

12-15-2012

Gender Differences in Parenting Dimensions and Contraceptive Use at First Sexual Intercourse

Sherelle Cohen

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarsjunction.msstate.edu/td>

Recommended Citation

Cohen, Sherelle, "Gender Differences in Parenting Dimensions and Contraceptive Use at First Sexual Intercourse" (2012). *Theses and Dissertations*. 2378.
<https://scholarsjunction.msstate.edu/td/2378>

This Graduate Thesis - Open Access is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses and Dissertations at Scholars Junction. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Scholars Junction. For more information, please contact sct@library.msstate.edu.

Gender Differences in Parenting Dimensions and Contraceptive Use at First Sexual Intercourse

Gender differences in parenting dimensions and contraceptive use at first sexual
intercourse

By

Sherelle Cohen

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of
Mississippi State University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Science
in Sociology
in the Department of Sociology

Mississippi State, Mississippi

December 2012

Copyright by
Sherelle Cohen
2012

Gender differences in parenting dimensions and contraceptive use at first sexual
intercourse

By

Sherelle Cohen

Approved:

Sarah R. Brauner-Otto
Assistant Professor of Sociology
(Major Professor)

Kimberly C. Kelly
Assistant Professor of Sociology
(Committee Member)

Yasmiyn Irizarry
Assistant Professor of Sociology
(Committee Member)

Nicole E. Rader
Associate Professor of Sociology
(Graduate Coordinator)

R. Gregory Dunaway
Professor and Interim Dean, College of Arts

Name: Sherelle Cohen

Date of Degree: December 15, 2012

Institution: Mississippi State University

Major Field: Sociology

Major Professor: Sarah R. Brauner-Otto

Title of Study: Gender differences in parenting dimensions and contraceptive use at first sexual intercourse

Pages in Study: 57

Candidate for Degree of Master of Science

This study explores the gender differences in how parents exhibit parenting dimensions (control, monitoring, support and warmth) towards sons and daughters and how those dimensions influence contraceptive use. The data analysis uses the Add Health data and the sample includes 918 adolescents within two-parent homes. This study adds to the existing literature in three ways. First, this study investigates four different parenting dimensions whereas previous research focuses on control and communication. Second, this study looks at how each dimension influences contraceptive use. Third, this study examines how parents exhibit parenting dimensions differently towards sons and daughters and whether each dimension influences contraceptive use differently for sons and daughters. The results reveal three significant findings. First, mothers' and fathers' parenting dimensions and the dimensions sons and daughters experience are similar. Second, warmth and support influence contraceptive use among sons and daughters. Third, boys are influenced by parenting dimensions more than girls.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this research to my family and friends.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to acknowledge several people who were instrumental during the process of this research. First and foremost, the author would like to thank her Lord and Savior, whom without him this research could not be possible. I would like to express a great amount of appreciation and thanks to Dr. Brauner-Otto. Thank you for your patience, kind words, time, and cooperation. I would also like to thank Dr. Kimberly Kelly, Dr. Harold Weiss, Dr. Yasmiyn Irizarry, and Dr. Lynne Cossman who have all played a role in the completion of this thesis. I would like to thank my dearest friends Gloria McCaskill, Jotrina Conner, and Chiquita Lee for providing me with encouraging words and listening to my repetitive conversations about this research. Finally, I would like to thank my fellow classmates especially Drew Cannatella, Maggie Bohm, and Lauren Vasquez for providing me with a support system throughout my graduate process and the process of this thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vi
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	1
SOCIALIZATION AND SOCIAL CONTROL THEORIES.....	1
SOCIALIZATION	1
SOCIAL CONTROL THEORY	3
PARENTING.....	4
INTERGENERATIONAL TRANSMISSION OF BELIEFS	5
PARENTING DIMENSIONS	7
PARENTING DIMENSIONS AND ADOLESCENT SEXUAL RISK BEHAVIOR.....	8
PARENTAL CONTROL.....	10
PARENTAL MONITORING.....	11
PARENTAL SUPPORT	13
PARENTAL WARMTH	16
PARENTING DIMENSIONS AND GENDER	18
GENDER SEXUAL NORMS	21
RACE, RELIGION, AND EDUCATION	21
III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	24
DESCRIPTION OF DATA	24
JUSTIFICATION OF PROPOSED DATA.....	24
STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESIS	25
SAMPLE.....	26
MEASURES OF SEXUAL RISK BEHAVIOR.....	26
CONTRACEPTIVE USE DURING SEXUAL INITIATION	27
MEASURES OF PARENTING DIMENSION	27
PARENTAL CONTROL.....	28
PATERNAL AND MATERNAL MONITORING	29

	PATERNAL AND MATERNAL SUPPORT	29
	PATERNAL AND MATERNAL WARMTH.....	30
	CONTROL VARIABLES	30
	PARENTS EDUCATION	30
	AGE	30
	RACE	31
	RELIGION.....	31
IV.	RESULTS	32
	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	32
	LOGISTIC REGRESSION ANALYSIS.....	32
V.	DISCUSSION.....	35
VI.	CONCLUSION.....	40
	REFERENCES	52

LIST OF TABLES

1	Descriptive Statistics: Contraceptive Use, Parenting Dimensions and Control Variables	43
2	Bivariate analysis: contraceptive use at first time had sex and parenting dimensions.....	44
3	Logistic regression models for each parenting dimension separately with control variables (full sample).....	45
4	Logistic regression model of mother’s parenting dimensions and control variables	46
5	Logistic regression model of only paternal dimensions, contraceptive use, and control variables	47
6	Logistic regression model of paired mother and father dimension and control variables	48
7	Logistic regression model of all parenting dimensions and control variables in one model.....	49
8	Logistic regression model for each parenting dimension separately with control variables for boys.....	50
9	Logistic regression model for each parenting dimension separately with control variables for girls	51

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A major focus in sociological literature is the difference in mothers' and fathers' parenting. Sociologists look at the extent of which parents treat their adolescents differently based on the gender of the child (Cheng & Amas, 2008; Concade and Ho 2001; Miller 2002). Gender socialization suggests that parents may treat their sons and daughters differently in an attempt to raise them into gender appropriate individuals. Gendered norms and beliefs influence how parents think they should act as parents and how they should treat their adolescents. (Cheng & Amas, 2008; Dufur & Franklin, 2008; Dufur, Downey, Ainsworth, & Lapray, 2004)

Another focus in sociological literature is adolescent sexual risk behavior. This study defines risky behavior as behavior that places a person's well-being and health at risk. Adolescents are a population at risk of sexually transmitted infections and unwanted pregnancies because they have multiple sex partners, experience early sexual initiation, and frequently do not use contraceptives. Boys often engage in sexual behavior earlier, engage in riskier sexual behavior, and engage in sexual behavior more frequently than girls. Differential treatment could explain why boys engage more frequently in sexual behavior than girls. (Carlson & Knoester, 2011; Cheng & Amas, 2008; Dufur & Franklin, 2008; Dufur et. al. 2004)

In recent years, a growing body of literature has examined the factors associated with parenting dimensions, adolescent sexual behavior, and gender differences in 2 parenting dimension (Concade and Ho 2001; Miller 2002). Parenting dimensions are the tools and tactics parents use as a part of child rearing. Parenting dimensions influence adolescent sexual risk behavior. For example, parental monitoring and supervision influence dating and sexual behaviors among adolescents (Longmore, Manning, & Giordano 2001; Miller 2002). Research has also indicated that parents may relay messages about sexual behavior differently for sons and daughters (Longmore, Manning, & Giordano 2001). Specifically, parents may accept their sons engaging in sexual behavior, while expressing less tolerance for their daughters engaging in sexual behavior (Axinn, Young-DeMarco, and Ro 2011).

Adolescent sexual behavior is dangerous because it is often unprotected putting adolescents at risk of contracting sexually transmitted infections. High sexual risk behavior can also cause lifelong consequences. Social control theorists suggest that parents are central agents in influencing an adolescent's participation in deviant behaviors such as sexual intercourse. Adolescent sexual behavior is often deviant because it initiated earlier than a parent "normally" expects and leads to other problem or deviant behaviors.

Social control theory also implies that adolescents engage in deviant behavior when they do not feel close to their parents. Social control theory suggests the when there are weak or nonexistent social bonds there is a lack of control which causes deviant or problem behaviors. If parents are the primary influence in an adolescent's decision to

engage in sexual risk behaviors, the parenting style they choose to use with girls and boys is a significant matter. The research question of this study asks: How does the parenting style of mothers influence contraceptive use among sons and daughters differently than the parenting styles of fathers? It is necessary to consider a new perspective on the relationship between parenting style, adolescent contraceptive use, and the gender of parents and children.

The literature suggests that parenting styles influence adolescent sexual risk behavior, however, there is little research that focuses on gender differences between mothers and fathers and sons and daughters (Longmore, Manning, & Giordano 2001). It is vital to understand the relationship between gender and parenting dimensions. It is imperative to understand if choice of parenting style explains why boys engage in more sexual risk behaviors than girls. I explore the relationships among gender, parenting, and adolescent contraceptive use.

The objective of this research is to explore the levels of which mothers and father to adopt exhibit parental control, parental monitoring, parental support, and parental warmth and if sons and daughters experience these parenting dimensions differently. This study adds to the existing literature in three ways. First, instead of only focusing on one specific parenting dimension, I focus on four frequently used parenting dimensions. Second, I look at how each parenting dimension influences adolescent sexual risk behavior. Third, I look at the gender differences among mother and fathers in regards to parenting dimensions, as well as gender differences between boys and girls in regards to adolescent sexual risk behavior.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

SOCIALIZATION AND SOCIAL CONTROL THEORIES

A theoretical framework of socialization and social control theories guides this study. Parenting styles serve as mechanisms of socialization and social control influencing adolescents' engagement in sexual behavior. Parenting is a socialization process in the sense that parents have unique socialization goals for their children. Social control and socialization indirectly and directly derives from parenting styles. Parenting styles are a collection of techniques and strategies used for regulating adolescent sexual behavior. Using parenting styles, children's values, beliefs, and ideas about appropriate behaviors come from parents. Social control and socialization theories explain how the interaction between parents and adolescents influence adolescent sexual risk behavior

SOCIALIZATION

Socialization refers to the processes in which individuals gain the ability to operate, function, and navigate within society through social interactions (Baxter, Bylund, Imes, Poutsong, 2009, Coley, Votruba-Drzal, and Schindler 2009, Wilder & Watt, 2002). Socialization is the primary goal of parenting. Parents act as agents in socializing their children into appropriate social beings. Socialization is a multifaceted process of interaction between the child and parent. Socialization is the process through

which individuals attain ideas, principles, standards of conduct, and cultural symbols. Socialization is a reciprocal process that continues throughout the life course. Parents teach children values and behavioral expectations through implicit and explicit actions and messages.

Parents are significant in determining the social context in which children grow and influencing adolescent behavior. While parents are not the only agents of socialization for children, parents provide initial socialization. The relationship between the child and the parent is the most immediate form of socialization. The socialization process includes directives that develop, control, and influence the behavior of children. This is essential to the process of parenting (Baxter, Bylund, Imes, Poutsong, 2009; Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccord, Dittus, Bouris, 2006; Wilder & Watt, 2002). Parenting styles include a collection of cohesive factors including supervision, control, and support. Parental influence on adolescents is complex and studying parenting dimensions and behaviors lead to understanding the elements associated with adolescent outcomes (Baxter, Bylund, Imes, Poutsong, 2009; Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccord, Dittus, Bouris, 2006; Wilder & Watt, 2002)..

