

VNIVERSITAT (Ψ) Facultat de Psicologia
E VALÈNCIA

Programa de Doctorado en Investigación en Psicología



**Estilos de socialización familiar y ajuste personal,
social y académico en la cultura china**

TESIS DOCTORAL

Fangzhou Chen

Directores

Dr. D. Rafael García Ros

Dr. D. José Fernando García Pérez

Dr. D. Óscar Fernando García Buelga

Valencia (España), enero de 2024

VNIVERSITAT (Ψ) Facultat de Psicologia
E VALÈNCIA

Doctoral Programme in Research in Psychology



**Family socialization styles and personal, social
and academic adjustment in Chinese culture**

PhD THESIS

Fangzhou Chen

Supervisors

Rafael García Ros, PhD

José Fernando García Pérez, PhD

Óscar Fernando García Buelga, PhD

Valencia (Spain), January 2024

Nota previa: Para favorecer la lectura se ha utilizado a lo largo del texto de la presente tesis doctoral el género gramatical en su forma neutra.

“Confucian tradition accords certain relationships with special significance: These are relationships between sovereign and subject, father and son, older brother and younger brother, husband and wife, and friend and friend, with father and son being the most important. Because these relationships are structured hierarchically, the subordinate member is required to display loyalty and respect to the senior member, who is required to responsibly and justly govern, teach, and discipline.”

Chao (1994)

TABLA DE CONTENIDOS



PREFACIO	13
CAPÍTULO I: INTRODUCCIÓN	17
SOCIALIZACIÓN PARENTAL	17
LA CULTURA CHINA	23
EL AUTOCONCEPTO.....	27
LA PRESENTE TESIS DOCTORAL	31
REFERENCIAS	34
CAPÍTULO II	51
ESTUDIO 1– Self-concept in China: Validation of the Chinese version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept (AF5) Questionnaire	51
CAPÍTULO III	79
ESTUDIO 2– Parental socialization, delinquency during adolescence and adjustment in adolescents and adult children	79
CAPÍTULO IV	131
ESTUDIO 3– Do we know enough about negative parenting? Recent evidence on parenting styles and child maladjustment.....	131
CAPÍTULO V: RESUMEN GENERAL	181

Prefacio

EL camino que emprendí en la presente tesis doctoral supone un gran esfuerzo con el objetivo principal de poder analizar algo tan complejo y diferente culturalmente, pero a la vez tan universal: la socialización de los hijos por parte de los padres.

Sean mis primeras palabras una muestra de gratitud a quienes me han dirigido en el camino de la investigación en este proyecto de tesis doctoral. Primero, quiero dar las gracias a mis directores de tesis, que me han ido guiando con sus consejos y también acertadas indicaciones. Al Dr. Rafael García Ros, que en una de mis primeras estancias de trabajo en Europa compartió mi inquietud por la investigación y se interesó en materializar el proyecto. Gracias por su buen hacer y sabio consejo. Al Dr. Fernando García, quien me animó y guió para extender el estudio de la socialización parental a la sociedad china. También quiero agradecer al Dr. Óscar Fernando García Buelga porque ha sido para mí un gran profesor, me ha enseñado mucho sobre investigar, especialmente sobre la forma de preparar la difusión de los resultados, tarea ardua pero altamente satisfactoria; gracias porque su formación profesional y humana ha sido impagable y creo que me ha hecho mejor investigadora.

Quiero dar las gracias a la Universidad de Valencia, universidad de Europa por la que al final me decanté por su tradición centenaria y prestigio y que me ha brindado una formación excelente. Quiero agradecer al director del Programa de Doctorado de Investigación en psicología, Dr. José Miñarro. El Sr. Miñarro siempre fue muy atento y bueno conmigo. También a la Comisión Académica, a los compañeros y profesores.

Sean mis últimas palabras dirigidas a las personas que me han acompañado durante mis años de investigación en Europa brindándome su apoyo y cariño incondicional. Mis compañeros, colegas y amigos. Mi familia. Y mi marido.

Esta tesis doctoral no es sino el resultado de una parte del trabajo realizado por la doctoranda durante sus años de investigación

predoctoral en Europa, en la Universidad de Valencia. La tesis es un compendio de tres estudios empíricos, publicados en prestigiosas revistas científicas de Web of Science:

- Chen, F.**, Garcia, O. F., Fuentes, M. C., Garcia-Ros, R., & Garcia, F. (2020). Self-Concept in China: Validation of the Chinese version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept AF5 Questionnaire. *Symmetry*, 12(798), 1-13. doi:10.3390/sym12050798 (Impact factor 2020 = **2.713**; 33/72; **Q2**, Multidisciplinary Sciences; Times cited in WOS January 2024: **47**).
- Climent-Galarza, S., Alcaide, M., Garcia, O. F., **Chen, F.**, & Garcia, F. (2022). Parental socialization, delinquency during adolescence and adjustment in adolescents and adult children. *Behavioral Sciences*, 12(448), 1-21. doi:10.3390/bs12110448 (Impact factor 2022 = **2.6**; 61/147; **Q2**, Psychology, Multidisciplinary; Times cited in WOS January 2024: **17**).
- Chen, F.**, Garcia, O. F., Alcaide, M., Garcia-Ros, R., & Garcia, F. (2024). Do we know enough about negative parenting? Recent evidence on parenting styles and child maladjustment. *European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context*. doi:10.5093/ejpalc2023a4 (Impact factor 2022 = **9.5**; 9/147; **Q1**, Psychology, Multidisciplinary).

La presente tesis doctoral por compendio de publicaciones sigue la normativa de la Universitat de València recogida en el Reglamento sobre Depósito, Evaluación y Defensa de la Tesis Doctoral de la Escuela de Doctorado de la Universitat de València. El **capítulo I** incluye una revisión de los aspectos teóricos más importantes que subyacen en la literatura sobre socialización parental. Los **capítulos II, III y IV** incluyen las diferentes publicaciones que componen esta tesis de compendio de artículos. El **capítulo V** incluye un resumen extendido sobre la temática abordada en esta tesis doctoral, así como también sobre sus principales hallazgos y las conclusiones más significativas.

Valencia, enero de 2024

Capítulo I

Introducción

La socialización parental es una tarea que la sociedad encarga a los padres para que cuiden y protejan al hijo desde que viene al mundo hasta que alcanza la edad adulta. Desde hace décadas se está estudiando cuál es la mejor forma de hacerlo por sus importantes consecuencias sobre el desarrollo de los hijos; algunos patrones socializadores tienen consecuencias positivas, pero otros son, sin embargo, perjudiciales. También se ha cuestionado que los hallazgos de investigación, principalmente correspondientes a estudios con familias occidentales, sean también generalizables a otros contextos culturales, por ejemplo, sociedades tradicionales como China. En primer lugar, se define el marco teórico de referencia en el estudio de la socialización parental y los principales resultados de investigación. Posteriormente se incluye una revisión de las principales características culturales de China y cómo podrían afectar a las relaciones que se establecen entre padres e hijos. Por último, se revisa el autoconcepto, que es uno de los objetivos clave en la socialización parental no solo en Occidente, sino en cualquier contexto cultural, incluyendo el asiático: que el niño desarrolle confianza y seguridad general en sí mismo y en sus habilidades necesarias para el éxito en diferentes áreas del funcionamiento social. Entre los criterios para identificar la socialización óptima, el autoconcepto ha sido uno de los más utilizados en la investigación; las diferencias en el autoconcepto de los hijos han sido asociadas a los estilos de socialización parental.

La socialización parental

La socialización parental se refiere al proceso por el cual el adulto puede transmitir al joven los hábitos y valores de la cultura de origen para que el niño adopte un funcionamiento adecuado dentro de la

sociedad a la que pertenece (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Sandoval-Obando et al., 2022; Villarejo et al., 2020). Existen variaciones culturales o demográficas sobre lo que podría significar adoptar un "funcionamiento adecuado". Sin embargo, se observa que, en términos generales, un hijo será reconocido como un adulto competente si no muestra comportamientos desviados, mantiene relaciones cercanas, es económicamente autosuficiente y socializa a su descendencia con éxito, todos ellos resultado de la educación, el entrenamiento y la imitación (García, Fuentes, et al., 2020; Maccoby, 1992).

Aunque también otros agentes entran en juego en la socialización del individuo, como la escuela, que también es responsable de promover la educación del joven, los compañeros, o los medios de comunicación (García, Serra, et al., 2020; Moffitt, 1993), el presente estudio de tesis doctoral se centrará en estudiar el impacto de los padres en el desarrollo psicosocial de sus hijos debido a su mayor grado de influencia sobre ellos (Baumrind, 1978; Freud, 1933; Maccoby, 1992; Watson, 1928). Generalmente, la literatura de socialización parental se centra en dos aspectos: identificar y definir los patrones de comportamiento de los padres hacia sus hijos, y estudiar el impacto de estos distintos patrones de comportamiento parental en el desarrollo de los niños (García & Gracia, 2009; Steinberg et al., 1991).

Durante décadas, el estudio de la socialización parental se ha realizado utilizando un marco teórico con dos dimensiones ortogonales o no relacionadas (es decir, afecto y severidad) y cuatro estilos de socialización (es decir, autoritario, autorizativo, indulgente y negligente) (Lamborn et al., 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). El afecto se refiere al grado en que los padres muestran implicación o calidez, y el nivel de involucramiento con sus hijos (Gimenez-Serrano, Alcaide et al., 2022; Martínez, García, et al., 2019). Otras etiquetas que comparten el significado de afecto incluyen receptividad (Baumrind, 1983), amor (Schaefer, 1959), aceptación (Symonds, 1939), o aceptación/implicación (Steinberg et al., 1994). La severidad se refiere al grado en que los padres usan reglas estrictas y límites, tienden a aplicar correcciones físicas y/o verbales, así como prácticas exigentes (Dakers & Guse, 2020; Martínez et al., 2017). Otras etiquetas que comparten el significado de severidad incluyen exigencia (Baumrind, 1991b), dominación (Symonds, 1939),

inflexibilidad (Sears et al., 1957), supervisión (Steinberg et al., 1994), o control firme (Steinberg et al., 1989). Los estilos de socialización son definidos examinando los efectos combinados del afecto y la severidad: autoritario (caracterizado por la severidad sin afecto), autorizativo (caracterizado por severidad y afecto), indulgente (caracterizado por afecto sin severidad) y negligente (caracterizado por la falta de severidad y afecto).

Tradicionalmente, principalmente a partir de estudios realizados en Estados Unidos con familias estadounidenses de clase media europea, se ha identificado que la combinación de severidad y afecto es el mejor estilo de socialización parental (Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1991). El estilo autorizativo ha sido definido como el método de socialización capaz de generar los resultados óptimos (Baumrind, 1991a; Steinberg et al., 1994; Steinberg et al., 1992). Se encontró que este estilo de socialización está asociado con diferentes indicadores del bienestar psicológico infantil, como mayor autoestima, felicidad, satisfacción con la vida y optimismo (Raboteg-Saric & Sakic, 2014). Además, los hijos cuyos padres muestran esta tipología parental (combinan a la vez el afecto con prácticas basadas en la severidad) parecen tener mayores habilidades de afrontamiento ante eventos adversos (Baumrind, 1991b; Lamborn et al., 1991), y, a su vez, una gama más amplia de comportamientos adaptativos (Aunola et al., 2000; Kritzas & Grobler, 2005; Steinberg et al., 1994). También se ha asociado con un mayor rendimiento académico, una menor probabilidad de experimentar problemas de comportamiento y un menor uso de sustancias (Im-Bolter et al., 2013; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1994). Gran parte de la literatura psicológica clásica señala que el afecto parental es capaz de proporcionar a los niños el apoyo emocional necesario, mientras que la severidad permite establecer patrones claros esperados sobre su comportamiento (Baumrind, 1991a; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Lamborn et al., 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Steinberg et al., 1994). Estudios recientes también han encontrado beneficios en la socialización autorizativa (Lavrič & Naterer, 2020; Sadeghi et al., 2022; Xiong et al., 2020; Yeung, 2021)

No obstante, investigaciones realizadas en distintos países, entornos étnicos, niveles socioeconómicos y contextos culturales no han corroborado que los hallazgos positivos en el desarrollo infantil

estén siempre relacionados con el estilo autorizativo, los cuales se han observado principalmente en familias europeo-americanas (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Pinquart, 2017; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019; Pinquart & Kauser, 2018). Algunas investigaciones realizadas en Estados Unidos con minorías étnicas, como la afroamericana (Baumrind, 1972; Deater-Deckard et al., 1996), hispanoamericana (Pinquart & Kauser, 2018; Zayas & Solari, 1994) han revelado ciertos beneficios de la severidad parental sin afecto (socialización familiar autoritaria). Por ejemplo, la socialización autoritaria tiene consecuencias perjudiciales en los niños europeo-americanos, pero no en los afroamericanos (Deater-Deckard et al., 1996), quienes incluso podría presentar algunas ventajas como en asertividad e independencia (Baumrind, 1972).

Además, las familias asiático-americanas han recibido especial atención en la investigación transcultural dado que tienden a priorizar la preservación de su cultura de origen, la cual puede ser diferente en ciertos aspectos de la del país anfitrión: los Estados Unidos (Chao, 1994, 2001). En este contexto, la socialización autoritaria parece no estar relacionada con consecuencias perjudiciales (Chao, 1994, 2000) e incluso los adolescentes educados en familias autoritarias tienen muy buen rendimiento escolar (Chao, 1996, 2001). Estos resultados son especialmente llamativos en estudiantes procedentes de China, Japón y Corea del Sur (Chao, 2000). En este sentido, los adolescentes asiático-americanos de familias autoritarias tienden a obtener las calificaciones más altas (Chao, 2000). También en la misma línea, algunas investigaciones realizadas en barrios pobres y peligrosos parecen identificar algunos beneficios asociados con la socialización autoritaria (Baldwin et al., 1990; Furstenberg et al., 1999).

Por otra parte, una serie de investigaciones cada vez mayor, especialmente en países europeos y latinoamericanos, indica que el estilo parental indulgente (afecto sin severidad) está vinculado a numerosos beneficios en el desarrollo psicosocial infantil (Calafat et al., 2014; García & Gracia, 2009; García & Serra, 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2013). En el proceso de socialización parental, el afecto puede ser el elemento esencial, aportando grandes beneficios a los hijos para ser capaces por sí mismos de comportarse según los estándares mientras que la severidad podría ser innecesaria o incluso dañina (Climent-Galarza et al., 2022; Martínez & García, 2008). Los hijos de familias

indulgentes (con afecto, pero sin severidad) muestran resultados psicosociales similares o mejores que aquellos de familias autoritativas, que se definen por afecto y severidad (Martínez et al., 2020; Villarejo et al., 2020). En cambio, los perfiles de bajos de ajuste se corresponden con familias con poco afecto: autoritarias y negligentes (Martínez & García, 2007; Pérez-Gramaje et al., 2020).

El estilo indulgente se asocia con un ajuste y competencia psicosocial igual o superior al autoritativo en diversos aspectos clave para el éxito de los hijos, como la autoimagen, la adhesión a valores sociales, la autoestima, la competencia personal, el rendimiento escolar, y la prevención de problemas conductuales y uso de sustancias (Calafat et al., 2014; Fuentes et al., 2015; Martínez & García, 2007; Musitu & García, 2004). Recientes estudios también han ampliado la evidencia sobre los beneficios del estilo indulgente en otras áreas como la empatía cognitiva y afectiva (Fuentes et al., 2022), la empatía ambiental y la conexión con la naturaleza (Musitu-Ferrer et al., 2019) y la prioridad hacia los valores ambientales (Queiroz et al., 2020), indicadores de una buena internalización de los valores sociales; también el aprendizaje autorregulado (Fuentes et al., 2019), y logros escolares (Reyes et al., 2023) y se ha identificado como un factor de protección contra riesgos como el consumo de alcohol (García, Serra et al., 2020) y otras drogas (Riquelme et al., 2018; Villarejo et al., 2023) o el ser víctima de acoso tradicional y cibernético (Martínez, et al., 2018).

Los beneficios del estilo indulgente, particularmente en la adolescencia, un periodo de relativa vulnerabilidad psicosocial, podrían deberse a que los hijos mantienen relaciones cercanas con sus padres basadas en el afecto, pero sin necesidad de vigilancia e indagación (Martínez-Escudero et al., 2023). Sin embargo, también algunas investigaciones recientes aportan resultados que parecen extender los beneficios del estilo indulgente (afecto sin severidad) más allá de la adolescencia (García, Serra et al., 2018; Martínez-Escudero et al., 2020; Villarejo et al., 2020). La socialización indulgente parece estar asociada con puntuaciones positivas una vez los padres han concluido el proceso socializador, en diferentes momentos de la vida adulta (Alcaide et al., 2023; Gimenez-Serrano, García et al., 2022). Como en la adolescencia, los hijos adultos que fueron educados por padres que utilizaban prácticas de afecto, pero sin usar aquellas de

severidad durante los años de socialización exhiben un buen ajuste y competencia en diferentes indicadores (Gimenez-Serrano, Alcaide, et al., 2022; Palacios et al., 2022).

