

Perceived Parental Consumption of Political Misinformation and the Political Socialization of Black Youth: A Cross-Cultural Study

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Introduction

Misinformation, precisely political misinformation, affects the viability of the United States democracy as it depends on having well-educated citizens (Halpern et al., 2019). For this research, political misinformation will be defined as information relating to politics, elections, the law, and federal/local government affairs that is inaccurate, exaggerated, propaganda, or fake. This study attempted to highlight how perceived parental consumption of political misinformation (PPPMC) affects the political socialization of Black youth, specifically African, African American, Afro-Latino and Afro-Caribbean youth. To assess this objective, a survey was administered using a variety of demographic questions along with Likert scale agreement questions. The responses were examined through JASP, a statistical analysis program.

Literature Review

With the wealth of knowledge on COVID-19 related misinformation and its effects, interest has been generated in studying political misinformation and how it influences political attitudes, party identification and political engagement. Furthermore, previous studies have established relationships between parenting and political socialization, the process by which one develops their political identities, habits, and morals (Neundorf & Smets, 2015). However, researchers have paid little theoretical attention to understanding the relationship between PPPMC and offspring political socialization and ethnicity and immigration's effect on the relationship.

The Dissemination of Digital Misinformation

Several researchers have noted the connection between the use of social media and the spread of inaccurate news pertaining to COVID-19. In fact, Jay Bapaye and Harsh Bapaye (2021) of the Department of Internal Medicine found that the participants in their study who sought COVID-19 related information on WhatsApp were more likely to share fictitious data. This finding was then affirmed by the research of Baptista et al. (2021) which noted how WhatsApp's intimate nature affects the dynamics of the spread of political misinformation.

The literature reveals a diversity of opinions regarding how misinformation should be combatted. J. Bapaye and H. Bapaye (2021) and Chong et al. (2022) agree that health officials regulating content is the best way address this problem. However, Jin et al. (2020) agrees with Bowles, Larreguy and Liu (2020) as they believe misinformation should be eliminated by either the app system or users. Researchers Bowles, Larreguy, and Liu (2020) have expressed limitations to regulation as their findings showed that regulating, fact-checking, and building the credibility of sources may be upstaged by the speed of the transmission of misinformation. The resourcefulness of fact-checking was further explored by researchers Walker and Salovich (2021) who acknowledged the complexity of the misinformation as they noted that one's ability to differentiate between fact and opinion affects the efficiency of fact-checking. Poretski et al. (2021) built upon this notion as their research discussed factors that influence what information one believes. The research showed that cultural background, beliefs, and values affect what information immigrants deem credible. Similarly, a host of researchers agree that personal beliefs influence the information people share and what they believe (Michael & Breaux, 2021; Varanasi, Pal, & Vashistha, 2022). In fact, personal feelings regarding COVID-19 has been known to lead people to send false information to scare loved ones who were not taking the pandemic seriously (Varanasi, Pal, and Vashistha,2022).

When questionable or inaccurate information is shared in immigrant family group chats, family members usually do not correct or challenge the sender to avoid arguments (Poretski et al., 2021). A finding of Varanasi, Pal, and Vashistha (2022) affirmed this notion as their research indicated that misinformation led to disputes in WhatsApp group chats and spite towards others in the chat. Moreover, immigrants depending upon these group chats for information has been connected to linguistic barriers (Poretski et al., 2021; Chong et al., 2022).

Political Socialization & Misinformation

Political socialization, how political viewpoints and habits are developed, and many relevant factors have been evaluated by previous research (Anderson, 2020). Michael and Breaux's (2021) research showed that people might easily believe misinformation from a source that aligns with their political beliefs (Michael & Breaux, 2021). A study by Weeks (2015) supports this reasoning while adding the emotional component. It explains that anger stimulates politically biased evaluations of misinformation, while anxiety occasionally encourages inceptive beliefs constructed based on the information environment rather than partisanship. Faragó, Kreko, & Kende (2019) disagree with Weeks as they deem support or opposition of government as the critical factor in believing in fanciful political fake news. The work of researcher Anderson (2020) about U.S. high school students disagrees with Faragó, Kreko, & Kende (2019) as he shared how students prioritize seeing news that presents multiple views instead of sources that align with their views. The value students have placed on seeing multiple perspectives may stem from their skepticism of news on social media (Anderson, 2020).