Mothers and fathers lean towards different parenting dimensions early with their children. Socialization literature suggests that parents act as central socializing agents for adolescents (Coley, Votruba-Drzal, and Schindler 2009). Parents impose their behaviors, morals, ideals, beliefs, and expectations onto adolescents based on gendered norms (Baxter, Bylund, Imes, Poutsong, 2009; Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccord, Dittus, Bouris, 2006; Wilder & Watt, 2002). Gendered norms influence parents to see their daughters as needing more parental guidance and control than boys in regards to sexual behavior.

These ideas influence parents to hold higher restraints, control tactics, and regulation of girls more than boys. The parenting dimensions parents choose comes from the parents' idea on how girls and boys should behave. Socialization processes then shape the gender appropriate behavior for adolescents (Concade & Ho, 2001; Kapungu, Holmbeck, and Paikoff, 2006).

SOCIAL CONTROL THEORY

Social control theory is a perspective which suggests that deviant behavior comes from nonexistent or weak social constraints (Crockett, Bingham, Chopak, & Vicar, 1996; Miller, McKoy, Olson, & Wallace, 1986).. The idea of social control theory suggests that adolescents will encounter opportunities to engage in deviant behaviors. Parenting is one of the many factors that influence deviant behaviors. The social control parents provide influences whether or not adolescents choose to engage in deviant behaviors. Parents exert control over their children through their parenting styles. The significance of control in the parent-child relationship is consistent in sociological research.

According to research, the level of control parents exert influences an adolescent's decisions about sexual behavior (Crockett, Bingham, Chopak, & Vicar, 1996; Miller, McKoy, Olson, & Wallace, 1986). This idea of social control includes aspects of parenting. Social control theory stresses the necessity of close knit bonds between parents and children. The parenting processes determine the quality and closeness of the parent-child relationship, therefore, suggesting that the social context of parenting influences social control within the parent-child relationship. Explicitly, those adolescents who are close to their parents may feel obligated to refrain from deviant behaviors and act in accordance with their parents non-deviant expectations (Crockett,

Bingham, Chopak, & Vicar, 1996). Adolescents who are not close to their parents may engage in deviant behavior.

PARENTING

Researchers fill the literature on parenting with what's, why's, how's, and where's of parenting: what parenting styles mothers and fathers should use; why are mothers primary caregivers; how should mothers and fathers parent; and where exactly are parenting beliefs derived? The work of Chodorow and the idea of intergenerational transmission are two approaches to the idea of how parenting styles form. Chodorow (1983) referred to the mother, father, son, and daughter relationship in her book "The Reproduction of Mothering". "The Reproduction of Mothering" explains how the mother works as the primary parent to both the son and daughter. The mother also instructs boys and girls on what it means to be a mother or a father. To be a mother means to provide nurturance, emotional, physical, and psychological support, attentiveness, and warmth to a child. To be a father, because the father may not be visible as a primary parent, is to act in opposition to mother.

While this theory has proven validity, critics of Chodorow's theory suggest that Chodorow's theory distorts family's effects on children personalities and behavior (Chodorow, 2002; Jackson, 1989; Kymlicka, 1991; Rossi, 1981). Critics explain that Chodorow's theory fails to explain women's child rearing responsibilities (Chodorow, 2002; Jackson, 1989; Kymlicka, 1991; Rossi, 1981). Chodorow explains that women are involved into a mothering monopoly where mothers are the primary caregivers (Chodorow, 2002; Jackson, 1989; Kymlicka, 1991; Rossi, 1981). Because of this, mothers transmit a nurturing propensity to their daughters and not their sons. However,

studies suggest that there is no evidence that gathers they say that fathers are either not nurturing or less nurturing than mothers (Chodorow, 2002; Jackson, 1989; Kymlicka, 1991; Rossi, 1981).

Chodorow's theory is also based on a very limited sample. In her study, she focused on white middle class mother father families (Chodorow, 2002; Jackson, 1989; Kymlicka, 1991; Rossi, 1981). Within these families mothers were devoted housewives while fathers worked outside the home. Critics have suggested that this study does not prove that all fathers are less nurturing than mothers or that all mothers who work outside the home and fathers who are primary caregivers. Critics have suggested that these processes between parents and children that produce personality propensities have more variable and less predictable outcomes than the theory predicts (Chodorow, 2002; Jackson, 1989; Kymlicka, 1991; Rossi, 1981).

Critics of this theory oppose the idea that the processes transmitting from parents to children are of more value and are less expected outcomes than theory predicts. (Rossi 1981) says Chodorow has little evidences to support this theory. Rossi suggests that the behaviors parents exhibit are complex and subject to influence by many social factors outside of the family. The effect of increased father investment in primary care would also increase gender differences and to widen the range of characteristics shown by sons and daughters (Rossi, 1981).

INTERGENERATIONAL TRANSMISSION OF BELIEFS

Intergenerational transmission of beliefs suggests that the way people parent comes from parenting styles they received as children. It is the central focus of this section to learn how transmission of beliefs from the parents to the adolescents may

influence adolescent sexual behavior. Intergenerational transmission of beliefs is the process through which purposively or unintended parenting behaviors and attitudes transfers from one generation to the next (Carlson & Knoester, 2011; Chen & Kaplan, 2001; O'Brien, 2010; Simons, Beaman, Conger, and Chao 1992). Research suggests that differences in mothers and fathers parenting style may stem from intergenerational beliefs in parenting (Carlson & Knoester, 2011; Chen & Kaplan, 2001; O'Brien, 2010; Simons et. al. 1992). Thus, people parent based on instilled beliefs and ideas about what it means to be a mother and a father. (Conncade & Ho, 2001; Carlson & Knoester, 2011) Parents transfer these ideas to children.

Through social learning, parents transmit parenting practices and ideas about gender onto their children (Carlson & Knoester, 2011; Chen & Kaplan, 2001; O'Brien, 2010; Simons et. al. 1992). Parents transfer their childhood gendered norms onto children. Family structures, such as single or married parents, influence how children view gender appropriate behavior for parents (Carlson & Knoester, 2011; Chen & Kaplan, 2001; Lphman & Billings, 2008; O'Brien, 2010; Simons et. al. 1992). Children also use the visible parent as a model for appropriate gender behavior.

Intergenerational transmission of belief is relevant to this study because it provides an idea of how parents influence the sexual risk behavior of adolescents. The way the parent chooses to construct the parent-child relationship determines the quality and closeness of the parent-child relationship (Baxter, Bylund, Imes, Poutsong, 2009; Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccord, Dittus, Bouris, 2006; Wilder & Watt, 2002). Parents have the ability to transmit values, beliefs, and standards of conduct onto their children.

In regards to sexual behavior, parents have the ability to shape and mold whether or not adolescents choose to engage in sexual intercourse and sexual risk behavior (Lai & Hyme, 2011; Hope & Chapple, 2005). If mothers or fathers transmit onto their child feelings of affection, love, care, and support, the child gains a belief that they are close to their parent and that there is a strong sense of warmth and support within that relationships (Baxter, Bylund, Imes, Poutsong, 2009; Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccord, Dittus, Bouris, 2006; Wilder & Watt, 2002). If mothers and fathers transmit onto their child a feeling of distance, negligence, aggression, and a lack of care or affection, the child will refrain from yielding towards the values, expectations, or beliefs of the parent (Baxter, Bylund, Imes, Poutsong, 2009; Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccord, Dittus, Bouris, 2006; Wilder & Watt, 2002). Whatever the climate of the parent-child relationship, the behavior of the child will become altered.

PARENTING DIMENSIONS

Parenting dimensions explain significant aspects of parenting and how those dimensions influence the well-being of adolescent. Parenting dimensions are the key features of parenting in the sense that they describe how the parent and child interact. A number of articles have found specific parental dimensions as influencing the sexual risk behavior of adolescents (Kapungu, Holmbeck, & Paikoff, 2006; Longmore et. al. 2001; & Rodgers, 1999). This paper focuses on four dimensions: control, monitoring, support, and warmth.

Numerous studies focus on the effect of parenting on adolescent outcomes, problem behavior, and adolescent development, and sexual risk behavior (Barnes and Farrell 1992; Barnes, Reifman, Farrell, and Dintcheff 2000; Borawski, Ievers-Landis,

Lovergreen, and Trapl 2003; Bronman, Reckase, and Freedman-Doan 2006; Longmore et al. 2001; Simons and Conger 2007). Researchers explore the complex relationship between parents and children by focusing on the processes within parenting (Barnes & Farrell, 1992; Longmore et al. 2001).

Based on the dimension of parental control, Baumrind (1971) developed three parenting styles: authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive. Macoby and Martin (1983) expanded Baumrind's idea by integrating the dimension of responsiveness adding a fourth parenting style, neglectful. Researchers have consistently used parenting styles to examine the relationship between parenting and adolescent sexual risk behavior.

However, examining specific parenting styles does not allow an understanding of how each parenting dimension is linked to adolescent sexual risk behavior. Because parenting styles reveal a combination of parenting dimensions, the parenting dimensions are not tested independently of one another. Not all combinations of parenting dimensions fit into the specific parenting style category. It is possible to learn new, important information by considering each specific dimension since parents can choose to combine them in any way they want.

PARENTING DIMENSIONS AND ADOLESCENT SEXUAL RISK BEHAVIOR

One function of parenting is to regulate sexual behavior. The relationship between the parent and the child influences the sexual behavior of adolescents (Cheng & Amas, 2008; Hubner and Howell 2003; Longmore et al. 2001). Parenting dimensions work as indicators of parenting which contribute to the prediction of adolescent sexual behavior (Chassin, Presson, Rose, Sherman, Davis, and Gonzalez 2000; Cohen and Rice 1997; Huver et al. 2007).

Research studies have linked parenting dimensions to adolescent sexual risk behavior (Hubner and Howell 2003). For example, characteristics of parenting styles such as parental monitoring are significant in delaying sexual activity (Hubner and Howell 2003; Longmore et al. 2001). Parents who exert strong parental monitoring are more likely to delay their children's onset sexual activity (Hubner and Howell 2003; Longmore et al. 2001). Specifically, supervision of dates, parental monitoring, and household rules are all linked to adolescents not participating in sexual initiation and having fewer sexual partners (Longmore et al. 2001; Miller 2002). When the parent monitors what the adolescent does, who the adolescent is out with, and where the adolescent goes, the adolescent is less likely to have the opportunity to experiment with sexual activity.

Throughout sociological literature, parental control is mentioned as one of the prominent components of parenting. As mentioned earlier, Baumrind used parental control as the center of the development of parenting styles. There have been two forms of control mentioned in scholarly articles. The two types of parental control are psychological control and behavioral control. Psychological control refers to control that attempts to influence and intrude into the psychological development of a person (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). Behavioral control refers to control that is used to manage or control the behaviors of a person often demonstrated through rule setting and compliance, regulations, and directives. Leaning more towards the idea of behavioral control, this study defines parental control as the tactics and methods parents use to manage, control, and influence the behaviors of their children (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt,

2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). Researchers have mentioned the complexity of behavioral control.

PARENTAL CONTROL

Behavioral control is typically broken into three specific components: knowledge of the child's behavior, discipline, and monitoring and surveillance of child's behavior (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). These three components usually work as a simultaneous process. Parents initially set limits and boundaries which are implemented through rules, regulations, and directives (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). The setting of boundaries and limits takes place before the child goes out. This illustrates to the child what the parent expects and tolerates in regards to their behavior. As the rules and regulations are put into action, knowledge and discipline are a constant reinforcement of the control (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). Knowledge and discipline carries out parental control. Specific limits such as curfews, allows parents to attempt to better supervise adolescents dating behavior.