Asimismo, se ha propuesto la hipótesis cultural que sugiere que la conexión entre los métodos de socialización y las variaciones en el ajuste y habilidades psicosociales de los niños puede cambiar según el contexto cultural en el que se desarrolle la socialización parental (García & Gracia, 2009; Martínez & García, 2007; Pinquart & Kauser, 2018). Por ejemplo, se emplean los conceptos culturales de colectivismo e individualismo (tanto en sus formas verticales como horizontales) para ilustrar cómo un mismo estilo parental puede tener efectos diferentes dependiendo del entorno cultural en el que se aplique (García & Gracia, 2009; Martínez & García, 2007; Triandis, 2001). Las familias en las sociedades orientales, incluyendo las culturas asiáticas y árabes, están socializando a sus hijos dentro de un contexto cultural que típicamente se caracteriza por valores colectivistas y verticales (Rudy & Grusec, 2001; Triandis, 1989). El individuo (por ejemplo, el niño) puede ser parte de un colectivo (por ejemplo, la familia) en el cual las relaciones entre los miembros (por ejemplo, padres e hijo) son jerárquicas y no igualitarias (Chen et al., 1997; Dwairy et al., 2006; Rudy & Grusec, 2001).

En el caso de China, según los principios del pensamiento confuciano, un individuo se define por sus relaciones con los demás, por ejemplo, es más probable que la verbalización de un niño sea “mi familia dice que soy” en vez de “yo soy” (Chao, 1994); las relaciones están organizadas jerárquicamente, es decir, no son relaciones igualitarias (Ho, 1986); y el orden social y la armonía se preservan (por ejemplo, en la empresa o la familia) si cada parte (por ejemplo, empresario-trabajador o hermano mayor-hermano pequeño) cumple con las responsabilidades y requisitos de las relaciones de roles (Leung et al., 1998). En la cultura china, se espera que padres e hijos asuman ciertos roles para mantener el buen funcionamiento del hogar y fomentar la armonía familiar (Ho, 1986; Yang, 1986). Los padres deben gobernar, enseñar y disciplinar a sus hijos (Nelson et al., 2006), siguiendo el principio tradicional conocido como *chiao shun y guan*) (Chao, 1994). Por el contrario, de los hijos se espera que sepan obedecer, honrar y respetar a sus padres (Leung et al., 1998); por ejemplo, la llamada piedad filial se basa en este principio de

obediencia y respeto por los padres (Wu & Chao, 2011). Debido a la interdependencia familiar, que el hijo muestre comportamientos socialmente deseables y culturalmente aprobados afecta no solo al propio niño, sino directamente a la familia en su conjunto (Ho, 1986; Chen & Uttal, 1988). Por ejemplo, el éxito académico es especialmente valorado en las familias chinas (Sue & Okazaki, 1990; Yang, 1986). Si los niños tienen un rendimiento académico deficiente, habrán decepcionado a sus padres y es probable que se sientan culpables (Chao, 1994). Pero también los padres habrán fallado porque de ellos se esperaba que, como responsables de la socialización, ejercieran el gobierno y cuidado de la familia (Chao, 1994). Se ha sugerido que la socialización basada en la severidad y autoridad parental, sin hacer uso de la participación y la calidez, encaja muy bien con los rasgos culturales chinos (Ho, 1986).

La cultura china

La cultura confuciana ha influenciado a China durante casi dos mil quinientos años. El pensamiento confuciano se originó durante el período de Primavera y Otoño y fue establecido por Confucio (551-479 BCE) (Yu, 1968), desarrollándose gradualmente en los siglos siguientes, principalmente durante la dinastía Han (206 a.C. - 220 d.C.). El pensamiento confuciano fue establecido como la ideología oficial, convirtiéndose desde entonces en la fuerza dominante en la vida social, política y cultural de China. La influencia de la cultura confuciana no solo se ha quedado en la antigüedad; sus normas morales, filosofía social, conceptos educativos y teorías políticas (Zhao, 2018) han afectado profundamente todos los aspectos de la sociedad china, incluyendo las relaciones familiares (Slote & De Vos, 1998), la estructura social, el sistema educativo (Bergen & Mi, 1995) y la administración política (Zhao, 2018).

En términos de estructura social y sistema moral, el pensamiento confuciano enfatiza un sistema jerárquico y el orden social, promoviendo una estructura familiar centrada en el patriarcado y un sistema político monárquico (Slote & De Vos, 1998). A través de conceptos como la piedad filial, la benevolencia y el ritual, se establece un complejo sistema moral. Entre estos, la piedad filial, considerada la piedra angular de las relaciones familiares en la cultura

confuciana, enfatiza la lealtad y obediencia de los hijos hacia sus padres (Chao & Tseng, 2002). La piedad filial no solo implica el cuidado y servicio directo a los padres, sino que también se refleja en mantener el honor de la familia, cumplir con las normas familiares y sociales, y en el esfuerzo por estudiar y trabajar para elevar la posición social de la familia. Exige de los hijos que actúen de una manera que traiga honor en lugar de vergüenza a la familia (Huang & Gove, 2015). Además, la cultura confuciana también enfatiza el sistema jerárquico familiar, donde el rol del padre se define como "el jefe de la familia", teniendo este la posición más poderosa en el hogar, controlando los recursos financieros y tomando decisiones importantes sobre la familia y los hijos (Slote & De Vos, 1998). En la cultura confuciana, la relación entre padre e hijo no solo afecta al individuo, sino que también tiene implicaciones para el bienestar de toda la familia y, por extensión, de la sociedad. Los logros y comportamientos del hijo se ven como un reflejo directo de la socialización del padre. Por ejemplo, en el "San Zi Jing" (Tres Caracteres Clásicos) confuciano, se menciona "si no enseñas, es la falta del padre", lo que significa que si un padre solo provee las necesidades físicas del hijo (como comida, ropa y vivienda) y descuida la educación adecuada y la guía moral, entonces cualquier conducta indebida o fracaso del hijo en convertirse en un miembro útil de la sociedad debería ser considerado como la falta del padre (Rupprecht et al., 2020; Zhu & Hu, 2011).

Además, de acuerdo con el proverbio tradicional chino "padre estricto, madre cariñosa" (Wilson, 1974), se espera que el padre asuma el rol de disciplinador estricto y que no fomente la indulgencia emocional con sus hijos (Shwalb et al., 2004). Por ejemplo, la cultura china enfatiza la restricción emocional para promover la armonía familiar (Bond & Wang, 1983), y generalmente se considera inapropiado expresar emociones fuertes en público (Chen et al., 2001). Los padres chinos, especialmente los varones, tienden a no expresar explícitamente calor y amor hacia sus hijos (como decir "te amo"), preocupados de que esto pueda socavar su autoridad parental (Wu et al., 2002). Además, la cultura china promueve la modestia, y los padres chinos, en comparación con los padres de ascendencia europea-estadounidense, elogian a sus hijos con menos frecuencia (Lin & Fu, 1990; Wu et al., 2002).

El confucianismo enfatiza la importancia del conocimiento y el aprendizaje, lo que ha impactado profundamente el sistema educativo y la cultura de aprendizaje de China, especialmente reflejado en la formación y desarrollo del sistema de exámenes imperiales, un sistema de selección de funcionarios. El sistema de exámenes imperiales no solo reflejó las ideas educativas y normas morales confucianas, integrándolas en el contenido del examen y los objetivos de selección, sino que también promovió el mantenimiento del orden social, la difusión de la educación y el aumento de la movilidad social. El propósito de este sistema era seleccionar individuos talentosos para ingresar a las instituciones estatales, facilitando la socialización y formalización del talento. Por lo tanto, para los niños de familias comunes, pasar el examen imperial se convirtió en una ruta importante para el ascenso social. Este sistema ha llevado a que los padres chinos históricamente valoren enormemente la educación de sus hijos, y las altas expectativas de éxito académico son una norma cultural (Bao & Haas, 2009; Shek, 2007). El término "madre tigre", conocido por el controvertido libro "Battle Hymn of the Tiger Mother" de Chua (2011), ha ganado notoriedad y ha atraído gran atención hacia el enfoque de socialización en China. Las madres tigres son retratadas como altamente controladoras y estrictas, poco preocupadas por los sentimientos y la autoestima de sus hijos, y restringiendo severamente el tiempo libre y las actividades extracurriculares de los niños para asegurar un alto nivel de éxito (Chua, 2011).

En resumen, en la cultura china, la indulgencia de los padres se considera una falta de responsabilidad en la socialización, ya que se cree que una gestión continua y basada en altos estándares por parte de los padres es clave para que los niños aprendan comportamientos apropiados y logren éxito tanto en el ámbito social como en el académico (Ho, 1986; Stevenson et al., 1990). Por ejemplo, se considera comúnmente que el fracaso de los niños en el desempeño social y académico puede traer deshonra y vergüenza a los padres y antepasados (Luo, 1996). Por lo tanto, para los padres, especialmente para los hombres, es muy importante mantener y mejorar la reputación de la familia y ayudar a los niños a alcanzar el más alto nivel de logros (Ho, 1987). En China, el aprendizaje de los niños es una gran responsabilidad de los padres; esto se refleja en la noción china de *guan*, que Chao (1994) ha argumentado que es la clave de la

socialización china. Guan conlleva significados de "amar" y "gobernar" de tal manera que los niños no se queden cortos en los estándares, particularmente en el ámbito académico (Chao, 1994; Tobin et al., 1989). Para enseñar a los niños a comportarse según las normas sociales, los padres chinos tienden a ser estrictos y controladores, así como involucrados en la vida de sus hijos (Chao, 1994, 2001), prefiriendo ser estrictos en lugar de permisivos, ya que a menudo tienen altas expectativas para los adolescentes y utilizan una disciplina estricta (Shek, 2007). En la cultura china, se valoran positivamente y se utilizan comúnmente diferentes métodos de control, incluyendo la supervisión, el castigo físico, altas expectativas de rendimiento escolar y la vergüenza (por ejemplo, inducción de culpa y retirada del amor) (Chan et al., 2009; Fung, 1999; Shek, 2006a; Wu et al., 2002). También podemos entender que, en comparación con los padres occidentales, los padres chinos son menos propensos a mostrar amor externo y expresiones verbales de amor (Deater-Deckard et al., 2011), más inclinados a aprobar altos niveles de castigo físico y disciplina estricta (Wu et al., 2002), enfatizan menos la autonomía (Supple et al., 2009), y enfatizan más fuertemente el logro académico de los niños (Lin & Fu, 1990). Los padres chinos son altamente controladores y autoritarios (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Kelley & Tseng, 1992; Lin & Fu, 1990).

Sin embargo, la estricta socialización de los padres chinos es para un mejor desarrollo del niño, los conceptos de "enseñanza" y "guan" también implican un cuidado y atención muy profundos de los chinos hacia sus hijos (Chao, 1994). Esto no se equipara a la "estricta" socialización en la cultura estadounidense que a veces se asocia con hostilidad, agresividad, desconfianza y dominación por parte de los padres (Kim & Chun, 1994). Es importante destacar que, debido a la política del hijo único, la mayoría de las familias chinas hoy en día solo tienen un hijo, lo que ha cambiado enormemente la dinámica familiar en China. Muchos hijos únicos pueden recibir mucha atención y recursos de sus padres y abuelos, y son tratados como "pequeños príncipes o princesas" en el hogar (Bao & Haas, 2009). Además, los padres chinos han sido influenciados por los valores familiares occidentales y muestran un comportamiento de socialización más tolerante, relajado e incluso permisivo en comparación con la generación anterior (Shek, 2006b). En la sociedad moderna, el método

de educación está experimentando un profundo cambio, pasando de un enfoque estricto tradicional a uno más no violento y respetuoso con el individuo. Los padres están cada vez más conscientes de la importancia de la comunicación positiva, alentadora y comprensiva para el desarrollo y la salud mental de sus hijos, en lugar de depender de métodos estrictos o castigos físicos. Este cambio se refleja en las prácticas de socialización de la generación más joven de padres, que tienden a expresar amor directamente a sus hijos y les brindan más espacio para elecciones autónomas, fomentando el pensamiento independiente y el desarrollo de la personalidad del niño. A medida que cambian las concepciones educativas de los padres, la relación entre padres e hijos se ha vuelto más igualitaria y abierta. Los padres tienden a ver más a sus hijos como individuos independientes, respetando sus opiniones y elecciones y animándolos a expresar sus pensamientos y emociones.

En resumen, la educación familiar moderna se está moviendo gradualmente hacia una dirección más humanizada, en cierto sentido algo más democrática en cuanto a las relaciones interpersonales y emocionalmente con más apoyo. Esta tendencia refleja la evolución de los valores sociales y los conceptos culturales, y también está en línea con el deseo original de los padres chinos de esperar -como dice el proverbio chino- que “los hijos se conviertan en dragones y las hijas en fénix”.

El autoconcepto

El desarrollo de un buen autoconcepto ha sido identificado no solo como un objetivo de la socialización parental, sino también como un indicador importante del éxito o fracaso de los padres como agentes de socialización. Las diferencias de los hijos en autoconcepto tanto en la niñez como en la adolescencia se han relacionado con los patrones parentales (prácticas y estilos). En cualquier sociedad, la valoración positiva de uno mismo como un individuo con buenas cualidades tan apto como los demás (autoconcepto global o autoestima) es necesaria para una adaptación exitosa al medio social. La percepción subjetiva de la competencia de uno mismo en la parte académica, social, familiar, física o emocional también se han relacionado con indicadores de buena adaptación.

Frecuentemente, se utiliza de manera indistinta autoconcepto y autoestima como sinónimos, si bien en la literatura especializada se han identificado algunas distinciones. La falta de claridad en la delimitación puede atribuirse a que gran parte de la investigación relativa al autoconcepto se ha refugiado en los aspectos evaluativos (Gecas, 1982). En el autoconcepto prima la dimensión cognitiva (Roa García, 2013). En psicología, el término autoconcepto designa la visión o idea que una persona tiene acerca de sí misma, abarcando sus pensamientos sobre sus capacidades, aspecto físico, conducta y demás rasgos distintivos. Constituye un elemento esencial de la identidad personal, incidiendo en sus emociones, su comportamiento y su forma de relacionarse con el entorno (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985; Shavelson et al., 1976; Veiga et al., 2015). En cambio, podría decirse que en la autoestima prevalece la parte valorativa y afectiva (Roa García, 2013). La autoestima es la evaluación que una persona hace de su propio valor y capacidades (Musitu Ochoa et al., 1988). Es una respuesta emocional que se manifiesta en los sentimientos de satisfacción o valoración personal que uno tiene sobre sí mismo. Las personas con alta autoestima generalmente tienen una visión positiva de sí mismas, sienten confianza y valor propio. Por el contrario, las personas con baja autoestima pueden dudar o sentirse insatisfechas con sus habilidades y valor. En resumen, el autoconcepto se trata del entendimiento cognitivo sobre 'quién soy', mientras que la autoestima es la evaluación emocional de ese entendimiento. Por otra parte, también se distingue autoconcepto y autoestima por la dimensionalidad. La autoestima incluye un constructo unidimensional de uno mismo mientras que desde el enfoque multidimensional se incluye el autoconcepto (Marsh & Martin, 2011; Veiga et al., 2015).

Los autoconceptos se establecen como componentes clave en los aspectos individuales y sociales de la vida de cada persona, abarcando logros y contratiempos, la autorrealización, la salud mental y la totalidad de las interacciones sociales. Poseer un autoconcepto favorable es esencial para la existencia personal, profesional y social de uno (Roa García, 2013). En general, la autopercepción como un buen estudiante o trabajador (es decir, el autoconcepto académico/profesional) es uno de los elementos clave para sentirse una persona valiosa con buenas cualidades (es decir, la autoestima) (García, Martínez et al., 2018; Marsh & Shavelson, 1985; Shavelson

et al., 1976). Los resultados indican que el autoconcepto tiene un un impacto positivo en el aumento del rendimiento académico (Caplin, 1969; Ghazvini, 2011; Peralta Sánchez & Sánchez Roda, 2003; Ybrandt, 2008). Esto también se aplica a los estudiantes con SPLD (self-perception of a learning disability). Existen estudios que demuestran que los niños con percepciones menos negativas de su discapacidad de aprendizaje tuvieron puntuaciones más altas en logros matemáticos. Además, percibieron un autoconcepto global más positivo, más competencia intelectual y conductual, y más aceptación social. Estos niños también sintieron más apoyo de sus padres y compañeros de clase (Rothman & Cosden, 1995).

Además, un autoconcepto positivo es valorado como un resultado deseable en muchas disciplinas de la psicología, así como un mediador importante para otros resultados (Marsh & Martin, 2011). No solo el autoconcepto es una variable de resultado importante en sí misma, sino que también juega un papel central en la afectación de otros resultados deseables (Fathi-Ashtiani et al., 2007; Marsh & Martin, 2011; Ybrandt, 2008). Entre los adolescentes tempranos, los estudiantes con un alto autoconcepto siempre informaron de un mayor compromiso cognitivo, afectivo, conductual y de agencia personal que los estudiantes con un bajo autoconcepto (Veiga et al., 2015). De acuerdo con el modelo, se encontró que un autoconcepto positivo es el factor más importante para el ajuste y para la protección contra comportamientos problemáticos comunes (por ejemplo, desarrollar quejas somáticas, ansiedad/depresión y comportamiento retraído) (Ybrandt, 2008). Además, el aumento del autoconcepto y la autoestima están relacionados con la disminución de la ansiedad y existe una relación negativa significativa entre el autoconcepto, la autoestima y la depresión (Fathi-Ashtiani et al., 2007).

Existe diferentes medidas del autoconcepto y de la autoestima (Butler & Gasson, 2005). Mientras que las medidas de autoestima o unidimensionales destaca la Escala Rosenberg, ampliamente utilizada, en autoconcepto existe mayor multiplicidad; si bien una de las escalas más utilizadas en investigación y práctica profesional, elaborada en español, es la llamada Escala de Autoconcepto Forma-5 [AF-5] (García & Musitu, 1999).

