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Gender Differences in the Relations among Patriarchal Beliefs, Parenting and Teen Relationship Violence in Mexican Adolescents

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Abstract

Teen relationship violence is a global phenomenon associated with adverse outcomes. As in other countries, teen relationship violence is of concern in Mexico. However, few studies have examined the risk and protective factors of teen relationship violence among Mexican adolescents. The current study examined whether patriarchal beliefs and exposure to authoritarian parenting among Mexican adolescents are associated with perpetration and victimization of physical and verbal-emotional teen relationship violence. Two hundred and four students (15 – 18 years old) from Monterrey, Mexico completed questionnaires. Hierarchical regression analyses controlling for age revealed that among girls, authoritarian parenting was associated with physical and verbal-emotional victimization and verbal-emotional violence perpetration. Among boys, higher endorsement of patriarchal beliefs was associated with lower reports of physical perpetration and physical victimization.

Keywords

teen relationship violence; patriarchal beliefs; authoritarian parenting; Mexico

Relationship violence is a significant social and health concern affecting many adolescents. A large proportion of studies on relationship violence have primarily focused on college-aged White populations (e.g., Harned, 2001; Jackson, 1999; Luthra & Gidycz, 2006) or more generally on U.S. and Canadian adolescents (Lewis & Fremouw, 2001). However, a growing body of research with samples outside of North America suggest that teen relationship violence (TRV) is a global phenomenon (Connolly et al., 2010; Gover, Park, Tomsich, & Jennings, 2011; Schiff & Zeira, 2005).

A handful of studies indicate that relationship partner violence is also prevalent in Mexico. Although it is often difficult to draw cross-national comparisons in prevalence rates due to different definitions of what constitutes TRV (and different implications of the construct that are specific to each country) or different time frames used to measure TRV across studies (e.g., last month versus last year), a study of university students across 31 universities in 16

countries (e.g., U.S., Canada, Mexico, Australia) helps illuminate the importance of studying TRV in Mexico (Straus, 2004). Results revealed that across the 31 locations, university students from Mexico reported the second highest rate of overall assault perpetration (e.g., pushed or shoved my partner) with 42% reporting physically assaulting a dating partner in the last 12 months. Moreover, in a study of nearly 8,000 Mexican youth (ages 11 – 24), Rivera-Rivera and colleagues (2007) reported prevalence rates ranging from 4% to 23% for victimization and perpetration of both physical and psychological violence. In particular, girls reported slightly more victimization of psychological violence than boys (9.4% and 8.6%, respectively), although boys reported higher physical violence victimization than girls (22.7% and 9.9%, respectively). With regard to perpetration of violence, approximately 20% of boys and girls reported perpetrating physical violence, and approximately 4% of boys and girls reported perpetrating psychological violence in their dating relationships. Moreover, dating violence against Mexican women has been shown to be associated with greater odds of victims reporting depression, alcohol abuse, and poor academic performance (Rivera-Rivera, Allen, Rodriguez-Ortega, Chávez-Ayala, & Lazcano-Ponce, 2006). Despite evidence that dating and domestic violence is a prevalent problem in Mexico, few studies (e.g., Antônio & Hokoda, 2009; Clarey, Hokoda, & Ulloa, 2010; Rivera-Rivera et al., 2007) have examined risk and protective factors associated with TRV perpetration and victimization among boys and girls. The current study examines two influential factors in Mexican culture that research in the U.S. has linked to relationship violence but that remain unstudied in Mexico: patriarchal beliefs and authoritarian parenting.

