2021

Influence of Parenting Style on Frequency of Alcohol Consumption by Jewish Male and Female Emerging Adults

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Walden University
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Abstract

Influence of Parenting Style on Frequency of Alcohol Consumption by Jewish Male and Female Emerging Adults

by

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MS, Touro University, 2008

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Clinical Psychology

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Abstract

The health hazards associated with young adults' frequency of alcohol consumption have been well documented. It has been shown that 40.1% of emerging adults have been involved in binge drinking (i.e., consumption of more than five drinks in a row). The current prevalence rates of alcohol use among young male and female adults are 19% and 26%, respectively. The purpose of the study was to examine the influence of perceived parenting style (i.e., permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) on the self-reported frequency of alcohol consumption of 138 U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. The quantitative study drew on the attachment theory, social learning theory, and the parenting styles model as the theoretical framework to answer the three research questions. Data were analyzed using multiple regression. Results indicated that no individual parenting style was a significant predictor of frequency of alcohol consumption. Similarly, no significant relationship was found among parenting style, grade point average, or frequency of alcohol consumption. Results confirmed a significant relationship between gender and frequency of alcohol consumption, with Jewish male college-age students exhibiting greater alcohol use than females. The positive social change implications are that increased awareness of the adverse effects of alcohol may help youth to moderate their intake of alcohol and help parents to make informed decisions that can lead to more psychosocial and physical wellness of their children.

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Dedication

My parents, Mr. Jehuda and Eva Gross, thank you for always supporting me, standing by my side through life's hurdles, and helping me unconditionally as I took some of the most difficult steps forward. You were always available to me and will forever have a special place in my heart. Thank you for being part of this lifetime achievement. After completing a study about parenting practices, I'm genuinely proud to tell everyone that you are my parents. As the children of Holocaust survivors, your values, integrity, and love for all whom come into contact with you will always remain an iconic example toward my future personal and professional interactions.

To my sister, Leah Sprei; my nieces, Rifky Sprei and Beila Sprei, and my nephews, Moshe and Zevi Sprei, thank you for all of the encouragement that made this milestone possible.

I thank my wife, Machly, for being my shoulder to lean on, my advocate, my most precious asset, my outstanding equal, and for never giving up on me as I worked to complete this dissertation process. Thank you for taking a more active role in raising our children. You're amazing at everything that you do, and I will always love you from the bottom of my heart.

To my children, Zevi (William), Dovid (David), Shlome Zalman (Solomon), and Yehoshua (Joshua), thank you all for providing me with the encouragement that I needed to succeed. The special place that you all have in my heart cannot be expressed in words. My love for my family has kept my passion alive to complete this study. This love has carried me through the challenge of writing this dissertation. Waking up to all of you is

like a breath of fresh air every morning. Thank you all for just being who you are. I look forward to seeing what all of you will become as you mature into young adults who will be capable of anything and everything.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge my committee chair, Dr. Michael Plasay, who helped to steer me through all of the turbulent times during the dissertation process. He served as my personal advocate, psychologist, and even best friend. I could have not completed this journey without such a devoted mentor par excellence. Dr. Plasay will forever remain a shining example of academic excellence. Thank you.

Dr. Richard Thompson, my methods committee member, is a true expert in his field. Dr. Thompson did everything in his power to see that my dissertation made it over the finish line. I will remain forever grateful. Thank you for all that you do. I was truly lucky to have you on my committee.

Mrs. Barb Elwert was my dissertation editor. In this case, a company name (Grade A Editing) says it all. Barb is a true expert in her field, a true friend, and a great listener, and she tries to go above and beyond in all of her interactions with clients. Grade A Editing isn't just an editing service: It's a noteworthy experience. Thank you.

Although Reb Yisroel Plutchok, dean of Yeshiva Derech Chaim Rabbinical College, is no longer with us, Reb Yisroel's endearing ambience and warmth represented a unique atmosphere felt far beyond the walls of this extraordinary institution. Reb Yisroel will be remembered as a shining example for pioneering a place where student diversity is molded to diamond markers. His exemplary, intuitive approach modeled a way of life that will always remain in everyone's heart. It was a true honor to be your student. Thank you.

I owe Reb Moshe Levy, faculty member of Yeshiva Derech Chaim Rabbinical College, a debt of gratitude for always being a part of every significant milestone in my personal and professional endeavors. Thank you for being my personal mentor for as long as I have known you. The positive vision and encouragement embedded in everything that you do helped me to cross the finish line of this lifetime achievement.

My completion of this academic milestone would have not been possible without any of you. May Hashem grant all of us a healthy and prosperous future.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Alcohol use among emerging young adults has been acknowledged as a significant family and societal problem (Cleveland et al., 2012). Professionals in multiple health care fields have warned that alcohol use among emerging adults can lead to detrimental drinking patterns, negative influences on families, and significant costs to society (Turrisi et al., 2013). The National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse (CASA, as cited in McKay, Sumnall, et al., 2011) reported that the costs of emerging adults' consumption of alcohol to society have been estimated at $68 billion annually. These economic costs are in addition to the tragic toll that emerging adults' consumption of alcohol can exact that can extend into adulthood. For example, young adults who drink are more likely to drink excessively when they are older adults, which can lead to significant mental and physical health problems (Turrisi et al., 2013). Therefore, it was important to understand how to reduce the frequency of young adults' consumption of alcohol, which Windle (2003) reported as being 40.1%.

This study focused on the Jewish community because of the false belief that Jews cannot be affected by alcohol consumption. I addressed the gap to raise awareness of the increasing number of addictions in the Jewish community. The results of this study may help to determine if a majority of Jewish youth are influenced by alcoholism (Levinson et al., 2017). Lack of knowledge of the facts could lead to negative effects such as alcohol-related health complications and other behavioral changes that also could affect other individuals around them. Previous scant research has shown that approximately 20% of Jews have family histories of alcohol addiction (Baruch et al., 2015). Some of the

detrimental effects include poor academic performance, poor social life, a rise in the number of social crimes, and reduced economic productivity. This study may lead to the betterment of the Jewish community and society at large because the adverse effects of alcoholism may now be avoided.

Presented in this chapter is preliminary information about different parenting styles, the consumption of alcohol by young emerging adults, and the role of alcohol in the Jewish community, along with an overview of social groups in general, Jewish groups in particular, and the impact of alcohol consumption on them. The statement of the problem is followed by details about the purpose of the study, the theoretical framework, and the research questions and hypotheses. Descriptions of the study variables; nature of the study; assumptions, scope, delimitations, and limitations; and definitions of key terms are followed by a discussion of the significance of the study and its organization. A summary concludes Chapter 1.

Background: Alcohol Abuse Among Young Jewish Adults

Frequency of alcohol consumption coinciding with the onset of early young adulthood can lead to serious potential health consequences, the start of detrimental drinking patterns, negative influences on families, and costs to society (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2017; Hanees, 2012). Alcohol use among young adults is a significant family and societal problem (CDC, 2017; May Sudhinaraset, 2017). The frequency of drinking among young adults has been increasing, and it has had a significant social influence on families with poor communication (Pettigrew et al., 2017). Professionals in multiple health care fields have warned that alcohol use among young

adult can lead to detrimental drinking patterns, negative influences on families, and significant costs to society (Yang & Schaninger, 2010).

CASA (as cited in McKay, Cole, & Sumnall, 2011) estimated the costs of young adults' alcohol use to society at $68 billion annually, and these economic costs did not even account for the human costs involved. The current percentages of 19% of emerging male and 26% of female adults who drink are in the age bracket of 19 to 27 years, and these individuals are more likely to drink excessively when they are adults, subsequently leading to significant mental and physical health problems (Levinson et al., 2017; Yang & Schaninger, 2010). Recent research on substance use among Jews (Levinson et al., 2017) has indicated that the majority of members of the Jewish community knows someone or people who are addicted to alcohol. More than 20% of Jewish people have a history of alcohol addiction in their families (Bar et al., 2014; Levinson et al., 2017).

Members of the Jewish community start to give their children wine at an early age during ceremonies. For instance, babies are given a drop of wine when they are as young as 8 days old during the child-naming ceremony known as bris. Therefore, consuming wine is considered an ordinary activity among Jews: The children grow up consuming alcohol, and the trend continues into adulthood. I found it important to understand how to reduce the frequency of alcohol consumption among young adults (National Health Institute, 2017). Levinson et al. (2017) asserted that the frequency of alcohol and drug use in the Jewish community has increased significantly to 45% for both male and female individuals (Bar et al., 2014). I conducted this study to address perceived parenting styles as a predictor of frequency of alcohol consumption and grade point average (GPA)

among Jewish male and female students in the United States ages 19 to 27 years with a minimum of 1 year of attendance at college or university.

Parents play a significant role in the development of their children, so I examined the relationship between different parenting styles and the frequency of alcohol consumption among young U.S. Jewish male and female emerging adults between the ages of 19 and 27 years. Baumrind (1991) identified parenting style as a dominant factor in deciding children's behaviors. There are three primary parenting styles: permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible (Uji et al., 2014). Although parents can use all the types of parenting methods during their children's developmental years, one overall parenting style usually is consistent throughout the different stages of childhood (Uji et al., 2014).

One parenting style that has positively influenced reduced alcohol consumption among college-age adults is the authoritative/flexible style, which also has been a successful mediator of impulse control (Mößle et al., 2017; Whitney & Froiland, 2015). Baumrind (2005) found authoritative/flexible parents to be highly demanding in age-appropriate, reasonable, and responsive ways; hence, this style of parenting has demonstrated success in safeguarding children from the frequency of alcohol consumption. Children of parents who follow an authoritative/flexible style also have demonstrated better self-efficacy in terms of academic achievement.

Though children whose parents are authoritative/flexible are the least unstable and the most adept, children with parents having a significantly imbalanced demanding-responsive ratio are not nearly equally well adjusted and adept in terms of risky drinking

behavior in college (Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2006). In particular, by adhering to an authoritative/flexible style, parents can mediate the frequency of alcohol consumption of their emerging adult children (Bahr & Hoffmann, 2010). Even in late adolescence, authoritative/flexible parental involvement in accordance with alcohol use education and support yield young adults making well-adjusted peer friends who have positive attributes in college, which can lead to preventative measures regarding frequency of alcohol consumption (C. Abar & Turrisi, 2008). Similarly, successful parental monitoring allows emerging young adults to choose friends who do not abuse alcohol. In these cases, parents serve as good mentors in helping their children to develop healthy coping strategies to become productive members of society. By contrast, high parental monitoring, such as that in the authoritarian parenting style, is considered less nurturing, less realistic, and less reasonable. Hence, the authoritarian parenting style yields a higher frequency of alcohol consumption by emerging young adults than the authoritative/flexible parenting style does, despite allowing age-appropriate autonomy and decision making in some areas (C. Abar & Turrisi, 2008).

Parenting styles also influence the degree and frequency of alcohol consumption by their children (Mößle et al., 2017; Pellerone et al., 2017). In particular, researchers have found a clear association between parental monitoring and reduced drinking among young adults (Mößle et al., 2017; Pellerone at al., 2017). Young adults acquire most of these drinking behaviors from peer pressure, from friends, or from family members. For example, Goncy and van Dulman (2010) asserted that several parental factors are related to alcohol use, alcohol-related problems, and co-occurring risky behaviors. Parental

support and higher levels of parental involvement have been shown to reduce young adults' problem behaviors, including alcohol use (Goncy & van Dulman, 2010). Indeed, parenting style and young adults' attitudes, knowledge, and behavior with respect to alcohol consumption are strong factors of certain behaviors in society (Ballantine, 2001). These findings hold true across ethnicities and gender, and higher levels of parental support and involvement have been associated consistently with less frequent alcohol consumption by young adults (Ballantine, 2001). Researchers have found the levels of competency among young adults and adults consistent, thus making it a successful predictor of parenting styles, where parenting styles can temper the impacts of (perceived) parenting practices, excluding abuse (Mößle et al., 2017; Pellerone at al., 2017).

The variables that represent the demandingness factor prove more beneficial when implanted in authoritative/flexible structures (Baumrind, 2005). Contrary to authoritarian structures, the authoritative/flexible structure combines firm supervision and control on behavior with support of individuals' self-sufficiency and affection. Likewise, high responsiveness levels positively influence young adults when combined with high levels of demandingness in authoritative/flexible systems, but not when combined with low levels of demandingness in tolerant settings.

Earlier outcomes, such as the outcomes found by Baumrind (2005), have indicated a positive relationship between young people's autonomy and authoritative/flexible parenting. Notwithstanding this research, there remains a gap in the body of knowledge concerning the effects of different parenting styles on the frequency

of alcohol consumption by young college-age adults in the Jewish community. The number of Jewish male and female emerging adults consuming alcohol has been on the rise steadily, with the current rate being at 45% for both sexes (Bar et al., 2014).

Alcohol consumption has been associated with numerous harmful effects. Individuals can get into deadly accidents while operating machinery under the influence of alcohol (Bar et al., 2014). Alcoholic drivers can kill pedestrians and motorists, and women with a history of substance abuse can give birth to children with health complications. Other health and social problems related to substance abuse include being unable to maintain employment or focus on studies and experiencing hallucinations, loss of family, stroke, and depression, among others (Bar et al., 2014). For many years, the Jewish community has been in denial regarding alcoholism.

Even though Jews promote drinking at ceremonies, they have never condoned getting drunk. Jews have always considered alcoholism an illness, and the general view has been that Jews cannot be alcoholics; however, over the years, many researchers have conducted studies in this area and have documented their findings. The result is that there have been few studies on the frequency of alcohol consumption among U.S. Jewish college students and the factors influencing this behavior. Few studies have focused on the relationship between parenting styles and the frequency of alcohol consumption among Jews. The various factors surrounding alcohol abuse among members of the Jewish community have not yet been studied to totality, partly because of the false belief that this problem is not prevalent in the Jewish community (Bahr & Hoffmann, 2010). I sought to correct this belief by addressing the reality that members of the Jewish

community do not discourage the drinking of alcohol among children, including the drinking of alcohol among emerging adults ages 19 to 27 years.

Emerging young adult college students between the ages of 19 and 27 years who identified as American Jews in were the subject of a study by Bahr and Hoffman (2010). In spite of normative alcohol present in the Jewish culture, Bahr and Hoffman found lower rates of alcoholism and alcohol abuse among the studied group. However, since 2005, there has been a measured increase in the frequency of alcohol consumption among adolescent Jews (Levinson et al., 2017). During the early phase of young adulthood, pressure and the desire to act as independent individuals are overwhelming. At times, this overwhelming pressure may result in the frequency of alcohol consumption (Bahr & Hoffman, 2010), which is why I found it critical to study this segment of the population.

According to Loewenthal (2014), 32% of college students are heavy drinkers. On a single occasion, these students can consume five or more drinks. Students who drink to cope with stress are more likely than students who drink for other reasons to depend on alcohol (Loewenthal, 2014). College students go through a lot of stress: the pressure to fit in, the pressure to perform well academically, and so on. Therefore, some of them turn to alcohol to help them to cope with these pressures. This sizeable population was worthy of study because of their increased risk of alcohol abuse (Loewenthal, 2014).

Alcohol is deeply rooted in the Jewish culture, and many rituals are associated with drinking wine (Loewenthal, 2014). As discussed in Chapter 2, one Jewish ritual that involves drinking wine is circumcision (bris). Loewenthal (2014) asserted that alcohol consumption for various religious reasons, including festivals and sanctification of the

Sabbath, is an inherent practice in the Jewish culture. The traditional male circumcision ceremony among Jews requires all attendees to consume wine as symbol of unity to the Jewish covenant (Loewenthal, 2014). In addition, Jews also perform at least three festivals involving wine during the Sabbath festival, which lasts from Friday evening to Saturday evening (Loewenthal, 2014). Similarly, Jews also take wine when making a special prayer called Kiddush (Loewenthal, 2014).

Although there is a certain minimum age requirement for young people to attend rituals, they are still exposed to the drinking behavior supported by their parents. A Jewish male infant first tastes alcohol when he is 8 days old during bris (Fogel, 2005). During the ceremony, the father blesses the sweet wine, drinks some of the wine, and then uses his finger to drop some wine into the baby's mouth.

Officially, parents give their children alcohol when they reach the age of 5 years (Fogel, 2005). This happens mostly during the Sabbath meal enjoyed on Friday evenings. However, parents determine this age, so children start consuming wine at different periods. On the other hand, Jewish social groups also are a predictor of the frequency of alcohol consumption among emerging young adults (Loewenthal, 2014). In essence, Jewish social groups have a key goal to preserve the Jewish culture. From a religious perspective, the Jewish religion introduces alcohol to individuals at a tender age. Therefore, because of the misconception that what individuals consume defines who they are, some young adults may want to preserve their culture by consuming alcohol under the belief that alcohol has some sanctity in life. More details about Jewish social groups are in Chapter 2.

Age and college have been considered factors in the frequency of alcohol consumption. Drinking alcohol is more prevalent between the ages of 19 and 27 years, the age group when young adults enter college (Loewenthal, 2014). There also is a gender disparity regarding alcohol consumption among Jewish youth, with male youth considered greater consumers than their female counterparts of alcohol (Loewenthal, 2014).

The current study focused on the influence of perceived parenting styles on the drinking patterns of U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. To date, there has been little research specifically on this cultural group and the parental influence on drinking. Although parenting style was the focus of the current study, it is important to note the significance of group processes. Focusing on a population of American Jews gave me a more in-depth understanding of how parenting styles might conjoin with other psychosocial and cultural factors such as group conformity and identity (Obiero, 2018).

Potential participants had to meet several criteria to be in the study: They had to be male and female Jewish adults between the ages of 19 and 27 years, they had to be living in the United States, and they had to have at least 1 year of college education. Variables that I examined were gender, GPA, frequency of alcohol consumption, and perceived parenting style.

This study may be significant in helping to educate Jewish parents about the ways that their parenting styles influence their children’s frequency of alcohol consumption. With increased awareness, parents could then make changes to their parenting styles to

give rise to a society with fewer alcohol problems. In turn, there also may be improvements in the GPA of college students. Most college students who consume alcohol are between the ages of 19 and 27 years, so that is why I chose to study this particular age group.

This study focused on the connection between perceived parenting style and alcohol consumption. I examined three parenting styles (i.e., permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible). This study may help to raise awareness of the adverse effects of alcohol consumption among U.S. Jewish male and female college students to influence the psychosocial, physical, and emotional well-being of parents and their children. This awareness may lead to positive social change.

There has been an increasing trend over the years regarding the frequency of alcohol consumption among American Jewish college students (Turrisi et al., 2013). Although research has been conducted to understand the potential link between frequency of alcohol consumption and child-rearing practices, the influence of parenting style on the frequency of alcohol consumption and GPA among Jewish youth remains unknown. Notwithstanding the current research, there has been a gap in the literature concerning the effects of different parenting styles on the frequency of alcohol consumption by emerging adults in the Jewish community, thus supporting the need for studies of this type. This study will help to minimize this gap by providing information about the relationship between parenting style and its influence on GPA and the frequency of alcohol consumption in the U.S. Jewish community.

Problem Statement

I examined the relationship of perceived parenting style to the frequency of alcohol consumption by young U.S. Jewish emerging adults ages 19 to 27 years. This study has a number of important implications that are the result of the increase in the frequency of alcohol consumption among emerging adult Jews since 2005 (Baruch et al., 2015; Levinson et al., 2017). According to demographic research as of 2010, 6.5 million Jewish adults and children reside in the United States, with 20% of them living in a large northeastern state (Tighe et al., 2013). These nearly 7 million young people are confronted with some serious health care issues because of the increased frequency of alcohol consumption among young adult Jews since 2005 (Baruch et al., 2015). Young emerging adults who drink may be more likely to drink excessively when they are adults, a situation that could lead to mental and physical health problems (Yang & Schaninger, 2010). Therefore, direct and immediate action is necessary to ensure the long-term health of Jewish youth, their families, and their communities.

Individuals entering young adulthood, including those attending college, are more vulnerable to consuming alcohol (Merrill & Carey, 2016). The college lifestyle allows young emerging adults to engage in social activities that include drinking. This study concerned college students between the ages of 19 and 27 years because this is the age bracket with the most prevalent numbers of students who consume alcohol (see Merrill & Carey, 2016).

Different parenting styles have a direct impact on young adults and the frequency of alcohol consumption, but there has been a dearth of timely and relevant research

concerning the influence of parenting style related to the Jewish community. Turrisi and Ray (2010) confirmed sustained alcohol use from high school through to the first year of college based on individuals' perceived parenting style. It appeared to be agreed upon in the literature that parenting style does influence the frequency of alcohol consumption among emerging young adults across the globe.

Since 2005, there has been an increase in the frequency of alcohol consumption among emerging adult Jews (Merrill & Carey, 2016). There has been a gap in the extant literature regarding alcohol use among college youth. Previous studies did not include the concept of culture, frequency of alcohol consumption, and influence of parenting style on GPA. Earlier studies did not focus specifically on a cultural context with regard to the relationship between parenting style and alcohol use by emerging adults/college youth (Merrill & Carey, 2016). Therefore, direct and immediate action was needed to identify optimal parenting styles that may lead to potential decreases in the frequency of alcohol consumption to ensure the long-term health of Jewish male and female youth, their families, and their communities (Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2006).

A clear link between parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption among college-age students has been identified (Patock-Peckham et al., 2001). However, research on the relationship between perceived parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption among the U.S. Jewish community has been scant (B. Abar et al., 2009). Certain parenting styles influence both GPA and alcohol use in college-age adults (C. Abar & Turrisi, 2008; Avenevoli et al., 1999; Kenney et al., 2015).

Another major variable in this study was GPA, which I analyzed as measured by self-report from the participants. Pathways of parenting style through emerging adulthood have demonstrated a strong influence on college adjustment and GPA (Kenny et al., 2015). GPA was an important variable in this study because there is big difference between young adults who are educated and understand the effects of alcoholism and young adults who do not have any academic achievement (B. Abar et al., 2009).

According to Niazi et al. (2017), parenting practices that positively influence GPA enable people to reason and assume impulse control (Stormshak et al., 2017). Less alcohol use also may contribute to good grades, whereas high levels of alcohol use may lead to poor grades (Stormshak et al., 2017). Stormshak et al. (2017) reported that male college students who consumed five drinks or more and female students who consumed four drinks or more in a single occasion were 3 times more likely than moderate drinkers to have poor academic performance. My investigation into the relationship between perceived parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption helped to identify the need for more efficacious intervention programs or community health initiatives.