El AF-5 contiene cinco dimensiones, que se definen a continuación. El autoconcepto académico, que involucra la percepción

del individuo sobre su rendimiento y habilidades en el ámbito académico o educativo. El autoconcepto social, que se refiere a cómo el individuo ve su actuación y relaciones en el entorno social. El autoconcepto emocional, que implica la percepción del individuo sobre su estado y su expresión emocionales. El autoconcepto familiar, que concierne al papel, desempeño y relaciones del individuo dentro del entorno familiar. El autoconcepto físico, que se relaciona con la percepción del individuo sobre su imagen corporal y habilidades físicas (García & Musitu, 1999).

El Cuestionario de Autoconcepto de Cinco Factores AF5 es una de las medidas más comunes utilizadas para capturar el autoconcepto en muestras de habla hispana. El cuestionario AF5 es una escala de 30 ítems validada en España con más de 6000 participantes de entre 10 y 62 años. Está diseñado para evaluar cinco dominios del autoconcepto (es decir, académico, social, emocional, familiar y físico) calificados en una escala de 1 a 99, con seis ítems en cada una de las cinco subescalas. La estructura teórica del AF5 se basa en el enfoque jerárquico y multidimensional propuesto por Shavelson y colegas (Shavelson et al., 1976), donde el autoconcepto es multifacético en lugar de un constructo unidimensional. Si bien la propuesta de Shavelson y colegas (Shavelson et al., 1976) es de enorme utilidad porque permite identificar las principales dimensiones del autoconcepto diferenciándolas del autoconcepto general (autoestima) y de partes del autoconcepto (subfacetas), este modelo se limitó a una propuesta teórica; fueron trabajos posteriores los que utilizando como modelo conceptual de referencia el trabajo de Shavelson y colegas (Shavelson et al., 1976) buscaron medidas específicas para esos constructos de uno mismo identificados teóricamente.

Investigaciones previas respaldan la validez estructural del Cuestionario AF5. Los análisis factoriales exploratorios de estudios realizados en España (García & Musitu, 1999), Italia (Marchetti, 1997) y México (Salum-Fares et al., 2011) proporcionan evidencia de la validez de la estructura factorial del AF5. Además, los análisis factoriales confirmatorios en muestras de diferentes regiones y países, como España (Murgui et al., 2012; Tomás & Oliver, 2004) y en regiones españolas como el País Vasco (Elosua & Muñiz, 2010) y Cataluña (Cerrato et al., 2011), Perú (Bustos et al., 2015), Chile (García et al., 2011), Estados Unidos (García et al., 2013) Portugal

(García et al., 2006), han respaldado ampliamente la validez del cuestionario AF5.

La investigación en diferentes países comparando la relación entre los mismos constructos (por ejemplo, socialización parental y autoconcepto) requiere de medidas que sean invariantes transculturalmente. Los estudios de validación del cuestionario AF5 se han desarrollado principalmente en Europa, Estados Unidos y América Latina, pero menos en Asia.

La presente tesis doctoral

Muchas de las investigaciones se realizan principalmente en países occidentales (por ejemplo, Estados Unidos y Europa). Sin embargo, ha sido cuestionado hasta qué punto los hallazgos procedentes de estos estudios son válidos para otros contextos no occidentales, por ejemplo, en sociedades tradicionales tales como los países islámicos o también China.

El fenómeno de la socialización parental puede estudiarse en cualquier parte del mundo (e.g. Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Pinquart, 2017; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019; Pinquart & Kauser, 2018). El llamado modelo teórico bidimensional ha sido ampliamente utilizado desde hace décadas. Este modelo permite por un lado definir las actuaciones y patrones socializadores de las familias en términos de afecto y severidad (Climent-Galarza et al., 2022) y, por otro lado, identificar qué relación guardan con el desarrollo y el ajuste psicosocial (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). De esta forma, en un contexto cultural específico es posible clasificar a las familias en función de un grado mayor o menor de afecto y severidad, lo que da lugar a las cuatro tipologías de padres (autoritarios, autorizativos, indulgentes y negligentes). Por ejemplo, los padres autoritarios utilizan más la severidad, pero menos el afecto en comparación con los otros tipos de padres.

Sin embargo, las familias no viven en un contexto aislado, sino que, a su vez, forman parte de un otro mucho más amplio que incluye la historia, la cultura, los valores sociales, las oportunidades, el nivel de renta y todo el entorno. Por tanto, la familia no es sino una parte de la comunidad, el grupo étnico, y la nación; si bien la tarea socializadora de unos adultos (padres) sobre unos jóvenes (hijos) es un

fenómeno que puede considerarse prácticamente universal (Chao, 2001; Climent-Galarza et al., 2022; Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

El interés por el estudio de la socialización parental en diferentes contextos y entornos tiene su origen en parte no sólo en extender el análisis de la relación entre las prácticas socializadoras de la familia y desarrollo de los hijos a sociedades orientales, sino en los resultados de investigación discrepantes sobre el estilo parental positivo para favorecer el desarrollo psicosocial saludable de los hijos. Precisamente las investigaciones realizadas en Occidente parecían apuntar a que, dentro de un mismo país (por ejemplo, Estados Unidos), podría haber variaciones en la estrategia más idónea para conseguir el éxito en la socialización de los hijos (e.g., Baumrind, 1972; Chao, 2001).

Los estudios principalmente realizados en familias Europeo-Americanas revelan que los hijos con padres caracterizados por severidad, pero en combinación con afecto (padres autorizativos) son aquellos que es más probable que consigan que sus hijos tengan un desarrollo psicosocial más positivo, en comparación con los otros padres. Aquellos hijos Europeo-Americanos de familias en las que, al igual que en las autorizativas, existe la severidad, pero sin el componente de afecto (hogares autoritarios), tienden a mostrar obediencia y conformidad con las normas sociales, pero también problemas de autorregulación, poca confianza en sí mismos y bajo autoconcepto (Baumrind, 1978, 1991a, 1991b; Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Por el contrario, los hallazgos de algunos estudios con minorías étnicas de los Estados Unidos tales como afroamericanos o hispanoamericanos sugieren que el uso de la severidad, incluso sin afecto, podría no ser perjudicial para el desarrollo de los hijos. Por ejemplo, a diferencia de lo que sucede en los hijos Europeo-Americanos, el uso de la severidad sin afecto podría ofrecer la seguridad, estabilidad y protección frente a los peligros del entorno a los hijos Afro-americanos de familias autoritarias (e.g., Deater-Deckard et al., 1996). Mientras que el contexto relativamente seguro y con oportunidades de la sociedad de clase media norteamericana los hijos con padres caracterizados por la severidad sin afecto podrían percibir que no son queridos ni apreciados por su familia, aquellos afroamericanos de padres autoritarios, sin embargo, podrían sentirse

que son miembros apreciados y muy valiosos para su familia (e.g., Baumrind, 1978). El contexto que rodea a las familias afroamericanas es especialmente adverso; la renta de los hogares es baja, los barrios se encuentran depauperados, el desempleo es alto, las escuelas no tienen apenas recursos. Por tanto, las oportunidades para un desarrollo positivo de los hijos son más bajas, mientras que los riesgos y peligros a los que se enfrentan suelen ser muchos y de graves consecuencias.

Por otro lado, la cultura asiática y, especialmente, China han sido objeto de especial interés en la literatura sobre familia, tanto en investigaciones realizadas en países asiáticos como en otras con familias en países extranjeros, pero con raíces culturales orientales. Por ejemplo, en Estados Unidos la comunidad asiática es relativamente numerosa, comunidad principalmente conformada por familias de origen cultural chino, pero también de otros países de Asia. Algunos estudios con familias chinas parecen identificar el éxito que tienen los hijos con padres autoritarios (severidad, sin afecto), especialmente en la escuela. Se ha planteado la hipótesis explicativa según la cual unas relaciones basadas en la guía y dirección, sin necesidad de afecto (estilo autoritario) podrían ser especialmente útiles en un contexto social y cultural especialmente exigente en cuanto a sus demandas culturales (e.g., Ho, 1986). Los valores asiáticos basados en el colectivismo son diferentes de los de Occidente, que son más individualistas, especialmente en Estados Unidos.

Por influencia del confucianismo, las relaciones entre los miembros de la sociedad son desiguales y claramente jerárquicas, pero basadas en la responsabilidad, la lealtad y la preocupación por el otro. Por ejemplo, entre el profesor y el estudiante, se espera que el profesor ejerza su autoridad y discipline al estudiante para que adquiera una buena instrucción, pero del estudiante se espera que sea un alumno obediente y respetuoso con quien le va a proveer la formación (e.g., Chao, 2000). En el contexto del hogar, los padres deben ejercer el gobierno de la familia y enseñar a sus hijos para que sean miembros responsables de su sociedad, pero los hijos deben ser buenos y leales a sus padres (la llamada piedad filial).

Otra característica fundamental de la cultura asiática es el colectivismo. El hijo se define por lo que es en relación con su familia. El éxito o fracaso del hijo no solo le afecta a él, sino también

a su familia. Por ejemplo, el rendimiento académico, que se encuentra especialmente valorado en las sociedades orientales, representa no solo un logro del hijo, sino también de la propia familia. Los buenos estudiantes han honrado a su familia, mientras que sus padres pueden considerarse que han cumplido con su deber. Pero un bajo rendimiento académico supone culturalmente para los hijos no haber cumplido con sus expectativas y haber decepcionado a sus padres, mientras que para los padres implica haber sido malos educadores (Chao, 2000).

Por último, cabe destacar que investigaciones más recientes principalmente realizadas en países de Europa, así como de Hispanoamérica. De acuerdo con los hallazgos de estos estudios, el estilo óptimo para la socialización exitosa de los hijos podría basarse en el uso del afecto (razonamiento, diálogo, cariño e implicación), si bien el componente de severidad podría no ser necesario o incluso perjudicial, a diferencia de los resultados provenientes de familias europeo-americanas. En este sentido, el llamado estilo indulgente (afecto y severidad) se relaciona con iguales o incluso mejores puntuaciones que el estilo autorizativo (caracterizado también por el uso de afecto, pero sin severidad) en diferentes criterios de ajuste psicosocial.

La presente tesis doctoral, elaborada por compendio de publicaciones, plantea el estudio de la socialización familiar en la sociedad China y su comparativa con Europa (España). Para ello se desarrollaron tres estudios empíricos que han sido publicados en revistas con un alto índice de impacto en Web of Science, situadas en cuartil uno y dos. A continuación, en los siguientes capítulos, se incluyen las publicaciones: el Estudio 1 (que se incluye en el capítulo II), el Estudio 2 (que aparece en el Capítulo III) y el Estudio 3 (que aparece en el capítulo IV). Por último, el Capítulo V incluye un resumen general en el que se incluye una síntesis del marco teórico, los objetivos generales y específicos, los principales resultados y su discusión.

Referencias

- Alcaide, M., Garcia, O. F., Queiroz, P., & Garcia, F. (2023). Adjustment and maladjustment to later life: evidence about

- early experiences in the family. *Frontiers in psychology*, 14, 1059458. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1059458>
- Aunola, K., Stattin, H., & Nurmi, J.-E. (2000). Parenting styles and adolescents' achievement strategies. *Journal of adolescence*, 23(2), 205-222. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jado.2000.0308>
- Baldwin, A. L., Baldwin, C., & Cole, R. E. (1990). Stress-resistant families and stress-resistant children. <https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511752872.016>
- Bao, W.-N., & Haas, A. (2009). Social Change, Life Strain, and Delinquency Among Chinese Urban Adolescents. *Sociological Focus*, 42(3). <https://doi.org/10.1080/00380237.2009.10571358>
- Baumrind, D. (1972). An exploratory study of socialization effects on black children: Some black-white comparisons. *Child development*, 261-267. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1127891>
- Baumrind, D. (1978). Parental disciplinary patterns and social competence in children. *Youth & Society*, 9(3), 239-267. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118x7800900302>
- Baumrind, D. (1983). Rejoinder to Lewis's reinterpretation of parental firm control effects: Are authoritative families really harmonious? <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.94.1.132>
- Baumrind, D. (1991a). Effective parenting during the early adolescent transition. In *Family transitions* (pp. 111-163). Routledge.
- Baumrind, D. (1991b). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *The journal of early adolescence*, 11(1), 56-95. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431691111004>
- Bergen, T. J., & Mi, H.-f. (1995). An analysis and review of Confucian philosophy as the basis for Chinese education. *International Education*, 24(2), 40.
- Bond, M., & Wang, S.-H. (1983). Aggressive behaviour in Chinese society: The problem of maintaining order and harmony. *Bulletin of the Hong Kong Psychological Society*.
- Bustos, V., Oliver, A., & Galiana, L. (2015). Validation of the self-concept form 5 in Peruvian undergraduates: a tool for positive psychology. *Psicologia, Reflexão e Crítica*, 28(4), 690.
- Butler, R. J., & Gasson, S. L. (2005). Self esteem/self concept scales for children and adolescents: A review. *Child and Adolescent mental health*, 10(4), 190-201.

- Calafat, A., García, F., Juan, M., Becoña, E., & Fernández-Hermida, J. R. (2014). Which parenting style is more protective against adolescent substance use? Evidence within the European context. *Drug and alcohol dependence*, 138, 185-192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2014.02.705>
- Caplin, M. D. (1969). The relationship between self concept and academic achievement. *The Journal of Experimental Educational*, 13-16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220973.1969.11011123>
- Cerrato, S. M., Sílvia Bataller, S. B., Casas, F., Pérez, M. E. G., & Carrasco, M. G. (2011). Psychometric analysis of the AF5 multidimensional scale of self-concept in a sample of adolescents and adults in Catalonia. *Psicothema*, 23(4), 871-878.
- Chan, S. M., Bowes, J., & Wyver, S. (2009). Chinese parenting in Hong Kong: Links among goals, beliefs and styles. *Early Child Development and Care*, 179(7), 849-862. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03004430701536525>
- Chao, R., & Tseng, V. (2002). Parenting of asians. *Handbook of parenting*, 4, 59-93. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2002-02522-004>
- Chao, R. K. (1994). Beyond parental control and authoritarian parenting style: Understanding Chinese parenting through the cultural notion of training. *Child development*, 65(4), 1111-1119. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1131308>
- Chao, R. K. (1996). Chinese and European American mothers' beliefs about the role of parenting in children's school success. *Journal of cross-cultural psychology*, 27(4), 403-423.
- Chao, R. K. (2000). The parenting of immigrant Chinese and European American mothers: Relations between parenting styles, socialization goals, and parental practices. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 21(2), 233-248.
- Chao, R. K. (2001). Extending research on the consequences of parenting style for Chinese Americans and European Americans. *Child development*, 72(6), 1832-1843. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00381>
- Chen, C., & Uttal, D. H. (1988). Cultural values, parents' beliefs, and children's achievement in the United States and China. *Human development*, 31(6), 351-358.