Parental control can also range from coercive control to inductive control. Parental control can be enforced through modes of persuasion (coercive) or modes of reasoning (inductive). I define parental control separately for two specific reasons. First, throughout the literature control is explained as this idea of strict compliance, and the issuing of rules and regulations. However, monitoring is presented as this idea of overseeing the behavior of children. Monitoring is not necessarily a modifying of behavior. Monitoring is the awareness of the child's behavior.

Researchers have found that parental control levels influence adolescent sexual behavior (Kapungu et al. 2006; Miller 2002). An inadequate level of parental control, results in adolescents making impulse and risky decisions when it comes to sex (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). While sociological literature explains control as having a positive link to adolescent behavior, there are some that suggest that a strong level of parental control can negatively influence sexual behavior (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002).

When parents exhibit high levels of control towards their children their children seem to lack independence. When the parent exhibits a high level of psychological control the adolescent is more likely to make irresponsible and reckless decisions when it comes to condom use, number of sexual partners, and frequency of sexual intercourse (Longmore et. al 2001; Barnes and Farrell, 1992)

Empirical research shows mixed effects of parental control on adolescents' sexual risk behavior (Aquilino and Supple 2001; Barnes and Farrell 1992; Miller 2002; Kapungu et al. 2006). For example, studies indicate that setting limits, supervising dating routines, and allowing the adolescent to converse openly about sexual situations, promotes a delay of sexual contact and promotes contraceptive use (Kapungu et al. 2006; Miller 2002).

PARENTAL MONITORING

Parental monitoring is less frequently examined by researchers. Parental monitoring is so closely related to parental control that it is often considered an aspect of control. This study defines parental monitoring as parents having knowledge or awareness of the adolescent's whereabouts, social involvements, and social activities.

Sociologists describe parental monitoring as involving aspects such as attention, activity tracking, and parental supervision

Although closely related to control, monitoring does not necessarily involve parents trying to regulate or restrain specific behaviors. Researchers have looked at monitoring and control as one with respect to rules and regulation (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). However, this study looks at parental monitoring as the extent to which parents have knowledge or awareness of their child's whereabouts and social activities. In other words, parental monitoring focuses on the parent's awareness and perception of the child's behavior, while control focuses on the active parental control methods.

Parental monitoring is simply monitoring or overseeing the behavior. There is not an extensive amount of literature that examines monitoring as an independent dimension (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). Examining parental monitoring independently makes two additions to the current sociological literature on parenting. First, studying parental monitoring separately, allows me to look at it as a specific dimension. Second, studying parental monitoring separately allows me to look at how it independently influences adolescent sexual risk behavior.

Parental monitoring is a significant factor in influencing adolescent problem behavior and risky behavior. Open line of communication and knowledge of an adolescent's whereabouts decreases the likelihood of adolescent sexual risk behavior (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002).. A strong sense of parental monitoring deters the adolescent from engaging in risky behaviors. Forms of parental monitoring, such as parental supervision and activity

monitoring, delay sexual initiation (Borawski et al. 2003; Coley et al. 2009; Miller 2002; Whitebeck et al. 1999). When parents allow children to venture off without close monitoring, there is a greater chance to partake in adolescent sexual risk behavior (Borawski, et al. 2003). Adolescents hesitate to participate in sexual behaviors when parents watch or monitor their behavior (Borawski et al. 2003; Coley et al. 2009; Dorius et al. 2004).

There are also fewer opportunities for adolescents to engage in sexual behavior when they are monitored by their parents. In regards to sexual risk behavior, adolescents who are closely monitored usually learn the values and expectations their parents hold regarding their behavior (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). . Two things can occur when parents closely monitor their adolescents. First, adolescents may refrain from participating in sexual behavior. Second, if adolescents are sexually active they are more likely to act responsible and use forms of contraceptives

PARENTAL SUPPORT

Support is defined as carrying the weight, cares, or burdens of another person. Parental support is the support parents illustrate towards their child in hopes of furnishing their child's needs, relieving their cares, bearing their weights, or sharing their burdens. Researchers define parental support as the behavior manifest by a parent toward a child (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). That behavior gives the child a sense of comfort from the parent and confirmation that the child is accepted and approved as a person.

Parental support is essential in the development of adolescents (Bean, Barber, and Crane 2006). Sociologists describe parental support as the nurturance a parent illustrates towards a child (Barnes and Farrell 1992; Barnes et al. 2000; Dorius et al. 2004). Parents express nurturing behaviors through actions such as praise, affection, hugs, and encouragement (Dorius et al. 2004; Felson and Zeilinski 1989; Longmore et al. 2001). These behaviors express parental acceptance and love towards the child. Parental warmth also illustrates that the child matters to their parents. Parental support towards a child allows a relationship between the parent and child that provides the child with the ability to rely on their parent or parents for support (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). The parent provides various forms of support such as moral, emotional, and physical (Dorius et al. 2004; Small and Eastman 1991).

Moral support can be defined as support that is used to help a person's psychological state. Emotional support is the support provided as sympathetic or empathetic relation in hopes of providing comfort, assurance, and ease (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). Physical support is to provide tangible or visible ways of carrying the weight, needs, cares, or burdens of another person. Parents are responsible for providing the necessary support a child needs.

Parental support is a significant factor because it is something that each child needs. Since parents are the central agents in socializing children, they must provide support for children when necessary. A lack of support also has detrimental effects on a child's internal and external behaviors (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder &

Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). This study focuses more on how support influences external behaviors.

Parental support is closely related to the sexual behavior of adolescents. Parental support can influence sexual behavior in two ways. First, a lack of parental support creates a distance between the parent and a child. This distance does not allow an adolescent to freely discuss or become informed about sex, its consequences, or reasons to abstain from sex. Second, that distant relationship prohibits the child from taking on their parent's values or beliefs about appropriate sexual behavior. Adolescents also feel as though their parent or parents have no specific expectations therefore leaving adolescents to act as he or she likes without showing any strong care or concern (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002).

Sociologists indicate that parental support influences adolescent sexual risk behaviors (Barnes and Farrell 1992). A strong level of support can lead to positive adolescent outcomes. When there is a strong sense of parental support, adolescents are more likely to steer away from sexual risk behaviors (Barnes and Farrell 1992; Barnes et al. 2000; Bronte-Tinkew, Moore, and Carrano 2006; Luk, Farhat, Iannotti, and Simons-Morton 2010). This happens when the parent or parents provide clear disapproval of sexual behaviors. Because there is a close relationship between the parent and adolescent the adolescent will work to gain approval from their parents and refrain from sexual behaviors. When adolescents are sexually active, they are responsible, take lower risks by using contraceptives in order to avoid pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections.

Parental support is a significant factor in adolescent sexual risk behavior, more prominently among girls than boys (Rodgers 1999). For example, when daughters have a

strong, supportive relationship with their mother, they more likely to delay sexual activity and feel comfortable talking about it. For example, daughters delay sexual activity when they have a strong, supportive relationship with their mother sexual activity (Rodgers, 1999). Daughters also feel comfortable talking about sex with their mothers (Rodgers 1999).

Researchers found that when sons and daughters frequently engage in sexual risk behaviors, they perceive lower levels of parental support (Luk et al. 2010; Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002; Rodgers, 1999). Parental support has also been linked to adolescents engaging in sexual risk behavior (Barnes and Farrell 1992; Bronte-Tinkew et al. 2006; Dorius et al. 2004). Specifically, low levels of parental support negatively associates with sexual intercourse with multiple partners and early sexual initiation (Barnes et al. 2000; Dorius et al. 2004; Longmore et al. 2001; Luk et al. 2010).

PARENTAL WARMTH

Warmth can be defined as the feeling of attachment and affection towards someone. Parental warmth is the sense of love and affection a parent demonstrates towards a child. Parental warmth is a prominent parenting dimension. Parental warmth embodies an emotional relationship between the parent and child (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). When parents exhibit warmth towards their children, there is a tie of affection between the parent and the child. This emotional climate of love and affection creates a sense of mutual trust, closeness, and attachment ((Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little &

Rankin, 2002; Small and Eastman 1991). Parental warmth influences the child's sense of closeness with the parent.

Parental warmth towards adolescents illustrates that parents are available to provide affection and closeness towards their children (Lai & Hyme, 2011; Hope & Chapple, 2005). This creates a desire within the adolescent to spend more time with their parents and also adhere to the values their parents express. Parental warmth consists of a continuum ranging from acceptance to rejection. The idea of acceptance involves the care, love, or affection the parents freely express and feel toward their children (Weinman, Small, Buzi, & Smith, 2008; Wilder & Watt, 2002; Little & Rankin, 2002). Parents illustrate acceptance through physical behaviors such as hugging, kissing, or verbally with kind or encouraging words. Rejection is the complete opposite. Rejection is the absence of any action or behavior that illustrates love, affection, or care towards the child. Parents often illustrate neglectful, hostile, or aggressive behavior towards the child (Lai & Hyme, 2011; Hope & Chapple, 2005)..

Studies have linked close parent-child relationships or parental warmth to the delay of sexual intercourse for both adolescent sons' and daughters' (Coley, Votruba-Drzal, & Schindler 2009; Miller 2002; Kapungu et al. 2006). Researchers link adolescent sexual activity to lower levels of parental warmth (Coley et al. 2009; Miller 2002; Dorius et al. 2004; Whitbeck, Yoder, Hoyt, and Conger 1999). In other words, adolescents navigate away from sexual risk behaviors when parents exhibit more parental warmth. Adolescents who feel an emotional bond with their parents are at less risk of participating in problem behaviors.

PARENTING DIMENSIONS AND GENDER

This study focuses explicitly on four parenting dimensions: control, monitoring, support, and warmth. Throughout the current sociological literature, there is the common idea within the literature that mothers and fathers parent differently. In regards to the four parenting dimensions used in this study, there is not a wide array of literature that explores each parenting dimensions as it differentiates based on gender. However, using ideas and beliefs of gender theories, parents may exhibit more or less control, monitoring, support, or warmth based on their gender (Lai & Hyme, 2011; Hope & Chapple, 2005). For example, mothers are often the primary parents. They exhibit emotional and supportive behaviors and are informed with the daily livelihood of the child more than fathers (Lai & Hyme, 2011; Hope & Chapple, 2005).

Fathers, on the other hand, lean more towards being a disciplinarian exhibiting more control and granting less independence than mothers. Aligning with the idea of femininity and masculinity, fathers often exert less support and warmth than mothers. Fathers conform to ideas of masculinity and adopt methods that illustrate control and ideas on “tough love”. Fathers often see it as their job to take on the role of the strict disciplinarian. Fathers exert stronger methods of control and monitoring of their children. Mothers, on the other hand, are expected to give more warmth and support than fathers.

There are also differences in parenting dimensions based on the gender of the child. Mothers and fathers often exert strong levels of control and monitor their daughters more than boys (Lai & Hyme, 2011; Hope & Chapple, 2005). Daughters receive greater forms of behavior regulation and monitoring and receive a strong level of parental control (Chipman et al. 2000; Concade and Ho 2001; Huver et al. 2007). For example, daughters

are typically under greater parental supervision when it comes to interacting with peers or dating (Concade & Ho, 2001; Dufur & Franklin, 2008; Huver et. al. 2007). Boys, on the other hand, are shown higher levels of control. For example, girls are granted less independence and autonomy, higher levels of control, and are expected to stay closer to home than boys. However, fathers exert more punitive control on their sons than their daughters. Fathers also show higher levels of warmth and support towards their daughters than sons. Mothers are often warm and supportive to both sons and daughters.

