PARENT–YOUTH DISCREPANT REPORTS OF PARENTING: PREDICTORS AND ASSOCIATIONS WITH YOUTH INTERNALIZED OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation conceptualized and investigated relations of parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting with youth internalized outcomes. The first chapter laid the foundation by discussing the benefits of a multiple-informant approach to studying parenting, the theories and methods researchers have used to consider and explore parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting, and potential avenues for empirical work. The following two chapters are empirical investigations using data from the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development – Social Development Sub-study. The second chapter explored whether parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting are related to youth anxiety. Results using hierarchical regression indicated that including both parent and youth reports of parenting best predicted youth anxiety, however evidence was mixed for the predictive value of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth anxiety. Regarding patterns of discrepancy and youth anxiety, results using polynomial regression with response surface analysis indicated youth who agreed with their parent or reported higher than their parent on positive dimensions of parenting, namely parental involvement and positive parenting, reported less anxiety. For negative parenting dimensions, youth who reported similar amounts or higher than their parent on inconsistent discipline or poor monitoring/supervision reported more anxiety. Finally, youth from dyads where parents and youth both reported high or low amounts of parental poor monitoring/supervision reported more anxiety than parents and youth who share agreement at moderate levels of poor monitoring/supervision. The third chapter explored predictors of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. Using latent difference score modeling, results indicated that compared to parent reports, girls overreported positive parenting dimensions more than boys, and girls underreported negative parenting dimensions more than boys. Economic hardship was associated with youth

reporting more negative parenting than their parents. Youth endorsing family obligation values associated with them reporting more positive dimensions of parenting than their parents. Parents' endorsement of independence and self-reliance values associated with parents reporting more parental involvement, more positive parenting, and less maladaptive monitoring/supervision than their youth. Overall, this dissertation found that certain characteristics/contexts relate to parent–youth disagreements on parenting, and those disagreements are related to youth anxiety.

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INTRODUCTION

The first chapter of this dissertation describes the general associations between parenting behaviors, such as parental warmth, and youth outcomes, such as youth anxiety, noting that most research demonstrating this association is based on sole reports (parent or youth) of parenting. The use of multiple informants' reports of parenting is then justified, specifically parent and youth reports. Research suggests that (a) there is low agreement between parents and youth on parenting, (b) each perspective is distinct, and (c) both should be retained to protect against shared method variance. Additionally, using a multiple informant approach offers the opportunity to explore discrepancies between parent and youth reports of parenting and test whether the discrepancy itself predicts youth outcomes. Next, theoretical frameworks are reviewed that are relevant to studying parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. Lastly, the strengths and weaknesses of methodological approaches that analyze the discrepancy created between parents and youth when using a multiple informant approach are reviewed.

The second chapter follows the initial conceptual chapter by empirically investigating whether parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting (specifically parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision) predict youth reported anxiety. This study contributes to current research on (a) the association of parenting with youth internalizing problems and (b) parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting by using a larger, more diverse U.S. sample and by employing a design that directly demonstrates the value of including multiple reports of parenting and examining the discrepancies in these reports.

Given the investigation of the second chapter, the final chapter of this dissertation is another empirical investigation, querying who may be more/less prone to parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. This study investigated whether contextual factors, namely youth

gender, parent gender, parent reports of economic hardship, youths' reports of family obligation, and parents' reports of family obligation and independence/self-reliance predict parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting (specifically parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, poor monitoring/supervision). This study moves beyond current, limited evidence by using more nuanced contextual variables (e.g., economic hardship and cultural values) to predict parent and youth discrepant reports of both positive and negative dimensions of parenting. This investigation completes the project by investigating which parent–youth dyads are vulnerable to problematic patterns of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting, and thus vulnerable to youth anxiety and other concerning youth outcomes.

CHAPTER I: CONCEPTUALIZING PARENT AND YOUTH DISCREPANT REPORTS OF PARENTING

Abstract

This article is a review of the literature on parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. Specifically, I address the rationale for and benefits of using multi-informant reports of parenting, theoretical frameworks for understanding parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting, appropriate methodological approaches (including strengths and limitations), and what is currently known about the association of parenting with youth outcomes from studies that used those approaches. Studies were included in this review if they (a) included parent and youth reports of parenting and assessed discrepancies between them, (b) were published between 2020 and 2025, and (c) utilized prominent discrepancy methodologies, namely difference score/latent difference score modeling, latent profile analysis, and polynomial regression. This work contributes to the field of parent–youth reports discrepant reports of parenting by helping scholars new to the field learn how to implement discrepancy methodologies and understand what is currently known from using those methodologies.

Introduction

Scholars seeking to study parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting may find themselves faced with a complex topic. Potential challenges include understanding the scientific background of the subject (which has roots in multi-informant assessments of youth mental health), applying established human development and family science theoretical frameworks to parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting, and learning the statistical approaches commonly used to study this topic. Given these challenges, the goal of this paper is to map out the historical, theoretical, and methodological territory for studying parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting. First, parenting constructs and the literature demonstrating their reliable association with youth outcomes, albeit primarily from studies relying on a sole reporter of

parenting (parent or youth), are briefly reviewed. Second, the rationale for the use of multiple perspectives (parent and youth) of parenting is discussed. Research suggests that (a) there is low agreement between parents and youth on parenting, (b) each perspective is distinct and warrants study, and (c) both should be retained to protect against shared method variance. Third, the theoretical frameworks that suggest why parents and youth may see parenting differently (i.e., Family Systems Theory, Generational Stake Hypothesis, and Psychosocial Theory of Development) as well as how the pattern of discrepancy may impact youth outcomes (i.e., Operations Triad Model) are reviewed. Fourth, the methodological approaches used for multiple informant parenting data (i.e., including both youth and parent perspectives of parenting) and the evidence attained from each method about the relation between parent–youth discrepancies and youth outcomes are reviewed. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the implications this work has for scientific and clinical application as well as the limitations of the current knowledge with regard to parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting with suggestions for several specific areas in need of attention.

Parenting and Youth Outcomes

Parenting Dimensions and Types

Scholarship on parenting is generally based on either parenting dimensions or parenting types. Parenting dimensions are discrete aspects of parenting behavior such as parental warmth (Smetana, 2017). Parenting types are commonly constructed by patterns of multiple parenting dimensions (Smetana, 2017). One well-known dimensional framework was developed by Schaefer (1965) and included acceptance vs. rejection, psychological autonomy vs. psychological control, and firm control vs. lax control. Barber et al. (2005) refined these dimensions as parental support, psychological control, and behavioral control. Parental support

and acceptance include parental behaviors that are warm, nurturing, and involved. Psychological control and psychological autonomy capture a parent's control of their child's inner world, such as their thoughts and feelings. Finally, behavioral control, or firm vs. lax control, specifies a parent's control over their child's physical behavior such as where the youth is allowed to go. These dimensions have been broadened in recent research. For example, additional dimensions related to parental acceptance include parental warmth, support, responsiveness, and involvement. Dimensions related to psychological control include parental guilt induction, negative verbal interactions, and demandingness. Lastly, dimensions similar to behavioral control include parental rule setting and parental monitoring (Calders et al., 2020).

Patterns of parenting dimensions can be used to create parenting typologies. The most well-known parenting typology was developed by Baumrind (1991) and Maccoby and Martin (1983) who used dimensions of parental responsiveness and demandingness to eventually create four different categories of parenting styles, namely: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful. Parental responsiveness is defined by the warmth and support parents give their children. Parental demandingness includes expectations and rules parents create for their children. Authoritative parents are high in both responsiveness and demandingness. These parents have high expectations for their children and offer warmth and support to meet those expectations. Authoritarian parents are low in responsiveness and high in demandingness. These parents also have high expectations but may not offer as much warmth and support to achieve those expectations (Baumrind 1991). According to this framework, permissive parents are high in responsiveness and low in demandingness. These parents commonly have low expectations or minimal rules for their children and give them higher amounts of warmth and support. Finally, neglectful parents are low in responsiveness and low in demandingness. These parents are

commonly disengaged from their parenting, offering minimal expectations or warmth to their child (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Associations of Parenting with Youth Outcomes

Research spanning at least seven decades reliably reports associations between parenting dimensions, types, and behaviors and youth outcomes (McLeod et al., 2007; Pinquart, 2016; Pinquart, 2017; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019). Many well-established theories, such as attachment theory (Ainsworth, 1978; Bowlby, 1982) and social learning theory (Bandura, 1989), describe processes through which parenting behaviors impact children's ability to form attachments, engage with their social environment, and otherwise develop in positive ways.

Empirical research has found authoritative parenting, parental warmth, autonomy granting, and behavioral control, are associated with youths' improved academic performance (Pinquart, 2016) and decreased externalizing problem behaviors (Pinquart, 2017). Additionally, authoritative parenting is associated with higher youth self-esteem (Pinquart & Gerke, 2019; Tehrani et al., 2025) whereas authoritarian and neglectful parenting (Pinquart & Gerke, 2019) and parental psychological control (Tehrani et al., 2025) are associated with lower youth self-esteem. Parental psychological control is also related to increases in childhood anxiety (Chyung et al., 2022) and youths' increased externalizing problem behaviors (Pinquart, 2017). Alternatively, parental behavioral control is negatively associated with youth depressive symptoms (Tehrani et al., 2025).

Additionally, there are specialized effects between different dimensions of parenting and youth outcomes. Specifically, scholars have found parental support is positively related to adolescent social initiative and depression, parental psychological control is positively related to adolescent depression and antisocial behavior, and parental behavioral control is related to lower

adolescent antisocial behavior (Barber et al., 2005). Overall, empirical evidence supports there is an association between parenting and youth outcomes, with unique associations found for different parenting behaviors/dimensions and various youth outcomes, although much of this research relies on sole reports (parent or youth) of parenting.

Single vs. Multiple Informants

The ontological stance for researchers studying multiple informants, particularly those studying discrepant reports between parents and youth, is that each informant has a distinct perception of the phenomena being studied. The watershed meta-analysis to demonstrate this point was conducted by Achenbach and colleagues (1987), who studied multiple informants' (e.g., parents, teachers, clinicians, children, peers, etc.) agreement on the focal child's emotional and behavioral problems. Their results showed generally low agreement, with Pearson correlation coefficients ranging from .20-.44 between different pairings of observers (e.g., parent–child, parent–clinician, teacher–child, etc.). This finding led the field to understand that (a) there is no "gold standard" (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005, p. 504) observer for children's disorders, and (b) low correlations do not demonstrate unreliability, but rather represent how unique each observer's perspective is (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005; De Los Reyes, 2011).

Work on parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting had similarly demonstrated low agreement. Early studies found child–mother agreement to range from r =.13 to .36 and child–father agreement to range from r = .19 to .31 across different elements of parenting (Tein et al., 1994). Others found child–mother agreement to range from r = .11 to .14 and child–father agreement to range from r = .15 to .24 for various parenting behaviors (Gaylord et al., 2003). More recent meta-analyses have replicated these low correlations. Korelitz and Garber (2016) found low agreement between parents and children across dimensions of parenting (warmth,

psychological control, behavioral control) as the mean weighted *r* effect sizes ranged from *r* = .23-.28 for mother–child agreement and *r* = .23-.29 for father–child agreement. Hou and colleagues (2020) conducted a similar meta-analysis using a pooled correlation estimate across parenting constructs and found a coefficient of .276, indicating low agreement between parents and youth about parenting.

This evidence justifies the use of multiple informant designs for studying parent–youth perceptions of parenting because both parents and adolescents have important, though differing, pieces of information regarding their relationship and overall family functioning (De Los Reyes et al., 2019; Tein et al., 1994). Additionally, using a multiple informant design protects against shared method variance that single report designs must grapple with (Gonzalez et al., 1996). Multiple informant designs also allow for investigation of the pattern of discrepancy between parents and youth, which may itself predict the youth outcome under consideration. In the next two sections several theories are reviewed that support multiple informant parenting research as well as measurement considerations.

Theoretical Frameworks for Parent–Youth Discrepant Reports of Parenting

There are two types of theoretical frameworks that are relevant when studying parent–youth discrepant reports. The first type are those theories that explain why parents and youth are discrepant from each other in the first place. These theories include family systems theory (Baptist & Hammon, 2022), generational stake hypothesis (Bengston & Kuypers; 1971), and psychosocial theory of development (Erikson, 1959). The second type of framework that is useful for understanding parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting does not describe why parent and youth reports might differ but rather explains how discrepant reports between parents and youth may be related to youth outcomes. The operations triad model (De Los Reyes et al.,

2013; De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016) is this type of framework and will be reviewed below.

Family Systems Theory

Family systems theory assumes that the family system is greater than the sum of its parts (Baptist & Hamon, 2022). The three concepts of this theory that are particularly relevant to parent–youth perception discrepancy are feedback, interdependence, and circular causality. The concept of feedback describes the ways families respond to new stimuli, which may facilitate change in the system or maintain the status quo. Mutual influence and interdependence articulate how family members influence one another and rely on each other within the family system. Circular causality specifies the reciprocal nature of family members' behaviors. This captures how previous interactions will inform future interactions and that the family's problems do not originate from any one specific family member. Rather, all have a responsibility to the wellbeing of the system (Baptist & Hamon, 2022).

The interdependent, circular nature of the parent–youth relationship can be a source of discrepancy. As youths' developmental needs introduce feedback to the system, parents can misinterpret/ignore these needs or modify their parenting. Unmet developmental needs may perpetuate discrepancies within the relationship. Alternatively, youth may misinterpret parenting behaviors or ignore feedback regarding their contribution to the relationship, also perpetuating discrepancies. Depending on how the system can change and adapt, these discrepancies may demonstrate normative, developmental changes where the family comes through well-suited for their new adult (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016; Smetana & Rote, 2019). If, however, the system seeks to maintain the status quo even in the face of feedback that requires change, the

family may adapt negatively over time, creating or enlarging discrepancies between parents and youth reports of parenting and potentially hindering the child's preparation for adulthood.

Generational Stake Hypothesis

The generational stake hypothesis (also known as the "developmental stake hypothesis") developed by Bengston and Kuypers (1971) argues that people develop perceptions of each other because they have "got a stake" (p. 256) in or are vested in each other. It goes on to describe what the stakes are of both the parent's and youth's generations. Parents are trying to make sure their lives mean something by guiding their youth. They view the youth as an extension of themselves and as the torchbearers of their work. Parents are afraid of their work being invalidated and discontinued, making their existence feel like it was for naught. Youth are interested in developing their personal lifestyle and are more concerned about the institutions they are to inherit. They are afraid of their freedom being limited by the overbearance of the previous generation. Each generation's fears can pit them against each other, creating conflict between the generations. Parents may resent their youth for disregarding their work and values, potentially doubling down on their efforts to convince the youth to take on their values and continue their work. On the other hand, the youth may feel stifled by the press of their parents. Further, their concern for the future makes the youth critical of the current social order.

The generational stake hypothesis may explain why researchers often find parents report more positive parenting behaviors than their children (Korelitz & Garber, 2016). According to this theory, parents see their parenting as positive, as a means to create meaning, and as a way to instill their values in their children. Alternatively, youth reject their parents' parenting if they feel stifled or unsupported to accomplish important developmental tasks for their future. Thus, parents and youth are discrepant on the purpose and meaning of parents' parenting.

Psychosocial Theory of Development

The psychosocial theory of development comprises eight sequential stages of development. Adolescents are in the stage of identity versus role confusion in which they are working to establish and commit to an identity that they can build on for later stages (Erikson, 1959). They may use identifications with significant others, such as parents, peers, and teachers, to try out various identity features. Parents are in the stage of generativity versus self-absorption and stagnation. In this stage, parents are tasked with raising their children while navigating their personal needs. Parents who can navigate this conflict well are in a stronger position to genuinely care for their children and avoid unnecessary self-absorption or stagnation in their relationships (Erikson, 1959). These features combined may lead adolescents to interpret parenting behavior as restrictive and harsh instead of warm and appropriately demanding, leading to discrepancies between parent and youth perspectives and reports of parenting.

Operations Triad Model

The previously reviewed theories explain the sources of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. The operations triad model (De Los Reyes et al., 2013; De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016) does not explore reasons why parent–youth discrepancies may exist but rather offers a conceptual approach to understanding the relation between discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes. The model specifies three general patterns of multi-informant agreement/disagreement. By specifying these patterns, De Los Reyes et al. (2013) hoped to create a framework for testing and interpreting multi-informant disagreement and for seeing that disagreement as valuable information rather than measurement error. The patterns are named converging operations, diverging operations, and compensating operations.

When multiple informants' reports are consistent with each other, they are classified under "converging operations" (De Los Reyes et al., 2013, p. 4). This means informants share similar reports on the phenomena being measured. For example, parents and youth would demonstrate converging operations if both parents and youth agreed that parents demonstrated high levels of parental warmth. When multiple informants' reports are inconsistent with each other, they are classified under "diverging operations" (De Los Reyes et al., 2013, p. 10). This means informants do not share similar reports on the phenomena being measured. For example, parents and youth would be characterized as having diverging operations if the parent reported high levels of parental warmth, but the youth reported low levels of parental warmth, or vice versa. Finally, "compensating operations" (De Los Reyes et al., 2013, p. 13) occur when multiple informants' reports are inconsistent with each other due to methodological errors such as unreliable measures. In this instance, parents could report high levels of parental warmth and youth report low levels of parental warmth because the measures did not meet the requisite alpha level for internal consistency.

Later, De Los Reyes and Ohannessian (2016) applied the operations triad model to parent–youth perceptions of family phenomena, explaining that "observed patterns of convergence and divergence may reflect meaningful aspects of psychosocial and/or family functioning…" (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016, p. 1963). They specify four patterns of parent–youth convergence/divergence and their correlates with youth outcomes. The first pattern indicates when parents and youth share high agreement on parental protective factors, such as parental knowledge and acceptance, youth are more likely to report lower maladaptive behaviors. The second pattern describes when parents and youth converge on high levels of parental risk factors, such as low parental awareness, youth may be vulnerable to more maladaptive behaviors.

In the third identified pattern, parent–youth divergence may reflect normative developmental youth behavior and an adaptive family environment, potentially offering youth the autonomy necessary to complete developmental tasks such as individuation. For the fourth pattern, parent–youth divergence may instead reflect problems such as low parental awareness of youth needs/behaviors, which is commonly associated with maladaptive youth behaviors. In addition to these four patterns, De Los Reyes and Ohannessian (2016) specify a condition where parent–youth divergence stems from methodological errors in the measurements used. Thus, De Los Reyes and Ohannessian (2016) "provid[ed] researchers with hypothesis-generating tools for understanding patterns of adolescents' and parents' reports of family functioning and their links to criterion variables…" (p. 1963).

Finally, regarding the developmental nature of discrepancies between parents and youth on parenting, De Los Reyes and Ohannessian (2016) theorized that parents and adolescents typically have lower levels of discrepancies in early adolescence, with increases in discrepancies during mid-adolescence, and a decrease again in late adolescence. Disagreements between parents and adolescents may indicate the normative reorganization of the parent–adolescent relationship from a hierarchical relationship to an egalitarian relationship (Smetana & Rote, 2019) and generally relates to positive youth outcomes long-term. Disagreements between parents may also indicate underlying problems depending on their persistence throughout adolescence. De Los Reyes and Ohannessian (2016) additionally theorized two atypical trajectories of parent–youth discrepancies. First, parents and youth who have persistently high amounts of discrepancies throughout adolescence may associate with worse youth outcomes due to underlying family problems. Second, parents and youth who have persistently low amounts of

discrepancies throughout adolescence may associate with worse youth outcomes due to the youth's inability to meet developmental milestones.

Measurement Considerations

Parenting is measured in various ways, and these measurement considerations may impact the extent of parent–youth agreement. First, items within a measure may be based on specific behaviors or broader attitudes. Parenting behaviors are those discrete actions parents can take. For example, the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991) asks parents whether "You hug or kiss your child when he/she has done something well." Parenting attitudes are more general perceptions of parenting such as "Children's needs should come before their parents" (Intensive Parenting Attitudes Questionnaire; Liss et al., 2013). Parents and youth may be more likely to agree on a discrete parenting behavior than on a parent's attitudinal experience because parenting behaviors occur externally whereas parenting attitudes occur internally (Taber, 2010).

Second, it is important to consider the timeframe respondents are asked to consider when reflecting on the parenting behavior/attitude being assessed. For example, Janssen et al. (2021) asked parents and children to reflect daily on parenting behaviors, asking questions like "Throughout the day, how warm/loving was your mother/father toward you?" Using a different timeframe, the Parenting Young Children scale (McEachern et al., 2012), asks respondents to reflect on the frequency of the parenting behaviors over the past month. Additionally, the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991) does not specify a timeframe, thus leaving that up to the respondent's interpretation. Some respondents might focus on recent events when reporting, and others may consider parenting events from the past. More specific and narrower timeframes may result in higher parent–youth agreement.

Another measurement consideration is whether measurement invariance for the parenting scale being used can be established between parents and youth. Measurement invariance assesses whether the scale's measurement model is treated equivalently and consistently by parents and youth. In other words, measurement invariance tests whether parents and youth are interpreting and treating scale items similarly, to ensure parent and youth reports are comparable. Researchers can use a confirmatory factor analysis approach to test for configural, metric, scalar, and strict measurement invariance. Configural invariance tests whether the same items load onto the latent factor for parents and youth (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). This means parents and youth reported on the same items, both in number and wording. Metric invariance tests whether the factor loadings on the latent construct are treated similarly by parents and youth, indicating parents and youth interpret the items similarly. Scalar invariance tests whether the factor loadings and intercepts are treated similarly by parents and youth, indicating that any mean differences between parents and youth reflects actual differences rather than systematic bias or differences in how each group responded to the items. Finally, strict invariance tests whether the residual variances are similar between parents and youth, indicating each item's variance (including both item-specific variance and measurement error) is similar for parents and youth reporting on a parenting construct (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). As a minimum, scalar invariance should be established for parent and youth reports on a parenting scale, ensuring that their scores are comparable to each other and discrepancies are not due to measurement error (De Los Reyes et al., 2013). If scalar invariance cannot be established, researchers can try to establish partial invariance by releasing the equality constraints for offending items. If partial scalar measurement invariance cannot be established, researchers should further probe and report the source of invariance and develop scales that will be invariant across parent and youth reports of parenting.

Additionally, researchers may opt to run individual parent and youth models, however, it should be noted that individual models are not an option for researchers studying parent–youth discrepant reports specifically.