- <https://doi.org/10.1159/000276334>
- Chen, X., Dong, Q., & Zhou, H. (1997). Authoritative and authoritarian parenting practices and social and school performance in Chinese children. *International journal of behavioral development*, 21(4), 855-873. <https://doi.org/10.1080/016502597384703>
- Chen, X., Wu, H., Chen, H., Wang, L., & Cen, G. (2001). Parenting practices and aggressive behavior in Chinese children. *Parenting: Science and practice*, 1(3), 159-184.
- Chua, A. (2011). *Battle hymn of the tiger mother*. Bloomsbury publishing.
- Climent-Galarza, S., Alcaide, M., Garcia, O. F., Chen, F., & Garcia, F. (2022). Parental socialization, delinquency during adolescence and adjustment in adolescents and adult children. *Behavioral Sciences*, 12(11), 448. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bs12110448>
- Dakers, J., & Guse, T. (2020). Can dimensions of parenting style contribute to self-compassion among South African adolescents? *Journal of Family Studies*, 28(4), 1566-1579. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13229400.2020.1852951>
- Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113(3), 487-496. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.113.3.487>
- Deater-Deckard, K., Dodge, K. A., Bates, J. E., & Pettit, G. S. (1996). Physical discipline among African American and European American mothers: Links to children's externalizing behaviors. *Developmental Psychology*, 32(6), 1065. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.32.6.1065>
- Deater-Deckard, K., Lansford, J. E., Malone, P. S., Alampay, L. P., Sorbring, E., Bacchini, D., Bombi, A. S., Bornstein, M. H., Chang, L., & Di Giunta, L. (2011). The association between parental warmth and control in thirteen cultural groups. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 25(5), 790.
- Dornbusch, S. M., Ritter, P. L., Leiderman, P. H., Roberts, D. F., & Fraleigh, M. J. (1987). The relation of parenting style to adolescent school performance. *Child development*, 58, 1244-1257. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1130618>
- Dwairy, M., Achoui, M., Abouserie, R., Farah, A., Sakhleh, A. A., Fayad, M., & Khan, H. K. (2006). Parenting styles in Arab societies: A first cross-regional research study. *Journal of*

- cross-cultural psychology*, 37(3), 230-247.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022106286922>
- Elosua, P., & Muñiz, J. (2010). Exploring the factorial structure of the self-concept. *European Psychologist*.
- Fathi-Ashtiani, A., Ejei, J., Khodapanahi, M.-K., & Tarkhorani, H. (2007). Relationship between self-concept, self-esteem, anxiety, depression and academic achievement in adolescents. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, 7(7), 955-1000.
<https://doi.org/10.3923/jas.2007.995.1000>
- Freud, S. (1933). New introductory lectures on Psycho-Analysis. *Archives of neurology and psychiatry*, 33, 1135-1140.
<https://doi.org/10.1001/archneurpsyc.1935.02250170221019>
- Fuentes, M. C., Alarcón, A., Gracia, E., & García, F. (2015). School adjustment among spanish adolescents: Influence of parental socialization/el ajuste escolar en los adolescentes españoles: Influencia de la socialización parental. *Cultura y Educación*, 27(1), 1-32. <https://doi.org/10.1080/11356405.2015.1006847>
- Fuentes, M. C., García, O. F., Alcaide, M., García-Ros, R., & García, F. (2022). Analyzing when parental warmth but without parental strictness leads to more adolescent empathy and self-concept: Evidence from Spanish homes. *Frontiers in psychology*, 13, 1060821.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1060821>
- Fuentes, M. C., García-Ros, R., Pérez-González, F., & Sancerni, D. (2019). Effects of parenting styles on self-regulated learning and academic stress in Spanish adolescents. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 16(15), 2778. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16152778>
- Fung, H. (1999). Becoming a moral child: The socialization of shame among young Chinese children. *Ethos*, 27(2), 180-209.
<https://doi.org/10.1525/eth.1999.27.2.180>
- Furstenberg, F. F., Cook, T. D., Eccles, J., & Elder Jr, G. H. (1999). *Managing to make it: Urban families and adolescent success*. University of Chicago Press.
<http://ci.nii.ac.jp/ncid/BA57644390>
- García, F., & Gracia, E. (2009). Is always authoritative the optimum parenting style? Evidence from Spanish families. *Adolescence*, 44(173), 101-131. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19435170>
- García, F., Gracia, E., & Zeleznova, A. (2013). Validation of the

- English version of the five-factor self-concept questionnaire. *Psicothema*, 549-555.
- Garcia, F., Martínez, I., Balluerka, N., Cruise, E., Garcia, O. F., & Serra, E. (2018). Validation of the Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire AF5 in Brazil: testing factor structure and measurement invariance across language (Brazilian and Spanish), gender, and age. *Frontiers in psychology*, 9, 2250.
- García, F., & Musitu, G. (1999). *Autoconcepto forma 5*. Madrid: Tea.
- Garcia, F., Serra, E., Garcia, O. F., Martinez, I., & Cruise, E. (2019). A third emerging stage for the current digital society? Optimal parenting styles in Spain, the United States, Germany, and Brazil. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 16(13), 2333. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16132333>
- García, J. F., Musitu, G., Riquelme, E., & Riquelme, P. (2011). A confirmatory factor analysis of the “Autoconcepto Forma 5” questionnaire in young adults from Spain and Chile. *The Spanish journal of psychology*, 14(2), 648-658.
- García, J. F., Musitu, G., & Veiga, F. (2006). Self-concept in adults from Spain and Portugal. *Psicothema*, 18(3), 551-556.
- Garcia, O. F., Fuentes, M. C., Gracia, E., Serra, E., & Garcia, F. (2020). Parenting warmth and strictness across three generations: Parenting styles and psychosocial adjustment. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 17(20), 7487. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17207487>
- Garcia, O. F., & Serra, E. (2019). Raising children with poor school performance: Parenting styles and short-and long-term consequences for adolescent and adult development. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 16(7), 1089. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16071089>
- Garcia, O. F., Serra, E., Zacaes, J. J., Calafat, A., & Garcia, F. (2020). Alcohol use and abuse and motivations for drinking and non-drinking among Spanish adolescents: do we know enough when we know parenting style? *Psychology & health*, 35, 645-664. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08870446.2019.1675660>
- Gecas, V. (1982). The self-concept. *Annual review of sociology*, 8(1), 1-33. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.so.08.080182.000245>
- Ghazvini, S. D. (2011). Relationships between academic self-concept and academic performance in high school students. *Procedia-*

- Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, 1034-1039.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.03.235>
- Gimenez-Serrano, S., Alcaide, M., Reyes, M., Zacarés, J. J., & Celdrán, M. (2022). Beyond parenting socialization years: The relationship between parenting dimensions and grandparenting functioning. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 19(8), 4528.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19084528>
- Gimenez-Serrano, S., García, F., & García, O. F. (2022). Parenting styles and its relations with personal and social adjustment beyond adolescence: Is the current evidence enough? *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 19, 749-769. doi:10.1080/17405629.2021.1952863
- Ho, D. Y. (1986). Chinese patterns of socialization: A critical review. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1987-97682-001>
- Ho, D. Y. (1987). Fatherhood in Chinese culture. In *The father's role* (pp. 227-245). Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203761526-18>
- Huang, G. H.-C., & Gove, M. (2015). Confucianism, Chinese families, and academic achievement: Exploring how Confucianism and Asian descendant parenting practices influence children's academic achievement. *Science education in East Asia: Pedagogical innovations and research-informed practices*, 41-66. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-16390-1_3
- Im-Bolter, N., Yaghoub Zadeh, Z., & Ling, D. (2013). Early parenting beliefs and academic achievement: The mediating role of language. *Early Child Development and Care*, 183(12), 1811-1826. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03004430.2012.755964>
- Kelley, M. L., & Tseng, H.-M. (1992). Cultural differences in child rearing: A comparison of immigrant Chinese and Caucasian American mothers. *Journal of cross-cultural psychology*, 23(4), 444-455. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022192234002>
- Kim, U., & Chun, M. B. (1994). Educational "success" of Asian Americans: An indigenous perspective. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*.
- Kritzas, N., & Grobler, A. A. (2005). The relationship between perceived parenting styles and resilience during adolescence. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Mental Health*, 17(1). <https://doi.org/10.2989/17280580509486586>

- Lamborn, S. D., Mounts, N. S., Steinberg, L., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child development*, 62(5), 1049-1065. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1991.tb01588.x>
- Lavrič, M., & Naterer, A. (2020). The power of authoritative parenting: A cross-national study of effects of exposure to different parenting styles on life satisfaction. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 116, 105274.
- Leung, K., Lau, S., & Lam, W.-L. (1998). Parenting styles and academic achievement: A cross-cultural study. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 157-172. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ563105>
- Lin, C. Y. C., & Fu, V. R. (1990). A comparison of child - rearing practices among Chinese, immigrant Chinese, and Caucasian - American parents. *Child development*, 61(2), 429-433. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1131104>
- Luo, G. (1996). Chinese traditional social and moral ideas and rules. In: Beijing, China: The University of Chinese People Press.
- Maccoby, E. E. (1992). The role of parents in the socialization of children: An historical overview. *Developmental Psychology*, 28, 1006-1017. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.28.6.1006>
- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. *Handbook of child psychology*, 4, 1-101. <https://agris.fao.org/agris-search/search.do?recordID=US201301452933>
- Marchetti, B. (1997). Concetto di se'relazioni familiari e valori [Relations between family and value concepts]. *Unpublished master's thesis, University of Bologna, Italy*.
- Marsh, H. W., & Hocevar, D. (1985). Application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of self-concept: First-and higher order factor models and their invariance across groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, 97(3), 562.
- Marsh, H. W., & Martin, A. J. (2011). Academic self - concept and academic achievement: Relations and causal ordering. *British journal of educational psychology*, 81(1), 59-77. <https://doi.org/10.1348/000709910x503501>
- Marsh, H. W., & Shavelson, R. (1985). Self-concept: Its multifaceted, hierarchical structure. *Educational psychologist*, 20(3), 107-

123. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2003_1
- Martínez, I., Cruise, E., García, Ó. F., & Murgui, S. (2017). English validation of the parental socialization scale—ESPA29. *Frontiers in psychology*, 8, 865. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00865>
- Martínez, I., García, F., Fuentes, M. C., Veiga, F., García, O. F., Rodrigues, Y., Cruise, E., & Serra, E. (2019). Researching parental socialization styles across three cultural contexts: Scale ESPA29 bi-dimensional validity in Spain, Portugal, and Brazil. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 16(2), 197. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16020197>
- Martínez, I., García, F., Veiga, F., García, O. F., Rodrigues, Y., & Serra, E. (2020). Parenting styles, internalization of values and self-esteem: A cross-cultural study in Spain, Portugal and Brazil. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 17(7), 2370. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17072370>
- Martínez, I., & García, J. F. (2007). Impact of parenting styles on adolescents' self-esteem and internalization of values in Spain. *The Spanish journal of psychology*, 10(2), 338-348. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s1138741600006600>
- Martínez, I., & García, J. F. (2008). Internalization of values and self-esteem among Brazilian teenagers from authoritative, indulgent, authoritarian, and neglectful homes. *ADOLESCENCE-SAN DIEGO*, 43(169), 13. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/18447078>
- Martínez, I., Murgui, S., García, O. F., & García, F. (2019). Parenting in the digital era: Protective and risk parenting styles for traditional bullying and cyberbullying victimization. *Computers in human behavior*, 90, 84-92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2018.08.036>
- Martínez-Escudero, J. A., García, O. F., Alcaide, M., Bochons, I., & García, F. (2023). Parental Socialization and Adjustment Components in Adolescents and Middle-Aged Adults: How are They Related? *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, 1127-1139. <https://doi.org/10.2147/prbm.s394557>
- Martínez-Escudero, J. A., Villarejo, S., García, O. F., & García, F. (2020). Parental socialization and its impact across the lifespan.

- Behavioral Sciences*, 10(6), 101.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/bs10060101>
- Moffitt, T. E. (1993). Adolescence-limited and life-course-persistent antisocial behavior: A developmental taxonomy. *Psychological Review*, 674-701. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295x.100.4.674>
- Murgui, S., Garcia, C., Garcia, A., & Garcia, F. (2012). Self-concept in young dancers and non-practitioners: Confirmatory factor analysis of the AF5 scale. *Revista de Psicología del Deporte*, 21(2), 263-269.
- Musitu, G., & García, J. F. (2004). Consequences of the family socialization in the Spanish culture. *Psicothema*, 16(2), 288-293. <https://www.redalyc.org/pdf/727/72716218.pdf>
- Musitu Ochoa, G., Román Sánchez, J.-M., & Gracia Fuster, E. (1988). *Familia y educación: Prácticas educativas de los padres y socialización de los hijos*. Ed. Labor. <https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/libro?codigo=239930>
- Musitu-Ferrer, D., León-Moreno, C., Callejas-Jerónimo, J. E., Esteban-Ibáñez, M., & Musitu-Ochoa, G. (2019). Relationships between parental socialization styles, empathy and connectedness with nature: Their implications in environmentalism. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 16(14), 2461. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16142461>
- Nelson, D. A., Hart, C. H., Yang, C., Olsen, J. A., & Jin, S. (2006). Aversive parenting in China: Associations with child physical and relational aggression. *Child development*, 77(3), 554-572. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2006.00890.x>
- Palacios, I., Garcia, O. F., Alcaide, M., & Garcia, F. (2022). Positive parenting style and positive health beyond the authoritative: Self, universalism values, and protection against emotional vulnerability from Spanish adolescents and adult children. *Frontiers in psychology*, 13, 1066282. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1066282>
- Peralta Sánchez, F. J., & Sánchez Roda, M. (2003). Relationships between self-concept and academic achievement in primary students.
- Perez-Gramaje, A. F., Garcia, O. F., Reyes, M., Serra, E., & Garcia, F. (2020). Parenting styles and aggressive adolescents: Relationships with self-esteem and personal maladjustment.

- European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context*, 12(1), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.5093/ejpalc2020a1>
- Pinquart, M. (2017). Associations of parenting dimensions and styles with externalizing problems of children and adolescents: An updated meta-analysis. *Developmental Psychology*, 53(5), 873. <https://doi.org/10.1037/dev0000295>
- Pinquart, M., & Gerke, D.-C. (2019). Associations of parenting styles with self-esteem in children and adolescents: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 28(8), 2017-2035. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-019-01417-5>
- Pinquart, M., & Kauser, R. (2018). Do the associations of parenting styles with behavior problems and academic achievement vary by culture? Results from a meta-analysis. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 24(1), 75. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000149>
- Queiroz, P., García, O. F., García, F., Zacaes, J. J., & Camino, C. (2020). Self and nature: Parental socialization, self-esteem, and environmental values in Spanish adolescents. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 17(10), 3732. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17103732>
- Raboteg-Saric, Z., & Sakic, M. (2014). Relations of parenting styles and friendship quality to self-esteem, life satisfaction and happiness in adolescents. *Applied Research in Quality of life*, 9, 749-765. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-013-9268-0>
- Reyes, M., García, O. F., Perez-Gramaje, A. F., Serra, E., Melendez, J. C., Alcaide, M., & García, F. (2023). Which is the optimum parenting for adolescents with low vs. high self-efficacy? Self-concept, psychological maladjustment and academic performance of adolescents in the Spanish context. *Anales de Psicología/Annals of Psychology*, 39(3), 446-457. <https://doi.org/10.6018/analesps.517741>
- Riquelme, M., García, O. F., & Serra, E. (2018). Psychosocial maladjustment in adolescence: Parental socialization, self-esteem, and substance use. *Anales de psicología*, 34(3), 536.
- Roa García, A. (2013). La educación emocional, el autoconcepto, la autoestima y su importancia en la infancia. *Edetania*(44), 241-257.
- Rodrigues, Y., Veiga, F., Fuentes, M. C., & García, F. (2013). Parenting and adolescents' self-esteem: The Portuguese context.

- Revista de Psicodidáctica*, 18(2), 395-416.
<https://doi.org/10.1387/revpsicodidact.6842>
- Rothman, H. R., & Cosden, M. (1995). The relationship between self-perception of a learning disability and achievement, self-concept and social support. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 18(3), 203-212.
- Rudy, D., & Grusec, J. E. (2001). Correlates of authoritarian parenting in individualist and collectivist cultures and implications for understanding the transmission of values. *Journal of cross-cultural psychology*, 32(2), 202-212.
- Rupprecht, H.-w., Shen, J., Pan, G., Li, Y., & Wen, Y. (2020). *Speaking Out: Issues and Controversies 各抒己见: An Advanced Chinese Reader 汉语高级读本*. Routledge.
- Sadeghi, S., Ayoubi, S., & Brand, S. (2022). Parenting Styles Predict Future-Oriented Cognition in Children: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Children*, 9(10), 1589.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/children9101589>
- Salum-Fares, A., Marín, R., & Reyes, C. (2011). Relevancia de las dimensiones del autoconcepto en estudiantes de escuelas secundarias de ciudad Victoria, Tamaulipas, México. *Revista electrónica de psicología Iztacala*, 14(2), 255-272.
- Sandoval-Obando, E., Alcaide, M., Salazar-Muñoz, M., Peña-Troncoso, S., Hernández-Mosqueira, C., & Gimenez-Serrano, S. (2022). Raising children in risk neighborhoods from Chile: Examining the relationship between parenting stress and parental adjustment. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health*, 19, 45.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19010045>
- Schaefer, E. S. (1959). A circumplex model for maternal behavior. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 59(2), 226.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/h0041114>
- Sears, R. R., Maccoby, E. E., & Levin, H. (1957). Patterns of child rearing. 22(5), 604. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2089503>
- Shavelson, R. J., Hubner, J. J., & Stanton, G. C. (1976). Self-concept: Validation of construct interpretations. *Review of educational research*, 46(3), 407-441.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543046003407>
- Shek, D. T. (2006a). Assessment of perceived parental psychological control in Chinese adolescents in Hong Kong. *Research on*

- social work practice*, 16(4), 382-391. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731506286231>
- Shek, D. T. (2006b). Chinese family research: Puzzles, progress, paradigms, and policy implications. In (Vol. 27, pp. 275-284): Sage Publications Sage CA: Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Shek, D. T. (2007). Perceived parental control based on indigenous Chinese parental control concepts in adolescents in Hong Kong. *The American Journal of Family Therapy*, 35(2), 123-137. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01926180600553480>
- Shwalb, D. W., Nakazawa, J., Yamamoto, T., & Hyun, J.-H. (2004). Fathering in Japanese, Chinese, and Korean cultures. *The role of the father in child development*, 146-181.
- Slote, W. H., & De Vos, G. A. (1998). *Confucianism and the family*. State University of New York Press. <https://doi.org/10.5860/choice.36-2132>
- Steinberg, L. (2001). We know some things: Parent-adolescent relationships in retrospect and prospect. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 11(1), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1532-7795.00001>
- Steinberg, L., Elmen, J. D., & Mounts, N. S. (1989). Authoritative parenting, psychosocial maturity, and academic success among adolescents. *Child development*, 60(6), 1424-1436. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1130932>
- Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S. D., Darling, N., Mounts, N. S., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1994). Over - time changes in adjustment and competence among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child development*, 65(3), 754-770. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1994.tb00781.x>
- Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S. D., Dornbusch, S. M., & Darling, N. (1992). Impact of parenting practices on adolescent achievement: Authoritative parenting, school involvement, and encouragement to succeed. *Child development*, 63(5), 1266-1281.
- Steinberg, L., Mounts, N. S., Lamborn, S. D., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment across varied ecological niches. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 1, 19-36.