Parenting dimensions will influence contraceptive use differently for sons and daughters. Parental control will have a negative effect on contraceptive use for all respondents. In other words, sons and daughters who experience parental control will be less likely to use contraceptives. Sons who experience warmth and support will be more likely to use contraceptives than girls. Girls who experience high levels of control and monitoring will be less likely to use contraceptives than boys.

Mothers and fathers use different parenting dimensions based on their gender and the gender of the child. In a study of differential parenting practices used with a sample of preschool children, there were significant differences between mothers and fathers parenting styles (Concade and Ho 2001). Fathers use an authoritarian parenting style and mothers as using an authoritative style. Fathers, compared to mothers, were less likely to explain their actions. Mothers were more involved with their adolescents than fathers. Mothers are also being more authoritative than fathers during adolescence. Compared to fathers, mothers are perceived as warmer, more supportive, more permissive, and more involved with adolescents. Mothers typically provide high levels of warmth and support.

Fathers, on the other hand, may act as stronger disciplinarians and exert a strong sense of parental control.

Fathers are warmer towards their sons than they are towards their daughters (Concade and Ho 2001). Observational studies indicate that parenting strategies are different for sons and daughters. Parents treat sons and daughters differently when it comes to reasoning strategies, forms of discipline, and received supervision (Chipman, Olsen, Klein, Hart, and Robinson 2000; Concade and Ho 2001; Huver et al. 2007). For example, parents use assertiveness, physical punishment, and hostility more so with their sons than daughters (Chipman et al. 2000; Huver et al. 2007). Mothers use more reasoning with their daughters than they do with their sons (Concade and Ho 2001; Huver et al. 2007). Daughters receive greater forms of behavior regulation and monitoring and receive a strong level of parental control (Chipman et al. 2000; Concade and Ho 2001; Huver et al. 2007)

For example, parents impose restrictions on the sexuality of their daughters suggesting that daughters refrain from sexual activity. Girls may receive messages from their parents that may suggest that participation in any form of sexual activity may result in some form of disciplinary action (Barnes & Farrell, 1992; Miller, 2002). Early sexual activity for boys is accepted and tolerated by parents based on gendered sexual norms (Barnes & Farrell, 1992; Miller, 2002). Mothers used a permissive parenting style more with their sons than their daughters. Fathers used an authoritarian parenting style with their sons and an authoritative parenting style with daughters.

GENDER SEXUAL NORMS

Society has sexual norms, which suggest that boys and girls should display different attitudes about sex and different sexual behaviors (Dufur & Franklin, 2008; Komreich, Hearn, Rodriguez, & Sullivan, 2003; Dufur, Downey, Ainsworth, & Lapray, 2004; Harris & Morgan, 1991; Lai & Hynie, 2011). When boys and girls enter into adolescence they begin to encounter sexual scripts, which inform them on sexual norms (Dufur & Franklin, 2008; Komreich, Hearn, Rodriguez, & Sullivan, 2003; Dufur, Downey, Ainsworth, & Lapray, 2004; Harris & Morgan, 1991; Lai & Hynie, 2011). These sexual scripts are different for boys and girls. Sociologists refer to this as a sexual double standard (Dufur & Franklin, 2008; Komreich, Hearn, Rodriguez, & Sullivan, 2003; Dufur, Downey, Ainsworth, & Lapray, 2004; Harris & Morgan, 1991; Lai & Hynie, 2011).

The sexual double standard allows boys to explore their sexuality freely. There is less restriction on the sexual behavior of boys than girls. Boys also receive more freedom to express their sexuality than girls. There is also a higher tolerance for promiscuity and early sexual activity for boys than girls (Dufur & Franklin, 2008; Komreich, Hearn, Rodriguez, & Sullivan, 2003; Dufur, Downey, Ainsworth, & Lapray, 2004; Harris & Morgan, 1991; Lai & Hynie, 2011). Girls, on the other hand, experience more restrictions on their expression of sexually, learn the significance of monogamy and delayed sexual activity.

RACE, RELIGION, AND EDUCATION

Religion is also a significant factor in exploring parenting dimensions and adolescent sexual risk behavior (Landor, Simmons, Simmons, Brody, & Gibbors, 2011;

Petts, 2009). Religion provides individuals with a sense of certain morals, principles, and directives. Those who participate in religious activities delay sexual behaviors based on religious principles (Landor, Simmons, Simmons, Brody, & Gibbors, 2011; Petts, 2009). Parents who practice a certain religion may align their method of parenting with religious principles, beliefs, and values as well (Landor, Simmons, Simmons, Brody, & Gibbors, 2011; Petts, 2009).

Research suggests that different cultural norms influence different perceptions of parenting among different racial groups (Cox, 2006; Gunns & Markman, 2008; Querido, Warner, & Eyberg, 2002). Cultural backgrounds form socialization processes. Parenting dimensions differ based on different levels of income, educational attainment, resources, and family structure within racial groups. Racial groups adapt to these circumstances by developing adaptive parenting strategies (Cox, 2006 & Young & Vazsonyi, 2011). Variations in cultural standards, beliefs, and behavior patterns can influence how parenting dimensions evolve to meet these challenges (Chao & Kanatsu, 2008; Cox, 2006; Hutchinson & Cederbauna, 2011). Different cultural meanings of parenting dimensions also influence differences in adolescent outcomes. African Americans are more likely to initiate in sexual intercourse earlier than white or Latino adolescents (Cox, 2006; Vazsonyi, Castillo, & Young, 2008; Young & Vazsonyi, 2011). Racial differences may influence differences in the social context of parenting practices and parent-child relationships (Cox, 2006; Vazsonyi, Castillo, & Young, 2008; Young & Vazsonyi, 2011). Racial groups possess differences in cultures, norms, and parenting beliefs.

Education often leads to a higher socioeconomic status which in turn leads to greater financial resources. However, higher education could lead to time demanding

occupations which can place a strain on the parent-child relationship (Lohman & Billings, 2008; Dufur & Franklin, 2008; Kitzman, Walton, & Busemi, 2005).

CHAPTER III
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

DESCRIPTION OF DATA

Data for this study comes from The National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health) 1994-2002 Wave 1. The Add Health data derives from a nationally represented sample of adolescents from the United States grades 7-12 and their families during the 1994/1995 school year. The dataset consists of three in-home interviews which focus on the adolescent's economic, social, physical and psychological well-being. Although this dataset consists of three waves, this research uses only Wave I. Wave I provided adequate questions to measure each variable in this study. The National Opinion Research Center of the University of Chicago and included provided the field work of Wave 1. Wave I Stage I involved choosing a random sample of high schools in the United States with at least 30 enrolled students and an 11th grade level.

JUSTIFICATION OF PROPOSED DATA

This research asks how parenting dimensions influence sexual behavior differently for boys and girls. I also examine whether mothers' and fathers' parenting dimensions influence sexual behavior differently. I chose the Add Health data to answer this question for three reasons. First, we can ascertain parenting dimension because the Add Health data asks adolescents questions that can measure parenting dimension.

Second, the Add Health asks about the adolescents relationship with both the mother and father separately. Third, the Add Health questions adolescents about their sexual behavior.

I chose to use secondary data as opposed to collecting my own data via other forms of qualitative methods such as focus groups or in-depth interviews. Using quantitative data allows generalization of the data. The results of quantitative data are easy to compare and summarize. Quantitative data allow classification of parenting styles, measurement of styles, and statistical models to test hypotheses. To use a focus group on a topic focusing an immense deal on gender, differential treatment, and sexual behavior could possibility cause an uncomfortable environment and disrupt the nature and course of discussion. The Add Health data provides an efficient way of gaining the concept of this study. Therefore, in-depths interviews were not necessary.

STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESIS

1. Children will experience higher levels of maternal warmth and support than paternal warmth and support.
2. Children will experience higher levels of paternal monitoring than maternal monitoring.
3. Maternal warmth and support will have a more positive effect on contraceptive use for girls than for boys.
4. Paternal warmth and support will have a more negative effect on contraceptive use for boys than for girls.
5. Parental control will have a more negative effect on the contraceptive use for girls than boys.

SAMPLE

The initial Add Health data included 6504 respondents. The first step of creating a sample for this study was to keep only respondents who reported living within two-parent homes. Section 14 and 15 of the Add Health data asks questions about resident mothers and fathers. Using the select cases option in SPSS, I selected the cases of respondents who reported no resident mother or no resident father and deleted those respondents from the survey. After this deletion, the sample size decreased to 4202 respondents. Because this study looks at contraceptive use at first sexual intercourse, any respondent who reported not ever having sex was omitted from the sample. This decreased our sample size down to 1406.

The final step in creating the sample involved listwise deletion of all the missing values of each measure. There were multiple variables that had large numbers of missing data. Each missing value involved a respondent refusing to answer or skipping the question. There were also no relevant questions available to replace those variables. Income alone had approximately 971 missing cases. Other variables such as mothers and father's educational levels, race, had missing values ranging from 20-202. Deleting missing values allows an accurate data analysis. The final sample size decreased to 918.

MEASURES OF SEXUAL RISK BEHAVIOR

Sexual risk behaviors have been found to be closely associated with the parenting styles mothers and fathers adopt. The Add Health data contains specific questions about sex and contraceptive use. This study focuses on the contraceptive use during sexual initiation. This allows us to look at whether or not boys and girls engaged in risky sexual behavior and how parenting dimensions influenced that behavior. This sample consists

only of those respondents who reported yes to having had sexual intercourse. This allows only the respondents who experienced sexual intercourse to be included in the analysis on contraceptive use. Those who have not had sex were allowed to skip the questions on contraceptive use and were not relevant to the analysis.

It is imperative to look at birth control use of adolescents. The reason is that while forms of birth control may prevent pregnancy, most forms of birth control do not prevent sexually transmitted infections. This question capture whether or not adolescents put themselves at risk for pregnancy or sexually transmitted infections during the first time they had sex.

CONTRACEPTIVE USE DURING SEXUAL INITIATION

The dependent variable focuses on the use of birth control during the respondents first time of sexual intercourse. Respondents were asked did you or your partner use any method of birth control the first time you had sex. This dichotomous variable is coded as 0= did not use any birth control and 1= did use birth control. Research indicates that adolescents who use birth control the first time they had sexual intercourse are more likely to use birth control the next time they have sex. This measure looks at how many respondents were at risk of pregnancy during their first time of sexual intercourse.

MEASURES OF PARENTING DIMENSION

The independent variables in this study are parenting dimensions. The parenting dimensions in this study include parental control, parental monitoring, parental support, and parental warmth. Questions were taken from the Add Health survey to measure each parenting dimension. Parental control was the only dimension that was not separated

based on the gender of the parent. This is because the questions that measured control were asked about parents in general not about mothers and fathers separately.

PARENTAL CONTROL

Parental control is measured by the following six questions:

1. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about the time you must be home on weekend nights,
2. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about the people you hang around with,
3. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about what you wear,
4. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about how much television you watch,
5. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about which television programs you watch, and
6. Do your parents let you make your own decisions about what time you go to bed on week nights?

Previous literature created index variables in order to place multiple questions into one variable for parenting dimensions. For that reason, an index variable is used in this study. The variable is coded as 0=no, 1=yes. All six variables were summed to create an index of parental control that ranged from 6 (parents had a lot of control) to 0 (parents exhibited no control).