The pressure to identify with the traditional male role, which is closely tied to patriarchal beliefs, is a factor that has been found to contribute to boys' increased aggression and anger and reduced coping strategies (Stoltz, 2005). Patriarchal beliefs, or as termed in Mexican and other Latino populations, *machismo*, has been described as attitudes of supremacy by men regarding women (Mayo, 1994). Machismo, and its stereotypical characteristics of male dominance, aggression, and oppressive and controlling behaviors toward women and children (Goldwert, 1985), is associated with Mexican and Mexican Americans more often than with other cultures (Gilmore, 1990). Some researchers suggest that these traditional patriarchal views (i.e., men are entitled to behaviors that allow them to be dominant and maintain control over women) can encourage a tolerance for abuse (Perilla, Bakeman, & Norris, 1994). However, other researchers suggest that because machismo also involves a dimension of protectiveness over women and loyalty to the family, it may be a culture-specific construct that protects against relationship violence (Sanderson, Coker, Roberts, Tortolero, & Reininger, 2004). A study of Hispanics living in the U.S. revealed that Mexico-born individuals, who identify most with traditional Mexican culture, are less likely to be violent in comparison to U.S. born Mexican-Americans (Kantor, Jasinski, & Aldarondo, 1994). The current study will examine if patriarchal beliefs are associated with TRV among Mexican adolescents and whether these beliefs are associated with an elevated or reduced risk of victimization and perpetration. Given limited past research and mixed findings from studies of adolescent patriarchal beliefs, two alternative hypotheses are plausible. That is, it may be expected that stronger patriarchal beliefs protect Mexican adolescents from involvement in TRV or conversely that patriarchal beliefs increase the likelihood of involvement with TRV (either as a victim or perpetrator).

Mexican culture may also influence other factors that have implications for teen relationship violence. In fact, another factor linked to teen relationship violence is exposure to authoritarian parenting (Simons, Burt, & Simons, 2008; Simons, Lin, & Gordon, 1998). Through the use of an authoritarian discipline style (e.g., incorporating physical discipline), parents may convey to their adolescents that aggression is an appropriate or effective way to resolve conflict. However, research suggests that ethnic group status may moderate the negative effects associated with parenting risk factors (Deater-Deckard, Dodge, Bates, &

Pettit, 1998). For example, among Latinos authoritative parenting may be viewed as a necessary and positive form of discipline that produces good citizens (Corral-Verdugo, Frias-Armenta, Romero, & Munoz, 1995). Although past research shows that authoritarian parenting predicts later dating violence perpetration among boys (e.g., Simons et al., 2008) and girls (e.g., Foshee, Bauman, & Linder, 1999) in the U.S., the relationship between authoritarian parenting and TRV (both victimization and perpetration) has not been explored among families in Mexico. **In the current study, it is hypothesized that, similar to findings from studies conducted in the U.S., authoritarian parenting will increase the likelihood of TRV perpetration among Mexican adolescents. That is, it is expected that Mexican adolescents exposed to more authoritarian parenting will be more likely to report that they have used violence against their dating partner, compared to Mexican adolescents exposed to less (or no) authoritarian parenting at home.**

Given the high prevalence of dating and domestic violence in Mexico (Rivera-Rivera et al., 2007), and limited research examining TRV among adolescents in Mexico, it is clear that there is a need for empirical investigations regarding TRV and its associated risk and protective factors in Mexican adolescents. The current study examines the prevalence of TRV victimization and perpetration among a sample of Mexican teens during late adolescence. Our focus is on late adolescence because it is a critical developmental stage when youth begin to form more intimate relationships with peers and thus, may also be the time when violence likely occurs in dating relationships (Gorman-Smith, Tolan, Sheidow, & Henry, 2001; Smith, White, & Holland, 2003). In addition, the current study will examine patriarchal beliefs and authoritarian parenting in relationship to perpetration and victimization of two types of violence: physical and verbal-emotional violence. Past research suggests that associations with TRV may differ for girls and boys among adolescents from the U.S. and Canada (Callahan, Tolman, & Saunders, 2003; Sears, Byers, & Price, 2007). For example, Callahan and colleagues (2003) found that although relationship violence victimization was associated with lower psychological well-being for both adolescent boys and girls, a few distinct links emerged. That is, among boys the frequency of victimization was associated with anxiety, depression and posttraumatic stress whereas for girls, frequency of victimization was only associated with dissociation (accounting for controls). In a study examining perpetration of TRV, alcohol use predicted perpetration only among girls and holding attitudes that are accepting of dating violence predicted perpetration only among boys (Foshee, Linder, MacDougall, & Bangdlwala, 2001). These studies highlight that factors which either increase or decrease the likelihood of involvement in TRV may differ for boys and girls. Therefore, in the current study we will examine whether associations between patriarchal beliefs and authoritarian parenting and TRV vary by gender among Mexican adolescents.

Method

Participants

Participants were 204 Mexican students (75 boys; 129 girls) between the ages of 15 and 18 ($M = 15.46$ years; $SD = .80$); most of the students (89%) were 15 or 16 years old. Students were recruited from two high schools (*preparatorias*) in Monterrey, Mexico. No information on individual participants' socioeconomic status was collected, however, both schools were located within 15 miles from each other in lower to middle class areas of the city. Independent t-tests comparing the two schools on TRV perpetration and victimization revealed no significant differences ($p > .05$), therefore, the two school samples were combined to form the analytic sample.

