04	-.02	-.01	**.16**	.05	**.71**	-.02	1	
27. d US-born	.08	.08	.06	.05	.05	.04	**.11**	**.14**	-.07	-.05	-.07	-.05	.08	.01	-.07	-.02	-.07	-.07	.08	.05	-.01	**-.20**	**-.37**	-.08	**.63**	-.08	1

Note. m = Mom; d = Dad; c = child; p = Ethnic Pride; gender = child gender; income = household income. The number signifies the wave of data (e.g., c7p = Child Ethnic Pride at Wave 7). **Significant values are bolded**.

Table 3

Competing Latent Growth Curve Models – Youth Ethnic Pride (N = 671)

Model	Chi-square (df)	p	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	BIC	Model Comparison	Δchi (p) /BIC Comparison	Decision
1. No Growth	402.275 (32)	<.001	.131	.744	.228	5977.962	-	-	-
2. Linear Growth	398.637 (31)	<.001	.133	.746	.223	5980.833	1 v 2 (Nested)	3.638 (.057)	No growth > linear growth
3. Latent Basis	297.460 (25)	<.001	.127	.812	.097	5918.708	1 v 3 (Nested)	104.82 (<.001)	Latent basis > no growth
							2 v 3 (Nested)	101.18 (<.001)	Latent basis > linear growth
4. Quadratic	237.097 (28)	<.001	.105	.855	.110	5838.819	3 v 4 (Not nested)	Quad BIC Lower	Quadratic > Latent basis
5. Piecewise	**154.315 (27)**	**<.001**	**.084**	**.912**	**.088**	**5762.545**	**4 v 5 (Not nested)**	**Piecewise BIC Lower**	**Piecewise > Quadratic**

Note. Residuals were freely estimated at all waves. Final model is **bolded**. Comparison between the quadratic model and the piecewise model was done with the BIC since the models are not nested.

Table 4

Competing Latent Growth Models – Mother Ethnic Pride (N = 670)

Model	Chi-square (df)	p	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	BIC	Model Comparison	Δchi (p) /BIC Comparison	Decision
1. No Growth	193.227 (17)	<.001	.124	.806	.230	4045.309	-	-	-
2. Linear Growth	188.836 (16)	<.001	.127	.810	.235	4047.425	1 v 2 (Nested)	4.391 (.036)	Linear > no growth
3. Latent Basis	**26.357 (12)**	**.001**	**.042**	**.984**	**.050**	**3910.976**	**2 v 3 (Nested)**	**162.479 (<.001)**	**Latent basis > linear growth**
4. Quadratic	159.689 (13)	<.001	.130	.838	.235	4037.801	3 v 4 (Not nested)	Latent Basis BIC Lower	Latent basis > Quadratic
5. Piecewise	81.725 (12)	<.001	.093	.923	.197	3966.343	3 v 5 (Not nested)	Latent Basis BIC Lower	Latent basis > Piecewise

Note. Residuals were freely estimated at all waves. Final model is **bolded**.

Table 5

Competing Latent Growth Models – Father Ethnic Pride (N = 520)

Model	Chi-square (df)	p	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	BIC	Model Comparison	Δchi (p) /BIC comparison	Decision
1. no growth	156.967 (18)	<.001	.122	.703	.330	2642.036	-	-	-
2. Linear growth	152.172 (16)	<.001	.128	.709	.292	2649.749	1 v 2 (nested)	4.795 (.029)	Linear > no growth
3. Latent Basis									
4. Quadratic	119.800 (12)	<.001	.131	.770	0.283	2642.392	3 v 4 (not nested)	Quadratic BIC lower	Quadratic > Linear
5. Piecewise	**91.970 (12)**	**<.001**	**.113**	**.829**	**.221**	**2614.563**	**2 v 5 (nested)**	**60.202 (<.001)**	**Piecewise > Linear**
							4 v 5 (not nested)	**Piecewise BIC lower**	**Piecewise > Quadratic**

Note. Residuals were freely estimated at all waves. Final model is **bolded**. The latent basis model is absent as the model would not converge.