Multiple Informant Parenting Studies: Approaches and Findings

The definition of a discrepancy seems to be any instance where a parent's and youth's scores are not identical. If there is any variation between parents and youth, then there is a discrepancy. Throughout the research, a variety of statistical indicators including difference scores, Pearson correlations, and regression coefficients have been referred to as discrepancies (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2004). The information those discrepancies can provide varies across the methods/models used. Discrepancies can be modeled many ways; some of the most common include difference score/latent difference score modeling, latent profile analysis, and polynomial regression/interaction modeling with response surface analysis. Each will be reviewed below.

Latent Difference Score

Method

To create a difference score, researchers subtract one reporter's score from another and use this difference as an independent variable in statistical models. A basic observed difference score's sign will inform whether parents or youth see more of the parenting behavior. For example, in the discrepancy equation $Parent_{ParentingBehavior} - Youth_{ParentingBehavior}$, a positive sign indicates the parents perceive more of the behavior whereas a negative sign indicates youth perceive more of the behavior. Alternatively, using the absolute difference score will show researchers how the discrepancy distance between parents' and youths' perceptions relates to the dependent variable, but will not inform who perceives more of the independent variable. Major critiques of the observed difference score approach are that it constrains regression coefficients

to be equal, is unable to model inequivalent variances between both reporters (Laird & De Los Reyes, 2013; Laird & LaFleur, 2016, Laird & Weems, 2011), and can be highly unreliable. Additionally, Laird and Weems (2011) found that difference score models are equivalent to regression models that separate parents' and youths' scores. Thus, difference score models answer research questions regarding the predictive validity of youths' reports of parenting compared to parent's report of parenting on youth outcomes (Laird & Weems, 2011).

Latent difference scores mitigate these limitations by modeling a latent factor for individual reports and a second-order latent factor for the discrepancy score. Like observed difference scores, latent difference scores can also be interpreted directionally, with positive scores demonstrating higher other-ratings compared to the self and negative scores demonstrating lower other-ratings compared to the self (de Haan et al., 2018). Further, this approach can utilize the latent difference score as a predictor, moderator, or outcome variable (de Haan et al., 2018). These various features allow the latent difference score approach to answer questions about the divergence between a given parent and their youth, the difference between parent–youth dyads, mediation and moderation, and the change in the latent difference score across time.

Findings Using this Approach

Generally, scholars using the latent difference score approach found that when youth report more negative parenting behaviors than their parents, the youth are more likely to report negative outcomes. For example, the more lax adolescents believed their parents to be (holding parent-reported laxness constant), the more concurrent rule-breaking behavior adolescents engaged in (de Haan et al., 2018). Additionally, as youth reported more parental love withdrawal, compared to their parents' own reports of love withdrawal, youth reported lower altruistic,

compliant, emotional, and dire prosocial behaviors (Zhang & Wang, 2024). Interestingly, Zhang and Wang (2024) also found as youth reported more parental guilt induction, compared to their parents' own reports of guilt induction, youth reported more public prosocial behaviors, which is contrary to the general trend of the research. As this finding was related to public prosocial behaviors specifically, the authors explained that this finding may show that this instills "approval-oriented or self-oriented motivations rather than genuine empathetic concern for others or the internalization of prosocial moral reasoning" (Zhang & Wang, 2024, p. 1114). Regarding positive parenting behaviors, one study using the latent difference score approach did find that, as adolescents reported higher levels of parental caring than their parents, the adolescents demonstrated lower levels of internalizing and externalizing behavior (Tian et al., 2024).

Researchers have also studied gender specific effects using the difference score/latent difference score approach. For example, adolescents reported lower achievement motivation when they perceived their fathers to be less responsive and their mothers to be more controlling (as compared to both fathers' and mothers' own reports of responsiveness and control; Leung & Shek, 2014). Additionally, when youth reported their mothers as less responsive, compared to mothers' own reports, the adolescent reported less psychological competence (Leung & Shek, 2014). Similarly, the less warm adolescents perceived their mothers, compared to mothers' reports of their warmth, the more concurrent aggressive and rule-breaking behavior adolescents engaged in (de Haan et al., 2018). Regarding psychological control, the more psychologically controlling adolescents reported their mothers to be, as compared to mothers' own reports, the less autonomy adolescents reported. And the more psychologically controlling adolescents reported their fathers to be, compared to fathers' own reports, the lower youth reported their own

social relatedness to be (Ingoglia et al., 2021). Finally, when youth reported less parental warmth and more authoritarian parenting compared to their father's own report, adolescents reported more depressive symptoms. No such relations were found for mothers' parenting (Zheng et al., 2024).

It is important to demonstrate that adding parent–youth discrepancy scores matters beyond the individual reports of parents and youth. Without evidence of that, it could be that using youth report alone predicts an outcome as well as (a) using youth and parent reports or (b) using youth report, parent report, and discrepancy scores. Evidence that supports the importance of parent–youth discrepancy scores in predicting youth outcomes comes in three potential forms: a significant coefficient on the discrepancy term, improved model fit, or improvements in model prediction. Scholars who used the difference score approach used increases in R^2 as an indicator that their regression model improved the predicted variance in their outcome of interest. They found including parent–child discrepancies of parental responsiveness in the model significantly increased the variance explained in children's achievement motivation and psychological competence (Leung & Shek, 2014). Scholars using the latent difference score approach also used goodness-of-fit statistics relevant to structural equation modeling, such as chi-square tests and degrees of freedom, Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), and Root mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990). These scholars reported good model fit statistics when parent–child discrepancies predicted a host of child outcomes, including aggressive/rule-breaking behaviors (de Haan et al., 2018), autonomy satisfaction and relatedness (Ingoglia et al., 2021), prosocial behaviors (Zhang & Wang, 2024), and depressive symptoms (Zheng et al., 2024); however, they did not directly compare models with and without the discrepancy terms. Thus, overall, there is evidence from studies using the difference score or latent difference score

approach that parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting may add additional insights into the relation of parenting with youth outcomes.

Latent Profile Analysis

Method

Latent profile analysis seeks to identify different groupings of participants who share similar characteristics using probability estimates (Spurk et al., 2020). For parent and youth reports of parenting, this would mean creating dyad-level profiles based on (dis)agreement between the parent's report of parenting and youth's report of parenting. For example, parents and youth who show high levels of agreement could be one group whereas parents who report more of the parenting behavior than their youth could be another group. The kinds of questions that can be answered by latent profile analyses are (a) how many and what kind of profiles are in the data, (b) how many members make up each profile and how do they compare to each other, (c) what predicts a dyad's membership in one of the profiles, (d) what outcomes do the profiles predict, and (e) whether the profiles found in the current sample are replicable across other samples (Spurk et al., 2020).

Findings Using this Approach

Four recent studies were located that applied latent profile analysis to explore parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting and its relation with various youth outcomes. Each is reviewed below, including the identified profiles and their relation to youth outcomes. Hou and colleagues (2018) created mother–adolescent profiles based on standardized difference scores of parental warmth, monitoring, and reasoning. They found three profiles, namely: Adolescent Scores Similar to Mother (69% of sample), Adolescent Scores Lower than Mother (19% of sample), and Adolescent Scores Higher than Mother (12% of sample). For father–adolescent

profiles, two profiles fit the data best, namely: Adolescent Scores Moderately Lower than Father (62% of sample) and Adolescent Scores Higher than Father (38% of sample). Notably, they found adolescents from the Adolescent Scores Lower than Mother group experienced more negative outcomes (e.g., depression, anxiety, and delinquent behaviors) and fewer positive outcomes (e.g., sleep quality, resilience, and school engagement). Adolescents from the Adolescent Scores Higher than Father group experienced fewer depressive and anxiety symptoms as well as more school engagement.

Penner and colleagues (2020) opted to name their three groups Low Divergence (40.7% of sample), Moderate Divergence (35.6% of sample), Strong Divergence (23.8% of sample). These groups were based on parent and adolescent reports of positive parenting, poor parental monitoring, maternal/paternal involvement, inconsistent discipline practices, and corporal punishment. Notably, adolescents from the Moderate Divergence profile exhibited higher externalizing psychopathology and were older than the other two profiles. Neither gender nor internalizing psychopathology predicted profile membership.

Wen and colleagues' (2023a; 2023b) three groups were characterized by agreement on positive parenting and were named Both High, Teen High, and Mother High. The Both High profile included mothers and adolescents who reported similar amounts of positive parenting. The Teen High profile was characterized by the adolescents who reported more positive parenting than their mothers. The Mother High profile was characterized by mothers who reported more positive parenting than their adolescents. They found adolescents in the Both High group had the best academic performance among the groups (Wen et al., 2023a) and adolescents from the Mother High group reported more depressive symptoms one year later when compared to the Both High group (Wen et al., 2023b).

Sloan et al.'s (2024) five profiles were based on mother, father, and adolescent reports of parental warmth in the 6th grade. These profiles were then used to predict adolescent outcomes in 9th grade. The profiles they found were Positive Adolescent–Parent Divergence (59% of sample), Negative Adolescent–Mother Divergence (22% of sample), Negative Adolescent–Parent Divergence (11%), Negative Adolescent–Father Divergence (5% of sample), and Pronounced Negative Adolescent–Parent Divergence (3%). Adolescents from the Positive Adolescent–Parent Divergence had higher concurrent life satisfaction than adolescents in the Negative Adolescent–Mother/Father Divergence groups. Adolescents from the Pronounced Negative Adolescent–Parent Divergence were much more likely to use marijuana and alcohol.

By its nature, the latent profile analysis approach is unable to produce evidence regarding the importance of parent–youth discrepant reports beyond individual reports. Because the analysis must use both parent and youth reports for profile construction, it cannot compare profile solutions with or without parent–youth discrepant reports. Thus, latent profile analysis cannot test for improved model fit or improvements in model prediction. Neither does the analysis create discrepancy terms to be tested for significance. Though this approach cannot ascertain whether parent–youth discrepant reports matter beyond individual reports, scholars who used latent profile analysis were rigorous in ensuring their found profile solutions were the best fitting solutions by selecting the profiles with the lowest Akaike's information criteria value (Akaike, 1987), the lowest Bayesian information criterion value (Schwarz, 1978), the highest entropy values, and significant Lo-Mendell-Rubin-Adjusted Likelihood Ratio tests. Findings using latent profile analysis were similar to those using the difference score approaches such that parent–youth agreement on positive parenting, or youth reporting more positive parenting than

their parent, is associated with better youth well-being whereas youth reporting more negative parenting than their parent is associated with worse youth well-being.

Polynomial Regression with Response Surface Analysis

Method

Polynomial regression with response surface analysis is one of the most recommended approaches when it comes to studying multi-informant discrepant reports (Hou et al., 2020). When compared to difference scores "[p]olynomial regression analyses provide more comprehensive and accurate tests of discrepancy hypotheses" (Laird & De Los Reyes, 2013, p. 13). This approach is recommended because polynomial regression analyses utilize an interaction term between parents' and youths' reports of parenting (Laird & LaFleur, 2016). The interaction allows a researcher to probe how reporters are divergent/convergent with each other by making the scores conditional on each other. Thus, the interaction term tests "whether high (or low) scores from one informant is or more or less strongly associated with the outcome when scores from the other informant are also high (or low)" (Laird & De Los Reyes, 2013, p. 4). This specifically tests divergence by assessing whether parents or youth report more of the parenting behavior (when controlling for the other's report) and how this relates to the outcome. Additionally, polynomial regression adds flexibility by modeling linear and quadratic effects as well as potential moderators, capturing the complexity of parent–youth relationships (Laird & LaFleur, 2016).

It is recommended that polynomial regression is used in tandem with response surface analysis (Hou et al., 2020) which plots all combinations of high and low divergence/convergence and their relation to the outcome, providing a visual representation of the association between (mis)matches in perceived parenting behavior and youth outcomes (Barranti et al., 2017;

Humberg et al., 2019). Thus, polynomial regression with response surface analysis is capable of answering questions regarding (a) whether converging parent–youth dyads are associated with higher/lower outcomes than diverging parent–youth dyads, (b) whether the direction of the discrepancy predicts the outcome (parent high/youth low vs. youth high/parent low), (c) whether parent–youth convergence is associated with better/worse outcomes on the lower end of the parenting scale compared to the higher end of the parenting scale, and (d) whether parent–youth convergence at the extreme ends of the parenting scale is associated with better/worse outcomes than parent–youth convergence at the middle of the parenting scale (Barranti et al., 2017).

Findings Using this Approach

A strength of polynomial regression is its ability to test whether parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting matter beyond their individual reports of parenting when predicting youth outcomes. When used on its own, polynomial regression can model discrepant terms and thus test for their significance. Many studies found significant interactions between youth and parent reports of parenting, indicating that the discrepancy between them predicted youth outcomes beyond parents' and adolescents' separate effects. Once a significant interaction was found, researchers probed that interaction for how patterns of congruence and incongruence between parent and youth reports of parenting relate to youth outcomes. If the polynomial regression is used with response surface analysis, instead of probing the interaction using post-hoc simple slopes, response surface analysis creates new coefficients using different pieces of the polynomial model to test within- and between-dyad differences on parent–adolescent (dis)agreement on parenting.

Regarding congruence, when parents' and adolescents' reports agreed on low levels of supportive responses to the child's sadness (Hu & Zhou, 2024), high maternal criticism (Janssen

et al., 2021), low amounts of paternal warmth (Janssen et al., 2021), high amounts of poor parental monitoring (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022), high amounts of overprotective parenting (Van Petegem et al., 2020), and high amounts of psychological control (Zhai et al., 2024), adolescents experienced poor outcomes such as increased depressive symptoms, anxiety, and externalizing problems. Additionally, when adolescents and mothers agreed on high amounts of parental warmth (Janssen et al., 2021), and behavioral control (Zhai et al., 2024), adolescents reported more positive affect and less anxiety. The overall trend shows that when parents and youth agree on negative parenting behaviors, youth are more likely to report worse outcomes; whereas when parents and youth agree on positive parenting behaviors, youth are more likely to report better outcomes, which is in line with findings from the two previously reviewed approaches.

Regarding incongruence, a pattern emerged where youth reported better outcomes when they reported more positive parenting behaviors than their parents did. For example, an ecological momentary assessment study found on days when adolescents reported more parental warmth than their mothers, they reported more positive affect (Janssen et al., 2021). A similar trend was found over a longer period of time, when adolescents reported more positive parenting than their parents as baseline, they reported lower levels of internalizing symptoms twelve months later (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022). However, when adolescents report less positive parenting or report more negative parenting than their parents, they are more likely to report worse outcomes. For example, the ecological momentary assessment study also found on days when adolescents reported less parental warmth than their parents, they also reported more negative affect (Janssen et al., 2021). Evidence spanning a longer period of time also indicated when adolescents reported more psychological control and less behavioral control than their

mothers and fathers at baseline, adolescents also reported increased anxiety at the second wave (Zhai et al., 2024). Similarly, when adolescents reported more overprotection than their mothers, adolescents reported more externalizing problems, autonomy frustration, and relatedness frustration (Van Petegem et al., 2020). Generally, it seems when adolescents report more positive parenting behaviors than their parents, they report better outcomes compared to when adolescents report more negative parenting behaviors than their parents, which is in line with results from the previous two approaches.

One study did not follow the previous patterns but rather found that adolescent reports of parenting were the only significant predictors in the models; the interaction terms were not significant. This study found as adolescents reported more harsh parenting and parental non-supportive responses to the child's anger, they also reported more internalizing and depressive symptoms (Hidalgo et al., 2023). For this study, it was still the case that youth reports of negative parenting were associated with less favorable youth outcomes, but the extent of discrepancy between parent and youth did not matter for prediction of the outcome. Additionally, one significant quadratic effect indicated each additional unit of harsh parenting reported by youth was associated with increasingly more externalized symptoms (Hidalgo et al., 2023).

An additional strength of polynomial regression is that it can test for improved model fit/prediction using the R^2, thus offering additional evidence that parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting matter in predicting the youth outcome under investigation. Reports on whether the model improved prediction for youth outcomes were varied for scholarship using this approach. For example, some studies did not report any model building procedures or statistics (Hidalgo et al., 2023; Zhai et al., 2024). Others did report the R^2 for each of the polynomial regressions they ran but did not report whether the polynomial regression was an improvement from just parent

and youth reports predicting youth outcomes (Hu & Zhou, 2024). Another study conducted sensitivity analyses to check if their models were overfitting their data, though they too did not report model building statistics (Van Petegem et al., 2020). A final group of studies used a multilevel modeling approach which protects against model misspecification by excluding variables that do not significantly predict the outcome (Janssen et al., 2021; Wang & Hawk, 2023).

The study that best utilized the ability of polynomial regression to test for model improvement and prediction was Nichols and Tanner-Smith (2022). They started with models of only youth and only parent reports predicting youth internalizing and externalizing symptoms. Then they combined parent and youth report into polynomial regression models, adding the quadratic and interaction terms. They reported the R^2 and AIC values for each model. The adolescent report models predicting externalizing symptoms had R^2s ranging from 0.68-0.69. For internalizing symptoms, R^2s ranged from 0.24-0.25. The parent report models predicting externalizing symptoms also had R^2s ranging from 0.68-0.69. For internalizing symptoms, R^2s were 0.24. Total models (parent report, youth report, interaction term, and squared terms) predicting youth externalizing symptoms had R^2s of 0.69. Total models (parent report, youth report, interaction term, and squared terms) predicting youth internalizing symptoms had R^2s ranging from 0.24-0.27. They did not compare these R^2s directly but did use their AIC values to determine that the best fitting models were the specified polynomial regression. The clear reporting of these model improvements lends credibility to the study's results.

Limited Evidence for Mediators

Theories like the operations triad model (De Los Reyes et al., 2011) explain how and why parents' and youths' discrepant reports or parenting may have problematic outcomes for youth

(De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016). Additionally, a burgeoning literature is beginning to empirically investigate potential mechanisms that drive the relation between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes. The variables these researchers have studied can be categorized as either youth characteristics or family processes. Regarding youth characteristics, Tian and colleagues (2024) found adolescent self-control partially mediated the relation between parent–adolescent discrepant reports of positive parenting and adolescent internalizing and externalizing problems. Specifically, parent–youth discrepant reports negatively predicted adolescent self-control, and self-control negatively predicted internalizing and externalizing problems. Others have found youth perspective-taking to be a mediator, such that discrepant parent–youth reports of authoritative parenting are related to lower youth perspective-taking, and reduced youth perspective-taking, in turn, is related to lower youth self-esteem (Yeung et al., 2016). Additionally, youth self-concept mediated the relation between parent–youth discrepant reports of effective parenting and multiple youth outcomes including self-control, perspective-taking, internalizing behavior, and externalizing behavior (Yeung et al., 2018). Finally, researchers found adolescent autonomy frustration partially mediated the relation between mother–youth discrepant reports of parental overprotection and adolescent externalizing problems such that discrepant reports were associated with more adolescent autonomy frustration which was associated with more externalizing problems (Van Petegem et al., 2020).

Regarding family processes, researchers have explored whether family conflict, parent–adolescent communication, and mother–youth attachment are potential mechanisms that explain the relation between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes. Juang and colleagues (2007) found that greater discrepancies between parents and youth on parental control are associated with more adolescent reported family conflict, which in turn is associated with

more adolescent reported depressive symptoms. Additionally, Zheng and colleagues (2024) found parent–adolescent discrepant reports of parenting were associated with poorer quality parent–adolescent communication, which in turn predicted more youth depressive symptoms. Evidence also suggests mother–youth attachment fully mediated the association of discrepant reports of authoritative parenting with youth depression (Yin et al., 2022). However, mother–youth attachment did not mediate the association between parent–youth discrepant reports of authoritarian parenting and child's depression (Yin et al., 2022). Taken together, parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting may negatively impact youth outcomes through family mechanisms such as family conflict, parent–youth communication, and mother–youth attachment. And because the evidence is limited, researchers have the opportunity to explore whether these associations replicate in other contexts and to explore other potential mediators.

Summary and Implications

Decades of research on parenting demonstrate reliable associations between parenting dimensions/types and youth outcomes. More recently, scholars have embraced the importance of (a) including youth and parent reports of parenting and (b) specifically considering what the level of agreement or disagreement on those reports between members of the dyad might reveal about youth well-being. Results generally show that parent–youth discrepancies in reports of parenting predict youth outcomes beyond the independent effects of each perspective. Specifically, when both youth and parents agree on high amounts of positive parenting behaviors, the youth are more likely to report more positive outcomes. It also follows when youth report their parents as warmer and more positive than the parents report themselves, youth are more likely to report more positive outcomes. Alternatively, when youth report their parents as more controlling or less warm than the parents report themselves, youth are more likely to report negative outcomes.

Youth are also more likely to report more negative outcomes when both parents and youth agree that the parent is controlling or less warm (see Table 1.1 for a summary of these associations).

Table 1.1 Summary of patterns of parent–youth (dis)agreement and their associated youth outcomes.

Parent–youth (dis)agreement pattern	Associated youth outcomes
Parent–youth convergence on positive parenting behaviors	Positive affect (Janssen et al., 2021) Good academic performance (Wen et al., 2023a) Perspective taking (Yeung et al., 2016) Lower anxiety (Zhai et al., 2024)
Parent–youth convergence on negative parenting behaviors	Depression and anxiety (Hu & Zhou, 2024; Janssen et al., 2021; Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022; Van Petegem et al., 2020; Zhai et al., 2024)
Parent–youth divergence on positive parenting where the youth is higher than their parent	Positive affect (Janssen et al., 2021) Lower levels of internalizing symptoms (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022) Lower levels of internalizing and externalizing problems (Tian et al., 2024)
Parent–youth divergence on positive parenting where the youth is lower than their parent	Negative affect (Janssen et al., 2021) Depressive symptoms (Wen et al., 2023b)

Table 1.1 Continued

Parent–youth divergence on negative parenting where the youth is higher than their parent	Aggression and rule-breaking (de Haan et al., 2018) Lower sleep quality, resilience, and school engagement (Hou et al., 2018) Depression and anxiety (Hou et al., 2018; Zhai et al., 2024; Zheng et al., 2024) Lower autonomy and social readiness (Ingoglia et al., 2021) Lower achievement motivation and psychological competence (Leung & Shek, 2014) Externalizing problems, autonomy frustration, and relatedness frustration (Van Petegem et al., 2020) Lower altruistic, compliant, emotional, and dire prosocial behaviors (Zhang & Wang, 2024) More public prosocial behaviors (Zhang & Wang, 2024)
Parent–youth divergence on negative parenting where the youth is lower than their parent	Anxiety (Zhai et al., 2024)

Three potential approaches to study parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting were reviewed: difference score/latent difference scores, latent profile analysis, and polynomial regression with response surface analysis. Polynomial regression with response surface analysis is heralded as the gold standard to assess the association between parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes (Hou et al., 2020; see Table 1.2 for a summary of the three approaches). The fact that this approach can thoroughly model and probe combinations of

discrepant reports between parents and youth and test for improvements to model fit/prediction set it apart from other approaches. Many of the reviewed studies assessed the significance of the discrepancy coefficient; however, they did not all report whether model fit improved with the inclusion of the parent report in addition to the youth report. Future researchers should continue to use polynomial regression and response surface analysis to study the relation between parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes. To maximize the strengths of this approach, researchers should report thoroughly on their polynomial regression model building and discuss whether adding parent reports of parenting, youth reports of parenting, and the interaction between them improves predicting youth outcomes. This could be accomplished by using a hierarchical regression to build up to the final polynomial model and reporting the R^2 of each additional step. After these steps, researchers can move more confidently in assessing the patterns of discrepancy that emerge in their polynomial regression.