Procedures

Assessment Procedures—Researchers and an administrator from two high schools in Monterrey, Mexico recruited students from their classrooms to participate in the study. Classrooms were chosen by convenience sampling; teachers gave permission to recruit in their classes largely based on their lesson and exam schedules for the week. The purpose and procedures of the study were explained to all students in a group-setting, and sample questions were read so that they understood that the questions ask for sensitive information. Nine hundred and thirty three parental permission forms were sent home, and 260 consent forms indicating parental permission to participate were returned (overall response rate of 28%) over a 2-day period. Because the permission form asked for a parent to sign only if s/he gave their permission for their child to participate, it is unknown if the low participation rate was due to failure for parents to receive the packet, parents' refusal to give permission, or simply students' failure to return the signed permission forms. No information was gathered from students without the signed parental consent form; thus, potential group differences between participants and non-participants could not be examined. Those students returning the parental permission forms went to an auditorium and were given an assent form; 214 students agreed to participate (82% of the eligible students). Of the 214 students who agreed to participate, ten were not included in the analysis because they were not between the targeted ages of 15 to 18 years old. In the assent forms, students were told that their responses would be anonymous and their participation was voluntary. They were also told they could stop completing the survey at any time. All assessment procedures were approved by an Institutional Review Board, administrators at the schools, and faculty at San Diego State University and the Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León (UANL). Once assent forms were signed, participants completed the survey which took approximately 30 minutes. Afterwards, they were given a list of resources in the Monterrey area and were asked to return to their classrooms.

Measures

The Spanish language survey contained a battery of measures assessing victimization and perpetration of TRV, parenting discipline styles and patriarchal beliefs. Means and standard deviations for the scales are presented in Table 1.

Translation Procedures—Questionnaires were translated and back-translated by Mexican Nationals affiliated with San Diego State University (SDSU), in collaboration with staff from the Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León (UANL) in Monterrey, Mexico. First, our bilingual team of Mexican and Mexican American research assistants reviewed all measures for appropriateness with this population. Next, the English versions of the measures were translated into Spanish and then back-translated into English (Brislin, 1970). Finally, the English and Spanish translated versions were reviewed to ensure that cultural, conceptual, and structural equivalence were maintained and to reduce any inconsistencies between the translated versions.

Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI)—The CADRI is a self-report instrument developed by Wolfe and colleagues (2001) to measure teen relationship violence perpetration and victimization among adolescent dating partners within the past year. It consists of 34 items that are answered on a four-point Likert scale ranging from “never” (0) to “often” (3). The CADRI subscales used in the present study include Verbal-Emotional Abuse (10 items) and Physical Abuse (4 items). Sample items for each subscale are, “I insulted my dating partner,” and “I slapped my dating partner or pulled his/her hair,” respectively. For the translated survey used in this study the alphas were moderate to high: perpetration verbal-emotional = .80, perpetration physical abuse = .80; victimization verbal-emotional abuse = .77 and victimization physical abuse = .74.

Report of Discipline—Fourteen items measuring authoritarian parenting style were chosen from the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 1995). The authoritarian scale contains subscales of verbal hostility, corporal punishment, non-reasoning and punitive strategies, and directiveness. A sample item includes “How often do your parents slap you when you misbehave.” Respondents are asked to respond on a 5-point scale ranging from “never” (1) to “a lot” (5); scores for the scales and subscales are obtained by summing items within each dimension. The alpha for the translated authoritarian scale used in the present study was .85.

Patriarchal beliefs—The Mirandé Sex Role Inventory (MSRI) consists of statements that reflect traditional Latino values surrounding the role of men and women in the Latino society (Mirandé, 1997). A 17-item subscale assessing the component of traditionalism was adapted from the original scale. Sample questions included “women should always honor and respect men” and “real men have complete authority in the family”. Respondents are asked to respond on a 4-point Likert-type scale labeled “strongly disagree” (1) and “strongly agree” (4) at its endpoints. The alpha for the translated measure used in the present study was .85.