- <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED324558.pdf>
- Stevenson, H. W., Lee, S.-Y., Chen, C., Stigler, J. W., Hsu, C.-C., Kitamura, S., & Hatano, G. (1990). Contexts of achievement: A study of American, Chinese, and Japanese children. *Monographs of the society for research in child development*, i-119. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1166090>
- Sue, S., & Okazaki, S. (1990). Asian-American educational achievements. A phenomenon in search of an explanation. *The American psychologist*, 45(8), 913-920.
- Supple, A. J., Ghazarian, S. R., Peterson, G. W., & Bush, K. R. (2009). Assessing the cross-cultural validity of a parental autonomy granting measure: Comparing adolescents in the United States, China, Mexico, and India. *Journal of cross-cultural psychology*, 40(5), 816-833. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022109339390>
- Symonds, P. M. (1939). The psychology of parent-child relationships. *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 91(6), 818. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00005053-194006000-00079>
- Tobin, J. J., Wu, D. Y., & Davidson, D. H. (1989). *Preschool in three cultures: Japan, China, and the United States*. Yale University Press.
- Tomás, J., & Oliver, A. (2004). Confirmatory factor analysis of a Spanish multidimensional scale of self-concept. *Interamerican Journal of Psychology*, 38(2), 285.
- Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96(3), 506. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295x.96.3.506>
- Triandis, H. C. (2001). Individualism - collectivism and personality. *Journal of personality*, 69(6), 907-924. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6494.696169>
- Veiga, F. H., García Pérez, J. F., Reeve, J., Wentzel, K., & Garcia, O. F. (2015). When adolescents with high self-concept lose their engagement in school. <https://doi.org/10.1387/revpsicodidact.12671>
- Villarejo, S., Garcia, O. F., Alcaide, M., Villarreal, M. E., & Garcia, F. (2023). Early Family Experiences, Drug Use, and Psychosocial Adjustment across the Life Span: Is Parental Strictness Always a Protective Factor? *Psychosocial Intervention*.

- Villarejo, S., Martinez-Escudero, J., & Garcia, O. (2020). Parenting styles and their contribution to children personal and social adjustment. *Ansiedad Estres*, 26, 1-8.
- Watson, J. B. (1928). *Psychological care of infant and child*. <http://ci.nii.ac.jp/ncid/BA38484628>
- Wilson, R. W. (1974). The moral state: A study of the political socialization of Chinese and American children. *American Political Science Review*, 71(2). <https://doi.org/10.2307/1978510>
- Wu, C., & Chao, R. K. (2011). Intergenerational cultural dissonance in parent-adolescent relationships among Chinese and European Americans. *Developmental Psychology*, 47(2), 493. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021063>
- Wu, P., Robinson, C. C., Yang, C., Hart, C. H., Olsen, S. F., Porter, C. L., Jin, S., Wo, J., & Wu, X. (2002). Similarities and differences in mothers' parenting of preschoolers in China and the United States. *International journal of behavioral development*, 26(6), 481-491. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01650250143000436>
- Xiong, R., Li, S. D., & Xia, Y. (2020). A longitudinal study of authoritative parenting, juvenile delinquency and crime victimization among Chinese adolescents. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 17(4), 1405. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17041405>
- Yang, K.-S. (1986). *Chinese personality and its change*. The psychology of the Chinese people.
- Ybrandt, H. (2008). The relation between self-concept and social functioning in adolescence. *Journal of adolescence*, 31(1), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2007.03.004>
- Yeung, J. W. (2021). Family processes, parenting practices, and psychosocial maturity of Chinese youths: a latent variable interaction and mediation analysis. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 18(8), 4357. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18084357>
- Yu, A. C. (1968). The Confucian Concept of Order. *Thought: Fordham University Quarterly*, 43(2), 249-272. <https://doi.org/10.5840/thought196843219>
- Zayas, L. H., & Solari, F. (1994). Early childhood socialization in Hispanic families: Context, culture, and practice implications.

- Professional psychology: Research and practice*, 25(3), 200.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7028.25.3.200>
- Zhao, Q. (2018). The influence of Confucianism on Chinese politics and foreign policy. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, 7(4), 321-328. <https://doi.org/10.1108/aeds-03-2018-0057>
- Zhu, Z. S., & Hu, B. Y. (2011). San zi jing: a Chinese primer. *Childhood Education*, 87(6), 415.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00094056.2011.10523225>

Capítulo II

Estudio 1– Self-Concept in China: Validation of the Chinese Version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept (AF5) Questionnaire

Primer Artículo

Chen, F., Garcia, O. F., Fuentes, M. C., Garcia-Ros, R., & Garcia, F. (2020). Self-Concept in China: Validation of the Chinese version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept AF5 Questionnaire *Symmetry*, 12(798), 1-13.
doi:10.3390/sym12050798

Abstract

The principle of invariance is a mandatory methodological requirement for the psychological measures, even when items such as self-concept measures frequently present asymmetric

heavy-tailed distributions. Few validated self-concept instruments can be applied in Eastern–Western cross-cultural studies. The Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire (AF5) is one of the few psychometrically sound instruments used to assess multidimensional self-concept in Spanish-speaking samples. The availability of the AF5 in Spanish and Chinese would facilitate cross-cultural research. To validate the Chinese version of the AF5, we used multisample confirmatory factor analysis with transformed dichotomous scales from the median to compare four alternative theoretical models. The sample consisted of 2507 participants (52.3% women) from China ($n = 1298$) and Spain ($n = 1209$), ranging in age from 19 to 35. Analyses confirmed the five-factor structure of the Chinese AF5 (i.e., academic, social, emotional, family, and physical) compared to the Spanish sample. Moreover, the Chinese version of the AF5 was found to be invariant in terms of item-factor weights, factor variance, and between-factor covariance, compared to the original Spanish version. The findings from this first validation study indicate that the Chinese version of the AF5 is an acceptable measure for use with Chinese-speaking adolescents and young adults.

Keywords: self-concept; validation; confirmatory factor analyses; Chinese adolescents and young adults; asymmetric distributions

1. Introduction

Self-concept is usually conceptualized as an individual's self-perception formed by experiences with significant others, attributions for one's own behavior, and environmental reinforcements. The adequate perception, organization, and integration of the experiences that differentiate human beings

have been positively related to adequate behavioral, cognitive, affective, and social functioning [1–3]. From this perspective, in the literature, self-concept has been considered an important indicator of psychosocial adjustment [4–6].

However, self-concept is one of the most difficult measures for psychological science because people tend to indicate very high values on the response scale in some sensitive questions (e.g., my family cares for me, or, in reverse form, my family hates me) [7–9]. When a higher rate denotes a good personal valuation, a negative skew is observed (where the tail is on the left side of the distribution); when a high answer implies a poor personal valuation, a heavy positive skew is observed (where the tail is on the right side of the distribution). Although response distributions are usually unimodal, they present at least two widely recognized technical problems: (1) it is difficult to differentiate the responses that are not in the tail of the distribution [7–9] and (2) wide tails are challenging in that they cause the statistical error to increase more seriously when researchers apply parametric statistics [10–14]. This behavioral pattern observed in psychological science does not seem clearly correlated with behavioral instability newly studied in Symmetry [15] but has caused serious problems in confirming invariance [8,9,12], among other well-known problems [11,16,17]. In the present work, we transformed the original response scale, from 1 to 99, to a new scale that is dichotomized by median, which resolves the problem with the skewness of the original distributions [18,19].

This paper addresses whether the AF5 questionnaire, initially designed to measure self-concept in a Western cultural context, is also valid in the non-Western context (here, the Chinese culture). The principle of invariance is a methodological requirement for psychological measures. The AF5 Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire is one of the most common

measures used to capture self-concept in Spanish-speaking samples. The AF5 questionnaire is a 30-item scale validated in Spain with more than 6000 participants from 10 to 62 years old. It is designed to assess five domains of self-concept (i.e., academic, social, emotional, family, and physical) rated on a scale of 1 to 99, with six items in each of the five subscales. The AF5 theoretical structure is based on the hierarchical and multidimensional approach proposed by Shavelson and colleagues (1976) [2], where self-concept is multifaceted rather than a unidimensional construct.

Previous research supports the structural validity of the AF5 Questionnaire. Exploratory factor analyses from studies carried out in Spain [20], Italy [21], and Mexico [22] provide evidence of the validity of the AF5 factorial structure. Additionally, confirmatory factor analyses across samples from different regions and countries, such as Spain [12,23], Peru [24], Chile [19], the United States [18], Portugal [7], the Basque Country [25], and Catalonia [26], have widely support the validity of the AF5 questionnaire. Findings from these studies revealed that all the AF5 items loaded in their specific factors, and complex items were not found. It is important to note that, in contrast with other unidimensional measures such as the Rosenberg Scale [27], the AF5 Questionnaire did not show method effects related to negatively worded items [12,19].

Findings from previous research examining the relationships between the AF5 dimensions and other related constructs confirmed the expected theoretical relationships. For example, these studies used indicators of psychosocial adjustment such as behavior problem profiles during adolescence [28], traditional bullying and cyberbullying victimization [29], video game use among university students [30], long-term socialization

outcomes [31], antisocial tendency during adolescence [32], drug use [33,34], self-determined motivation and well-being [35], and adolescent psychosocial maladjustment [36]. Along the same lines, as expected, higher AF5 self-concept scores are related to greater life satisfaction [37] and physical activity [38] and less food neophobia [39]. Furthermore, the AF5 questionnaire has been used as an indicator to validate other measures of self-concept [40] and self-esteem [41]. Finally, the AF5 scale is usually used in the validation of questionnaires to evaluate relevant constructs such as parental psychological control [42], sport motivation [43], academic motivation [44], emotional intelligence [13], or risk of sexual abuse [45].

The impact of cultural values on self-presentation—including self-concept—has been examined by cross-cultural research. The culture might determine, at least in part, self-representation in terms of collectivism (i.e., perceiving the self as part of a collective) and individualism (i.e., perceiving the self as an autonomous individual) [46–49]. It is argued that self-conceptions in individualistic societies are predominantly abstract and decontextualized, while in collectivistic societies they tend to be more influenced by the social context [50]. Overall, self-concept has been considered an important indicator of psychosocial adjustment in children, adolescents, and adults [5,6,31,51], regardless of cultural background (although some cross-cultural scholars have described differences in self-concept scores across ethnic and cultural contexts) [52–54].

Nevertheless, cross-cultural research questions the extent to which empirical findings about self-concept, mainly obtained from studies conducted in Western societies (e.g., Anglo-Saxon and European countries), can be extended to Eastern societies [49,50]. For example, individuals from Western societies have greater self-concept clarity (i.e., the extent to

which self-beliefs are clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent, and stable) than their counterparts from Eastern societies [55]. Therefore, an important question is whether the structure of self-concept (i.e., global or multidimensional) is the same or different by cultural context. It seems that individuals from Anglo-Saxon and European countries perceive different but related domains of themselves (i.e., multidimensional self-concept), although these main findings should be tested more exhaustively in other cultural contexts. Specifically, China has received special attention due to its particular cultural traits based on Confucianism and the pursuit of the supreme Chinese virtue, jen [46,48]. Previous studies examining self-concept in China have focused only on Chinese participants [56], or have compared Chinese and their counterparts from a Western country but have not analyzed the invariance of the measures [53], or found difficulties in translating the meaning of some items to Chinese language [57], or have examined the invariance of the measures in a sample of adolescents without including adults [58].

In order to compare different constructs (e.g., self-concept or parenting) in cross-cultural research, it is necessary to find out whether the measures of the constructs are culturally invariant, in other words, whether the meaning of the items is the same for respondents in different cultural contexts [58]. To verify that the specific measure consistently evaluates the same construct across various cultural contexts, invariance analysis is usually conducted with multigroup confirmatory factor analyses. Previous studies have examined the invariance of the five-dimensional AF5 structure in different cultural contexts, such as those of Portugal [7], Chile [19], Brazil [14], and the United States [18]. However, all these previous studies were conducted in Western countries, and the multidimensional structure of AF5

has not yet been examined in non-Western cultural contexts. Therefore, the present study aims to test (i) the multidimensionality of the Spanish and Chinese versions of the AF5 using CFA analysis and (ii) the invariance of the multidimensional structure of AF5 in Spanish and Chinese samples.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Participants and Procedure

The Chinese sample consisted of 1298 participants (589 adolescents and 709 young adults), ranging from 12 to 31 years old ($M = 17.85$, $SD = 2.99$); there were 684 females (52.7%) and 614 males (47.3%). The Spanish sample consisted of 1209 participants (597 adolescents (49.4%) and 612 young adults (50.6%)), ranging from 12 to 35 years old ($M = 20.20$, $SD = 4.60$); there were 627 females (51.9%) and 582 males (48.1%).

To obtain the adolescent participants, we contacted the heads of high schools, whereas young adults were recruited from universities. In China, four public and private high schools and four public universities were contacted, all of them from a region in Western China. In Spain, six public and private high schools and four public and private universities were contacted, all of them from a region on the East Coast of Spain. All the participants in the present study (88% response rate) (a) were Chinese or Spanish speaking, as were their parents and four grandparents; (b) had received their parents' approval (adolescent participants) and signed informed consent forms; and (c) attended the designated classroom where the research was conducted.

To translate the AF5 from Spanish to Chinese, we used the back-translation method [59]. Thus, the 30 AF5 items were

translated from Spanish to Chinese by one group of experts, and then from Chinese to Spanish by another group of experts (for a similar procedure, see [18]). This procedure prevents errors during translation and ensures conceptual equivalence.

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. Self-Concept

The AF5 Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire [20] evaluates five self-concept domains: “academic/professional”, which evaluates individuals’ perceptions of their performance as a student or worker (an example of an item is “I work very hard in class [at work]”, “我很勤奋地学习 [工作]”); “social”, which denotes individuals’ perceptions of their social relationships (an example of an item is “I have many friends”, “我有很多的朋友”); “emotional”, which includes individuals’ perceptions of their emotional state and their reactions to specific situations (an example of a reversed item is “I feel nervous”, “我感到焦虑”); “family”, which refers to individuals’ perceptions of their involvement, participation, and integration in the family context (an example of an item is “I am happy at home”, “我在家感到快乐”); and “physical”, which includes individuals’ perceptions of their physical appearance and performance (an example of an item is “I am good at sports”, “我擅长做运动”). The scale has 30 items (six for each domain) and a 99-point response scale ranging from “1, strong disagreement” to “99, strong agreement”. Higher scores represent a greater sense of self-concept.

2.2.2. Parental Socialization

The acceptance/involvement dimension was measured with the 20 items on the Warmth/Affection Scale (WAS) [60,61]. This scale captures the degree to which adolescents value their parents' responses as caring and faithful (examples of items are "talk to me in a warm and loving way", "他们用亲密的方式与我交流" and "make it easy for me to tell them things that are important to me", "他们让我觉得很 容易倾诉一些重要的事情"). Young adult participants were instructed to reflect on how their parents treated them during their adolescence, and so they responded to the adult version (examples of English items are "talked to me in a warm and loving way" and "made it easy for me to tell them things that were important to me"). The strictness/imposition dimension was measured with the 13 items on the Parental Control Scale (PCS) [60,61]. This scale captures the degree of rigid and demanding control that the participants' parents have over them (examples of items are "they make sure that I know exactly what I can and cannot do", "他们让我清晰地知道什么是我能做的, 什 是 我不能做的事情" and "they give me certain jobs to do and will not let me do anything else until I am done", "他们会给我布置任 务, 并且在我做完之前不允许我做其他任何事情"). The young adult participants also responded to the adult version (examples of English items are "they made sure that I knew exactly what I could and could not do" and "they gave me certain jobs to do and would not let me do anything else until I was done"). The two measures share a Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 to 4, with 1 being "almost never true" and 4 being "almost always true". Higher scores on the WAS and the PCS indicate greater degrees of acceptance/involvement and

strictness/imposition, respectively. These scales have been intensively tested in many studies and found to be significantly correlated with other commonly used measures in this area [60,61]. It is noteworthy that the parental acceptance/involvement dimension has been associated with a high adolescent self-concept, and the strictness/imposition dimension has been related to a low adolescent self-concept [6,31,33,34,60,62].

2.3. Data Analysis

We compared the fit of the four alternative theoretical models. In the first step, a one-factor model was tested. The fit of one-factor or one-dimensional conception of self-concept to data samples was examined [27,63]. In the second step, the orthogonal five-factor model was tested, where self-concept was considered a multidimensional construct with five dimensions (i.e., academic, social, emotional, family, and physical), but these dimensions were orthogonal (i.e., non-related) [2,14,64]. In the third step, the correlated five-factor model was tested, in which the five dimensions of self-concept were correlated with each other [2,7,14]. In the fourth step, the model was the same as in the third step, but we freed the error covariance restriction for the more correlated pairs of items in each factor [65]. The maximum likelihood (ML) estimation method was used for the CFA analysis.

Then, as in previous studies, the negative effect of large standard error on confirmatory fit indexes was examined following the reduction variance method. After converting the 99-point scale to a discrete scale (below or above the median value), all the analyses of the four alternative theoretical models were conducted again (for the same procedure, see also [18], p.

551). In order to examine the fit index, the following statistics were used: Satorra–Bentler chi-squared statistic [66], root-mean-squared error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and Akaike information criterion (AIC). We used the EQS 6.1 [67] software to calculate the fit indexes of the models to the data. We applied the robust Satorra–Bentler chi-squared statistic since all AF5 items are not always normally distributed [66]. Additionally, with the transformed dichotomous scale, we applied tetrachoric correlations [67]. As chi-squared tests of goodness-of-fit models are overly sensitive to sample size [7,68,69], other standard fit indexes were calculated: RMSEA, which values lower than 0.08 are considered acceptable; CFI, whose value must exceed 0.90; and AIC, where the lowest value indicates the highest parsimony [70].