Importance of Parent–Youth Discrepant Reports of Parenting

Implications for Research

The primary implication of work on parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting is that it supports the notion that both parents and youth have distinct subjective experiences of parenting that inform their interactions with each other and relate to the youth's development (De Los Reyes et al., 2019). Specifically, this work calls researchers to consistently include parents' reports of parenting, youths' reports of parenting, and the discrepancies between parents and youth to more optimally understand how parenting relates to youth outcomes. Scholarship investigating the relation between parenting and youth outcomes is more well-rounded when it includes the perspectives of those who parent and those who receive the parenting. In addition to

Table 1.2 Summary of the common methodological approaches used to study parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting.

Method	Research questions that can be addressed	Strengths	Limitations
Latent difference score	To what extent do parents and youth disagree on parenting? (de Haan et al., 2018) To what extent do different parent–youth dyads differ from each other regarding within-dyad disagreement? (de Haan et al., 2018) What is correlated with parent–youth discrepancies? (de Haan et al., 2018) What mediates/moderates the relation between parent–youth LDS and youth outcomes? (de Haan et al., 2018) Do parent–youth discrepancies change over time? (de Haan et al., 2018)	Highly flexible approach that can address multiple kinds of research questions simultaneously (de Haan et al., 2018) Parent–youth LDS can be used as a predictor, correlate, or outcome measure (de Haan et al., 2018) Can test for moderation (de Haan et al., 2018) Measurement errors can be partialed out (de Haan et al., 2018)	Measurement invariance must be established (de Haan et al., 2018) Cannot examine parent and youth individual scores alongside LDS (de Haan et al., 2018) Direction of discrepancy can make interpreting results difficult (de Haan et al., 2018)

Table 1.2 Continued

Latent profile analysis	How many and what kinds of parent–youth (dis)agreement latent profiles are in the data? (Spurk et al., 2020) How many parent–youth dyads make up each profile and how do they compare to each other? (Spurk et al., 2020) What predicts a dyad's membership into one of the (dis)agreement profiles? (Spurk et al., 2020) What youth outcomes do the latent profiles predict? (Spurk et al., 2020) Are the latent profiles on parent–youth (dis)agreement replicable across other samples? (Spurk et al., 2020)	Utilize person-level indicators for profile creation (Ferguson et al., 2019)	May identify spurious profiles (Spurk et al., 2020) Detecting qualitatively distinct profiles can be difficult due to high correlations between indicators (Spurk et al., 2020)

Table 1.2 Continued

Polynomial regression with response surface analysis	Do converging parent–youth dyads differ in their association to youth outcomes compared to diverging parent–youth dyads? (Barranti et al., 2017) Does the direction of the discrepancy (parent high/youth low or youth low/parent high) have differing associations with youth outcomes? (Barranti et al., 2017) Do parents and youth who converge on the lower end of the parenting scale report differing associations with youth outcomes compared to parents and youth who converge at the higher end of the parenting scale? (Barranti et al., 2017) Do parents and youth who converge at the extreme ends of the parenting scale (high or low) report differing associations with youth outcomes compared to parents and youth who converge at the middle of the parenting scale? (Barranti et al., 2017)	Utilizes an interaction term that can be probed for divergent/convergent patterns between parents and youth (Laird & LaFleur, 2016) Can test for the improvement in model prediction using R^2 and information criteria Can test for the significance of discrepancy (interaction) term Can model higher order terms, such as quadratic terms, to model nonlinear relations (Laird & LaFleur, 2016) Can test for moderation Response surface produces a visual representation of the association between parent–youth (mis)matches and youth outcomes (Barranti et al., 2017)	Limited in the types of research questions that can be asked (de Haan et al., 2018) Applicable only to parent–youth (dis)agreement as a predictor (Edwards, 2002) Moderation analyses can be difficult to interpret due to three-way interactions

this reasoning, it is more methodologically sound to use multiple reports of parenting (Gonzalez et al., 1996). Further, multiple studies support that the discrepancy between parents and youth predicts youth outcomes above and beyond youth report alone (Hu & Zhou, 2024; Janssen et al., 2021; Leung & Shek, 2014; Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022; Van Petegem et al., 2020; Zhai et al., 2024). The discrepancy between parents and youth is thus a critical variable to include in models that include both parent and youth reports of parenting. Together, this is compelling evidence that scholars studying the association between parenting and youth outcomes should use parent and youth reports of parenting and the discrepancy between them in their models. In other words, the study of parent–youth discrepancies should move beyond its current status as a niche topic of interest to become the gold standard approach to parenting research.

Implications for Practice

In addition to the scientific implications of work on parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting, there are clinical implications too. Parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting present compelling intervention opportunities as demonstrated by current work. Practitioners can seek to limit or reduce parent–youth discrepancies of parenting through family-based efforts. One potential idea for practitioners working to reduce parent–youth discrepancies could be having parents explain the reasons behind their parenting to their youth (Keys, 2024). Democratic parenting education modules (Stolz, 2011) try to foster this kind of open communication between parents and youth. For example, the *Active Parenting* program encourages parents to teach and utilize cooperation and respect to facilitate effective problem solving and willingness to share ideas (Popkin, 2014). Because democratic parenting encourages parents to communicate effectively with their youth and encourages youth to share their ideas, parents and youth may reduce the parenting discrepancies between them because the reasons for

parenting behaviors/rules are better understood and/or negotiated. Another tool practitioners can use to foster communication and understanding between parents and youth is vignettes. Practitioners can utilize vignettes to help parents and youth communicate about parenting and assess the similarities and differences between their assessments of different parenting scenarios. Using vignettes may also provide practitioners an opening for parents and youth to talk about parenting behaviors without directly critiquing the parent. When employing these different communication techniques to reduce discrepancies, practitioners should be aware of the age/developmental stage of the child, as discrepancies normatively change over the course of adolescence (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016; Smetana & Rote, 2019).

An example of an intervention that was able to reduce discrepancies between parents and youth is Familias Unidas. Familias Unidas is a family-based intervention to reduce substance use among Hispanic youth. Lee and colleagues (2018) found parents in the intervention group reported higher positive parenting than their youth at baseline. As these parents maintained high amounts of positive parenting over the course of the intervention, their adolescents reported increasingly similar reports of positive parenting, decreasing parent–youth discrepant reports over time. In turn, the reduced discrepant reports between parents and adolescents were associated with decreased youth substance use 30 months postbaseline (Lee et al., 2018). Given the evidence that youth are at risk for outcomes such as depression and anxiety when youth report more negative parenting behaviors than their parents, clinicians and family life professionals may improve youth well-being by reducing these discrepant perspectives through family-centered work.

Future Directions

Future researchers should continue to determine whether current evidence replicates across various contexts. Specifically, researchers should investigate whether previous patterns of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting relate to youth outcomes similarly for larger, more diverse samples. For example, current evidence on the association between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth internalizing symptoms has been reported in Dutch/Belgian (Janssen et al., 2021; Van Petegem et al., 2020) and Chinese samples (Hu & Zhou, 2024; Zhai et al., 2024) and United States subsamples, specifically, a Hispanic sample (Hidalgo et al., 2023), Mexican immigrant samples (Wen et al., 2023a, Wen et al., 2023b), primarily White samples (Penner et al., 2020; Sloan et al., 2024), or clinical samples such as youth diagnosed with a substance use disorder (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022). Thus, more work is needed to discern which associations hold and which associations differ across contexts.

Future studies should also investigate which variables mediate the association between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes. For this article, only seven studies were located that included an investigation of mediation in their analysis of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes. These articles found youth self-control, youth perspective-taking, youth self-concept, youth autonomy frustration, family conflict, parent–youth communication, and mother–youth attachment to be potential mediators in the relation between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes. Noticeably absent in the current evidence are parent behaviors that may mediate the association between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes. Perhaps future researchers can investigate whether parent-specific behaviors mediate this relationship, such as parental self-control or perspective-taking.

Finally, future research needs to identify potential causes of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. Identifying the situations in which harmful parent–youth discrepancies are most likely to occur is paramount to building evidence for prevention efforts. Currently, the evidence assessing predictors of parent–youth disagreement on reports of parenting is limited and generally suggests that girls have higher levels of agreement with parent reports of parenting than boys and that better resourced, White families tend to have higher parent–youth agreement on reports of parenting (Hou et al., 2020; Korelitz & Garber, 2016). As this evidence base builds, prevention efforts can be more targeted. For example, if boys are more susceptible to higher levels of parent–youth discrepancy on parenting than girls, family professionals can use this knowledge to design programs specifically for boys and their parents to prevent negative patterns of parent–youth discrepancies. Research on the potential causes and contexts of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting, and the prevention efforts that can stem from this research, can help ensure youth do not experience the potential harms of parent–youth discrepancies in the first place. In the long-term, this work can hopefully lead to improved youth outcomes that manifest earlier and more positive parent–youth relationships that can be sustained throughout adolescence.

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CHAPTER II: PARENT AND YOUTH DISCREPANT REPORTS OF PARENTING AND YOUTH REPORTED ANXIETY: AN ABCD–SD STUDY

Abstract

The objective of this empirical study was to investigate the relation between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth anxiety. Existing research supports that parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting are related to youth anxiety. Specifically, when parents and youth agree on positive parenting, or if youth report higher levels of positive parenting than their parents, youth typically report lower anxiety. For negative dimensions of parenting, if parents and youth share high agreement on negative parenting or if youth report more negative parenting than their parent, youth report higher anxiety. The current study contributes to the literature by first testing for the added value of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting beyond parent and youth report alone. Additionally, I investigated patterns of parent–youth discrepancies separately for specific dimensions of positive and negative parenting to better clarify how parent–youth discrepancies relate to youth anxiety across parenting dimensions Third, I used a large, diverse sample of U.S. youth.

Participants for this study come from the baseline wave of the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development – Social Development Study (Release 6.1). The final analytical sample was 2,329 parent–youth dyads. Youth were on average 11.74 years old, 48% girls and 52% boys, and approximately 48.7% White, 28.5% Black, 10.3% Hispanic, 1.7% Asian, and 10.7% Other. Parents were on average 40.71 years old, approximately 83.0% identified as the child's biological mother, 11.3% identified as the child's biological father, and 5.7% identified as an adoptive, custodial, or other parental figure. Data were analyzed using hierarchical regression and polynomial regression with response surface analysis.

Results indicated that including both parent and youth reports of parenting best predicted youth anxiety; however, evidence from the hierarchical regressions was mixed for the predictive

value of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth anxiety. When using a more sophisticated method to investigate patterns of discrepancy, parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting were found to be related to youth anxiety across all included parenting dimensions. Youth who agreed with their parent or reported higher than their parent on positive dimensions of parenting reported less anxiety, whereas youth who agreed with their parent or reported higher than their parent on negative dimensions of parenting reported more anxiety. Uniquely, youth from dyads where parents and youth share agreement at the high and low ends of parental poor monitoring/supervision reported more anxiety, relative to youth who share agreement with parents at moderate levels of poor monitoring/supervision. Overall, the present study's results indicate that parent–youth (dis)agreements on a variety of parenting dimensions are related to youth anxiety, although the contributions may be small.

Introduction

There is a long history of research suggesting parenting behaviors are reliably associated with internalized youth outcomes such anxiety (Chyung et al., 2022; Clayborne et al., 2021; Johnco et al., 2021; Yaffe, 2021). However, much of this work was based on sole reports of parenting, relying only on either the parent's or the youth's report. It is important to include both parent and youth reports of parenting because parents and youth often have low agreement about parenting behaviors (Hou et al., 2020; Korelitz & Garber, 2016) demonstrating the unique perspectives they have of family processes (De Los Reyes et al., 2019). Additionally, multiple informant designs present an opportunity to investigate patterns of discrepancy between parent and youth reports of parenting (Curtis & Stolz, 2025) including how these patterns relate to youth outcomes such as anxiety. Prior evidence suggests when youth report more positive parenting than their parents, they are more likely to report lower levels of internalizing

symptoms (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022). Alternatively, when youth report their parents are less warm or more psychologically controlling than the parents report themselves to be, the youth report experiencing more internalizing symptoms like negative affect and anxiety (Janssen et al., 2021; Zhai et al., 2024). The purpose of this study is to contribute to the literature on parenting and youth anxiety by (a) employing a design that directly demonstrates the value of including multiple reporters of parenting and examining the discrepancies in their reports, (b) testing the pattern of associations of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting on a variety of both positive and negative dimensions of parenting with youth anxiety, and (c) using a large, diverse U.S. sample.

Theoretical Framework: Operations Triad Model

The operations triad model (De Los Reyes et al., 2013) is a conceptual framework to help researchers specify and test patterns of agreement/disagreement between two informants. There are three patterns specified in the original model: converging operations, diverging operations, and compensating operations. Converging operations occur when informants have agreement on what is being measured. For example, parents and youth could agree that the parent has demonstrated high amounts of parental warmth. Diverging operations occur when informants have disagreement on what is being measured. For example, parents and youth could disagree on the amount of parental warmth parents show, such as when the youth reports higher parental warmth than the parent reports for themselves. Compensating operations occur when two informants' reports are inconsistent because of methodological error. For example, parents and youth may seem to disagree with each other on the amount of parental warmth, but this is because the parental warmth measure was unreliable.

When De Los Reyes and Ohannessian (2016) applied the operations triad model to parent–adolescent perceptions of the family, they specified four patterns of parent–adolescent convergence/divergence and their correlates with youth outcomes. The first pattern occurs when parents and youth report high agreement on protective parenting behaviors such as parental knowledge and acceptance. This pattern is generally associated with better youth outcomes. The second pattern occurs when parents and youth report high agreement on risk-increasing parental behaviors such as low parental awareness. This pattern is generally associated with worse youth outcomes. The third and fourth patterns describe youth outcomes associated with parent–youth divergence. The third pattern occurs when parent–youth disagreement demonstrates normative development in the youth. This pattern is associated with positive youth outcomes as youth have the autonomy and support to disagree with their parents and individuate themselves. The fourth pattern occurs when parent–youth disagreement reflects familial problems, such as low understanding of the adolescent's needs. This pattern is generally associated with worse youth outcomes as this divergence may indicate youth do not have the support or environment they need to thrive. An additional condition, characterized under compensating operations, occurs when parent–youth disagreement is attributed to methodological error. Analyses in this study investigated whether and how these patterns of parent and youth agreement/disagreement on reports of various parenting behaviors relate to youth reported anxiety.

Literature Review

Youth Anxiety

Anxiety is a cue from the brain to avoid potentially dangerous situations, which can be advantageous to survival (Beesdo et al., 2009). Anxiety is identified as pathological when it is disruptive to daily living (Beesdo et al., 2009). There are many specific anxiety disorders but

some of the common features among them are excessive worry and extreme avoidance (Beesdo et al., 2009). According to the National Center for Health Statistics (2021-22), 21% of U.S. youth had reported experiencing anxiety symptoms in the past two weeks. Additionally, COVID-19 has left youth with higher rates of anxiety than in the years prior to the pandemic (Panchal et al., 2023). In addition to youth reported anxiety, approximately 4 out of 10 U.S. parents reported being very or extremely worried about their youth experiencing anxiety or depression (Pew Research Center, 2023).

The recent increase in youth anxiety is concerning because of the problematic outcomes associated with anxiety. One of the most prominent comorbidities with anxiety is depression (Konac et al., 2021). The reason these disorders are comorbid with each other may be through potential bridge symptoms such as low self-esteem (Dobson et al., 2021), health risks such as poor diet (Wang et al., 2023), and feeling lonely or unloved (Sánchez Hernández et al., 2023). Evidence also suggests that youth anxiety may be linked to suicidality, though this link is currently underexplored (Leigh et al., 2023). Youth anxiety also associates with poor adjustment in adulthood such as less life satisfaction, poorer coping skills, continued anxiety/depressive disorders, and substance/alcohol abuse (Essau et al., 2014).

There are a host of factors that are associated with youth anxiety. In terms of protective factors, when youth feel connected to their school, they may experience fewer anxiety and depressive symptoms (Raniti et al., 2022). School may also offer another protective factor in extracurricular activities (Anderson et al., 2025). Beyond school, interpersonal support from friends and family may also decrease the risk of anxiety disorder diagnosis (Metts et al., 2021). And youth may have protective factors within themselves. For example, when youth demonstrated more resilience in the face of bullying, they were less likely to experience anxiety

and depressive symptoms (Anderson et al., 2022). Additionally, when youth reported more prosocial behaviors, they were less likely to report experiencing anxious/depressive symptoms (Konac et al., 2021).

Risk factors are associated with higher youth anxiety. For example, adverse childhood experiences (i.e., childhood abuse, parental divorce, economic hardship, etc.) are positively linked to youth anxiety and depressive symptoms (Elmore & Crouch, 2023). At school, when youth experience more academic pressure, they are also at increased risk for more anxiety symptoms among other mental health concerns (Anderson et al., 2025). Social concerns may also increase youth anxiety symptoms through comparing their appearance to others and experiencing advanced pubertal development (Rapee et al., 2022). Puberty may present another risk factor as hormonal and cognitive shifts in adolescence are associated with increased anxiety symptoms (NASEM, 2019).

Parenting and Youth Internalized Outcomes

Some factors can be either protective or risk factors for youth anxiety. One such factor is parenting. For example, one meta-analysis indicated that positive parenting behaviors (such as warmth and sensitivity) were associated with less youth anxiety, whereas negative parenting behaviors (such as harsh discipline and physical punishment) were associated with more youth anxiety, though whether these associations hold longitudinally is uncertain (Clayborne et al., 2021). Other scholars found that parental psychological control and authoritarianism were associated with increased youth anxiety (Beesdo et al., 2009; Chyung et al., 2022; Yaffe, 2021). Other studies reported mixed evidence regarding whether parenting behaviors such as emotional warmth, overprotection, and rejection were associated with youth anxiety over time (Johnco et al., 2021). Taken together, this may demonstrate a specialized effect as suggested by Barber and

colleagues (2005); results from their cross-national study of adolescents in 15 national-ethnic groups that indicated parental warmth was generally associated with lower youth internalizing outcomes whereas parental psychological control was generally associated with higher youth internalizing outcomes. With regard to the specific parenting constructs considered in the present study, parental involvement (Ren et al., 2024), positive parenting (such as parental warmth; Rothenberg et al., 2020), parental monitoring (Keeley et al., 2024), and harsh and lax parental discipline (Parent et al., 2016) have all been linked to youth anxiety.

Multiple Informant Reports of Parenting

Though previous research suggests parenting behaviors relate to youth anxiety, these studies have primarily relied on sole reports of parenting (youth or parent only). This may be problematic because current evidence suggests that parents and youth may have differing reports of parenting behaviors. Several studies, including meta-analyses, have found low agreement between parents and youth on parenting behaviors and dimensions (Gaylord et al., 2003; Hou et al., 2020; Korelitz & Garber, 2016). Researchers have argued that low agreement between two informants does not necessarily demonstrate unreliability in the measures being used, but rather that each informant has a unique perspective on what is being studied (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005; De Los Reyes, 2011). Indeed, research supports that parents and youth contribute key individual pieces of information on family functioning (De Los Reyes et al., 2019). Further, the discrepancy term that can be created by including both parent and youth reports of parenting may have unique predictive capabilities above and beyond youth or parent reports of parenting alone.

Parent and youth agreement on certain parenting behaviors is related to youth anxiety. Evidence currently supports when parents and youth agreed on parenting behaviors such as low levels of supportive responses to the child's sadness (Hu & Zhou, 2024), high maternal criticism

(Janssen et al., 2021), low amounts of paternal warmth (Janssen et al., 2021), high amounts of overprotective parenting (Van Petegem et al., 2020), and high amounts of psychological control (Zhai et al., 2024), the youth were more likely to report experiencing internalizing problems such as depressive symptoms and anxiety. However, agreement can also be protective. Some studies found when youth and their mothers agreed on high amounts of parental warmth (Janssen et al., 2021), and behavioral control (Zhai et al., 2024), adolescents reported more positive affect and less anxiety.

Current evidence also suggests that parent and youth disagreement in reports of parenting can be associated with youth internalizing behaviors. Studies often find when youth report more positively on their parent's parenting than the parent themselves, youth report experiencing more positive affect or less internalizing symptoms. For example, an ecological momentary assessment study found on days when adolescents reported more parental warmth than their mothers, they reported more positive affect (Janssen et al., 2021). A similar trend was found over a longer period of time—when adolescents reported more positive parenting than their parents as baseline, they reported lower levels of internalizing symptoms twelve months later (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022).

However, when adolescents report less positive parenting or report more negative parenting than their parents, they are more likely to report worse outcomes. For example, the ecological momentary assessment study also found on days when adolescents reported less parental warmth than their parents, they reported more negative affect (Janssen et al., 2021). Evidence spanning a longer period of time also indicated when adolescents reported more psychological control and less behavioral control than their mothers and fathers at baseline, adolescents reported increased anxiety at the second wave (Zhai et al., 2024). Generally, it seems

when adolescents report more positive parenting behaviors than their parents, they report better outcomes compared to when adolescents report more negative parenting behaviors than their parents.

It should be noted that much of the reviewed work on parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth internalizing symptoms has been done in Dutch/Belgian (Janssen et al., 2021; Van Petegem et al., 2020) and Chinese samples (Hu & Zhou, 2024; Zhai et al., 2024). Recent work on this subject in the United States has been conducted in subsamples such as a primarily Hispanic sample (Hidalgo et al., 2023), Mexican immigrant samples (Wen et al., 2023a, Wen et al., 2023b), primarily White samples (Penner et al., 2020; Sloan et al., 2024), or clinical samples such as youth diagnosed with a substance use disorder (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022).