Various self-help programs for Jews dealing with alcoholism and chemical dependency exist across the United States, Israel, Australia, and other countries (C. Abar & Turrisi, 2008; Avenevoli et al., 1999; Kenney et al., 2015). However, many Jews with problems related to alcoholism do not seek help because of the misguided belief that Jews do not have addictions (Avenevoli et al., 1999). This study and others that raise awareness of problems related to the frequency of alcohol consumption by U.S. Jewish male and female college-age students will help members of the Jewish community to

realize that alcoholism exists and that seeking help is acceptable (C. Abar & Turrisi, 2008; Avenevoli et al., 1999; Kenney et al., 2015). In this study, self-reported GPA was analyzed, along with perceived parenting style, as factors contributing to the frequency of alcohol consumption among young U.S. Jewish male and female emerging adults ages 19 to 27 years. Poor academic performance and parenting style increase the likelihood of young adults experiencing alcoholism (Stormshak et al., 2017).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative survey study was to identify the parenting styles associated with the frequency of alcohol consumption among U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. Included in this study was the variable of self-reported GPA (Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act [FERPA], 2017). Students attending colleges and universities must meet a standard GPA ranging from 2.0 to 4.0. I measured the participants' frequency of alcohol consumption using the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT; Dawson et al., 2012; see Appendix A) score. This frequency was determined depending on how many times the college students consumed alcohol within a particular period and how many drinks they consumed on a single occasion. I also studied the relationship between the frequency of alcohol consumption of U.S. Jewish male and female youth ages 19 to 27 years (self-reported criteria of the study) by asking the participants to complete the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991; see Appendix B) to measure their perceptions of their parents' parenting styles and an AUDIT questionnaire that measured potentially

hazardous or safe alcohol consumption. I received permission to use the PAQ (see Appendix C).

To assess academic achievement, before completing the survey, I asked the participants to self-report their GPAs as part of the consent form. I used the PAQ (Buri, 1991) to measure the independent variable (IV) of perceived parenting style. Perceived parental styles that I measured were permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible child-rearing practices. Buri (1991) established the validity and reliability of the PAQ. I measured the dependent variable (DV), frequency of alcohol consumption, using the AUDIT (Moehring et al., 2019). I measured alcohol consumption patterns using the AUDIT (Dawson et al., 2012). The World Health Organization (WHO) recommended use of the AUDIT to identify excessive alcohol use/dependence and "provide a framework for intervention" because it was designed for health care practitioners in a "range of health settings" (Babor & Grant, 1989, p. 371).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions (RQs) asked about the alcohol consumption of U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. I formulated the hypotheses based on the problem being investigated.

RQ1: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years?

H_{01}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years.

H_{a1}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years.

RQ2: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA?

H_{02}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA.

H_{a2}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA.

RQ3: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender?

H_{03}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender.

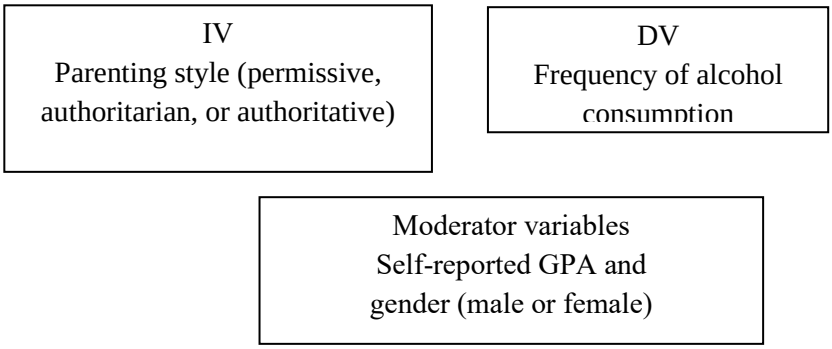
H_{a3}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender.

Theoretical Framework for the Study

Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1978); social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977); and Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model served as the main theoretical frameworks. Stormshak et al. (2017) postulated that parenting style is related to issues such as the ability of adults and adolescents to withstand peer pressure and develop positive self-image, both of which are related to self-regulation regarding alcohol use. The variable relationships that I tested are depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Relationship of IV of Perceived Parenting Style to DV of Frequency of Alcohol Consumption



Note. Moderating variables were gender and self-reported GPA.

The theoretical framework is described in terms of attachment theory (Bowlby, 1978); social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977); and Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model. Parenting style has influenced the degree and frequency of

alcohol consumption among college-age students (Larimer & Cronce, 2007; Yang & Schaninger, 2010). In particular, a clear association has been found between parental monitoring and reduced drinking among adolescents (K. H. Beck et al., 2004). One parenting style that has been identified as having a positive influence in reducing the frequency of alcohol consumption among college youth is the authoritative/flexible style (Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2006). Authoritative/Flexible parents have been described as highly demanding but responsive, and the authoritative/flexible style of parenting has been found successful in safeguarding children from the frequency of alcohol consumption (Baumrind, 1991, 2005).

Attachment Theory

Attachment theory, which is based on the joint work of Bowlby and Ainsworth, has been used as a stepping-stone to many future studies. For example, Bowlby (1978) advanced understanding about attachment theory in the 1950s and 1960s by explaining the primary parent–infant bond, which is vital for development and survival. Ainsworth and Bell (1970) identified two forms of attachment: secure and insecure, the latter of which has two subtypes: ambivalent and avoidant. Securely attached children are often more confident toward their respective caregivers, and they use their parent-child relationships as a prototype for forming future relationships (Malekpour, 2007). Insecure attachment-ambivalent describes children who do not have predictably and emotionally available caregivers (Choon et al., 2013). Insecure attachment-avoidant describes children who do not orient themselves to their caregivers while exploring the environment. Secure attachment is vital to healthy adult adjustment.

Even though parent-child interactions change as the children mature, the attachment style does not typically change (Choon et al., 2013). Small children, for example, seek physical availability and closeness for comfort in times of distress, whereas adolescents feel securely attached to their parents when the parents support and understand them, even if the parents are not physically present (Berson & Baggerly, 2009). Attachment styles in adolescents indicate that students with an insecure-ambivalent attachment style are more likely than their peers to engage in greater at-risk behaviors, including substance use (Berson & Baggerly, 2009). Nevertheless, parental attunement and understanding are critical for maintaining attachment security in the teenage phase, particularly as adolescents mature and seek more autonomy in their lives (Moretti & Peled, 2004). Parental ability to sustain goal-directed connections with young adults is imperative for maintaining good parent-child relations, and the ability to sustain goal-directed connections is especially challenging as parent-young adult disputes rise during the early stages of young adulthood (Moretti & Peled, 2004).

Social development and social bond theories were appropriate for the current study because their use provided insight into the interactions of people in the community (Kuss & Griffiths, 2011). Peers can influence the behavior of other members of their social groups (Almodovar et al., 2006). Alcohol is used in many parts of the Jewish religion, so many children grow up believing that alcohol consumption is an acceptable part of life. These theories shed light on the effect of parenting style on the alcohol consumption of Jewish youth (Levin, 2014). Accessibility as well as social influence play a role in alcohol consumption in this population (Wechsler et al., 2002).

Social Learning Theory

Researchers have increasingly found empirical evidence linking peer pressure to alcohol consumption behaviors (Anderson et al., 2011; Guillén et al., 2015). Youth whose friends drink alcohol are more likely to be influenced into drinking alcohol relative to those whose friends do not consume alcohol (Bar et al., 2014). Friendship, combined with peer pressure to conform to group norms, can lead to exposure to social settings that encourage the consumption of alcohol (Anderson et al., 2011; Guillén et al., 2015). Social learning theory, according to Bandura (1999, 2011), explains how people learn from other by observing, imitating, or modelling. The theory provided a useful framework in which these types of behaviors could be more readily understood because of the theory's generalizability and its focus on what adolescents gain or lose through alcohol consumption (Hurd et al., 2008; McLeod, 2016). Social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977) added a valuable element to the theoretical framework in my study. Likewise, I used Baumrind's (2005) parenting styles model to evaluate the efficacy of different parenting styles on the frequency of alcohol consumption by young people.

Baumrind's Parenting Styles Model

The two-dimensional parenting factors of warmth and control resulted in Baumrind's (1991) parenting styles model, which included permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible parenting approaches (Niaraki & Rahimi, 2013). Taken together, Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model contributed a valuable element to the study's theoretical framework that was needed in view of the frequency of alcohol consumption among adolescents and young adults.

Healthy attachment styles are related to parenting styles (Safdar & Zahrah, 2016). Parenting styles are communicated in different ways. Benson and Haith (2010), for example, noted that "parenting styles convey parents' overall feeling about the child through body language, tone of voice, emotional displays and quality of attention" (p. 281). Different parenting styles have been measured in accordance with self-regulation during peer pressure incidents such as those involving pressure to use alcohol (Patock-Peckham et al., 2001). The self-regulation of alcohol use among adolescents has been positively correlated with the authoritative/flexible parenting style, whereas other parenting styles have been associated with negative outcomes of self-regulating behavior in adolescents more likely to experiment with and use alcohol regularly (Patock-Peckham et al., 2001).

Baumrind (1991, 2005) described five dominant elements of parenting: warmth, nurturance, discipline strategy, communication skills, and expectations about maturity. The configuration of these five elements in a household may have a bearing on children's development (Baumrind, 1991, 2005; Sarac, 2001). The ability of parents to control and limit their children's behavior is one of the most significant features associated with helping adolescents to develop prosaically (Baumrind, 1991, 2005; Bretherton, 1992). Family environment and overall household culture are other key factors that play a major role in deciding the alcohol consumption patterns of college-age students (Njenga, 2004). The experiences that children encounter in early childhood either develop or discourage certain patterns of behaviors later in life.

The three typical parenting styles of permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible were outlined by Baumrind (1991, 2005) and Bretherton (1992). Parenting style has been considered a dominant factor in deciding the overall outlook of children's personalities (Baumrind, 1991, 2005). However, mention of frequency of alcohol consumption also is in all three parenting styles to a greater or less degree (Patock-Peckham et al., 2001). There was a need to further investigate how parenting style influenced the alcohol consumption of young adults during their college years. The later phase of emerging adulthood was the age of focus of this study because during this time, individuals begin to act independently and enroll in college (Patock-Peckham et al, 2001). Youth also experience social pressures and stressors that can be overwhelming enough to lead some college students to use or abuse alcohol (Bahr & Hoffman, 2010; Changalwa et al., 2012; Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2006). In short, I explored the ways that attachment theory (Bowlby, 1978); social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977); and Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting style model influenced the frequency of alcohol consumption by young Jewish male and female emerging adults ages 19 to 27 years. It is important to note that young adults are grouped in the age bracket of 19 to 27 years in most studies (Petry, 2002).

Permissive Style

Permissive parents, although responsive, place few boundaries or demands on their children (C. Abar & Turrisi, 2008). These children face the task of making decisions that are not age appropriate because they are not yet equipped to make them at such a young age. When these children become young adults, they may continue making wrong

decisions, such as consuming too much alcohol (Niaraki & Rahimi, 2013). Freedom is good, but too much freedom for children often increases their chances of drug abuse or alcoholism when they reach adulthood (Niaraki & Rahimi, 2013). Male and female adults who perceived the parenting style of their parents as permissive reported significantly higher levels of alcohol use (Berg et al., 2016; Patock-Peckham et al., 2001).

Authoritarian Style

According to Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model, authoritarian parents tend to focus on obedience and control by using punishment and demanding unquestioning obedience from their children. Parenting style influences the degree and frequency of alcohol consumption by college-age students (Larimer & Cronce, 2007; Yang & Schaninger, 2010). Zahed Zahedani et al. (2016) defined the authoritarian parenting style as "child-rearing techniques characteristic of harsh disciplinary actions and rigid boundaries, expressed both emotionally and psychologically" (p. 42). Although authoritarian parents place high and unrealistic demands on their children, feedback is usually punitive (Howenstein et al., 2015). Children with authoritarian parents reported lower levels of alcohol use in comparison to children whose parents were permissive or neglectful (Berge et al., 2016; Zahed Zahedani et al., 2016). In particular, there has been a clear association between increased parental monitoring with obedience and control (i.e., authoritarian parenting) and higher rates of drinking among adolescents than among those whose parents were authoritative/flexible (K. H. Beck et al., 2004).

Parenting styles are a dominant factor in deciding the overall outlook of children's behavior (Baumrind, 1991, 2005). In particular, an authoritative/flexible parenting style

can mediate the frequency of alcohol consumption by adolescents (Yang & Schaninger, 2010). Even in emerging adulthood, parental involvement in accordance with alcohol use education and support yielded young adults making better peer friendships in college, leading to preventative measures against the frequency of alcohol consumption (C. Abar & Turrisi, 2008). Similarly, successful parental monitoring led to college-age adults choosing friends who did not abuse alcohol. In these cases, parents served as good mentors to their children as they developed healthy coping strategies to become productive members of society (C. Abar & Turrisi, 2008).

Authoritative/Flexible Style

Authoritative/Flexible parents tend to exercise parenting styles that contain elements of being the most nurturing, having age-appropriate expectations, and having the best effect on emerging young adults' self-esteem than those of authoritarian and permissive parents (Howenstein et al., 2015). This parenting style has a positive effect on young people's self-esteem, self-reliance, and emotional security. Authoritative/Flexible parenting is correlated with secure adult attachment (Doyle & Markiewicz, 2005). One parenting style that has positively influenced a reduction in the frequency of alcohol consumption among emerging young adults is the authoritative/flexible style (Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2006).

Authoritative/Flexible parents are highly demanding in a way that is reasonable and age appropriate. Authoritative/Flexible parents also are very responsive, and their feedback is nurturing rather than punitive. The authoritative/flexible style of parenting is the most successful for safeguarding children and adults from alcohol use frequency

(Howenstein et al., 2015). However, the effect of authoritative/flexible parenting style on the college academic performance of Jewish emerging young adults, along with its influence on the frequency of alcohol consumption, has remained largely unexplored in the literature (Howenstein et al., 2015).

I conducted this study to bridge the gap in the literature by using attachment theory (Bowlby, 1978); social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977); and Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model as the theoretical frameworks. According to the attachment theory, parents assume the role of caregiver to children. However, this role changes as the children mature, leaving space for the children to become more independent and more decisive, such as where to crawl, which hand to use while grabbing food, and so on (Zahed Zahedani et al., 2016). During childhood, the role of parents is to provide constant support and security. When children mature into young adults, the parental role is to be available to the children as they go through different life experiences. Parents influence their children's decision whether or not to consume alcohol.

Social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977) states that individuals learn through modeling (Zahed Zahedani et al., 2016). Children model their parents' behavior on various issues, including alcohol consumption. The various parenting styles (permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible) determine how children grow up and influence the decisions that the children make (Zahed Zahedani et al., 2016). Zahed Zahedani et al. (2016) postulated that parenting style is related to issues such as the ability of adults to withstand peer pressure and to develop a positive self-image, both of

which are related to self-regulation regarding alcohol use as well as academic achievement.

Nature of the Study

I followed a quantitative methodology to conduct this study using Buri's (1991) PAQ, which was developed to determine the main parental styles (i.e., permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) from the point of view of the child. The PAQ survey holds 30 items, 10 per parenting style. The AUDIT is a survey used to identify adults' risky drinking behaviors by asking about quantity and frequency of use (Dawson et al., 2012). The AUDIT was developed by the WHO and has a high degree of external validity.

I obtained my sample of convenience from the U.S. Jewish population via the online survey platform SurveyMonkey. Approximately 7.8 million Jewish adults and children reside in the United States, and 20% of them live in a large northeastern state (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 2014; Tighe et al., 2013). The original sample comprised 200 participants who had to sign the informed consent before they could gain access to the survey on the SurveyMonkey platform. I used a G*Power analysis to arrive at the sample size of 200 participants. When working with a target population of 7 million (i.e., the Jewish adult population in the United States); a power analysis of a 95% confidence level; and a 5% margin of error, the number of participants needed to complete the survey was 200 (RaoSoft, 2016). I sampled an additional 50 participants to reduce the possibility that some of the returned surveys might have been incomplete. I analyzed the data obtained from 138 completed surveys.

Potential participants had to meet several inclusion criteria: They had to be Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years who were living in the United States at the time of the study and were attending either rabbinical college (male students) or a 4-year university or college with a minimum of 1 year of enrollment. I entered the data into SPSS and coded using G*Power Software 3.1. Because the PAQ was designed to measure parenting styles, it was necessary to select participants who were willing to comment on their own drinking habits, share their perceptions of their parents' parenting styles, and self-report their GPA levels. Sample selection was deliberately heterogeneous according to gender, age, and self-reported GPA to examine differences in the frequency of alcohol consumption of the participants. No students outside of attendance at university or rabbinical college participated in the study.

As described in Chapter 3, I conducted a quantitative study to meet the research goals. A quantitative cross-sectional design is appropriate for testing theories, developing hypotheses, and observing particular variables (Creswell, 2003). A quantitative methodology also can help to determine the number of individuals who share specific characteristics (Mann, 2003). A qualitative design would not have been appropriate because such a methodology is more observational and is meant to explain individual patterns. Quantitative researchers use questionnaires to collect their data, whereas qualitative researchers use open-ended interviews and observations (Creswell, 2003).

I followed a cross-sectional design to collect my data at one time (Neuman, 2003). Weaknesses associated with a quantitative cross-sectional design include the lack of capacity to measure incidence, challenges in interpreting cause-and-effect

relationships, unclear differentiation of simple relationships, and results that depend on recall that can easily introduce bias into the study (Neuman, 2003). To understand the frequency of alcohol consumption by the participants, I also collected quantifiable data by asking them to compete a survey. This approach was congruent with previous quantitative, cross-sectional studies by researchers who have used questionnaires to inquire about alcohol and religion (Almodovar et al., 2006). I designed this study to determine if perceived parenting style was associated with the participants' attitudes toward alcohol consumption.

I used a cross-sectional design (Francis & Mullen, 1997; Setia, 2016; Shmulewitz et al., 2014) to determine the relationship between Judaism and the frequency of alcohol consumption by college students ages 19 to 27 years in the U.S. Jewish community. I obtained the sample through SurveyMonkey, and the participants accessed the survey online to ensure confidentiality and anonymity. I entered the survey responses into SPSS for analysis. I did not measure peer pressure, Jewish affiliation, alcoholism, other Jewish communities, and secure adult attachment. A careful review of the extant literature found few studies on alcohol use and Jewish and college/rabbinical college students. These results underscored the need for this study.

Definitions

Academic achievement or grade point average (GPA): Refers to a scale variable calculated from 2.0 to 4.0 for students who have completed a minimum of one college year to have an accumulative GPA up to graduation (Cohen & Rice, 1997).

Alcohol consumption: Refers to the frequency of alcohol consumption. In this study, frequency was coded as 1 = less than once per month, 2 = once a month, 3 = 2 to 3 times per month, 4 = once a week, 5 = 2 to 3 times per week, 6 = 4 to 5 times per week, and 7 = daily or almost daily (Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2009).

Authoritarian parenting: Refers to a parenting style in which parents expect obedience to their rules without allowing their children to question any of these rules based on their level of demandingness and lower responsiveness (Buri, 1991).

Authoritative/flexible parenting: Refers to a parenting style in which parents have clear and consistent expectations of their children, display warmth, and are responsive to their children's needs (Buri, 1991).

Gender: Refers to a variable determined by gender belief rooted in Jewish Orthodoxy to demonstrate modesty between male and female individuals (Harel, 2004). Male and female separate seating is still in practice on private transportation. Separate seating reflects the culture's endorsement of philosophical views of gender roles. This approach highlights awareness of cultural pressures on individuals to comply with specific expectations regardless of personal preferences (Haslenger, 2000).

Permissive parenting: Refers to a parenting style in which parents exert minimal expectations and punishment on their children (Buri, 1991).

Rabbinical college: Refers to an educational institution where students who have completed high school study the Talmud and Jewish law. Graduates from these colleges usually devote the rest of their lives to the Torah (i.e., Jewish Bible). Many of these

individuals become rabbis who are responsible for passing on the teachings of the great Jewish scholars (Heilman & Witztum, 1997).

Assumptions

I assumed that all of the participants would answer the survey items honestly. I assumed that the participants would understand the wording of the survey items and would provide answers that would address the RQs accurately. I assumed that the Jewish religion would influence the participants' attitudes toward the frequency of alcohol consumption.

Scope and Delimitations

The frequency of alcohol consumption has been a global problem for centuries (Petersen, 2003; Rehm et al., 2017; Room et al., 2005). However, a gap remains in the literature regarding what is known about the frequency of alcohol consumption by college students in the U.S. Jewish community. Other groups of college freshmen have been studied, and results have identified a clear connection between parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption (Wood et al., 2004). The study focused on U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. Male students were the majority of participants in the study. It is important to understand that Jewish religious colleges and even classes are unique in terms of gender; rabbinical colleges are for male students according to their traditions.

Limitations

The study had a small sample obtained from the target minority population that was not easy to access. The small sample of 138 participants increased the margin of

error, which could have reduced the accuracy of the results. A larger sample might have reduced the margin of error significantly and provided more accurate findings. Only 138 of the 200 surveys were completed correctly and were used in the analysis of the data. Some participants decided to leave some questions unanswered, whereas others opted to withdraw early from the study.

Another limitation of this study was convenience sampling. I used a SurveyMonkey convenience sampling method, which could have introduced selection bias and affected the generalizability of the results to provide an accurate description of the entire Jewish population in the United States. Selection bias, that is, choosing a sample that was not a representative of the target population, also could have affected the results. Selection bias also could have had an impact on the participation of extant subgroups of Jews who identified as Ultra-Orthodox, Orthodox, Modern Orthodox, and Reform. The Ultra-Orthodox subgroup might not have been included in this study, given their more restrictive cultural upbringing and limited access to media, internet, social media, and so on. Gaining access to this population might be a consideration for future researchers that may add a significant cluster to the PAQ (Buri, 1991).

Lastly, the study had limitations relevant to threats to external validity in the form of reactive effects of experimental arrangements and reactive or interactive effects of testing. I told the participants about the study being conducted prior to data collection, so they had a preview of the study (Babor & Grant, 1989). Sometimes participants may provide aspirational responses instead of factual responses, meaning that the effects of the study may have given the participants the opportunity to make changes to their survey

answers (Bolland et al., 2016). Therefore, the results may not have been a true representation of the analysis of their survey responses. A blinded study could have been used to improve the external validity of the study.

