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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Jessica Vera-Rios

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
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the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. Carl Valdez, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Michael Johnson, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty
Dr. Kimberley Cox, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2018

Abstract

The Relationship Between Parenting Styles and Conduct Disorder in Hispanic Families

by

Jessica Vera-Rios

MS, The University of Texas-Rio Grande Valley, 2002

BA, The University of Texas at Austin, 1999

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Clinical Psychology

Walden University

May 2018

Abstract

Conduct disorder (CD) is prevalent among American teens, yet limited research has been conducted on Hispanic adolescents. Based on social learning theory and parenting theory, the purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship amongst parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD. A sample of 85 parents with adolescents receiving juvenile probation services in South Texas were surveyed to assess their parenting style, Hispanic cultural influences, and their adolescent's symptoms of CD. The Mexican Parent Questionnaire measured the independent variable: parenting styles. The Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II measured the independent variable: Hispanic cultural influences. The dependent variable, CD, was measured by the Assessment of Disruptive Symptoms-DSM-IV-Version. Logistic regression and ANOVA were used to test the hypotheses. The results showed there was no significant difference in parenting styles, Hispanic cultural practices, and CD. The findings did not show a relationship in parenting style and Hispanic cultural influences with CD. Nonetheless, this study facilitated positive social change by providing research-based information to parents, researchers, and professionals working with adolescent behavior.

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Dedication

I dedicate this study to my loving parents, Eloy and Yvonne Vera, and to my aunt Elida V. Menchaca, whose encouragement and supportive parenting helped me grow into a happy adult and who inspired me to persevere in writing this dissertation. They each contributed in poignant ways throughout my life experiences and via appreciation of my writing. My father and mother taught me how to fail, dust myself off, move forward, and succeed. My success in completing my dissertation means that they, too, vicariously, have succeeded. They have been instrumental in instilling my work ethics and my will to not give up. My aunt, an educator at heart, was always eager to read what my discovery would be. She consistently asked when I was going to be done. Regrettably, my aunt died suddenly before I completed this study, but her death brought me such clarity about life, education, and parenting. For she believed in me through thick and thin, including through my adolescence, through life, until death did us apart. Her creativity and love for children is deeply embedded in me now, so there's a sense in which my parents and my aunt have written--through me—this dissertation.

To my husband, Luis, who has shown me love, support, and listened to my pangs of worry throughout this process, I cannot thank you enough. You pushed me when I wanted to give up, tutored me through Statistics, and provided an extra set of hands and ears for the kids, so that I could write. I love you.

To my children, Rylie, Ryan, and Louie, you all are the center of my universe. I hope I can continue to grow more loving, encouraging, and supportive to you. Thank you for all the time you afforded me to study, to leave home during my AYRs, and for face-timing

with me, so we wouldn't be so "far away." For the days you spent a few extra hours at after-school care or with a caretaker, so I could work late, and for your hugs and kisses, I am eternally thankful. You all are the motivation for my heart to keep beating and my mind to keep ticking.

I dedicate this study to my family. I completed this Ph.D. for all of you. I am not strong because I want to be, I am strong because you are my example. Together, we can do anything. I love you to the moon and back, to infinity and beyond!

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Conduct issues among adolescents is perhaps a universal stigma. Teenagers, such as Riley Anderson, a character in the 2015 Disney movie “Inside Out” are often portrayed as irresponsible, moody, and/or rebellious. Conduct disorder (CD) refers to behavioral problems amongst adolescents with great difficulty following rules and behaving in a socially acceptable way (American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry [AACAP], 2013). These youths may often be stigmatized by their peers, adults, and/or agencies as "bad" or delinquent, rather than having a mental disorder. CD is defined by the Diagnostic Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th edition (DSM-5) as repetitive and persistent pattern of behavior by a teenager in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate societal norms or rules are violated (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013). According to the DSM-5 (APA, 2013), these behaviors fall into four main groupings: aggressive conduct that causes or threatens physical harm to people or animals, nonaggressive conduct that causes property loss or damage, deceitfulness or theft, and serious repetitive violations of rules. Social learning theory (Bandura, 1965) has shown how adolescents often learn behaviors from what they see and encounter in their environments on a daily basis. Thus, it becomes more evident that familial contexts and discord may or may not lead to the possibility of rebellious and aggressive behavior. In this study, I examined the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD.

Chapter 1 includes background information regarding the study and includes a discussion on parenting styles, Hispanic culture, and CD. I will also address the problem

statement, purpose of the study, research question, hypotheses, theoretical foundation, and nature of the study. Finally, I will address the terms related to this study, assumptions, scope, delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study.

Background

Although the cause of CD is unknown, some researchers believe that a combination of environmental, genetic, psychological, and social factors play a role (Burke, Loeber, & Birmaher, 2002). Some researchers have argued that defects or brain injuries can lead to behavior disorders such as CD (Fairchild et. al., 2011). CD has been linked to the frontal lobe of the brain, which facilitates judgement, decision-making, remorse, and moral behavior. The hypothalamus is linked to the pleasure and reward concept, which may indicate that CD presents with faulty stimulation for maladaptive behaviors, such as inflicting pain on peers and animals. Further, many teens with CD have close family members with other mental disorders, such as substance abuse dependency and personality disorders. Familial history may be indicative of genetic etiology and/or social learning (Murray & Farrington, 2010).

Environmental and social factors such as a dysfunctional family, school failure, abuse, trauma, a family history of substance abuse, peer acceptance, and inconsistent discipline and/or parenting also contribute to the development of CD (Patterson & Fisher, 2002).

In this study, I focused on parenting style as a social contributing factor to CD. CD is marked by chronic social conflict that can result in damage to property and physical injury to themselves and/or others. The behavioral pattern is consistent over

time; hence, the diagnostic criteria includes “persistent pattern of behavior in which the basic rights of others or major age appropriate social norms are violated” (APA, 2013, p. 469).

Conduct Disorder

CD, as defined by the DSM-5, is a repetitive and persistent pattern of behavior in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate societal norms or rules are violated over a period of 6–12 months (APA, 2013). Symptoms of CD include bullying, threatening, intimidating, initiating fights, using a weapon to cause harm, cruelty toward people and/or animals, stealing while confronting a victim, forcing into sexual activity, fire-setting, destroying property, breaking into property, lying to obtain goods or avoid obligations, and shoplifting (Pardini & Fite, 2010). Other rule violations include staying out late despite parenting expectations, running away overnight without returning for a lengthy period, and truancy onset before age 13 (APA, 2013). If a child shows symptoms prior to age 10, it is classified as childhood-onset type, if not, it is classified as adolescent-onset type.

Prevalence and Gender. According to Costello, et al., (2003), it is estimated that 2%–10% of youths in the United States have CD. The DSM-5 identifies two modifier subtypes of CD based on the age of onset, either childhood-onset type or adolescent-onset type (APA, 2013). The subtype characteristics vary according to developmental, prognosis, and gender ratio. Both subtypes range from mild, to moderate, to severe. Bessert (2013) reported that onset of symptoms are often gathered from the

child and/or parents, but some behavioral symptoms may be concealed. CD is more prevalent in boys than girls and often begins in late childhood to early teens.

Childhood-onset Type. This subtype is used when at least one criterion behavioral symptom begins prior to age 10 years (APA, 2013). Children with childhood-onset type are generally aggressive males with problematic peer relationships, and can often meet diagnostic criteria for CD before puberty (Bressert, 2013). Typically, they also presented oppositional defiance disorder in early childhood. Individuals with CD childhood-onset type are more likely to develop antisocial personality disorder as adults than individuals with adolescent-onset type.

Adolescent-onset Type. This subtype is used when no criterion behavioral symptoms are present prior to age 10 years (APA, 2013). People with CD adolescent-onset type are less aggressive than those with the childhood-onset type and generally have normal peer relationships (Bressert, 2013). CD behaviors typically only present with a select group of peers. Individuals with CD adolescent-onset type are less likely to develop antisocial personality disorder as adults than those with childhood-onset type. adolescent-onset type also generally has a more even male to female ratio than childhood-onset type (Bressert, 2013).

Risk Factors. Parental substance abuse, psychiatric disorder(s), domestic violence, and child abuse and neglect all increase the risk of CD (Baumrind, 1991; Murray & Farrington, 2010). Exposure to antisocial behavior by a caregiver is an especially important risk factor (Fontes, 2001; Fontes, 2002; Leidy et al, 2010). Although CD is evident in all economic levels, it is overrepresented in lower socioeconomic groups

(Ceballos & Bratton, 2010). Another common risk factor appears to be inconsistent parental availability and discipline (Kerr et al., 2003). As a result, children with CD may not experience a consistency between their behavior and its consequences (Garza, Kinsworthy, & Watts, 2009). Early childhood symptoms include irritability, inconsolability, and impaired social responsiveness (Biederman et al., 1996). Often caregivers, especially those with mental health disorders and substance abuse disorders, may respond to these children coercively and inconsistently (Burke et al., 2002; Cambell, 2002; Collins et al., 2006).

According to Murray and Farrington (2010), CD may be the result of genetics, family/parenting, and social factors. As children develop through different stages in life, parents are prone to develop a parenting style. During infancy, while a child is developing physically, socially, and emotionally, parents are also adjusting to a new lifestyle and hopefully bonding with their infant. The parent-child bond that forms is attachment (Umemura, Jacobvitz, Messina, & Hazan, 2013). Attachment, temperament, and cultural practices influence parenting style (Landa & Duschinsky, 2013).

According to Conrade et al. (2001), a mother may use an authoritative style while the father prefers a more permissive approach. Their study found that mothers and fathers may also use different parenting practices based on their child's gender. Fathers can affect their daughter's emotional adjustment more via parenting style than through disciplinary approach or punishment (Conrade et al., 2001). Both fathers and mothers tended to use authoritative parenting styles toward their daughters, while using

authoritarian style for sons. Although mothers more often used authoritarian parenting practices with their daughters, they also included time reasoning with them. Nonetheless, mothers often favored parenting their sons.

Parenting Styles

There is a great deal of research on different parenting styles and the quality of time parents spend with their children. A child's formative years are a critical time for personality development. Parenting style is a psychological construct defining strategies that parents use to rear children (Spera, 2005). 'Parenting' often refers to how parents respond to and make demands of their children. Parenting styles and dispositions facilitate behavior in adolescents and consequently influence the development of their teens' personality and temperament (Kazdin, 2008). Hence, it becomes more evident that parenting styles are a major factor to the development of CD.

Initial research on parenting styles in U.S. families was conducted by Diana Baumrind (1967, 1991), who identified four foundational parenting concepts as: responsiveness vs. unresponsiveness and demanding vs. undemanding. Baumrind's (1967) research identified original parenting styles as authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive and eventually uninvolved parenting style was added.

Authoritative. Authoritative parenting is exhibited by parents who are demanding and responsive (Baumrind 1967). This particular style is characterized by a child-centered approach with expectations of maturity, independence, and age-appropriate behavior. According to Baumrind (1967) parents understand their child's feelings and teach them to regulate them. Despite expectations of maturity, authoritative

parents generally forgive behavioral mishaps. Parents typically collaborate and facilitate problem-solving with their children. This technique encourages independence while allowing parents to set the parameters, facilitating the development of autonomy (Baumrind, 1991). Parents are nurturing and open to negotiations, making them less controlling than authoritarian parents (Baumrind, 1967). Instead, children are welcome to explore and make their own decisions.

When misbehavior occurs, the natural consequences of the behavior are discussed so that the child understands why it is not permitted and hopefully change their behavior (Santrok, 2007). However, persistent misbehavior is met with nonviolent, punitive consequences whereby the parent often explains the motive for punishment, so that the child feels it is a fair consequence. The reason for the punishment is clearly explained to the child. Children of authoritative parents tend to be independent, successful, generous, and determined (Strassen Berger, 2011). An authoritative parenting style is earmarked with high parental responsiveness and high parental demands (Baumrind, 1991).