On social media, students were unwilling to share their ideas and beliefs regarding politics to avoid receiving backlash from people with opposing views (Anderson, 2020). This conclusion is similar to the research of Poretzki and his colleagues (2021) which suggested that members of family group chats did not correct other messengers who sent misinformation to avoid negative feedback or arguments. This theme of suppressing one's thoughts to avoid the perspective of others is common among the school of thought. Research investigating political participation and misinformation has revealed that social media promotes political engagement. However, politically active people can unintentionally exacerbate the spread of misinformation about government affairs and science when defending their views (Halpern et al., 2019).

Parents & Politics

A growing body of evidence shows the imperative role parents play in the political socialization of their offspring. The research of Carnes, Janoff-Bulman, and Sheikh (2014) examined a variety of parenting styles and found restrictive parenting to encourage conservatism. This research pertains to the study by Michael and Breaux (2021), as there is an evident connection between the political affiliations that influence how one views news sources and parenting. Murray and Mulvaney's (2012) findings support the said connection, as research showed that political values expressed via authoritative parenting are

likely to be adopted by children. Parents' race and education level have also been shown to affect voter registration. In a study, voter registration was high among children of white parents who were highly educated. However, there was no association between parental education level and the voting behaviors of Latino and Asian children (Humphries, Muller, & Schiller, 2013).

Call to Research

Despite ample research on political socialization, many variables influence it, which compels further interrogation. Previous studies have established a relationship between parenting and political socialization and a relationship between misinformation and political socialization. However, no study has connected these two relationships or understood how immigration and ethnicity may play a role. Since citizens must be well informed to make wise government-related decisions, it is vital to understand how the political behaviors of children of immigrants are affected by their parents' consuming misinformation. Furthermore, immigrant parents and the effect of political misinformation on the political socialization of their offspring must be understood so that the intellectual growth of this population will not be stunted. The ambiguity ensuing from the knowledge gap has prompted the objective of this research, which is to determine a relationship between PPPMC and political socialization and see how this relationship differs for Black 16-26-year-olds across various ethnic subgroups (African, African American, Afro-Caribbean, and Afro-Latino).

Methods & Method Alignment

To evaluate the objectives of this study, I used Microsoft Forms to formulate a survey. I chose this method because a survey was utilized in a similar study to investigate a relationship between social media use and political participation, which are variables similar to the ones I examined (Zhong, Li, & Xi, 2022). This study proved surveys useful for my study as I wanted to determine relationships between various variables. To avoid vague answers, I chose not to conduct an interview like researchers Costa, Esteve-Del-Valle and Hagedoorn (2022). Since I am evaluating political socialization and the perception of parental misinformation consumption, I chose to quantitatively assess my participants through a series of Likert scales due to previous studies showing Likert scales to be useful for gauging attitudes and beliefs (Jin et al., 2021). Furthermore, Likert scales allow participants to indicate their level of agreement to statements without the obscurity of an open-ended question. All Likert scales

lacked a "neutral" option as I needed participants to have an opinion to make my data viable.

Before distributing the survey, questions were peer-reviewed and vetted for user-friendliness. I conducted the survey online to gather many responses to represent the target population accurately. I directly messaged people I was familiar with on social media platforms to ask them to partake in my research or share the survey with those they knew who fit the requirements for participation. I reached out through these platforms to ensure the data I gathered was authentic. I also emailed local organizations that have access to Black youth in NYC or Long Island, asking them to share my survey. I contacted these establishments to gather as many responses as possible. I left the survey open to responses for six weeks to solicit as much data as possible.

Before beginning the survey, participants were informed about the project's purpose, benefits, risks, and requirements. Furthermore, participants were guaranteed that their responses would remain anonymous and private as I advised them to refrain from disclosing identifying information such as their names, address, and phone number. As responses came in, I eliminated those that were unusable due to failure to give consent or meet requirements.