There were other limitations to the study. For example, I did not consider the application of other theoretical frameworks that would further complement healthy attachment practices within the scope of child development. I did not address the uninvolved parenting style. I analyzed the collected data using multiple regression. Qualitative data may have provided additional insight into the findings, but they were not addressed, paving the way for further research.

Significance

According to the U.S. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA, 2017), alcohol intake among young adult Jews has increased since 2005, but the literature addressing this issue has been limited. Baruch et al. (2015) and Levinson et al. (2017) asserted that research on the increased percentage of alcoholics in the U.S. Jewish community has been minimal. My study added the dimension of culture to fill the gap in the literature on the frequency of alcohol consumption and perceived parenting style.

Previous researchers did not focus on any cultural aspects as control variables when studying the relationship between perceived parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption by emerging young adults (Bahr & Hoffmann, 2010; A. Beck et al., 2004; Fogel, 2005; Larimer & Cronce, 2007; Njenga, 2005; Patock-Peckham et al., 2001; Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2006). Investigating the relationship between

parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption by emerging young adults highlighted the need for better intervention programs or community health initiatives (Bahr & Hoffman, 2010; Changalwa et al., 2012; Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2006). The study was significant to adding to the awareness of perceived parenting style in decreasing the frequency of alcohol consumption by emerging young adults.

This study may produce numerous positive outcomes for individuals, their families, and the community. Individuals, especially young adults in the U.S. Jewish community who are dealing with alcohol problems, can seek the necessary help from professionals and support group programs. College students will most likely concentrate more on important issues in their lives and may even improve their academic performance after becoming more aware of the connection between the frequency of alcohol consumption and academic achievement through the lens of being the product of good child-rearing practices. Parents may learn to apply better parenting styles to raise morally upright individuals capable of making appropriate decisions through adolescence into emerging adulthood.

This study provided more information on the relationship between parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption, especially among Jewish youth in the United States. I addressed the gap in the literature regarding the Jewish culture and the use of alcohol embedded in all its rituals (Glass, 1999). This study holds the potential to foment positive social change by bringing to light cultural aspects of potential drinking hazards resulting from easy access to alcohol. Investigating the relationship between parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption by emerging young adults may point

toward the need for better intervention programs or community health initiatives in the Jewish community (Bahr & Hoffman, 2010; Changalwa et al., 2012; Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2006).

Summary

There have been few documented studies on the relationship between parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption by college, university, and rabbinical college students in the U.S. Jewish community. I conducted this study to close the gap in the research between the IV of perceived parenting style and the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption from the perspectives of emerging young adults in the U.S. Jewish community. Control variables were gender and GPA. The degree to which perceived parenting style influences college-age frequency of alcohol consumption within the Jewish community remains unknown because earlier studies did not include the concept of cultural context (A. Beck et al., 2004).

Chapter 2 is a critical review of the literature focusing on the role of parents and parenting style. Child development theories and their frameworks are discussed, including attachment, early bonding, and family involvement. A discussion of research on the frequency of alcohol consumption by youth is included in the chapter. The chapter concludes with an overview of the ways that perceived parenting style influences frequency of alcohol consumption.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

As noted in Chapter 1, there has been an increase in alcohol consumption among Jewish youth who are considered emerging adults (Baruch et al., 2015). The purpose of this study was to determine whether there was a relationship between perceived parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption by Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. Included in this chapter is a review of the literature on the use of alcohol among Jewish youth and the influence of parenting on decisions regarding alcohol usage. The topics discussed are alcohol use and gender, youth alcohol use, parenting style and alcohol use, and the frequency of alcohol consumption by young Jews.

This chapter includes the theoretical framework, the frequency of alcohol consumption among emerging young adults, the health effects of drinking alcohol, and factors associated with drinking. Also included are details about alcohol and peer pressure, alcohol and family, attitudes and alcohol use, and parenting style and alcohol use, followed by a discussion about parenting styles, parenting influences on the development of alcohol abuse and dependence, general parenting effects on child outcomes, and parenting effects on alcohol abuse of offspring. The chapter provides explanations of Judaism and alcohol use, alcohol use and gender differences in the Jewish religion, and the frequency of alcohol consumption by Jewish college students.

I reviewed the literature using an attachment theory lens based on its focus on parent-child relationships that have been shown to influence the frequency of alcohol consumption by emerging young adults. Attachment theory researchers have been

interested in the bonds and relations between and among individuals, especially lasting relationships such as parent-child bonds and associations between couples (Bowlby, 1978).

The frequency of alcohol consumption by young adult Jews has increased since 2005 (Baruch et al., 2015; Levinson et al., 2017). The purpose of this quantitative survey research was to explore the relationship between perceived parenting style and frequency of alcohol consumption by U.S. Jewish adult male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years, including the relationship between self-reported GPA and gender on frequency of alcohol consumption. The theoretical framework of the study drew from three theories: Bowlby's (1978) attachment theory; Bandura and McClelland's (1977) social learning theory; and Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model. Previous researchers such as Hong Park (2012), McLeod (2016), and Power (2011) used these theories in their studies.

Literature Search Strategy

To find peer-reviewed, recent, and relevant journal articles about parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption, particularly within the Jewish community, I accessed literature via the EBSCOhost, Questia, PubMed, and Google Scholar databases. Keywords used in the search for relevant material included *parental style influence, protective factors, attitude, alcohol use, questionnaire,* and *quantitative study*. I reviewed articles, seminal literature, and websites to obtain information relevant to the study. Literature on the target population has been limited. In most cases, this topic has been

part of a larger discussion, such as alcoholism among young adults in general, and not much on young adults of Jewish descent.

Theoretical Framework

Attachment Theory

Bowlby (1978) and Ainsworth (1979) first advanced an understanding of attachment theory more than 60 years ago. Bowlby and Ainsworth explained the primary parent–infant bond, which is vital for development and survival. As conceptualized by Bowlby, attachment is grounded in ethology, the study of human behavior from a biological perspective. Bowlby described how infants' smiling, crying, clinging, and seeking closeness cultivate the parent–infant bond and boost survival. Secure attachment is vital to healthy adolescent adjustment (Choon et al., 2013).

Research has indicated that the parent attachment role changes as children mature (Choon et al., 2013). Small children, for example, seek physical availability and closeness for comfort in times of distress (Berson & Baggerly, 2009). Adolescents do not require the same level of closeness; rather, they can derive comfort from the knowledge that their parents support and understand them, even if the parents are not physically present (Berson & Baggerly, 2009). Nevertheless, researchers have found that parental attunement and understanding are critical for maintaining attachment security in the adolescent phase, particularly as adolescents mature and seek more autonomy in their lives (Moretti & Peled, 2004). Parental ability to sustain goal-directed connections with their children is imperative for maintaining good parent-child relations, and the ability to

sustain goal-directed connections is especially challenging as parent-child disputes arise during adolescence (Moretti & Peled, 2004).

The period of emerging adulthood is frequently characterized by numerous changes, and any emotional problems that occur may have significant implications for social development and adaptation (Nyarko et al., 2012). It is important to understand the social contexts in which adolescents are raised and the effects of parenting style on adolescents' emotional development as emerging young adults. In this regard, Nyarko et al. (2012) emphasized that "in relation to the emotional development of adolescents, important questions to be addressed are how their relationships with their parents and peers contribute in improving or undermining their emotional development" (p. 162). An important component of emotional development is the prudent use of alcohol, especially during the formative years as emerging adults.

Researchers have used social bond theory and social development theory to explain why people engage in particular behaviors (Hirschi, 1969; Vygotsky, 1978). Social development theory was developed in 1962 (Vygotsky, 1978) on the belief that social development is based on social interactions. Social development theory focuses on the interactions or connections between individuals and the environment in which they operate. Vygotsky (1978) argued that social development depends on social interactions, which means that cognitive development occurs only through interactions with other individuals. Vygotsky also asserted that children learn from the individuals around them, including parents, peers, and teachers.

In the past, social bond theory was used to assess the connection between attitudes toward the use of alcohol and religion in adolescents in the Jewish community (Levin, 2014). Hirschi (1969) developed this theory as a tool to evaluate juvenile criminal delinquency. Social development theory has four components: commitment, attachment, involvement, and acceptance of the rules of the society (Misztal, 2013). If any of these four elements is missing, there is a higher likelihood that negative behaviors will develop.

Attachment is the emotional bond to specific individuals (Misztal, 2013). It involves the commitment of time, money, or effort characterized by participation in activities; the final element is acceptance, whereby individuals adhere to the rules of society (B. B. Brown & Prinstein, 2011). In summary, Durkin et al. (2007) argued that the social bond theory is based on the assumption that everyone is motivated toward engaging in deviant behaviors and focuses on the factors that restrain individuals from engaging in deviant behaviors.

Using concepts drawn from attachment and social bond theories and based on the study's RQs, I contend that the attitudes of adolescents toward the frequency of alcohol consumption can be influenced by their social environment and the activities in which they participate (see Misztal, 2013). I used the application of these principles to demonstrate the need to investigate the relationship of perceived parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption by college students ages 19 to 27 years when controlling for GPA. For example, children in the Jewish community learn how to use alcohol early in their lives (Snyder, 1978). Fathers drink during Sabbath and other

religious holidays, including consuming four cups of wine during Passover (Snyder, 1978).

Religion plays a key role in influencing the tendency to consume alcohol (Etzioni, 2008). Etzioni (2008) defined religion as a form of social control. Although researchers have examined the influence of religiosity on alcohol use by adolescents, there has been a dearth of timely and relevant studies concerning religious affiliation and the frequency of alcohol consumption (Durkin et al., 2007). The social bond theory posits that having a bond to religion or society can prevent individuals from engaging in unacceptable behaviors (Durkin et al., 2007). Although some religions prohibit alcohol consumption, others encourage it. Overall, religion plays a key role in deterring or controlling alcohol consumption behavior (Durkin et al., 2007).

The use of social development and social bond theories was appropriate for the current study in providing insight about interactions between and among people in the community (Kuss & Griffiths, 2011). The objective of the study was to examine the connection between Judaism and attitudes toward the frequency of alcohol consumption. Alcohol is used in many rituals in the Jewish religion, so children may grow up believing that alcohol consumption is a socially acceptable part of life (Levin, 2014). Thus, these theories provided insight into the drinking behaviors of Jewish youth.

Social Learning Theory

A growing body of evidence has confirmed the powerful effects of peer pressure on young people's alcohol consumption behaviors (J. Miller & Jennings, 2008). Young people who have friends who use alcohol are far more likely to share their attitudes and

behaviors concerning alcohol consumption (J. Miller & Jennings, 2008). Friendship, combined with pressures to conform to group norms, can result in exposure to social settings that involve consuming alcohol (J. Miller & Jennings, 2008). Social learning theory is a useful framework in which these types of behaviors can be more readily understood partly because of the theory's generalizability and its focus on what adolescents gain or lose through alcohol consumption. The fundamental tenets of social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977) maintain that adolescent behaviors are heavily influenced by the rewards and punishments associated with different types of behaviors (Hirschi, 1969; Maney & Higham-Gardill, 2009; Vygotsky, 1978).

Maney and Higham-Gardill (2009) reported that in this scenario,

> Adolescent alcohol use depends on the extent to which a behavior is perceived as more or less desirable. Drinking for the first time, for example, during an enjoyable party among friends, may be perceived as emotionally reinforcing and thereby defined by the adolescent as desirable. (p. 158)

Therefore, social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977) added a valuable element to the theoretical framework that I used in the study. Likewise, I used Baumrind's (1991) parenting styles model to evaluate the efficacy of different parenting styles on the frequency of alcohol consumption by young emerging adults.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables and Concepts

Baumrind's Parenting Styles Model

According to Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model, authoritative/flexible parenting is classified as having high expectations and high

responsiveness that are reasonable and age appropriate (Niaraki & Rahimi, 2013). Authoritarian parents tend to focus on obedience and control by using punishments and demanding unquestioning obedience from their children. Authoritarian parents have high levels of demands, coupled with lower levels of responsiveness (Niaraki & Rahimi, 2013). Although authoritarian parents place high demands on their children, they often have unreasonable or unrealistic expectations, and feedback is usually punitive. Children with authoritarian parents have reported lower levels of alcohol use when compared with children whose parents were permissive or neglectful (Berg et al., 2016).

By contrast, permissive parents are responsive and impose few boundaries on their children, allowing them to do what they want (Niaraki & Rahimi, 2013). Permissive parents may be warm and loving, and they often want to be their children's friends rather than act as parents. They often do not respond appropriately to the children's needs. They are less demanding of their children than authoritative/flexible and authoritarian parents are. They do not expect a lot of responsibility of self-control from their children. These children, therefore, tend to struggle with emotional regulation and self-control (Niaraki & Rahimi, 2013). Male and female adults who perceived the parenting style of their parents as permissive have reported significantly higher levels of alcohol use (Berg et al., 2016; Patock-Peckham et al., 2001).

Authoritarian parents are strict and do not entertain a dialogue with their children (Berg et al., 2016). They set the rules and expect the children to follow them. This parenting style has been shown to have a positive effect on young people's self-esteem, self-reliance, and emotional security. Authoritative/Flexible parents are highly

demanding but responsive, and the authoritative/flexible style of parenting is successful in safeguarding children from the frequency of alcohol consumption by (Baumrind, 1991, 2005).

Taken together, Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model contributed to the theoretical framework, especially in view of the prevalence of frequency of alcohol consumption of emerging young adults. I built my study on extant theories as well as the context relevant to Jewish religious practices that have not been explored widely enough in the literature.

Prevalence of Alcohol Use Among Young Adults

According to the U.S. Office of the Surgeon General (2007), alcohol is the most widely abused substance among young adults. Adolescence is generally defined in Western culture as the time between puberty and the age of 18 or 21 years (Degner, 2006). The CDC (2009) reported that an estimated 21% of all emerging young adults in the United States in this age group had their first alcoholic drink at the age of 13 years. Approximately 73% of U.S. young adults and 70% of high school students in the state of New York, excluding those in New York City, reported using alcohol at least once (CDC, 2011). Because most participants in the current study lived in a large northeastern state, data regarding the frequency of alcohol consumption by among emerging young adults were relevant to this study.

Data from the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2015) and from Wang et al. (2015) indicated that 71% of U.S. students in Grades 9 to 12 have consumed at least one drink of alcohol other than sips during their lifetimes. Lord and Marsch

(2011) reported that 76% of high school students in the state of New York reported using alcohol at least once during their lifetimes. The CDC (2011) reported more alcohol use among female adolescents (74.2%) than among male adolescents (70.8%); however, the percentage of male adolescents (23.7%) who drank before they turned 13 years old was much higher than the percentage of female adolescents (18.1%). A higher percentage of female adolescents (49%) than male adolescents (35%) also admitted receiving a drink from another person (CDC, 2011).

These statistics were important and directly relevant to this study of the frequency of alcohol consumption by young Jewish adults primarily from a large northeastern state. I also examined gender differences regarding alcohol consumption between male and female college students, which stood at 19% and 26%, respectively. Levinson et al. (2017) estimated that slightly more than 10% of Jewish high school students had consumed alcohol and that the gender disparity was similar for Jewish male and female students.

Snyder (1978) posited that Jews start drinking at the early age of 8 days during the male circumcision ceremony. Moreover, Snyder contended that male and female Jewish adults agreed that sharing Kiddush wine as a family formed one of their most memorable childhood experiences. This practice of testing alcohol as children can lead to abuse in later life. Fogel (2005) claimed that Jewish college students, like other students, struggled with alcoholism in school. Hence, there was a need to conduct this study focusing on Jewish young adults.

Health Effects of Drinking Alcohol

There are long-term and immediate effects associated with alcohol consumption. For example, Paul and Smith-Hunter (2011) emphasized that alcohol abuse is associated with health, safety, and societal concerns. Some of the immediate effects on health are poor judgment, risky behavior, violence, and traffic accidents (S. A. Brown & Tapert, 2004). Almost 37% of all adolescent traffic deaths in 2000 were related to alcohol use (S. A. Brown & Tapert, 2004). Alcohol poisoning and miscarriages also have been identified as negative effects of consuming alcohol (Kesmodel et al, 2003).

Some other health and social concerns associated with alcohol use include cirrhosis of the liver; loss of family; unemployment; and psychiatric problems such as neurological issues, depression, and stroke (CDC, 2012). The CDC (2012) also has linked cardiovascular problems to high consumption levels of alcohol. Chronic levels of alcohol use during adolescence have been shown to increase cellular death that may have severe implications persisting into later adulthood (Splete, 2008). Higher levels of alcohol use among adolescents also may be associated with reduced hippocampal volume (Splete, 2008). Alcohol use among adolescents may be associated with profound health risks.

Factors Associated With Adolescent Drinking That Influence Drinking in Adulthood

Adolescents use alcohol for a variety of reasons (Hayes et al., 2010). Most reasons are related in one way or another and have been classified as social/interpersonal, contextual/cultural, and individual categories (Chawla et al., 2007). Individual risk factors for higher levels of alcohol consumption include personality traits, physiological

composition, and various personal factors such as emotional state and performance in school (Chawla et al., 2007). Some social/interpersonal risk factors include discounts on alcohol purchases available from friends and family members. Emerging young adults may perceive alcohol consumption as acceptable when they see other family members drinking alcohol (Cerezo et al., 2013). Cultural/Contextual risk factors include racism, availability of alcohol, and economics.

Other risk factors include social acceptance, peer pressure, boredom, curiosity, and little to no parental control (Gilligan & Kypri, 2012; Whitney & Froiland, 2015). The research to date has indicated that individual religiosity levels among emerging young adults may serve as a protective factor against alcohol use and misuse, but additional research concerning the effects of religious context of parenting on alcohol use and misuse by emerging young adults is needed (Li et al., 2011).

Irrespective of religion or many other primary background features, there has been little argument that college students exhibit significant drinking behaviors. The relevant age group in question comprised students 19 to 27 years, given that most people graduate from high school at 18 but can be attending college for up to 8 years after that, depending on how many degrees they want to obtain, at what levels, and the pace of progression through the required courses. Alcohol can be a major obstacle to the completion of college or university studies by younger students compared to older students (Merrill & Carey, 2016). Merrill and Carey (2016) asserted that researchers should focus on the college-age demographic when examining alcohol consumption patterns over the average person’s life span. Merrill and Carey noted that most college

students are heavier drinkers than their non-college-attending peers and that this behavior is induced by environmental and temporal characteristics specific to the college environment, including living on campus.

Although college and its associated social structures are in many ways much more of a factor than age on its own, age cannot be dismissed as one of the catalysts of drinking (Merrill & Carey, 2016**)**. Factors that are of particular relevance to the drinking behavior of college-age individuals include exaggerated peer norms, protective behavioral strategies that students may use, and overall mental health (Merrill & Carey, 2016). Environment has a large role in the development of drinking behaviors, so Merrill and Carey (2016) suggested that researchers consider the role of the environment when developing and implementing prevention and intervention strategies. In other words, it is just as possible for people in the college-age bracket of 19 to 27 years to become alcohol abusers (or even alcoholics) as individuals in higher age brackets. The impact of the college environment is the most pronounced when students are just beginning college; alcohol abuse is the most prevalent at that time (Merrill & Carey, 2016).

Regarding college life and drinking, another variable that should be considered is academic achievement. A common presumption is that people with high academic achievement are less likely to drink because they are ostensibly showing responsibility by achieving academically. Conway and DiPlacido (2015) found that consistent alcohol use and/or time away from studies (e.g., skipping class, etc.) led to a clear negative impact on GPA and other academic performance, as reported by students.

Different parenting styles can have different impacts on academic achievement as well as challenges related to alcoholism during the college years (Kenney et al., 2015). As expected, there are always outliers who abuse alcohol, despite their high academic achievement (Butler et al., 2012). Indeed, high academic achievers drink at times during their college education and may engage in celebratory binges in reaction to scoring well on tests or class assignments (Kenney et al., 2015).

Societal Factors and Alcohol Use

Social factors encouraging the consumption of alcohol include environment, family, and peer groups (Paul & Smith-Hunter, 2011). The strongest factor in adolescent alcohol consumption is peer pressure (Almodovar et al., 2006; Cornelis et al., 2014; Hendricks et al., 2015). Family dynamics also influence adolescent alcohol use, and adolescents with stronger family bonds will be less inclined to drink (Dunn et al., 2011).

Peer pressure becomes even more powerful as young people begin to spend less time with their families and parents and more time with their peers (Splete, 2008). Increasing peer pressure has been associated with the earlier consumption of alcohol and the increasing consumption of alcohol among young people ages 10 to 15 years. According to H. V. Miller (2010) as well as D. T. Miller and Prentice (2016), peer pressure occurs when individuals act or think in certain ways to conform to the group's social influence. In reality, it is little wonder that peers are so influential, based on the increasing time that adolescents spend with these individuals.

As youth transition from childhood to adolescence, peers and peer pressure play a greater role than parental influence in their decision making (Kroshus et al., 2015; H. V.

Miller, 2010; Simons-Morton & Farhat, 2010). The growing influence of peers on adolescents does not replace parental influence, which remains salient but lessens over time. Lashbrook (2000) concluded that even though parental socialization remains important, the balance between parents and peers varies depending on specific behaviors or beliefs, as well as family qualities, such as degree of bonding and closeness.

In addition, families remain an important factor in the consumption of alcohol among young people of all ages. The common element in group processes and group socialization is social identity (Moody & White, 2003). Group identity provides a solid arena for identity construction. Assimilation and norming are core group processes that can influence individual behaviors.

Framing alcohol abuse among emerging adults within a cultural context helps to highlight individual and social variables that can be used to identify the most effective intervention strategies, according to the National Research Council and Institute of Medicine & US Committee on the Prevention of Mental Disorders and Substance Abuse Among Children (as cited in O'Connell et al., 2017). Based on the U.S. Census of 2014, social groups are exposed to alcohol when they are young, especially during religious rituals (as cited in O'Connell et al., 2017). This early and ongoing exposure may normalize drinking and lead to an increased risk of alcohol abuse.

The embedding of alcohol in cultural rituals, for whatever reason, can lead to positive and negative consequences that depend on the manifestation and application involved. For example, Perez (2000) asserted that the infusion of alcohol into Mexican rituals and culture commonly leads to violence. A religious but non-Jewish example was

Tumwesigye et al.'s (2013) study to determine if religious views, or religiosity, had any causal link to alcohol consumption patterns in Uganda. They conducted an analysis of whether the alcohol consumption patterns of fishers in the Lake Victoria area changed in part or in whole because of their religious stances or rituals. Tumwesigye et al. actually found the opposite, namely, that people with low religiosity were 5 times more likely to have consumed alcohol in general.