Figure 2

Multivariate Estimated Means
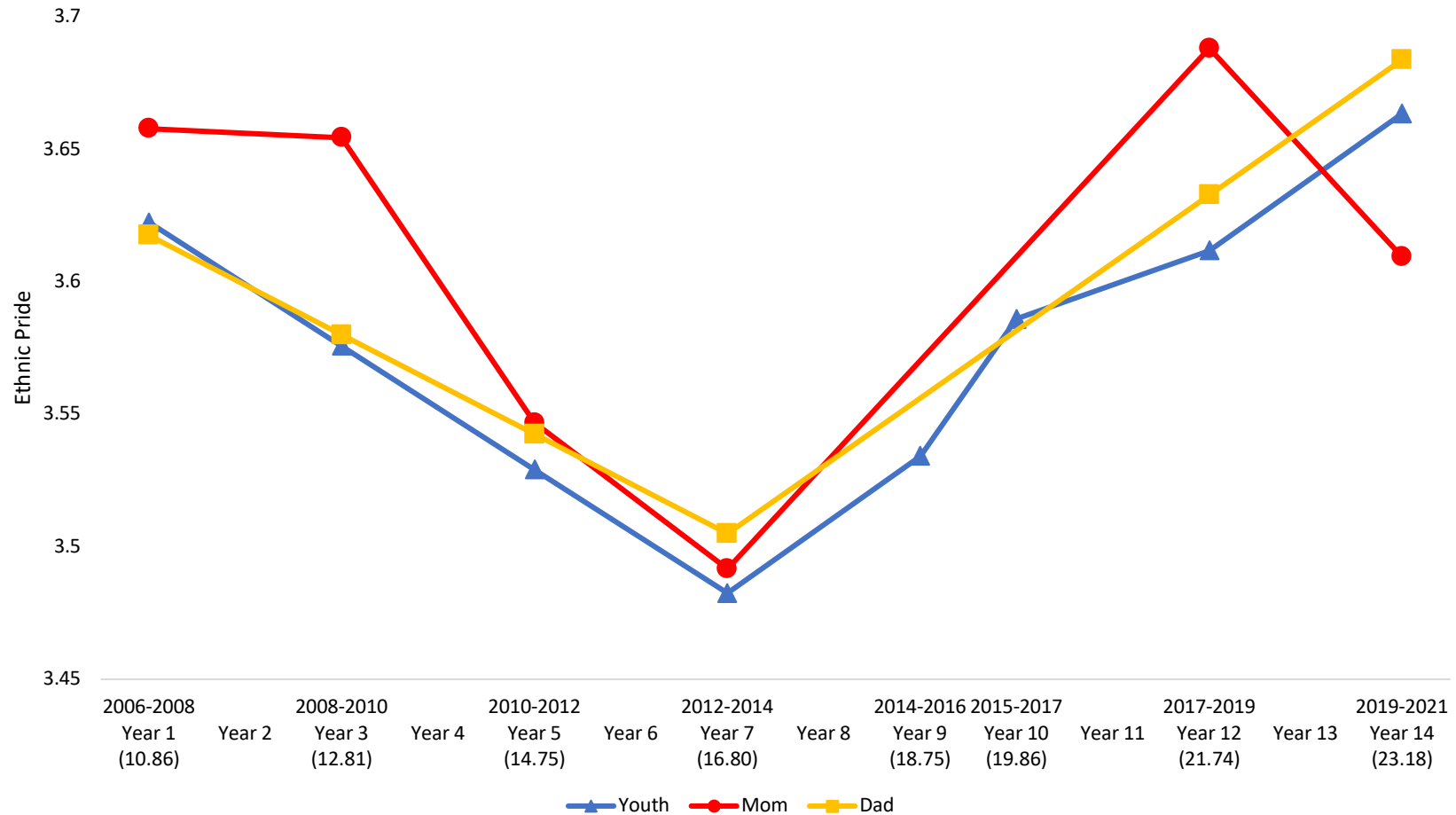
Note. Youth's pride = piecewise model; mothers' pride = latent basis model, fathers' pride = piecewise model. No pride data are available for Years 2, 4, 6, 8, 11, and 13 for youth and Years 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13 for parents. The data collection period for each "study year" is displayed above the Year #. Youth's mean age is displayed in parentheses below the Year #. Year 1 = Wave 1; Year 3 = Wave 3; Year 5 = Wave 5; Year 7 = Wave 7; Year 9 = Wave 9; Year 10 = Wave 10; Year 12 = Wave 11; Year 14 = Wave 12.