To categorize and obtain the consent of participants, they were asked if they were a minor or an adult. This question split participants into the categories: minors and adults. The adults were then brought to an informed consent form while minors were directed to a parental consent form. If consent was not given, the survey would terminate. The adults were then asked if they are registered to vote, while minors were asked if they intended to do so. These questions were asked to assess potential/political engagement. All of the remaining questions were asked to both age groups. The demographic questions were asked to ensure that the participants were a part of my target population. I asked participants for their age to confirm that they were between the ages of 16 and 26. I chose to focus on this age group as they are a part of Generation Z, a generation known to be politically vocal. Additionally, with the discussions of lowering the voting age, I found it vital to assess 16-17-year-olds.

I then asked respondents if they racially identified as Black to ensure they were in my target population. I decided to study Black individuals because they must be represented in research on politics as they are often overlooked. Next, I asked if the participants were U.S. citizens since non-citizens cannot vote.

One of the objectives of this research was to compare political socialization among Africans, African-Americans, Afro-Latinos, and Afro-Caribbeans. So, I asked participants for their ethnicity. I also

defined each ethnicity for the sake of clarity. I focused on these four ethnic subgroups because research suggested that cultural background influences the perception of misinformation and reliance on social media. I then asked participants to indicate which part of New York they lived in to ensure they were a part of my target location. I chose to focus on Black youth in New York City and Long Island because previous studies in this discipline have overlooked these areas. Furthermore, I asked for the gender of the participants as other studies have yet to determine a relationship between gender and the variables I evaluated. If participants responded in a fashion that indicated that they did not fit the requirements for participation, the survey ended for them.

Next, participants answered questions about their parents. Although I focused on Africans, African Americans, Afro-Caribbeans, and Afro-Latinos, I included the option "other" for parental ethnicity to include parents who may not be Black despite their child identifying as Black. I also asked for their parent's immigration status because of the aforementioned study that indicated how immigrants rely on social media for communication and news.

Closeness to parent was assessed on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "Little to no relationship" to "Exceptionally close" to see how the parent-child relationship affects the political socialization of participants. Parents' most frequently used social media platform was inquired about since research holds WhatsApp responsible for exacerbating the spread of misinformation (Baptista et al., 2021). Participants were asked to indicate the highest level of education completed by their parents because research shows that voter registration was affected by the education level of white parents while not affecting Asian and Latino children (Humphries, Muller, Schiller, 2013). So, I wanted to see if this notion held for Black youth.

To assess political interest, participants were asked to respond to questions on Likert scales. The questions and number of points on the Likert scale were based on the 2006 American National Election Studies (ANES) pilot study questionnaire. Interest in information about what is occurring in the U.S. government and politics was answered on a 5-point Likert scale with anchors at "Not interested at all" and "Extremely interested." Interest in political campaigns over the past 12 months in the U.S. and New York were answered on a 3-point Likert scale ranging from "Not much interested" to "Very much interested." Finally, the frequency of participants keeping up with events in the U.S. and New York government, politics, and public affairs was answered on a 4-point Likert Scale ranging from "Rarely" to "Very Often."

Subsequently, participants' perceived political self-efficacy was evaluated on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." This Likert scale consisted of modified questions from the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) civic education study. Next, participants compared their perceived knowledge of politics to that of their parents, with questions such as "I think I have a better understanding of the U.S. government, politics, and social issues than my parents." Questions such as these were asked before inquiring about PPPMC so that their responses to perceived political self-efficacy questions would not be affected by considering their parent's online behavior.

Finally, PPPMC was assessed on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." Above the Likert scale, I defined political misinformation for clarity. Participants were asked about the information their parents send them, how susceptible they think they are to consuming political misinformation, and if they think their parents consume it. Although I used questions from pre-existing scales found in the public domain, I tailored these questions to evaluate factors specific to New Yorkers. I created new questions to accumulate data related to PPPMC, a previously unexplored variable. I used questions from pre-existing scales because they have been evaluated extensively and validated, showing that they effectively glean viable data.

Once the survey was closed, I used an Excel spreadsheet to organize the data. I then gave all responses to Likert scale numerical values. Next, I added the values for the three non-demographic sections to create a political interest score, perceived political self-efficacy score, and PPPMC score. After organizing the data, I ran statistical analysis tests with JASP, a statistical analysis program. I used Chi-Square Tests of Independence and compared the expected count to the actual count to detect a relationship between the variables examined. I also used Independent Samples T-Tests, a Pearson's correlation, and a one-way ANOVA to make the data meaningful. Finally, I compared the mean values between groups and used a p-value of 0.05 or less as a marker for statistical significance.