PATERNAL AND MATERNAL MONITORING

Paternal and maternal monitoring are measured with two questions: which of the things listed on this card have you done with your mom (1) talked about your school work or grades and (2) talked about other things you're doing in school. The variable is coded as 0=no, 1=yes. The two questions were summed together into an index variable with scores ranging from 0-2. An identical variable is created for paternal monitoring.

PATERNAL AND MATERNAL SUPPORT

Maternal and paternal support is measured with two index variables. The first index variable has two questions: (1) how close do you feel to your (mother/adoptive mother/stepmother/foster mother/ etc., (2) how much do you think she cares about you? Whether the parent was biological or non-biological was not significant because this study aims to capture an idea of parenting differences between women and men and how those differences influence adolescent sexual risk behavior. The variable was coded into 1-not at all, 2-very little, 3=somewhat, 4=quite a bit, 5= very much.

The second index variable has two questions: which of the things listed on this card have you done with your (mother/adoptive mother/stepmother/foster mother/ etc) in the past four weeks? (1) talked about someone you're dating, or a party you went to; (2) had a talk about a personal problem you were having. The variable was coded into 0=no, 1=yes. Both index variables are combined to create an overall index variable for maternal warmth that ranged from 12(parents were very supportive) and the lowest score is 2(parents were not at all supportive). The paternal support variable was created identically to maternal support.

PATERNAL AND MATERNAL WARMTH

Maternal warmth is measured by the question, Most of the time your mother is warm and loving toward you? The maternal warmth variable is coded into 5= strongly agree, 4= agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree. An identical variable is created for paternal warmth.

CONTROL VARIABLES

PARENTS EDUCATION

Mother's educational level is measured with the question how far in school did she go? Educational level is linked to parent's socioeconomic status, occupation, and income. Contraceptive resources and parental monitoring and control are can be influenced by the parent's education level. The variable was coded into 1= less than high school, 2= high school graduate or business, trade, or vocational school instead of high school, 3= some college, business, trade, or vocational school after high school, 4= college graduate or professional training beyond a four year degree. An identical variable is created for fathers.

AGE

The age of the respondent can influence the levels of control, monitoring, support, and warmth a parent demonstrates. The age of the respondents also influences the sexual activity of adolescents. The respondents were asked the question what is your birth year? The variable is recoded into 20=1974, 19= 1975, 18= 1976, 17=1977, 16=1978, 15=1979, 14= 1980, 13=1981, 12=1982, and 11=1980.

RACE

The respondents are asked what is your race? The respondents were given the option of marking five choices: white, black or African American, American Indian or Native American, Asian or Pacific Islander, and other. The race variable is broken into three dichotomous variables of white, black, or other or multiracial. Each variable is coded as 1 and 0.

RELIGION

Previous literature indicates that adolescents who participate in a religion deviate from sexual behaviors. Religion is measured with one question on the respondent's participation in religious activities. The question asks In the past 12 months, how often did you attend religious services. The responses are coded as 1= never, 2= less than once a month, 3= once a month or less than once a week, 4= once a week or more.

This study looks at the smoking behavior of the parent to capture whether or not this particular habit significant in adolescent sexual risk taking. The risky behavior a parent indulges in can influence the adolescent to engage in forms of risky sexual behaviors. Mother's smoking is measured with the question has your mother ever smoked cigarettes? The variable is coded into 0= no and 1= yes. An identical variable is created fathers.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Table 4.1 presents the descriptive statistics for the full sample and for boys and girls separately. The number of respondents within the study is 918. Seventy percent of the full sample reported using a form of contraceptive during the first time they had sexual intercourse. The mean for each of the parenting dimensions reveal that parents exhibited relatively similar levels of control, monitoring, support, and warmth.

The average age for the full sample was 15 years of age. Sixty-nine percent of the respondents reported white as their only race. The differences between mothers and fathers educational level was relatively small. The mean for mother's education level was 2.71. The mean for fathers was 2.68. Fifty-two percent of mothers were smokers while sixty-three percent of fathers were smokers. The mean income for the full sample was 50.74.

LOGISTIC REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Table 4.3 presents the logistic regression models for each parenting dimension separately and the control variables for the full sample. The models in table 4.2, shows that paternal support, maternal support, paternal warmth and maternal warmth are statistically significant. The odds ratio of 1.28 means that a one unit increase in paternal

support increases the likelihood the respondent used a form of contraceptive the first time they had sex by 28 %. The odds ratio of 1.34 means that a one unit increase in maternal support increases the likelihood the respondent used a form of contraceptive the first time they had sex by 34%. The odds ratio of 1.21 means that a one unit increase in paternal warmth increases the likelihood the respondent used a form of contraceptive the first time they had sex by 21%. The odds ratio of 1.28 means that a one unit increase in maternal warmth increases the likelihood the respondent used a form of contraceptive the first time they had sex by 28%.

Table 4.4 and 4.5 presents the same logistic regression models as presented in table 4.1. However, these models are separated by the gender of the respondent. In table 4.4, the odds ratio of 1.57 means that a one unit increase in maternal support increases the likelihood that boys used a form of contraceptive the first time they had sex by 57 %. The odds ratio of 1.50 means that a one unit increase in maternal warmth increases the likelihood that boys used a form of contraceptive use the first time they had sex by 50 %.

Table 4.6 presents a model where all parenting dimensions of mothers and the control dimension are entered together with the control variables for the full sample. The odds ratio of .94 means that a one unit increase in maternal support increases the likelihood that respondents used a form of contraceptive the first time they had sex by 6%.

Table 4.7 presents a model for all parenting dimensions of fathers along with parental control and the control variables. The odds ratio of 1.25 means a one unit increase in parental support increases the likelihood that respondents used a form of contraceptive the first time they had sex by 25%. In the model including only boys, the

odds ratio of 1.34 means that a one unit increase in parental support increases the likelihood that boys used a form of contraceptive the first time they had sex by 34%.

Table 4.8 presents model where each dimension for both mothers and fathers are grouped together into a model with all control variables. For example, paternal support and maternal support are both included in a model. In model 2, the odd ratio of 1.24 means that a one unit increase in maternal support, while grouped with paternal support, increases the likelihood of respondents using a form of contraceptives the first time they had sex by 24%. Models 8 and 9 show significant results for boys respondents. The odds ratio of 1.44 means that a one unit increase in maternal support, while grouped with paternal support, increases the likelihood of boys using contraceptives the first time they had sex by 44%. The odds ratio of 1.12 means that a one unit increase in maternal warmth, while grouped with paternal warmth, increases the likelihood of boys using contraceptives the first time they had sex by 12%.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study looked at the parenting dimensions of mothers and fathers and the contraceptive use at first time of sexual intercourse of boys and girls. This study adds to existing literature in four ways. First, I look at four parenting dimensions independently. Previous literature focuses on control and support. However, this study focuses on control, monitoring, support, and warmth. Second, this study treats parental monitoring as an independent parenting dimension.

Third, instead of grouping dimensions into specific parenting style, I focus on the influence of each parenting dimension independently. Fourth, I look at the differences in mothers and fathers parenting dimension levels and how parenting dimensions affect adolescent contraceptive use. The purpose of this study was to learn if mothers and fathers parenting dimensions influenced contraceptive use at first time sexual intercourse differently for boys and girls. Each hypothesis was answered by descriptive statistics, bivariate analysis, or logistic regression analysis. There are two specific things the hypotheses focus on. First, this study inquires about the differences between the parenting dimensions of parents.

Based on gender ideologies and the transmission of gendered behavior, mothers were hypothesized as being more likely to be warm or supportive than fathers. Fathers, on the other hand, would illustrate higher levels of or monitoring. The descriptive

statistics supports and rejects these hypotheses. Mothers exhibited higher levels of monitoring, support, and warmth than fathers. Although the difference is slight, these results suggest that mothers practice parenting techniques that create a close parent-child relationship.

When children receive warmth and support from their parents they often use contraceptives to prevent consequences that may disappoint their parents. Fathers, however, exhibited low levels of monitoring. This result lines up with the previous literature that states that fathers do not take on the role of monitoring the behavior of their children. In other words, while fathers may have shown warmth, support, and control, they were not always aware of what was going on in their child's life. In regards to parental control, the results show that both parents played significant roles in controlling where the adolescent goes, how late the adolescent stayed out on the weekends, what time the adolescent went to bed, who they hang around, what television programs they watch, and their bed time.

Second, the hypotheses focus on the different influences parenting dimensions have on sons and daughters. Parenting dimensions differed based on the gender of the respondent. The differences between sons and daughters are slight but interesting. Girls experienced high levels of parental control, maternal warmth, and maternal support. Girls also experienced moderate levels of maternal monitoring and paternal warmth and low levels of paternal monitoring and paternal support.

The relationship between mothers and daughters consisted of a loving relationship where mothers talked with their daughters about things in their lives. This created an atmosphere where daughters were likely to feel comfortable with their mothers. This

feeling of comfort may have provoked daughters to inquire about contraceptive use with their mothers.

The fact that mothers did control the behaviors of their daughters could explain why mothers moderately monitored their daughter's behavior. Girls experienced low levels of paternal monitoring, paternal support, and slightly low paternal warmth. It is interesting to see that with girls each paternal dimension was lower than mothers. These results suggest that fathers did not monitor, support, or were warm towards their daughters.

Boys experienced high levels of control, maternal warmth, and maternal support. Mothers were also more supportive with sons than daughters. Boys also experienced low levels of paternal monitoring and paternal warmth and moderate levels of maternal monitoring and paternal support. Fathers control the behavior of their sons but do not monitor their behavior. The relationship between fathers and sons may also be distant due to the lack of paternal warmth and moderate level of support. Fathers are not likely to converse with their sons about their behaviors. Fathers may not discuss sexual behavior with their sons making sons more likely to not use contraceptives.

Overall we see three important findings in the descriptive statistics. First, within two parent homes the parenting dimensions between mothers and fathers are slightly different. Second, we notice that both mothers and fathers take control over the behavior of both sons and daughters. Third, mothers are more likely to be warm and supportive with both sons and daughters than fathers.

In this study, sons and daughters show similar results in their contraceptive use. Seventy percent of girls used a form of contraceptive while 68 percent of boys used a

form of contraceptive. Throughout the models in the study, we consistently see significance among sons and daughters. For example, in table 4.5 paternal support increases the likelihood of contraceptive use at first time of sexual intercourse. The results suggest that sons are more affected by parenting dimensions than daughters in regards to contraceptive use.

When paternal support and maternal support are entered into one model, maternal support increases contraceptive use. However, when paternal support and maternal support are separated, paternal support increase contraceptive use. The same results are shown for paternal and maternal warmth. These results suggest that when paternal warmth and maternal warmth are together mothers warmth is more likely to increase contraceptive use. Paternal warmth only increases contraceptive use when it is treated independently.

Whether or not adolescents use contraceptives the first time of sexual intercourse is mainly influenced by warmth and support. Consistently, throughout the results of this study paternal and maternal support and warmth are two parenting dimensions that increase the likelihood of contraceptive use during the first time of sexual intercourse. Warmth and support only increase contraceptive use for boys. When boys experience warmth and support they are likely to use contraceptives. Girl's contraceptive use is not influenced by parenting dimensions.