Authoritarian. Authoritarian parenting is marked by being demanding but not responsive (Baumrind, 1967). This particular style is characterized by an approach that is restrictive, demanding, and highly punishing. Children are required to follow directions with little to no collaboration nor feedback (Baumrind, 1991). According to Baumrind (1991), attempts by the child to seek feedback and/or collaboration often leads to arguments and even corporal punishment. The result is typically highly stressful homes (Strassen Berger, 2011). Parents who use this parenting style may believe that children must be prepared to handle a harsh society (Spera, 2005). However, children reared in

authoritarian households often have decreased social competence, because they lack the ability to discuss differing opinions and or to collaborate to make decisions (Baumrind, 1991). These children may succeed in the short term, but as development continues into adolescence, supervision and direct parental control decline (Strassen Berger, 2011). Strassen Berger (2011) reported these authoritarian children to be introverted, rule-abiding, conformist, and often struggle with depression, anxiety, and self-blame. The negative consequences typically continue into adulthood. Additionally, teens who are resentful about being raised in an authoritarian environment, but have managed to develop self-confidence, often become defiant in adolescence and/or young adulthood with escapist behavior such as substance abuse and suicidal ideations (Strassen Berger, 2011).

Indulgent-Permissive. This parenting style is often called permissive parenting and it is characterized by few, if any, behavioral expectations for children (Baumrind, 1967). Permissive parenting is noted by parents who are responsive but not demanding (Baumrind, 1991). Although parents are involved and nurturing of their children, they have minimal demands, expectations, and controls to regulate behavior. Parents tend to take on a role of 'friend' with their child, versus a parental role (Rosenthal, 2014). According to Baumrind (1967), this parenting style lacks set rules and disciplinary measures. Children and teens in these households are allowed to make their own decisions, with only some advice from a parent, much like a friend who would offer advice or support. Permissive parents indulge their children and teens and hope that their

children will, in turn, appreciate them. At times, parents may justify their parenting style for what they missed as children (Rosenthal, 2014).

Children raised in indulgent-permissive households are often immature, lack impulse control, and irresponsible (Baumrind, 1991). As teens, they can become increasingly more impulsive and engage in misconduct such as drug use (Baumrind, 1991; Leschied et al., 2010).

Uninvolved. Uninvolved parenting is marked by low demands, low control, and low responsiveness, such as minimal warmth (Baumrind, 1991). Uninvolved parenting is also called detached and neglectful (Patterson & Fisher, 2002). Parents tend to be disengaged and not truly involved in their child's activities. Uninvolved parenting does not include collaboration or the exchange of decision-making ideas and feelings (O'Connor et al, 2013). According to O'Conner et al. (2013), uninvolved parenting includes providing the child's basic necessities, such as food and housing, but does not provide emotional support. This type of parenting may result from a parent's past experiences, careers, financial problems, and even drug abuse (Strassen Berger, 2011).

Children and teens raised in neglectful homes often begin to provide for themselves or reduce their dependence on parents, developing their maturity and independence (Patterson & Fisher, 2002). Families are often in discord due to contradictory points of view. Parents will often attempt to show authority or demandingness, but children and teens are often resentful and nonabiding. The lack of attachment in their immediate household often impacts relationship later in life, whereby the teen grows to be emotionally withdrawn (O'Conner et al, 2013). During adolescence,

teens may show patterns of truancy and delinquency (Manongdo et al., 2007). The lack of household structure often facilitates a lack of self-discipline and self-worth (love) from teens, often leading people to seek love elsewhere (McNelly et al., 2002).

Cultural Influences on Parenting

There is a plethora of research indicating the advantages of authoritative parenting over other styles (Conrade & Ho, 2001; Coplan, et al, 2002; Domenech Rodriguez et al, 2009). Some parenting differences may be due to culture influences, personality, family size, background, religion, socioeconomic status, and level of education.

Hispanic and Mexican Americans are the largest minority group in the United States, yet there is not much known regarding the cultural and contextual factors influencing parenting styles in this population (Calzada, Fernandez & Cortes, 2010; Dumka et al., 2010). Varela and Vernberg (2004) examined 2-parent Mexican descent (MD) and Caucasian-non-Hispanic (CNH) family parenting styles. Parents in both groups used authoritative parenting style more often than authoritarian, but MD parents were still more likely to use authoritarian practices than CNH parents. Thus, parenting cultural influences amongst MD and CNH may be correlated to an ecological, cultural culture.

Cultural norms influence parenting practices within ethnic groups. Some cultural practices are detached and unresponsive, while others are strongly attached and responsive. It is arguable that children and adolescents who seek their parents for comfort and/or security and do not find them responsive, may be more prone to developing CD (Berkel et al., 2010). According to Berkel et al. (2010), Mexican

American families often use disputed parenting practices, such as *familia/familismo*, *machismo*, *marianismo*, *hembrismo*, *educado*, and *respeto*, which are passed down from generation to generation.

Respect, *respeto*, is one of the most important values in Hispanic culture. According to Fuller and Garcia (2010), Hispanic beliefs include respect in the form of obedience to adults and authority figures. Children are often taught to behave accordingly. Generally speaking, Hispanic parents often believe that formal, academic education is very important, but social education is just as important (Fuller & Garcia, 2010). Parents may believe that schools should educate and parents should nurture (Dumka et al., 2010). Children are taught to obey rules at school and parents reinforce this at home by nurturing and praising children who ‘respect’ others. If a child successfully learns the value of *respeto*, then parents believe they have comprehensively *educado*—educated their child. Hispanic family often define obedience as being well-mannered and respectful toward their elders and/or authority figures. Public display of child behavior is indicative of parenting and family values. However, Hispanic behavioral consequences often differ from other cultures in the use of punitive discipline (Fontes, 2002). For example, parents from Western cultures often use the removal of privileges and/or luxuries as a disciplinary strategy, but Hispanic families often use physical punishment, such as spanking (Fontes, 2002).

Hispanic traditional belief is that physical punishment must be used to effectively teach right from wrong (Fontes, 2002). The logic behind it is that leniency and inconsistency can lead to lack of *respeto* and the inability to control the child.

Expectations of behavior often depends on their age. Hispanic parents often believe that children Ages 4 or 5 should understand behavioral expectations (Fuller & Garcia, 2010).

Hispanic parents may use different types of parental controls strategies with their children (Vargas, Busch-Rossnagel, Montero-Sieburth, & Villarruel, 2000). Some examples of these strategies include: punitive, direction, modeling, protection, and monitoring. Punitive control, as mentioned, refers to punishment, including verbal and physical punishment. Direction refers to direct, verbal commands given by a parent (e.g., clean their room). Modeling refers to parents teaching by example whereby the child learns via observational learning (e.g., wash dishes while child watches; Livas-Dlott, Fuller, Stein, Bridges, Figueroa, & Mireles, 2010). Another control strategy is using protectiveness as a way to keep children away from negative influences (e.g., curfew). Protection is a general concept because it can encompass many different specific instances whereby parents use their knowledge of risks to use their protection against the risk. In fact, monitoring may be an extension of protection because monitoring refers to parental control in the form of vigilance (e.g., keeping careful watch; Kerr et al, 2003; Rodriguez, Donovanick & Crowley, 2009).

According to Santisteban, Coatsworth, Briones, Kurtines, and Szapocznik (2012), all parents typically set rules and behavioral expectations during early childhood development. For example, a parent may allow their teen to go to the movies with friends only if accompanied by a parent who is available to monitor their behavior. Additionally, by having rules in place, there is a sense of behavioral control such as direction.

Hispanic culture also values family or *familia* (Santisteban et al., 2012). Parents often emphasize and teach family unity to help with social and emotional support (Rodriguez et al., 2009). Western families often identify with nuclear family structure, including a father, mother, and children. Hispanic culture often differs from Western culture in that they often include the extended family, such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, nieces, and nephews (Lorenzo-Blanco, Unger, Baezconde-Garvanati, Ritt-Olson, & Soto, 2012; Santisteban et al, 2012). Thus, extended family networks facilitate relationships whereby the adolescent may seek the advice or guidance from an extended family member.

Traditional Hispanic households often begin establishing gender roles during early development (Kulis, Marsiglia, & Nagoshi, 2010). These roles often fall within three gender-specific scripts as follows: *machismo* (male self-respect and responsibility), *marianismo* (female self-sacrifice), and *hembrismo* (femaleness; Ruiz, 2005). *Machismo* refers to masculine behaviors that men are taught (e.g., dominance, independence). *Machismo* typically identifies a male as the head of household, including a sense of power over the household. *Machismo* households often teach boys to work hard to provide for their families and to maintain dominance and/or *respeto* in the home. *Marianismo* and *hembrismo* are two feminine roles. *Marianismo* defines women as dependent and submissive to the male figures and responsible for childcare (Kulis et al, 2010). *Marianismo* encourages girls to learn feminine traits, a motherly role, and the importance of having a family. *Hembrismo* defines women as strong, determined, with perseverance, and often without children (Ruiz, 2005). *Hembrismo* is often identified in

professional career women, who have not established a family. Hence, *hembrismo* is often frowned upon by Hispanics.

Hispanics often use warm cultural practices, such as greetings with a hug and a kiss on the cheek. Despite these practices, parents can often be physically punitive (Fontes, 2002; Ojeda et al, 2014). The typical Hispanic parenting style may be authoritative style, high in nurturance, rules, and limitations. However, due to the use of physical punishment and high demands they may also fall into authoritarian style. Hence, Hispanic parents may generally use either authoritative or authoritarian parenting styles (Varela & Vernber, 2004). The results of this study provided a snapshot of a Hispanic population's preferred parenting style.

Problem Statement

CD is a significant concern among American families because it is estimated that 2%–10% of American youth have CD and it is more common in males than females (Costello et al., 2003). This problem has negatively impacted communities because the United States incarcerates more of its youth than any other country in the world (Hockenberry, 2013). According to the U.S. Census (2014), one in four federal inmates is Hispanic. The Hispanics state and federal prison population is 2.6 times greater than Caucasians. In 10 states, Hispanic incarceration rates are 5 to 9 times greater than Caucasian. Likewise, Hispanic juvenile detention center populations are the fastest growing ethnic group. In four states, Hispanic youth (under the age of 18) are incarcerated at adult prisons at rates between 7 to 17 times greater than those of Caucasian youth. Hispanic and African-American men receive harsher sentences; thus,

prison populations are disproportionately represented. Consequently, Hispanic children are three times more likely to have a parent in prison than Caucasians (Hockenbury, 2013).

Moreover, United States Census data predicts Hispanics as the largest minority group by in 2050 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2014). Hispanic families have unique cultural practices that influence their parenting style that may or may not render positive behavioral results (Hill et.al, 2003). However, there is a gap in the literature regarding the relationship of CD and parenting styles amongst Hispanics.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore if there was a relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD. In this study, the dependent variable (DV) is CD, was measured by the Assessment of Disruptive Symptoms-DSM-IV Version (ADS-IV; Waschbusch & Sparkes, 2003). The independent variables (IVs), Hispanic cultural influences and parenting styles, were measured by the Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (BARSMA-II; Cuellar, 2004) and Mexican Parenting Questionnaire (MPQ; Halgunseth & Ispa, 2012), respectively.

Research Question and Hypotheses

This study was designed to answer the following research question:

Research Question 1 (RQ1): What is the relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents?

Null Hypotheses 1 (H_01): There is no relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents.

Alternative Hypotheses 1 (H_{a1}): There is a relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents.

The IVs were Hispanic cultural influences and parenting styles. The DV was CD. The DV had two categorical values, CD and non-CD. The hypotheses were tested using a binary logistic regression to measure the relationship between the categorical DV and the IVs by estimating probabilities using a logistic function (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). This test allowed me to analyze the relationship among parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD.

Theoretical Foundation

One of the most popular learning theories is social learning theory, which was developed by Bandura (1965; 1977). Social learning theory blends traditional learning theory with the operant conditioning concepts of behavioral theory. Social learning theory presumes that individuals learn what they observe and experience in their natural environment, but blends the concepts of conditioning and behavioral reinforcements into the theory. This study takes into consideration a secondary theoretical basis with parenting theory (Baumrind, 1967), which defines basic child-rearing concepts, as supportive theory of social learning. This study is fundamentally grounded in social learning theory due to Hispanic cultural practices and parenting styles being social elements; it then uses parenting theory to further support this study. Chapter 1 will introduce these theories, but Chapter 3 will provide a deeper discussion of the theories as it applies to this study.

Social Learning Theory

The theory chosen to guide this research is Bandura's (1965) social learning theory. This theory implies that there are types of learning wherein direct reinforcement is not the typical sequence, but rather that there is a social element involved that facilitates learning. Consequently, people can learn new information and behaviors through observational learning. There is a substantial amount of research that has established a strong association between parent-child interactions and adolescent adjustment (Perkins, 2000; Parkin & Kuczynski, 2012; Spera, 2005). Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) agrees with behavioral theory's classical conditioning and operant conditioning techniques. However, social learning theory adds two other important concepts. It maintains that there is a) a mediating processes that occurs between stimuli and response, and b) that the responsive behavior is learned via observational learning (Domenech, Rodriguez, Donovanick, and Crowley, 2009). Observations create opportunities to model certain behaviors.