Finally, after the four alternative theoretical models were compared, the invariance between Spanish and Chinese version was tested. Once the baseline model had been identified for each version, the next invariance test was conducted for both the Spanish and Chinese samples under the following conditions: (i) unconstrained, without any restrictions across parameters; (ii) factor pattern coefficients; (iii) factor variances and covariances; and (iv) the equality of the error variances. To prove whether imposing constraining parameters in all samples does not produce a meaningful decrease in fit, the χ^2 test has traditionally been used [71]; however, this test has been widely criticized due to its sensitivity to sample size [69,72]. To test the invariance, we applied the strictness criteria of Cheung and Rensvold (2002) [69], which has been widely evidenced to be robust for testing the multigroup invariance with nested models. When Δ CFI was not more than 10 millesimal, i.e., 0.010, the constrained parameters were considered to be invariant across groups [69]. Conversely, if the restricted model

is differentiated by a larger increment, i.e., if Δ CFI was more than 10 millesimal, the invariance is rejected, and the constrained model was confirmed to have led to a meaningful decrease in fit as compared to the unconstrained model.

3. Results

3.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Results obtained for the four models tested in each sample are shown in Table 1. As the table shows, all the fit indexes consistently improved when the models were examined based on the discrete scale.

Table 1. *Confirmatory factor analysis and multisample analysis for the invariance between the original Spanish version and the Chinese adaptation.*

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	\Delta CFI	AIC
Discrete Scale						
Oblique er.	1064.18	390	0.038 (0.035–0.041)	0.928	0.034	284.18
Oblique	1382.06	395	0.051 (0.048–0.053)	0.894	0.029	592.06
Orthogonal	1658.44	405	0.051 (0.048–0.053)	0.865	0.305	848.44
Unidimensional	4501.61	405	0.092 (0.089–0.094)	0.560		3691.61
Multisample						
Country						
Unrestricted	24,663.35	870	0.040 (0.039–0.041)	0.869		2347.45
Equal loadings	4137.60	805	0.041 (0.039–0.042)	0.860	0.009	2527.60
Equal var./cov.	4310.99	820	0.041 (0.040–0.042)	0.853	0.007	2670.99
Equal errors	6546.97	850	0.052 (0.051–0.053)	0.776	0.077	4846.97
Equal errors 2	4628.05	834	0.043 (0.041–0.044)	0.844	0.009	2960.05

In both samples, the worst fit was shown when the data were constrained to be congruent with the one-dimensional model, obtaining the most distant values from the conventional standards. After that, when the five-dimensional model was introduced, data fit progressively improved. In this regard, the orthogonal five-dimensional model improved the data fit in

comparison with the one-dimensional model, and the oblique five-dimensional model obtained a better fit than the orthogonal model. Finally, the best fit was shown when the error covariances of the strongly correlated item pairs within the same factor were freed in the model with five oblique dimensions.

3.2. Multisample Analysis of Invariance between the Original Spanish Version and the Chinese Adaptation

Fit index results obtained from the multisample analysis to test the equivalence across languages are shown in Table 1. Thus, in the unrestricted model (the oblique five-dimensional model), the factor loadings for each item did not differ across groups; the relative importance of each of the five factors was equivalent, and they followed the same relational pattern ($\Delta \text{CFI} \leq 0.01$). Finally, with regard to the equivalence of the errors, although at first this constrained step did not provide adequate fit values ($\Delta \text{CFI} > 0.01$), after introducing some changes (equal error 2), the pattern of item residual variances and covariances was the same in the two languages ($\Delta \text{CFI} \leq 0.01$) for the items with the equal value for both samples. Table 2 gives an overview of the parameters estimated with the most restricted model.

Table 2. *Confirmatory factor analysis loadings, variances, covariances, and errors in the most constrained model.*

Item	AC	SO	EM	FA	PH	Errors Spain/China
28			0.63			388.1/572.8
4				0.49		562.0
9				0.65		180.9/374.6
14				0.63		160.7/415.3
19				0.57		133.9/514.0
24				0.74		200.3
29				0.76		80.8/242.3
5					0.30	407.0/744.0
10					0.37	778.8
15					0.50	534.4
20					0.77	187.4/370.3
25					0.42	645.5
30					0.85	120.2/293.5
Factor variances, [covariances], and (correlations)						
AC	186.7	(0.41)	(0.13)	(0.40)	(0.46)	
SO	[120.8]	295.5	(0.35)	(0.34)	(0.47)	
EM	[27.4]	[83.8]	155.2	(0.22)	(0.19)	
FA	[87.7]	[101.6]	[40.2]	186.1	(0.23)	
PH	[56.1]	[75.2]	[27.9]	[37.9]	59.3	

Table 2. Cont.

Note: AC = Academic; SO = Social; EM = Emotional; FA = Family; PH = Physical. All estimated parameters were statistically significant for $\alpha = 0.001$, except the covariance between EM and AC ($p = 0.008$). Negatively worded items (3, 4, 8, 12, 13, 14, 18, 22, 23, and 28) were inverted.

3.3. Reliability

Alpha values for the Spanish and Chinese versions were 0.896 and 0.869 (academic), 0.818 and 0.783 (social), 0.765 and 0.732 (emotional), 0.863 and 0.748 (family), and 0.788 and 0.675 (physical), respectively.

3.4. Convergent Validity

Results of the correlations between the AF5 self-concept dimensions and the main parenting dimensions confirmed the expected theoretical relations [62,73–75] (Table 3). Specifically, a positive relationship was found between the AF5 dimensions (i.e., academic/professional, social, emotional, family, and physical) and parenting acceptance/involvement. Additionally, the highest correlation value was found between family self-concept and parental acceptance/involvement ($r = 0.63$, $r^2 = 0.40$), and only family self-concept was negatively related to the strictness/imposition dimension (robust r^2 intervals (0.07–0.04) did not include the zero value) [16,76–79].

Table 3. Correlations and R^2 between two main parental socialization dimensions and five Self-Concept Dimensions.

AF5 Dimensions	M(SD)	Acceptance/Involvement		Strictness/Imposition	
		r (95% CI)	R^2 (95% CI)	r (95% CI)	R^2 (95% CI)
Academic	6.93 (1.74)	0.335 (0.300–0.370)	0.11 (0.09–0.14)	–0.036 (–0.075 to 0.003)	0.00 (0.01–0.00)
Social	7.23 (1.61)	0.222 (0.184–0.259)	0.05 (0.03–0.07)	0.036 (–0.003 to 0.075)	0.00 (0.00–0.01)
Emotional	5.33 (1.82)	0.147 (0.108–0.185)	0.02 (0.01–0.03)	–0.078 (–0.117 to –0.039)	0.01 (0.01–0.00)
Family	7.83 (1.60)	0.631 (0.607–0.654)	0.40 (0.37–0.43)	–0.232 (–0.269 to –0.195)	0.05 (0.07–0.04)
Physical	6.10 (1.74)	0.205 (0.167–0.242)	0.04 (0.03–0.06)	0.018 (–0.021 to 0.057)	0.00 (0.00–0.00)

4. Discussion

The present study examined the Chinese version of the AF5 Multidimensional Self-Concept Questionnaire using confirmatory factor analysis with multigroup invariance analyses. Overall, findings showed that the theoretical structure proposed for the original Spanish AF5 Questionnaire, where self-concept is a multidimensional construct (i.e., academic, social, emotional, family, and physical) with five correlated factors, was confirmed in the Chinese sample. Specifically, comparing the fit of the alternative theoretical models to the data, the correlated five-factor model had a better fit than the one-factor model and

the orthogonal five-factor model. Additionally, findings also corroborated the measurement invariance between the Chinese and Spanish versions of the AF5 Questionnaire. The Chinese version of the AF5 has good invariant properties on different multisample index criteria, such as factor loadings, and factor variances and covariances; it partially met the criteria regarding error variance of the items. Therefore, the Chinese version of the AF5 Questionnaire has the same multidimensional theoretical pattern as the original Spanish version, and it can be used as a reliable and valid measure of self-concept.

The present study examined the Chinese version of the AF5 Questionnaire, adding new and relevant evidence about self-concept measures. Results from this study confirmed some previous research supporting the correlated five-factor theoretical structure of the AF5, based on studies using exploratory factor analysis [20] and confirmatory factor analysis [12,23]. Results from this study also confirmed those of previous studies concerning the invariant pattern between the original Spanish version of the AF5 Self-Concept Questionnaire and later versions, such as those from Portugal [7], Chile [19], Brazil [14], and the United States [18], extending the evidence to the Chinese version of the AF5 Questionnaire. Additionally, the present results indicated adequate convergent validity of the Chinese version of the AF5 Questionnaire. As expected, theoretical associations between the self-concept domains and the criterion variables (i.e., parental warmth and strictness) were found; as expected, the greatest relationship between the criterion variables and the self-concept dimensions was found in the family domain.

Importantly, the present findings about the multidimensional structure, which was invariant in both the Chinese and Spanish

samples, and the convergent validity of the AF5 Questionnaire, make a relevant contribution to the self-concept literature. Specifically, some students of self-concept, such as Baumesiter [63], following a unidimensional approach based on an overall evaluative component of the self [27,63], have seriously questioned the use of self-concept (labeled self-esteem) as a criterion for psychosocial adjustment. Nevertheless, different studies adopting a multidimensional approach to self-concept have revealed that specific dimensions (e.g., academic self-concept) can be consistently related to particular areas of psychosocial adjustment (e.g., school adjustment, including grade point average or intrinsic motivation) (for a review, see [14,51]). The present study found that the multidimensional self-concept structure of the AF5 Questionnaire was invariant in the Spanish and Chinese samples, and a congruent and expected relationship was also found between the AF5 self-concept dimensions and the criterion variables. Thus, the study provides new evidence about self-concept as a multidimensional construct, rather than a global concept, predicting specific areas of psychosocial adjustment.

Even though the more abstract psychological variables may not be commonly used in symmetry literature, the present paper can offer an easy alternative to resolve similar problems with asymmetric distributions. Asymmetric and symmetric diagnoses have been extensively studied [11,17], and different robust tests have been proposed for asymmetric non-normal data [16]. The main concern about transformed data has been that the new scale does not have the original units (e.g., milliseconds in reaction time). However, self-concept units are produced by the 100 possible alternatives that have been drawn in a thermometer for respondents. The authors of the AF5 questionnaire also could have defined five-point rating scale, or even the dichotomous rating scale. On the other hand, although

in this case asymmetry could be interpreted as an indicator of behavioral instability (i.e., a question implicating an unacceptably bad self-concept for the respondent) [15], in this concrete scenario it represents at least a serious problem for probing the invariance. This scale change can seem similar to using a dichotomous response format (Yes/No) directly, but it differs because it is the wide 99-point scale of the AF5 which allows splitting the original scores into two equal groups, assuring that the two scale points are nearly equal.

Another crucial contribution of the present study is that, despite the importance of multidimensional self-concept as an indicator of psychosocial adjustment [51,80,81], few measures of self-concept have been shown to be culturally invariant, which is important in making cross-cultural comparisons using valid and reliable measures. Overall, cross-cultural research implies that the relationships between several constructs are examined in different cultural contexts. However, although the same constructs should be captured with the same measures, the measures cannot merely be translated from one language into another assuming that the same statements (i.e., items on the questionnaire) are interpreted equally in different places. Instead, invariance should be tested because, without it, findings across groups will be more difficult to interpret and can even lead to erroneous conclusions [58,82,83].

In sum, the present study offers empirical evidence showing that the AF5 Questionnaire is a reliable and valid measure to capture self-concept in the Chinese language, thus extending research about AF5 self-concept to a non-Western cultural context. Nevertheless, findings from the present study are preliminary and should be viewed with some caution. The sample was recruited from a single Asian country (i.e., China),

and so future studies should examine the AF5 self-concept measure in other non-Western countries such as India, Japan, or Arabic countries. Additionally, both the Spanish and Chinese samples include adolescents and young adults. Future studies should examine other adult populations, for instance, middle-aged or older adults.

5. Conclusions

The present study represents a relevant contribution to the literature on self-concept. The AF5 Self-Concept Questionnaire, originally developed in Spain, is one of the most popular measures of self-concept in Spanish language widely used by psychologists and researchers. Previous studies have tested the invariance of the five-dimensional AF5 structure in Portugal [7], Chile [19], Brazil [14], and the United States [18]. In the same line, the present findings extend the empirical evidence about the invariant structure of AF5 to Chinese culture. Additionally, cross-cultural research questions the extent to which results about self-concept in Westerns societies, such as Anglo-Saxon and European countries, can be extended to Eastern societies such as, for example, China [49]. Therefore, a crucial question is whether the structure of self-concept (i.e., global or multidimensional) is the same or different by cultural context. The main findings from the present study suggest that, despite some cross-cultural variations in self-concept among individuals from Western and non-Western societies, both European (Spanish) and Eastern (Chinese) individuals perceived themselves by a multidimensional related structure of self-concept.

Author Contributions: All the authors conceived the study, analyzed the data, and helped to draft and revise the

manuscript. In addition, all authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: The research reported in this article has been partially supported by grants ACIF/2016/431, BEFPI/2017/058 (the Valencian Regional Government, and the European Social Fund), FPU16/00988 (Ministry of Science, Innovation, and Universities, Government of Spain).

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Veiga, F.H.; Garcia, F.; Reeve, J.; Wentzel, K.; Garcia, O.F. When Adolescents with High Self-Concept Lose their Engagement in School. *Rev. Psicodidact.* **2015**, *20*, 305–320.
2. Shavelson, R.J.; Hubner, J.J.; Stanton, G.C. Self-Concept: Validation of Construct Interpretations. *Rev. Educ. Res.* **1976**, *46*, 407–441.
3. Marsh, H.W.; Hocevar, D. Application of Confirmatory Factor Analysis to the Study of Self-Concept: First- and Higher Order Factor Models and their Invariance Across Groups. *Psychol. Bull.* **1985**, *97*, 562–582.
4. Perez-Gramaje, A.F.; Garcia, O.F.; Reyes, M.; Serra, E.; Garcia, F. Parenting Styles and Aggressive Adolescents: Relationships with Self-Esteem and Personal Maladjustment. *Eur. J. Psychol. Appl. Legal Context* **2020**, *12*, 1–10.
5. Harter, S. The Perceived Competence Scale for Children. *Child Dev.* **1982**, *53*, 87–97.
6. Garcia, F.; Serra, E.; Garcia, O.F.; Martinez, I.; Cruise, E. A Third Emerging Stage for the Current Digital Society? Optimal Parenting Styles in Spain, the United States, Germany, and Brazil. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2019**, *16*, 2333.
7. Garcia, J.F.; Musitu, G.; Veiga, F.H. Self-Concept in Adults from Spain and Portugal. *Psicothema* **2006**, *18*, 551–556.

8. Roth, M.; Decker, O.; Herzberg, P.Y.; Brähler, E. Dimensionality and Norms of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale in a German General Population Sample. *Eur. J. Psychol. Assess.* **2008**, *24*, 190–197.
9. Tomás, J.M.; Oliver, A. Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale: Two Factors or Method Effects. *Struct. Equ. Modeling* **1999**, *6*, 84–98.
10. Li, H. Modeling through Group Invariance: An Interesting Example with Potential Applications. *Ann. Stat.* **2002**, *30*, 1069–1080.
11. Franceschini, C.; Loperfido, N. MaxSkew and MultiSkew: Two R Packages for Detecting, Measuring and Removing Multivariate Skewness. *Symmetry* **2019**, *11*, 970.
12. Tomás, J.M.; Oliver, A. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of a Spanish Multidimensional Scale of Self-Concept. *Interam. J. Psychol.* **2004**, *38*, 285–293.
13. Gorostiaga, A.; Balluerka, N.; Aritzeta, A.; Aramburu, M.; Alonso-Arbiol, I. Measuring Perceived Emotional Intelligence in Adolescent Population: Validation of the Short Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS-23). *Int. J. Clin. Health Psychol.* **2011**, *11*, 523–537.
14. Garcia, F.; Martínez, I.; Balluerka, N.; Cruise, E.; Garcia, O.F.; Serra, E. Validation of the Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire AF5 in Brazil: Testing Factor Structure and Measurement Invariance Across Language (Brazilian and Spanish), Gender, and Age. *Front. Psychol.* **2018**, *9*, 2250.
15. Pertoldi, C.; Pagh, S.; Bach, L.A. Asymmetry Indexes, Behavioral Instability and the Characterization of Behavioral Patterns. *Symmetry* **2020**, *12*, 675.
16. Bono, R.; Arnau, J.; Alarcon, R.; Blanca, M.J. Bias, Precision, and Accuracy of Skewness and Kurtosis Estimators for Frequently used Continuous Distributions. *Symmetry* **2020**, *12*, 19.
17. Mahmoudi, M.R.; Nasirzadeh, R.; Baleanu, D.; Pho, K. The Properties of a Decile-Based Statistic to Measure Symmetry and Asymmetry. *Symmetry* **2020**, *12*, 296.
18. Garcia, F.; Gracia, E.; Zeleznova, A. Validation of the English Version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire. *Psicothema* **2013**, *25*, 549–555.