Jewish youth are more likely to self-report their drinking habits than youth from other cultures such as the Arab culture (Sznitman et al., 2017). The CDC (2011) reported that male individuals were more inclined toward the excessive consumption of alcohol. The percentage of male individuals consuming alcohol for the first time before reaching early adolescence is higher than the percentage of adolescent females (i.e., 23.3% to 17.4%, respectively; CDC, 2011). However, the overall consumption rate, as reported by Jewish youth, was higher among female (74.2%) than in male youth (70.8%; CDC, 2011).

Self-reporting is considered a type of emotional experience among Jewish youth, and this social experience motive is the main reason for many Jewish youth to consume alcohol (Cooper et al., 1992). Finally, the underpinnings of group dynamics carry social comparison processes among intergroup members as well as various outgroups (R. Brown, 2000). There are ample supporting simulations from contemporary life, focusing on issues of social sense of belonging, crowd behavior, social conformity, group productivity, ethnic prejudice, conflict, and cooperation between groups.

Alcohol and Family

Family acceptance may influence the consumption of alcohol by emerging young adults (Messler & Quevillon, 2014). For instance, the perceptions of emerging young adults regarding their parents' approval may predict the young adults' frequency of alcohol consumption. Even though parental influence tends to lessen as the children mature, parents can still have a major influence on their children's consumption of alcohol after they leave home and transition to college. Aldomodovar et al. (2006) found that parental acceptance of the alcohol use of emerging young adults was linked to the drinking at a very young age, drunkenness, and binge drinking of these young adults.

As reported by Jewish youth, religion, culture, and perceived parenting style are factors influencing their consumption of alcohol, for example, alcohol use is considered integral to ceremonial purposes in the Jewish religion (Gately, 2008). According to Novak (2011), even very young adolescents in the Jewish community are encouraged to consume alcohol during ceremonies. The level of academic achievement also is influenced negatively by the consumption of alcohol at a young age. Jeynes (2006) reported on the lower academic achievement of students who consumed alcohol versus students who avoided it. Parenting, family, and peer pressure are the main sources of adolescents' adoption of drinking habits (T. L. Brown et al., 2007).

The family environment and the consumption of alcohol were the focus of King and Vidourek's (2010) study. Results of their study identified some differences in alcohol use among different ethnicities in the United States. In Loewenthal's (214) study, almost half (47.6%) of Hispanic adolescents reported having consumed alcohol during the

previous month in comparison to 47.3% of White adolescents and just over one third (34.5%) of African American adolescents. In the 1990s, Jews in the United States had a lower prevalence of alcohol consumption than other ethnic groups (Loewenthal, 2014). During this time, lifetime prevalence of alcohol use among Jewish men was 11.1% but 27.8% among individuals from other religious backgrounds (Loewenthal, 2014).

King and Vidourek (2010) also noted that when compared to White and African American families, drinking in Hispanic families begins at early ages, a factor that has been attributed to higher levels of alcohol consumption later in life. King and Vidourek found that 29% of Hispanic youth began drinking alcohol before the age of 13 years and that 21.5% of White youth began drinking before this age. Although there are small differences among different ethnic groups related to early alcohol use, earlier first use of alcohol has been linked consistently with higher rates of violence, suicide, delinquency, and alcohol use among adolescents. Individuals who began drinking before the age of 14 years had a significantly greater likelihood of developing alcohol dependence than those who began at age 21 years (Loewenthal**,** 2014).

More research may increase understanding of the factors influencing children's initial consumption of alcohol. More contemporary data have been inconclusive in determining whether children who first experiment with drinking when they are younger than age 12 years are at greater risk than those who initiate alcohol use ages 13 to 14 years (Splete, 2008). Social contexts, including drinking habits in the home and children's exposure to alcohol through mass media, contribute to children's attitudes toward alcohol and expectations of its effects (Splete, 2008).

Children in alcoholic families are at increased risk of developing alcohol-related problems. Based on data from the National Longitudinal Alcohol Epidemiologic Survey published in 2000, 15% of children ages 17 years and younger in the Unites States were living with at least one adult who met the criteria for alcohol abuse or dependence within a year of the survey (as cited in Splete, 2008). Although alcohol consumption at a young age is a problem, some parents choose to introduce children to responsible drinking patterns within a family context, so any public or school-based alcohol abuse prevention programs must take family and cultural considerations into account to be effective (Splete, 2008). Besides the family, other factors contribute to adolescents' attitudes about alcohol use.

Attitudes, Religion, and Alcohol Use

Despite the protective nature of religiosity advocating against substance use, social desirability may have mediated responses in prior studies (Kaplin, 2014). As adolescents mature, they also become more highly attuned to external societal influences and their perceptions of cultural messages from peers and the mass media (Splete, 2008). For instance, the results of Splete's (2008) study showed that even though children in Grade 3 associated alcohol consumption with undesirable outcomes (e.g., acting out of control), by the time these children turned 10 years old, they identified more positive attitudes toward alcohol consumption. Notwithstanding the powerful impact of peer pressure on adolescents, attitudes about alcohol consumption are shaped by the constant stream of media messages. Splete argued that because movies and television rarely show

the negative impact of alcohol consumption on adolescents, young adults may view alcohol consumption in a more positive light.

The communities that youth belong to also shape attitudes about alcohol. Although research has been sparse, certain cultures where alcohol is associated with family and religious events (e.g., Jewish and Italian cultures) and where becoming drunk is viewed negatively have demonstrated a lower prevalence of alcohol abuse (Castro et al., 2014). Social forces serve to shape adolescents' attitudes about alcohol consumption, and as these social forces are internalized, individual attitudes become more concrete. According to Baruch et al. (2015) and Levinson et al. (2017), alcohol and illegal drug use within the Jewish community has increased since 2005.

Chawla et al. (2007) examined personal attitudes as the mediator between the significance of religion and the consumption of alcohol. An internet-based survey was completed by the student participants ages 17 to 19 years to determine how much alcohol they had consumed and to identify the place of religion in their personal attitudes toward drinking. Chawla et al. discovered that personal factors were the biggest mediating factor between the significance of religion and the consumption of alcohol. The participants who held religion in high regard tended to hold negative attitudes toward the consumption of alcohol and did not drink. Participants who did not hold negative attitudes toward the consumption of alcohol tended to believe that religion was not vital, so they did not have reservations about consuming alcohol. Chawla et al.'s research was limited in that the participants were predominantly Christians, atheists, or individuals

who did not identify with particular religions. In addition, the response rate was low, and there was a possibility of selection bias.

Rollocks and Dass (2007) evaluated the influence of religion on the alcohol consumption of adolescents in Trinidad, Tobago, and St. Lucia. The sample comprised adolescents from several different religions who self-identified as Anglican, Roman Catholic, Seventh Day Adventist, Baptist, Pentecostal, Presbyterian, Muslim, and Hindu. Stratified random sampling was used, and adolescents from six schools completed the questionnaires. The predominant religion was Roman Catholicism. The Hindu students reported a higher level of use of alcohol than others in the sample, a result that concurred with previous studies (e.g., Luczak et al., 2002). The next highest reported level of alcohol consumption was among participants who self-identified as Muslim. However, in an earlier study, Rollocks and Dass did not find a statistically significant difference among ethnic groups regarding alcohol consumption.

Newman et al. (2006) conducted a study in Thailand and found that 28% of secondary school students practicing Buddhism did drink alcohol versus 35% of students within the same group who did not practice Buddhism. Members of Irish society also have different views about alcohol consumption when compared to other societies. Religious and sociocultural factors influence drinking patterns. In addition to extensive and powerful influences on young people's attitudes about alcohol consumption, parenting style has a major influence on adolescents' alcohol consumption.

General Parenting Effects on Children's Development

The dominance of the family unit on children's cognitive and social development has been the basis of child development studies and family studies for more than 5 decades (Berg et al., 2016). An analysis of the research to date gave me some useful insight into parenting style on emerging young adults. The first conclusion that I reached after reviewing the extant literature was that all family-based variables that can influence children's development (i.e., marital and sibling influences, parental dispositions, and sociocultural context that the family operates in) affect parent-child interactions. The second conclusion was that two main parenting dimensions essentially characterize all parent-child interactions: nurturance (i.e., warmth and encouragement) and control (i.e., discipline and supervision). Disturbances in any of these dimensions may have harsh and far-reaching effects on children's cognitive and socioemotional development through adulthood (Jackson-Newsom & Buchanan, 2008).

Parenting Style and Alcohol Use

Estep and Olson (2011) concluded that the type of parenting style can make significant differences to adolescents' behaviors, including frequency of alcohol consumption. Historically, four parenting styles have been identified consistently in the literature: permissive, authoritarian, authoritative/flexible, and neglectful/uninvolved (Baumrind, 1978).

Permissive

Permissive parents exert low levels of discipline and control with lower responsiveness and warmth than authoritarian and authoritative/flexible parents (Berg et

al., 2016). They are responsive, warm, accepting, and child centered, but nondemanding. They lack parental control and pay attention only to their children's physical needs (Baumrind, 1978). Their view of grades, for example, may be that any grade is acceptable, and they may fail to punish bad behavior that results in poor grades. These parents do not support or encourage their children's self-regulation and often fail to monitor or supervise the children's behavior. Permissive parents manifest no concern about their children's academic performance.

Authoritarian

Authoritarian parents exert higher levels of responsiveness, discipline, and control (Berg et al., 2016). They may, for example, punish their children for bad grades and not reward them for good grades. Authoritarian parents have high levels of demands that are unrealistic and not age appropriate. Despite high levels of responsiveness, authoritarian parents place high demands on their children, and their feedback is usually punitive in nature. Children with authoritarian parents have reported lower levels of alcohol use in comparison to children whose parents were permissive or neglectful (Berg et al., 2016).

Authoritative/Flexible

Authoritative/Flexible parents exert high levels of discipline and control, coupled with high levels of responsiveness and warmth (Estep & Olson, 2011). In this style of parenting, the parents praise good performance, thoughtfully discipline poor grades, and offer guidance on how grades can be improved (Ballantine, 2009; Baumrind, 1978). Authoritative/Flexible parenting is child centered and includes (a) high parental involvement, interest, and active participation in the lives of the children; (b) open

communication, trust and acceptance, and encouragement of psychological autonomy; and (c) awareness of where their children are, with whom, and what they are doing.

After examining the different parenting styles, Estep and Olson (2011) found that higher levels of authoritative/flexible parenting were associated with lower rates of alcohol consumption by the children. Parenting style also may determine children's response to advice about the use of alcohol (Ballantine, 2001).

Irrespective of the developmental outcomes examined (i.e., substance abuse, academic success, or body image), Simons-Morton et al. (2001) reported that children with authoritative/flexible parents performed better than children raised by parents who used other parenting styles. A more apparent outcome that Patock-Peckham and Morgan-Lopez (2006) found was in the area of underage alcohol consumption. These outcomes can be explained, at least in part, by the fact that children with authoritative/flexible parents learn early problem-solving approaches and ways to express themselves that serve as a protective factor against the psychological dysfunction that often precedes the misuse of alcohol in emerging adulthood (Patock-Peckham & Morgan-Lopez, 2006; Simons-Morton et al., 2001).

Authoritative/Flexible parents promote discipline and provide support, a good combination for building decision-making skills in young people (Ballantine, 2001). Good decision-making skills help children to make informed decisions when they are faced with important issues such as the use of alcohol or other substances (Steinberg et al., 1992). Not surprisingly, different outcomes for young people result from different parenting styles, and some styles are more effective for some purposes than others.

Parenting style can affect young people's social and psychological adjustments that can influence alcohol use and abuse (Ballantine, 2001).

Influence of Parenting Style

The effects of various parenting styles on children's behaviors have been an area of interest for researchers. As mentioned, research on early childhood development has identified four main parenting styles: neglectful, permissive, authoritarian, authoritative/flexible. Parenting style comprises attitudes communicated to children that create an emotional environment in which the behaviors of the parents are expressed (Ballantine, 2001). Parenting style usually communicates parents' attitudes toward their children rather than their attitudes about specific behaviors (Barnes et al., 2000). Authoritative/Flexible parents have the following basic characteristics:

- Expectations of obedience or compliance to parental rules and instructions.
- An open and interactive dialogue on the rules and instructions.
- A child-oriented style of parenting that features a warm relationship between the parent and the child (Ballantine, 2001).

Thus, according to Ballantine (2001), the authoritative/flexible parenting style produces positive effects. Authoritarian parenting has a similar approach to the authoritative/flexible style in terms of high expectations of obedience to parent rules and instructions; however, authoritarian parenting entails the use of more forceful techniques to gain compliance.

There is little to no open parent-child dialogue when parents ascribe to an authoritarian style, which is parent centered and results in a cold atmosphere, often with

negative effects. Permissive parenting has low behavioral expectations of children's compliance to rules and directions (Ballantine, 2001). Finally, neglectful parenting is similar to permissive parenting with low behavioral expectations, and the negative and harmful effects of neglectful parenting increase over time (Perozzi, 2007). Perozzi (2007) posited that parents might benefit from understanding how their children perceive them.

In determining the relationship between parenting style and the legitimacy of moral authority in terms of tobacco and alcohol abuse among young adolescents, Jackson (2002) noted that adolescents raised in authoritarian, permissive, or neglectful styles of parenting had a higher likelihood of denying parental authority and using alcohol and cigarettes. Adolescents raised in authoritative/flexible homes were 6 to 7 times more likely those who were raised in unresponsive or neglectful settings to deny parental authority concerning drug abuse (Estep & Olson, 2011). Highly demanding and highly responsive parenting approaches have been linked to adolescents who regarded their parents as being an important influence in terms of alcohol and tobacco use.

Jackson (2002) surveyed 1,220 students in Grade 6 and Grade 8 from a North Carolina school district. Students completed self-report questionnaires. The findings supported the results of the research of Baumrind (1978) and Darling and Steinberg (1993), both of whom concluded that authoritative/flexible parenting was closely linked to lower demands for freedom from parental authority during adolescence; therefore, adolescents with parents using an authoritative/flexible style of parenting had lower resistance to parental control or influence.

Patock-Peckham and Morgan-Lopez (2006) surveyed 421 college students in their study of parenting styles and identified an association among parent-child gender match, alcohol consumption, and parenting type. The parenting style of a parent of the same gender as the student exerted the most influence on the student's drug and alcohol use and the consequences of that use (Estep & Olson, 2011). Both sets of researchers concluded that high parent permissiveness correlated to high child impulsiveness. The researchers also found that when the fathers were more authoritative/flexible, their sons were less impulsive and that when mothers were more authoritarian, their daughters were more impulsive.

Even though authoritative/flexible and authoritarian parenting styles involve high levels of control, it is not the same type of control for both styles. The authoritative/flexible style includes more warmth than the authoritarian style of parenting rather than a lack of obedience- driven responsiveness. Williams and Hine (2002) sought to determine the likely effects of parent permissiveness on alcohol consumption and alcohol misuse rates among 320 Australian high school students. Specifically, they tried to ascertain if attitudes toward subjective norms, alcohol use, and perceived behavior control affected alcohol use. Williams and Hine found that three variables fully mediated the possible effects of parent variables on alcohol consumption by adolescents and that the meditational models were the same for male and female students.

In general, literature on parenting styles has suggested that the authoritative/flexible parenting style is the best for influencing adolescents' consumption of alcohol. It also seems that adolescents' perceptions of parenting style have more

influence than the parents' own perceptions of their parenting style (Williams & Hine, 2002). There is a need for further investigation into how parenting style influences adolescents' consumption of alcohol use based on gender of the adolescents.

In the current study, perceived parenting style was a variable of independent family systems. I expected to find that the authoritative/flexible parenting style would bring about lower levels of alcohol consumption and lower levels of binge drinking among emerging young adults. The aforementioned researchers expressed an interest in determining how parenting style, parental variables, and parental control are connected. Further research into these connections may facilitate the prediction of alcohol consumption and binge drinking among emerging young adults.

Parenting Influences on the Development of Alcohol Abuse and Dependence

Over the past 100 years, researchers have increasingly explored the role of the family in the development, prevention, course, and treatment of alcohol abuse and addiction or dependence (Sheridan, 1995). Many of these investigations have concentrated on children of alcoholics, who are usually more prone than the children of nonalcoholics to becoming alcoholics themselves. Grüber et al. (2007) studied alcohol consumption in adolescence to determine the importance of genetics; personality and other psychosocial traits; and the evaluation of other variables such as ethnicity, social class, and family structure.

The focus of my research was the influence of the family environment, especially perceived parenting style, related to the frequency of alcohol consumption by emerging young adults and subsequent dependence in adulthood. The focus of ongoing research in

this area has involved two types of family influences, namely, alcohol-specific and non-alcohol-specific effects. Alcohol-specific effects show the influence of parental use and abuse of alcohol on adolescents' use and abuse behavior. It is reasonable to posit that these influences are more pertinent to children of alcoholics than the children of nonalcoholics. In contrast, non-alcohol-specific effects entail more general characteristics of the family environment that are likely to increase adolescents' deviant behavior, including alcohol use, into adulthood (Grüber et al., 2007).

Parenting Effects on Alcohol Abuse of Offspring

Antisocial behavior, adolescent delinquency, child conduct disorder, and alcohol abuse have a close relationship to antisocial behavior and alcoholism in adulthood (Jacob & Leonard, 1994). Nearly 20% of alcoholics, for example, have antisocial personality disorder (ASPD), which is characterized by a persistent disregard for and infringement on or violation of the rights of others (Jacob & Leonard, 1994). ASPD-linked alcoholism is the most frequently encountered subtype of alcoholism. According to Jacob and Johnson (1997), the close relationship between alcoholism and ASPD implies that parent-child interactions that facilitate the development of antisocial behavior play a crucial role in the etiology of alcoholism of COAs and non-COAs. Therefore, researchers must consider investigating the mediating factors that can increase or decrease the risks associated with parental alcoholism, including parental personality, parent-child interactions, child personality, temperament, and comorbid parental symptomatology (Hanington et al., 2010).

Judaism and Alcohol Use

Alcohol has been used and abused by some civilizations since time immemorial. Jews, for instance, drink alcohol regularly, but not in excessive amounts, because of the role of alcohol in Judaism. In Judaism, alcohol is an essential part of Sabbath and other religious celebrations (Snyder, 1978). On the Sabbath day, a cup of wine is consumed in Kiddush during the commencement of each meal, and a cup of wine also is consumed in Havdalah at the end of Sabbath.

Indeed, Posner (2014) emphasized that

> Wine and intoxicating beverages are a fascinating subject when viewed from the Torah's perspective. On one hand, we use wine for Kiddush and Havdallah on Shabbat and Jewish holidays, and many *mitzvos* (good deeds) are accompanied by a cup of wine. Blessings are recited on a cup of wine beneath the chupah (wedding canopy), at a circumcision, at a Pidyon-Haben (the "Redemption of a Firstborn Son"), and let's not forget the four cups of wine we drink at the Passover Seder. (para. 1)

Similarly, alcohol is a major component of celebrations during other Jewish holidays. Snyder (1978) described how alcohol is a specific part of Purim, where it is suggested that one drink until he cannot distinguish between saying the words "Mordechai and Haman." Ceremonies such as weddings and other events also include alcohol (Davis, 2012). Little research has examined the variations between different sects within Judaism and the potential impact of these differences. Still, my personal observations suggest that reform Jews are largely assimilated; many of them are

intermarried with people from other cultures and have a more international view. Conservative Jews have similar views to Orthodox Jews concerning the consumption of alcohol. However, Orthodox Jews observe stricter adherence to laws than conservative and reform Jews do; therefore, it is easier and more widely acceptable for adolescents to drink within this sect (Davis, 2012). Similarly, other religions have different sects and denominations that have different views or practices regarding alcohol use (Rollocks & Dass, 2007).

Knight et al. (2007) sought to determine if there was an association between adolescents' consumption of alcohol and religiousness, or spirituality. Following a careful review of the extant literature, Knight et al. suggested that there was a gap in the available literature focusing on the protective factors offered by religion and its potential for positive outcomes. They pointed out that the factors of religiousness may be different from the factors of spirituality. Knight et al. posited that if physicians knew more about the religious and spiritual constructs of adolescents, they would be able to intervene with targeted counseling efforts for youth involved with drugs and alcohol. Participants in the study ranged in age from 12 to 18 years and were receiving routine care at three primary care clinics in a city along the East Coast of the United States. Knight et al. were practicing physicians at the clinics.

Knight et al.'s (2007) study was cross-sectional, prospective, and observational. The researchers used convenience sampling and were able to enroll 305 adolescents into the study. They invited only adolescents who could read and write English to participate, and they excluded patients with severe disease or complex psychological issues. Knight

et al. collected demographic information, along with each applicant's self-disclosed use of alcohol, cannabis, and other drugs. Each respondent also completed the Brief Multidimensional Measure of Religiousness/Spirituality and the Spiritual Connectedness Scale.

The resulting data provided information about the frequency of the spirituality scale scores. Knight et al. (2007) used logistic regression analysis to determine the strength of the relationship between alcohol consumption and spirituality. Results indicated that the spiritual construct of forgiveness was associated with a lower risk of alcohol consumption. Knight et al. "did not find that alcohol use during adolescence was significantly associated with religious preference" (p. 353), but they did point out that their study was not designed to fully examine the possible relationship.

Overall, Knight et al. (2007) concluded that forgiveness associated with religiosity could have a positive effect on adolescents' alcohol consumption and could be associated with a decreased frequency of drinking in young adults. Knight et al. asserted that forgiveness, which is positively associated with religiosity, could decrease the risk of excessive alcohol drinking during adolescence. Knight et al. suggested the need for additional research to explore this relationship fully. They noted, "Future studies should examine this question and further explore the relationship between various aspects of forgiveness and substance use during adolescence, as well as the relationship between forgiveness and other high-risk behaviors and mood states" (p. 355).