This study was guided by social learning theory such that the theory purports that children observe others in their natural environment. Individuals who are observed model behaviors. As children develop, they encounter learning opportunities in their environment either by observing parents, peers, teachers, and even influential people. These individuals model behavior that is observed and imitated. When children observe models, they may encode the behavior, and imitate it at a later time. Many times the behavior is socially encouraged by gender roles, which reinforces the behavior with praise and positive feedback (Domenech et. al., 2009).

Parenting Theory

In addition to Bandura's (1977) social learning theory, this study was also influenced by Baumrind's (1967) parenting theory. Although many theories exist about various methods of parenting, Baumrind developed the most referenced typology of four parenting styles, which account for the way teens function socially, emotionally, and cognitively. Her research identified four parent-child interactions: parental control, maturity demands, clarity of communication, and nurturance. Parental control refers to the ability to influence or utilize power to enforce rules. Maturity demands refers to the expectations parents have for children to behave at their age-appropriate level. Clarity of communication refers to parents communicating with their children, while considering differing opinions and rationalization to obtain desirable behavior. Nurturance refers to parents showing warmth, approval, and protection. These four dimensions facilitated Baumrind (1967) to define four parenting styles, including authoritative, authoritarian, permissive-indulgent, and uninvolved.

Baumrind (1977) reported that each parenting style effects child and adolescent behavior. Social learning theory and parenting theory indicate that parenting style may influence the development of CD (Aunola and Nurmi, 2005). As applied to this study, these theories hold that parenting style and Hispanic cultural practices may influence or explain the development of CD because children and adolescents learn behavioral responses from others. In Chapter 2, I present a literature review on how parenting styles influence oppositional behavior and suggest the development of CD. A hypothesis of this study is that Hispanic cultural practices and certain parenting styles can predict behavioral outcomes similar to CD.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study was to quantitatively analyze the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD. Survey research was used to provide a quantitative description of a population by studying a sample of the population. Hispanic parents in South Texas, who were currently raising teenagers (between the ages of 13–17 years old), were identified and a sample of the population was studied. The Mexican Parenting Questionnaire (MSQ; Halgunseth & Ispa, 2012) was used to collect data on parenting styles, and the Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (BARSMA-II; Cuellar, 2004) was used to collect data on Hispanic cultural practices. The Assessment of Disruptive Symptoms-DSM-IV Version (ADS-IV; Waschbusch & Sparkes, 2003) was used to collect data on the presence of CD.

Definition of Terms

Listed below are the operational definitions used in this study:

Comorbidity: This term refers to the presence of more than one psychological condition in a single person (Biederman et al., 1996)

Conduct Disorder (CD): This is a mental health disorder that is characterized by repetitive and persistent pattern of behavior by a child or teenager in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate societal norms or rules are violated (APA, 2013).

Cabellerismo: This term is based on traditional Spanish chivalry, defending family and family honor, leadership, responsibility, spirituality, and emotional connectedness (Kulis, Marsiglia, & Nagoshi, 2010).

Culture: Culture refers to the customs, values, and beliefs of a particular group of people at a particular time (Lorenzo-Blanco et al., 2012).

Educado: This term refers to a person, who is well-behaved and well-mannered (Ruiz, 2005).

Familia/Familismo: This Spanish term refers to a social pattern whereby the family unit takes priority over individual interests (Santisteban et al., 2012).

Hispanic: The term Hispanic refers to an American of Latin descent living in the United States, especially one of Cuban, Mexican, or Puerto Rican origin (Altarriba & Bauer, 1998; Ruiz, 2005).

Latino: Latino/a is a person who was born or lives in United States, South America, Central America, or Mexico, whose family is originally from any of these countries (Rodriguez et. al., 2009).

Machismo: This term refers to male attitudes and behaviors that include dominance, narcissism, demeaning attitudes toward women, hypersexuality, and sometimes drug/alcohol abuse. In essence, it is exaggerated masculinity (Rodriguez et al., 2009; Ojeda & Liang, 2014).

Marianismo: This term refers to a female role and the veneration of female virtues, such as like sexual purity, morals, and passivity. This ideal woman is kind, delicate, compliant, vulnerable, unassertive, and yet whimsical. The only power or higher regard in *marianismo* is due to her ability to produce life, which gives her a higher social status if she has babies, especially male off-spring (Lorenzo-Blanco et al., 2012).

Hembrismo: This term refers to a more modern female gender role that includes a dominant attitude, empowerment, and even arrogance in favor of women. In many ways, it is the opposite of *machismo*. It includes the phenomenon of sexism and sexual discrimination, except that it favors women over men (Lorenzo-Blanco et al., 2012; Ojeda & Liang, 2014).

Respecto: This term refers to obedience, self-respect, respecting elders, and authority figures (Calzada, Fernandez, & Cortes, 2010).

Assumptions

I grounded this study on the assumption suggested by Baumrind (1967; 1977) in that parenting style may be related to CD. Therefore, I hypothesized that it was possible for Hispanic culture to adhere to certain parenting styles, which would be related to CD. The study also assumed that it was possible for two adolescents to experience the same cultural influences, but parenting style would render different behavioral outcomes.

Scope and Delimitations

This study examined the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD. The topic was chosen due to a gap in knowledge regarding unique parenting styles amongst the Hispanic population, which may cause CD. This study was limited to parents of Hispanic teenagers living in Starr County, Texas. It excluded children younger than 12 years-old and older than 18 years-old. Thus, generalization boundaries are limited to Hispanic adolescents ages 12–17.

Limitations

The first limitation of this study was that parenting style and behavior are based on correlational research. Correlational research is useful in finding a relationship between the variables, but it does not establish definitive cause-and-effect. Although the research has presented evidence regarding certain parenting styles producing certain behavioral outcomes, this study did not take into consideration child temperament and personality. The second limitation was that the findings may not generalize to all Hispanic parents with teenagers because the data were collected from only one region of the United States; thus, it is not possible to compare the Hispanics in this study to other Latinos. A third limitation was family households differed (e.g., single-moms, single-dads, or both parents), creating unique blends of parenting style, especially if one parent adhered to one style and the other adhered to another. A fourth limitation was that since the data were collected from a juvenile probation office there were a high probability for CD. There was also a number of teens who were in juvenile strictly for non-CD-related issues, such as substance abuse. The fifth limitation was that the data were retrieved from the parent(s) of the teenager and he or she may not have given an accurate assessment of their thoughts, feelings, attitudes, or practices. They may have answered depending on what they believed was the correct response rather than their true parenting practices. Hence, the validity of the data were determined by the honesty of the participants' responses. To help remedy this, I took extra care in explaining the importance of honesty in the surveys.

Significance of the Study

Although there is a significant amount of information regarding parenting styles, there is a gap in the literature regarding parenting styles and Hispanic cultural influences. Additionally, there is a lack in studies focused on parenting and behavioral responses during Hispanic adolescence. According to Lerner (2011), modern developmental theories point to the importance on how child social development is influenced by sociocultural contexts. This study furthered our understanding on parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD; thus, increasing our knowledge on positive parenting, which inevitably promotes positive social change.

The results of the study will be provided to parent-participants when the final study is approved. The evidence-based results of the relationship can offer insight on whether parenting styles facilitate undesirable outcomes; thus, provide parenting education. If the family is the basic element in society, any dilemma encountered within the families will affect its communities, thus, society in general. This study contributed to the academic and medical community by offering insight into behavioral concerns prevalent within educational systems, correctional systems, and behavioral health system. The empirical findings support the quest for further parental involvement activities and programs within our educational system and correctional systems. A multifaceted comprehensive team that includes school professionals, healthcare providers, and correctional officers, could render better behavioral results among our troubled youth.

Summary

The Hispanic population in the United States continues to grow daily. Teenagers diagnosed with CD are also on the rise. The purpose of this quantitative study was to

explore the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD. The study was a response to the lack of research regarding parenting styles amongst Hispanics and how parenting may contribute to the development of CD. It is of utmost importance that parents learn the likely outcomes to their parenting styles and how cultural influences may or may not facilitate their desired outcomes.

Chapter 2 discusses the theoretical foundation used to develop the study. Both social learning theory and parenting theory conceptualizations are presented as they pertain to this study. Chapter 2 includes a literary review of traditional parenting styles, parent-child relationships, and their outcomes. Then, the discussion transitions into a detailed review of CD and examines Hispanic cultural implications. A summary is provided before Chapter 3.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Teenage troubles are prevalent universally, especially in the United States (Burke et al, 2002). The parental role is one that has been researched and often blamed for the consequential troubles amongst teens (Aunula & Nurmi, 2005). According to Costello et al. (2003), between 2–10% of American adolescents have CD. The United States incarcerates more youth for behaviors related to CD (i.e., theft, rape, arson, shoplifting) than any other country in the world (Leschied et al, 2008). It is important to note that Hispanics are the fastest growing minority in the United States and prison system (Hockenbury, 2013).

In this chapter, I will review social learning theory and parenting theory and discuss how these theories conceptualize how adolescents learn what they observe and experience. If parenting is cold and hostile, then adolescents may or may not learn to become cold and hostile. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD.

Literature Search Strategy

I retrieved the literature for this review from multiple research databases, including PsycINFO, PsycTESTS, PsycARTICLES, PubMed, and EBSCO. Searches focused on specific key words, including *parenting styles, adolescence, Hispanic cultural practices, acculturation, Mexican American culture, families/familismo, machismo, marianismo, hembrismo, social learning theory, parenting theory, attachment, family relationships, behavioral problems, and conduct disorder*. Each article shed light on the discovery process and guided the research toward supportive foundational groundwork.

The following is a summary of the literature regarding the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD.

Theoretical Foundation

Social Learning Theory

This study was grounded in social learning theory, because Hispanic culture and parenting styles are social components. Albert Bandura's (1965) social learning theory has possibly become the most influential theory of learning and development. Social learning theory is rooted in many of the basic concepts of traditional learning theory, but Bandura (1965) argued that direct reinforcement, such as with behavioral theory, could not explain all learning. Social learning theory proposed that learning also happens via direct observation of others.

Bandura (1977) presented three core concepts regarding social learning theory. The concepts included: a) observational learning, b) internal mental state, and c) not all that is learned results in behavioral changes. Observational learning is discussed in Chapter 1 and above. Internal mental state refers to a person's current life experience and predisposition. Lastly, when not all that is learned is replicated it may be due to internal mental state, personal choice, and decision-making (Bandura, 1977).

Patterson and Fisher (2002) developed and tested social learning models with delinquent and deviant behavior, especially within the context of family interaction. Pratt et al., (2010) moved forward by conducting a meta-analysis of social learning theory. The researchers examined overt, observable behavior, incorporated with cognitive variables as basic learning mechanisms. Their results showed four decades of social learning

theory as one of the core paradigms regarding the etiology of deviance and eventual crime.

Akers (2011) reaffirmed that deviance is learned and involves all the same mechanisms as conforming behavior. The researcher discussed behavioral principles of modern learning theory and argued that undesirable behavior can be reinforced by its consequences. Thus, researchers can use social learning theory to explain deviance and crime.

O'Connor et al. (2013) studied whether social learning theory–based treatment could change the quality of a parent–child relationship and to what extent. Parent participants either received intervention or did not (nonintervention). Parenting behavior was coded as positive or negative parenting. Attachment was measured between sensitive responding and mutuality. Those who received intervention showed increased positive behaviors and sensitive responding. The results showed that social learning theory–based parenting interventions can change broad aspects of parent–child relationship quality, but not attachment.

Hispanic families are often disadvantaged (Fuller & Garcia Coll, 2010). However, Fuller and Garcia Coll (2010) reported that in recent years, a great deal of research has yielded notable discoveries regarding the strengths of Latino families. These discoveries outlined how cultural influences during child developmental produced unique socialization practices, awareness, and daily motivation. The study shed light in the following areas. First, the researchers identified the variation in local contexts, Latino households, and subgroups. Next, they identified how parenting practices in less

acculturated, more traditional families reinforced social cohesion and support. This allowed for the researchers to focus on how assimilation pressures on adolescents introduced developmental risks. Lastly, they offered insight on how cognitive demands and social expectations implicate learning and motivation (Fuller & Garcia Coll, 2010). The results offered a breakthrough in understanding adolescents who learn and develop within bounded cultural or social-class groups.