Income and education were the only control variables that showed significance. Higher income levels and educational level influence contraceptive use and parenting dimensions in similar ways. Because income and education contribute to the socioeconomic status, these two variables can influence contraceptive availability and

how parents monitor and control their children. Parents who have low levels of income are more likely to be unavailable to control or monitor their children due to strenuous work hours and a sense of too many other obligations besides child rearing. Educational level can determine the income level. Therefore, those with low educational attainment can lack financial resources used and cause parents to not be available for their children

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This study reveals how parenting dimensions affect the contraceptive use of adolescent girls and boys. Consistent with previous literature, high levels of warmth and support decreases sexual risk behavior. When there is a strong parent child relationship sexual risk behaviors decrease. The parenting dimensions of mothers and fathers were quite similar.

Theoretically, we can assume that when there are two parents within the home, parents tend to adopt similar parenting dimensions. The fact that there were no major differences between mothers and fathers shows that gender is not a significant factor in how mothers and fathers choose to parent. This also means that gender may only slightly influence how mothers and fathers exhibit warmth, control, support, or monitoring. The descriptive of a family such as income, education, and single or two-parent family structure may play a more vital role than gender in influencing mothers and fathers parenting dimensions. This finding contradicts the idea that mothers are naturally exhibit higher levels of warmth and support than fathers because they are women. Gender is not a factor of parenting dimensions.

This study also found contrasting ideas about the influence of control, monitoring, warmth, and support on contraceptive use. Parents should exhibit higher levels of warmth and support if they want to increase the use of contraceptives among their children. The

level of control and monitoring a parent exhibits does not prevent or encourage contraceptive use. This finding shows that children who feel as though their parents supports them or are warm and loving toward the, if sexually active, the children are more likely to use contraceptives.

The last significant finding of this study comes from the observation of boys. This study found that not girls but boys contraceptive use was influenced by parenting dimensions. This finding contradicts the current literature that suggests that girls are more vulnerable to sexual risk behavior and should be given higher levels of control and monitoring than boys. The results show that girl's contraceptive use is not influenced by parenting dimensions. However, boys who experienced low levels of warmth and support were less likely to use contraceptives. This suggests that boys are being misunderstood.

Gender ideas tell us that boys, aligning with ideas about masculinity, do not need or expect to receive warmth and support from their parents. However, this study reveals that warmth and support exhibited towards boys, increases the likelihood that they will use contraceptives if sexually active. This explains why boys engage in higher levels of sexual risk behaviors. Parents are failing to exhibit warmth and support towards their sons. When parents exhibit a low level of warmth and support towards their sons they use less contraceptives. Parents should become aware that their lack of support or warmth towards their sons is increasing their sexual risk behavior such as contraceptive use.

There are two limitations of this study. First, there was not a lot of variance in mothers and fathers parenting dimensions. This caused the parenting dimension levels in this study to be similar. Second, control could not be separated by gender of the parent. For this reason, there was no way to suggest specific control influence from mothers or fathers

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics: Contraceptive Use, Parenting Dimensions and Control Variables

	Full Sample			Girls			Boys		
	Mean	SD	Max	Mean	SD	Max	Mean	SD	Max
Contraceptive Use First Sex									
Used Contraceptives	70.00		0	0.72		0	0.68		0
Parenting Dimensions									
Parental Control	2.50	0.75	3	2.53	0.74	3	2.47	0.75	3
Paternal Monitoring	1.97	0.86	3	1.99	0.87	3	1.94	0.85	3
Maternal Monitoring	2.14	0.85	3	2.20	0.85	3	2.08	0.84	3
Paternal Support	2.08	0.86	3	1.95	0.85	3	2.21	0.87	3
Maternal Support	2.39	0.79	3	2.31	0.81	3	2.46	0.77	3
Paternal Warmth	2.10		3	2.13	0.75	3	2.07	0.72	3
Maternal Warmth	2.35		3	2.32	0.71	3	2.38	0.64	3
Control Variables									
Age	15.91		12	15.93		12	15.89		12
White	69.20		0	70.00		0	68.30		0
Black	20.70		0	18.30		0	23.10		0
Other or Multiracial	10.10		0	11.70		0	8.60		0
Mother's Education Level			1	2.75		4	2.67		4
Less than High School	6.60								
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	34.70								
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High School	42.40								
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	16.30								
Father's Education Level			1	2.68		4	2.67		4
Less than High School	8.30								
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	39.50								
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High School	38.60								
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	13.60								
Attendance of Church Services	2.67		1	2.70		4	2.61		4
Mother Ever Smoked	0.52		0	0.56		1	0.49		1
Father Ever Smoked	0.63		0	0.63		1	0.64		1
Income (thousands of dollars)	50.74		0	52.28		900	49.24		340

Table 2 Bivariate analysis: contraceptive use at first time had sex and parenting dimensions

	Full Sample	Boys	Girls
Contraceptive use at first had sex	1.00	1.00	1.00
Parental Control	.067*	0.07	0.06
Paternal Monitoring	0.00	0.00	0.07
Maternal Monitoring	0.01	0.01	0.01
Paternal Support	.087**	.107*	0.08
Maternal Support	.097**	.137**	0.07
Paternal Warmth	.068*	0.07	0.06
Maternal Warmth	.076*	.119*	0.04

Table 3 Logistic regression models for each parenting dimension separately with control variables (full sample)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7	
	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2
Parental Control	1.130	0.120												
Paternal Monitoring			1.050	0.050										
Maternal Monitoring					0.980	-0.010								
Paternal Support					1.28*	0.250								
Maternal Support							1.34*	0.290						
Paternal Warmth									1.21*	0.190				
Maternal Warmth													1.28*	0.250
Age	1.030	0.030	1.040	0.040	1.040	0.040	1.050	0.050	1.040	0.040	1.040	0.040	1.040	0.050
Black	1.420	0.350	1.410	-0.220	1.400	0.340	1.050	0.340	1.350	0.310	1.420	0.350	1.410	0.340
Other or Multiracial	0.810	-0.220	0.801	0.580	0.800	-0.220	0.840	-0.170	0.840	-0.180	0.820	-0.190	0.840	-0.170
Mother's Education														
High School Graduate or Bus, Trad	1.780	0.580	1.790	0.660	1.770	0.580	1.720	0.540	1.700	0.530	1.740	0.560	1.720	0.340
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Vo	1.910	0.660	1.940	1.050	1.920	0.650	1.880	0.630	1.860	0.620	1.890	0.640	1.800	0.630
College Grad.or Prof. School Beyond	2.790	1.030	2.85*	0.570	2.83*	1.040	2.17*	1.000	2.73*	1.010	2.73*	1.010	2.71*	1.000
Father's Education														
High School Graduate or Bus, Trad	1.770	0.580	1.750	0.570	1.780	0.580	1.830	0.610	1.920	0.650	1.790	0.580	1.830	0.610
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Vo	1.240	0.570	1.240	0.220	1.250	0.220	1.250	0.230	1.320	0.280	1.250	0.220	1.250	0.230
College Grad.or Prof. School Beyond	1.150	0.290	1.512	0.410	1.540	0.430	1.570	0.450	1.670	0.520	1.530	0.430	1.570	0.450
Religious Participation														
Once a Month	1.030	0.030	1.050	0.050	1.050	0.000	1.050	0.050	1.080	0.080	1.050	0.050	1.050	0.050
> Once a Month< Once a Week	1.060	0.060	1.050	0.050	1.050	0.050	1.040	0.040	1.050	0.050	1.030	0.030	1.040	0.040
Once a Week or More	0.750	-0.320	0.710	-0.350	0.710	-0.350	0.690	-0.370	0.710	-0.350	0.680	-0.390	0.680	-0.370
Mother Ever Smoked	0.980	-0.010	1.000	0.000	0.990	0.000	1.001	0.010	1.010	0.010	1.020	0.015	1.010	0.010
Father Ever Smoked	0.900	-0.100	0.890	-0.011	0.890	-0.110	0.860	-0.140	0.880	-0.119	0.890	-0.110	0.870	-0.140
Income(thousands of dollars)	1.010	0.010	1.01*	0.010	1.01*	0.010	1.010	0.010	1.01*	0.010	1.01*	0.010	1.01*	0.010

Table 4 Logistic regression model of mother's parenting dimensions and control variables

	Full sample			Girls			Boys		
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	Odds ratio	Wald x2	Odds ratio	Wald x2	Odds ratio	Wald x2	Odds ratio	Wald x2	
Maternal Monitoring	1.110	-0.060	0.950	-0.050	0.900	-0.100	0.900	-0.100	
Maternal Support	.94*	0.260	1.260	0.230	1.480	0.390	1.480	0.390	
Maternal Warmth	1.290	0.090	0.950	-0.050	1.230	0.210	1.230	0.210	
Parental Control	1.100	.10	1.010	0.010	1.150	0.140	1.150	0.140	
Age	1.030	0.030	1.20*	0.180	0.920	-0.080	0.920	-0.080	
Race									
Black	1.370	0.320	2.69*	0.990	0.840	-0.180	0.840	-0.180	
Other or Multiracial	0.860	-0.150	0.840	-0.180	0.810	-0.220	0.810	-0.220	
Mother's Education									
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	1.670	0.510	2.750	1.010	1.080	0.080	1.080	0.080	
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High Schc	1.830	0.610	4.410	1.490	0.810	-0.220	0.810	-0.220	
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	2.69*	0.990	5.480	1.70	1.640	0.490	1.640	0.490	
Father's Education									
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	1.930	0.660	1.250	0.220	3.53*	1.260	3.53*	1.260	
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High Schc	1.320	0.270	0.820	-0.200	2.580	0.950	2.580	0.950	
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	1.650	0.500	0.910	-0.100	3.430	1.240	3.430	1.240	
Religious Participation									
Once a Month	1.080	0.070	1.350	0.300	0.860	-0.160	0.860	-0.160	
> Once a Month < Once a Week	1.070	0.060	0.760	0.470	0.710	-0.380	0.710	-0.380	
Once a Week or More	1.070	0.060	0.980	-0.280	0.680	0.050	0.680	0.050	
Mother Ever Smoked	0.990	-0.003	0.720	-0.020	1.060	0.010	1.060	0.010	
Father Ever Smoked	0.880	-0.120	1.010	-0.320	1.060	0.010	1.060	0.010	
Income (thousands of dollars)	1.01*	0.010	.02*	0.010	1.01*	0.010	1.01*	0.010	

Table 5 Logistic regression model of only paternal dimensions, contraceptive use, and control variables

	Full Sample		Girls		Boys	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	Odds ratio	Wald x2	Odds ratio	Wald x2	Odds ratio	Wald x2
Paternal Monitoring	0.980	-0.020	1.070	0.070	0.910	-0.090
Paternal Support	1.25*	0.230	1.210	0.190	1.34*	0.290
Paternal Warmth	1.050	0.050	0.920	-0.080	1.080	0.080
Parental Control	1.110	0.110	1.000	0.000	1.180	0.170
Age	1.030	0.030	1.19*	0.170	0.920	-0.080
Black	1.410	0.340	2.71*	0.990	0.900	-0.110
Other or Multiracial	0.830	-0.180	0.790	-0.240	0.820	-0.190
Mother's Education						
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	1.790	0.590	1.940	1.080	1.250	0.220
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High Sch	1.930	0.660	4.580	1.520	0.920	0.080
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	2.800	1.030	5.610	1.720	1.790	0.580
Father's Education						
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	1.860	0.620	1.260	0.230	2.850	1.050
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High Sch	1.330	0.290	0.890	-0.120	2.230	0.800
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	1.610	0.470	0.930	-0.080	2.720	1.000
Religious Participation						
Once a Month	1.010	0.010	1.240	0.210	0.820	-0.190
> Once a Month < Once a Week	1.020	0.020	1.510	0.410	0.710	-0.350
Once a Week or More	0.680	-0.380	0.730	-0.320	0.660	-0.420
Mother Ever Smoked	1.020	0.020	1.010	0.010	1.070	0.060
Father Ever Smoked	0.890	-0.110	0.720	-0.330	1.050	0.050
Income (thousands of dollars)	1.01*	0.001	1.010	1.000	1.01*	0.010