Because previous research had shown that impulsive adolescents are at higher risk of substance abuse and related disorders, Von Dieman et al. (2008) sought to determine if

there was an association among impulsivity, age at first drink, and substance use disorders in male adolescents. Von Dieman et al. described their study as case-control research, and they recruited participants from public health care centers in a smaller region of a big city in Brazil. They carried out face-to-face interviews with 63 male adolescents. Demographic information was gathered, and participants' substance abuse was measured using the Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview. The researchers used the Barratt Impulsivity Scale to measure impulsivity, and they asked the adolescents when they first willingly had a drink of alcohol to determine the age at which they began to drink. Von Dieman et al. determined the participants' religiousness by asking them if they felt that they were religious or not, which required a yes/no response.

Von Dieman et al. (2008) used logistical regression to analyze their participants' survey responses. Results indicated the more impulsive the subject, the greater the likelihood of substance use disorder. Age at first drink also was associated with substance use disorder, which matched the results of other studies. The respondents who had their first drink later in life had a statistically significant reduced risk of substance use disorders, with the chance of substance use disorder decreasing for each year that they delayed alcohol use. Von Dieman et al. also found that the higher the level of individual impulsivity, the greater was the risk of substance use disorder.

Unlike Knight et al. (2007), Von Dieman et al. (2008) failed to find a link between religiosity and substance abuse disorder. They did assert, however, that this finding could have been the result of the sociodemographic homogeneity of the sample.

Knight et al. called for future research to include longitudinal studies into the association between age at first drink and impulsivity.

Jewish culture is centered on rituals, and alcohol often plays a role in those rituals (Wasser, 2013). In the Orthodox Jewish community, alcohol is more readily available and is provided at almost every traditional ritual and ceremony. For example, a bris, the male circumcision ritual among Jews, is performed on the 8th day after birth. It is a reference to the circumcision of Abraham and the original Covenant with God (Glass, 1999). The rabbi and father of the boy being circumcised make a blessing on wine (Glasswell, 1974). It is customary for everyone at the ceremony to have a sip from the cup of blessed wine as a symbol of unity to the Jewish covenant.

Alcohol is present since the time of birth, so separating alcohol from Jewish ritual and custom is a difficult task. Traditions are part of the moral fabric of Jewish cultural and family life (Wasser, 2013). Judaism's vision is to communicate a morally sound way of life. As a collectivist community, members learn to foster feelings of connectedness to family, community, and the people of Israel. During the Sabbath, which lasts from Friday evening to Saturday evening, every traditional Orthodox Jewish home performs a minimum of three rituals involving wine (Landsberger, 1956). Alcoholic beverages are used for Kiddush, a special prayer made every week by the Sabbath table (Fogel, 2005). This ritual is performed at least twice over the weekend (Fogel, 2005). In addition, during many other celebrations, there is plenty of whiskey, wine, and beer available in Jewish households (Horowitz, 1999; Mitenbuler, 2015).

These religious views about alcohol consumption can become problematic when young Jewish people leave home to attend college. The powerful impact of peer pressure on the frequency of alcohol consumption has been well documented (Velleman, 2009). Research has indicated that social rules and interventions may be formed to address the secondhand impacts of high-risk consumption of alcohol and prejudice (Perkins, 2003; Velleman, 2009).

Alcohol consumption in an important part of Jewish culture. For example, bar mitzvahs and Jewish weddings have rituals that allow Jewish youth to drink alcohol (Poulson et al., 1998). In these traditional rituals, wine is a constant present (Velleman, 2004). Jewish children become acquainted with alcohol at a young age through older family members during Sabbath (Velleman, 2002). Many Jews grow up following this tradition of being blessed over wine and having a sip every week on the Sabbath. Judaism, however, advocates controlled alcohol consumption, and sacred scriptures warn against overindulgence (Velleman, 2002).

To continue the discussion on culture, families usually gather during these rituals, and adults become involved in alcohol drinking (Davis, 2012). When the children reach a certain age and attend these rituals, they are exposed to their parents' drinking behaviors. Some parents extend their consumption of alcohol from rituals to their homes and other public places. Through these behaviors, children model their parents' lifestyles as they grow through adolescence. Parenting lifestyle is highly affected by the rituals: Some parents will be strict with their children, but others will introduce their children to alcohol

consumption (Davis, 2012). These are important issues because alcohol consumption among adolescents and young adults, in general, is escalating.

There has been increased acknowledgment of alcohol consumption being a significant familial and social problem (Yang & Schaninger, 2010). The frequency of alcohol consumption has been a rising problem on college campuses in particular (Larimer & Cronce, 2007). Serious potential health consequences, the start of detrimental drinking patterns, the negative influences on families, and the cost to society are concerns expressed by professionals in multiple health care fields (Audrain-McGovern et al., 2004; Yang & Schaninger, 2010).

There is a need for additional research into youth drinking patterns in order to develop preventative strategies and interventions. The research must be culturally specific and age appropriate. The current study focused on the possible relationship between parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption by Jewish male and female youth ages 19 to 27 years. The results may offer suggestions for the development of treatment and prevention strategies.

Alcohol Use in the Jewish Religion

In Judaism, men have roles regarding alcohol use. Havdalah and Kiddush, two traditions of the Sabbath, are performed with an alcoholic beverage, preferably wine (Snyder, 1978). The head of the household, usually a man, carries out these customs (Snyder, 1978). As previously discussed, men would be encouraged to drink to intoxication during Purim.

Other researchers, including Bowden et al. (2017) and Shmulewitz et al. (2012), have identified gender differences in the Jewish community in regard to alcohol use. The researchers found that Jewish male individuals did not restrain themselves. Holmila and Raitasalo (2004) concluded that gender differences related to alcohol-related behaviors and tolerance for alcohol were the result of biological composition, gender-specific roles, and social attitudes, all of which are congruent with the religious practices in Judaism. These gender-related differences indicate that Jewish male adolescents may be at greater risk than their female counterparts of experiencing negative health care and psychological outcomes because of their higher levels of alcohol consumption.

Gender differences exist in alcohol-related behaviors and tolerance for alcohol (Bolland et al., 2016). For example, female individuals are more susceptible to abuse when they are under the influence of alcohol. Creating an even more adverse effect would be if the alcohol abuse began prior to reaching puberty (Bolland et al., 2016). During their adolescent years, girls do not become involved in high levels of alcohol consumption, but the common outcomes for prepubescent females' consumption of alcohol are generally worse than that of male individuals.

Adolescents who develop drinking habits tend to start a negative cycle through the adolescent years and demonstrate more negative behaviors than adolescents who start to consume alcohol later in their youth years or in adulthood (Dumas et al., 2013). Dumas et al. (2013) found strong evidence that women, more so than men, face more negative consequences in terms of patterns of alcohol consumption. For example, the prevalence

of unprotected sex increases greatly when women have been drinking, but the same is less likely true for men (Dumas et al., 2013).

Alcohol Use Among Jewish College Students

Researchers have conducted investigations into the relationship between religion and alcohol consumption by college students in institutions where Judaism has been among the religions represented. For instance, Peele (2006) reported that previous researchers had examined differences in the frequency and intensity of alcohol consumption among college students of different religious groups. Researchers have focused on the drinking patterns of Jews, specifically because of the perceived low levels of alcohol consumption in this group. Nie et al. (2017) concluded that total prohibition, as practiced by Mormons, could lead to greater drunk behavior than the religious attitudes toward alcohol espoused by Judaism could. The dearth of research in this area had made drawing causal inferences difficult, but it is evident that the individuals practicing Judaism hold specific attitudes toward alcohol based on their religious beliefs, rituals, and culture. In addition to assessing the relationship between perceived parenting style and the alcohol consumption of emerging young adults, I examined the possible role of involvement in Judaism in drinking patterns.

The prevalence of alcohol abuse among members of the U.S. Jewish community has been increasing over the past few decades (Loewenthal, 2014). For instance, in 1962, drug addiction and alcoholism among members of the Jewish community were “entirely absent” (Loewenthal, 2014, p. 975). Even though alcohol abuse has gained traction among the U.S. Jewish population, especially among students aged 19 to 27 years, it

remains difficult to estimate the prevalence of alcohol abuse among this population because of variations in studies. Studies on the subject matter have reported on a lifetime prevalence of the use and abuse of alcohol as well as addiction dependence and use (Loewenthal, 2014).

Various studies on alcoholism have focused on the Jewish community to determine how much knowledge Jewish people have about the subject (Avenevoli et al., 1999). Research is still in the preliminary stages because the frequency of alcohol consumption is on the rise not only in the U.S. Jewish community but also in society in general. The weakness of addressing the problem of frequency of alcohol consumption is that not many participants are available for studies because of their reluctance to deal with this matter. Many members of the Jewish community believe that alcohol addiction is not a valid issue in the Jewish population. They are incredulous and at times in denial regarding the degree of alcohol problems in their community (Loewenthal, 2014).

Summary and Conclusions

A careful review of the extant literature revealed that few studies on the frequency of alcohol consumption by Jewish college students exist. The lack of findings underscored the need for further research, such as the current study. The review of the literature highlighted the significant influence of the frequency of alcohol consumption by college youth on their overall drinking behaviors in later adulthood. Religion that has alcohol embedded in its rituals also was considered, along with the lack of research in the Jewish community.

Alcohol consumption by young emerging adults continues to be associated with such negative health effects as alcohol poisoning, miscarriage, cirrhosis of the liver, loss of family, unemployment, and psychiatric problems. The main reasons that adolescents engage in drinking are social/interpersonal, contextual/cultural, and individual. Researchers have identified various societal factors contributing to alcohol consumption among adults and emerging young adults: peer pressure, environment, and family. Peer pressure is the strongest factor influencing adolescents to engage in the consumption of alcohol.

Alcohol consumption is a common practice in the Jewish culture and has had great influence on Jewish college students ages 19 to 27 years. Various rituals in the Jewish culture involve the consumption of alcohol. In addition, researchers also have recognized parenting style also as a strong predictor of alcohol consumption behaviors. The three types of parenting styles identified in literature are permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible. Of these three parenting styles, authoritative/flexible is the most effective parenting style in preventing children from consuming alcohol.

This study extended current knowledge about alcohol consumption among Jewish youth. It highlighted the issue about parenting style, a significant determinant in the drinking behaviors of young adults. In other studies, the only factor considered has been the high prevalence of alcohol abuse among all adults. In most cases, this behavior was connected to changes in age or status. The current study, however, dug deeper into examining the influence of parenting style and even looking into the alcohol use of emerging Jewish adults, a population often neglected in such studies. I explored the

extant literature regarding the relationship between perceived parenting style and attitudes toward frequency of alcohol consumption by young Jewish emerging adults. Studies on this topic have shown that even though Judaism acts as a protective factor, it also influences adolescents' decision to start drinking (Werzberger, 2008). The ease of access to and abundance of alcohol in Judaism also play significant roles (Werzberger, 2008).

In Chapter 3, I discuss the method used to measure the influence of parenting style on the frequency of alcohol consumption by Jewish youth. Chapter 3 also includes details about the quantitative methodology; research design; and drinking frequency, GPA, and parenting style. I explain the results of the data analysis in Chapter 4, and the results, recommendations for future research, and implications for social change are presented in Chapter 5.

Chapter 3: Research Method

As noted in Chapter 1, the purpose of this quantitative survey research was to examine the influence of the IV of perceived parenting style on the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption by U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. To develop informed and timely answers to the RQs, this chapter provides details about the methodology that I used to confirm or refute the hypotheses. Also discussed are the control variables of GPA and gender. This chapter reiterates the RQs and hypotheses; describes the target population and sample; provides comprehensive descriptions of the AUDIT (Dawson et al., 2012) and the PAQ (Buri, 1991); explains the data collection and analysis procedures, reiterates the limitations, and discusses the ethical considerations.

Research Design and Rationale

I conducted this quantitative study following a cross-sectional multiple regression design to facilitate exploration of the RQs and to gain deeper insight into the case under investigation. A cross-sectional multiple regression design was the most appropriate choice to achieve multiple perspectives and generate a broader understanding of the issue. This study will further current understanding of the influence of perceived parenting style on the social lives of their children, especially the frequency of alcohol consumption.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years?

H_{01}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years.

H_{a1}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years.

RQ2: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA?

H_{02}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA.

H_{a2}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA.

RQ3: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender?

H_{03}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender.

H_{a3}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender.

I tested the null hypotheses using multiple regression analysis in SPSS. The IV was perceived parenting style; the DV, which was measured using the AUDIT score, was frequency of alcohol consumption; and the control variables were GPA and gender.

Methodology

Population and Sample

According to Tighe et al. (2013), 6.8 million Jewish adults and children reside in the United States, 20% of whom live in the state of New York. A power analysis with a 5% margin of error and a 95% (p = .80) confidence level required approximately 201 student respondents (RaoSoft, 2016). The SurveyMonkey platform sample comprised 200 U.S. Jewish male and female participants ages 19 to 27 years who were required to read and sign the informed consent before completing the online survey. Because the survey also was designed to measure parenting style (PAQ; Buri, 1991), it was necessary to have a sample of students willing to comment on their own drinking habits as well as share their perceptions of their parents' parenting styles. U.S. Jewish male and female participants comprised the sample. The participants came from different family backgrounds, most of which were two-parent households, but background did not negate the possibility of participants from single-parent households being in the sample.

To keep the participant pool as narrow and focused as possible, and to avoid sample or selection bias, I did not select students outside of university attendance as

participants. Students had to be attending a 4-year university or college on a full- or part-time basis. This criterion made the results of the study more convenient and reliable. Adults in their 30s were not eligible to be in the study because their recollections of their parents' parenting style might have been too vague to be of value. I informed the participants that they had the right to withdraw from the survey at any time without any repercussions.

The nature of this study was a self-selected convenient quantitative method of multiple regression via the SurveyMonkey platform using two instruments: the PAQ (Buri, 1991) and the AUDIT (Dawson et al., 2012). I used these instruments to construct a survey to examine the variable relationships to develop informed answers to the RQs and to confirm or refute the hypotheses.

Buri (1991) developed the PAQ to measure the perceived parental styles of permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible from the point of view of the child. The PAQ holds 30 items, 10 for each parenting style. The AUDIT (Dawson et al., 2012) is a survey that researchers ask adults to complete to identify risky drinking behaviors, including quantity and frequency of use. The AUDIT was developed by the WHO and thus has a high degree of external validity. I used the SurveyMonkey platform as a national probability sample identifier of the U.S. Jewish population in the data collection.

The IV was perceived parenting style (i.e., permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible), which was measured by the PAQ (Buri, 1991). The validity and reliability of the PAQ were established by Buri (1991). The DV was the frequency of alcohol consumption, as measured by the AUDIT (Dawson et al., 2012). The WHO

recommended use of the AUDIT to identify excessive alcohol use/dependence and "provide a framework for intervention" because it was designed for health care practitioners in a "range of health settings" (Babor et al., 2001, p. 371).

Instruments

Participants completed the AUDIT (Babor et al., 2001) and the PAQ (Buri, 1991) instruments online.

AUDIT

The AUDIT, which was developed by the WHO, is a 10-item survey used to ask adults to identify risky drinking behaviors, including quantity and frequency of use. Although the test was developed specifically for use with populations that had already been identified as having drinking problems, it remains a reliable measure of risk (Babor & Grant, 1989). The AUDIT (Babor et al., 2001) survey typically is administered to patients in primary care, including those in emergency or acute patient settings, or to criminals in court. Because of the high level of internal and external validity of the AUDIT, the instrument proved useful in the current study.

The AUDIT has a high degree of external validity confirmed by Dybeck et al. (2006), who noted that the reliability of item-level scores ranged from .39 (for Item 9) to .98 (for Item 10). Approximately 47 articles reviewed by Meneses-Gaya (2009) have already confirmed that the AUDIT is a reliable and efficient measurement to identify drinking problems among adults. These articles were based on the evaluations of studies conducted with adolescents, young adults, adults, and elderly individuals. The AUDIT was compared to other instruments used for screening in various contexts involving age,

gender, and ethnicity. The AUDIT yielded the best sensitivity (Meneses-Gaya, 2009). The AUDIT (Babor et al., 2001) has shown higher levels of specificity and sensitivity in adolescents when compared to other questionnaires.

Patton et al. (2014) conducted a study to determine the efficacy of the AUDIT. Results indicated that the instrument was the most suitable for brief adolescent intervention and alcohol screening. In the case of adolescents, AUDIT specificities range between 65% and 97%, and sensitivities range between 54% and 87%; most findings belonged to the lower limit of the specificity and sensitivity range, and hence, are suboptimal in effective screening (Patton et al., 2014).

One benefit of the AUDIT (Dybeck et al., 2006) is that it is a brief and unintimidating survey that takes 3 to 5 minutes to complete. The eight questions have a 5-point Likert scale of responses ranging from 0 (*never*) to 4 (*daily or almost daily*). The higher the score, the higher the level of alcohol dependence is indicated for that participant. Questions 9 and 10 have a range of three responses: 0, 2, and 4. A score of 8 or more is considered hazardous drinking, or harmful drinking (Dybeck et al., 2006). A score of 15 or more for male participants indicates alcohol dependence.

PAQ

Buri (1991) developed the PAQ to measure the main parental styles of permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible from the point of view of the child. The survey holds 30 items, 10 for each parenting style. The PAQ, which requires 10 to 15 minutes to complete, holds 30 items and asks respondents to assess the parental behaviors of their fathers and mothers on a 5-point Likert scale of responses ranging from 1

(*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Higher response numbers for particular scales indicate higher confirmation of the assessed parenting style (Kordi & Baharundin, 2010). Sample questions include the following:

- "As I was growing up, my mother did not allow me to question any decision she had made."
- "Whenever my mother told me to do something as I was growing up, she expected me to do it immediately."

Reitman et al. (2002) identified an average of 90% of the authoritarian scale items and 83% for the permissive scale items, both of which all loaded above .30. These researchers found that the authoritative/flexible scale diverged across demographic samples, but this was not as an issue in the current study because of the homogeneity of the sample. Norm testing was included in my evaluation of the survey.

Buri (1991) took parental warmth and nurturance into consideration when developing the PAQ. Buri found correlations with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Leite & Beretvas, 2005) indicating that the PAQ is not particularly vulnerable to social desirability response biases, or what the participant believes the tester wants. This issue was taken into consideration for the current research. Alumran et al. (2014) tested the PAQ for internal validity, consistency, and discriminant-related reliability. Higher appraised levels of parenting style used resulted in higher scores for the parental authority prototype (Reitman et al., 2002).

Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

I invited university students to participate in the study using a link to SurveyMonkey. Based on the estimated 7 million members of the U.S. Jewish adult population, I determined that a power analysis with a 5% margin of error and a 95% confidence level required a sample of approximately 201 participants (RaoSoft, 2016). These students had to be U.S. Jewish male and female individuals ages 19 to 27 years who were attending a 4-year university, college, or rabbinical college (for males).

I selected the participants through SurveyMonkey's targeted sampling method to obtain a sample of 200 U.S. Jewish emerging young adults (to determine a sample entry of at least 200 completed surveys) through the SurveyMonkey platform and then enter the data into SPSS. Participants were obtained from SurveyMonkey with a soliciting email address, after which the participants were given the survey. The informed consent advised the participants of their right to withdraw their application to participate without penalty. After I obtained their informed consent, the survey, which comprised the PAQ and the AUDIT, was administered online. I configured the SurveyMonkey software to require each participant to answer all questions.

Measurement

I tabulated, collected, and entered the survey responses into SPSS for analysis. I assigned each survey a numeric identifier. The AUDIT (Dawson et al., 2012) and PAQ (Buri, 1991) responses were relatively easy to measure. Regarding the AUDIT, the participants rated their drinking habits on a Likert-like scale allowing for nuanced responses that were still quantitative in nature. I tabulated each score regarding frequency

of alcohol consumption to provide a cogent score that I used to assess drinking from self-reports rather than observations. The 10-item AUDIT yielded singular scores for the participants that were relatively simple to analyze statistically. In the AUDIT, even though the respondents may have varied in their interpretations of their own drinking habits, the numerical responses ensured measurability of the data.

The PAQ (Buri, 1991) measures perceived parental style (i.e., permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible) from a child's perspective. In the current study, the responses were based on the participants' recollections of their parents' perceived parenting style from their childhoods or from watching younger siblings. Perceived parenting style was found to be related to various factors that I measured for in the study.

Data Analysis and Presentation

I used multiple regression analysis to assess the statistical relationship among perceived parenting style, frequency of alcohol consumption, gender, and GPA. I obtained the data from a sample of male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years from the U.S. Jewish community living in a large northeastern state. I made the data available to all dissertation committee members.

Quantitative Data Analysis

To conduct the analysis, I grouped the raw data from the completed surveys into SPSS. There was high scrutiny of the completed surveys that ensured the accuracy and consistency of the data to facilitate coding and tabulations. The data were coded and quantified using G*Power v.3.1 (Faul et al., 2014). The data are available in Chapter 4 as tables and figures. Data cleaning involves three processes: screening, diagnosing, and

identifying outliers in the data. I actively checked any missing data in a planned way, and I screened the survey responses. I found no outliers in the data.

As already noted, the study was guided by three RQs and their hypotheses:

RQ1: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years?

H_{01}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years.

H_{a1}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years.

I tested Null Hypothesis 1 using multiple regression analysis. The IV was perceived parenting style, and the DV was frequency of alcohol consumption.

RQ2: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA?

H_{02}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA.

H_{a2}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA.

I tested Null Hypothesis 2 using multiple regression analysis. The IV was perceived parenting style, the DV was the frequency of alcohol consumption, as measured by the AUDIT score, and the control variable was GPA.

RQ3: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender?

H_{03}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender.

H_{a3}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender.

I tested Null Hypothesis 3 using multiple regression analysis. The IV was perceived parenting style; the DV was the frequency of alcohol consumption, as measured by the AUDIT score; and the control variable was gender.

Threats to Validity

The study could have faced threats to external validity. Potential participants had to receive information about the study so that they could give informed consent to join

the study. Some threats to internal validity such as self-report bias and recall bias may have existed during the study (Alumran et al., 2014).

When answering the survey, some participants may have exaggerated their answers to give the impression of a positive outcome; others may have downplayed the severity of the situation, resulting in self-report bias. Participants typically use recall to remember something that may have happened in the past. Human memory is not always reliable, so some participants may not have provided accurate information about parenting style or events that happened in their childhoods (Alumran et al., 2014). The survey questions were as specific as possible to jog the participants' memories. Participants were encouraged to answer the questions honestly. There was a possible source of threat from the various limitations involved in the study such as bias. Measures put in place could only limit these causes of error, not fully eliminate them.