Parenting Theory

I also examined parenting theory. The most widely accepted parenting theory is Baumrind's (1967) dimensions of parent-child relationship types: parental control, maturity demands, clarity of communication, and nurturance. Parental control refers to the ability to influence and utilize power to enforce rules. Maturity demand refers to parental expectation that children behave age-appropriately. Clarity of communication refers to parents communicating with their children, while considering differing opinions and rationalization to obtain desirable behavior. Nurturance refers to parents showing warmth, approval, and protection. These four dimensions facilitated Baumrind (1967; 1977) to define four parenting styles, including authoritative, authoritarian, permissive-indulgent, and uninvolved.

Flaherty and Sadler (2011) reviewed attachment theory, adolescent mothers, and their children. They explained how positive mother-infant attachment provides a secure base for development. They concluded that secure attachment is correlated with positive long-term effects and insecure attachment is correlated with negative long-term effects.

Parenting Styles

Parenting can be defined as the attitudes and techniques a parent uses to rear their offspring. Researchers believe that parenting affects adolescents' development drastically, stating that what parents do or fail to do crucially affects child and adolescent development (Baumrind, 1967). In fact, researchers have linked parenting styles to consequential adolescent substance abuse, depression, behavior disorders, aggression, and poor moral reasoning (Aunula & Nurmi, 2005; Flaherty & Sadler, 2012).

Baumrind's (1967; 1977) parenting theory identified four styles. The first style is authoritative parenting, which aims to direct child activities with a rational, issue-oriented approach. Although authoritative parenting and authoritarian both establish rules for their children to follow, authoritative parenting facilitates a relationship between the two parties (parent and child), whereby each is valued and heard. Authoritative parents are responsive and listen to concerns. When children do not meet their expectations, discipline tends to be nurturing and forgiving rather than punitive. Baumrind (1967) suggested that these parents are assertive in monitoring their children, yet they are not dominating. The child-rearing goal is to raise assertive, socially responsible, cooperative, and self-regulated children (Baumrind, 1991).

Authoritarian parenting also establishes rules and guidelines but does not facilitate a democratic relationship to listen to concerns nor explain the reasons for the rules. Thus, parents are less responsive and nurturing. Baumrind (1967) suggested that these parents are assertive, demanding, intrusive, and often restrictive. When children do not meet their expectations, disciplinary strategies are more punitive than supportive.

Permissive parenting attempts to shape behavior with an affirmative and accepting approach. Parents often consult with their children regarding rules and decisions and give explanations. Parents are lenient, make few demands for household responsibility, avoid confrontation, and allow considerable self-regulation (Baumrind, 1991). Typically, these parents present themselves as a friendly resource for their children, and not as a role-model or an authority. Discipline is nonpunitive. Instead, clarity in communicating and reason is used. Permissive parents are much more responsive than demanding (Baumrind, 1991).

Uninvolved parenting does not include many demands or expectations. Parents are not very responsive, and children have a great deal of liberty and freedom. This type of permissiveness can be interpreted as indifference or parental detachment. Parents may be too busy or worried about other life factors. Nonetheless, this type of parenting often results in neglect, abandonment, and rejection (Baumrind, 1967; 1977).

Despite a plethora of research on parenting styles, Hispanic culture, and CD, there is a need for further discovery on how the three factors come together. This study bridged the gap in the literature regarding the parenting styles, unique Hispanic cultural practices, and the possibility of these factors facilitating the development of CD.

Parenting Style Outcomes: Positive and Negative

Aunula and Nurmi (2005) reported that authoritarian, permissive, and uninvolved parenting styles were associated with negative behavioral consequences. Negative consequences include increased levels of aggression and lowered self-esteem. Abusive parenting and exaggerated expectations of children has also been linked to poor

behavioral outcomes (Flaherty & Sadler, 2012). Adolescents are often expected to take on an adult role (e.g., comforter, financial provider) and endure excessive corporal punishment (Fontes, 2002). Authoritarian parenting often produces children who do well in school due to good behavior, but often have poor self-esteem, struggle socially, and show symptoms of depression (Rinaldi & Howe, 2012; Leidy et al., 2010). There is a tendency for these children to develop high levels of anxiety and insecurities, creating challenges to fulfilling potential (Brinkmeyer & Eyberg, 2003).

Authoritative parenting often produces confident and happy children (Baumrind, 1991; Coplan et al, 2002; Rinaldi & Howe, 2012). According to Hockenbury (2013), when adolescents interpret requests as reasonable, they are more likely to comply with the requests. There is a higher probability for internalizing (accepting) behaviors and increasing self-control (Coplan et al, 2002). Moreover, culture, family size, background, education, socioeconomic status, and religion may also create parenting style preference (Conrade et al, 2001). Mothers and fathers often have differing parenting styles.

Santisteban et. al. (2012) identified how Hispanic cultural influences create unique parenting practices, such as *familismo*, and examined whether these practices serve as mediators of acculturation-related behavioral problems. The study included 167 Hispanic sixth- or seventh-grade adolescents with acculturation-related behavioral problems. The results showed that *familismo* indirectly effected behavior but did not function as a mediator.

Authoritarian parenting style is prevalent in certain cultures, specifically traditional Asian families (Park, Kim, Chiang, & Ju, 2010). Park et.al. (2010) studied the

relationship between parenting styles and family conflict. Participants were 149 Asian American college students, who rated their parents' parenting style; Authoritarian scored the highest, authoritative came in second, followed by permissive parenting. Testing explained how authoritarian parenting coupled with Asian cultural influence was associated with elevated family conflict. Increased authoritarian parenting resulted in increased family conflict. Permissive parenting coupled with acculturated adolescents and early adults reduced family conflict. However, this did not apply to less acculturated individuals. Instead, authoritative parenting amongst assimilated individuals indicated less family conflicts.

According to Varzello (2010), authoritative parents (high accountability and warmth) had teens who were less likely to drink heavily. Permissive-Indulgent parents (low accountability and high warmth) were nearly three times more likely to have teens that drank heavily. Authoritarian parents (highly accountable and low warmth) had teens with doubled risk of heavy drinking. Hence, Hockenbury (2013) argues that authoritative parenting facilitates a healthy parent-child relationship when adolescents interpret requests as reasonable, they are more likely to comply with the requests. Moreover, teen internalization (accepting) is increased and evidenced via self-control (Coplan et al, 2002).

Parent-Child Relationships

Family systems concepts are particularly important when analyzing relationships. These concepts include the amount of encouragement toward autonomy and independence, the degree of control desired by parents, the amount of familial conflict,

the degree of family bonds, and the amount of love and support available to the adolescents (Collins et. al, 2006). According to Collins et al., (2006), the quality of family relationships often determined the confidence adolescents show from childhood to adulthood. Parent-child relationships are directly linked to the probability to participate in risk-taking behaviors (Aunula & Nurmi, 2005). This probability increases when a child perceives his/her parents as not being involved or uninformed regarding child interests. Parental attitudes and behaviors that can either promote or hinder children physically, emotionally, and intellectually.

The National Child Abuse and Neglect Data System (National Child Abuse and Neglect Data System [NCANDS], 2013) reported on child maltreatment known to Child Protective Services (CPS) in the United States and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico. From 2009 to 2013, victimization rates have hovered at approximately nine out of every 1,000 children. However, CPS reports have increased from 3,043,000 in 2009 to 3,188,000 in 2013. There are many possible explanations for this, including increased awareness of child abuse and reporting procedures. The 2013 report was heart-wrenching with 79.5% being neglected, 18.0% physically abused, 9.0% sexually abused, 8.7% psychologically abused, and 1,520 children died of abuse and neglect. Hence, there is a propensity of data leading to the conclusion that negative parent-child relationships continue in American communities (NCANDS, 2013).

Sousa et al. (2011) examined the effects of child abuse and domestic violence on attachment and adolescent antisocial symptomology. The researchers found that youth exposed to both abuse and domestic violence were less attached to parents in adolescence

than unexposed youth. Children who were solely abused or solely exposed to domestic violence did not change their already low level of attachment. Nonetheless, not considering exposure, stronger teenage attachment was correlated with lower risk of antisocial symptomology. The study concluded that child abuse and domestic violence preventative measures reduced the risk of teen antisocial symptomology. Furthermore, strengthening parent-child attachment also function as a preventative factor, but may not be enough after sustaining abuse and exposure.

Walton and Flouri (2010) investigated maternal parenting and adolescent externalized behavior problems, such as CD and hyperactivity. Parenting variables included warmth, psychological control, and behavioral control, which were measured with knowledge, monitoring and discipline. Participants were disadvantaged adolescents ages 11–18 from a community in the United Kingdom. The researchers found that parenting did not predict hyperactivity. Instead, hyperactivity was linked to difficulties in emotion regulation, contextual risk, and English as a first language. Lack of parental warmth and knowledge predicted CD. Knowledge did not predict emotion regulation, but warmth did. Hence, warmth is considered a CD preventative factor. Contextual risk was also associated to emotion regulation and externalizing behavior problems, but it was not linked to parenting and emotion regulation difficulties. The minimal effects of maternal control on regulating emotion and behavior support the argument of the importance in a father-figure, or rather paternal control, during adolescence (Walton & Flouri, 2010). The study concluded that maternal warmth and contextual risk are important factors in regulating emotion and behavior.

Parkin and Kuczynski (2012) studied adolescent perspectives on rules and resistance with the parent-child relationship. Participants were 32 adolescents ages 13–19. The qualitative study included a semi-structured interview regarding their perspectives on parental expectations and how they resisted expectations. The results showed adolescent perception of parental expectations as flexible. Adolescent resistance was overt (behavioral) and covert (cognitive) in order to further their autonomy.

Conduct Disorder

The developmental period from infancy to preschool is one of the most important formidably into adaptive or maladaptive outcomes. Childhood difficulties tend to have negative effects later in life (Brinkmey & Eyberg, 2003). Some parents struggle to understand why their well-behaved child begins to misbehave as an adolescent, often claiming they begin to behave impulsively, irrationally, and dangerously (Murray & Farrington, 2010). As teens begin to assert their independence, some common behavior problems can begin to arise. At times, it may seem like teenagers do not thoroughly evaluate the consequences of their actions. Misbehavior, such as cheating, talking back, and lying may seem like a rite of passage into adulthood. These behaviors can often escalate or progress into drug use, defiance, and violence, leaving teens out of control and parents feeling helpless. There are many risk-factors for juvenile delinquency, such as an explosive temper, ADHD, and learning disorders (Murray & Farrington, 2010). The combination of these factors coupled with adolescent development inevitably affects teenage thoughts and behaviors, as well as their perceptions and worldviews.

Generally speaking, parents often suspect that adolescents pose challenges. According to Costello et al. (2003), adolescent behavior, problem-solving skills, and decision-making differ from their parents. The researchers presented a biopsychosocial approach to explain how adolescence was a time of rapid development changes, both physically and cognitively. The study concluded that teens are predisposed with psychosocial and biological factors that influence teen defiant behavior (Costello et al., 2003).

The brain's amygdala develops during early childhood and is responsible for instinctual reaction, such as the fight or flight mechanism (Fairchild, et. al, 2011). The frontal cortex, which is responsible for executive function, such as problem-solving, reasoning, and judgment, does not develop until later. In fact, the frontal cortex does not reach maturity until adulthood. Prior to puberty and into adolescence, there is a surge in myelin production, also known as grey matter, which helps with cell communication. According to Fairchild et al. (2011), these adolescent internal changes cannot be seen as with physical changes, but they are critical in the development of executive function. Hence, troubles during adolescence may be attributed to the transition from an amygdala-favoring brain to the early developments of the frontal cortex. For example, a child goes from doing things impulsively to thinking that they can do things independently, not realizing that they do not know the steps of proper decision-making. During the transition from amygdala to a frontal cortex-favoring brain, adolescents may act impulsively, misread, or misinterpret environmental cues. This breakdown in cerebral communication can lead to fights, unexpected problems, and risk-taking behavior (Fairchild, et al., 2011).

It is also important to note that exposure to drugs and alcohol, traumatic brain injury, and other trauma can impact this development (Fairchild et al., 2011). Nonetheless, this does not mean that teenagers cannot make good decisions. They can certainly distinguish the difference between right and wrong. Hence, the issue of parenting and holding teenagers responsible for their actions comes to the forefront.