Results

To explore gender differences among our variables of interest, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted on six dependent variables: perpetration and victimization of physical and verbal-emotional TRV, patriarchal beliefs, and authoritarian parenting. Results revealed gender differences, $F(6, 158) = 4.41, p < .001$ and univariate analyses were run. Analyses indicated that boys ($M = 46.88, SD = 8.84$) were more likely to endorse patriarchal beliefs than girls ($M = 41.35, SD = 7.81$); $F(1, 163) = 15.67, p < .001$. No gender differences were found for the other variables.

Given that no differences were found among boys and girls in TRV, prevalence rates of perpetration and victimization of physical and verbal-emotional abuse are collapsed across gender. The item-level prevalence rates are presented in Table 2. On average, 11.2% of Mexican adolescents reported being physically abusive towards their dating partner at least once in the past year with a range between 6% and 13.6% across the individual items. Six percent of adolescents reported kicking, hitting or punching their dating partner whereas 13.6% reported slapping their dating partner or pulling their hair. Approximately 10% of students reported at least one act of physical victimization by a dating partner with a range between 7.8% and 11.4%. Similar to reports of perpetration, the most commonly reported act of physical victimization was being slapped by a dating partner or having their hair pulled. The prevalence of perpetration and victimization of verbal-emotional abuse was higher and showed greater variability at the item-level compared to physical abuse. On average, 43.3% of Mexican adolescents reported verbal-emotional perpetration and 41.6% reported being the victim of verbal-emotional abuse from their dating partner. Specifically, between 15.9% and 68.1% of Mexican teens reported verbal-emotional perpetration and between 19.0% and 68.4% reported victimization. For example, over 68% of teens report keeping track of where their dating partner was and whom they were with, over 60% report doing something to make their partner jealous, and about 50% report saying things to make their partner angry. These incidents were the most frequently reported types of verbal-emotional perpetration and victimization items.

Correlation Analysis

Because gender differences were found in patriarchal beliefs and we were interested in examining if associations between victimization and perpetration of dating violence and the

predictors (i.e., patriarchal beliefs, authoritarian parenting) vary by gender, correlations were run separately for boys and girls. As shown in Table 3, associations were found between patriarchal beliefs and perpetration and victimization of physical violence in boys. For example, more traditional patriarchal beliefs in boys were related to lower reports of physical perpetration. There were no significant relationships between perpetration or victimization of TRV and patriarchal beliefs in girls. Associations were also found between authoritarian parenting and perpetration and victimization of TRV among girls, but not boys. Authoritarian parenting was related to a higher perpetration of verbal-emotional violence. Additionally, authoritarian parenting was associated with physical victimization and verbal-emotional victimization among girls.

Regression Analyses Predicting TRV

Four sets of hierarchical regression analyses, run separately for boys and girls examined how patriarchal beliefs and authoritarian parenting may simultaneously predict perpetration and victimization of teen relationship violence. Given that our participants ranged across several ages and past studies have found age-related differences (e.g., Silverman, Raj, Mucci, & Hathaway, 2001) we control for age in all analyses. Table 4 summarizes the results from the regression analyses predicting physical violence perpetration and victimization. The final model for physical perpetration among boys accounted for 20% of the variance, $F(3, 54) = 4.35, p = .008$. Moreover, 17% of the variance in physical victimization was accounted for in the final model for boys, $F(3, 53) = 3.33, p = .027$. After controlling for age, patriarchal beliefs predicted both physical perpetration and victimization among boys. Specifically, boys who endorsed more patriarchal beliefs were less likely to be perpetrators of physical teen relationship violence ($B = -.44, p < .001$) and less likely to be physically victimized by a dating partner ($B = -.36, p = .008$). Authoritarian parenting did not emerge as a significant predictor for physical TRV among boys. The final model among girls predicting physical perpetration did not account for a significant amount of variance and the model predicting physical perpetration accounted for a marginal amount of the variance, 7%, $F(3, 110) = 2.64, p = .053$. Authoritarian parenting significantly predicted girls' reports of physical victimization ($B = .25, p = .008$). That is, girls who reported higher levels of authoritarian parenting in their home were more likely to experience physical victimization.