Because the study had a low level of external validity, the results may not be generalizable to Jewish communities outside of the United States. The SurveyMonkey platform incorporated online techniques to conduct the survey. This online platform facilitated my ability to reach all of the participants. The process was economical because there were no extra costs incurred while collecting the data from the participants, many of whom were dispersed throughout the large northeastern state where the study was conducted.

The respondents had privacy and freedom to answer the survey questions. The survey site did not require any personal details from the respondents, so they were free to

answer or not answer the questions as they wished. The process was time saving because SurveyMonkey complied the online survey results.

I conducted the survey with a large sample taken from the target population to reduce the margin of error and deal with potentially malicious respondents. Unlike other survey methods, the online survey protocol was more accurate because of SurveyMonkey's reputable platform. The margin of error in the process was relatively small compared to other survey methods. SurveyMonkey is used frequently by researchers who cannot reach their samples physically. The tool allows researchers to conduct surveys and participants to answer surveys from the comfort of their homes or offices. The process can be used equally as well when the respondents are widely dispersed.

Ethical Procedures

Before collecting any data, I had to receive approval from Walden University's Institutional Review Board to conduct the study (IRB approval #07-31-18-0266676). I obtained informed consent from the participants via a secure form on SurveyMonkey. The form also included an explanation of the study and the participants' right to withdraw without any repercussions. After I obtained informed consent from the participants, SurveyMonkey administered the survey online with both scales of measurements and questions about demographics and GPA. Because the study did not involve a bivariate analysis of an intervention with a control group, I had no significant ethical concerns about the study because the anonymity ensured that being in the study and answering the survey questions posed little to no risk to the participants. However, to ensure the

confidentiality of the participants' responses, I assigned each completed survey a numeric identifier.

The survey data were collected and stored on the SurveyMonkey platform and were retained until the data analysis was completed. My committee members and I had access to the collected data. Organizing and sorting the data took me 3 weeks. I will store the data for a minimum of 5 years, as per Walden University's IRB requirements. The IRB reviewed the recruitment processes and materials to ensure that they met specific ethical considerations: a clear and concise description of the study, respect for the participants' privacy, lack of unnecessary influence or undue pressure, and objective presentation of the completed study.

Summary

This chapter included an explanation of the nature of the study and an overview of the method of analysis. In this chapter, I reiterated the RQs and hypotheses, and I provided details about the target population, the sample, and the data collection protocol. Details about the participants were followed by a discussion of the limitations of the study. An assessment of the limitations and ethical considerations concluded the chapter. I present the results of the study in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative survey study was to identify the parenting styles associated with the frequency of alcohol consumption among U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. I also studied the relationship between the frequency of alcohol consumption of U.S. Jewish male and female youth ages 19 to 27 years (self-reported criteria of the study) by asking the participants to complete the PAQ (Buri, 1991) to measure their perceptions of their parents' parenting styles and an AUDIT questionnaire (Dawson et al., 2012) that measured potentially hazardous or safe alcohol consumption.

The study was guided by three RQs and their corresponding hypotheses:

RQ1: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years?

H_{01}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years.

H_{a1}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years.

RQ2: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA?

H_{02}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA.

H_{a2}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA.

RQ3: What is the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender?

H_{03}: There is no relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender.

H_{a3}: There is a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender.

This chapter provides a summary of the sample, demographic information about the participants, and detailed descriptive and correlational statistics that confirmed or refuted the hypotheses. I used the PAQ (Buri, 1991) and AUDIT (Dawson et al., 2012) scores to obtain data from 138 Jewish male and female college student ages 19 to 27 years. I used multiple regression analysis to assess the statistical relationship among perceived parenting style, frequency of alcohol consumption, gender, and GPA of college students ages 19 to 27 years old from the Jewish community residing in a large

northeastern U.S. state. The PAQ assigned individual scores to the participants' parents indicating the extent to which they exhibited one of the perceived parenting styles: permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible. Grüber et al. (2007) acknowledged that the influence of parenting style is related to alcohol use, abuse, and subsequent dependence in adulthood. The first section of the chapter provides information about the demographics of the participants.

Data Collection

From July 2018 to July 2019, I invited university students to participate in the study using a link to SurveyMonkey. Based on the estimated 7 million members of the U.S. Jewish adult population, I determined that a power analysis with a 5% margin of error and a 95% confidence level required a sample of approximately 201 participants (RaoSoft, 2016). These students had to be U.S. Jewish male and female individuals ages 19 to 27 years who were attending a 4-year university, college, or rabbinical college (for males).

I selected the participants through SurveyMonkey's targeted sampling method to obtain a sample of 200 U.S. Jewish emerging young adults (to determine a sample entry of at least 200 completed surveys) through the SurveyMonkey platform and then enter the data into SPSS. Participants were obtained from SurveyMonkey with a soliciting email address, after which the participants were given the survey. The informed consent advised the participants of their right to withdraw their application to participate without penalty. After I obtained their informed consent, the survey, which comprised the PAQ and the AUDIT, was administered online. I configured the SurveyMonkey software to

require each participant to answer all questions. From the total of 200 responses, only 138 participants completed the survey. I analyzed the responses to these 138 completed surveys.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

I computed descriptive statistics to determine the relationship between the IV of perceived parenting style and the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption, as measured by the AUDIT. The control variables were GPA and gender. The data set and descriptive analysis are displayed in Table 1 as mean, median, mode, and standard deviation for each variable. Self-reported GPA ranged between 0.0 and 4.0. The AUDIT scores ranged from 0.0 to 5.0, and parenting style scores ranged from 1.0 to 5.0, regardless of style.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

		PAQ				
		Permissive	Authoritarian	Authoritative/ flexible	AUDIT	GPA
No. of participants		*M*/*SD* *Mdn*/Mode	*M*/*SD* *Mdn*/Mode	*M*/*SD* *Mdn*/Mode	*M*/*SD* *Mdn*/Mode	*M*/*SD* *Mdn*/Mode
Total	138	2.47/0.51 2.50/2.75	3.06/0.74 2.95/3.05	3.34/0.72 3.50/3.70	2.99/2.93 2.00/0.00	3.57/0.37 3.70/3.90
Female	60	2.56/0.49 2.60/2.75	2.98/0.67 2.90/3.05	3.44/0.66 3.63/3.70	1.32/1.66 1.00/0.00	3.58/0.36 3.70/3.80
Male	78	2.40/0.52 2.40/3.00	3.12/0.78 3.00/2.75	3.27/0.75 3.35/3.60	4.28/3.05 4.00/2.00	3.56/0.39 3.70/3.90

Demographics of the Sample

A total of 138 Jewish participants between the ages of 19 and 27 years comprised the sample. Of the 138 participants, 56.5% (n = 78) were male students, and 43.5%

(n = 60) were female students attending college or university. They were purposefully sampled, and they had previously read and signed the informed consent form as part of the online survey. The participants completed the PAQ and the AUDIT on SurveyMonkey. The participants were able to access the survey on the SurveyMonkey platform through invitation emails distributed by media advertising that included professors' email addresses at local colleges with significant Jewish populations. In addition, I posted invitations in WhatsApp groups with significant numbers of the target population.

The sample appeared to be representative of the target population because the Jewish male participants in this study had a statistically significant higher consumption of alcohol than their female counterparts, as evidenced in the review of the results of previous studies. This result may not have been proportional to the larger Jewish population because there was a clear gap in external validity (i.e., no statistically significant results for this study in reference to parenting style being related to alcohol consumption). A future study with a larger sample would be more quantifiable in terms of determining external validity. This recommendation is noted in Chapter 5.

Respondents' Academic Qualifications

I screened all participants to ensure that they had been enrolled in a college or university for at least 1 year. All participants acknowledged this fact, which meant that they also had to self-report a minimum GPA of 2.0, as per compliance with FERPA (2017).

Ages of the Respondents

According to Arnett (2007), individuals between the ages of 18 and 26 years are considered emerging adults. Munsey (2006) defined emerging adults as being in the in-between age range of 18 to 29 years. I chose to focus on emerging adults between the ages of 19 and 27 years. Age was a selection criterion, not a variable. I did not record the specific ages of the participants. I screened them only to ensure that they were ages 19 to 27 years and had a minimum of 1 year's attendance at college or university.

Data Cleaning

I programmed SurveyMonkey to disregard data that were incomplete, so all participants were required to answer all of the survey items for their data to be analyzed. SurveyMonkey was set up so that if a question was unanswered, that particular survey was not included in the data set. Cleansing of the data occurred on the front end due to my setting up SurveyMonkey to accept only completed surveys. In addition, I screened the resulting data to ensure that each interval-level variable (GPA and permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible parenting style) was within two standard deviations above or below the mean. I did not detect any outliers.

Verifications of Assumptions

The data involved two types of analysis: calculation of Pearson correlation coefficients and multiple regression. In this section is a discussion of the assumptions associated with these analyses. Before evaluating the RQs, I evaluated the assumptions of the analyses.

Pearson Correlation Assumptions

Calculation of a Pearson correlation coefficient requires that four assumptions be met: related pairs, level of measurement, no outliers, and linearity. The level of measurement assumption requires that each variable be either an interval or a ratio level of measurement. The related pairs assumption requires each value from the first variable to have a paired value with the second variable. The assumption of no outliers requires that no single data point is far away from the other data points. In practice, this means that no data point should lie more than 3.29 standard deviations from the mean. The assumption of linearity holds unless a scatter plot of the data clearly reveals a curve or bend.

When investigating the relationship between perceived parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption by U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years (RQ1), I calculated three Pearson correlation coefficients, one for the influence of each parenting style on the frequency of alcohol consumption. The level of measurement assumption was valid for each coefficient. I computed each of the variables involved (permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible parenting style, and frequency of alcohol consumption) as a scale consisting of multiple Likert scale questions. These variables were interval levels of measurement.

The related pairs assumption was valid for each coefficient. Because I computed all variables from responses given by individual participants, the necessary related pairs existed. The assumption of no outliers was valid for each correlation because the maximum permissive parenting style value was 2.2 standard deviations above the mean

and the minimum value was 2.4 standard deviations below the mean. The maximum authoritarian parenting style value above the mean was 2.6, and the minimum value was 2.3 standard deviation below the mean. The maximum authoritative/flexible parenting style value above the mean was 1.9, and the minimum value was 3.1 standard deviation below the mean. The maximum frequency of alcohol consumption value above the mean was 2.7, and the minimum value was 1.0 standard deviation below the mean. In all cases, no data point was more than 3.29 standard deviations away from the mean.

Finally, the assumption of linearity was valid in each case. Figures 2, 3, and 4 display scatter plots of excessive alcohol intake for each parenting style. In each case, no discernable structure was present in the scatter plot. Because there was no discernable structure, there was no curve or bend, either. The only way to violate the assumption of linearity was the presence of a curve or bend in the scatter plot, so the assumption of linearity was valid. Table 2 displays a summary of the correlations for the variables in the study.

Table 2

Pearson's Correlation Matrix for All Study Variables

Variable	Gender	GPA	AUDIT	Permissive	Authoritarian	Authoritative/ flexible
Gender	1 (0)	-0.023	0.504***	-0.150	0.096	-0.118
GPA		1 (0)	-0.066	0.065	-0.132	0.066
AUDIT			1 (0)	-0.042	0.162	-0.141
Permissive				1 (0)	-0.429***	0.146
Authoritarian					1 (0)	-0.506***
Auth/flex						1 (0)

***$p < .001$ (all < .8)

Figure 2

Scatter Plot of Influence of Permissive Parenting Style on Frequency of Alcohol Consumption

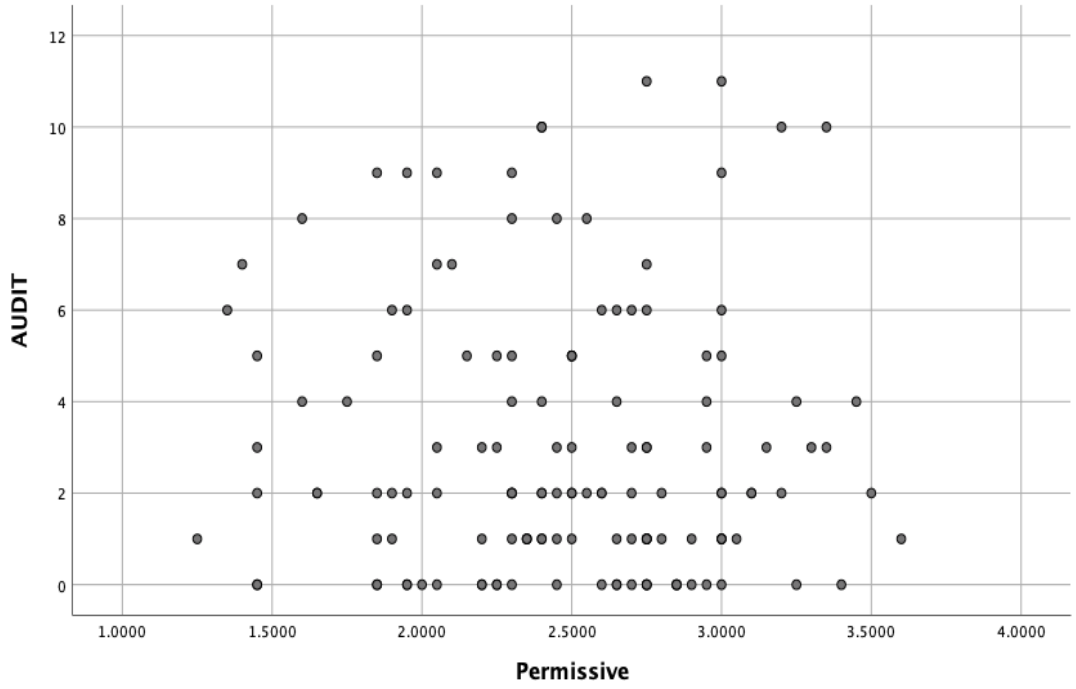


Figure 3

Scatter Plot of Influence of Authoritarian Parenting Style on Frequency of Alcohol Consumption

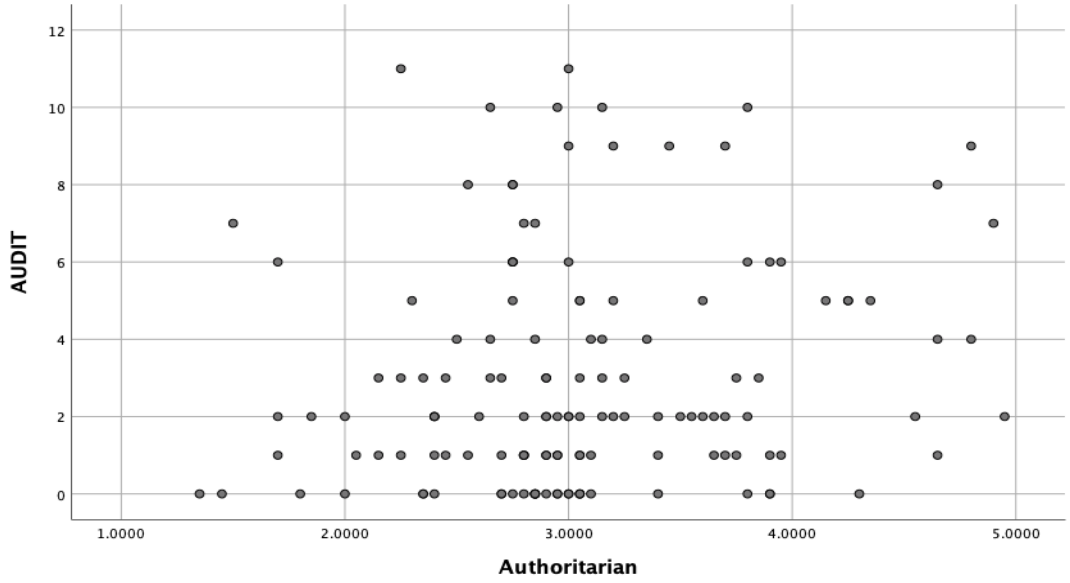
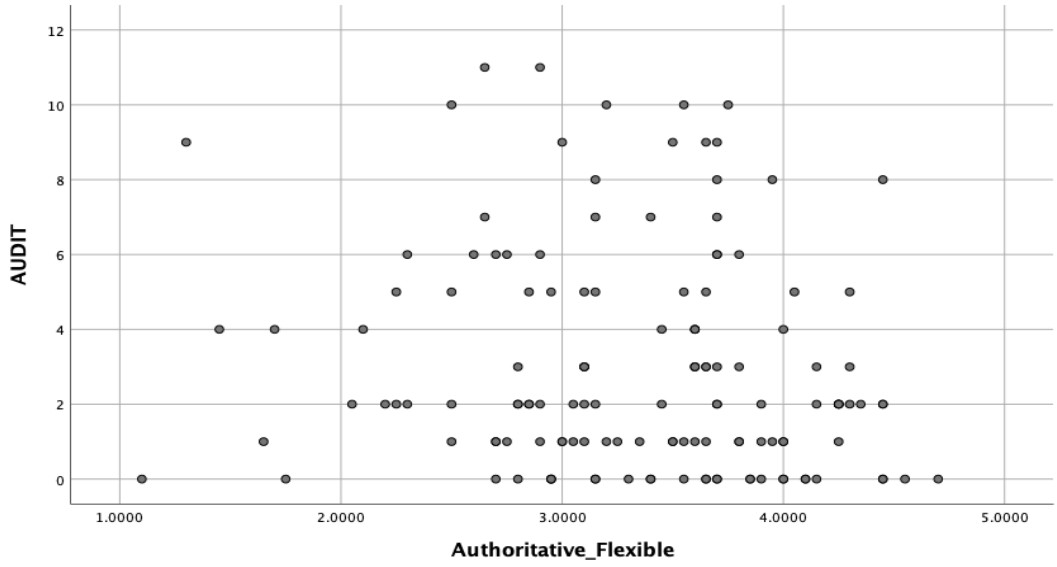


Figure 4

Scatter Plot of Influence of Authoritative/Flexible Parenting Style on Frequency of Alcohol Consumption



Multiple Regression Assumptions

A multiple regression analysis requires four assumptions to be valid: linear relationship, normally distributed residuals, no multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity. The assumption of linear relationship holds unless a scatter plot of one of the IVs and the DV clearly reveals a curve or bend. The assumption of normally distributed residuals requires that the difference between predicted and observed values (the residuals) be normally distributed. In practice, the validity of this assumption is verified by examining a P-P plot to determine whether the observed residuals are consistent with a normal distribution. The assumption of no multicollinearity requires that no pair of IVs is strongly correlated. In practice, this means that the absolute value of the Pearson correlation coefficient for each pair of IVs should be less than 0.80. Finally, the assumption of homoscedasticity, meaning "same variance," requires that the size of the residuals not be related to the predicted value of the DV.

Regarding RQ1 (What is the relationship between perceived parenting style [permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible] and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years?), I conducted a multiple regression analysis with the IV of perceived parenting style and the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption, as measured by the AUDIT score. The linear relationship assumption was valid, as noted previously, by examining the scatter plots in Figures 2, 3, and 4. The assumption of normally distributed residuals was valid, which was verified by confirming that the data points closely followed the line in the p-p (probability plot) plot presented in Figure 5. The assumption of no multicollinearity was

valid because all Pearson correlation coefficients related to the IV had absolute values less than 0.80 (see Table 2). The assumption of homoscedasticity was valid because the scatter plot of standardized residuals versus standardized predicted values (see Figure 6) showed no obvious change in the range of residual values as a function of predicted values (AUDIT).

Figure 5

P-P Plot for Regression Residuals for RQ1

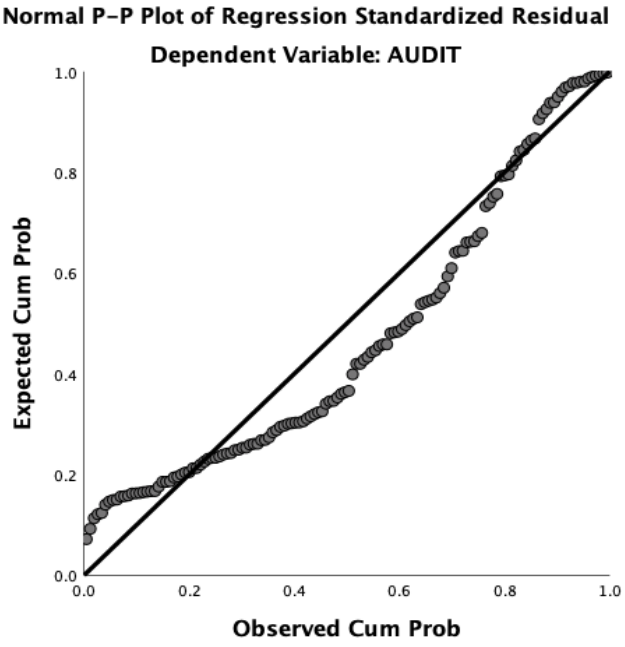
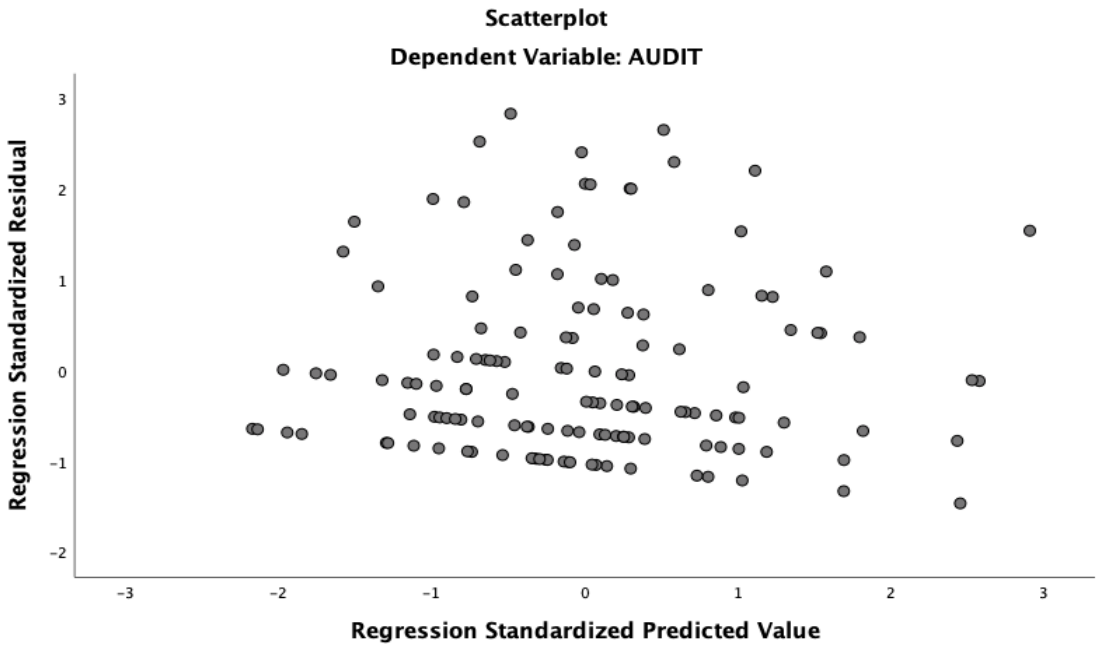


Figure 6

Test of Homoscedasticity Assumption for RQ1



Regarding RQ2 (What is the relationship between perceived parenting style [permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible] and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA?), I conducted a multiple regression analysis with the IV of perceived parenting style; the control variable of GPA; and the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption, as measured by the AUDIT score. The assumption of a linear relationship was valid by examining the scatter plots in Figures 2, 3, 4, and 7. The assumption of normally distributed residuals was valid, which was verified by confirming that the data points closely followed the line in the p-p plot in Figure 8. The assumption of no multicollinearity was valid because all Pearson correlation coefficients related to the IV had absolute values less than 0.80 (see Table 2). The assumption of

homoscedasticity was valid because a scatter plot of standardized residuals versus standardized predicted values showed no obvious change in the range of residual values as a function of predicted values (see Figure 9).