According to Finger et al. (2011), amygdala and orbitofrontal cortex dysfunction has been linked to psychopathic traits, such as those with CD. The researchers utilized a passive avoidance task to test the responsiveness of stimulus-reinforcement exposure. Thirty teens were divided into two groups. The first group were made up of fifteen adolescent participants with CD or ODD and high indication of psychopathic traits. The second group with made up of healthy teens without psychopathic traits. Both groups completed a 3.0-T fMRI scan. Teens with CD or ODD showed less orbitofrontal responsiveness both to early stimulus-reinforcement exposure and to rewards. Throughout the task, amygdala responsiveness was lower in teens with CD or ODD. Sensitivity to early reinforcement indicated that the functioning of the amygdala, caudate nuclei, and orbitofrontal cortex may be dysfunctional. This suggests a functional basis on why these teens are likely to repeat their mistakes, but the functional irregularities within these brain regions remains poorly understood (Finger et al., 2011).

According to Aunola and Nurmi (2005), behavioral concerns are classified into either externalized or internalized behaviors. Externalized behaviors include negative emotions directed toward others, such as with aggression, frustration, hyperactivity, and fighting. Teens with externalized problem behaviors tend to have underdeveloped self-

regulation and self-control. As adolescence, these externalized problem behaviors are often labeled in disorders such as oppositional defiant disorder (ODD) and CD (Costello et al., 2003). ODD is a highly prevalent psychological disorder, amongst the most commonly referred for treatment (Burke, Loeber, & Birmaher, 2002). The newly developed DSM-V categorized CD with disruptive and impulse-control disorders, such as ODD, Intermittent Explosive Disorder, Antisocial Personality Disorder, Pyromania, Kleptomania, and other specified/unspecified symptoms (APA, 2013). Teens who develop CD generally begin with ODD, then CD, and at times, continue into Antisocial Personality Disorder, with or without substance abuse (Burke, Loeber, & Birmaher, 2002). As this review has covered, the cause for CD may be a combination of biological, psychological, and social factors. However, these risk-factors are often countered with protective factors, such as parenting, medication, and therapy.

Frick and Nigg (2012) evaluated the diagnostic criteria for ADHD, ODD, and CD, the three most common disorders referred for psychological treatment. For the sake of this dissertation, I focused on the section on CD. The researchers argued the need for improving classification according to onset and the need of integrating callous-unemotional (CU) as diagnostic indicators. According to the DSM-V (APA, 2013), CD falls in the section labeled Disruptive, Impulse-Control, and CD. Diagnostic criteria for CD includes repetitive and persistent behavior patterns, where the basic rights of others, societal norms, or rules are violated. At least three behavioral symptoms amongst a list of 15 must have occurred in the past 12 months, with at least one if the past six months. Symptoms are then divided into four sections, including aggression to people and

animals, destruction of property, deceitfulness or theft, and serious rule violations. Frick and Nigg (2012) show how the disorder predisposes a person to deviant and violent behavior. Persons with CD often endured adjustment issues that manifest later educationally, socially, occupationally, physically/substance abuse, and legally (Odgers et al., 2007).

Frick and Nigg (2012) argued the need for two more diagnostic criteria for several reasons. The first reason was that there is a substantial amount of research that supports the predictive and clinical value in identifying individuals with CD who also present callous-unemotional traits (CU). Their sample showed a significant number of youth with unique cognitive, personality, emotional, and social factors. Frick and Nigg (2012) believe that identifying these factors could help future research in etiology and pathology. Another reason presented was the need to set gender-specific criteria for CD. Hence, the need for further research on CD.

Biederman et al. (1996) evaluated the comorbidity of ADHD and ODD. The researchers expanded on whether ODD is a precursor of CD. The participants were all diagnosed with ADHD. Of this sample, 65% also had ODD and 22% had CD. Among the subgroup with ODD, 32% also had CD. Only one child with CD was preceded with ODD. ADHD children dually diagnosed (comorbid) with ODD and CD presented severer symptoms on the Child Behavior Checklist Scale (CBCS) and lower Global Assessment of Functioning (GAF) in comparison with children with ADHD/ODD and ADHD alone. Those with ADHD/ODD did not show increased risk for CD at mid-adolescence during the 4-year follow-up. The researchers concluded that there are two

subtypes of ODD associated with ADHD. The first is a precursor to CD and the other is sub-syndromal to CD, which typically does not progress into CD (Biederman et al., 1996).

ADHD is linked as a precursor to ODD and eventually CD (Frick & Nigg, 2012). ADHD/ODD often facilitate socialization difficulties that are internalized. However, according to Pardini and Fite (2010), CD with childhood-onset is linked to future antisocial personality disorder, including callous-unemotional (CU) traits in boys. Boys with ADHD/ODD with CU traits are linked to decreased internalization. Some have suggested diagnostic identifiers for adolescents and adults, who presented childhood-onset ODD to identify risks of antisocial traits, deviance, and criminal behavior. However, ethical considerations may pose a barrier to this form of labeling and possible stereotyping (Leschied et al., 2008).

Although delinquency has never been formally identified as a clinical diagnosis, CD encompasses many behavioral problems that define delinquency. Murray and Farrington (2010) reviewed key findings from longitudinal studies on CD and delinquency and identified the most important risk factors: impulsivity, low intelligence, low achievement, truancy, antisocial peers, low supervision, large family, socioeconomic status, inconsistent parenting, low warmth, punitive discipline, child abuse, domestic violence, and neighborhood crime. The prevalence of delinquency and CD both peak during adolescence and show residual future behaviors (Murray & Farrington, 2010).

Windle et al. (2009) examined early-adolescent sex and parenting amongst different ethnic groups, and the tendencies for externalization and internalization of

behaviors. A sample of Hispanic, non-Hispanic white, and non-Hispanic black children were collected from three large U.S. cities. The researchers found that parental monitoring and norms were strong predictors of early-adolescent externalized problems and victimization, and internalized problems were less. High parental monitoring coupled with high maternal nurturance was linked to lower risk of early-adolescent sex. Thus, the study concluded that parenting that include nurturance, monitoring, and expectations are important childrearing practices. Furthermore, these skills may detail the targeted goals and objectives for successful intervention and rehabilitation.

Cultural Implications

Latinos, including Mexican-American and Hispanics, represent the fastest growing ethnic minority in the United States. Latino youth are at higher risks for psychosocial problems (Garza, Kinsworthy, & Watts, 2009). Leschied et al. (2008) found that ethnic differences exist not only in parenting styles, but also in the effects of parenting on children's externalizing and internalizing behaviors. Researchers have encouraged for the continued study of the relationship between parenting and adolescent development among Latinos (Dumka et al., 2010; Livas-Dlott et al., 2010; Lorenzo-Blanco et al., 2012; Valiente et al., 2009).

According to Rodriguez, Donovan, & Crowley (2009), Latinos may seem to present a chasm between concepts: authoritarian parenting (e.g., spanking with a flip-flop) and observable warm-parenting behaviors (e.g., hug & kiss). These researchers examined Latino parenting styles operationally defined with warmth, demandingness, and autonomy granting. Baumrind's (1967) original parenting styles and innovative

styles that include autonomy granting were reviewed and studied. The participants were first-generation Latino parents and children between the ages four and nine years-old. The Parenting Style Observation Rating Scale (P-SOS) was used to measure interactions. The results identified 61% as ‘protective parents.’ Interestingly, both mothers and fathers utilized the same parenting styles, but their expectations for sons and daughters were different. As a result, Baumrind’s (1967) parenting styles did not reflect Latino mixed practices. Instead, the researchers identified eight potential parenting styles unique to Latinos.

Hispanic Families

Hill et al. (2003) studied 344 economically disadvantaged Mexican-American and European-American parents. The study shed light regarding parenting cultural implications and acculturation. In Spanish-speaking households, the combination of hostile control and acceptance was not unusual, which supported Hill’s et al. (2003) theory of *familismo* as a mediating factor. Increased warmth and acceptance protected children against the risk of negative effects from hostile control. The researchers showed that in the presence of high levels of warmth and nurturance the use of spanking did not have a negative psychological effect. Hill et al. (2003) confirmed the benefits of positive parenting on children’s externalized and internalized behaviors. Parents with high stress and hostility had children with high stress and hostility as well. Parents with low hostility, consistent parenting, and showed acceptance toward their children were less likely to have children with ODD and CD.

Kulis, Marsiglia, and Nagoshi, (2010) studied positive and negative gender roles and internalized versus externalized behaviors, such as depression and substance abuse. Positive gender roles were operationally defined as assertive masculinity (i.e., *Caballerismo*) and affective femininity (i.e., *Hembrismo*). Negative gender roles were defined as aggressive masculinity (i.e., *machismo*) and submissive femininity (i.e., *Marianismo*). Participants were Mexican-American adolescents ages 13–18. There was significant correlation between negative gender roles and internalizing and externalizing problem behavior. Coincidentally, negative gender roles such as aggressive masculinity was a major risk-factor for peer substance use amongst both males and females. Submissive femininity was a risk factor for female alcohol use, but was almost completely mediated by internalized and externalized problems. In contrast, assertive masculinity indicated lower male alcohol use, and was not mediated by internalized nor externalized problems.

Ojeda and Liang (2014) examined coping strategies for bicultural stress, ethnic identity, *machismo*, and *caballerismo*. The participants were Mexican-American adolescent males. The researchers maintained that bicultural stress was correlated to coping through behavioral disengagement, use of humor, and religious practices. Participants with firm ethnic identity showed better coping mechanisms without the use of substance abuse to cope. Furthermore, *caballerismo* showed successful coping strategies, such as reframing, planning, and use of humor.

Manongdo and Ramirez Garcia (2007) found that Mexican-American adolescents with supportive maternal parenting was linked to less externalized behaviors amongst

adolescent females, but not amongst males. Instead, hostile maternal control was linked to depression among adolescent males. The researchers concluded that gender differences to the traditional cultural gender roles described by *machismo* and *marianismo*, whereby males were expected to be dominant and independent and females were reared to be submissive and take-on more family household duties. Thus, parent-child quality of relationship may buffer or increase the likelihood of future risk-taking behaviors.

Child's perceptions of parental involvement can impact the potential of risk-taking behavior (Aunula & Nurmi, 2005). As in any culture, there are families who parent with low levels of attachment marked by less affection and high levels of hostility; and there are families who parent with high levels of attachment marked with affection and low levels of hostility. My literature review supported the notion that Hispanic households often utilize affectionate authoritative parenting while children are within early development, but switch to authoritarian and uninvolved parenting as children become more challenging in adolescence. The combination of occasional loving gestures such as a hug and kiss to greet and hostile control (i.e., yelling & spanking) create mixed emotions for adolescence who are developing affect regulation, which may facilitate the development of ODD and CD (Hill et al., 2003).

Summary

In summary, I discussed social learning theory and parenting theory as a theoretical basis for this study. The theoretical foundation allows for interpretation in the study whereby people learn from what they see and experience in their lives via

observational learning. Baumrind's (1967) four parenting styles were discussed in length. Authoritative parenting style often result in positive behavioral results; children and adolescents feel valued and grow a sense of responsibility. Conversely, authoritarian parenting style is demanding and controlling; rules are set but reasoning for the rules are not always explained. This type of parenting technique is often related to adolescent behavioral problems, specifically CD. This literature review drew a relationship between parenting style and CD; however, a deeper area of interest blossomed when Hispanic cultural influences are also taken into consideration as a facilitating factor. Hispanic adolescents are often be reared within gender roles parameters, punitive styles that include spanking, and maternal nurturance (Kulis et al. 2010; Manongdo & Ramirez Garcia, 2007) that may or may not create teenage confusion and frustration during adolescent development. There is evidence that cultural awareness is vital to understanding the link between parenting styles and CD. The gap in literary knowledge supported this study, which used the MPQ to measure parenting styles and the BARSMA-II to measure Hispanic cultural influences. In turn, the ADS-IV measured CD. A binary logistic regression was used to test the relationship between the variables. The findings increased understanding of the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic culture, and CD.

Chapter 3 discussed the research strategy developed to study the variables of interest. It included the research design and rationale as to why this was the best methodology to examine the research question. I discussed the target population,

procedures, and instruments selected. There is a detailed discussion on how data were collected and analyzed, and how I continually abided by ethical considerations.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The Hispanic population in America continues to grow daily (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2014). Adolescents with CD are also on the rise (CDC, 2014). The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD. This study was a response to the lack of research regarding parenting styles amongst Hispanics and how parenting may contribute to the development of CD. My goal was to learn the likely outcomes of parenting styles and how cultural practices may or may not facilitate their desired outcomes.