Current Study

The goal of this study is to understand how parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting relate to youth reported anxiety. The current study extended the literature on parenting and youth anxiety by (a) implementing a design that explores the value of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting in predicting youth anxiety, thus adding another layer of insight to the association of parenting with youth anxiety (Hidalgo et al., 2023; Hu & Zhou, 2024; Zhai et al., 2024), (b) identifying patterns of parent–youth discrepancies on a variety of both positive and negative aspects of parenting and their association with youth anxiety, and (c) using a large sample of U.S. youth and their parents, given the limited diversity of U.S. samples in the reviewed literature (Hidalgo et al., 2023; Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022; Penner et al., 2020; Sloan et al., 2024; Wen et al., 2023a; Wen et al., 2023b). To accomplish these aims I addressed the following research questions:

RQ1: Assessing the value of multiple informants and parent–youth discrepancies.

1a. Does youth report of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision) predict youth reported anxiety?

1b. Does adding parent report of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision) to the model predict youth reported anxiety better than the youth only model?

1c. Does adding the discrepancy term between parents and youth uniquely predict youth anxiety in the model with both parent and youth reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision)?

RQ2: Investigating patterns of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting with youth anxiety.

2a. Is youth reported anxiety different for youth from parent–youth dyads who have high parent/high youth reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision) than low parent/low youth reports of parenting?

2b. Is youth reported anxiety different for youth from parent–youth dyads who have high parent/low youth reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision) than low parent/high youth reports of parenting?

2c. Is youth reported anxiety different for youth from parent–youth dyads who share extreme reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting,

inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision) compared to dyads who share moderate reports of parenting?

2d. Is youth reported anxiety different for youth from parent–youth dyads who share similar reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision) than those with dissimilar reports?

Method

Sample

Data for this study was sourced from the Adolescent Brain and Cognitive Development – Social Development Study (ABCD–SD; Release 6.1). This sample is a sub-sample of the larger Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development Study (ABCD). The ABCD–SD was developed to investigate youth behaviors such as delinquency and victimization (National Institute of Justice, 2017). In addition to reports of delinquency and victimization, participants in the sub-study also reported on a variety of variables including reports from parents and youth on parenting behaviors. Thus, the current study, though not investigating delinquency and victimization, is using the ABCD–SD for its data on parent and youth reports of parenting. The ABCD–SD collected data about parenting from 2,415 youth. Eighty-three youth were excluded because they did not complete the anxiety questionnaire. An additional three parent–youth dyads were excluded because either the parent or youth did not complete the parenting questionnaire. The final analytical sample was 2,329 parent–youth dyads. Youth were approximately 11.74 years old (*SD* = 1.00) and 48% girls and 52% boys. Regarding race, the youth sample was approximately 48.7% White, 28.5% Black, 10.3% Hispanic, 1.7% Asian, and 10.7% Other. The parent sample was on average 40.71 years old (*SD* = 7.51) and approximately 83.0% identified as the child's

biological mother, 11.3% identified as the child's biological father, and 5.7% identified as an adoptive, custodial, or other parental figure.

Measures

Parenting Measures

To measure parent and youth reports of parenting, four subscales from the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991) were used. All response options were "Never," "Almost never," "Sometimes," "Often," and "Always." Each subscale is described in the following sections. Cronbach's alphas have previously shown moderate to good consistency for these subscales across parents and youth (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022; Penner et al., 2020).

Additionally, measurement invariance for the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991) was tested in this study to assess whether the items in each scale were treated similarly by parents and youth in a sample and test whether compensating operations explain discrepancies between parents and youth (De Los Reyes et al., 2013; De Los Reyes and Ohannessian, 2016). Model fit was evaluated using the chi-square (χ^2), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Standardized Root Mean-square Residual (SRMR) as well as changes in model fit indices for nested models (for a discussion of criterion of change for each index, see Putnick & Bornstein, 2016).

Parental Involvement. The 10-item parental involvement subscale assessed behaviors such as playing with the child and volunteering at the child's school. Sample items for parents included "You have a friendly talk with your child," and "You help your child with his/her homework." Youth items were worded for their observations of the same parenting behavior, for example, "You have a friendly talk with your primary caregiver," and "Your primary caregiver helps you with your homework." Cronbach's alpha for this subscale was 0.87 for youth and 0.78

for parents. Items in this scale were summed to create a single score for each participant. Higher scores indicated parents and/or youth reported more parental involvement.

Positive Parenting. The 6-item positive parenting subscale assessed behaviors such as praising the child and showing physical affection. Sample items for parents included "You let your child know when he/she is doing a good job with something," and "You hug or kiss your child when he/she has done something well." Youth items were worded for their observations of the same parenting behavior, for example, "Your parents tell you that you are doing a good job," and "Your parents hug or kiss you when you have done something well." Cronbach's alpha for this subscale was 0.86 for youth and 0.78 for parents. Items in this scale were summed to create a single score for each participant. Higher scores indicated parents and/or youth reported more positive parenting.

Inconsistent Discipline. The 6-item inconsistent parental discipline subscale assessed parents' inability to follow through on disciplinary boundaries or being easily talked out of punishment. Sample items for parents included "You threaten to punish your child and then do not actually punish him/her," and "Your child is not punished when he/she has done something wrong." Youth items were worded for their observations of the same parenting behavior, for example, "Your parents threaten to punish you and then do not do it" and "Your parents do not punish you when you have done something wrong." Cronbach's alpha for this subscale was 0.65 for youth and 0.71 for parents. Items in this scale were summed to create a single score for each participant. Higher scores indicated parents and/or youth reported more inconsistent discipline.

Poor Monitoring/Supervision. The 10-item poor parental monitoring/supervision subscale assessed parental lack of awareness of the child's whereabouts and companions. Sample items for parents included "Your child goes out without a set time to be home," and "You get so

busy that you forget where your child is and what he/she is doing." Youth items were worded for their observations of the same parenting behavior, for example, "You go out without a set time to be home," and "Your parents get so busy that they forget where you are and what you are doing." The item "Your child is at home without supervision/You are at home without an adult being with you" had low loadings for both youth (.486) and parents (.312) in their individual confirmatory factor analyses. Additionally, before removing this item, Cronbach's alpha for this subscale was 0.72 for youth and 0.62 for parents. After removal, Cronbach's alpha for this subscale improved to 0.73 for youth and 0.66 for parents. It seems that this item is ambiguous regarding who is doing the monitoring, whereas the other items in this subscale ask about the parent's monitoring/knowledge explicitly. Thus, this item was removed from all analyses. Items in this scale were summed to create a single score for each participant. Higher scores indicated parents and/or youth reported more poor monitoring/supervision.

Youth Anxiety

Youth anxiety was measured with the internalizing subscale of the Brief Problem Monitor, which is an abbreviated form of the Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach et al., 2011). The Brief Problem Monitor has favorable psychometric evaluations, demonstrating good internal consistency (Piper et al., 2014). The internalizing subscale asked youth about their experience with anxiety and negative emotions. Sample items for this scale included "I am too fearful or anxious" and "I worry a lot." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.72. Items in this scale were summed to create a single score for each participant and higher scores indicated more youth reported anxiety.

Only youth report of anxiety was used for this study, parent report was not used. Parenting is best studied using both youth and parent reports because it is an inherently relational

process; both a parent and a child are needed for parenting acts to occur. Youth anxiety, on the other hand, is an exclusively internal experience. Youth report of mental health, specifically emotional problems, may be uniquely effective at identifying problems (Aebi et al., 2017) and more ecologically valid. Thus, youth report was the only report used for youth anxiety in this study.

Analysis

Research question one was addressed using hierarchical regression for each parenting subscale with the *lavaan* package (Rosseel et al., 2025) in R (R Core Team, 2025) which employs a structural equation modeling framework. Using a structural equation modeling framework allowed for implementing full information maximum likelihood to treat missing data (Humberg & Grund, 2022) and to use the maximum likelihood estimator to handle non-normal variables. Additionally, the structural equation modeling framework produced model fit criterion values. Research question two was addressed using polynomial regression with response surface analysis for each parenting subscale; accomplished using the *RSA* package (Schönbrodt & Humberg, 2025) in R (R Core Team, 2025). As the data were inherently dependent, the predictor variables (parent and youth reports of parenting) were centered to account for multicollinearity and for ease of interpretation (Dalal & Zickar, 2011).

Hierarchical regressions were run in three blocks. The initial block included only the youth report of parenting predicting youth reported anxiety. The second block added parent report of parenting to the initial model. The final block added the interaction term between parents and youth. Improvements in R^2 and information criterion, specifically Akaike's information criterion value (AIC; Akaike, 1987) and the Bayesian information criterion value (BIC; Schwarz, 1978) were used to compare the three blocks. The model the greatest

improvements in R^2 and the lowest AIC and BIC values was the best for predicting youth anxiety (Kline, 2023).

Polynomial regression with response surface analysis is a recommended approach to studying parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting (Hou et al., 2020). The polynomial regression uses a linear term for both the parent and youth report of parenting, a quadratic term for each to model potential non-linear relations, and an interaction term between the linear terms for parents' and youths' reports of parenting (Laird & LaFleur, 2016). The response surface analysis uses components of the polynomial regression to answer questions such as (a) whether converging parent–youth dyads are associated with higher/lower outcomes than diverging parent–youth dyads, (b) whether the direction of the discrepancy predicts the outcome (parent high/teen low vs. teen high/parent low), (c) whether parent–youth convergence is associated with better/worse outcomes on the lower end of the parenting scale compared to the higher end of the parenting scale, and (d) whether parent–youth convergence at the extreme ends of the parenting scale is associated with better/worse outcomes than parent–youth convergence at the middle of the parenting scale (Barranti et al., 2017). The polynomial regression equation was run as follows:

$$Y = b_0 + b_1 + b_2 + b_3 + b_4 + b_5 + e$$

where Y represented youth reported anxiety, b_0 represented the intercept for the model, b_1 represented the linear term for youth reported parenting, b_2 represented the linear term for parent reported parenting, b_3 represented the quadratic term for youth reported parenting, b_4 represented the interaction between parents' and youths' reports of parenting, b_5 represented the quadratic term for parents' reported parenting, and e represented the error in the model (Laird & De Los Reyes, 2013).

Response surface analysis uses elements of the polynomial regression equation to plot a 3D surface of all possible outcomes of youths' anxiety due to convergence/divergence of parents' and youths' reports of parenting. The plot can be interpreted by two lines, the *line of congruence* and the *line of incongruence*. The line of congruence showed how youth reported anxiety responded when parents and youth shared similar perceptions parenting (both low or both high). The line of incongruence showed how youth reported anxiety responded when parents and youth diverged on parenting (one low, one high; Barranti et al., 2017).

The response surface analysis produced four coefficients titled a_1, a_2, a_3, and a_4. Each of these coefficients answered a different question regarding parent–youth convergence/divergence on parenting and its relation to youth anxiety. The first and second coefficients (a_1 & a_2) are interpretations of the line of congruence (Equation: $Y = a_1X + a_2X^2$), which assessed all combinations where parent and youth reports of parenting are equal (Schönbrodt et al., 2018). The third and fourth coefficients (a_3 & a_4) are interpretations of the line of incongruence ($Y = a_3X + a_4X^2$), which assessed all combinations where parent and youth reports are not equal (Schönbrodt et al., 2018). Coefficient a_1 ($a_1 = b_1 + b_2$) determined whether parents and youth who agreed on higher amounts of the specified parenting behavior corresponded to higher amounts of youth reported anxiety and vice versa (Barranti et al., 2017). Coefficient a_2 ($a_2 = b_3 + b_4 + b_5$) determined whether youth from dyads who converged at the extreme ends of the parenting behavior being assessed (e.g., those who agreed on very much or very little positive parenting) reported experiencing more or less anxiety than youth from dyads who both perceived average levels of parenting (Barranti et al., 2017). Coefficient a_3 ($a_3 = b_1 – b_2$) determined whether youth reported more anxiety from dyads where the youth reported more of the parenting behavior than the parent or from dyads where the parent reported more of the parenting behavior

than the youth (Barranti et al., 2017). Coefficient a_4 ($a_4 = b_3 – b_4 + b_5$) determined whether youth from dyads who diverged on reports of parenting reported experiencing more anxiety than youth from dyads who converged on reports of parenting (Barranti et al., 2017).

Results

Measurement Invariance

Measurement invariance was tested using a confirmatory factor analysis approach by creating a measurement model for each parenting variable. Configural, metric, and scalar invariance were tested by comparing the nested models (metric and scalar) using changes in model fit indices. Results for testing measurement invariance between parents and youth on the four parenting variables (parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision) demonstrated that metric invariance could not be established for any of the parenting variables. Additionally, partial metric invariance could not be established by sequentially releasing each individual loading. Please see Tables 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, and 2.4 for specific model fit/change in model fit indices.

Research Question 1: Hierarchical Regression

With regard to RQ 1a, youth report of all four parenting dimensions was associated with youth anxiety in the anticipated direction. Specifically, anxiety was associated with youth report of parental involvement (B = -0.03, $p < .001$; See Table 2.5 for full results), youth report of positive parenting (B = -0.04, $p < .001$; See Table 2.6 for full results), youth report of inconsistent discipline (B = 0.10, $p < .001$; See Table 2.7 for full results), and youth report of poor monitoring/supervision (B = 0.07, $p < .001$, See Table 2.8 for full results).

To assess the added value of parent report and parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting (RQ 1b and RQ 1c), I compared the R^2, AIC (Akaike, 1987) and BIC (Schwarz, 1978)

between the models that used only youth report, that used both youth and parent report, and that used both youth and parent report and the interaction term. Because in this analysis I am interested in the contributions, rather than associations, of the parent report and the parent–youth discrepancies (the interaction term) with anxiety it is appropriate to compare model fit indices to identify the best model (Kline, 2023). For both positive parenting and inconsistent discipline, model comparisons indicated that including both the youth and parent report of parenting offered the best prediction of youth anxiety. For parental involvement and poor monitoring/supervision, the model that included youth and parent report as well as the interaction (discrepancy) showed the greatest improvements in R^2 and AIC. However, the BIC was lowest for the model that included only youth and parent report of parental involvement and poor monitoring/supervision. This is likely because the AIC uses a more liberal critical value (p = .157) for model comparisons where the next model adds one parameter (Sutherland et al., 2023). The p-values for the interaction term for parental involvement (p = .122) and poor monitoring/supervision (p = .144) are under this threshold; thus, the AIC indicates these terms should be kept in the model. To see the specific R^2, AIC, and BIC values for these model comparisons, please refer to Table 2.9.

Research Question 2: Polynomial Regression with Response Surface Analysis

Research question 2a asks whether youth-reported anxiety is different for youth from dyads where both members report high levels of the parenting dimension compared to youth from dyads where both members report low levels of the parenting dimension. This question was answered by a significant a_1 response surface coefficient. Regarding positive dimensions of parenting, results indicated that youth from dyads where both parent and youth reported higher levels of parental involvement and positive parenting reported less anxiety than youth from dyads where both parent and youth reported lower levels of parental involvement and positive

parenting. Regarding negative dimensions of parenting, results indicated that youth from dyads where both parent and youth both reported higher levels of inconsistent discipline reported more anxiety than youth from dyads where both parent and youth reported lower levels of inconsistent discipline. There was no significant difference in youth reported anxiety for youth where both members of the dyad reported high levels of poor monitoring/supervision compared to youth from dyads where both members reported low levels.

Research question 2b asks whether youth reported anxiety is different for youth from dyads where the youth reported more of the parenting dimension than the parent compared to youth from dyads where the youth reported less of the parenting dimension than the parent. This question was answered by a significant a_3 response surface coefficient. Regarding positive dimensions of parenting, results indicate that youth from dyads where the youth reported more positive parenting than their parent reported less anxiety than youth from dyads where the youth reported less positive parenting than their parent. There was no significant difference in youth reported anxiety for youth from dyads where the youth reported more parental involvement than their parent compared to youth from dyads where the youth reported less parental involvement than their parent. Regarding negative dimensions of parenting, results indicated that youth from dyads where the youth reported more inconsistent discipline or more poor monitoring/supervision than their parent reported more anxiety than youth from dyads where the youth reported less inconsistent discipline or poor monitoring/supervision than their parent.

Research question 2c asks whether youth reported anxiety is different for youth from dyads who share agreement on extreme reports of the parenting dimension compared to dyads who share agreement on moderate reports of the parenting dimension. This question was answered by a significant a_2 response surface coefficient. This was significant for only one

parenting dimension. Youth from dyads where parents and youth agreed on either high or low amounts of poor monitoring/supervision reported more anxiety than youth from dyads where parents and youth shared moderate agreement on poor monitoring/supervision.

Research question 2d asks whether youth reported anxiety is different for youth from dyads who share similar reports of parenting compared to dyads who have dissimilar reports of parenting. This question was answered by a significant a_4 response surface coefficient. This coefficient was not significant for any of the parenting dimensions. For full response surface results across all parenting dimensions under investigation, please see Tables 2.10, 2.11, 2.12, and 2.13.

Discussion

Current research supports that parent and youth (dis)agreement on parenting is related to youth internalizing problems (Janssen et al., 2021; Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022; Zhai et al., 2024). The objective of this investigation was to extend this literature by (a) implementing a design that assesses the value of multiple informants as well as parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting in explaining youth anxiety, (b) identifying patterns of parent–youth discrepancies on both positive and negative aspects of parenting and their association with youth anxiety, and (c) using a large sample of U.S. youth and their parents.

The Value of Multiple Reporters and Parent–Youth Discrepancies

Given that most parenting research relies on sole reporters (parent or youth; Curtis & Stolz, 2025) my first goal was to demonstrate the value of including multiple informants as well as the discrepancies between them when scholars are interested in understanding youth functioning and wellbeing. Results from the hierarchical regression analyses support the

Table 2.1 Measurement invariance test for youth and parent reports of parental involvement

Model	χ^2 (*df*)	CFI	TLI	RMSEA [90% CI]	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)	ΔCFI	ΔTLI	ΔRMSEA	ΔSRMR
Configural Invariance	809.44 (*70*)	.941	.925	.067 [.063, .072]	.035	--	--	--	--	--
Metric Invariance	953.75 (*79*)	.931	.921	.069 [.065, .073]	.051	125.61 (*9*)***	.010	.004	.002	.016
Scalar Invariance	1571.29 (*88*)	.882	.880	.085 [.081, .089]	.079	545.58 (*9*)***	.049	.041	.016	.028

Note. N = 4,658; youth n = 2329; parents n = 2329.
***$p < .001$

Table 2.2 Measurement invariance test for youth and parent reports of positive parenting

Model	χ^2 (*df*)	CFI	TLI	RMSEA [90% CI]	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)	ΔCFI	ΔTLI	ΔRMSEA	ΔSRMR
Configural Invariance	306.26 (*18*)	.970	.951	.083 [.075, .091]	.027	--	--	--	--	--
Metric Invariance	348.52 (*23*)	.967	.957	.078 [.071, .085]	.037	38.06 (*5*)***	.006	.006	.005	.010
Scalar Invariance	406.54 (*28*)	.961	.958	.076 [.070, .083]	.044	49.27 (*5*)***	.003	.001	.002	.007

Note. N = 4,658; youth n = 2329; parents n = 2329.
***$p < .001$

Table 2.3 Measurement invariance test for youth and parent reports of inconsistent discipline

Model	χ^2 (*df*)	CFI	TLI	RMSEA [90% CI]	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)	ΔCFI	ΔTLI	ΔRMSEA	ΔSRMR
Configural Invariance	151.31 (*18*)	.962	.937	.056 [.048, .065]	.025	--	--	--	--	--
Metric Invariance	206.01 (*23*)	.948	.933	.058 [.051, .066]	.036	37.37 (*5*)***	.014	.004	.002	.011
Scalar Invariance	626.20 (*28*)	.831	.819	.096 [.089, .102]	.067	380.67 (*5*)***	.117	.114	.038	.038

Note. N = 4,658; youth n = 2329; parents n = 2329.
***$p < .001$

Table 2.4 Measurement invariance test for youth and parent reports of poor monitoring/supervision

Model	χ^2 (*df*)	CFI	TLI	RMSEA [90% CI]	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)	ΔCFI	ΔTLI	ΔRMSEA	ΔSRMR
Configural Invariance	896.36 (*54*)	.869	.825	.082 [.077, .087]	.049	--	--	--	--	--
Metric Invariance	936.06 (*62*)	.864	.842	.078 [.073, .082]	.053	18.28 (*8*)*	.005	.017	.004	.004
Scalar Invariance	1566.86 (*70*)	.767	.761	.096 [.092, .100]	.073	647.59 (*8*)***	.097	.081	.018	.020

Note. N = 4,657; youth n = 2328; parents n = 2329. Excluded item 32.
*$p < .05$, ***$p < .001$

Table 2.5 Hierarchical regression iteratively adding youth and parent reports of parental involvement and their interaction to predict youth anxiety

Model	Effect	B	*SE*	*p*	95% CI: Lower	95% CI: Upper
Youth Only						
	Intercept	1.86	.046	< .001	1.77	1.95
	Youth Report	-0.03	.007	< .001	-0.04	-0.01
Youth & Parent						
	Intercept	1.86	.046	< .001	1.77	1.95
	Youth Report	-0.02	.007	.001	-0.04	-0.01
	Parent Report	-0.01	.009	.332	-0.03	0.01
Youth, Parent, & Interaction						
	Intercept	1.88	.048	< .001	1.78	1.97
	Youth Report	-0.02	.007	< .001	-0.04	-0.01
	Parent Report	-0.01	.009	.251	-0.03	0.01
	Interaction	-0.01	.001	.122	-0.01	0.00

Table 2.6 Hierarchical regression iteratively adding youth and parent reports of positive parenting and their interaction to predict youth anxiety

Model	Effect	B	*SE*	*p*	95% CI: Lower	95% CI: Upper
Youth Only						
	Intercept	1.86	.046	< .001	1.77	1.95
	Youth Report	-0.04	.01	< .001	-0.06	-0.02
Youth & Parent						
	Intercept	1.85	.046	< .001	1.76	1.94
	Youth Report	-0.04	.010	< .001	-0.06	-0.02
	Parent Report	0.01	.015	.422	-0.02	0.04
Youth, Parent, & Interaction						
	Intercept	1.85	.047	< .001	1.76	1.94
	Youth Report	-0.04	.010	< .001	-0.06	-0.02
	Parent Report	0.01	.015	.429	-0.02	0.04
	Interaction	-0.01	.003	.800	-0.01	0.01

Table 2.7 Hierarchical regression iteratively adding youth and parent reports of inconsistent discipline and their interaction to predict youth anxiety