72 Capítulo II: Estudio 1– Self-Concept in China: Validation of the Chinese Version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept (AF5) Questionnaire

19. Garcia, J.F.; Musitu, G.; Riquelme, E.; Riquelme, P. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the “Autoconcepto Forma 5” Questionnaire in Young Adults from Spain and Chile. *Span. J. Psychol.* **2011**, *14*, 648–658.
20. Garcia, F.; Musitu, G. *AF5: Self-Concept Form 5*; TEA editions: Madrid, Spain, 1999; p. 39.
21. Marchetti, B. Concetto Di se ´relazioni Familiari e Valori. Master’s Thesis, University of Bologna, Bologna, Italy, 1997, unpublished.
22. Salum-Fares, A.; Marín, R.; Reyes, C. Relevancia De Las Dimensiones Del Autoconcepto En Estudiantes De Escuelas Secundarias De Ciudad Victoria, Tamaulipas, México. *Rev. Electrónica Psicol. Iztacala* **2011**, *14*, 255–272.
23. Murgui, S.; García, C.; García, A.; Garcia, F. Self-Concept in Young Dancers and Non-Practitioners: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the AF5 Scale. *Rev. Psicol. Deporte* **2012**, *21*, 263–269.
24. Bustos, V.; Oliver, A.; Galiana, L. Validation of the Self-Concept Form 5 in Peruvian Undergraduates: A Tool for Positive Psychology. *Psicol. Reflex. Crit.* **2015**, *28*, 690–697.
25. Elosua, P.; Muñiz, J. Exploring the Factorial Structure of the Self-Concept: A Sequential Approach using CFA, MIMIC, and MACS Models, Across Gender and Two Languages. *Eur. Psychol.* **2010**, *15*, 58–67.
26. Cerrato, S.M.; Sallent, S.B.; Aznar, F.C.; Pérez, E.G.; Carrasco, M.G. Psychometric Analysis of the AF5 Multidimensional Scale of Self-Concept in a Sample of Adolescents and Adults in Catalonia. *Psicothema* **2011**, *23*, 871–878.
27. Rosenberg, M. *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*; Princeton University Press: Princeton, NJ, USA, 1965; p. 326.
28. Lorence, B.; Hidalgo, V.; Pérez-Padilla, J.; Menéndez, S. The Role of Parenting Styles on Behavior Problem Profiles of Adolescents. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2019**, *16*, 2767.
29. Martínez, I.; Murgui, S.; Garcia, O.F.; Garcia, F. Parenting in the Digital Era: Protective and Risk Parenting Styles for Traditional Bullying and Cyberbullying Victimization. *Comput. Hum. Behav.* **2019**, *90*, 84–92.

30. Martinez Martinez, A.; Zurita Ortega, F.; Chacon Cuberos, R.; Espejo Garces, T.; Castro Sanchez, M.; Perez Cortes, A.J. Psychometric Analysis and Adaptation of the Self-Concept Test (Form 5) on University Students Who Play Video Games Frequently. *Rev. Iberoam. Diagn. Eval. -Aval. Psicol.* **2018**, *4*, 77–86.
31. Garcia, O.F.; Serra, E.; Zacaes, J.J.; Garcia, F. Parenting Styles and Short- and Long-Term Socialization Outcomes: A Study among Spanish Adolescents and Older Adults. *Psychosoc. Interv.* **2018**, *27*, 153–161.
32. Garcia, O.F.; Lopez-Fernandez, O.; Serra, E. Raising Spanish Children with an Antisocial Tendency: Do we know what the Optimal Parenting Style is? *J. Interpers. Violence* **2018**.
33. Fuentes, M.C.; Garcia, F.; Gracia, E.; Lila, M. Self-Concept and Drug use in Adolescence. *Adicciones* **2011**, *23*, 237–248.
34. Fuentes, M.C.; Garcia, F.; Gracia, E.; Lila, M. Autoconcepto y Ajuste Psicosocial En La Adolescencia [Self-Concept and Psychosocial Adjustment in Adolescence]. *Psicothema* **2011**, *23*, 7–12.
35. Lombas, A.S.; Angel Esteban, M. The Confounding Role of Basic Needs Satisfaction between Self-Determined Motivation and Well-being. *J. Happiness Stud.* **2018**, *19*, 1305–1327.
36. Riquelme, M.; Garcia, O.F.; Serra, E. Psychosocial Maladjustment in Adolescence: Parental Socialization, Self-Esteem, and Substance use. *An. Psicol.* **2018**, *34*, 536–544.
37. Povedano-Diaz, A.; Muñiz-Rivas, M.; Vera-Perea, M. Adolescents' Life Satisfaction: The Role of Classroom, Family, Self-Concept and Gender. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2020**, *17*, 19.
38. Chacón-Cuberos, R.; Zurita-Ortega, F.; García-Marmol, E.; Castro-Sánchez, M. Multidimensional Self-Concept Depending on Sport Practice in University Students of Physical Education from Andalucía. *Retos* **2020**, *37*, 174–180.
39. Maiz, E.; Balluerka, N. Trait Anxiety and Self-Concept among Children and Adolescents with Food Neophobia. *Food Res. Int.* **2018**, *105*, 1054–1059.
40. Goñi, E.; Madariaga, J.M.; Axpe, I.; Goñi, A. Structure of the Personal Self-Concept (PSC) Questionnaire. *Int. J. Clin. Health Psychol.* **2011**, *11*, 509–522.

74 Capítulo II: Estudio 1– Self-Concept in China: Validation of the Chinese Version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept (AF5) Questionnaire

41. Martín-Albo, J.; Núñez, J.L.; Navarro, J.G.; Grijalvo, F. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale: Translation and Validation in University Students. *Span. J. Psychol.* **2007**, *10*, 458–467.
42. Garcia-Perez, O.; Rodriguez-Menendez, C.; Torio-Lopez, S.; Rodriguez-Perez, S. Validation of the Dependency- Oriented and Achievement-Oriented Psychological Control Scale (DAPCS) in a Spanish-Speaking Late Adolescent Sample. *An. Psicol.* **2019**, *35*, 453–463.
43. Martín-Albo, J.; Nuñez, J.L.; Navarro, J.G.; Leite, M.; Almiron, M.; Glavinich, N. Propiedades psicométricas De La versión española De La Escala De motivación Deportiva En Paraguay. *Rev. Mex. Psicol.* **2007**, *24*, 43–52.
44. Nuñez, J.L.; Martín-Albo, J.; Navarro, J.G.; Suarez, Z. Adaptación y Validación De La Versión Española De La Escala De Motivación Educativa En Estudiantes De Educación Secundaria Postobligatoria. *Estud. Psicol.* **2010**, *31*, 89–100.
45. Gil-Llario, M.D.; Ballester-Arnal, R.; Morell-Mengual, V.; Caballero-Gascon, L.; Castro-Calvo, J. Development and Psychometric Properties of the Detection of Sexual Abuse Risk Screening Scale (DSARss). *Sex. Abuse-J. Res. Treat* **2019**.
46. Marus, H.; Kitayama, S. Culture and the Self - Implications for Cognition, Emotion, and Motivation. *Psychol. Rev.* **1991**, *98*, 224–253.
47. Singelis, T.M.; Triandis, H.C.; Bhawuk, D.P.S.; Gelfand, M.J. Horizontal and Vertical Dimensions of Individualism and Collectivism: A Theoretical and Measurement Refinement. *Cross-Cult. Res.* **1995**, *29*, 240–275.
48. Chen, X.; Zappulla, C.; Lo Coco, A.; Schneider, B.; Kaspar, V.; De Oliveira, A.; He, Y.; Li, D.; Li, B.; Bergeron, N.; et al. Self-Perceptions of Competence in Brazilian, Canadian, Chinese and Italian Children: Relations with Social and School Adjustment. *Int. J. Behav. Dev.* **2004**, *28*, 129–138.
49. Spencer-Rodgers, J.; Boucher, H.C.; Mori, S.C.; Wang, L.; Peng, K. The Dialectical Self-Concept: Contradiction, Change, and Holism in East Asian Cultures. *Person. Soc. Psychol. Bull.* **2009**, *35*, 29–44.
50. Shweder, R.A.; Bourne, E.J. Does the Concept of the Person Vary Cross-Culturally? In *Cultural Conceptions of Mental Health and Therapy*; Marsella,

- A.J., White, G.M., Eds.; Springer Netherlands: Dordrecht, The Netherlands, 1982; pp. 97–137.
51. Marsh, H.W.; Martin, A.J. Academic Self-Concept and Academic Achievement: Relations and Causal Ordering. *Br. J. Educ. Psychol.* **2011**, *81*, 59–77.
 52. Gray-Little, B.; Hafdahl, A.R. Factors Influencing Racial Comparisons of Self-Esteem: A Quantitative Review. *Psychol. Bull.* **2000**, *126*, 26–49.
 53. Stigler, J.; Smith, S.; Mao, L. The Self-Perception of Competence by Chinese-Children. *Child Dev.* **1985**, *56*, 1259–1270.
 54. Lee, J. Universals and Specifics of Math Self-Concept, Math Self-Efficacy, and Math Anxiety Across 41 PISA 2003 Participating Countries. *Learn. Individ. Differ.* **2009**, *19*, 355–365.
 55. Campbell, J.; Trapnell, P.; Heine, S.; Katz, I.; Lavalley, L.; Lehman, D. Self-Concept Clarity: Measurement, Personality Correlates, and Cultural Boundaries. *J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.* **1996**, *70*, 141–156.
 56. Chan, D. Self-Concept Domains and Global Self-Worth among Chinese Adolescents in Hong Kong. *Pers. Individ. Differ.* **1997**, *22*, 511–520.
 57. Cheng, S.; Hamid, P. An Error in the use of Translated Scales - the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for Chinese. *Percept. Mot. Skills* **1995**, *81*, 431–434.
 58. Leung, K.C.; Marsh, H.W.; Craven, R.G.; Abduljabbar, A.S. Measurement Invariance of the Self-Description Questionnaire II in a Chinese Sample. *Eur. J. Psychol. Assess.* **2016**, *32*, 128–139.
 59. Brislin, R.W. Back-Translation for Cross-Cultural Research. *J. Cross-Cult. Psychol.* **1970**, *1*, 185–216.
 60. Ali, S.; Khaleque, A.; Rohner, R.P. Pancultural Gender Differences in the Relation between Perceived Parental Acceptance and Psychological Adjustment of Children and Adult Offspring: A Meta-Analytic Review of Worldwide Research. *J. Cross-Cult. Psychol.* **2015**, *46*, 1059–1080.
 61. Garcia, F.; Gracia, E. Is always Authoritative the Optimum Parenting Style? Evidence from Spanish Families. *Adolescence* **2009**, *44*, 101–131.

76 Capítulo II: Estudio 1– Self-Concept in China: Validation of the Chinese Version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept (AF5) Questionnaire

62. Martínez, I.; Garcia, F.; Musitu, G.; Yubero, S. Family Socialization Practices: Factor Confirmation of the Portuguese Version of a Scale for their Measurement. *Rev. Psicodidact.* **2012**, *17*, 159–178.
63. Baumeister, R.F.; Campbell, J.D.; Krueger, J.I.; Vohs, K.D. Does High Self-Esteem Cause Better Performance, Interpersonal Success, Happiness, Or Healthier Lifestyles? *Psychol. Sci. Public Interest* **2003**, *4*, 1–44.
64. Burbach, H.J.; Bridgemen, B. Dimensions of Self-Concept among Black and White Fifth Grade Children. *J. Negro Educ.* **1976**, *45*, 448–458.
65. Byrne, B.M.; Shavelson, R.J. On the Structure of Social Self-Concept for Pre-, Early, and Late Adolescents: A Test of the Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976) Model. *J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.* **1996**, *70*, 599–613.
66. Satorra, A.; Bentler, P.M. A Scaled Difference Chi-Square Test Statistic for Moment Structure Analysis. *Psychometrika* **2001**, *66*, 507–514.
67. Byrne, B.M. *Structural Equation Modeling with EQS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*, 2nd ed.; Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: Mahwah, NJ, USA, 2006; p. 440.
68. Bentler, P.M.; Bonett, D.G. Significance Tests and Goodness of Fit in the Analysis of Covariance Structures. *Psychol. Bull.* **1980**, *88*, 588–606.
69. Cheung, G.W.; Rensvold, R.B. Evaluating Goodness-of-Fit Indexes for Testing Measurement Invariance. *Struct. Equ. Model.* **2002**, *9*, 233–255.
70. Akaike, H. Factor Analysis and AIC. *Psychometrika* **1987**, *52*, 317–332.
71. Spencer, M.S.; Fitch, D.; Grogan-Kaylor, A.; Mcbeath, B. The Equivalence of the Behavior Problem Index Across U.S. Ethnic Groups. *J. Cross-Cultural Psychol.* **2005**, *36*, 573–589.
72. Kelloway, E.K. Structural Equation Modeling in Perspective. *J. Organ. Behav.* **1995**, *16*, 215–224.
73. Barber, B.K.; Chadwick, B.A.; Oerter, R. Parental Behaviors and Adolescent Self-Esteem in the United-States and Germany. *J. Marriage Fam.* **1992**, *54*, 128–141.

74. Martinez, I.; Garcia, F.; Veiga, F.; Garcia, O.F.; Rodrigues, Y.; Serra, E. Parenting Styles, Internalization of Values and Self-Esteem: A Cross-Cultural Study in Spain, Portugal and Brazil. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2020**, *17*, 2370.
75. Martinez, I.; Garcia, F.; Fuentes, M.C.; Veiga, F.; Garcia, O.F.; Rodrigues, Y.; Cruise, E.; Serra, E. Researching Parental Socialization Styles Across Three Cultural Contexts: Scale ESPA29 Bi-Dimensional Validity in Spain, Portugal, and Brazil. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2019**, *16*, 197.
76. Blanca, M.J.; Alarcon, R.; Arnau, J.; Bono, R.; Bendayan, R. Effect of Variance Ratio on ANOVA Robustness: Might 1.5 be the Limit? *Behav. Res. Methods* **2018**, *50*, 937–962.
77. Garcia, J.F.; Pascual, J.; Frias, M.D.; Van Krunkelsven, D.; Murgui, S. Design and Power Analysis: N and Confidence Intervals of Means. *Psicothema* **2008**, *20*, 933–938.
78. Gracia, E.; Garcia, F.; Lila, M. Male Police Officers' Law Enforcement Preferences in Cases of Intimate Partner Violence Versus Non-Intimate Interpersonal Violence: Do Sexist Attitudes and Empathy Matter? *Crim. Justice Behav.* **2014**, *41*, 1195–1213.
79. Pérez, J.F.G.; Navarro, D.F.; Llobell, J.P. Statistical Power of Solomon Design. *Psicothema* **1999**, *11*, 431–436.
80. Musitu-Ferrer, D.; Esteban Ibáñez, M.; León, C.; Garcia, O.F. Is School Adjustment Related to Environmental Empathy and Connectedness to Nature? *Psychosoc. Interv.* **2019**, *28*, 101–110.
81. Garcia, O.F.; Serra, E.; Zacaes, J.J.; Calafat, A.; Garcia, F. Alcohol use and Abuse and Motivations for Drinking and Non-Drinking among Spanish Adolescents: Do we Know enough when we Know Parenting Style? *Psychol. Health* **2019**.
82. Byrne, B.M. Testing for Multigroup Equivalence of a Measuring Instrument: A Walk through the Process. *Psicothema* **2008**, *20*, 872–882.
83. Gracia, E.; Fuentes, M.C.; Garcia, F.; Lila, M. Perceived Neighborhood Violence, Parenting Styles, and Developmental Outcomes among Spanish Adolescents. *J. Community Psychol.* **2012**, *40*, 1004–1021.

Capítulo III

Estudio 2 – Parental Socialization, Delinquency during Adolescence and Adjustment in Adolescents and Adult Children

Segundo Artículo

Climent-Galarza, S., Alcaide, M., Garcia, O. F.,
Chen, F., & Garcia, F. (2022). Parental
socialization, delinquency during
adolescence and adjustment in
adolescents and adult children.
Behavioral Sciences, 12(448), 1-21.
doi:10.3390/bs12110448

Abstract

Although parental socialization has an influence on child development, current research is questioning which combination of parental strictness and warmth acts as

protective or risk factors, especially during adolescence when the child is more vulnerable. The sample was 2125 participants, 58.7% female, divided into four age groups: adolescents (28.57%), young adults (28.38%), middle-aged adults (23.95%), and older adults (19.11%). The families were classified into four parenting styles: neglectful, indulgent, authoritative, and authoritarian according to their warmth and strictness scores. The psychosocial adjustment was measured by children's scores on academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence values. A MANOVA $4 \times 2 \times 4$ was applied with parenting styles, sex, and age group as independent variables. The results showed that, for adolescents and adult children, only parenting styles characterized by warmth (i.e., indulgent, and authoritative) were found to factor against delinquency during adolescence and benefit greater academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, and benevolence values, while parenting without warmth (i.e., authoritarian, and neglectful) were identified as risk factors. Contrary to classical research, the present findings seriously question the universal benefits of strict parenting as the only optimal strategy to protect not only against delinquency, but also to foster an adequate self and the internalization of social values.

Keywords: parenting styles; parental socialization; adjustment; adolescents; adults

1. Introduction

Research mainly from Anglo-Saxon contexts with European American families has traditionally identified firm control and maturity demands (i.e., greater strictness) combined with warm and responsive strategies (i.e., greater warmth), the so-called

authoritative style, as the optimal parenting as it has been consistently related to the greater adjustment and fewer problems in children and adolescents. However, studies carried out in Anglo-Saxon contexts with ethnic minority groups such as African American and Chinese American families and in Arab countries, in addition to some recent research carried out from other cultural contexts such as Europe and South American countries, seriously questions whether the combination of parental strictness and warmth (i.e., the authoritative style) is always related to universal benefits for adjustment and fewer problems in children and adolescents. Additionally, research generally examines parental socialization during childhood and especially in adolescence, a period of greater vulnerability. However, less is known about the relation between parenting and adjustment beyond adolescence once parental socialization is ended. The present study examines the relationship between parenting and outcomes (self-esteem, academic/professional self-concept, and benevolence values delinquency during adolescence) in Spanish adolescents (during parental socialization) and adult children, including young, middle-aged, and older adults. The aim of this study is to identify which parenting style (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful) is related to greater adjustment (i.e., higher self-esteem, academic/professional self-concept, and benevolence values) and less delinquency during adolescence.