In this chapter, I discussed the research design and rationale for development. I also discussed the methodology in terms of target population, sampling, procedures, and data collection. Then, I reviewed the instrumentation and operationalization of constructs. Lastly, I addressed my intent to analyze data using SPSS and threats to validity.

Research Design and Rationale

Quantitative research follows a standard format with a hypothesis and empirical strategies to prove or disprove the hypothesis. I developed a quantitative, correlational research design to determine if there was a relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD. Correlational research designs cannot prove cause and effect. Therefore, I focused on the relationship and extrapolated data. For example, a positive correlation would show an increase in one variable to be associated with an increase in another. Likewise, the variables in this study were not manipulated, which helped facilitate the study in a timely manner and without incurring much cost. This

design choice is also accepted and proven amongst the field of psychology to recognize trends and patterns in data, such as those sought in the research, and to advance knowledge. The design strength lies in its ability to investigate naturally occurring variables that would otherwise be unethical to examine experimentally.

Methodology

Population

As stated, Hispanics represent the fastest growing ethnic minority in the United States. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2014), the Hispanic population in Texas is about 38.6%, and in Starr County, Texas at 95.8%. This understudied population in Starr County is estimated at 63,795. Starr County is nestled in deep, south Texas, near the Mexican border. Furthermore, the culture amongst residents is a unique blend of American and Mexican values. This study sample included 85 Hispanic adults from Starr County, Texas, who are parents of at least one adolescent child. The sample was selected from parents with adolescents receiving juvenile probation services. I surveyed parents regarding their parenting style, Hispanic cultural influences, and symptoms of CD in their adolescent child.

Sampling and Procedures

Although there are many different methods to gather data, the sampling technique is a critical component because it affects a study's generalizability. The sampling technique in this study was a convenience sample. Convenience sampling is a method of drawing data by selecting people due to their availability and accessibility. The necessary number of participants was calculated using G*Power 3 (Faul, Erdfelder,

Buchner, & Lang, 2007), which has been shown to be reliable for correlations and logistic regressions. This study required at least 85 participants, using a significance level of alpha 0.05, a desired statistical power of .95, an effect size $f(V)$ of 0.3, an odds ratio of 2.3, and a one-tail significance. I wanted to show that some variables being investigated may be correlated. The effect size would help assess how much difference there was between groups or how strong the relationship was between variables. I chose an effect size of 0.3 versus a higher effect size, such as 0.5, because it adequately assessed the magnitude or statistical power of the findings that occurred in this research. If I had chosen a more stringent effect size, such as 0.5, I would need more participants and the population in my area does not reflect a population that size. An effect size of .03 adequately reflected the community population, and was not too stringent nor too loose, that the study would lose validity. Furthermore, there were two inclusion criteria for the sample:

- The participants in the study were Hispanic parents residing in Starr County, Texas.
- The parent had at least one adolescent, between the ages of 12–17 years.

The exclusion criteria were parents with a child younger than 12 years or older than 18 years, and ethnicities other than Hispanics.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

First, I contacted the juvenile probation chief officer to discuss the possibility of conducting the research amongst parents. The juvenile probation chief officer was completely supportive of the research, as it would provide insight and knowledge in the

field. The chief officer verbally agreed to assist by inviting parents via an informational flyer to participate in a study to examine the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD.

Any parent participant, either mother or father, who was interested in participating, was invited to a parent research meeting. The research meeting was held in a large, welcoming room at the Starr County Courthouse. I selected this location to help mediate the discomfort of having a meeting at the probation office, where parents and juveniles may have been guarded. The conference room was large enough to provide adequate space between parents for privacy concerns. The research meeting was structured, providing consent forms, in English or in Spanish. Consent forms included contact information in case parents had any questions about the study following participation. Each participant was informed that they would be provided with surveys that would take approximately 15–30 minutes to complete. Any participant could end participation at any time without repercussions. All information collected would remain confidential and would not include any identifiable information. Then, I provided participants with an envelope containing the surveys to complete. Participants were asked if they wanted to fill the surveys out themselves or have the surveys read aloud item-by-item. All 85 participants opted to have the items read aloud by me, whereby they could follow along at their seat, discretely, and confidentially indicate their response. Once the surveys were completed, the participants were instructed to place the surveys back inside the envelope. All surveys were collected at the end of the meeting and placed in a box. Then, a debriefing form was provided to each participant thanking them for their time

and explaining the study's purpose again. The debriefing form included information on where to seek emotional assistance, if needed. Additionally, my contact information was made available with the opportunity to get a copy of the study results, if desired, after it is finalized. A summary of the results, once finalized, will be made available at the juvenile detention office.

Because the target number of participants was not achieved after the first meeting, a second informational meeting was offered to achieve the desired target number. I followed the same procedures and administration format as the first meeting.

Once the surveys were scored, the data were separated to form two categorical groups: adolescents who scored with CD on the ADS-IV and adolescents who scored too low to meet CD criteria. Parenting styles on the MPQ were categorized into four nominal groups: Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent-Permissive, and Uninvolved. Hispanic cultural influence were calculated on the BARSMA-II continuous Mexican Orientation Scale. All data were secured in a locked cabinet within my office. I am the only one who has access to the data.

Instruments

The instruments and materials used for the research were cost-friendly and effective. Permission to use the MPQ was provided by Prof. Linda Halgunseth (2016), Department of Human Development and Family Studies at Pennsylvania State University and Prof. Jean Ispa (2016) at the University of Missouri. The written permission is on file with the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB). Permission to use the BARSMA-II was provided by Prof. I. Cuellar (2004), who is an Assistant Professor of

Psychology in the Department of Psychology and Anthropology at the University of Texas-Rio Grande Valley. Permission to use and to translate the ADS-IV into a Spanish version was provided by Prof. Daniel Waschbush and Prof. Sandra Sparkes (2003), who are both with the Department of Psychology at Dalhousie University at Nova Scotia, Canada. Furthermore, copies of the permission to use the MPQ (Halgunseth & Ispa, 2012), BARSMA-II (Cuellar, 2004), and ADS-IV (Waschbush & Sparkes, 2003) are provided in Appendix A, B, and C, respectively.

Mexican Parenting Questionnaire (MPQ)

The MPQ is a self-report survey that was used to measure warmth, monitoring, and discipline (Halgunseth & Ispa, 2012). The three models were found to be a good fit by using confirmatory factor analyses and respecification procedures. The original construction of the survey consisted of 14-items developed based on semi-structured qualitative interviews with 10 Mexican immigrant mothers with children ages six through ten years-old, and later refined in focus groups and a larger sample of 168 participants. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for warmth was .66, for monitoring was .70, for physical discipline was .69 and for verbal discipline was .40. Parenting subscales were correlated to maternal acculturation, depression, and income. Maternal scolding was significantly and positively correlated with child attention problems ($r = .20, p < .05$). Subscales consist of moderate levels of internal consistency and predict several child behaviors. Respondents rate each item on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 'I strongly disagree' to 5 'I strongly agree.' Thus, the 14-item survey is scored between one and five points each, resulting in a total score ranging from 14–70 points with higher scores reflecting higher

levels of warmth, monitoring, and discipline. An example item is, “Mothers should spank their children when they misbehave.” I analyzed the responses to categorize each survey into one of the four parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive-indulgent, and uninvolved (Halgunseth & Ispa, 2012).

Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (BARSMA-II)

The BARSMA-II (Cuéllar, 2004) is a 12-item scale containing six items from the AOS (Anglo Oriented Scale) of the original ARSMA-II and six items from the MOS (Mexican Oriented Scale). For the sake of keeping this study’s alignment with Hispanic cultural influences, I focused on the results of the MOS. The brevity of this scale and English-Spanish versions also made it advantageous. Additionally, the instrument has been normed on adolescents and could be scored either linearly or orthogonally. Responses were made on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 6 (almost always/extremely often). I selected to provide both English and Spanish forms. Factor analysis supported the two-scale structure and Cronbach's alpha were .91 on the MOS with 2,422 Latino adolescents (Cuéllar, 2004). Bauman (2005) investigated the reliability and validity of the BARSMA-II using two samples of Mexican American children. For the combined samples, the scoring methods were significantly correlated with adequate levels of reliability and validity ($r = .51, p < .01$) (Cuéllar, 2004).

Assessment of Disruptive Symptoms-DSM-IV Version (ADS-IV)

The ADS-IV (Waschbush & Sparkes, 2003) was developed to assess disruptive behavioral symptoms, such as attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD),

oppositional defiance disorder (ODD), and CD in children, both continuously and categorically. Additionally, ADS-IV assesses for level of impairment. The instrument is designed into 57 items that coincide with the diagnostic symptoms and fit into a rating scale format. Each item is rated on a 0 to 4 Likert scale. For ADHD and ODD items, raters evaluate how the adolescent compares to others (i.e., severity of symptoms). Respondents are given the following options: 'much less than other children (0), 'less than other children' (1), 'same as other children' (2), 'more than other children' (3), and 'much more than other children' (4). For the CD items, raters evaluate the frequency of symptoms over the past 12 months. Respondents are given the following options: 'never' (0), 'once' (1), 'monthly (2), 'weekly' (3), and 'daily (4) or writing 'DK' for any item they do not know or do not want to answer. Responses of 'DK' are eliminated from the scoring.

Parents in this study were given all items, including ADHD, ODD, and CD, due to overlapping symptoms. Parents rated problems at home, school, or other places. Lower scores were interpreted to mean that the teen presents less symptoms in comparison to his or her peers. High scores were interpreted to mean that the teen presents more symptoms than his or her peers. Responses of 'DK' were eliminated from the data set to avoid any skewing. Symptoms are calculated by summing any items rated with a 3 or 4. Internal consistency estimates (alpha coefficients) were at or above .92. ADS-IV reliability and validity was assessed using Pearson correlations calculated between three subscales: ADHD-inatt, ADHD-hypimp, ODD/CD. The correlations were significant at $p < .05$ (Waschbush & Sparkes, 2003).

Data Collection and Analysis

All paper and electronic data was coded and does not include any identifying information. During the interpretation of the data, my goal was to determine if there was a correlation between parenting styles, Hispanic culture and CD: The following research question guided the study:

RQ1: What is the relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents?

H_01 : There is no relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents.

H_{a1} : There is a relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents.

The IVs were parenting styles and Hispanic cultural influences amongst parents with adolescents. The DV was CD. Data analysis began after gathering the data from the sample. Within the sample population, the MPQ (Halgunseth & Ispa, 2012) was used to collect data on parenting styles, and the BARSMA-II (Cuellar, 2004) was used to collect data on Hispanic cultural influences. The ADS-IV (Waschbusch & Sparkes, 2003) was used to assess symptoms of CD versus nonCD. Data collected was analyzed using the IBM Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS, 2015) Software. This software was selected due to its world-wide acceptance, validity, reliability, and systemic presentation results. Due to one of the IV's being continuous (MPQ) and the other being categorical (ADS-IV), the DV being dichotomous (CD), and the model being one of predicting,

parenting styles were compared and coded to run a logistic regression for statistical analysis. A binary logistic regression was used to examine the relationship between the parenting styles (IV), Hispanic cultural influences (IV), and CD (DV) to gain our understanding of parenting techniques amongst Hispanic families.

Threats to Validity

Threats to internal validity were minimal. One threat was that parent participants may not have been honest in their reporting of parenting style. At times, participants may have reported according to what they believed was an acceptable or desirable response. The researcher attempted to overcome this threat to validity by providing an informed consent. During informed consent, the research took time to explain how confidentiality would be maintained and the importance of their honesty in answering the questions. This gesture was an attempt to help the participant feel comfortable and secure in answering honestly.

Ethical Procedures

The APA Code of Ethics (2010) guidelines were used in planning this study. The research committee and Walden University advocate and abide by APA ethical principles: to maintain beneficence, non-maleficence, fidelity, responsibility, to promote integrity and justice; and to show respect for people's rights and dignity. Furthermore, I used language that is acceptable by all sexual orientations, race, ethnicity, gender, persons with disability, and age. Informed consent was secured before starting any data gathering. Participation was strictly voluntary and participants could discontinued at any time. No one was provided compensation for their time. Participants were Hispanic

parents; thus, culturally sensitive considerations was taken into account. Both English and Spanish consent forms were provided. Both English and Spanish assessment instruments were also made available. All data were kept confidential. I protected the anonymity of participants by not having any names and/or identifiable information from the respondents on the questionnaires. Participants were protected from physical and psychological harm by adhering to ADA (American Disability Act) regulations for public buildings. Approval from the Walden University IRB was obtained before beginning the study. The details of the research design are released in this dissertation so readers can determine the credibility of the study themselves.