Model	Effect	B	*SE*	*p*	95% CI: Lower	95% CI: Upper
Youth Only						
	Intercept	1.86	.046	< .001	1.77	1.95
	Youth Report	0.10	.02	< .001	0.07	0.13
Youth & Parent						
	Intercept	1.86	.046	< .001	1.77	1.95
	Youth Report	0.09	.017	< .001	0.06	0.13
	Parent Report	0.03	.013	.019	0.01	0.06
Youth, Parent, & Interaction						
	Intercept	1.86	.047	< .001	1.77	1.95
	Youth Report	0.09	.017	< .001	0.06	0.13
	Parent Report	0.03	.013	.019	0.01	0.05
	Interaction	0.01	.005	.768	-0.01	0.01

Table 2.8 Hierarchical regression iteratively adding youth and parent reports of poor monitoring/supervision and their interaction to predict youth anxiety

Model	Effect	B	*SE*	*p*	95% CI: Lower	95% CI: Upper
Youth Only						
	Intercept	1.86	.046	< .001	1.77	1.95
	Youth Report	0.07	.014	< .001	0.04	0.10
Youth & Parent						
	Intercept	1.86	.046	< .001	1.77	1.95
	Youth Report	0.07	.014	< .001	0.04	0.10
	Parent Report	0.01	.015	.812	-0.03	0.03
Youth, Parent, & Interaction						
	Intercept	1.84	.047	< .001	1.75	1.93
	Youth Report	0.06	.014	< .001	0.04	0.09
	Parent Report	-0.01	.014	.892	-0.03	0.03
	Interaction	0.01	.004	.144	-0.01	0.01

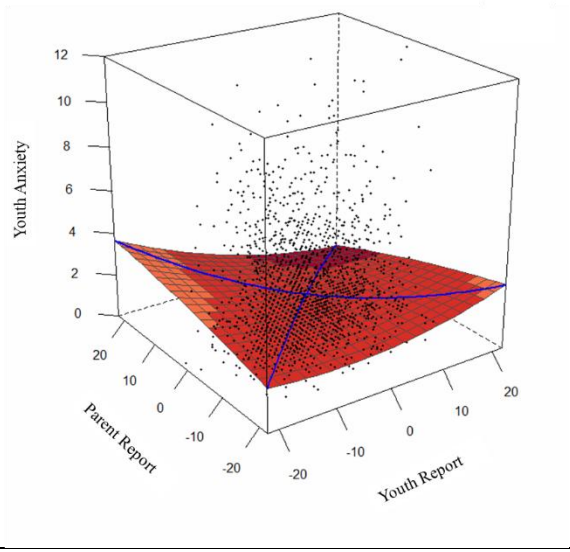
Table 2.9 Model comparisons for hierarchical regressions of parent and youth report of parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision

Model Name	R^2	AIC	BIC
Parental Involvement			
Youth Only	.008	9453.94	9471.19
Youth & Parent	.008	9444.55	**9467.54**
Youth, Parent, & Interaction	**.009**	**9444.27**	9473.01
Positive Parenting			
Youth Only	.008	9447.05	9464.30
Youth & Parent	**.009**	**9391.57**	**9414.56**
Youth, Parent, & Interaction	.009	9393.50	9422.24
Inconsistent Discipline			
Youth Only	.021	9431.53	9448.79
Youth & Parent	.023	**9410.63**	**9433.62**
Youth, Parent, & Interaction	**.024**	9412.50	9441.24
Poor Monitoring/Supervision			
Youth Only	.017	9422.13	9439.37
Youth & Parent	.017	9394.83	**9417.81**
Youth, Parent, & Interaction	**.020**	**9392.00**	9420.72

Table 2.10 Response surface analysis results for parent and youth reports of parental involvement predicting youth anxiety

RSA Coefficients

a_1	a_2	a_3	a_4
-0.037***	-0.001	-0.016	0.003
[-0.057, -0.017]	[-0.004, 0.001]	[-0.043, 0.011]	[-0.001, 0.008]



Polynomial Regression coefficients

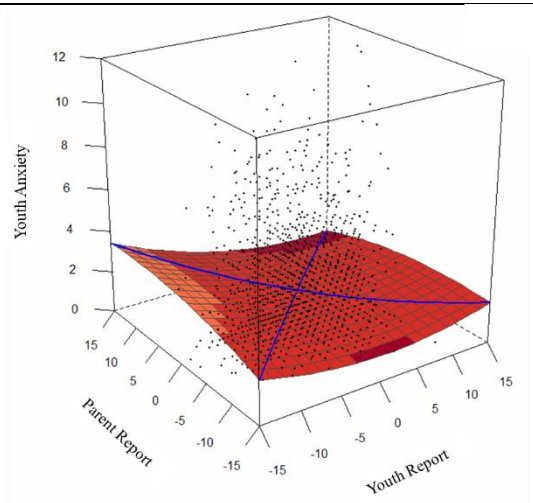
b_0	b_1	b_2	b_3	b_4	b_5	R^2
1.819***	-0.026***	-0.011	0.001	-0.002	0.000	0.011***
[1.629, 1.945]	[-0.041, -0.012]	[-0.030, 0.008]	[0.000, 0.003]	[-0.005, 0.000]	[-0.003, 0.002]	

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

Table 2.11 Response surface analysis results for parent and youth reports of positive parenting predicting youth anxiety

RSA Coefficients

a_1	a_2	a_3	a_4
-0.035*	-0.001	-0.049*	0.004
[-0.070, 0.000]	[-0.010, 0.008]	[-0.090, -0.007]	[-0.007, 0.014]



Polynomial Regression coefficients

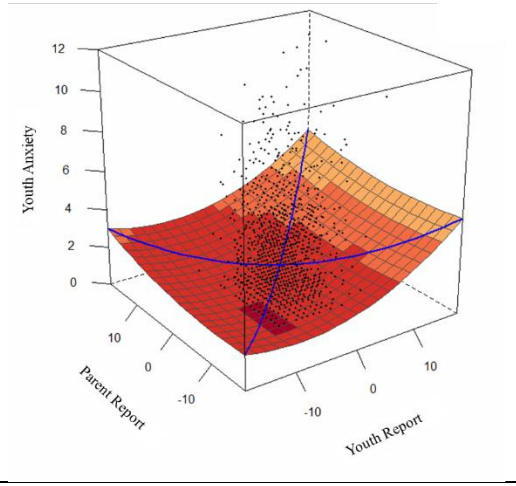
b_0	b_1	b_2	b_3	b_4	b_5	R^2
1.807***	-0.042***	0.007	0.003	-0.003	-0.002	0.011***
[1.679, 1.935]	[-0.062, -0.021]	[-0.026, 0.039]	[0.000, 0.007]	[-0.009, 0.004]	[-0.009, 0.005]	

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

Table 2.12 Response surface analysis results for parent and youth reports of inconsistent discipline predicting youth anxiety

RSA Coefficients

a_1	a_2	a_3	a_4
0.107***	0.006	0.053*	0.007
[0.069, 0.145]	[-0.004, 0.016]	[0.007, 0.099]	[-0.010, 0.023]



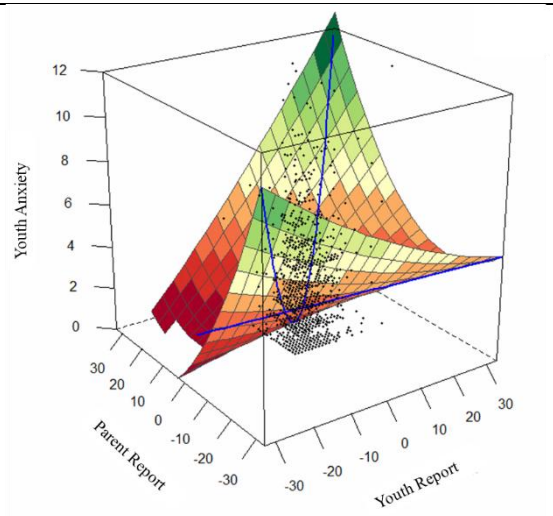
Polynomial Regression coefficients

b_0	b_1	b_2	b_3	b_4	b_5	R^2
1.797***	0.080***	0.027*	0.005	0.000	0.002	0.025***
[1.668, 1.926]	[0.047, 0.113]	[0.001, 0.053]	[-0.003, 0.012]	[-0.010, 0.010]	[-0.003, 0.006]	

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

Table 2.13 Response surface analysis results for parent and youth reports of poor monitoring/supervision predicting youth anxiety

RSA Coefficients			
a_1	a_2	a_3	a_4
0.032	0.009*	0.095***	0.000
[-0.012, 0.075]	[0.001, 0.018]	[0.047, 0.142]	[-0.011, 0.011]



Polynomial Regression coefficients						
b_0	b_1	b_2	b_3	b_4	b_5	R^2
1.788***	0.063***	-0.032	0.001	0.005	0.005**	0.023***
[1.662, 1.914]	[0.015, 0.033]	[-0.066, 0.002]	[-0.005, 0.006]	[-0.003, 0.013]	[0.002, 0.006]	

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

inclusion of both parent and youth reports of parenting to better predict youth outcomes; the models that included both parent and youth reports of parenting predicted youth anxiety better than the models that relied on only youth report. This is important because it means youth report of parenting may not adequately capture the relation between parenting and youth outcomes. Parents' own reports of parenting should be investigated in addition to the youth report to get a more complete understanding of how parenting impacts youth outcomes. Parents and youth have unique and potentially differing perspectives on their family (De Los Reyes et al., 2019) and likely share little agreement on their reports of parenting (Hou et al., 2020; Korelitz & Garber, 2016). If researchers use only one of those perspectives, they may draw different conclusions than if they had used the other (Taber, 2010). Thus, researchers should include both parent and youth reports of parenting to more completely assess the relation between parenting and youth outcomes.

Beyond simply including multiple informants, I was also interested in demonstrating the value of specifically including the discrepancies between those informants. The results of the hierarchical regressions offer mixed support for the predictive potential of discrepancies between parents and youth. For positive parenting and inconsistent discipline, the discrepancy between parent and youth report did not contribute more information than parents' and youths' individual reports of parenting already offered. For the other two predictors of interest, parental involvement and poor monitoring/supervision, one of the model evaluators indicated that the best model to predict youth anxiety should include the discrepancy between parents and youth whereas the other model evaluator indicated that the best model to predict youth anxiety should include parent and youth report of parenting only. The source of this difference may be that one model evaluator favors simpler models (Kline, 2023). Using these results alone, researchers

might assume that parent–youth discrepant reports of parental involvement and poor monitoring/supervision matter, but discrepant reports of positive parenting and inconsistent discipline do not matter in understanding and predicting youth anxiety. However, it is important to note that when only the main effects and interaction are assessed for model comparisons, all the potential patterns of discrepancy between parents and youth are not adequately modeled (Edwards, 2001). An approach that includes only the youth report, the parent report and the discrepancy between them is not able to determine more nuanced discrepancy patterns such as whether youth anxiety is different for parent–youth dyads with different combinations of (dis)agreement (Barranti et al., 2017). In other words, researchers may fail to identify how parent–youth discrepancies on certain parenting variables relate to youth anxiety using the moderated approach because they were unable to model all possible (mis)matches between parents and youth.

Using a more sophisticated analysis, I found that parent–youth discrepant reports of three of the four parenting dimensions do associate with youth anxiety. Thus, it is important to use an approach that includes the quadratic effects for both parent and youth report as they model potential non-linear associations between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth outcomes (Laird & LaFleur, 2016). Once the polynomial model is constructed, the response surface analysis utilizes components of the polynomial model to build a detailed plot that analyzes parent–youth (dis)agreement through new coefficients. Overall, polynomial regression with response surface analysis is better than the moderated approach because it gives more detailed information on the patterns of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and their association with youth anxiety. Because of these strengths, it is heralded as the ideal for studying parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting (Hou et al., 2020). Beyond being the best approach

for investigations of parent–youth discrepancies, there is an argument to be made that this approach should be used for all parenting research because it was able to detect more nuanced associations than the prior analysis. Thus, to best understand the association of parenting with any youth outcomes, we should include multiple reporters, consider the discrepancies in their accounts of parenting, and employ this methodology.

Patterns of Parent–Youth (Dis)Agreement and Youth Anxiety

Beyond simply demonstrating that parent–youth discrepant perspectives of parenting matter for understanding youth anxiety, I wanted to additionally explore the patterns of discrepancy with an eye toward understanding whether the associations of discrepancies with youth anxiety were different for different aspects of parenting. For the current study, there were different patterns of parent–youth (dis)agreement across the various positive and negative parenting dimensions studied, namely parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision. Patterns are discussed in the sections below.

Parental Involvement

Regarding parental involvement, I found that youth from dyads where both parent and youth both reported higher amounts of parental involvement reported less anxiety than youth from dyads where both parent and youth reported lower amounts of parental involvement. This supports the first operations triad model which asserts that parent–youth convergence on protective parenting dimensions is associated with better youth outcomes (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016). Though parental involvement has been linked with youth anxiety in prior research (e.g. Ren et al., 2024), a multi-informant approach that assesses how patterns of parent–youth (dis)agreement relate to youth anxiety is a new contribution to the literature. Parent–youth (dis)agreement on parental involvement has not previously been explored in relation to anxiety

but has been explored in relation to other youth outcomes, such as academic achievement. In contrast to the linear relation between parent–youth agreement on parental involvement with youth anxiety found in the current study, others found a curvilinear relation when predicting other outcomes. For example, when parents and adolescents agreed on moderate amounts of parental involvement, youth experienced higher levels of academic achievement, but if parents and youth both reported too much or too little involvement, then youth were more likely to experience lower levels of academic achievement (Li & Guo, 2025). The difference in findings may be due to a difference in the outcome variable investigated. Li and Guo (2025) posited that too much parental involvement may stifle youth autonomy which leads to worse academic achievement outcomes. This mechanism may not be applicable to the association between parent and youth reports of parental involvement and youth anxiety. Youth do not necessarily choose to be anxious like they choose to engage in behaviors that help them succeed academically. And evidence suggests that parental involvement is negatively related to psychological distress in youth (Tian et al., 2021). Thus, where parent–youth agreement on too much parental involvement may impinge on youth autonomy and thus academic achievement, there cannot be "too much" parental involvement to help youth navigate anxiety.

It makes sense that, in families where youth and parents both reported high levels of parental involvement, youth reported less anxiety than youth from families where both parents and youth reported low parental involvement. De Los Reyes and Ohannessian (2016) explained that parent–youth agreement on protective factors is associated with improved youth outcomes because it may indicate "general consonance in understanding of family dynamics" (p. 1964) between parents and youth. So, for parents and youth who both reported high parental involvement, youth anxiety may be reduced because there is a mutual understanding and

satisfaction with the amount of parental involvement for both parties. Youth anxiety could be reduced by parent–youth reports of higher parental involvement through increased opportunities to communicate. The parental involvement subscale used for this study asked parents and youth about whether they talked about the child's day, the child's homework, or the child's friends. Parent–youth communication has mediated the relation between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth depression (Zheng et al., 2024). Thus, it seems plausible that parent–youth communication may be the underlying factor for the association between parents and youth both reporting high amounts of parental involvement and lower youth-reported anxiety. Parents and youth who both report high parental involvement may engage in more parent–youth communication, where parents can utilize different communication strategies to lower youth anxiety (Ioffe et al., 2020).

It should be noted that no other pattern of parent–youth (dis)agreement on parental involvement was significantly associated with youth anxiety. This means youth anxiety was not different for youth from dyads where the parent reported high involvement and the youth reported low involvement or vice versa. Additionally, youth anxiety was not different for youth from dyads who agreed on the amount of parental involvement (high or low) compared to parents and youth who disagreed on the amount of parental involvement. In other words, parental involvement matters for youth anxiety but the discrepancies between parents and youth on parental involvement do not matter for youth anxiety. To my knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the association between parent–youth discrepant reports of parental involvement and youth anxiety. This association should be tested across other samples and with other youth outcomes so more certain assertions can be made about the importance of parent–youth discrepancies on parental involvement to youth outcomes.

Positive Parenting

The pattern for positive parenting was similar, in that youth reported less anxiety when from dyads where parents and youth both reported higher amounts of positive parenting, reflecting the first pattern of the operations triad model—converging operations (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016). Parent–adolescent agreement on positive parenting behaviors has been similarly associated with other positive youth outcomes, such as better academic performance (Wen et al., 2023a). The finding that youth report less anxiety when both the parent and youth report high amounts of positive parenting is consistent with findings for a similar parenting dimension—parental warmth. For example, parent–youth agreement on parental warmth has been associated with fewer social and emotional problems for the youth (Gniewosz et al., 2022). A daily diary study found curvilinear relation between parent–youth agreement on parental warmth and adolescent negative affect; on days when mothers and adolescents agreed on moderate amounts of parental warmth, adolescents reported the least negative affect (Janssen et al., 2021). However, the current finding contradicts Janssen and colleagues' (2021) as they purported that too much parental warmth may relate to more negative affect for adolescents perhaps due feeling smothered. Generally, though, it seems that youth who report higher amounts of positive parenting alongside their parents may enjoy the protective nature of a warm parental relationship which lowers the risk of youth experiencing problematic internalizing behaviors (Barber et al., 2005; Pinquart, 2017; Rothenberg et al., 2020).

Parents and youth who both reported high amounts of positive parenting mean they reported high amounts of parental behaviors such as complimenting and praising the child. The underlying factor between parent–youth high reports of positive parenting and youth anxiety may be the security of the parent–youth relationship. Parent–youth high reports of positive parenting

may be indicative of the attachment between the parent and youth. Parent–youth discrepancies on warm, responsive parenting has been associated with worse mother–youth attachment which in turn is associated with more youth depression (Yin et al., 2022). So, parents and youth who both reported high amounts of positive parenting behaviors, such as praising the child, may be creating secure attachments between them and those secure attachments relate to less youth anxiety (Moretti & Peled, 2004).

Additionally, youth who reported less positive parenting than their parent reported more anxiety than youth from dyads where the youth reported more positive parenting than their parent. Others using the same positive parenting subscale as the current study also found when youth reported more positive parenting than their parents they reported fewer internalizing symptoms (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022). This association also holds for other youth internalizing problems, such as depression. When youth reported less positive parenting than their mothers, they reported more depressive symptoms one year later when compared to youth where both youth and mothers reported high amounts of positive parenting (Wen et al., 2023b). When considering parent–youth disagreement on parental warmth, the same pattern occurs. Youth who reported less parental warmth than their parents have been found to report higher levels of negative affect (Janssen et al., 2021), increased internalizing symptoms (Esposito et al., 2025), less positive well-being and increased risk for substance use (Sloan et al., 2024), and lower psychological adjustment (Gniewosz et al., 2023). This parent–youth disagreement pattern for positive, warm parenting dimensions does indeed seem to be associated with maladaptive youth outcomes, as the fourth pattern of the operations triad model indicates (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016). It may be that youth reporting less positive parenting than their parent experience more anxiety because the youth have a need for more positive, affirming parenting

and are not receiving it. With less positive feedback than they need, these youth may be susceptible to internalizing thoughts and thus experience more anxiety and other internalizing problems (Butterfield et al., 2021). This association may be driven by the youth's internal characteristics. Discrepancies between parents and youth on positive parenting has been associated with decreased youth self-control (Tian et al., 2024) or self-concept (Yeung et al., 2018) which can help youth cope with anxiety (Suveg et al., 2015; Yeo et al., 2023).

Inconsistent Discipline

Similar to the positive dimensions of parenting, I found that as parents and youth both reported high amounts of inconsistent discipline, youth reported more anxiety. Other work on profiles of parent and youth divergent reports of parenting found youth from a profile in which parents and youth reported higher amounts of inconsistent discipline were more likely to have externalizing symptoms, but not internalizing symptoms, compared to other profiles (Penner et al., 2020). This may be because the parenting profiles were created by including all the parenting dimensions assessed by the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991) in each profile, and thus specialized effects between parenting dimensions and youth outcomes (Barber et al., 2005) could not be discerned. A strength of the current study is it analyzed the relation between parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting and youth anxiety separately for four parenting dimensions. Thus, I was able to detect the relation between parents and youth both reporting high amounts of inconsistent discipline and higher reported youth anxiety. This relation supports the second pattern of the applied operations triad model (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016) which posits that parent and youth agreement on risk-increasing parental behaviors is commonly associated with poorer youth outcomes. De Los Reyes and Ohannessian (2016) explain that when parents and youth both agree on high amounts of a problematic parenting dimension, it may give support

to the severity or consistency of the problematic parenting. This may be the case for parents and youth in the current study. Because both parents and youth reported high amounts of inconsistent discipline, it may have associated with youth anxiety because it demonstrated the severity and/or persistence of the parent's inconsistent discipline.

Additionally, when youth reported more inconsistent discipline than their parents, youth reported more anxiety. Interestingly, a previous study using the same inconsistent discipline subscale did not find a relation between parent–youth disagreement on inconsistent discipline and youth internalizing symptoms (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022). It is possible that the larger sample size of the current study increased the ability to detect the relation between inconsistent discipline and youth anxiety. In line with the current study, others have similarly found that youth reporting more negatively on negative parenting dimensions (including inconsistent discipline, harsh discipline, and low nurturance) than their parent was associated with youth internalizing problems and lower social competence (Guion et al., 2009). Parent–youth disagreement that is associated with worse youth outcomes is the fourth pattern of the operations triad model (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016). De Los Reyes and Ohannessian (2016) explained that parent–youth disagreement may be associated with worse youth outcomes because of an underlying problem in the parent's parenting or the family. One example of this could be the relation between parental mental health and inconsistent discipline during COVID-19. Parents who reported experiencing more stressors in the context of COVID-19 reported more depression and anxiety and in turn reported more inconsistent discipline (Morgan et al., 2025). Parental reports of inconsistent discipline were then related to parents reporting higher depression, but not anxiety, for their adolescents (Morgan et al., 2025). Though this study used only a single informant, it demonstrates how parental mental health may be the underlying factor

to parent–youth disagreement on inconsistent discipline. Future researchers should investigate whether parent mental health accounts for the association between parent–youth disagreement on inconsistent discipline and youth reported anxiety. Overall, the patterns of parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting are comparable to the patterns found for the dimensions of parenting previously discussed. Generally, youth from dyads where parents and youth both report high amounts or the youth reports more than their parent on positive dimensions of parenting report less anxiety whereas youth from dyads who both report high amounts or the youth reports more than their parent on inconsistent discipline report more anxiety.

Poor Monitoring/Supervision

Lastly, I explored the association of discrepant reports of poor monitoring/supervision with youth anxiety. Youth from dyads where the youth reported more poor monitoring/supervision than their parents also reported experiencing more anxiety, as was the case with parent–youth disagreement on inconsistent discipline. Another study that investigated the association between parent–youth discrepant reports of poor monitoring/supervision and youth internalizing problems found no such relation (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022). Others have studied parent–youth discrepant reports of a similar parenting dimension: behavioral control. Parental behavioral control is a healthy form of parental monitoring, so youth reporting less behavioral control is similar to youth reporting more poor monitoring/supervision than their parents. Zhai and colleagues (2024) found when adolescents reported less behavioral control than their mothers and fathers, adolescents reported increased anxiety at the study's next time point. The association between youth reporting more poor monitoring/supervision than their parents and higher youth anxiety falls in line with the fourth pattern of the applied operations

triad model (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016) where parent–youth disagreement may relate to worse youth outcomes.