Results & Findings

I collected 115 responses from my survey. Of those responses, fifteen were discarded due to failure to consent or lack of participation qualification. In the end, one hundred responses were analyzed. To determine the relationships between the variables I recorded, I used a variety of statistical analysis tests on JASP.

Chi-Squared Tests			
	Value	df	p
X ²	2.824	6	0.831
N	49		

Figure 1a. A Chi-Square Tests of Independence was performed to assess the relationship between voter registration of young-adult participants and their mother/maternal guardian's highest completed level of education. The test indicates that there is no significant relationship between the two variables, $X^2 (6,49) = 2.824, p = .831$.

Chi-Squared Tests			
	Value	df	p
X ²	5.842	6	0.441
N	49		

Figure 1b. A Chi-Square Tests of Independence was performed to assess the relationship between voter registration of young-adult participants and their father/paternal guardian's highest completed level of education. The test indicates that there is no significant relationship between the two variables, $X^2 (6,49) = 5.842, p = .441$.

I first ran two Chi-Square Tests of Independence to determine a relationship between voter registration of young-adult participants and parental education level for mother/maternal guardian and father/paternal guardian separately. Figures 1a and 1b show that there is no significant relationship between the two factors due to the p-values of .831 and .441, respectively. Despite insignificance, this novel finding was expected as previous research suggested that the voter registration of Asian and Latino children is not affected by parental education level (Humphries, Muller, & Schiller, 2013). Therefore, it can now be said that parental education level does not affect the voter registration of minority children.

Furthermore, as depicted in Figure 2b, there was also no significant difference in the degree to which participants believed their parents were at risk of consuming political misinformation for minors that plan on registering to vote ($M= 2.500$, $SD= 0.707$) and those who do not ($M= 2.500$, $SD= 0.875$); $t(48) = 0.000$, $p = 1.000$. The findings depicted in Figures 2a and 2b were unexpected because prior studies have shown parents to influence their children's political behaviors and beliefs. Based on this, I hypothesized that young adults and minors would be less likely to register to vote if they believe their parents consume political misinformation. However, the Independent Samples T-Tests disprove my hypothesis.

Contingency Tables

maternal social media usage		Is your maternal guardian an immigrant?		
		no	yes	Total
Facebook	Count	12.000	18.000	30.000
	Expected count	7.347	22.653	30.000
	% within column	50.000 %	24.324 %	30.612 %
Instagram	Count	8.000	4.000	12.000
	Expected count	2.939	9.061	12.000
	% within column	33.333 %	5.405 %	12.245 %
None	Count	1.000	2.000	3.000
	Expected count	0.735	2.265	3.000
	% within column	4.167 %	2.703 %	3.061 %
WhatsApp	Count	3.000	50.000	53.000
	Expected count	12.980	40.020	53.000
	% within column	12.500 %	67.568 %	54.082 %
Total	Count	24.000	74.000	98.000
	Expected count	24.000	74.000	98.000
	% within column	100.000 %	100.000 %	100.000 %

Chi-Squared Tests

Value	df	p
X^2 25.735	3	< .001
N	98	

Figure 3a. A Chi-Square Tests of Independence was performed to assess the relationship between maternal immigration status and their preferred social media platform to use. There was a significant relationship between the two variables, $X^2(3,98) = 25.735$, $p < .001$.

Contingency Tables		Is my paternal guardian an immigrant?		
		no	yes	Total
Facebook	Count	7.000	22.000	29.000
	Expected count	5.510	23.490	29.000
	% within column	36.842 %	27.160 %	29.000 %
Instagram	Count	5.000	4.000	9.000
	Expected count	1.710	7.290	9.000
	% within column	26.316 %	4.938 %	9.000 %
None	Count	3.000	9.000	12.000
	Expected count	2.280	9.720	12.000
	% within column	15.789 %	11.111 %	12.000 %
Twitter	Count	1.000	0.000	1.000
	Expected count	0.190	0.810	1.000
	% within column	5.263 %	0.000 %	1.000 %
WhatsApp	Count	3.000	46.000	49.000
	Expected count	9.310	39.690	49.000
	% within column	15.789 %	56.790 %	49.000 %
Total	Count	19.000	81.000	100.000
	Expected count	19.000	81.000	100.000
	% within column	100.000 %	100.000 %	100.000 %