The results from the regression analyses predicting verbal-emotional TRV are shown in Table 5. For boys, neither patriarchal beliefs nor authoritarian parenting predicted perpetration or victimization of verbal-emotional TRV (all p 's $> .05$). However, among girls, the final model predicting verbal-emotional perpetration accounted for 11% of the variance, $F(3, 110) = 4.45, p = .006$ and 13% of the variance in verbal-emotional victimization was accounted for by the predictors, $F(3, 110) = 5.30, p = .002$. After controlling for age, authoritarian parenting positively predicted perpetration ($B = .30, p = .001$) and victimization ($B = .33, p = .001$) of verbal-emotional TRV. This suggests that girls who experience authoritarian parenting are more likely to report involvement in verbal-emotional TRV, as both perpetrators and victims.

In summary, the results revealed that patriarchal beliefs reduced the likelihood of boys being involved in TRV, particularly for physical violence. Also, boys who reported more endorsement of patriarchal beliefs were less likely to be physically targeted by a dating partner. Patriarchal beliefs were not associated with girls' reports of TRV. Nonetheless, girls who reported a more authoritarian parenting style in their home were more likely to be perpetrators of verbal-emotional violence and victims of both types of TRV. Interestingly, authoritarian parenting was not predictive of boys' reports of physical or verbal-emotional TRV.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to assess prevalence rates of physical and verbal-emotional TRV among Mexican students during late adolescence and, furthermore, to examine whether patriarchal beliefs (i.e., *machismo*) and exposure to authoritarian parenting are related to TRV. For physical TRV, slightly over 11% of Mexican teens reported perpetration and about 10% reported experiencing physical violence victimization. For verbal-emotional TRV, the estimates were higher such that an average of 43% reported perpetration and 42% reported victimization. The prevalence estimates provide further evidence that violence in dating relationships is a global phenomenon affecting not only adolescents in the U.S. and Canada but also Mexican adolescents and highlight the importance of extending the populations in which TRV is studied.

The examination of risk and protective factors revealed no link between perpetration or victimization of TRV and patriarchal beliefs in girls. However, associations were found between perpetration and victimization of physical violence and patriarchal beliefs in boys. Contrary to literature on Latinos in the U.S. (e.g., Perilla et al., 1994; Sugihara & Warner, 2002), more traditional patriarchal beliefs were related to lower reports of physical perpetration and lower physical victimization in our sample of Mexican boys. The results suggest that among Mexican boys, patriarchal beliefs may be a protective factor against perpetration of relationship violence. These results are consistent with research stating that patriarchal beliefs, specifically *machismo*, is made up of positive dimensions such as being family oriented and interested in the welfare and honor of their loved ones, including providing for and protecting their families (Falicov, 1998). That is, because *machismo* may be conceptualized as describing a man who respects and honors his significant other and family, teen boys with strong *machismo* beliefs may assume dominance, but that dominance and authority does not validate physically or sexually assaulting their partners. Thus, Mexican adolescent boys who hold more traditional patriarchal beliefs may also view their partners with respect, reducing the likelihood of dating violence. The traditionalism subscale from the Mirandé (1988) scale used in this study includes items describing male dominance and authority (e.g., “Real men have complete authority in the family”), as well as items describing family loyalty and honor (e.g., “Good men spend time with their wives and children”, “Worst thing a man can do is disgrace his family”).

Torres and colleagues (2002) examined the construct of *machismo* and reported that when defined “within its ethnic and cultural parameters, contrary to its stereotypical negative image, *machismo* is a normative cultural value and set of behavioral indicators that define public and private gender roles and family relationships for Latino men” (pp. 175). Vasquez (1994) suggests that traditional gender roles in a couple can be healthy if there is mutuality and respect for each other’s roles. This study demonstrates that there may be aspects of traditional gender roles that serve as protective factors against physical perpetration towards their dating partners among adolescent males. For example, a study on dating violence amongst Latino adolescents found that beliefs in mutuality of power related to a lower approval of violence in their dating relationships (Ulloa, Jaycox, Marshall, & Collins, 2004). Future studies should further discriminate aspects of traditionalism (e.g., honor) and other beliefs (e.g., mutuality of power) to determine factors that influence the relationship between patriarchal beliefs and relationship violence within Mexican adolescents.