Summary

I used a quantitative approach to conduct the study. Parenting style and Hispanic cultural influences were the IVs and CD was the DV. The study focused on assessing the relationship of parenting style, Hispanic culture, and CD. Correlations were used to examine the relationship between the IVs and the DV. Hispanic parents with adolescents participated in the study. Two groups were formed: teens with CD versus teens without CD. The sample of 85 parent participants were selected from a local juvenile detention center. Participation were strictly voluntary. Participants were administered the MPQ, BARSMA-II, and ADS-IV to collect data regarding preferred parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD symptoms. The data were analyzed using SPSS. Threats to validity of the study involved assumptions made and respondent honesty. Considerations were made in order to ensure ethical practices and to maintain the APA Code of Ethics

(2010). This proposal was presented to the Walden IRB for approval before any research data gathering was attempted. The results are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD. The analysis was operationalized with the use of the following research question, null hypotheses, and alternative hypothesis below:

RQ1: What is the relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents?

H_01 : There is no relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents.

H_{a1} : There is a relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents.

I studied the individual correlations between the IVs, parenting style, and Hispanic cultural influence, as measured by the MPQ and BARSMA-II, respectively, and the DV, CD, as measured by the ADS-IV. The results were quantitatively analyzed using a binary logistic regression. This chapter provides the outcomes of the research, including the data analysis, results, and summary.

Data Collection

Time Frame and Recruitment

Within 1 month, 85 Hispanic parents of adolescents receiving juvenile probation services participated in this study. Parents received a flyer at the juvenile office, inviting them to participate in a research-focused meeting to be held on a scheduled date. Approximately 21 parents participated in the first meeting. Another meeting was held to

recruit an additional 64 parents. Challenges encountered were minimal but, as anticipated in Chapter 3, were literacy related. For example, although all parents could read in either English or Spanish, all of them preferred that I read through each item one at a time. Thus, each item was read aloud in English and then translated to Spanish, allowing each parent to privately indicate their answer at their seat until the surveys were completed.

Baseline Descriptives and Demographics

All of the participants were identified as parents who had at least one adolescent, ages 12–17, receiving juvenile probation services in Starr County, Texas. Starr County is nestled in deep, South Texas, near the Mexican border. A demographic assessment was not provided to maintain anonymity amongst a small, rural population. The sample population appeared to be a predominantly Hispanic, thus representative of the 95.8% Hispanic population in Starr County (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014). Although the Hispanic population is the fastest growing ethnic minority in the United States and almost 96% of the population in Starr County, the documented Hispanic population in Texas is only 38.6%. It should also be noted that the culture amongst local residents is a unique blend of American and Mexican traditions.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

My initial data analysis focused on descriptive statistics. The descriptive information was used to summarize collected data on parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD. Summary statistics were calculated for the continuous, scaled

variable, Hispanic cultural influence (BARSMA-II). Frequencies and percentages were calculated for each parenting style (MPQ) and CD (ADS-IV), which were categorized as nominal variables.

The data were scored individually and entered into IBM SPSS Version 24.

According to Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang (2013), power analysis for binary logistic regression using G*Power, can be used to determine the sample size needed to provide sufficient respondents. Using this method, the data were collected from a sample size of 85 participants.

The hypothesis was analyzed using a binary logistic regression using the groups behavior (i.e., CD, non-CD), Hispanic cultural influence (i.e., Hispanic MOS), and parenting style (i.e., authoritarian, authoritative, permissive-indulgent, uninvolved). This type of analysis is used to examine the relationship between one or more independent variables and a dichotomous dependent variable. The purpose of the analysis is to use the IVs to estimate the probability that a case is a member of one group versus the other (e.g., whether CD or non-CD). The binary logistic regression creates a linear combination of all the IVs to predict the logistic odds of the DV.

The MPQ was designed to gather descriptive data on parenting related to the use of warmth, monitoring, and discipline, including both verbal and physical punishment (Halgunseth & Ispa, 2012). Forty-nine parents (58%) scored high in warmth and monitoring and were categorized as authoritative. It should be noted that although their scores indicated authoritative qualities, there was a presence in the occasional use of authoritarian techniques, such as physical and verbal punishment. Twenty-four (28%)

parents scored high in discipline and were categorized as Authoritarian due to their use of physical punishment. Twelve (14%) parents scored high in warmth, but low in monitoring were categorized as permissive-indulgent. Parents who scored low in all areas were categorized as uninvolved; none (0%) of the participants were categorized as uninvolved.

The ADS-IV (Waschbush & Sparkes, 2003) was designed to assess disruptive behavioral symptoms, such as CD and non-CD (i.e., ADHD) using diagnostic symptoms to fit into a four-point Likert rating scale. There were a number of participants that reported their adolescents to have behavioral symptoms but did not meet criteria to fall into one of the categories. This group was categorized as nonCD and was likely adolescents who were being serviced by the SCJPO due to substance abuse issues, which the ADS-IV did not assess for. The most frequently indicated category of behavior was nonCD ($n = 43$, 51%). The most frequently indicated category of parenting style was authoritative ($n = 49$, 58%). Frequencies and percentages are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Frequency Table for Behavior and Parenting Style

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Behavior		
CD	42	49.41
Non-CD	43	50.59
Parenting Style		
Authoritarian	24	28.24
Authoritative	49	57.65
Permissive-Indulgent	12	14.12

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100%.

The results for Hispanic MOS as measured by the BARSMA revealed a mean of 3.52 ($SD = 1.08$, $SE_M = 0.12$, $Min = 2.16$, $Max = 6.00$). Skewness and kurtosis were also calculated (see Table 2). The variable is considered to be asymmetrical about its mean when the skewness is greater than 2 in absolute value. The mean was greater than 2 showing that parent responses regarding their cultural practices were evenly distributed. When the kurtosis is greater than or equal to 3, then the variable's distribution is markedly different than a normal distribution in its tendency to produce outliers (Westfall & Henning, 2013). In this case, the even distribution did not show kurtosis variability in responses; thus, there was an even distribution in parental responses regarding their cultural practices.

Table 2

Hispanic Cultural Influence: MOS Variable

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>SE_M</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
HispanicMOS	3.52	1.08	85	0.12	0.40	-1.10

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100%.

Normality was evaluated using a Q-Q scatterplot. The Q-Q scatterplot compared the distribution of the residuals with a normal distribution. The solid line in the Q-Q scatterplot represented the theoretical quantiles of a normal distribution. Normality can be assumed, because the points formed a relatively straight line. The Q-Q scatterplot for normality confirms that parental responses regarding Hispanic cultural influences are evenly distributed between parents with heavy Mexican American practices and acculturated practices. These findings are presented in Figure 1.

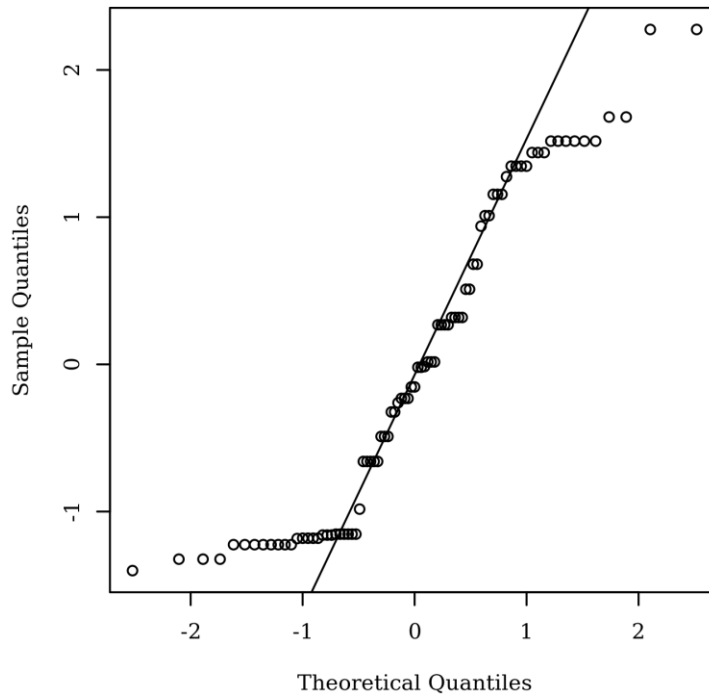


Figure 1. Q-Q scatterplot testing normality

Homoscedasticity was evaluated by plotting the residuals against the predicted values. The assumption that there were minimal to no statistical errors in the distribution is met because the points appear randomly distributed with a mean of zero and no apparent curvature. Figure 2 presents a scatterplot of predicted values and model residuals.

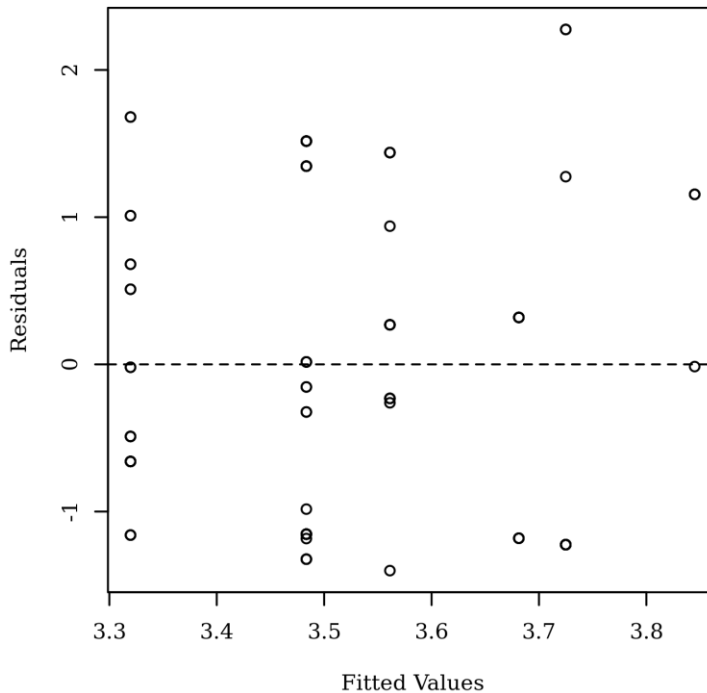


Figure 2. Residuals scatterplot testing homoscedasticity

According to Field (2009), residuals are an observable estimate of the unobservable statistical error. To identify influential points, residuals were calculated and the absolute values were plotted against the observation numbers. Residuals are calculated by dividing the model residuals by the estimated residual standard deviation. An observation with a residual greater than 3.19 in absolute value, the .999 quartile of a t distribution with 84 degrees of freedom, was considered to have significant influence on the results of the model. None of the observations scored greater than 3.19. Figure 3 presents the lack of statistical errors, such as residuals. Observation numbers are specified next to each point with a residual greater than three.

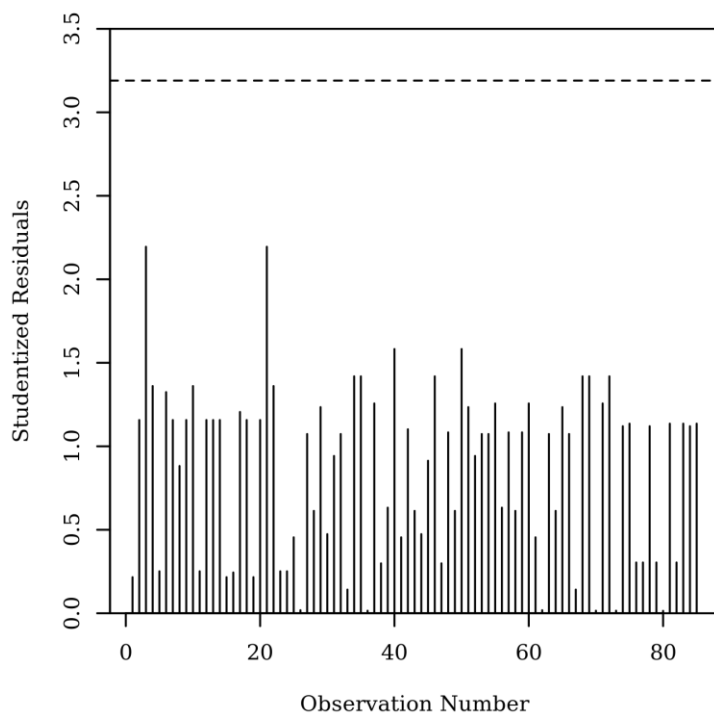


Figure 3. Residuals plot for outlier detection.