Chi-Squared Tests		
Value	df	p
X ² 18.136	4	0.001
N	100	

Figure 3b. A Chi-Square Test of Independence was performed to assess the relationship between paternal immigration status and their preferred social media platform to use. There was a significant relationship between the two variables, $X^2(4,100) = 18.136, p=.001$.

To address the next research objective, which was to determine a relationship between parental immigration status and preferred social media platforms, two Chi-Square Tests of Independence were performed. Responses that indicated that one's parent is neither an immigrant nor U.S born were excluded from the tests. For both mothers/maternal guardians and fathers/paternal guardians, there was a significant relationship between the two variables, $X^2(3,98) = 25.735, p < .001$. and $X^2(4,100) = 18.136, p = .001$, respectively.

As shown in Figure 3a, immigrant mothers are more likely to use WhatsApp than U.S born mothers. In addition, Figure 3b shows that immigrant fathers are more likely to use WhatsApp than non-immigrant fathers. These findings were expected due to previous studies that detailed how social media platforms or messaging networks such as WhatsApp are popular among immigrants for seeking information (Poretzki et al., 2021).

Independent Samples T-Test

	t	df	p
.I believe that my parent(s) has a pretty good understanding of the important political issues facing our country	1.998	96	0.049
parent consumes pol misinformation	-0.932	96	0.354

Note. Student's t-test.

Descriptives**Group Descriptives**

	Group	N	Mean	SD	SE
.I believe that my parent(s) has a pretty good understanding of the important political issues facing our country	no	24	3.250	0.676	0.138
	yes	74	2.946	0.639	0.074
parent consumes pol misinformation	no	24	2.208	0.932	0.190
	yes	74	2.405	0.890	0.103

Figure 4a. An Independent Samples T-Test was conducted to compare the degree to which Black youth believe that their parents have a pretty good understanding of the imperative political issues facing the U.S and the degree to which Black youth believe that their parents consume political misinformation in children whose maternal guardian/mother is an immigrant and the children of U.S born mothers/maternal guardians.

To establish a relationship between parental immigration status and PPPMC, two Independent Samples T-Test were conducted. As shown in Figure 4a, there was a significant difference in the degree to which Black youth believe that their parents have a good understanding of the pressing political issues facing the U.S for children whose maternal guardian/mother is an immigrant ($M=2.946$, $SD=.639$) and children whose maternal guardian/mother is U.S born ($M=3.250$, $SD=.676$); $t(96) = 1.998$, $p=.049$. Furthermore, there was no significant difference in the degree to which Black youth believed that their parent consumes political misinformation for children whose maternal guardian/mother is an immigrant ($M=2.405$, $SD=.890$) and children whose maternal guardian/mother is U.S born ($M=2.208$, $SD=.932$); $t(96) = -.932$, $p=.354$.

Independent Samples T-Test

	t	df	p
.I believe that my parent(s) has a pretty good understanding of the important political issues facing our country	2.295	98	0.024
parent consumes pol misinformation	2.148	98	0.034

Note. Student's t-test.

Descriptives

Group Descriptives

	Group	N	Mean	SD	SE
.I believe that my parent(s) has a pretty good understanding of the important political issues facing our country	no	19	3.316	0.671	0.154
	yes	81	2.938	0.639	0.071
parent consumes pol misinformation	no	19	1.947	0.970	0.223
	yes	81	2.432	0.865	0.096

Figure 4b. An Independent Samples T-Test was conducted to compare the degree to which Black youth believe that their parents have a pretty good understanding of the imperative political issues facing the U.S and the degree to which Black youth believe that their parents consume political misinformation in children whose father/paternal guardian is an immigrant and the children of U.S born father/paternal guardians.