Though Nichols and Tanner-Smith (2022) did not find an association between parent and youth reports of poor monitoring/supervision and youth internalizing problems, they did find that youth who reported more poor monitoring/supervision than their parent reported more externalizing problems. And others have explored how parent–youth disagreement on parental monitoring is associated with external behaviors such as alcohol use (Abar et al., 2015). It is unique to find that parent–youth disagreement on parental monitoring/supervision is also related to youth internalizing behaviors. Youth who report worse monitoring/supervision than their parent may feel that their parent is inattentive to their developmental needs and lacks awareness about the youth's internal state. These youth may then experience more anxiety because they feel alone in navigating internal worries.

Finally, I found when parents and youth both reported either high or low amounts of poor monitoring/supervision, these youth reported more anxiety than youth who agreed with their parents on moderate amounts of poor monitoring/supervision. This curvilinear effect of one aspect of parental control is in contrast to the linear effect of parent–youth agreement on behavioral control with youth anxiety reported by Zhai and colleagues (2024). They found when parents and adolescents both reported higher levels of behavioral control, youth reported less anxiety at the next timepoint (Zhai et al., 2024). The difference between these findings is likely due to the limits of comparability between the parenting dimensions. Because behavioral control is a healthy, adaptive form of parental monitoring, it is unlikely that parents and youth both reporting low amounts of it will be associated with less youth anxiety. On the other hand, poor monitoring/supervision is a maladaptive form of parental monitoring, so when parents and youth

both report low levels of parental monitoring this could mean that parents and youth may be reporting problematic parental control which will be associated with more youth anxiety. My finding also partially contradicts the second pattern of the operations triad model (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016) which also suggests a linear relation between parent and youth agreement on problematic parenting behaviors and worse youth outcomes.

The first part of this study's curvilinear association indicates that youth from dyads where parents and youth who both report low amounts of poor monitoring/supervision (i.e., high amounts of over-monitoring) report experiencing more anxiety. And the similarity in both parent and youth reports of poor monitoring/supervision may point to the consistency or severity of the behavior (De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016). Others have similarly found that overparenting is related to more youth anxiety (Zhang & Ji, 2023). Overparenting is related to more youth anxiety because it infringes on youth autonomy/competence and emotion regulation (Sadoughi, 2024). The second part of this study's curvilinear association indicates that youth from dyads where parents and youth both report high amounts of poor monitoring/supervision (i.e., little parental monitoring) also report experiencing more anxiety. This could demonstrate a lack of structure and parental awareness of youth's developmental needs which relates to more youth anxiety (Yap et al., 2014). The current study may support a monitoring "sweet-spot," where parents and youth who agree that the parent monitors a moderate amount may demonstrate expectation and trust between the parent and youth such that the youth benefits from some parental structure and some parental autonomy granting.

A major focus of this study was to explore patterns of parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting dimensions separately and compare how the relation between parent–youth discrepancies on parenting and youth anxiety differed across dimensions. Regarding agreement

on positive dimensions of parenting, parents and youth who both reported higher amounts of parental involvement and positive parenting associated with lower youth-reported anxiety. This pattern is similar for negative dimensions of parenting but requires more nuance. It is true that parents and youth who both reported high amounts of inconsistent discipline and poor monitoring/supervision related to more youth-reported anxiety. However, for poor monitoring/supervision specifically, if parents and youth both reported low amounts of poor monitoring/supervision, this also related to more youth-reported anxiety. Regarding disagreement, youth reporting more positive parenting than their parents related to less youth-reported anxiety, but no relation between parent–youth discrepancies on parental involvement and youth anxiety was found. For negative dimensions of parenting, youth reporting more inconsistent discipline or poor monitoring/supervision than their parents was associated with more youth-reported anxiety. Generally, these patterns are in line with previous research on parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting, but by exploring each parenting dimension individually, unique distinctions between parenting dimensions were detected that had not been previously found.

Limitations

Some important limitations should be noted for this study. First, I was not able to establish measurement invariance between parent and youth reports of parenting. Though this in itself is a potential form of discrepant perspectives between parents and youth, it may contribute to error in these models and potentially lead to compensating operations (De Los Reyes et al., 2013; De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016). Second, all the associations in this study did not contribute much to youth's anxiety. Others who studied parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting similarly found that discrepancies accounted for little of youths' internalizing problems

but did find that discrepances accounted for much of youth's externalizing problems (Nichols and Tanner-Smith, 2022). It could be that parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting are more important in understanding youth's external behaviors than their internal states. Third, the data were cross-sectional which may put into question the direction of effect between parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth anxiety. Additionally, for some participants the Social Development Sub-Study visits coincided with their general ABCD visits while others occurred a different schedule. This inconsistent timing may further implicate my cross-sectional results. Fourth, the items for inconsistent discipline may not have reliably captured this parenting dimension for youth in this sample; the inconsistent discipline items together may not have measured inconsistent discipline but measured multiple aspects of parenting according to the youth. Though unreliability can make associations between variables more difficult to find, an association between youth reported inconsistent discipline was still detected in this study. Fifth, parents are susceptible to social desirability bias (Bornstein et al., 2015), which may mask the relation between parenting variables and youth outcomes due to over- or underreporting certain behaviors (Putnick, 2019). Finally, though this study contributes to the field by studying negative parenting dimensions, these scales may lead to different results than a neutral assessment of the parenting behavior.

Conclusion

When taken together, the current study supports previous literature and theory on parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. Utilizing both parent and youth reports of parenting was found to best predict youth anxiety, which supports a multi-informant approach. When using a more sophisticated analysis, I found that parent–youth (dis)agreements on individual positive and negative dimensions of parenting were related to youth anxiety in a large sample of U.S. youth,

however the contribution of these discrepancies to youth anxiety is small. This suggests that it is best research practice to (a) include both parent and youth reports of parenting and (b) assess whether the discrepancies between parents and youth contribute to the youth outcome under investigation. This will ensure a more holistic approach to studying how parenting influences youth. Additionally, because parent–youth discrepancies on parenting contributed to a small portion of youth anxiety, future researchers should continue to investigate whether parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting contribute more to outcomes, such as youth externalizing problems, as there is still much to learn about how parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting relate to youth outcomes.

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CHAPTER III: GENDER, ECONOMIC HARDSHIP, AND CULTURAL VALUES AS PREDICTORS OF PARENT–YOUTH DISCREPANT REPORTS OF PARENTING

Abstract

The objective of this empirical study was to identify the contexts in which harmful patterns of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting occur. Evidence supports that youth gender, economic hardship, and cultural values are related to parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting. However, much of the evidence is based on estimates pooled across multiple parenting dimensions or would benefit from more nuanced contextual variables. The current study contributes to the literature by investigating whether youth gender, parent gender, economic hardship, and cultural values (i.e., family obligation and independence/self-reliance) predict parent–youth discrepant reports of both positive (parental involvement and positive parenting) and negative (inconsistent discipline and poor monitoring/supervision) dimensions of parenting.

Participants were drawn from Wave 2 of the Adolescent Brain and Cognitive Development – Social Development Study (Release 6.1). The final analytical sample was 1,955 parent–youth dyads. Youth were on average 12 years old, 48.4% girls and 51.6% boys, and 51.6% White, 25.6% Black, 11.1% Hispanic, 1.7% Asian, 10.0% identified as "Other." Parents were on average 41.34 years old and 88.0% identified as the child's biological mother and 12.0% identified as the child's biological father. Data were analyzed using latent difference score and structural equation modeling.

Compared to parent reports, girls overreported positive parenting dimensions more than boys and girls underreported negative parenting dimensions more than boys. Economic hardship was associated with youth reporting more negative parenting than their parents. Youths' stronger family obligation values were associated with youth reporting more favorable parenting on the positive dimensions of parenting than their parents. Parents' endorsement of independence and self-reliance was associated with parents reporting more parental involvement, positive

parenting, and less maladaptive monitoring/supervision than their youth. Overall, the findings indicate there are specific characteristics and contexts that associate with parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting. This study provides valuable information for future researchers and clinicians seeking to understand what leads to parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting.

Introduction

There are robust associations between parenting and youth outcomes such as youth internalizing behaviors (Pinquart, 2017). However, much of this work was based on sole reports of parenting, relying only on either the parent or the youth's report. Many researchers are now calling for the inclusion of both parent and youth reports of parenting given that parents and youth often have low agreement about parenting behaviors (Hou et al., 2020; Korelitz & Garber, 2016) reflecting the unique perspectives they have of family processes (De Los Reyes et al., 2019). Further, certain patterns of disagreement between parent and youth perspectives of parenting are, themselves, risk factors for less-than-optimal youth outcomes such as anxiety (Curtis, 2025). This being the case, it is important to understand potential sources of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting, or the situations in which harmful discrepancies are most likely to occur. The few studies that have investigated predictors of parent–youth disagreement on reports of parenting (i.e., Hou et al., 2020; Korelitz & Garber, 2016) report that girls have higher levels of agreement with parent reports of parenting than boys and that better resourced, White families tend to have higher parent–youth agreement on reports of parenting. This study moves beyond those findings by (a) investigating parent–youth discrepancies related to both positive and negative dimensions of parenting separately and (b) using more nuanced contextual variables (e.g., economic hardship and cultural values) than prior work. The results of this study are relevant for programs designed to improve youth well-being by identifying the contexts in

which harmful parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting are most likely to occur. Interventionists can utilize these results to tailor their programs to most effectively prevent the negative youth outcomes associated with harmful parent–youth discrepancies.

Theoretical Framework: Bioecological Systems Theory

Bioecological theory uses the person-process-context-time (PPCT) model to describe how people develop through proximal processes across multiple contexts and time (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). According to this model, "Person" describes the characteristics an individual brings to their interactions and contexts. These person characteristics can be further classified as demand, resource, and force characteristics. Demand characteristics are the physical, genetic characteristics a person has such as skin color. Resource characteristics are mental, emotional, and material characteristics an individual can use throughout their development such as intelligence or educational opportunities. Force characteristics are internal characteristics such as motivation and temperament. The second element of the model is "process," which explains how an individual's interactions across contexts drive development. The third element of the framework, "Context," describes the various contexts individuals interact with. Specifically, there is the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. The microsystem includes the individual and their immediate relationships such as family, friends, and school/work. The mesosystem describes the links between different parts of the microsystem, such as how family and work may impact each other. The exosystem includes the broader community such as government, neighborhoods, and economic systems. Finally, the macrosystem describes the overall culture and philosophy of the individual's culture. The final element, "Time," encompasses how the person, processes, and contexts change and interact across time.

The current study used the person-process-context-time model to frame the individual characteristics and contexts that relate to parent–youth (dis)agreement in reports of parenting. The specific "person," demand characteristics examined in this study are youth and parent gender. Two "context" variables were explored—economic hardship and cultural values. Economic hardship in this study was characterized as part of the microsystem because the measure taps into parental/family experiences such as running out of food and facing eviction. The second "context" variable, cultural values, specifically investigated youth reports of family obligation and parent reports of both family obligation and independence/self-reliance. These cultural values were characterized as part of the macrosystem because these values are instilled in parents and youth from broader cultural forces. "Time" was held constant in this study because I used one wave of data. The "person" and "context" variables were used to predict the "process" variable: parent–youth (dis)agreement in reports of parenting (specifically parental involvement, positive parenting, poor parental monitoring, and inconsistent discipline). (Dis)agreement between parents and youth on reports of parenting occur as parents and youth interact with each other. Additionally, parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting may be different across gender, socioeconomic status, and race (Hou et al., 2020; Korelitz & Garber, 2016). Thus, the current study investigated whether the "process" of parent–youth (dis)agreements on parenting is predicted by the "person" variables of youth and parent gender, the "context" of microsystem parent-reported economic hardship, and the "context" of macrosystem youth- and parent-reported cultural values (specifically youth- and parent-reported family obligation and parent-reported self-reliance/independence).

Literature Review

Gender and Parent–Youth Perspectives on Parenting

Youth Gender

Limited evidence suggests that boys and girls are different in their level of (dis)agreement with their parents on parenting behavior. In a meta-analysis with pooled Pearson correlation estimates across a range of parenting constructs, Hou and colleagues (2020) found that girls have higher correlations with their parents on reports of parenting than boys. Another study found a similar trend such that daughters agreed more with their parents regarding parental knowledge of adolescents' whereabouts than sons (Kapetanovic & Boson, 2022). When investigating psychological control and parental autonomy, Zheng and Chen (2025) found boys diverged more from their parents' reports of parental psychological control than girls. However, they found no youth gender difference regarding parent–youth discrepant reports of parental autonomy. When taken together, these studies generally suggest that girls are more likely, compared to boys, to share more similar views of parenting with their parents.

Because of the limited and specific nature of literature on girls' and boys' differences in parent–youth (dis)agreement, it is important to investigate findings in related literature on parent–youth conflict. Given that parent–youth conflict is a form of disagreement between parents and youth, insights may be gleaned from this literature. One study found a similar trend to the evidence on parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting in that boys experienced more conflict with their parents, compared to girls, throughout early, middle, and late adolescence (Ashraf & Najam, 2011). However, another study indicated that adolescent gender was not significantly associated with parent–youth conflict (Yu, 2019). Overall, exploring the related literature on youth gender and reported levels of conflict with parents does not alter the previous

assertion that there is limited evidence suggesting girls have higher levels of agreement with parents than boys have.

The general trend toward girls sharing more similar views of parenting with their parents than boys, may be related to gendered socialization. Youth learn gendered behaviors from their environment, particularly people modeling gendered behaviors such as parents and peers (Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Rogers et al., 2021; Skinner & McHale, 2022). In stereotypical gender socialization, women are commonly characterized as communal and kin-keeping whereas men are characterized as agentic and assertive (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). This could mean that girls are socialized to improve perspective-taking and empathizing behaviors (Van der Graaff et al., 2014), so they view their parents' parenting behavior more similarly to the parents themselves. To move beyond the limited evidence regarding youth gender differences in (dis)agreement with parents on parenting, it is important to investigate parent–youth (dis)agreement across individual parenting dimensions because specific patterns of (dis)agreement (e.g., youth report higher than parent report) may have different outcomes for youth depending on the nature of the parenting dimension (i.e., positive parenting or negative parenting; De Los Reyes & Ohannessian, 2016). Thus, an important next step in this line of work is to ascertain whether boys' and girls' (dis)agreement with their parents is similar across positive parenting behaviors such as parental involvement and negative parenting behaviors such as inconsistent discipline and poor parental monitoring/supervision.

Parent Gender

In addition to youth gender, another person characteristic (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) worthy of consideration is parent gender. Given the stereotypical gender socialization patterns described earlier, it could be that mothers tend to agree more with youth reports of

parenting than fathers because of mothers' kinkeeping behaviors, such as showing higher levels of sensitivity toward their children than fathers do (Hallers-Haalboom et al., 2014). Alternatively, mothers could feel more pressure to report positively on their parenting due to feeling more judged than fathers for how they parent (Pew Research Center, 2023). This could put mothers at risk for greater levels of discrepancy with their youth on parenting than father–youth dyads. In terms of empirical evidence, only one study was located that specifically investigated parent gender as a predictor of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. Hou and colleagues (2020) did not find evidence that mothers and fathers were different in their level of agreement with their youth on parenting behaviors, although their estimates were pooled across parenting constructs.

Given the limited available research on parent gender as a predictor of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting, it is again important to draw from a related literature. If mothers and fathers are found to differ in their report of conflict with youth, that might serve as evidence that one gender of parent is likely to have higher levels of disagreement with youth on reports of parenting. One study on gender differences between mothers' and fathers' conflict with their youth found mothers, compared to fathers, reported experiencing a less positive relationship with their youth, a higher number of conflicts with their youth, and more intense discussions with their youth (Wierson et al., 1990). Another study on middle childhood also found mother–child relationships to be more conflictual than father–child relationships (Yan et al., 2019). Although mothers experience more frequent and intense conflicts with their youth, evidence also suggests that the frequency of conflicts between mothers and youth declines faster across adolescence than conflicts between fathers and youth (Laursen et al., 1998). However, another study found no differences between mothers and fathers regarding parent–youth conflict frequency (Sorkhabi,

2010). Overall, no consistent pattern emerges for differences between mothers and fathers for parent–youth conflict and parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting.

An important critique of Hou and colleagues' (2020) findings is that the pooled estimates are representative of parent–youth (dis)agreement across multiple aspects of parenting. In these results, there is no way to determine whether mothers' and fathers' (dis)agreement with their youth is (dis)similar across parenting constructs such as parental acceptance or psychological control. Perhaps significant differences could be found between mothers' and fathers' (dis)agreement with their youth across various parenting behaviors. Bioecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) posits parent gender as an important person characteristic within the parent–youth microsystem, thus, it is worth exploring whether differences would be observed between mothers' and fathers' (dis)agreement with their children's report of parenting across positive parenting behaviors, such as parental involvement and positive parenting, and negative parenting behaviors, such as poor parental monitoring and inconsistent discipline. Given the limited nature of research exploring the differences between mothers and fathers on parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and because no consistent difference between mothers and fathers emerged in the parent–youth conflict literature, no advancement of whether mothers or fathers will (dis)agree more with youth could be made.

Socioeconomic Background and Parent–Youth Perspectives on Parenting

Families' socioeconomic backgrounds can be characterized by multiple features including parental education and economic hardship. Parent education is the most commonly investigated socioeconomic characteristic in work on parent–youth (dis)agreement on reports of parenting. Early evidence found that families where both parents had attained some college education experienced less mother–youth agreement on parental inconsistent discipline than families where

one or both parents had less than a college education (Tein et al., 1994). Contrasting that finding, later evidence suggested parents and youth from families whose parents reported higher levels of education demonstrated more agreement on parental acceptance (Korelitz, 2017). A meta-analysis dichotomized parental education such that a family was considered to have a high socioeconomic status if they had a median parental education level of "some education beyond high school" (Hou et al., 2020; p. 339). Between-class differences of pooled correlation estimates across a range of parenting measures indicated that there were stronger correlations between U.S. parents and adolescents from the high socioeconomic category compared to the low socioeconomic category. When viewed together, the limited evidence suggests that parents and youth from families with higher parental education may be more likely to agree on positive parenting behaviors (e.g., acceptance) but less so on negative parenting behaviors (e.g., inconsistent discipline).

In addition to parent education, economic hardship is another aspect of families' socioeconomic status that has been used in research on parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting. Only one study (Tein et al., 1994) was located that investigated whether economic hardship, characterized as "risk factors" (e.g., parental unemployment, parental incarceration, and parental hospitalization; p. 344), influenced levels of parent–youth agreement on parental acceptance, inconsistent discipline, firm control, and hostile control. They found mothers and children from families with fewer risk factors agreed more on parental acceptance than mothers and children from families with more risk factors. This finding is similar to the evidence from literature using parental education in that parents and youth from families with more resources tend to demonstrate more parent–youth agreement on positive parenting behaviors (e.g., acceptance).

As was the case for previous sections of this literature review, the limited number of empirical studies assessing differences in parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting across socioeconomic backgrounds leads me to draw from related literature on parent–youth conflict. If parent–youth conflict is generally higher in families with fewer economic resources, it stands to reason that parent–youth disagreement on parenting may also be higher for these families. One study, using data from the national Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development study, found parent-reported financial strain was associated with youth-reported family conflict (Aaron & Black, 2025). Another study found parent reports of family economic strain were related to parent reports of parent–child conflict specifically (Wang et al., 2022). Correlational results are mixed as one study indicated family socioeconomic status was negatively correlated with father–youth conflict at Time 1 (when the youth were approximately 12–15 years old) and negatively correlated with mother–youth conflict at Time 4 (when the youth were approximately 19–22 years old; Son et al., 2024), but another found no significant correlation between family socioeconomic status and parent–adolescent conflict (Li et al., 2014). Overall, current evidence indicates that more financial strain is associated with more family/parent–youth conflict. Aaron and Black (2025) suggested "even if youth are not aware of their parents' economic concerns, they are still experiencing hostile or negative interactions between family members that may be exacerbated or even caused by parents' experience of financial strain" (p. 2031). Regarding parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting, this evidence implies that parents and youth are more likely to disagree on parenting due to the hostile family environment that stems from financial strain.

Because the literature on socioeconomic predictors of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting has focused primarily on parent education, it may benefit from investigations using

more nuanced measures of economic experiences, such as economic hardship. Economic hardship has unique associations with the parent–child relationship. For example, recent work studying economic hardship during the COVID-19 pandemic suggests that family economic strain is associated with more parent–child conflict (Wang et al., 2022) and increases in negative parent–child interactions over time (Oftedal et al., 2025). Oftedal and colleagues (2025) also found that for fathers specifically, economic hardship was associated with less parent–child closeness over time. Given that (a) economic hardship is associated with increased parent–youth conflict and (b) parent–youth conflict and parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting are both forms of disagreement, it stands to reason that (c) families experiencing more economic hardship will also experience more parent–youth discrepancies on parenting, though the current study formally tested this. Further, economic hardship may be more useful than parental income because research suggests the relation between increased income and reduced parental stress is almost entirely driven by reductions in material hardship (such as an inability to pay monthly bills, food insecurity, and residential instability; Gershoff et al., 2007). To move this literature forward, the current study investigated whether parent–reported economic hardship is associated with parent–youth disagreement on reports of both positive and negative parenting.

Cultural Values and Parent–Youth Perspectives on Parenting

Parenting is different across cultures because of varying belief systems and geographical constraints (Lansford, 2022). In literature on parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting, studies on cross-cultural differences in parent–youth agreement have primarily analyzed differences across racialized categories. In a meta-analysis, Korelitz and Garber (2016) conceptualized parent–youth agreement on parenting as a correlation (*r*) of mean effect sizes and parent–youth disagreement on parenting as Hedges' *g* where parent sample means were subtracted from youth

sample means. Korelitz and Garber (2016) found a significant racialized category difference regarding father–child agreement on parental acceptance, specifically, average father–child agreement on parental acceptance was lower for the "predominantly African American/Hispanic" group (≥ 80% African American/Hispanic) compared to the "not predominantly African American/Hispanic group." Additionally, average mother–child agreement on parental behavioral control was lower for the "predominantly African American/Hispanic" group compared to the "not predominantly African American/Hispanic group." However, when they investigated between group differences on discrepant reports of parenting, Korelitz and Garber (2016) did not find significant between-class mean-level differences across racialized categories for father–child and mother–child discrepant reports on parental acceptance, behavioral control, and psychological control. According to their analysis, there are differences between racialized categories for parent–youth agreement on parenting, but not for parent–youth disagreement on parenting. This does provide some evidence for differences between racialized categories on specific parenting behaviors (e.g., acceptance and behavioral control). However, these results may not be found in studies that use an analytical approach where parent–youth agreement and disagreement are assessed in the same model.