Table 7 Logistic regression model of all parenting dimensions and control variables in one model

	Full sample		Girls		Boys	
	Odds ratio	Wald x2	Odds ratio	Wald x2	Odds ratio	Wald x2
Parental Control	1.150	0.130	1.070	0.060	1.110	0.090
Paternal Monitoring	1.220	0.200	1.060	0.050	1.080	0.070
Maternal Monitoring	1.090	0.090	0.990	0.000	1.140	0.130
Paternal Support	1.050	0.050	1.190	1.190	0.970	-0.030
Maternal Support	0.900	-0.100	0.850	0.850	0.920	-0.080
Paternal Warmth	1.150	0.140	1.120	0.120	1.170	0.160
Maternal Warmth	1.210	0.190	1.210	0.190	1.350	0.310
Age	1.020	0.020	0.920	-0.080	1.010	0.010
Black	1.090	0.090	0.970	-0.020	1.220	0.200
Other or Multiracial	1.030	0.030	1.19*	0.170	0.920	-0.080
Mother's Education						
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	1.380	0.320	2.680	0.980	0.850	-0.160
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High Sch	0.870	-0.130	0.840	-0.170	0.830	-0.190
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	1.720	0.540	2.810	1.030	1.130	0.130
Father's Education Level						
Less than High School	2.76*	1.020	0.870	1.710	1.700	0.530
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	1.930	0.660	1.250	0.220	3.37*	1.220
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High Sch	1.340	0.300	0.880	-0.130	2.510	0.920
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	1.650	0.490	0.890	-0.120	3.310	1.190
Once a Month	1.430	0.360	1.320	0.280	0.800	-0.180
> Once a Month < Once a Week	1.500	0.410	1.570	0.450	0.700	-0.350
Once a Week or More	1.480	0.390	0.750	-0.280	0.660	-0.410
Mother Ever Smoked	1.010	0.020	0.990	-0.010	1.070	0.070
Father Ever Smoked	0.890	-0.120	0.730	-0.310	1.050	0.050
Income (thousands of dollars)	1.000	0.010	1.000	0.010	1.01*	0.011

Table 8 Logistic regression model for each parenting dimension separately with control variables for boys

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7	
	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2	Odds Ratio	Wald x2
Parental Control	1.21	0.19												
Paternal Monitoring			0.97	-0.3										
Maternal Monitoring					0.96	-0.04								
Paternal Support							1.38	0.32						
Maternal Support									1.57*	0.46				
Paternal Warmth											1.3	0.26		
Maternal Warmth													1.5	0.41
Age	0.920	-0.090	0.930	-0.700	0.930	-0.070	0.940	-0.070	0.930	-0.080	0.940	-0.060	0.940	-0.060
Black	0.910	-0.090	0.930	-0.120	0.890	-0.120	0.880	-0.120	0.810	-0.210	0.900	-0.110	0.910	-0.090
Other or Multiracial	0.780	-0.250	0.890	-0.240	0.790	-0.240	0.840	-0.170	0.790	-0.230	0.810	-0.210	0.830	-0.190
Mother's Education														
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	1.210	0.190	0.790	0.130	1.150	0.140	1.220	0.190	1.040	0.400	1.160	0.150	1.150	0.140
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High Scho	0.890	-0.110	1.140	-0.140	0.870	-0.140	0.930	-0.070	0.790	0.130	0.890	-0.120	0.870	-0.140
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	1.720	0.540	0.870	0.500	1.660	0.510	1.790	0.580	1.580	-0.460	1.690	0.530	1.660	0.500
Father's Education Level														
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	2.860	1.050	2.930	1.070	2.920	1.070	2.920	1.070	3.69*	1.310	2.900	1.070	2.970	1.090
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High Scho	2.190	0.790	2.200	0.790	2.190	0.780	2.260	0.810	2.730	1.010	2.110	0.750	2.110	0.750
College Grad. or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	2.620	0.960	2.660	0.980	2.640	0.970	2.730	1.000	3.330	1.260	2.630	0.970	2.790	1.030
Religious Participation														
Once a Month	0.830	-0.190	0.880	-0.130	0.880	-0.130	0.840	-0.170	0.880	-0.130	0.870	-0.140	0.860	-0.150
> Once a Month < Once a Week	0.720	-0.330	0.720	-0.330	0.720	-0.330	0.690	-0.370	0.690	-0.360	0.710	-0.350	0.720	-0.330
Once a Week or More	0.700	-0.360	0.690	0.370	0.690	-0.370	0.650	-0.440	0.680	-0.390	0.650	-0.430	0.640	-0.450
Mother Ever Smoked	1.020	0.020	1.040	0.040	1.040	0.040	1.080	0.070	1.060	0.060	1.050	0.500	1.050	0.040
Father Ever Smoked	1.060	0.060	1.060	0.060	1.060	0.060	1.050	0.050	1.060	0.060	1.040	0.400	1.030	0.030
Income (thousands of dollars)	1.01*	0.010	1.01*	0.010	1.010	1.010	1.01*	0.010	1.01*	0.010	1.01*	0.100	1.01*	0.010

Table 9 Logistic regression model for each parenting dimension separately with control variables for girls

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6		Model 7	
	Odds Ratio	Wald χ^2	Odds Ratio	Wald χ^2	Odds Ratio	Wald χ^2	Odds Ratio	Wald χ^2	Odds Ratio	Wald χ^2	Odds Ratio	Wald χ^2	Odds Ratio	Wald χ^2
Parental Control	1.020	0.020												
Paternal Monitoring			1.010	0.100										
Maternal Monitoring			0.990	-0.010										
Paternal Support			0.190	0.170					1.220	0.190				
Maternal Support											1.070	0.070		
Paternal Warmth														
Maternal Warmth													1.100	0.090
Age	1.19*	0.170	1.19*	0.180	1.19*	0.180	1.19*	0.180	1.190	0.180	1.19*	0.170	1.19*	0.180
Black	2.73*	1.000	2.77*	1.020	2.720	1.000	2.69*	0.990	2.710	0.990	2.74*	1.010	2.72*	0.990
Other or Multiracial	0.790	-0.220	0.790	-0.230	0.790	-0.220	0.790	-0.230	0.830	0.180	0.810	-0.240	0.820	-0.200
Mother's Education														
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	2.980	1.090	3.190	1.130	3.010	1.100	2.840	1.040	2.780	1.020	2.950	1.080	0.820	1.060
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High School	4.740	1.570	4.860	1.580	4.780	1.570	4.460	1.490	4.450	1.490	4.680	1.540	2.890	1.530
College Grad or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	5.890	1.770	5.960	1.790	5.960	1.790	5.410	1.680	5.460	1.690	5.720	1.740	4.620	1.740
Father's Education Level														
High School Graduate or Bus, Trade, or Voc School	1.190	0.180	1.140	1.280	1.190	0.180	1.290	0.260	1.230	0.210	1.200	0.180	5.670	0.200
Some College or Bus, Trade, or Voc School After High School	0.800	-0.220	0.790	-0.023	0.800	-0.220	0.890	-0.110	0.810	0.210	0.810	-0.210	1.220	-0.210
College Grad or Prof. School Beyond a 4yr Degree	0.880	-0.130	0.840	-0.180	0.890	-0.120	0.950	-0.050	0.890	0.110	0.890	-0.120	0.820	-0.110
Religious Participation														
Once a Month	1.300	0.260	1.310	0.270	1.290	0.260	1.230	0.210	1.340	0.290	1.290	0.260	0.890	0.260
> Once a Month < Once a Week	1.580	0.460	1.580	0.460	1.570	0.450	1.490	0.400	1.580	0.460	1.560	0.440	1.300	0.440
Once a Week or More	0.750	-0.280	0.760	-0.280	0.750	-0.290	0.710	-0.340	0.750	-0.280	0.740	-0.300	1.560	-0.290
Mother Ever Smoked	0.990	0.100	1.010	0.010	0.990	-0.010	1.010	0.010	0.990	-0.010	1.000	0.000	0.990	0.000
Father Ever Smoked	0.730	-0.320	0.720	-0.320	0.720	-0.320	0.720	-0.330	0.710	-0.340	0.730	-0.320	0.710	-0.340
Income (thousands of dollars)	1.010	0.010	1.010	0.010	1.010	0.010	1.010	0.010	1.010	0.010	1.010	0.010	1.010	0.010

REFERENCES

- Adalbjarnardottir, Sigrun and Leifur G. Hafsteinsson. 2001. "Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style and Their Substance Use: Concurrent and Longitudinal Analyses." *Journal of Research on Adolescence*. 11(4): 401-423
- Alanko, Katarina, Pekka Santtila, Nicole Harbar, Katarina Witting, Markus Varjonen, Patrik Jern, Ada Johansson, Bettina von der Pahlen, and N. Kenneth Sandnabba. .. 2008. "The Association Between Childhood Gender Atypical Behavior and Adult Psychiatric Symptoms is Moderated by Parenting Style." *Sex Roles*. 58:837-847
- Aunola, Kaisa and Jari-Erik Nurmi. 2005. "The Role of Parenting Styles in Children's Problem Behavior." *Child Development*. 76(6): 1144-1159
- Axxin, William G., Linda Young-Demarco, and Mesa Caponi Ro. 2011. "Gender double standards in parenting attitudes." *Social Science Research*. 40: 417-432
- Barnes, Grace M. and Michael P. Farrell. 1992. "Parental Support and Control as Predictors of Adolescent Drinking, Delinquency, and Related Problem Behaviors." *Journal of Marriage and the Family*. 54: 763-776
- Barnes, Grace M., Alan S. Reifman, Michael R. Farrell, and Barbara A. Dintcheff. 2000. "The Effects of Parenting on the Development of Adolescent Alcohol Misuse: A Six-Wave Latent Growth Model." *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 62(1):175-186
- Baumrind, Diana. 1968. "Authoritarian VS. Authoritative Parental Control." *Adolescence*. 3(11):255-272
- Baumrind, Diana. "Effects of Authoritative Parental Control on Child Behavior." *Child Development*.
- Bean, Roy A., Brian K. Barber, and D. Russell Crane. 2006. "Parental Support, Behavioral Control, and Psychological Control Among African American Youth." *Journal of Family Issues*. 27(1): 1335- 1355
- Biblarz, Timothy J. and Judith Stacey. 2010. "How Does the Gender of the Parents Matter." *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 72:3-22