As shown in Figure 4b, there was a significant difference in the degree to which Black youth believe that their parent consumes political misinformation for children whose father/paternal guardian is an immigrant ($M=2.432$, $SD=.865$) and children whose paternal guardian/father was born in the U.S ($M= 1.947$, $SD=.970$); $t(98) = -2.148$, $p=.034$. Additionally, there was a significant difference in the degree to which Black youth believe that their parent understands the critical political issues facing the U.S for children whose father/paternal guardian is an immigrant ($M=2.938$, $SD=.639$) and children whose paternal guardian/father was born in the U.S ($M= 3.316$, $SD=.671$); $t(98) = 2.295$, $p=.024$. These results show that the immigration status of Black youth parents affects their child's PPPMC. Specifically, these results suggest that immigrant fathers/paternal guardians are perceived to consume more political misinformation than non-immigrant fathers, and non-immigrant fathers understand the critical political issues facing the U.S. better than immigrant fathers. Moreover, non-immigrant mothers/maternal guardians are perceived to better understand the political issues the U.S. is facing. Taken together with the results shown in Figures 3a

and 3b, immigrant parents, who are more likely to use WhatsApp, are also more likely to have a poor understanding of the issues facing America or, in the case of immigrant fathers, perceived to consume political misinformation. This finding was expected because previous works detailed that WhatsApp is a platform that houses misinformation and is depended upon by immigrants (Poretski et al., 2021). The novel result from this study suggests that immigrant parents of Black youth being perceived as poorly informed could stem from their presence on WhatsApp.

Pearson's Correlations				
Variable		PPPMC	Perceived political self-efficacy	Political Interest
1. PPPMC	n	—		
	Pearson's r	—		
	p-value	—		
2. Perceived political self-efficacy	n	72	—	
	Pearson's r	0.403 ***	—	
	p-value	< .001	—	
3. Political Interest	n	72	72	—
	Pearson's r	0.184	0.547 ***	—
	p-value	0.122	< .001	—

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Figure 5. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between PPPMC score and perceived political self-efficacy score. There was a correlation between the two variables, $r = .261$, $n=100$, $p = .009$. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between PPPMC score and political interest score. There was a correlation between the two variables, $r = .084$, $n=100$, $p = .405$.

Pearson's correlations were computed to determine a relationship between PPPMC and political socialization. Figure 5 shows a statistically significant positive correlation between the perceived political self-efficacy score and PPPMC score, $r = .261$, $n=100$, $p = .009$. This relationship shows that the more politically efficient participants consider themselves, the more they believe their parents consume political misinformation. Although a significant correlation was expected, a positive correlation was not. I hypothesized that perceived political self-efficacy would be negatively affected by PPPMC; however, it is shown that the more confidence Black youth have in their ability to participate successfully in politics makes them more aware of their parent(s) consuming political misinformation. Despite this relationship, there was no significant correlation between the political interest score and PPPMC score, $r = .084$, $n=100$, $p = .405$. The lack of association between the

two variables was unexpected as it was hypothesized that PPPMC would negatively affect the political interest of Black youth.

ANOVA - PPPMC

Cases	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
person ethnicity	9.349	3	3.116	0.477	0.699
Residuals	444.304	68	6.534		

Note. Type III Sum of Squares

Figure 6. A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of the participant's ethnicity on PPPMC in African, Afro Caribbean, Afro Latino, and African American participants. There was an insignificant effect of ethnicity on PPPMC in African, Afro Caribbean, Afro Latino and African American participants [$F(3,68) = .477, P = .699$].

After establishing a relationship between immigration status and PPPMC, the following research objective was to establish a link between ethnicity and PPPMC. When taking the survey, participants had the option to select multiple ethnicities, so to comprehend ethnicity's effect, only participants that identified with one ethnicity were analyzed through an ANOVA. Hence the sixty-eight analyzed responses. As indicated by Figure 6, despite immigration's effect on PPPMC, ethnicity's effect is insignificant [$F(3,68) = .477, P = .699$]. Previous studies on cultural differences affecting the perception of misinformation prompted me to hypothesize that there would be differences in PPPMC, so this novel result was unexpected; however, the small sample size may have aided in yielding the statistically insignificant result.

Independent Samples T-Test

	t	df	p
I trust the government	-3.192	98	0.002

Note. Student's t-test.