Figure 7

Scatter Plot of Frequency of Alcohol Consumption Versus GPA

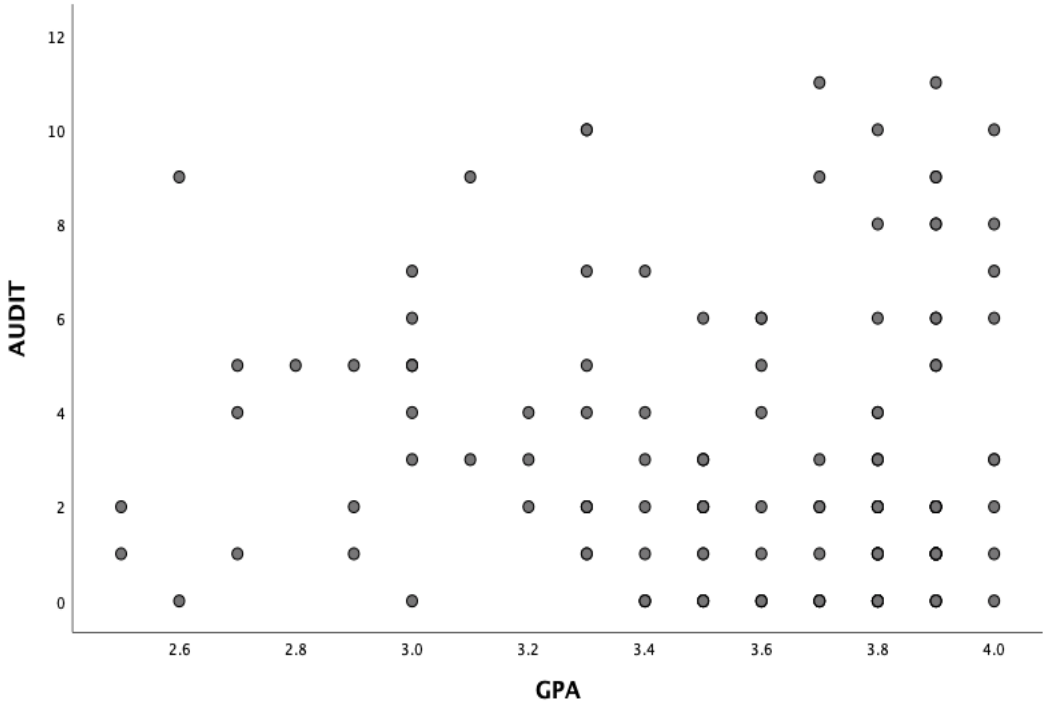


Figure 8

P-P plot for Regression Residuals for RQ2

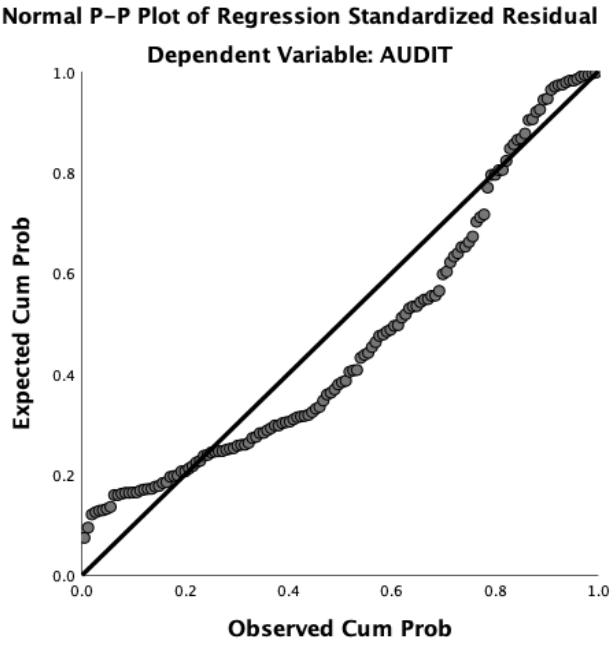
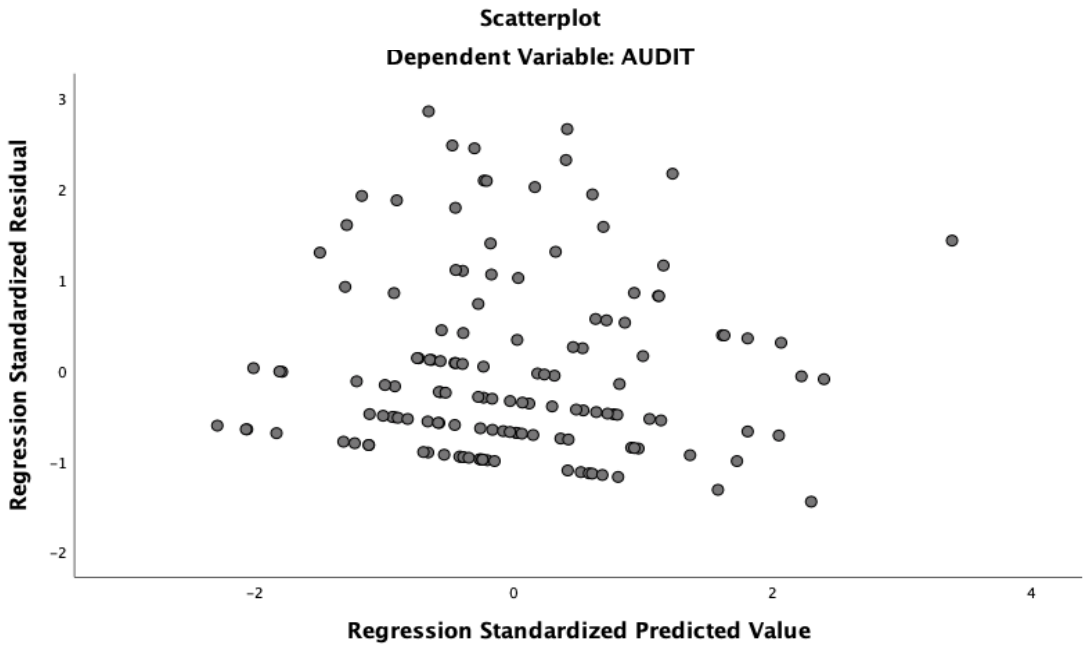


Figure 9

Test of Homoscedasticity Assumption for RQ2



Regarding RQ3 (What is the relationship between perceived parenting style [permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible] and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender?), I conducted a multiple regression analysis with the IV of perceived parenting style, control variable of gender, and the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption. The assumption of linear relationship was found to be valid by examining the scatter plots in Figures 2, 3, 4, and 10. The assumption of normally distributed residuals was valid, which was verified by confirming that the data points closely followed the line in the P-P plot presented in Figure 11. The assumption of no multicollinearity was valid because all Pearson correlation coefficients related to the IVs had absolute values less than 0.80, as reported in Table 2. The assumption of

homoscedasticity was valid because a scatter plot of standardized residuals versus standardized predicted values (see Figure 12) showed no obvious change in the range of residual values as a function of predicted values.

Figure 10

Scatter Plot of Frequency of Alcohol Consumption Versus Gender

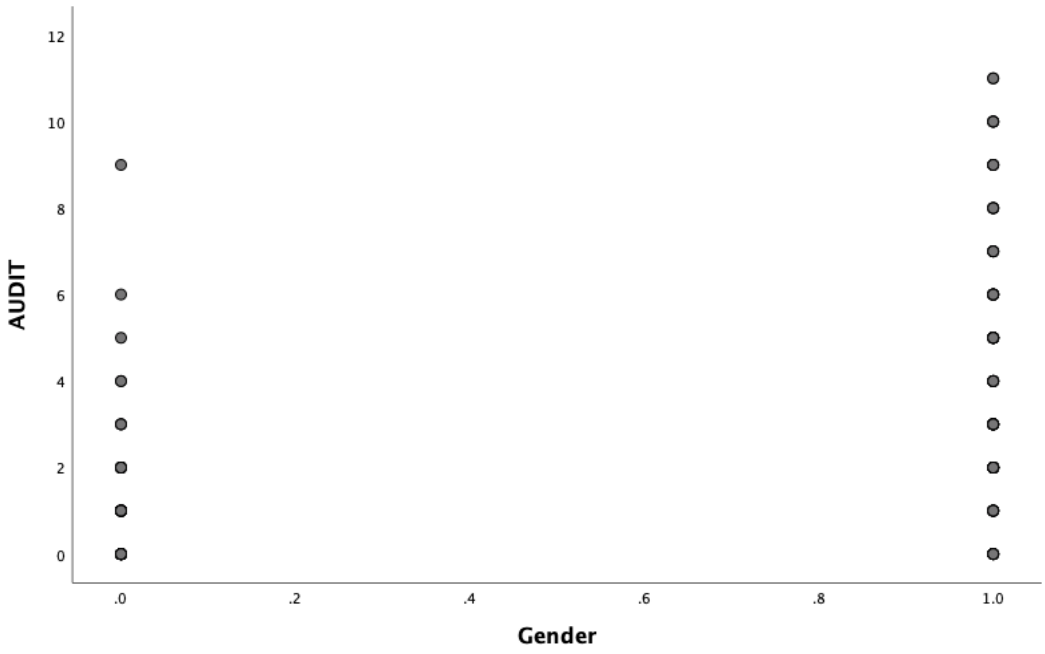


Figure 11

P-P Plot for Regression Residuals for RQ3

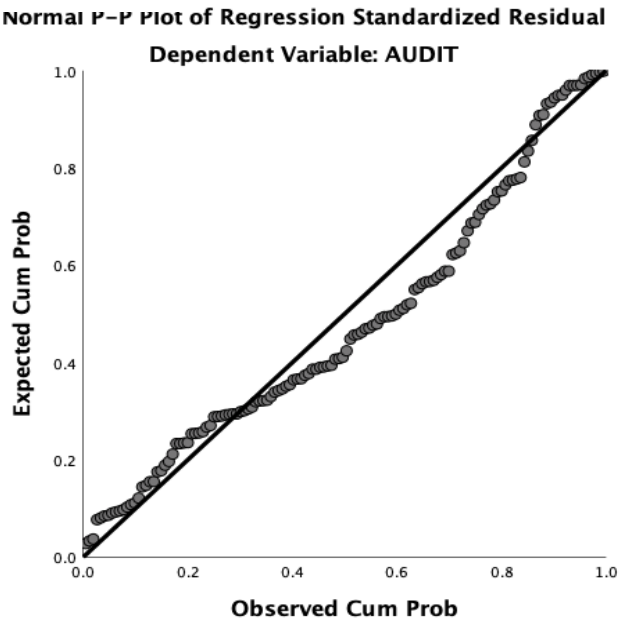
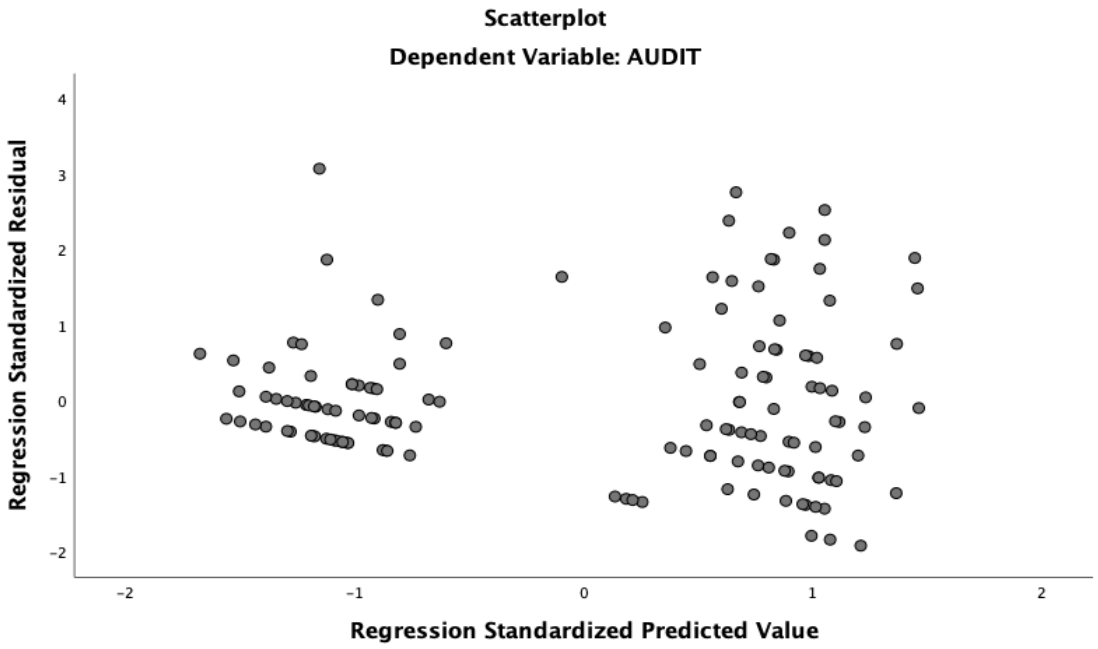


Figure 12

Test for Homoscedasticity Assumption for RQ3



Correlational Analysis

I found significant correlations between authoritarian and permissive parenting styles (R = -.429, p < .001) as well as authoritarian and authoritative/flexible parenting styles (R = -.506, p < .001). In both cases, the relationships were considered quite strong, but not strong enough to violate multicollinearity in later regressions analysis (Berg et al., 2016; Estep & Olson, 2011). There were no significant relationships between any other IVs.

I examined the RQs first with a Pearson correlation analysis. The analysis of RQ1 (What is the relationship between perceived parenting style [permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible] and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and

female college students ages 19 to 27 years?) found no significant relationship between permissive parenting style and frequency of alcohol consumption (R = -.042, p = .624). The analysis of RQ2 (What is the relationship between perceived parenting style [permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible] and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for GPA?) found no significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style and the participants' frequency of alcohol consumption (R = .162, p = .058). The analysis of RQ3 (What is the relationship between perceived parenting style [permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible] and the frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years after controlling for gender?) found no significant relationship between authoritative/flexible parenting style and the participants' frequency of alcohol consumption (R = -.141, p = .100; see Table 2).

Regression Analysis

The sample comprised 138 U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. I investigated the IV of perceived parenting style using Buri's (1991), I used AUDIT scores to measure the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption, and I used GPA and gender as control variables. To substantiate the level at which the IV affected the DV, I conducted a multiple regression analysis. The results are displayed in tables in this section.

During the multiple regression analysis, I did not find perceived parenting style to be a statistically significant predictor of frequency of alcohol consumption (R = .177, p = .232). In this model, none of the three parenting styles was a significant predictor of

frequency of alcohol consumption. I retained Null Hypothesis 1 because there was no relationship between the IV (perceived parenting style of permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the DV (frequency of alcohol consumption; see Table 3).

Table 3

Predicting Frequency of Alcohol Consumption Based on Parenting Styles

R	R^2	Sig.	Predictor	β	Sig.
.177	.031	0.232	Permissive	0.027	0.778
			Authoritarian	0.134	0.217
			Auth/flex	-0.076	0.441

Hierarchical Regression

The rationale for using hierarchical regression was based on there being no statistically significant results between the IV of perceived parenting style and the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption, as measured by the AUDIT score. For the next stages of assessment, I controlled for academic achievement and gender, but the data still yielded no significant relationship among perceived parenting style, GPA, or frequency of alcohol consumption, despite the multiple regressions also not being statistically significant. Once again, granted the entire hypothesis remaining the same, I completed the hierarchical regression controlling for gender and GPA to investigate if the data would change or remain the same.

Controlling For GPA

To complete the regression analysis, I used the participants' self-reported GPA to operationalize academic achievement mentioned in Hypothesis 2. I conducted a hierarchical regression analysis, which involves adding variables to multiple regression models. Model 1 used the control variable GPA as the IV and frequency of alcohol

consumption as the DV. Model 2 retained the DV and used permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible parenting styles as additional IVs. To determine whether parenting style was predictive of frequency of alcohol consumption after controlling for GPA, I compared Model 2 to Model 1 to determine whether it was a significantly better model. The statistical results for the two models (see Table 4) indicated that neither model was statistically significant (p = .444 and .336, respectively). In both models concerning the GPA of the students, I found the significance value to be higher than the critical p-value of .05. Therefore, I retained Null Hypothesis 2.

Table 4

Perceived Parenting Style Self-Reported Alcohol Intake Controlling for GPA

Model	R	R^2	Sig.	Sig. change	Predictor	β	Sig.
1	.066	.004	0.444	0.444	GPA	-0.066	0.444
2	.183	.033	0.336	0.266	GPA	-0.045	0.598
					Permissive	0.027	0.775
					Authoritarian	0.129	0.241
					Auth/Flex	-0.076	0.443

Controlling For Gender

To test Hypothesis 3, I conducted a hierarchical regression analysis, which involved comparing two multiple regression models. Model 1 used the control variable of gender as the IV and excessive alcohol intake as the DV. Model 2 retained the DV and featured permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible parenting styles as additional IVs. To determine whether parenting style was predictive of excess alcohol use after controlling for gender, I compared Model 2 to Model 1 to determine if it was a significantly better model. I found the two models (see Table 5) to be statistically significant ($p \leq .001$ for both models). However, Model 2 was not found to be

significantly better than Model 1 (p = .273). Therefore, Null Hypothesis 3 was still retained because there was no statistically significant relationship between perceived parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption after controlling for gender. The results only confirmed a significant relationship between gender and the frequency of alcohol consumption by U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years, with male students exhibiting greater alcohol use than females.

Table 5

Perceived Parenting Style and Frequency of Alcohol Consumption Controlling for Gender

Model	R	R^2	Sig.	Sig. change	Predictor	β	Sig.
1	.504	.254	< 0.001	< .001	Gender	.504	< .001
2	.525	.275	< 0.001	.273	Gender	.502	< .001
					Permissive	.098	.237
					Authoritarian	.144	.129
					Auth/flex	-.023	.791

Summary

Based on the analysis of the data, I retained Null Hypothesis 1 (i.e., there is no relationship between perceived parenting style and frequency of alcohol consumption [R = .018, p = .839]) and Null Hypothesis 2 (i.e., there is no relationship between perceived parenting style and frequency of alcohol consumption after controlling for GPA [R = .115, p = .198]), and I did not retain Null Hypothesis 3 (i.e., there is no relationship between perceived parenting style and alcohol use after controlling for gender [R = .100, p = .261]). For RQ2, there was no significant relationship between GPA and frequency of alcohol consumption by U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. I retained Null Hypothesis 2 that there was no relationship between GPA and frequency of alcohol consumption (R = .071, p = .426). However, in

reference to RQ3, when controlling for gender, I found a 47significant relationship between gender and frequency of alcohol consumption ($R = .467$, $p < .001$).

The analysis also showed a significant relationship between permissive and authoritarian parenting styles ($r = -.429$, $p < .001$), indicating a strong negative linear correlation between these two parenting styles, which meant that parents who demonstrated one of these parenting styles were likely to demonstrate less of the other parenting styles. The analysis also showed a statistically significant relationship between authoritarian and authoritative/flexible parenting styles ($r = -.506$, $p < .001$), indicating a strong negative linear correlation between these two parenting styles, which again meant that parents who strongly demonstrated one of these parenting styles were less likely to strongly demonstrate the other parenting style. In all other remaining analyses, I found no significant linear correlation.

Generally, the results showed no statistically significant relationship between perceived parenting style and frequency of alcohol consumption by U.S. Jewish college male and female students ages 19 to 27 years. However, the results did show a significant association between gender and frequency of alcohol consumption by this cohort, accurately representing the target population. Thus, gender was the more meaningful of the two control variables in the study, demonstrating a higher drinking frequency by male participants than female participants. I discuss the implications of these findings in Chapter 5, along with details about the purpose of the study, my interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, and implications for social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine the relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and the frequency of alcohol consumption of U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. I specifically wanted to identify the parenting styles associated with the college students' frequency of alcohol consumption. I also examined the influence of the control variables of GPA and gender. The results showed that perceived parenting style was not significantly associated with the frequency of alcohol consumption by U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. However, the results did indicate a strong statistical association between frequency of alcohol consumption and gender of the participants.

Interpretation of the Findings

These findings have a number of important implications because of the increased consumption of alcohol among emerging young adult Jews since 2005 (Baruch et al., 2015; Levinson et al., 2017). The results of the current study identified male gender as a strong determinant in the frequency of alcohol consumption by emerging young Jewish adults. Similar to my results, Baruch et al. (2015) found that the male participants in their study who drank were more likely to drink excessively as adults, a situation that could lead to mental and physical health problems in adulthood. Their results were supported by Tang and Moje (2010), who asserted that male individuals are 3 times more likely than their female counterparts to consume alcohol. The results of these studies indicated that perceived parenting style had no direct influence on the frequency of alcohol

consumption. I expected that the authoritative/flexible parenting style would have resulted in lower levels of alcohol consumption in general and binge drinking in particular. I also was interested in determining how parenting style, parental variables, and parental control were connected. Further research into these connections may facilitate the prediction of alcohol use and binge drinking by adolescents and emerging young adults attending college.