Assumptions

Statistical assumptions were considered for correlations, ANOVA, and binary logistic regression analysis. Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumptions of univariate normal distribution were established. Then, the homoscedasticity of residuals, or rather the pairs of variables, were linearly related and had a normal bivariate distribution. I analyzed the assumptions using histograms, scatterplots, and review of outliers.

Findings

I conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine whether there were significant differences in Hispanic MOS by behavior and parenting style. The results of

the ANOVA were not significant, $F(3, 81) = 0.56, p = .644$, indicating that the differences in Hispanic MOS among the types of behavior and parenting style were all similar (Table 3). The main effect, behavior was not significant at the 95% confidence level, $F(1, 81) = 0.46, p = .498$, indicating there were no significant differences of Hispanic MOS by behavior. The main effect, parenting style was not significant at the 95% confidence level, $F(2, 81) = 0.72, p = .491$, indicating there were no significant differences of Hispanic MOS by parenting styles. The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 4.

Table 3

Analysis of Variance Table for Hispanic MOS by Behavior and Parenting Style

Term	SS	df	F	p	η_p^2
Behavior	0.55	1	0.46	.498	0.01
Parenting Style	1.71	2	0.72	.491	0.02
Residuals	96.52	81			

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Sample Size for Hispanic MOS by Behavior and Parenting Style

Combination	M	SD	n
CD : Authoritarian	3.87	0.83	13
Non-CD : Authoritarian	3.36	1.5	11
CD : Authoritative	3.29	0.9	21
Non-CD : Authoritative	3.5	1.17	28
CD : Permissive-Indulgent	3.25	0.8	8
Non-CD : Permissive-Indulgent	4.71	0.58	4

Note. - indicate sample size was too small to calculate statistic.

There were no significant effects in the model. As a result, posthoc comparisons were not conducted.

Binary Logistic Regression

A binary logistic regression was conducted to examine whether Hispanic MOS, authoritarian versus authoritative, and permissive versus authoritative parenting styles had a significant effect on the odds of observing the nonCD category of behavior. The reference category for behavior was CD. Prior to the analysis, the assumption of absence of predictor variables being too closely related, or rather multicollinearity, was examined.

Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were calculated to identify any presence of assumptions between predictors (Stevens, 2009). High VIFs indicate increased effects of assumptions. VIFs greater than five are cause for concern, whereas VIFs of 10 should be considered the maximum upper limit (Menard, 2009). All predictors in the regression model have VIFs less than 10 and well beneath the level of concern. Table 5 presents the VIF for each predictor in the model.

Table 5

Variance Inflation Factors for Hispanic MOS, Authoritarian Vs Authoritative, and Permissive Vs Authoritative

Variable	VIF
Hispanic MOS	1.02
Authoritarian Vs Authoritative	1.08
Permissive Vs Authoritative	1.08

The overall model was not significant, $\chi^2(3) = 3.00, p = .391$, suggesting that Hispanic MOS, authoritarian versus authoritative, and permissive versus authoritative parenting styles did not have a significant effect on the odds of observing the nonCD category of behavior. According to Louviere, Hensher, and Swait (2000), McFadden's R-squared calculated can examine the model fit, where values greater than .2 are indicative of models with excellent fit. The McFadden R-squared value calculated for this model

was 0.03. Since the overall model was not significant, the individual predictors were not examined further. Table 6 summarizes the results of the regression model.

Table 6

Logistic Regression Results with Hispanic MOS, Authoritarian Vs Authoritative, and Permissive Vs Authoritative Predicting Behavior

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	<i>OR</i>
(Intercept)	-0.20	0.76	0.07	.791	
Hispanic MOS	0.14	0.21	0.48	.488	1.15
Authoritarian Vs Authoritative	-0.49	0.51	0.94	.333	0.61
Permissive Vs Authoritative	-1.03	0.68	2.28	.131	0.36

Note. $\chi^2(3) = 3.00$, $p = .391$, McFadden $R^2 = 0.03$.

Summary

In this chapter, I described the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influence, and CD for Hispanic adolescents in South Texas. A sample of 85 parents, as determined by G*Power to be an appropriate sample size, were surveyed during a one-month period.

The data from the BARSMA-II did not reveal any skewedness. Parental responses regarding their cultural practices were evenly distributed amongst the MOS. The results from the MPQ were skewed toward Authoritative (57%). The data from the ADS-IV showed that parenting style was not a significant predictor of behavior. Therefore, the null hypotheses was accurate. There is no relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusion, and Recommendations

My goal for this study was to examine the relationship between parenting styles, Hispanic cultural influence in South Texas, and CD, as defined by the DSM-5 (APA, 2013). I conducted the study to fill in the gap of existing research regarding this population. Researchers had indicated that CD was caused by a combination of environmental, genetic, psychological, and social factors (Burke, Loeber, & Birmaher, 2002). Risk factors for CD include parental substance abuse, psychiatric disorder(s), domestic violence, child abuse and neglect, and exposure to antisocial behavior of caregiver (Fontes, 2002; Murray & Farrington, 2010; Leidy et al, 2010). CD is also overrepresented in lower socioeconomic groups (Ceballos & Bratton, 2010). Another common risk factor appeared to be inconsistent parental availability and discipline (Kerr et al., 2003). Thus, children with CD may not experience consistency between their behavior and its consequences (Garza, Kinsworthy, & Watts, 2009). Despite the high occurrence, the majority of research into CD was conducted with Caucasian-American participants. Hence, a research gap existed concerning CD amongst Hispanic adolescents. I found no relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents.

Interpretation of the Findings

The results from my study indicated that there is no relationship between CD and parenting and Hispanic culture. This study did not show an even distribution between parenting styles; the majority of parents (58%) indicated using an authoritative parenting style. Walton and Flouri (2010) found that lack of parental warmth predicted CD. I

found that many of my participants used warmth and responsiveness, but also used authoritarian approaches, such as verbal and physical punishment, as needed. Much like Rodriguez et al. (2009), I found that Hispanics may actually have an eclectic blend of parenting styles that do not clearly fall into the Baumrind's (1967) traditional styles. Rodriguez et al. (2009) identified eight potential parenting styles with overlapping characteristics, such as showing authoritative warmth in hugs, but also the occasional use of authoritative punishing by spanking.

Behavior variables, such as CD versus non-CD, showed an even distribution. According to Hill et al. (2003), parents who showed low levels of hostility, were warm and accepting, and consistent with parenting, had children who were less likely to develop ODD and CD. Considering this information and that my participants were skewed toward an authoritative parenting style, I could have inferred that the sample would result low in CD. However, the population was recruited from a juvenile probation office where adolescents are serviced for CD-related behaviors. Thus, this may have countered the possibility of low numbers in the targeted population. Frick and Nigg (2012) showed how CD predisposed persons to deviance and violence. Furthermore, these individuals developed educational, social, occupation, physical, and legal issues (Odgers et al., 2008). Although the surveyed participants were parents, their adolescents were receiving juvenile services that incorporated educational and social services, confirming their need for intervention.

Parental responses regarding their cultural practices were also evenly distributed in the MOS. According to Manongdo and Ramirez Garcia (2007), supportive Mexican-

American mothers have adolescents with less externalized behaviors by their daughters, but not their sons. Instead, hostile maternal control was linked to adolescent male depression. Kulis et al. (2010) presented the internalized and externalized results of gender roles whereas assertive masculinity (i.e., *caballerismo*) and affective femininity (i.e., *hembrismo*) resulted in positive social behavior, but aggressive masculinity (i.e., *machismo*) and submissive femininity (i.e., *marianismo*) resulted in negative social consequential behavior. Ojeda and Liang (2014) showed that Mexican-Americans often cope with bicultural stress and ethnic identities, such as *Caballerismo* and *Machismo* with the use of behavior disengagement and use of humor. This study supported the notion of cultural influences with an even distribution in cultural practices.

However, when the binary logistic regression analysis was conducted, the results showed that parenting style does not predict behavior such as CD. Hence, this study did not find a relationship among Hispanic cultural influences, parenting styles, and CD in Hispanic adolescents.

Limitations of the Study

Correlational research does not establish definitive cause-and-effect. Although past research has presented evidence regarding certain parenting styles producing certain behavioral outcomes, this study did not take into consideration child temperament and personality. Secondly, the findings may not generalize to all Hispanics, because the data only represents a segment of Hispanics in South Texas. Additionally, family households differed (e.g., single-moms, single-dads, or both parents), creating unique blends of parenting style, especially if one parent adhered to one style and the other adhered to

another. The sample was collected from a juvenile probation office, where almost half scored high for CD, which turned out to be a strength instead of a limitation in the study. The data were retrieved from a parent, who may have answered depending on what they believed was the correct response rather than their true parenting practices. Despite this possibility, I took extra care in explaining the importance of honesty in the surveys and parents seemed relaxed during the research meetings.

Recommendations

Research on Hispanic families should be redesigned and re-examined by considering eclectic blends of overlapping parenting strategies that may not fall neatly into the traditional Baumrind (1967) styles. There is a possibility that Hispanic culture uses an eclectic variation of parenting style that uses both physical discipline (authoritarian) and warmth (authoritative). The MPQ provides an excellent tool to help sift through these unique strategies. By redesigning and re-examining parenting strategies, perhaps Rodriguez et al.'s (2009) eight potential parenting styles with overlapping characteristics can be analyzed and confirmed.

Researchers may also consider duplicating this study or a similar study in a general population of parents from locations such as schools, clinics, or community youth programs, instead of at a juvenile probation office. This could likely increase generalization of results. Additionally, researchers should also evaluate differences in styles and expectations amongst fathers and mothers; there may be a difference in expectations due to gender roles (Rodriguez, et al, 2009; Ojeda & Liang, 2014).

Implications

This study did not support the hypothesis, but further research on parenting practices among Hispanics could shed light on an unknown blended variation of parenting that is unique to Hispanics. As Americans continue to see behavioral problems in schools, homes, and violence in communities, it becomes imperative to understand how developmental experiences may have attributed to behavioral deviance. Hispanics seem to present eclectic parenting blended from authoritarian style (e.g., with use of physical punishment, *la chancla*) and authoritative style (e.g., observable warm hugs and kisses; Rodriguez, et al., 2009). Much like Rodriguez et al.'s study (2009), this study included many authoritative parents, who occasionally used verbal and physical discipline. As a result, Baumrind's (1967) parenting styles do not reflect the mixed practice that may be a phenomenon unique to Hispanics and/or Latinos.

Impact on Social Change

Although this study did not confirm a relationship between parenting style, Hispanic cultural influence, and CD, it may have stumbled upon a far more interesting concept of a new parenting style. It is important to gain a better understanding of intimate environments such as households that impact the quality of parenting, and consequently child wellness and development. Cultural influences are passed down from one generation to the next, and may actually define social environment and a unique parenting styles (Hill et al., 2003). Further research in the area of parenting amongst different cultures could begin to discover eclectic versions of parenting.

Conclusion

This study provided some insight into the relationship amongst parenting style, Hispanic cultural influences, and CD in a sample of 85 parents with an adolescent receiving services at a juvenile center in South Texas. Parenting styles, as measured with the MPQ (Halgunseth & Ispa, 2012), were related to Hispanic cultural influence as measured by the BARSMA-II (Cuellar, 2004) and CD, as measured by the ADS-IV (Waschbush & Sparkes, 2003). The results of the binary logistic regression analysis showed that parenting styles and Hispanic culture did not influence the development of CD.

Parents often want to understand why their children behave the way they do and how to help them choose positive behaviors. By increasing understanding of what leads to deviance and non-deviance, the study increased available information regarding positive parenting and maladaptive behaviors. Preventive factors, such as use of warmth, and intervention of CD by parents and all others who work with adolescents can eventually lead to more productive members of society.

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Appendix A: Instrument Author Permission

Mexican Parenting Questionnaire (MPQ)

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Appendix B: Instrument Author Permission

Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (BARSMA-II)

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Appendix C: Instrument Author Permission

Assessment of Disruptive Symptoms--DSM-IV Version (ADS-IV)

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