Descriptives

Group Descriptives

	Group	N	Mean	SD	SE
I trust the government	Female	65	1.723	0.625	0.078
	Male	35	2.171	0.747	0.126

Figure 7. An Independent Samples T-Test was conducted to compare trust in government in Black males and females. There was significant difference in trust in government for Black females ($M = 1.723, SD = .625$) and Black males ($M = 2.171, SD = .747$); $t(98) = -3.192, p = .002$.

Finally, an Independent Samples T-Test was conducted to compare trust in government in Black males and females. Trust in the government was evaluated on a 4-point Likert Scale ranging from

"Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." As indicated by the p-value of .002 displayed in Figure 7, there was a significant difference in trust in government for Black females ($M= 1.723$, $SD = .625$) and Black males ($M=2.171$, $SD=.747$); $t(98) = -3.192$, $p= .002$. These results suggest that Black males trust the government more than Black women. The lack of trust may be reflective of the struggles these women due to misogynoir and belief that the government may play a role in the discrimination, thus affecting their trust.

Analysis

Based on my analysis, the perception of parental consumption of political misinformation does not significantly differ among the four various ethnic subgroups examined in this study which disproves my initial hypothesis. My results also contribute to the work surrounding parental influence on political behaviors. It was found that parental education level did not affect potential/political engagement, and potential/political engagement did not affect PPPMC. My findings also add to the evidence concerning immigrants heavily using WhatsApp. This notion was further confirmed by later results suggesting that immigrant fathers/paternal guardians are perceived to consume more political misinformation than non-immigrant fathers, and non-immigrant parents understand the critical political issues facing the U.S. better than immigrant parents fathers. However, the insignificant relationship between the immigrant status of mothers and PPPMC calls for further research to establish why this is the case.

Nevertheless, the results regarding immigrant status affirm the evidence of WhatsApp housing inaccurate political information. Immigrant parents were more likely to use the said platform and were also more likely to be deemed as poorly informed by their children. Additionally, my hypothesis regarding a negative correlation between PPPMC and political socialization was disproven by my findings. However, a positive correlation was shown between PPPMC and perceived political self-efficacy, an aspect of political socialization. This association suggested that the more confidence Black youth have in their ability to participate successfully in the political process makes them more aware of their parent(s) consuming political misinformation.

Limitations

A limitation of my research was the lack of an even split between the four ethnic subgroups. This limits the accuracy of my results as each ethnic group was not equally represented. This could have been

avoided if I had permitted participants to select one ethnicity, as I excluded participants who selected multiple when evaluating ethnicity's effect. Additionally, since most of my participants lived in Queens and Long Island, my findings may not apply to Black youth in other areas. Finally, my research was limited because political self-efficacy and political interest were self-reported, so people may view themselves as more interested, educated, or efficient in politics than they are.

Implications

These findings can inform the parents of Black youth on how they influence the political socialization of their children. As shown by the findings of this study, immigrant parents must note that their presence on WhatsApp lends them vulnerable to their children viewing them as politically misinformed. The results on immigration status prompt a conversation for new research on Black children of immigrants and their political behaviors. Finally, this study is essential for political scientists to consider as the trajectory of America's democracy relies on the education of its people.

Conclusion

Ethnicity has no significant effect on the perception of parental consumption of political misinformation. Africans, African Americans, Afro-Latinos, and Afro-Latinos are just as likely to perceive political misinformation consumption in their parents. However, immigrant parents of Black youth are more likely to be considered poorly informed by their children than non-immigrant parents. Additionally, since immigrant parents, who are considered misinformed, use WhatsApp more than other popular social media platforms, it is evident that there is a connection between WhatsApp and political misinformation. Furthermore, PPPMC positively affects one's perceived political self-efficacy but does not affect political interest or political engagement. This means the more confidence Black youth have in their ability to participate successfully in the political process may make them more aware of their parent/s consuming political misinformation.

Future Directions

Future researchers should study a larger population representing Africans, African Americans, Afro-Caribbeans, and Afro-Latinos. In addition, since PPPMC was examined holistically, future studies

could examine how perceived maternal vs. paternal consumption of misinformation differentially impacts Black youth. Finally, future researchers should evaluate Black youth from various locations to see if these findings hold for Black youth outside New York and Long Island.

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