There are various explanations for these results. To begin with, I used Bowlby's (1978) attachment theory to gain further insight into its focus on parent-child relationships, which have been found as having an effect on attitudes about alcohol. Attachment theory refers to the bonds and relations between and among individuals, especially lasting relationships such as parent-child bonds and associations between couples (Bowlby, 1978).

Bandura's (2011) social learning theory focuses on social interactions that explain the influences of the social environment on cognitive decision-making skills and coping skills. These social variables extend to decisions about the frequency of alcohol consumption that may escalate to alcoholism. These ideas may provide more insight into the need to find a way to measure the influence of parenting style on alcohol consumption.

Baumrind's (2005) parenting styles model postulates that parenting style is related to issues such as the ability of emerging young adults to withstand peer pressure and to develop a positive self-image indicating self-regulation regarding alcohol use. Even though parenting style was found not to be directly or significantly related to the

frequency of alcohol consumption in the current study, Bandura (2011) asserted that it may have a mediating effect on helping students to cope with peer pressure and other factors that could result in excessive alcohol consumption. Baumrind's (1991) parenting styles model and its elements of permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible parenting approaches formed the basis of my study.

Contrary to other what researchers have found, Ballantine (2001) asserted that perceived parenting style did influence the degree and frequency of self-reported alcohol use by college-age students. Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model also influence the degree and frequency of alcohol consumption. Similarly, Baumrind (2005) clarified that parenting style has been identified as a dominant factor in children's behavior.

Choon et al. (2013) asserted that even though parent–child interactions change as the children mature, their attachment style does not typically change. This contention was consistent with Baumrind's (1991, 2005) parenting styles model. Specifically, an authoritative/flexible parenting style can mediate the frequency of alcohol consumption by adolescents. Baumrind (1991, 2005) indicated that, according to the parenting styles model, authoritarian parents tend to focus on obedience and control by using punishment and demanding unquestioning obedience from their children. The permissive parenting style has a high level of responsiveness and is less demanding than the authoritative/flexible and authoritarian parenting styles.

The results of the current study showed that perceived parenting style did not have a direct significant relationship on the frequency of alcohol consumption by the

participants. The results also indicated that parenting style did not significantly decrease the consumption of alcohol among U.S. Jewish college students ages 19 to 27 years. I found no significant linear correlation between the value of the IV of perceived parenting style and a reduction in the consumption of alcohol by the participants. Splete (2008) argued that peer pressure becomes even more powerful as young people mature and begin to spend less time with their families and parents and more time with their peers. In their earlier research, Moody and White (2003) also found that group processes and group socialization encouraged commonality between individuals while deepening a sense of personal and social identity.

Researchers also have identified age as a significant determinant among other factors contributing to the consumption of alcohol among Jewish emerging adults. Findings have noted that individuals between the ages of 15 and 29 years are highly susceptible to failure in academic performance. According to Baruch et al. (2015) and Levinson et al. (2017), social forces shape adolescents' attitudes toward alcohol use and that as these social forces are internalized, individual attitudes become more concrete. It is for the same reasons that there has been an increase in alcohol and illegal drug use within the U.S. Jewish community since 2005.

The results presented in Chapter 4 showed that the male participants were significantly more likely than their female counterparts to consume alcohol, irrespective of parenting style. Permissive parents, although responsive, place few boundaries or demands on their children (Baumrind, 1991, 2005). Moody and White (2003) argued that young children sometimes must make some decisions that are not age appropriate,

despite their not yet being able developmentally to engage in such an activity. When these children mature into young adults, they may continue making questionable decisions, such as consuming too much alcohol (Koning et al., 2012). Male and female adults who perceived the parenting style of their parents as permissive have reported significantly higher levels of alcohol use (Baumrind, 1991, 2005).

Authoritative/Flexible parents tend to exercise a parenting style that contains elements of being the most nurturing, having age-appropriate expectations, and having the best effect on emerging young adults' self-esteem than those of authoritarian and permissive parents (Baumrind, 1991, 2005). This parenting style has a positive effect on young people's self-esteem, self-reliance, and emotional security. Authoritative/Flexible parenting is a style that has led to reduced alcohol use among emerging young adults (Baumrind, 1991, 2005).

The results of the current study demonstrated that Null Hypothesis 3 could not be retained. It is important to point out that parenting style did not have a significant effect on gender based on the insignificant mean and standard deviation differences between males and females. Consistent with the results presented by Baruch et al. (2015) and Levinson et al. (2017), perceived parenting style in the current study was not shown to have an effect on self-reported frequency of alcohol consumption, regardless of gender of the participants.

Parenting Style and Frequency of Alcohol Consumption

RQ1 asked about the relationship between perceived parenting style and the self-reported frequency of alcohol consumption by U.S. Jewish male and female college

students ages 19 to 27 years. Null Hypothesis 1 posited that there was no relationship between the IV of perceived parenting style and the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students. The results supported retaining Null Hypothesis 1. However, these results deviated from the findings of Estep and Olson (2011), who reported that higher levels of the authoritative/flexible parenting style were associated with lower rates of alcohol use.

Ballantine (2001) suggested that children's perceptions of their parents' parenting style may have a high degree of accuracy. According to Ballantine, parenting style determines a child's response to advice about the use of alcohol. Berg et al. (2016) found that children with authoritarian parents reported lower levels of alcohol use when compared to children whose parents were permissive or neglectful. These mixed findings could be explained by the mediating role of parenting style in the consumption of alcohol among the young Jewish population.

I sought to determine whether a relationship existed between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and frequency of alcohol consumption among U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. When considering all three parenting styles (permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative/flexible) as predictors of alcohol use, the analysis showed that they were not significant predictors. These results supported retaining Null Hypothesis 1 that there was no significant relationship between the IV of perceived parenting style and the DV of frequency of alcohol consumption of Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years.

I also wanted to test whether there was a relationship between perceived parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and frequency of alcohol consumption after controlling for GPA. I found no statistically significant relationship, so I retained Null Hypothesis 2. I further investigated whether there was a relationship between parenting style (permissive, authoritarian, or authoritative/flexible) and alcohol use after controlling for gender. The results showed that there was no significant relationship, so I did not retain Null Hypothesis 3. However, when considering gender alone, the results showed that it was a moderately positive significant predictor of alcohol use because its *p* value was less than .05.

GPA and Gender and Frequency of Alcohol Consumption

Null Hypothesis 2 stated that there was no significant relationship between GPA and the frequency of alcohol consumption of U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. The results confirmed that there was no significant relationship between GPA and frequency of alcohol consumption. These results were partly supported by different studies on the effect of frequency of alcohol consumption and academic performance. For instance, Conway and DiPlacido (2015) indicated that when students reported consistent alcohol use and/or time away from studies (e.g., skipping class, etc.), the results showed a clear negative impact on GPA and other academic performance. In considering GPA alone for this study, the results showed that it was not a significant predictor of frequency of alcohol consumption. Kenney et al. (2015) contended that high academic achievers also drink sometimes during their college education and may engage in celebratory binges in reaction to scoring well on tests or in

class. This result was supported by Wechsler et al. (2002), who argued that for members of the Jewish community, accessibility and social influence play a role in frequency of alcohol consumption.

When controlling for gender, the results showed a significant relationship between gender and frequency of alcohol consumption. These results concurred with those of Levin (2014), who found that Jewish male individuals tended to drink earlier than their female counterparts because they learned from the adults and the Jewish culture. These results were supported by Levinson et al. (2017), who estimated that slightly more than 10% of Jewish students in high school had used alcohol and that the gender disparity was similar for Jewish male and female students.

Snyder (1978) posited that Jewish male children start drinking at the early age of 8 days during the circumcision ceremony. Unlike other variables, the results of Snyder's study showed a strong relationship between gender and alcohol use ($R = .467$, $p < .001$). Gender is a critical factor in determining alcohol consumption or dependency. According to my findings, it was evident that men had higher rates of alcohol consumption when compared to women in the targeted community.

Limitations of the Study

The study had a small sample obtained from the target minority population that was not easy to access. The small sample of 138 participants increased the margin of error, which could have reduced the accuracy of the results because of sample bias. A larger sample might have reduced the margin of error significantly and provided more accurate findings. Only 138 of the 200 surveys were completed correctly and were used

in the analysis of the data. Some participants decided to leave some questions unanswered, whereas others opted to withdraw early from the study.

Another limitation of this study was convenience sampling. I used a SurveyMonkey convenience sampling method, which could have introduced self-selection bias and affected the generalizability of the results to provide an accurate description of the entire Jewish population in the United States. Selection bias, that is, choosing a sample that was not representative of the target population, also could have affected the results. Selection bias also could have had an impact on the participation of extant subgroups of Jews who identified as Ultra-Orthodox, Orthodox, Modern Orthodox, and Reform. The Ultra-Orthodox subgroup might not have been included in this study, given their more restrictive cultural upbringing and limited access to media, internet, social media, and so on. Gaining access to this population might be a consideration for future researchers that may add a significant cluster to the PAQ (Buri, 1991). Perceived parenting styles may not have been an accurate representation of actual parenting styles and may have been a possible explanation for the results of the current study contradicting the results of other studies indicating that the frequency of alcohol consumption was statistically significant among college youth, as noted earlier in this chapter.

Lastly, the study had limitations relevant to threats to external validity. I told the participants about the study prior to data collection, so they had a preview of the study (Babor & Grant, 1989). Sometimes participants may provide aspirational responses instead of factual responses, meaning that the effects of the study may have given the

participants the opportunity to make changes to their survey answers (Bolland et al., 2016). Therefore, the results may not have been a true representation of the analysis of their survey responses. A blinded study could have been used to improve the external validity of the study, considering that I was the data collector as well as the researcher conducting the study. As far as confounders, as a scholar practitioner of social change, I focused close attention on the scientific results to report them accurately.

Recommendations

To investigate whether parenting style has the same or a different influence on the frequency of alcohol consumption as on other drugs such as marijuana, hashish, cocaine, heroin, and so on, parenting styles within the Jewish community could be further investigated as an isolated variable in families who self-identify as Orthodox, Ultra-Orthodox, Modern Orthodox, or Reform, and/or Jewish but not religious. It would be interesting to find out how peer pressure, parenting style, GPA, and the frequency of alcohol consumption might measure up against the influence of parenting style by gathering data from a larger sample or a very large sample. Particularly, Baumrind's (1978) parenting styles model was developed near the end of the 1970s, but because parenting has evolved since then, one recommendation is to measure the current accuracy of the model against when the model was first established (Babor & Grant, 1989). The fact that more individuals communicate via technology such as Teleconference, Facetime, Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and so on, should be considered.

Helicopter parenting has received recent attention in the research literature, but it still does not have well-established criteria. When it becomes normed and properly

measurable, it would be noteworthy to view parents who score on the higher end to compare differences from Baumrind's (1978) parenting styles model (Bolland et al., 2016). Analyzing differences may include higher end scores from Baumrind's parenting styles model to potentially differentiate higher end scores from helicopter parenting participants. For this to be in place, there would need to be an established instrument to measure helicopter parenting criteria. The possibility for developing a good standard for helicopter parenting criteria also remains open. Are individuals who score at the higher end of helicopter parenting engaging in their own pathology? How many parents of Baumrind's parenting styles model engage in pathology, and can researchers find links between them? It may be worthwhile to investigate the prevalence of some parenting styles being more favorable to specific types of pathology (Badiani et al., 2017).

Thus, parents who scored on the high end of either parenting style, to exclude the general population of parents who did not score on the higher end of any subscale of parenting on Baumrind's (1978) parenting styles model and see how those results would measure up against peer pressure with college-age students' substance use and academic achievement. College-age students' high-end substance use also could be investigated correlating to their family dynamic in reference to parenting style, possibly getting an exaggerated response with known substance use/abuse disorders (possibly but not limited to a clinical setting), triggering a clearer understanding of parenting style influence.

Because some participants did not answer some of the survey questions and others chose to withdraw early from the study, I recommend that another study be conducted using a larger and more representative sample of respondents chosen from an expanded

geographical area in or outside of the United States. This broader selection of participants may help to minimize any form of bias or error in the results. The results of another study could confirm the validity and reliability of this study. I also suggest collecting qualitative data from the target population to learn more about their lived experiences specific to the variables of interest.

Implications

The findings have significant implications. Comparing the frequency of alcohol consumption in the U.S. Jewish community to the national average would present a clear picture of the extent of alcohol use among the Jewish population and perhaps raise alarm and awareness of the extent of the problem. The average alcohol use among Jewish individuals is lower when compared to the U.S. national alcohol use average of 57.2% for full-time college students between the age of 18 and 22 years (Badiani et al., 2017). The national average also shows that about 60.4% of male adults over the age of 18 years use alcohol and that 51.6% of female adults over the age of 18 years use alcohol. These percentages are reflective of alcohol consumption in the U.S. Jewish community, with male individuals consuming alcohol more frequently than female individuals. In addition, according to SAMHSA (2017), young adults ages 18 to 25 years representing about 10.1% of the Jewish population in the state of New York were heavy alcohol users in 2016. The numbers of Jewish college students using alcohol is no difference from the national average of college students using alcohol. The national average is worrisome, so something should be done to reduce the negative effects of alcohol use and abuse on health (SAMHSA, 2017).

Community synagogues should engage young Jewish males in various programs that can help them to make sound decisions about alcohol use. They should be provided with ample psychoeducation tools and prevention counseling so that they can feel comfortable rejecting the excessive frequency of alcohol consumption. They should be encouraged to make decisions themselves whether they wish to consume alcohol, or not. They should be provided with clear information from educated professionals on the health hazards and other consequences of alcohol consumption. Frequency of alcohol consumption by young Jewish males could result in adverse mental and physical health problems. Therefore, young male individuals should be targeted for awareness or intervention by community-based organizations and governmental bodies.

The key positive social change implication was that the results of this study may help to reduce the incidence of substance use and abuse specifically related to alcohol. Parents also need to receive education so that they can become aware of the ways that their own behaviors may influence their children. By having open discussions about drugs and alcohol, parents may become more diligent in monitoring their own alcohol consumption. Because Jewish people have alcohol embedded in their culture, gaining awareness of the issue of frequency of alcohol consumption may help them to be more conscientious about not making alcoholic beverages so easily available to Jewish youth.

Methodological and Theoretical Implications Based on Findings

Based on having measured perceived parenting styles, the frequency of alcohol consumption among U.S. Jewish college students ages 19 to 27 years did not support Baumrind's (1991) theoretical approach of affecting young adults' drinking. It may be

that the theoretical background still holds true for actual parenting styles. I measured only the participants' perceptions of parenting styles versus actual parenting styles. There has been little research to demonstrate the accuracy of children's perceptions of their own parents' parenting styles. It may be the reason for the current study contradicting the results of earlier studies in which the frequency of alcohol consumption was deemed statistically significant, as noted earlier in limitations to the study.

Conclusion

I conducted this study to determine if there was a relationship between perceived parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption of U.S. Jewish male and female college students ages 19 to 27 years. Although the results showed no significant relationship between perceived parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption, analysis of the data found a significant association between gender and the frequency of alcohol consumption. Strategies mitigating the frequency of alcohol consumption should target Jewish male college students, who are at higher risk of consuming too much alcohol. As part of the dissemination of the current research, it is noteworthy to acknowledge a need for community awareness among this population to reduce the frequency of alcohol consumption among Jewish young emerging adults.

The results showed no direct link between parenting style and the frequency of alcohol consumption, something that is unique to the Jewish population, by Jewish college students. There is a need for positive engagement with Jewish male college students ages 19 to 27 years to mitigate the effects of the frequency of alcohol consumption. The disparities between Jewish male and female college students regarding

the frequency of alcohol consumption should be assessed further to generate strategies and policies for the betterment of the Jewish community and society as a whole.

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Appendix A: Proforma Copy of the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test

AUDIT Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to indicate whether your drinking is harmful, hazardous or dependent.

The questions are about your use of alcohol during the past 12 months**.**

In questions 2 and 3, a unit of alcohol means 10 grams of alcohol.

For example *(approximate values)*:

1 x bottle of 12% wine = 9 units

1 x pint 5% beer = 3 units

1 x can of 5% beer, lager, cider = 2 units; 4 cans = 9 units

1 x can of 9% beer, lager, cider = 4 units; 4 cans = 16 units

1 x 75-ml bottle of 40% spirits = 30 units

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1. How often do you have a drink containing alcohol?

- Never
- Monthly or less
- 2 to 4 times a month
- 2 or 3 times a week
- 4 or more times a week

2. How many alcohol units do you have on a typical day when you are drinking?

- None

- 1 or 2½
- 3 or 4
- 5 or 6
- 7 to 9
- 10 or more

3. How often do you have seven or more units on one occasion?

- Never
- Less than monthly
- Monthly
- Weekly
- Daily or almost daily

4. How often during the last year have you found that you were unable to stop drinking once you had started?

- Never
- Less than monthly
- Monthly
- Weekly
- Daily or almost daily

5. How often during the last year have you failed to do what was normally expected from you because of drinking?

- Never
- Less than monthly
- Monthly
- Weekly
- Daily or almost daily

6. How often during the last year have you needed a first drink in the morning to get yourself going after a heavy drinking session?

- Never
- Less than monthly
- Monthly
- Weekly
- Daily or almost daily

7. How often during the last year have you had a feeling of guilt or remorse after drinking?

- Never
- Less than monthly
- Monthly

- Weekly
- Daily or almost daily

8. How often during the last year have you been unable to remember what happened the night before because you had been drinking?

- Never
- Less than monthly
- Monthly
- Weekly
- Daily or almost daily

9. Have you or someone else been injured as the result of your drinking?

- Never
- Yes, but not in the last year
- Yes, during the last year

10. Has a relative, friend, or a doctor or other health worker been concerned about your drinking or suggested you cut down?

- Never
- Yes, but not in the last year
- Yes, during the last year

Less than 8 indicates sensible drinking.

8 - 19 indicates harmful or hazardous drinking - drinking at your current level puts you at risk of developing problems. Consider cutting down, or seeking help if you can't.

20 or above indicates that your drinking is already causing you problems, and you could be dependent. You should definitely stop or reduce your drinking. You should seek help if you can't.

If your score is 16 or over, you may want to consider taking the
Severity of Alcohol Dependence Questionnaire

Adapted from the WHO's Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test 2001

Please note that the accuracy of the scripts used to formulate your score are not guaranteed, and that use of this online version of this questionnaire is for general inquisitive use only. It should only be used as a diagnostic tool by health professionals suitably qualified and experienced to check and interpret the results.

Please note that the online guide provided was last edited in 2013

Appendix B: Proforma Copy of the Parental Authority Questionnaire

Instructions: For each of the following statements, circle the number of the 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) that best describes how that statement applies to you and your mother. Try to read and think about each statement as it applies to you and your mother during your years of growing up at home. There are no right or wrong answers, so don't spend a lot of time on any one item. We are looking for your overall impression regarding each statement. Be sure not to omit any items.

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither agree nor disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

1. While I was growing up my mother felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Even if her children didn't agree with her, my mother felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what she thought was right.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Whenever my mother told me to do something as I was growing up, she expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.	1	2	3	4	5
4. As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my mother discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My mother has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My mother has always felt that what her children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.	1	2	3	4	5
7. As I was growing up my mother did not allow me to question any decision she had made.	1	2	3	4	5
8. As I was growing up my mother directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My mother has always felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.	1	2	3	4	5

10. As I was growing up my mother did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because someone in authority had established them.	1	2	3	4	5
11. As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my mother when I felt that they were unreasonable.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My mother felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
13. As I was growing up, my mother seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Most of the time as I was growing up my mother did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
15. As the children in my family were growing up, my mother consistently gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways.	1	2	3	4	5
16. As I was growing up my mother would get very upset if I tried to disagree with her.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My mother feels that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
18. As I was growing up my mother let me know what behavior she expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations, she punished me.	1	2	3	4	5
19. As I was growing up my mother allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from her.	1	2	3	4	5
20. As I was growing up my mother took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but she would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.	1	2	3	4	5
21. My mother did not view herself as responsible for directing and guiding my behavior as I was growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
22. My mother had clear standards of behavior for the children in our home as I was growing up, but she was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My mother gave me direction for my behavior and activities as I was growing up and she expected me to follow her direction, but she was always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.	1	2	3	4	5
24. As I was growing up my mother allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and she generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do.	1	2	3	4	5

25. My mother has always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up.	1	2	3	4	5
26. As I was growing up my mother often told me exactly what she wanted me to do and how she expected me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
27. As I was growing up my mother gave me clear direction for my behaviors and activities, but she was also understanding when I disagreed with her.	1	2	3	4	5
28. As I was growing up my mother did not direct the behaviors, activities, and desires of the children in the family.	1	2	3	4	5
29. As I was growing up I knew what my mother expected of me in the family and she insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for her authority.	1	2	3	4	5
30. As I was growing up, if my mother made a decision in the family that hurt me, she was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if she had made a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5

Description: The PAQ is designed to measure parental authority, or disciplinary Practices, from the point of view of the child (of any age).

The PAQ has three subscales:

Permissive (P: items 1, 6, 10, 13, 14, 17, 19, 21, 24 and 28), authoritarian (A: items 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 16, 18, 25, 26 and 29), and authoritative/flexible (F: items 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 20, 22, 23, 27, and 30). Mother and father forms of the assessment are identical except for References to gender.

Scoring: The PAQ is scored easily by summing the individual items to comprise the Subscale scores. Scores on each subscale range from 10 to 50.

Author: Dr. John R. Buri, Department of Psychology, University of St. Thomas, 2115 Summit Avenue, St. Paul, MN 55105.

Source: Buri, J. R. (1991). Parental Authority Questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Assessment, 57*, 110-119

Appendix C: Permission to Use PAQ

Copy of email response from Dr. John Buri in reference to permission for using the PAQ

Dear Thomas:

"Thank you for your interest in the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ). Please feel free to use the PAQ for any not-for-profit purposes. For further information about the PAQ (for example, scoring details, norms, reliability measures, validity), please see the following journal article:

Buri, J. R. (1991). Parental authority questionnaire. *J. of Personality Assessment, 57,* 110-119.

I wish you the best with your research project."

John R. Buri, Ph.D.

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