In a later meta-analysis, Hou and colleagues (2020) also tested for differences in parent–adolescent correlations (calculated as a pooled Pearson correlation estimate) between predominantly White samples and predominantly non-White samples. They found parent–adolescent correlations were stronger for predominantly White samples. Additionally, Hou and colleagues (2020) tested for differences across countries of residence, comparing parents and adolescents from U.S. samples to non-U.S. samples as well as assessing the individualism of each country. They found parents and youth from non-U.S. samples had stronger correlations

between parent and adolescent reports of parenting, and countries with higher levels of individualism had weaker correlations between parent and adolescent reports of parenting than countries with lower levels of individualism (Hou et al., 2020).

A limitation of the studies that attempt to identify the role of cultural context on parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting is that these studies do not include measures of the belief systems (Lansford, 2022) that may drive differences in parent–youth (dis)agreement across racialized categorizations. Varying cultural values, such as familism and individualism, may be a potential reason for cross-cultural differences in parent–youth (dis)agreement. For example, work on Mexican families has found youth's familism values declined from age 12 to age 17, while mothers' and fathers' familism values remained stable during this time (Padilla et al., 2016). Another study found a similar trend in youth reported familism where youth's familism values declined from the 6th to 10th grade. (Kho et al., 2023). Not only does this work indicate that parents and youth may have differing amounts of cultural values, it also indicates that this potential difference may be related to the parent–youth relationship.

Literature on cultural values and parent–youth conflict may prove instructive for the purposes of the present paper. If certain values are associated with higher levels of parent–youth conflict, then those values may also be associated with higher parent–youth (dis)agreement on reports of parenting. One study indicated when youth hold more familism values, they are less likely to experience conflict with their parents (Son et al., 2024). Importantly, when youth familism values were added to the model, Son and colleagues (2024) did not find parent familism values uniquely predicted parent–youth conflict. This research suggests youth who report higher familism values have less conflict with their parents, but parents' reported familism is not consistently related to parent–youth conflict.

Research on parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting and parent–youth conflict suggests when youth hold cultural values centered on more collectivistic behaviors (i.e., familism) they are less likely to disagree/be in conflict with their parents. And, though research on parent–youth conflict did not find evidence that parent reports of cultural values are related to parent–youth conflict, the relation between parent reports of cultural values and parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting has yet to be tested. The current study adds to the literature by including both parent and youth report of family obligation and parent report of independence/self-reliance to investigate whether parent and youth reported cultural values are related to parent–youth (dis)agreement on reports of positive parenting behaviors (e.g., parental involvement and positive parenting) and negative parenting behaviors (e.g., inconsistent discipline and poor parental monitoring).

Current Study

Hou and colleagues' (2020) meta-analytic study is a foundational piece of evidence for work on predictors of parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting. However, it is limited because the estimates were pooled across parenting constructs, so it is indeterminable whether the groups they compared (i.e., fathers/mothers, boys/girls, primarily White/primarily non-White samples) demonstrated more agreement on positive or negative parenting behaviors. Limited work has been done since to explicate these potential differences. The current study helps researchers better understand the predictors of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting by investigating whether specific "person" characteristics (youth and parent gender) and "context" variables (economic hardship and cultural values) predict parent–youth diverging reports of both positive and negative parenting behaviors. The research questions are:

1. Do parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor parental monitoring) differ according to the youth's gender?
2. Do parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor parental monitoring) differ according to the parent's gender?
3. Does parent-reported economic hardship predict parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor parental monitoring)?
4. Does youth-reported family obligation predict parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor parental monitoring)?
5. Does parent-reported family obligation and independence/self-reliance predict parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting (i.e., parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor parental monitoring)?

Given reviewed theory and limited empirical evidence, I anticipate that girls, compared to boys, will report more positively on parenting than their parents, youth from families with more economic hardship will report more negatively on parenting compared to their parents, and youth who report less familism will report more negatively on parenting than their parents. Because this is the first study to investigate these patterns separately across both positive and negative parenting dimensions, no specific expectations are advanced regarding differing patterns for separate parenting dimensions.

Method

Sample

Data for this study is sourced from the Adolescent Brain and Cognitive Development – Social Development Study (ABCD–SD; Release 6.1). This sample is a sub-sample of the larger Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development Study (ABCD). The ABCD–SD was developed to investigate youth behaviors such as delinquency and victimization (National Institute of Justice, 2017). In addition to reports of delinquency and victimization, participants in the sub-study also reported on a variety of variables including reports from parents and youth on parenting behaviors. Thus, the current study, though not investigating delinquency and victimization, used the ABCD–SD for its data on parent and youth reports of parenting. Because the ABCD study did not collect parent and youth reports of family obligation and independence/self-reliance at every wave, we elected to analyze data from Wave 2 of the study, which collected parent and youth reports of family obligation but only parent reports of independence/self-reliance. At Wave 2, 2,107 parents and youth both completed the parenting questionnaire. Thirty-four parent–youth dyads were excluded because either the parent or youth did not complete the family values scale. An additional 118 parent–youth dyads were excluded so the final analytic sample only included parents who identified as the youth's biological mother or biological father. Other custodial figures were excluded from analyses because their gender could not be ascertained. The final analytical sample was 1,955 parent–youth dyads. The sample was 48.4% girls and 51.6% boys. Regarding race, the youth sample was approximately 51.6% White, 25.6% Black, 11.1% Hispanic, 1.7% Asian, and 10.0% identified as "Other." The youth sample was on average 12.00 years old (*SD* = 0.67). The parent sample was on average 41.34 years old (*SD* = 6.76) and

approximately 88.0% identified as the child's biological mother and 12.0% identified as the child's biological father.

Measures

Dependent Variables

To measure parent and youth reports of parenting, I used four subscales from the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991). All response options were "Never," "Almost never," "Sometimes," and "Often." Each subscale is described in the following sections. Cronbach's alphas have previously shown moderate to good consistency for these subscales across parents and youth (Nichols & Tanner-Smith, 2022; Penner et al., 2020). Scores were summed so that higher scores reflected parents and youth reported more of that parenting dimension.

Parent and Youth Reports of Parental Involvement. The 10-item parental involvement subscale assessed behaviors such as playing with the child and volunteering at the child's school. Sample items for parents included "You have a friendly talk with your child," and "You help your child with his/her homework." Youth items were worded for their observations of the same parenting behavior, for example, "You have a friendly talk with your primary caregiver," and "Your primary caregiver helps you with your homework." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .81 for youth and .79 for parents.

Parent and Youth Reports of Positive Parenting. The 6-item positive parenting subscale assessed behaviors such as praising the child and showing physical affection. Sample items for parents included "You let your child know when he/she is doing a good job with something," and "You hug or kiss your child when he/she has done something well." Youth items were worded for their observations of the same parenting behavior, for example, "Your parents

tell you that you are doing a good job," and "Your parents hug or kiss you when you have done something well." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.82 for youth and 0.80 for parents.

Parent and Youth Reports of Inconsistent Discipline. The 6-item inconsistent parental discipline subscale assessed parents' inability to follow through on disciplinary boundaries or being easily talked out of punishment. Sample items for parents include "You threaten to punish your child and then do not actually punish him/her," and "Your child is not punished when he/she has done something wrong." Youth items were worded for their observations of the same parenting behavior, for example, "Your parents threaten to punish you and then do not do it" and "Your parents do not punish you when you have done something wrong." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.63 for youth and 0.71 for parents.

Parent and Youth Reports of Poor Monitoring/Supervision. The 10-item poor parental monitoring/supervision subscale assessed parental lack of awareness of the child's whereabouts and companions. Sample items for parents include "Your child goes out without a set time to be home," and "You get so busy that you forget where your child is and what he/she is doing." Youth items were worded for their observations of the same parenting behavior, for example, "You go out without a set time to be home," and "Your parents get so busy that they forget where you are and what you are doing." The item "Your child is at home without supervision/You are at home without an adult being with you" had low loadings for both youth (.501) and parents (.371) in their individual confirmatory factor analyses. Additionally, before removing this item, Cronbach's alpha for this subscale was 0.73 for youth and 0.64 for parents. After removal, Cronbach's alpha for this subscale remained the same for youth at 0.73 and improved to 0.67 for parents. It seems that this item is ambiguous regarding who is doing the monitoring, whereas the

other items in this subscale ask about the parent's monitoring/knowledge explicitly. Thus, this item was removed from all analyses.

Independent Variables

Youth Gender. Youth sex was collected as part of the demographic questionnaire. There were two response options, either "Male" or "Female."

Parent Gender. Parents were asked about their relation to the youth. Response options were "Child's biological mother," "Child's biological father," "Adoptive parent," "Child's Custodial Parent." For the interest of this study, only parents who identified themselves as the child's biological mother or father were retained for this study.

Economic Hardship. The ABCD study asked parents to report on their economic hardship in the demographic portion of the survey. The 7-item subscale asked parents about whether they experience economic hardships such as running out of food, operating without telephone service because they could not afford it, and eviction for not making rent/mortgage payments. Response options included "No," "Yes," and "Refuse to answer." "Refuse to answer" responses were treated as missing data in statistical analysis. Scores were summed so higher numbers represent parents' reports of experiencing more instances of economic hardship. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.72.

Cultural Values. The ABCD Core Study included an assessment of culture and environment (Zucker et al., 2018). To measure cultural values, parents and youth reported on the Mexican American Cultural Values Scale (MACVS; Knight et al., 2010). Parent reports of two of the MACVS subscales were used in this study, specifically the family obligation subscale and the independence and self-reliance subscale. Youth were not asked the independence and self-reliance subscale items at this wave, so only the youth-reported family obligation subscale was

used. Details and sample items are provided in the two subsections below. Response options for both subscales were “Not at all,” “A little,” “Somewhat,” “Very much,” and “Completely.” Scores were summed so higher numbers represented greater belief in obligations to family and independence/self-reliance.

Family Obligation. The 5-item family obligation subscale asked parents and youth to report the responsibilities they believe family members have toward each other. Example items for parents included “Tell me how much you believe that children should be taught that it is their duty to care for their parents when their parents get old” and “Tell me how much you believe that parents should be willing to make great sacrifices to make sure their children have a better life.” Youth items were worded similarly such as “Children should be taught that it is their duty to care for their parents when their parents get old” and “Parents should be willing to make great sacrifices to make sure their children have a better life.” Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was 0.78 for youth and 0.73 for parents.

Independence and Self-Reliance. The 5-item independence and self-reliance subscale asked parents to report on how independent and self-reliant youth should be from their parents and how independent adults should be generally. Example items for parents included “Tell me how much you believe that people should learn how to take care of themselves and not depend on others” and “Tell me how much you believe that the most important thing parents can teach their children is to be independent from others.” Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was 0.65.

Analysis

Analyses were run using the *lavaan* package (Rosseel et al., 2025) in R (R Core Team, 2025). This package required treating the youth’s gender and parent’s gender as dummy variables, thus, boys and mothers were the referent groups. Analysis took place in three steps.

The first step in the analysis was to test the measurement invariance of the parenting variables used in this study to determine whether the parenting items in each scale were treated similarly by parents and youth. Testing for measurement invariance can help researchers understand whether the discrepancies between parents and youth arise from actual discrepant reports between them or methodological error (De Los Reyes et al., 2013; De Los Reyes and Ohannessian, 2016). Measurement invariance for the Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991) has been partially established across parents and children (Florean et al., 2023). To evaluate model fit, I used the chi-square (χ^2), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Standardized Root Mean-Square Residual (SRMR) and changes in these indices to compare models (for a discussion of criterion of change for each index, see Putnick & Bornstein, 2016).

For the second step of the analysis, I created a latent difference score between parents and youth for each of the parenting subscales (for a detailed description of the latent difference score approach, see Curtis & Stolz, 2025). To accomplish this, I first constructed the latent factors of individual parent and youth reports of parenting from the observed parenting items. Next, I formulated second-order latent difference scores (Δ) factors, created from parents' and youths' respective latent factors of parenting. In the final step, I made the parent–youth latent difference score of parenting by using the following structural model:

$$Y_{discrepancy} = 1*Y_{youth\text{-}rating} + 1* \Delta_{youth,parent}$$

Because the two factor loadings for $Y_{youth\text{-}rating}$ and $\Delta_{youth,parent}$ were constrained to 1, it simulated a subtraction in which $Y_{discrepancy}$ captures the unique differences that were not shared by $Y_{youth\text{-}rating}$ and $\Delta_{youth,parent}$ (de Haan et al., 2018, McArdle, 2009). The directional sign of this score was

interpreted as follows: a positive $Y_{discrepancy}$ meant youth reported higher scores on their parenting than their parents whereas a negative $Y_{discrepancy}$ meant parents reported higher scores on their parenting than their youth (see Figure 1).

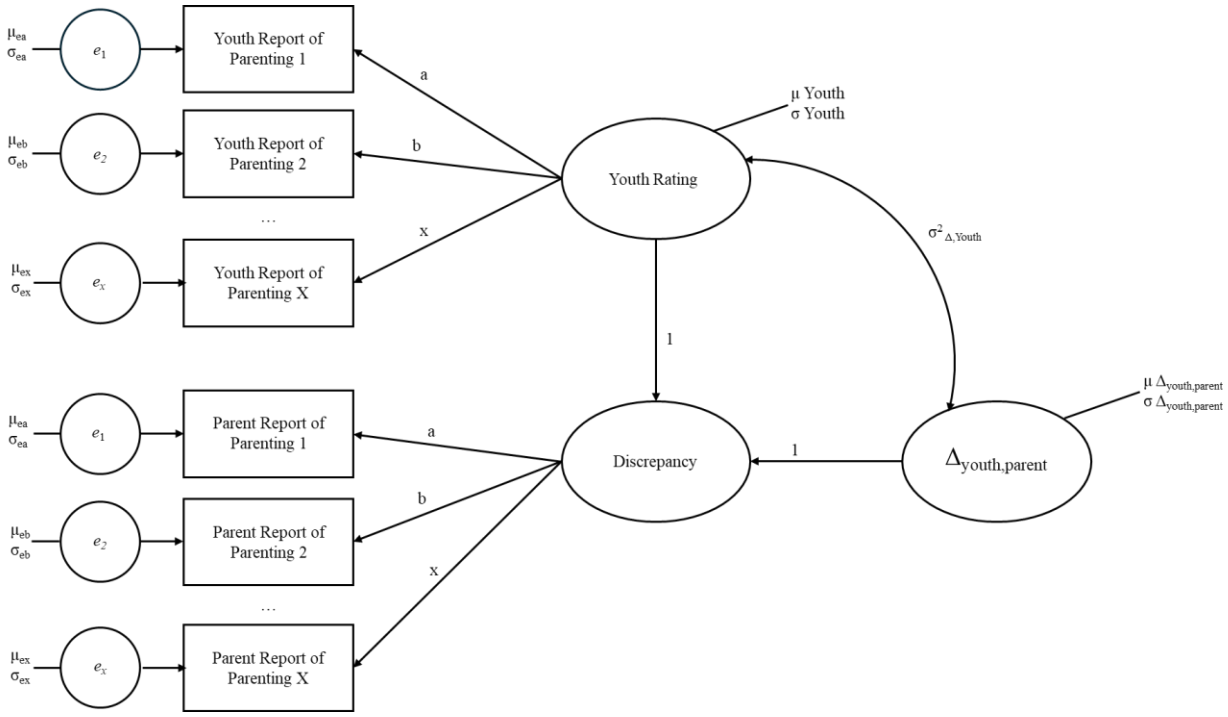


Figure 3.1. Graphical representation of the parent–youth latent difference score of parenting. As derived from de Haan and colleagues (2018).

For the third and final step, four structural equation models were run, one for each parenting variable. In these models, youth gender, parent gender, parent reported economic hardship, and youth (i.e., family obligation) and parent (i.e., family obligation and independence and self-reliance) reported cultural values predicted the parent–youth latent difference score of each parenting variable, specifically, parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision (see Figure 2 for an example model). I allowed correlations between parent and youth reports of family obligation. Models were assessed for goodness-of-fit using the following thresholds: a nonsignificant chi-square difference test, a

Comparative Fit Index (CFI) .95 or above, a Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) .95 or above, and a Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) value of .06 or lower (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

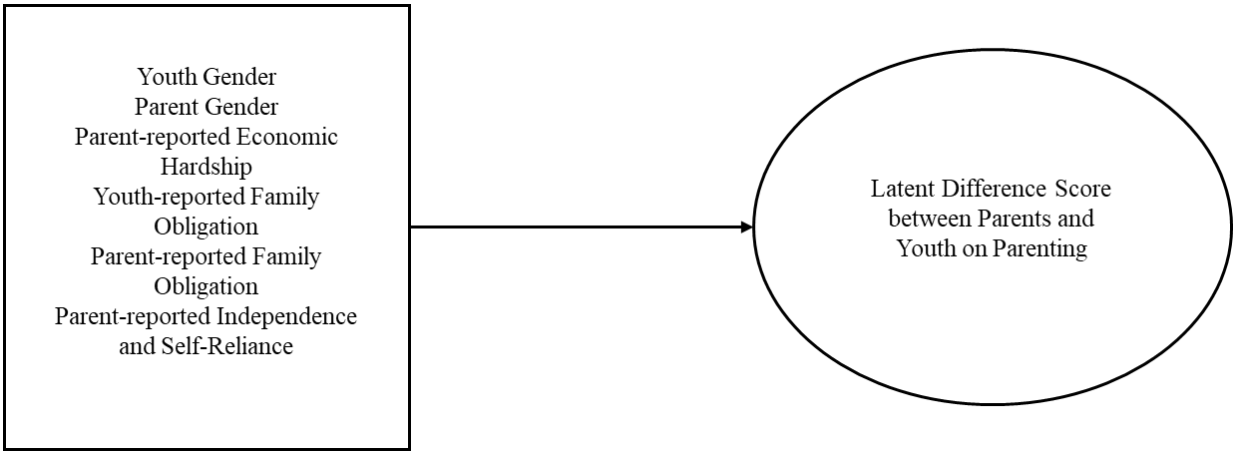


Figure 3.2. Example model for contextual factors predicting the latent difference score for youth and parent report of parenting.

Results

Measurement Invariance

I tested for measurement invariance using a confirmatory factor analysis approach by creating a measurement model for each parenting variable. I tested whether configural invariance, when the measurement model is treated consistently and equivalently across parents and youth, can be established. I also tested for metric invariance, when the factor loadings are treated consistently and equivalently across parents and youth. Finally, I tested for scalar invariance, when the measurement intercepts are treated consistently and equivalently across parents and youth. Results for testing measurement invariance between parents and youth on the four parenting variables (parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision) demonstrated that metric invariance could not be established for any of the parenting variables. Additionally, partial metric invariance could not be established by sequentially releasing each individual loading. Please see Tables 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4 for specific model fit/change in model fit indices.

Predicting Latent Difference Scores

For parental involvement, model fit was poor ($\chi^2(309) = 8991.16$, $p < .001$, CFI = .107; TLI = .078; RMSEA [90% CI] = .120 [.118, .122]), SRMR = 2.778. Results indicated that parent–youth discrepant reports of parental involvement differed by youth gender, but not parent gender. Compared to parent reports, girls overreported parents' involvement more than boys. Additionally, youth who reported higher family obligation values also reported more parental involvement than their parents. Finally, parents who reported higher independence and self-reliance values also reported more parental involvement than their youth (See Figure 3.3).

For positive parenting, model fit was poor ($\chi^2(137) = 7409.07$, $p < .001$, CFI = .129; TLI = .066; RMSEA [90% CI] = .165 [.162, .168]), SRMR = 3.460. Results indicated parent–youth discrepant reports of positive parenting differed by youth gender, but not parent gender. Compared to parent reports, girls overreported parents' positive parenting more than boys. Additionally, youth who reported higher family obligation values also reported more positive parenting than their parents. Finally, parents who reported higher independence and self-reliance values also reported more positive parenting than their youth (See Figure 3.4).

For inconsistent discipline, model fit was poor ($\chi^2(137) = 1718.96$, $p < .001$, CFI = 0.555; TLI = 0.522; RMSEA [90% CI] = .077 [.074, .080]), SRMR = 0.083. Results indicated parent–youth discrepant reports of inconsistent discipline differed by youth gender, but not parent gender. Compared to parent reports, girls underreported parents' inconsistent discipline more than boys. Additionally, parents who reported more economic hardship also reported less inconsistent discipline than their youth (See Figure 3.5).

For poor monitoring/supervision, model fit was poor ($\chi^2(260) = 4123.50$, $p < .001$, CFI = .411; TLI = .389; RMSEA [90% CI] = .087 [.085, .090]), SRMR = 0.158. Results indicated that

parent–youth discrepant reports of poor monitoring/supervision differed by youth gender, but not parent gender. Compared to parent reports, girls underreported parents' poor monitoring/supervision more than boys. Additionally, when parents reported more economic hardship, they also reported less poor monitoring/supervision than their youth. Finally, parents who reported higher independence and self-reliance values also reported less poor monitoring/supervision than their youth (See Figure 3.6).