Consistent with previous research linking authoritarian parenting (e.g., more power assertive parenting) to aggression (e.g., Coie & Dodge, 1998; Schwartz, Dodge, Petit, & Bates, 1997), this study found that authoritarian parenting was associated with not only perpetration of TRV, but also victimization of both types of TRV. However, this association was found only in girls. One explanation for the relationship between authoritarian parenting and

perpetration of TRV is that in traditional Mexican culture there are strong gender role divisions and girls are encouraged to be dependent upon the family and remain close to home (Raffaelli & Ontai, 2004). Because Mexican girls may spend more time at home and be more closely tied to family life, they may have fewer opportunities to observe alternative, and possibly more constructive strategies for resolving interpersonal conflict (Foshee, Bauman, & Linder, 1999). Thus, they may be more likely to use perpetration tactics to resolve conflicts in their dating relationships. Moreover, because there was also a strong relationship between authoritarian parenting and TRV victimization among girls, it may be that after being the victim of corporal punishment in the home by parents, girls may believe that aggression and physical violence are appropriate means that others use to resolve conflict. The results indicate that girls may be more susceptible than boys to the disharmony and negativity associated with authoritarian parenting. Future research should examine parenting styles that are traditionally viewed as more positive (i.e., authoritative) to test if similar findings emerge. For example, are girls also more sensitive to these positive parenting styles such that it serves a protective function against involvement in TRV?

Although the current study makes a significant contribution to the TRV literature, some limitations should be noted. First, it is unknown in this study whether the adolescents are reporting on their mothers' or their fathers' authoritarian parenting. Researchers focusing on gender-related socialization in Latino families have reported differential treatment of girls versus boys by mothers and fathers. For example, in a U.S. based study of Puerto Rican and Mexican teens, parents' traditional beliefs related to differential treatment of their girls versus boys in their establishment of rules about dating (Villarruel, 1998). Similarly, female Latina adolescents report less freedom to pursue social activities and more parental restrictions surrounding dating than Latino male adolescents (Raffaelli & Ontai, 2004). Furthermore, mothers and fathers serve different roles with their children. For example, fathers' authority becomes more prevalent as children become older (Esteinou, 2004) and research describes mothers as having a primary role as a teacher and having closer bonds with their children (e.g., Boyd-Franklin & García-Preto, 1994; Esteinou, 2004). This research points to the importance of examining Mexican mothers' and fathers' parenting styles and gender-specific socialization practices in relation to their daughters' and sons' involvement in teen relationship violence. Given that authoritarian parenting related to both TRV perpetration and victimization, future studies among Mexican adolescents would benefit from examining how other family factors such as parent control and monitoring may moderate these relationships to further disentangle current findings.

Second, since this study was conducted in Monterrey, Mexico, a large city located near the United States border (within 150 miles of Texas), these results may not generalize to teens living in more rural and central or southern geographic regions of Mexico. Other factors that might affect the generalizability of this study's findings include age and socioeconomic status. Attendance in high schools in Mexico is not mandated or paid for by the government, therefore, not all older teens go to school. Moreover, given that the majority of our sample was of a similar age (15 or 16 years old), these findings may not extend to early adolescents or older adolescents approaching adulthood. Future studies comprised of Mexican teens encompassing a wider age span would allow an investigation of potential developmental differences and would be particularly advantageous to the TRV literature. Furthermore, we did not obtain detailed information regarding the socioeconomic status of the students in our sample, although the schools were located in predominantly middle class areas of the city. Therefore, generalizability and conclusions about the results regarding socioeconomic status cannot be made. Third, given the relatively low response rate (28%) in this study, there could be potential for differences between those that participated in the study versus those who did not. For example, students who refused to participate may have had a higher prevalence of TRV, and thus, may have been fearful that their responses would not be

confidential. Data was not gathered regarding reasons for not returning the consent form, nor were we able to obtain information about students who did not return the consent form. Therefore, potential group differences between participants and non-participants could not be examined.

Additionally, because the results are correlational and based on self-reported and cross-sectional data, we cannot disentangle the direction of associations. Finally, although self-report data allows us to focus on teens' own experiences and perceptions, it is not without susceptibility to bias and the problems of shared method variance. Thus, future research that draws from multiple informants may strengthen the results. For example, data regarding TRV can be collected from dating partners and parents can provide information on parenting practices. To reduce shared method variance, Simons, Lin and Gordon (1998) gathered data from adolescent boys (e.g., TRV perpetration, delinquency) and also from their parents (e.g., parent warmth, monitoring).