- Borawski, Elaine A., Carolyn E. Ievers-Landis, Loren D. Lovegreen, and Erika S. Trapi. . 2003. "Parental Monitoring, Negotiated Unsupervised and Parental Trust: The Role of Perceived Parenting Practices and Adolescent Health Risk Behaviors." *Journal of Adolescent Health*. 33:60- 70
- Bulcroft, Richard A., Dianne Cyr Carmody, and Kris Ann Bulcroft. 1996. "Patterns of Parental Independence Giving to Adolescents: Variations by Race, Age, and Gender of the Child." *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 58(4):866-883
- Carter, Don and David Welch. 1981. "Parenting Styles and Children's Behavior." *Family Relations*. 30(2):191-195
- Chassin, Laurie, Clark C. Presson, Jennifer Rose, Steven J. Sherman, Matthew J. Davis, .. and Jeremy L. Gonzalez. 2005. "Parenting Style and Smoking-Specific Parenting Practices as Predictors of Adolescent Smoking Onset." *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*. 30(4): 333-344
- Chodorow, Nancy. 2002. "The Cycle Completed: Mothers and Children." *Feminism and Psychology*. Vol. 12. No. 1.pp 11-17
- Choquet, Marie, Christine Hassler, Delphine Morin, Bruno Falissard, and Narkasen Chau. 2008. "Perceived Parenting Styles and Tobacco, Alcohol, and Cannabis Use Among French Adolescents: Gender and Family Structure Differentials." *Alcohol and Alcoholism*. 43(1):73-80
- Coley, Rebekah Levine, Holly S. Schindler, and Elizabeth Votruba-Drzal. 2009. "Fathers' and Mothers' Parenting Predicting and Responding to Adolescent Sexual Risk Behaviors." *Child Development*. 80(3):808-827
- Conrade, Glenys and Robert Ho. 2001. "Differential Parenting Styles for Fathers and Mothers: Differential Treatment for Sons and Daughters" *Australian Journal of Psychology*. 53(1): 29-35
- Darling, Nancy and Laurence Steinberg. 1993. "Parenting Style as Context: An Integrative Model." *Psychological Bulletin*. 113(3):487-496
- Devore, Elise R. and Kenneth R. Ginsburg. 2005. "The protective effects of good parenting on adolescents." *Current Opinion Pediatrics*. 17:460-46
- Dorius, Cassandra J, Stephen J. Bahr, John P. Hoffman, and Elizabeth Lovelady Harmon. 2004. "Parenting Practices as Moderators of the Relationship between Peers and .. Adolescent Marijuana Use." *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 66(1):163-178

- Fulton, Elizabeth and Lisa A. Turner. 2007. "Students' academic motivation: relations with parental warmth, autonomy, granting, and supervision." *Educational Psychology*. 28(5):521-534
- Galambos, Nancy L., Erin T. Barker, and David M. Almeida. 2003. "Parents Do Matter: Trajectories of Change in Externalizing and Internalizing Problems in Early Adolescence." *Child Development*. 74(2): 578-594
- Gilbert, Lucia A., Gary R. Hanson, and Beverly Davis. 1982. "Perceptions of Parental Role Responsibilities: Differences between Mothers and Fathers." *Family Relations*. 31(2): 261-269
- Gray, Mary Roberts, and Laurence Steinberg. 1999. "Unpacking Authoritative Parenting: Reassessing a Multidimensional Construct." *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 61(3):574-587
- Griffin, Kenneth W., Gilbert J. Botvin, Lawrence m. Scheier, Tracy Diaz, and Nicole L. Miller. 2000. "Parenting Practices as Predictors of Substance Use, Delinquency, and Aggression Among Urban Minority Youth: Moderating Effects of Family Structure and Gender." *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*. 14(2):174-184
- Gryczkowski, Michelle R., Sara S. Jordan, and Sterett H. Mercer. 2010. "Differential Relations between Mothers' and Fathers' Parenting Practices and Child Externalizing Behavior." *Journal of Child Family Studies*. 19: 539-546
- Hart, Craig H., D. Michelle DeWolf, Patricia Wozniak, and Diane C. Burts. 1992. "Maternal and Paternal Disciplinary Styles: Relations with Preschoolers' Playground Behavioral Orientations and Peer Status." *Child Development*. 63: 879-892
- Huebner, Angela J. and Laurie W. Howell. 2003. "Examining the Relationship Between Adolescent Sexual Risk-Taking and Perceptions of Monitoring, Communication, and Parenting Styles." *Journal of Adolescent Health*. 33:71-79
- Huver, Rose M.E., Rutger C.M.E. Engels, Gerard Van Breukelen, and Hein De Vries. 2007. "Parenting style and adolescent smoking cognitions and behavior." *Psychology and Health*. 22(5):575-593
- Jackson, Robert Max. 1989. "The Reproduction of Parenting." *American Sociological Review*. Vol 54. No. 2. Pp. 215-232

- Kapungu, Chisina T., Grayson N. Holmbeck, and Robert L. Paikoff. 2006. "Longitudinal Association Between Parenting Practices and Early Sexual Risk Behaviors among Urban African American Adolescents: The Moderating Role of Gender." *Journal of Youth Adolescence*. 35:787-798
- Kaufmann, Dagmar, Ellis Gesten, Raymond C. Santa Lucia, Octavia Salcedo, Gianna Rendina-Gobioff, and Ray Gadd. 2000. "The Relationship Between Parenting Style and Children's Adjustment: The Parents' Perspective." *Journal of Child and Family Studies*. 9(2): 231-245
- Knafo, Ariel and Shalom H. Schwartz. 2003. "Parenting and Adolescents' Accuracy in Perceiving Parental Values." *Child Development*. 74(2):595-611
- Kronsberg, Sandra, Karen Schmaling, and Beverly I. Fagot. 1985. "Risk in a Parent's Eyes: Effects of Gender and Parenting Experience." *Sex Roles*. 13(5-6):329-34
- Kymlicka, Will. 1991. "Rethinking the Family: Justice, Gender, and the Family." *Philosophy and Public Affairs*. Vol 20. No. 1 pp. 77-97
- Jackson, Robert Max. 1989. "The Reproduction of Parenting." *American Sociological Review*. 54(2):215-232
- Janowitz, Morris. 1975. "Sociological Theory and Social Control." *American Journal of Sociology*. 81(1): 82-108
- Lambourn, Susie D., Nina S. Mounts, Laurence Steinberg, and Sanford M. Dornbusch. 1991. "Patterns of Competence and Adjustment among Adolescents from Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful Families." *Child Development*. 62:1049-1065
- Li, Xiaoming, Susan Feigelman, and Bonita Stanton. 2000. "Perceived Parental Monitoring and Health Risk Behavior Among Urban Low-Income African American Children and Adolescents." *Journal of Adolescent Health*. 27:43-48
- Lindsey, Eric W. and Yvonne M. Caldera. 2006. "Mother-Father-Child Triadic Interaction and Mother-Child Dyadic Interaction: Gender Differences Within and Between Contexts." *Sex Roles*. 55: 511-521
- Lytton, H. and D. M. Romney. 1991. "Parents' differential socialization of boys and girls: A met-analysis." *Psychological Bulletin*. 109(2):267-296
- Longmore, Monica A., Wendy D. Manning, and Peggy C. Giordano. 2001. "Preadolescent Parenting Strategies and Teens' Dating and Sexual Initiation: A Longitudinal Analysis." *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 63(2):322-335
- McGuire, Jacqueline. 1988 "Gender Stereotypes of Parents with Two-Year-Olds and Beliefs About Gender Differences in Behavior." *Sex Roles*. 19(3-4):233-240

- McKee, Laura, Erin Roland, Nicole Coffelt, Ardis L. Olson, Res Forehand, Christine Masari, Deborah Jones, Cecelia A. Gaffney, and Michael S. Zens. 2007. "Harsh Discipline and Child Problem Behaviors: The Roles of Positive Parenting and Gender." *Journal of Family Violence*. 22:187-196
- Miller, Brent C. 2002. "Family Influences on Adolescent Sexual and Contraceptive Behavior." *The Journal of Sex Research*. 39(1):23-26
- Moon, Michelle, and Charles D. Hoffman. 2008. "Mothers' and Fathers' Differential Expectancies and Behaviors: Parent X Child Gender Effects." *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*. 164(3):261-27
- Morrongiello, Barbara A., Daniel Zdzieborski, and Jackie Normand. 2010. "Understanding gender differences in children's risk taking and injury: A comparison of mothers' and fathers' reactions to sons and daughters misbehaving in ways that lead to injury." *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*. 31:322-329
- Mott, Frank L., Lori Kowaleski-Jones, and Elizabeth G. Menaghan. 1997. "Paternal Absences and Child Behavior: Does a Child's Gender Make a Difference?" *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 59(1):103-118
- Pakizegi, Cornell. 1978. "The Interaction of Mothers and Fathers with Their Sons." *Child Development*. 49: 479-482
- Patcock-Peckham, Julie A. and Antonio A. Morgan-Lopez. 2009. "The gender specific mediational pathways between parenting styles, neuroticism, pathological reasons for drinking, and alcohol-related problems in emerging adulthood." *Addictive Behaviors*. 34: 312-315
- Phares, Vicky, Sherece Fields, and Dimitra Kamboukos. 2008. "Fathers' and Mothers' .. Involvement with Their Adolescents." *Journal of Child Family Studies*.18: 1-9
- Rodgers, Kathleen Boyce. 1999. "Parenting Processes Related to Sexual Risk-Taking Behaviors of Adolescent Males and Females." *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 62(1):99-109
- Scaramella, Laura V., Rand D. Conger, and Ronald L. Simons. 1999. "Parental Influences and Gender-Specific Increases in Adolescent Internalizing and Externalizing Problems." *Journal of Research on Adolescence*. 9(2): 111-141

- Simons, Leslie and Rand D. Conger. 2007. "Linking Mother-Father Differences in Parenting to a Typology of Family Parenting Styles and Adolescent Outcomes." *Journal of Family Issues*. 28:212-241
- Simons, Ronald L., Jay Beaman, Rand D. Conger, and We Chao. 1994. "Gender Differences in the Intergenerational Transmission of Parenting Beliefs." *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 54: 823-836
- Skinner, Ellen, Sandy Jounhson, and Tatiana Snyder.2005. "Six Dimensions of Parenting: A Motivational Model." *Parenting: Science and Practice*. 5(2): 175-2 5
- Slicker, Ellen K., Melanie Patton, and Dana K. Fuller. 2004. "Parenting Dimensions and Adolescent Sexual Initiation: Using Self-Esteem, Academic Aspiration, and Substance Use as Mediators." *Journal of Youth Studies*. 7(3): 295-314
- Small, Stephen A. and Gay Eastman. 1991. "Rearing Adolescents in Contemporary Society: A Conceptual Framework for Understanding the Responsibilities and Needs of Parents." *Family Relations*. 40(4):455-462
- Smith, Marjorie. 2010. "Good parenting: Making a Difference." *Early Human Development*. 86:689-69
- Starrels, Majorie E. 1994. "Gender Differences in Parent-Child Relations." *Journal of Family Issues*. 15(1): 1
- Stattin, Hakan and Magaret Kerr. 2000. "Parental Monitoring: A Reinterpretation." *Child Development*. 71(4):1072- 1085
- Tinkew-Bronte, Jacinta, Kristin A. Moore, and Jennifer Carrano. 2006. "The Father-Child Relationship, Parenting Styles, and Adolescent Risk Behaviors in Intact Families." *Journal of Family Issues*. 27(6):850-881
- Updegraff, Kimberly A., Melissa Y. Delgado, and Lorey A. Wheeler. 2009. "Exploring .. Mothers' and Fathers' Relationships with Sons Versus Daughters: Links to Adolescent Adjustment in Mexican Immigrant Families." *Sex Roles*. 60:559-574
- Whitbeck, Les B., Kevin A. Yoder, Dan R. Hoyt, and Rand D. Conger. 1999. "Early Adolescent Sexual Activity: A Developmental Study." *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 61(4):934-946
- Wilson-Morgo, Christina. 2008. "The Influence of Paternal Warmth and Control on Latino Adolescent Alcohol Use." *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*. 30(1):89-105