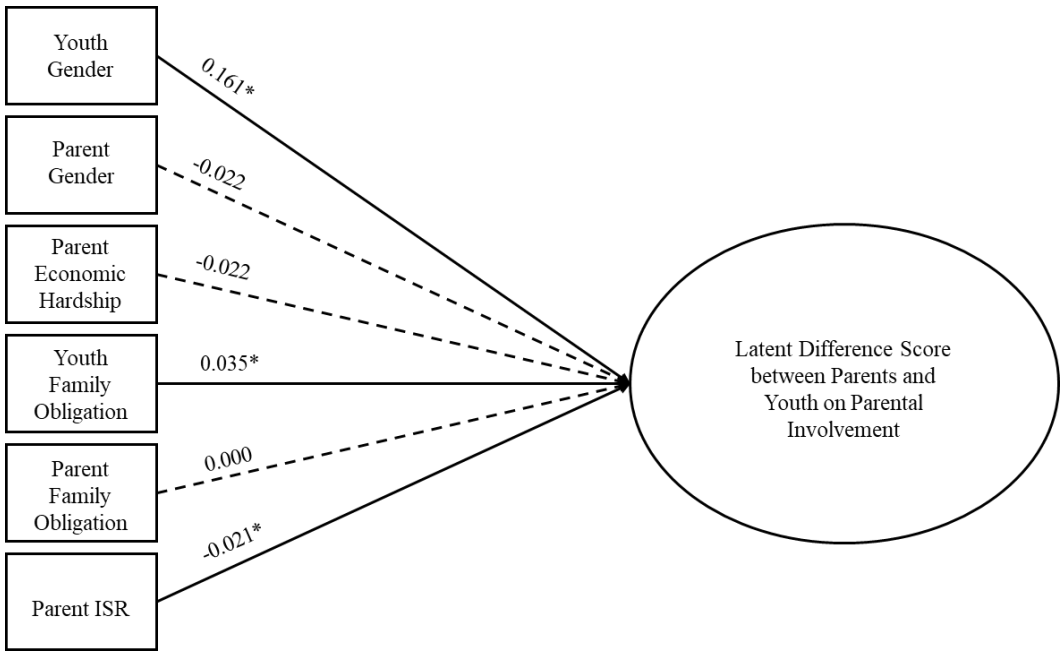


Figure 3.3 Contextual variables predicting the latent difference score for youth and parent reports of parental involvement.
Notes: *$p < .05$; ISR = independence and self-reliance; Positive coefficient = youth report more of the parenting variable than parents, negative coefficient = parents report more of the parenting variable than youth.

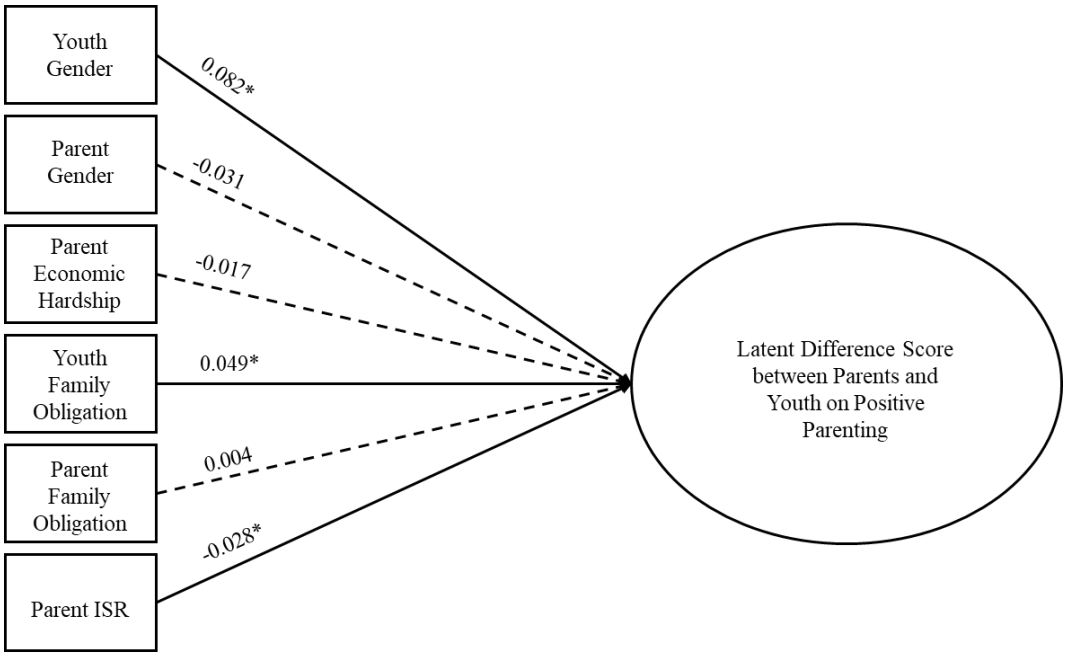


Figure 3.4 Contextual variables predicting the latent difference score for youth and parent reports of positive parenting.
Notes: **p* < .05; ISR = independence and self-reliance; Positive coefficient = youth report more of the parenting variable than parents, negative coefficient = parents report more of the parenting variable than youth.

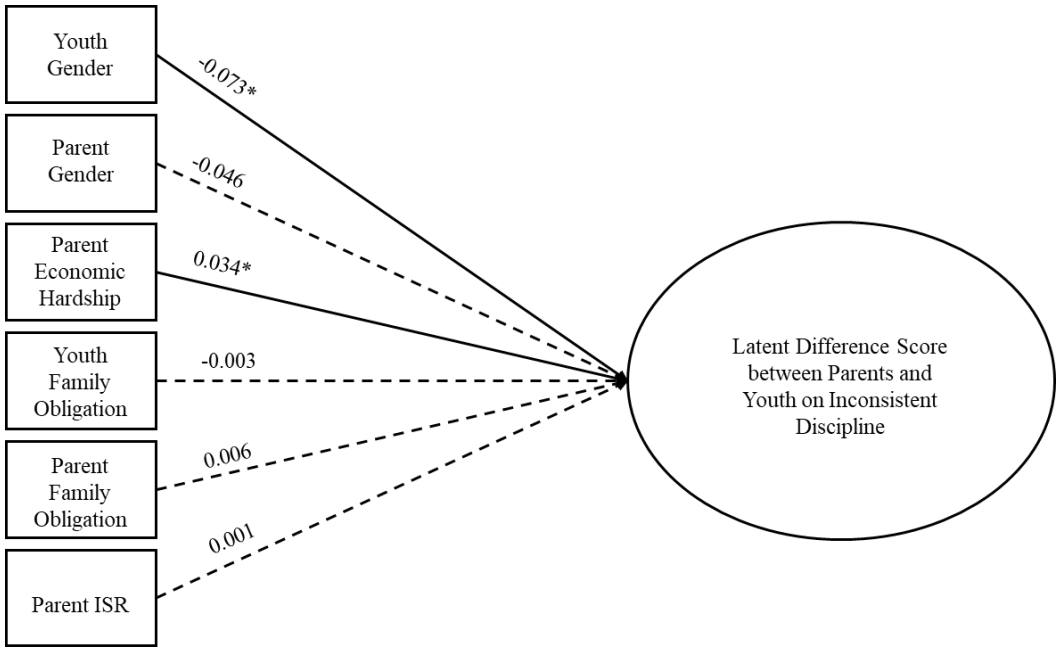


Figure 3.5 Contextual variables predicting the latent difference score for youth and parent reports of inconsistent discipline.
Notes: *$p < .05$; ISR = independence and self-reliance; Positive coefficient = youth report more of the parenting variable than parents, negative coefficient = parents report more of the parenting variable than youth.

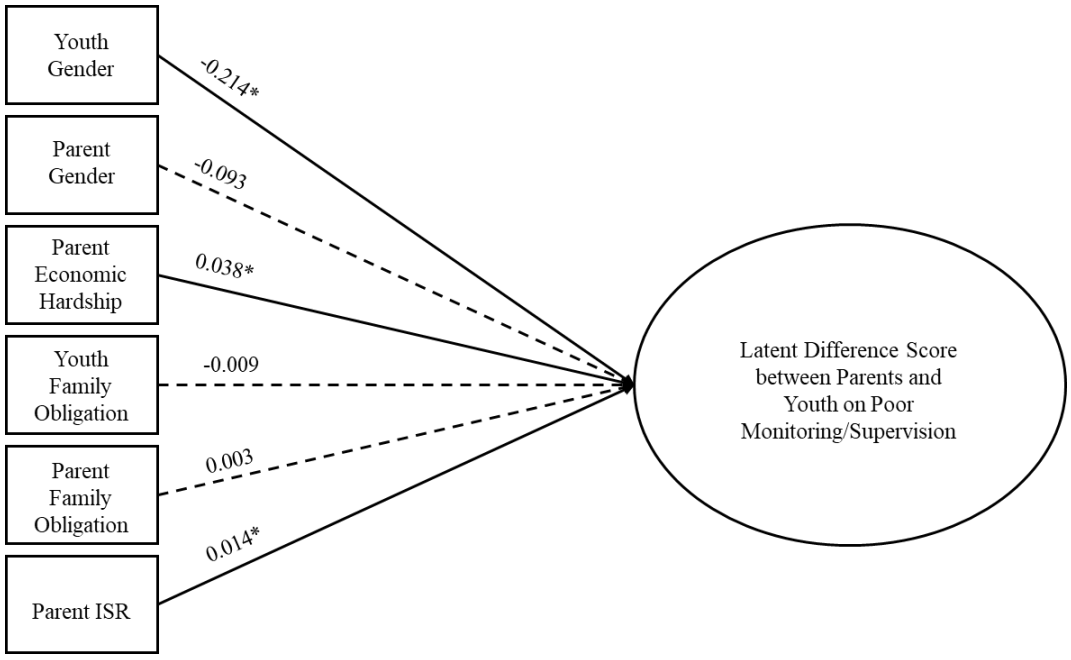


Figure 3.6 Contextual variables predicting the latent difference score for youth and parent reports of poor monitoring/supervision.
Notes: *$p < .05$; ISR = independence and self-reliance; Positive coefficient = youth report more of the parenting variable than parents, negative coefficient = parents report more of the parenting variable than youth.

Discussion

The objective of this study was to explore the association of nuanced contextual variables with parent–youth discrepant reports of both positive and negative dimensions of parenting. This study was framed by the person-process-context-time model of the bioecological theory (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) which suggests that person (i.e., gender) and context (i.e., economics and culture) characteristics within the parent–youth dyad may be related to processes of development, such as parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. The research questions asked whether parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting differed according to youth gender, or parent gender, as well as whether there was an association between parent-reported economic hardship, youth-reported cultural values (family obligation), and parent-reported cultural values

(family obligation and independence/self-reliance) with parent–youth discrepant reports of the four parenting dimensions under consideration.

Measurement Non-Invariance

An issue that arose in this study was measurement non-invariance between parents and youth on all parenting variables, specifically, parental involvement, positive parenting, inconsistent discipline, and poor monitoring/supervision. In order to construct the latent difference score, the loadings and intercepts for the latent factors of parent and youth reports of parenting are required to be constrained to equality. Thus, the models fit poorly because measurement invariance was not established in the first part of the analyses. Though the latent difference score approach has many strengths regarding its flexibility to be utilized as a predictor, moderator, or outcome variable (de Haan et al., 2018), its flexibility is reduced by the measurement invariance requirement. This means that the latent difference score approach can only investigate a specific kind of discrepancy between parents and youth—one in which parents and youth interpret specific items (i.e., individual parenting behaviors) comprising the scale as similarly relevant to the overall construct but disagree on the level or amount of the parenting variable evidenced by the parent.

Another type of "discrepancy" that may exist between parents' and youths' perspectives of parenting is that they may not interpret those individual items (i.e., specific parenting behaviors) as similarly relevant or important to the overall parenting dimension. For example, the parent item "You reward or give something extra to your child for obeying you or behaving well (youth item, "Your parents reward or give something extra to you for behaving well") was more important to youth's conception of positive parenting than it was for parents in this sample. Statistically, the differences in factor loadings and intercepts that would result from those

differing perspectives represent a kind of discrepancy between parents' and youths' perspectives that the latent difference score approach cannot investigate. Indeed, by requiring measurement invariance, this approach may discard the very domain-relevant variance discrepancy researchers are trying to explore in the first place (De Los Reyes et al., 2022). Work on parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting may benefit from more qualitative studies to help researchers understand how parents and youth interpret parenting behaviors differently and thus develop reliable scales that demonstrate measurement invariance.

Youth and Parent Gender

Results from this study confirmed that parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting do differ as a function of youth gender. Specifically, compared to parent reports, girls overreported parental involvement and positive parenting more than boys and girls underreported inconsistent discipline and poor monitoring/supervision more than boys. These findings present an interesting nuance to Hou and colleagues' (2020) meta-analytic finding that girls' reports of parenting correlate higher with parent reports than boys' reports of parenting. Where Hou and colleagues (2020) pooled their results across parenting dimensions, these results showed that girls were discrepant from parents in ways that reflected more favorably on the parent. Girls reported more positive dimensions of parenting than their parents and less negative dimensions of parenting than their parent compared to boys' reports. Because girls are socialized to have better perspective-taking skills (Van der Graaff) and engage in more kin-keeping behaviors (Eagly & Steffen, 1984) than boys, the "person" characteristic (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) of youth gender influences parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting for every parenting dimension such that girls are likely to report more positively on their parents' parenting than parents themselves. Given that current evidence supports a gendered effect in parent–youth discrepant

reports of parenting, more work is needed to investigate whether this relation holds for more dimensions of parenting and formally test why girls tend to report more favorably on parents parenting.

In contrast to youth gender, parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting did not differ between mothers and fathers for any parenting variable. It may be that there is no true difference between mothers and fathers in discrepancies with their youth on parenting, as the one other reviewed study investigating parent gender and parent–youth discrepancies found (Hou et al., 2020). It is also possible that a gendered relation was hard to detect due to the small cell size of fathers compared to mothers in this study. The field will benefit from more work that delves into whether and how discrepancies function differently for fathers compared to mothers.

Economic Hardship

Economic hardship was associated with parent–youth discrepant reports of negative dimensions of parenting; parents who reported experiencing more economic hardship also reported less inconsistent discipline and less poor monitoring/supervision than their youth. It is notable that economic hardship was only related to negative parenting dimensions as these results contrast Tein and colleagues' (1994) finding that mothers and children agreed more on a positive parenting dimension, parental acceptance, when their family experienced fewer risk factors (described as parental unemployment, incarceration, or hospitalization). However, my results are consistent with more recent work which suggests that economic hardship relates to more parent–youth conflict (Aaron & Black, 2025; Wang et al., 2022) and more negative interactions between parents and youth (Oftedal et al., 2025). In the present study, economic hardship was characterized as a "context" variable (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) related to the family's microsystem. In this bioecological lens, it seems that economic hardship may alter

the process of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting through creating a more hostile family environment (Aaron & Black, 2025). It may be that parents are stressed by their economic hardship and thus engage in more inconsistent discipline and poor monitoring/supervision but desire to underreport negative parenting behaviors so as to believe that their families are doing well despite the economic hardship. It may also be that parents do engage in more inconsistent discipline and poor monitoring/supervision because of their economic stress but do not notice a difference in their parenting, so their youth report experiencing more inconsistent discipline and poor monitoring/supervision than the parent reports.

Cultural Values

Youth's cultural values were associated with parent–youth discrepant reports of positive parenting dimensions. Specifically, youth with stronger family obligation more reported more parental involvement and positive parenting than their parents. These findings are consistent with Son and colleagues' (2024) study where youth who valued familism more were less likely to experience conflict with their parents. In this study, cultural values were treated as a "context" variable from the macrosystem (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) since these values are instilled in youth from broader cultural forces. It seems that youth in this study who reported higher family obligation may see parental involvement and positive parenting as key ingredients of a parent's obligation to their children. Thus, youth who more strongly endorse family obligation are more likely to report higher on positive parenting dimensions. It may also be that youth who value family obligation ascribe to more collectivist values, and thus focus more on how family members contribute to the well-being of other family members. So, when their parents are involved and positive, these behaviors may be more notable for youth who value family

obligation than for youth who do not similarly value family obligation or who have a more individualistic mindset.

Interestingly, Son and colleagues (2024) found that parent reports of familism did not significantly predict parent–youth conflict once youth report of familism was added to their models. The current study similarly demonstrated that parents' reports of family obligation were not significantly related to parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting, though it should be noted parent and youth reports of cultural values were not iteratively added. The current study may indicate that parents will report similarly on their parenting whether they have a more collectivistic or individualistic cultural orientation. Most parents may feel strongly obligated to their child's well-being, so the more relevant question may be how obligated children feel toward their parents/other family members.

Parents' cultural values were associated with parent–youth discrepant reports of both positive and negative dimensions of parenting. Parents who reported higher independence and self-reliance values also reported more parental involvement, more positive parenting, and less poor monitoring/supervision than their youth. Parent's independence and self-reliance was characterized as a "context" variable from the macrosystem (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) because parents likely derive these values from their broader culture and then these values influence their parenting. It is interesting that parents who hold higher independence and self-reliance values also reported higher involvement than their youth. Perhaps these parents conceptualize their involvement as scaffolding the child's experiences, teaching their child the skills that child will need to navigate various situations (Suleiman & Dahl, 2019). For example, a parent may teach a child how to resolve conflict with a teacher rather than talking to the teacher on the child's behalf and consider themselves involved with their child's schooling. However,

because this form of involvement is not as direct, such as talking to a teacher for the child, it may not be as noticeable to youth, hence parents report more involvement than their youth. Additionally, parents who hold higher independence and self-reliance values also reported higher positive parenting than their youth. This association may indicate that these parents offer high autonomy support and high warmth for their youth's optimal development (Bülow et al., 2022). Though some parents in this study may be offering high autonomy support and high positive parenting, the youth of these parents reported less positive parenting than their parent, perhaps because the youth needs more reassurance they are doing well for the high amount of independence and self-reliance they are being granted.

Regarding poor monitoring/supervision, parents who reported higher independence and self-reliance values reported less poor monitoring/supervision than their youth. In other words, they reported better monitoring and supervision practices than their youth did. One possible explanation is that these parents may find their actually limited monitoring efforts to be fully sufficient. As such, they may over-report their monitoring (i.e., reporting *less* "poor monitoring"). Regardless of whether parents over-report their positive monitoring (i.e., under-report their poor monitoring), their youth may see the level of monitoring they are receiving as less than adequate if they do not also embrace the same self-reliance standards and values. Indeed, if youth do not think their parent compares well to a "good parent," they may think their parent needs to monitor more (Cottrell et al., 2015). Thus, youth may over-report poor monitoring due to the perceived inadequacy of the monitoring received.

Positive vs. Negative Dimensions of Parenting

By directly measuring the positive and negative dimensions of parenting, this study found fascinating associations between the predictor variables and the outcome of parent–youth

discrepant reports of parenting. For example, utilizing both positive and negative dimensions of parenting helped us determine that girls reported higher on positive dimensions of parenting and lower on negative dimensions than their parents (as compared to boys). Further, economic hardship was associated with only parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting on negative dimensions. This contrasts previous evidence that suggests parents' economic stress is related to their positive parenting (Ponnet et al., 2016). These contrasting findings may indicate that when parents are the only reporters on their parenting, economic hardship impacts all their parenting behaviors. But when youth reports of parenting are included, youth only notice a significant change in the negative parenting behaviors. Additionally, youth's stronger family obligation values were associated with only positive dimensions of parenting. Where we know there are differences across cultures in parent's parenting (Lansford, 2022), this study may point to differences in youths' perceptions of parenting across cultures. And finally, parents' endorsement of independence and self-reliance was related to both positive and negative dimensions of parenting. Interestingly, the parental involvement, positive parenting, and poor monitoring/supervision items used quantity-based measurements to assess how much of the parenting behavior occurs as reported by parents and youth. The items used to measure inconsistent discipline assess the extent of parents (non)commitment to discipline practices, rather the amount of discipline. Perhaps parents' endorsement of independence and self-reliance has stronger associations with more quantifiable parenting behaviors. These findings support the value of directly measuring the negative aspects of parenting rather than assuming less of a positively measured parenting dimension will properly capture the potential variance of parenting behaviors.

Limitations

This study's results should be interpreted with limitations in mind. First, this study used cross-sectional data, specifically Wave 2 of the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development Study (Release 6.1). Though cross-sectional data typically warrants a limitation regarding the direction of effects, this may not be as applicable to this study. Regarding parent and youth gender, the direction of effect is already determined. Regarding economic hardship and cultural values, research and theory strongly suggest that these predict parents' and youths' reports of parenting, not the other way around. Also, regarding the nature of the study's cross-sectional data, some of the Social Development Sub-Study visits occurred on a different schedule for some youth whereas for others their sub-study visits coincided with their general ABCD visits. This inconsistent timing may be an additional limitation related to the cross-sectional results. Second, measurement invariance could not be established between parent and youth reports of parenting. A fruitful direction for researchers could be to utilize qualitative methods to understand potential underlying discrepancies between how parents and youth conceive of parenting. Finally, there were two low reliability estimates for youth reports of inconsistent discipline and parent reports of poor monitoring/supervision. This could be related to issues brought up in measurement non-invariance, further illustrating that some items do not reliably capture parent and youth conceptions of parenting.

Conclusion

The goal of this study was to investigate characteristics and contexts that predict parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. This work contributes to the literature because it directly tested whether parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting differed for youth gender and parent gender, and explored the association between parent reported economic hardship, youth cultural

values, and parent cultural values and parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. The results of this study provide a more tangible base for future researchers to work from. Further, the study's utilization of both positive and negative dimensions of parenting offered deeper insight into the relation between contextual variables and parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. Future researchers will be able to use this study as a starting point for their own investigations of the contextual predictors of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting. Finally, and hopefully, this study can contribute to future family interventions by helping clinicians understand the situations in which parents and youth may differ in their perspectives of family processes.

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CONCLUSION

The first chapter of this dissertation detailed the history, theories, and methods researchers seeking to study parent and youth discrepant reports of parenting can use to answer their questions. Additionally, this chapter details common patterns of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and how these patterns are associated with youth outcomes. I wrote this chapter to build the foundation for the empirical investigations of this project. It is my hope that this chapter can serve as a guide for other scholars seeking to investigate parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting by helping them understand the theory and methods that have been used in this field.

To move beyond current evidence, the second chapter of this dissertation empirically tested value of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and how patterns of parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting relate to youth anxiety. This investigation indicated that a multi-informant approach is optimal for studying parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and youth anxiety. Further, distinct patterns of parent–youth (dis)agreement were found for both positive and negative dimensions of parenting though their contributions to youth anxiety were small. More work is needed to understand how parent–youth (dis)agreement on parenting is related to other youth outcomes and the mechanisms that drive the associations between parent–youth (dis)agreement and youth outcomes.

The final chapter of this dissertation completed the project by investigating the characteristics and contexts that predict parent–youth discrepant reports of both positive and negative parenting. The findings suggested that parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting differed according to youth gender, but not parent gender. Additionally, economic hardship, youth cultural values, and parent cultural values associated with parent–youth discrepant reports

of parenting. Overall, the dissertation contributes to the literature by indicating the characteristics and contexts that may make parents and youth more prone to discrepant reports of parenting and how parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting relate to youth anxiety.

VITA

Shailey Curtis received both a bachelor's and master's degree from Utah State University's Human Development and Family Studies program. It was during Shailey's undergraduate education that they found an interest in researching adolescence and during their master's degree that they began focusing on the parent–adolescent relationship. Shailey chose to attend the University of Tennessee, Knoxville to earn a doctorate in the Human Development and Family Science program. While attending UTK, Shailey has developed expertise in parent–youth discrepant reports of parenting and quantitative methods.