Table 6

Unstandardized Estimates and Correlations of the Multivariate Model

	B (p-value)	Variances (p-value)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. M int.	3.66 (**<.001**)	.07 (**<.001**)	1						
2. M slope	-.05 (**.004**)	.00 (.129)	.57 (**<.001**)	1					
3. D int.	3.62 (**<.001**)	.08 (**<.001**)	.39 (**<.001**)	-.05 (.687)	1				
4. D slope 1	-.02 (**<.001**)	.00 (**.010**)	.13 (.282)	.05 (.781)	.09 (.674)	1			
5. D slope 2	.03 (**<.001**)	.00 (**.006**)	-.18 (.163)	-.01 (.961)	-.43 (**.032**)	-.88 (**<.001**)	1		
6. C int.	3.62 (**<.001**)	.07 (**<.001**)	.20 (**.005**)	-.03 (.801)	.20 (**.046**)	-.21 (.178)	-.05 (.748)	1	
7. C slope 1	-.02 (**<.001**)	.01 (**<.001**)	.06 (.359)	.10 (.379)	-.05 (.603)	.30 (**.037**)	-.08 (.595)	-.29 (**.001**)	1
8. C slope 2	.03 (**<.001**)	.00 (**<.001**)	-.06 (.370)	-.04 (.720)	.05 (.584)	-.30 (**.041**)	.17 (.249)	-.09 (.315)	-.46 (**<.001**)

Note. Significant values are bolded. Int. = intercept; C = child (N = 671); M = Mom (N = 670); D = Dad (N = 520); slope 1 = Wave 1 to 7; slope 2 = Wave 7 to 12.

Online Supplementary Materials

Table S1

Scaling of Time by Model

		Wave							
Model		1	3	5	7	9	10	11	12
Children									
	Linear Growth	0	2	4	6	8	9	11	13
	Latent Basis	0	*	*	*	*	*	*	1
	Quadratic	0	2	4	6	8	9	11	13
		0	4	16	36	64	81	121	169
	Piecewise (knot at Wave 7)	0	2	4	6	6	6	6	6
		0	0	0	0	2	4	5	7
Mothers & Fathers									
	Linear Growth	0	2	4	6	-	-	11	13
	Latent Basis	0	*	*	*	-	-	*	1
	Quadratic	0	2	4	6	-	-	11	13
		0	4	16	36			121	169
	Piecewise (knot at Wave 7)	0	2	4	6	-	-	6	6
		0	0	0	0			5	7

Note. = freely estimated; - = data not available at that wave. The no growth model is not included, as the scaling of time is identical to linear

growth models with the mean of the slope factor constrained to 0.

Table S2

Sensitivity Analysis with Covariates: Unstandardized estimates of the multivariate model

	B (p)	Variances (p)	Covariate regressions (p)				Correlations (p)						
			Income	M Nativity	C Sex	C Nativity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. M intercept	3.64 (**<.001**)	.08 (**<.001**)	.01 (**.001**)	-.03 (.430)	-	-	1						
2. M slope	-.02 (**<.001**)	.00 (.377)	.00 (.707)	-.02 (.197)	-	-	.72 (**.001**)	1					
3. D intercept	.02 (**<.001**)	.09 (**<.001**)					.40 (**<.001**)	-.19 (.268)	1				
4. D slope 1	3.60 (**<.001**)	.00 (.145)					.12 (.503)	.19 (.556)	.11 (.730)	1			
5. D slope 2	-.02 (.288)	.00 (**.021**)					-.18 (.221)	.05 (.860)	-.48 (.057)	-.73 (**<.001**)	1		
6. C intercept	3.71 (**<.001**)	.08 (**<.001**)	.00 (.979)	-	-.06 (.130)	-.10 (**.018**)	.22 (**.004**)	.17 (.266)	.22 (**.046**)	-.42 (.080)	.08 (.641)	1	
7. C slope 1	.00 (.819)	.01 (**<.001**)	.00 (.949)	-	-.03 (**.003**)	-.01 (.427)	.08 (.266)	.04 (.794)	.00 (.999)	.25 (.209)	.08 (.633)	-.37 (**<.001**)	1
8. C slope 2	.01 (.144)	.00 (**<.001**)	.00 (.778)	-	.00 (.554)	.01 (.097)	-.08 (.295)	.10 (.485)	-.04 (.742)	-.13 (.535)	.07 (.719)	.04 (.710)	-.50 (**<.001**)

Note. Significant values are bolded. Int. = intercept; Nat. = nativity; C = child; M = Mom; D = Dad; slope 1 = Wave 1 to 7; slope 2 = Wave 7 to 12; - = data not available/not applicable.