Despite these limitations, the results present information regarding significant factors that may contribute to and protect Mexican adolescents from TRV, and have implications for future interventions. Generally, a large focus in the TRV literature has been to examine the negative consequences associated with involvement in TRV. Although this is important research, more studies are needed that focus on the identification of protective factors in TRV. In particular, little attention has been given to identifying culturally relevant factors that may serve a protective role and such studies may provide important insights for intervention efforts. Given that patriarchal beliefs were found to be linked to TRV and there is an intensification of gender-related socialization during adolescence (Hill & Lynch, 1983; Ruble & Martin, 1998), efforts to instill positive aspects of traditional gender role beliefs are needed during this critical developmental period, particularly among boys. Furthermore, because authoritarian parenting was associated with girls' involvement in dating violence, parent education is an important component that should be included in school-based interventions. Further research is needed to determine how parent education may be especially effective given the importance of family solidarity and support (*familism*) in traditional Mexican culture (Marin & Marin, 1991; Martinez & Eddy, 2005). Thus, family interventions that emphasize a focus on mutuality and respect (Vasquez, 1994) and promote protectiveness, honor and respectful communication versus dominance and authority may be useful in addressing TRV in Mexico.

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Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Dating Violence, Patriarchal Beliefs and Parenting Scales

Scale Scores	Ranges	Means	Standard Deviations
Dating Violence			
Physical Perpetration	0 – 12	.62	1.43
Physical Victimization	0 – 12	.57	1.35
Verbal-Emotional Perpetration	0 – 30	6.43	4.71
Verbal-Emotional Victimization	0 – 30	6.54	5.36
Patriarchal Beliefs	17 – 85	43.34	8.64
Authoritarian Parenting	14 – 70	27.07	8.79

Table 2

Frequencies for TRV Perpetration and Victimization Subscales

	Percentage of Endorsements	
	1 or more times	
	Perpetrator	Victim
Physical Abuse		
Threw something at dating partner	13.5	10.8
Kicked, hit or punched dating partner	6	7.8
Slapped dating partner or pulled his/her hair	13.6	11.4
Pushed, shoved or shook dating partner	11.8	10.2
Verbal-Emotional Abuse		
Did something to make dating partner jealous	62.3	61.4
Brought up something bad that he/she had done in the past	48.2	43.7
Said things to make dating partner angry	52.6	49.4
Spoke to dating partner in a mean voice	39	33.5
Insulted dating partner	28.2	24.7
Made fun of dating partner in front of other	15.9	19
Kept track of where dating partner was and who he/she was with	68.1	68.4
Blamed dating partner for the problem	49.1	48.8
Accused dating partner of flirting with another person	42.9	48.8
Threatened to end the relationship	26.7	18.7

Table 3

Correlations Among Patriarchal Beliefs, Authoritarian Parenting, and Dating Violence

Dating Violence	Patriarchal Beliefs		Authoritarian Parenting	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Physical Perpetration	-.41 **	.00	.07	.09
Physical Victimization	-.32 *	-.01	.09	.25 **
Verbal-Emotional Perpetration	.00	-.04	.21	.30 **
Verbal-Emotional Victimization	-.08	.04	.22	.31 **

Note.

*
< .05;**
< .01

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Physical TRV

	Boys						Girls					
	Perpetration			Victimization			Perpetration			Victimization		
	B	<i>t</i>		B	<i>t</i>		B	<i>t</i>		B	<i>t</i>	
Step 1												
Age	.18	1.39		.24	1.80		.16	1.63		.08	.85	
Step 2												
Patriarchal Beliefs	-.44	-3.46 ^{**}		-.36	-2.75 [*]		-.02	-.16		.01	.15	
Authoritarian Parenting	.06	.48		.07	.49		.09	.95		.25	2.69 [*]	

Note. Standardized beta's are shown in table.

* $p < .01$;

** $p < .001$

Table 5

Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Verbal-Emotional TRV

	Boys						Girls					
	Perpetration			Victimization			Perpetration			Victimization		
Step 1	B	<i>t</i>		B	<i>t</i>		B	<i>t</i>		B	<i>t</i>	
Age	.15	1.09		.29	2.13*		.15	1.60		.15	1.65	
Step 2												
Patriarchal Beliefs	-.03	-.19		-.13	-1.01		-.01	-.10		.07	.77	
Authoritarian Parenting	.19	1.35		.18	1.37		.30	3.29**		.33	3.57**	

Note. Standardized beta's are shown in table.* $p < .05$;** $p < .01$