1.1. Parental Socialization

Parental socialization refers to the process by which the adult can transmit to the young person the habits and values of the culture of origin so that the child adopts adequate functioning within the culture to which the child belongs [1–3]. Leaving aside cultural or demographic variations of what adopting an “adequate functioning” might mean, broadly speaking, it could

be said that a child will be recognized as a competent adult if he or she does not display deviant behaviors, maintains close relationships, is economically self-sufficient and socializes his or her offspring successfully—all of them are the result of education, training, and imitation [4,5]. Therefore, socializing a child with the right psychosocial development can be a challenge [6,7]. This process comes to an end when children become adults. By then, they are expected to have learned to self-regulate themselves in front of social demands without the presence of parents and to have become responsible members of society [8,9].

It should be emphasized that the socialization of children is not an exclusive task of parents. Although the family is the main (the first) socializing agent for children [9–12], it is not the only agent through which culture and social values are transferred to future generations [13–15]. Other agents come into play in this process, such as the school, which is also responsible for promoting the education of the young person, peers, or the media [11,12]. However, the present study will focus on studying the impact of parents on the psychosocial development of their children due to their greater degree of influence on them [5,9,16,17].

1.2. The Two-Dimensional Framework and Four Parenting Styles

The influence that parents exert on their children can be examined according to the two-dimensional model of Maccoby and Martin (1983) [10], which presents two dimensions, independent of each other, from which the four parenting styles emerge. These two dimensions are warmth and strictness. The first refers to the acceptance [18], sensitivity, and affection of

parents when dealing with their children, the quality of the dialogue they engage in, and the use of reasoning [1,19] when children show inappropriate behavior. Recently, this parenting dimension has been called acceptance/involvement [20,21]. On the other hand, strictness is related to parental demands placed on children to promote compliance, i.e., the degree of imposition, authority, or rigidity. This parenting dimension has also been labeled in different ways as control [17,22] or firm control [23], and more recently called strictness/imposition [8].

Four parenting styles emerge from the combination of the two main parenting dimensions [1,8,10,24,25]. The authoritative style is defined by high warmth and high strictness. The indulgent style refers to high parental warmth and low strictness. The authoritarian style refers to low warmth and high strictness. Lastly, the neglectful parenting style comprises low warmth and low strictness. This model has been used as a guide to identify the best parenting style as measured by the degree of psychological well-being, development, and personal and psychosocial adjustment of children [1,8,10,21,24]. In this model of normative parental socialization, parents transmit social norms and values to their children by acting on them contingent on their behavior. It does not include non-normative parents who are not contingent on their children's behavior (e.g., insulting the child when he/she behaves well) as well as parental practices characterized by child abuse (psychological, physical, or even sexual) and neglect (e.g., leave the teens alone for months) [1,5,7,9,10].

1.3. The Optimal Parenting

Traditionally, mainly from studies conducted in the United States with middle-class European American families, the combination of strictness and warmth has been identified as the best parental socialization style. The authoritative style was

defined as the parenting method capable of generating the most optimal outcomes [21,26–29]. This parenting style was found to be associated with different indicators of children's psychological well-being, such as higher optimism, life satisfaction, self-esteem, and happiness [30]. In addition, children whose parents display this parental typology appeared to have greater coping skills in the face of adverse events and, in turn, a wider range of adaptive behaviors [21,28,31–33]. It has also been associated with higher academic achievement, a lower likelihood of experiencing behavioral problems, and lower substance use [21,28,34]. Much of the classical psychological literature points out that parental warmth is able to provide children with the necessary emotional support, while strictness allows for the establishment of clear expected patterns in children's behavior [1,10,21,28,29]. Recent studies found the benefits of authoritative parenting [35–39].

However, these classic results on the benefits of the authoritative parenting style do not always coincide with those obtained from studies conducted in other cultural contexts. Firstly, it should not be overlooked that the vast majority of studies in favor of the authoritative typology were conducted in the United States, and generally with middle-class participants of European American origin [13,21,28,40,41]. Some studies conducted on ethnic minorities in the United States report that the authoritarian parenting style (i.e., strictness without warmth) is associated with greater assertiveness and independence in African Americans [42] and an absence of mental health problems in Arab adolescents [43].

Additionally, some recent literature about parenting points out that indulgent parenting (i.e., warmth without strictness) is related to optimal child adjustment in criteria such as family self-

concept [6], less aggressiveness, and sexist prejudice [3], academic and family self-esteem [13], self-esteem and school performance [44], and greater self-concept and less maladjustment [45] compared to other parenting styles. As a result, new studies question the replicability of the results and claim that the strength of this relationship varies across samples and contexts [13,30,41,46]. So much so, that this evidence against the supposed and undeniable universality of the benefits of the authoritative style has opened an endless debate regarding the best parenting style.

1.4. Variations in the Optimal Parenting and Culture

One way to address the current debate and explain the different results observed in different studies is through the cultural inconsistency hypothesis [24,41]. According to this hypothesis, the same parental socialization could have different consequences depending on the cultural context where parental socialization occurs, so it is possible that for a parental style to be optimal it must match the expectations of parenting subject to the sociocultural context of origin [24,41]. For example, authoritarian parenting (i.e., strictness without warmth) is related to maladjustment in children from European American families [21,28], but to some benefits in those from African American [42] and Chinese American families [20]. In other words, a parenting style that is inconsistent with the environment will not have positive effects or may even be detrimental to the child [41]. Hence, the cultural context in which socialization takes place has an important implication in the relationship between parental style and the child's psychosocial development [47,48].

Alternative explanations in line with the cultural inconsistency hypothesis and thus against the universality of the positive effects of the authoritative typology are in line with Bronfenbrenner's (1986) Ecological Theory [49]—which suggests that people not only fit better but are also more satisfied in environments that display their same values and attitudes—and by the cultural constructs of collectivism and individualism and their variants of verticality and horizontality [48,50–52]. Collectivism refers to the perception of oneself as a part of a group, while individualism refers to the view of oneself as autonomous [24,50,53]. Regardless of how one perceives oneself in relation to the collective, one can either accept inequality within the unit (vertical) or emphasize equality by seeing all members as equals (horizontal) [14,24,48,54,55].

These two lines are not only able to offer possible explanations about variations in the outcomes of the same parenting style examined in different contexts, but they also show that the authoritative typology is not always the one that presents the best results in the psychological and social well-being of children [13,24,41,48], nor is it always associated with positive outcomes as suggest some benefits related to the authoritarian parenting [20,43] and some recent evidence about the benefits of the indulgent parenting [4,8,14].

On the one hand, some benefits related to authoritarian parenting have been found in families from US minorities, and Arab or Asian countries. For example, it has been observed that in African American families that usually lived in poor and dangerous neighborhoods with greater rates of criminality and lack of opportunities, the authoritarian parenting style might not be related to detrimental consequences as in middle-class families from the US [42,56,57]. This might be explained by the

fact that in these contexts, where disobeying parental rules may lead to harmful consequences, the authoritarian style, which has recently been identified as the first of the three stages of optimal parental socialization [13], brings benefits such as protection and might be an effective method in certain contexts [1,14,41]. In this sense, children from authoritarian African American families reported the highest scores in assertiveness and independence [42]. Similarly, in Arab or Asian countries where the vertical collectivist culture predominates, discipline, imposition, and rigidity are perceived as essential in parenting strategies and their lack is seen as a sign of irresponsibility [43,55,58]. Therefore, it is possible that they are understood as a form of protection instead of intrusion [42,56,59]. Therefore, the aforementioned evidence about non-detrimental consequences or even some benefits related to authoritarian parenting (i.e., strictness without warmth) revealed that, at least in some cultural contexts, the parental warmth component within the authoritative parenting style could be unnecessary in generating optimal outcomes, although parental strictness seems to be necessary and effective [42,56–58].

On the other hand, Latin American and Southern European countries are characterized by a horizontal collectivist culture, where affection, acceptance, and involvement in the socialization of the child seem to be necessary for optimal parenting. Unlike hierarchical cultures, in this type of culture, the group is organized on an egalitarian basis [24,48,50,54]. Therefore, parental strictness does not seem to fit into the preconceived scheme of parental socialization in these cultures—which calls into question whether the dimension of strictness within the authoritative parental style is truly indispensable for the socialization of children in collective horizontal cultures [13,24,48]. Thus, different studies carried out in countries such as Spain, Portugal, and Brazil claim the

benefits that an indulgent parenting style can offer such as self-concept and the internationalization of social values in adolescents [47,48,60,61]. Additionally, other studies also support the benefits of indulgent parenting in the psychosocial adjustment of the child as greater emotional self-esteem and less emotional maladjustment in terms of nervousness, emotional instability, and hostility [8], greater emotional and family self-concept [4], higher social, emotional and family self-esteem [14].

In summary, studies conducted with ethnic minority groups, with low socioeconomic status, and in countries and cultures other than the United States do not support the positive effect linked to the authoritative style [1,20,24,41,45]. These results suggest that parenting styles are not equally effective in all cultural contexts [24,41–43,56].

1.5. Parenting and Its Contribution to Adjustment during Adolescence and Beyond

Most studies examine the relationship between parental socialization and differences in child adjustment during childhood and adolescence, which is when parents are raising their children. The influence of the family could be especially strong for children, as a family imprint, because parental socialization occurs in a developmental time of greater plasticity. Although experts in the field of development have suggested that parental socialization has crucial implications beyond adolescence [5,9,16,17], there is little empirical evidence about the long-term effects that parental socialization may have on children [3,14,62]. There is a time when parental socialization is over: when the adolescent child reaches adult age. From that moment on, although the relationship between parents and

adult children is generally maintained, parents do not perform their socializing tasks (e.g., punishing their children when they misbehave) [5,8,9]. Throughout adult development, there are also important differences between those with good adjustment and those with poor adjustment [63,64]. Differences in adjustment among adult children may also be related to the type of socialization that they received, although this point has been less examined [14,65].

Development across adolescence and adulthood is usually examined through different indicators of adjustment and maladjustment. Optimal development is based on greater adjustment and poor maladjustment [66–68]. Adolescent delinquency is one of the most serious forms of deviance that is associated with significant personal and social maladjustment, including problems in the school and family environments [69,70], poor self-esteem [71] and self-concept [70,72], and an inadequate internalization of social values [73]. There are significant differences in the rates of delinquent behaviors (e.g., getting into fights and stealing), between normative and adjusted adolescents, compared to maladjusted and antisocial adolescents, who have higher rates [11,66,67].

Additionally, in adolescence but also adulthood, self-esteem and self-concept, and internalization of social values are indicators of optimal development. Self-esteem evolves as time goes by as follows: levels tend to be high in childhood, dropped in adolescence, increase gradually throughout adulthood, and declined in old age [74]. The global valuation of the person (i.e., self-esteem) is based on the different relevant domains of the self (i.e., self-concept) [75–78]. Performance at school and work is beneficial for personal and social adjustment; in adolescence, it is mainly linked to school and academic tasks [68,79], whereas in adulthood it ranges from preparation for work (e.g., college or vocational training), career development and

retirement [63,64]. In general, self-perception as a good student or worker (i.e., academic/professional self-concept) is one of the key elements to feel a valuable person with good qualities (i.e., self-esteem) [75,77,78]. Finally, the internalization of social values represents one of the main goals of a society, although not all adolescents and adults prioritize social values [7,9,80]. A good priority towards social values, particularly those more prosocial (e.g., benevolence values) favors good self-esteem and self-concept [7], and a lower tendency towards deviance [73]. Therefore, in family studies, a key question is which parental strategies are a protective factor for optimal development, and which strategies are a risk factor. In addition, although differences in demographic variables are not the focus of parenting studies, previous research has reported some sex- and age-related differences in self-esteem, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence values. Females tend to have higher academic/professional self-concept and benevolence values [8,81], but lower self-esteem and delinquency during adolescence than males [24,74]. As for age-related differences, a general trend suggests that there are age-related increases in the self from adolescence through middle adulthood, and then a decreasing trend through old age [8,74], while on benevolence values, adolescents tend to report lower scores than adults [81].

1.6. The Present Study

This study aims to analyze which parenting style (i.e., authoritative, indulgent, authoritarian, or neglectful) is related to better adjustment in adolescent and adult children (young, middle-aged, and older adults). Since the development of children is very broad and encompasses innumerable aspects, this study will capture psychological development based on

academic/professional self-concept and self-esteem, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence values.

Problems during adolescence can seriously damage adolescent adjustment, particularly when they are clearly opposed to social values and the law (e.g., delinquency) [82,83]. Some theorists have suggested the storm and stress hypothesis [84,85], based on the assumption that problems during adolescence are normative (i.e., they succeed a majority and with a positive impact). Specifically, from traditional clinical studies, they argued that adolescence is a period of “identity crisis” [85] and “individuation” [84] associated with a certain degree of discomfort, disruptiveness, and defiance for the family, but benefits in the path to healthy adulthood because adolescents must free themselves from dependence on their parents as a requirement to become adults with their own identity and sense of self and good adjustment (e.g., personal competence and acceptance of the norms) [68,86]. However, empirical evidence from community samples of adolescents suggests that problems during adolescence have negative consequences for adult adjustment [8,67,87]. The idea of crisis or problems in adolescence also underlies current studies based on a psychosocial perspective [88–91] and neuroscience [92,93], but these problems during adolescence have a negative impact on health in adulthood.

Parents exert a decisive influence in adolescence, although their influence diminishes [66,94] at the same time as that of peers increases [95,96]. Some problems can appear in adolescence such as drug use [12,97], poor academic achievement and school misconduct [21,59], aggressive behaviors [98,99], antisocial tendency [67], and even delinquency [21,24]. However, the family is not an isolated context in which socialization occurs, as it includes others such as peers, school, and the media [12,49,66,100]. During

adolescence, peer approval may be based less on adult standards and more on conformity to peer standards that sometimes deviate from social norms [31,68,101]. For example, school success may be devalued by peers and negatively associated with students' social standing [68,79], and even adolescents with high self-concept may decrease their academic engagement [96]. Despite these extrafamilial influences, parents remain the socializing agents during adolescence [1,10,21,28,29]. However, current parenting raises serious questions about which parenting style acts as a protective or risk factor for adolescents [13,41].

Overall, to protect against deviance in adolescence, parental strictness is constantly identified as a protective factor according to classical studies from middle-class European American families [21,26–29]. Those adolescents with parents who are strict, and also warm (i.e., authoritative), benefit in terms of protection against maladjustment and problems. Even adolescents from families also characterized by strictness, but without warmth and involvement (i.e., authoritarian families), scored reasonably well on measures of obedience and conformity to the social standards; they do well in school, and they are less likely than their peers to be involved in deviant activities. On the opposite side, adolescents from indulgent families, with warm and involved parents (as those from authoritative families), but lower parental strictness, report a higher frequency of substance abuse and school misconduct and are less engaged in school [21,28]. Nevertheless, some recent evidence mostly from European and Latin American countries seems to suggest the benefits of parental warmth [19,60], while parental strictness seems to be unnecessary or even detrimental [13,102] to protect against adolescent maladjustments such as drug use [44,97] and alcohol use [12]

and help aggressive adolescents [99] or with an antisocial tendency [67].

The present study examined the consequences of parenting styles once parental socialization is in the process (in adolescent children), but also when is over (in adult children). The aim is to examine parenting styles and their relationships for psychosocial development during the socialization years (through delinquency during adolescence) but also for the adjustment (through self-esteem, academic/professional self-concept, and benevolence values), in both cases among adolescents and adult children. Along with the problems in adolescence related to delinquent behaviors, which are associated with major problems of personal and social adjustment [21,24,82], the psychosocial development is examined through the global (i.e., self-esteem) and the specific component of self (i.e., self-concept), and also the internalization of benevolence values. In particular, the assessment of oneself as a person with good qualities and value (i.e., self-esteem) is associated with good personal adjustment and well-being [72,103], while academic and professional competence is represented in the academic-professional self-concept, which includes the learning (e.g., school or university) and professional environment (i.e., work) [75,76,104]. Additionally, the internalization of benevolence values is associated with empathy and prosocial behaviors [105,106]. The literature on parenting has focused primarily on examining parental influence on child adjustment during the parental socialization process (i.e., childhood and adolescence) [21,24,28,40,42,44], but fewer studies examine child adjustment beyond adolescence when parental socialization has ended [3,14,62].

According to previous literature, as the present study was conducted in a European country (Spain), the following

hypothesis was tested: the parenting styles associated with greater adjustment (i.e., higher self-esteem, academic/professional self-concept, and benevolence values) and less maladjustment (i.e., lower scores in delinquency during adolescence) would be the parenting styles characterized by warmth (i.e., the indulgent and authoritative). Likewise, the parenting styles with the worst adjustment are expected to be authoritarian and neglectful, both characterized by a lack of warmth. Additionally, differences in child adjustment were analyzed as a function of parenting style, but also considering the sex and age of the children, to test for possible interaction effects of parenting style with sex and age, as well as to identify sex and age differences in adjustment criteria reported in previous studies.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Participants and Procedure

The sample consisted of a total of 2125 participants from Spain. Specifically, 1227 females (58.7%) and 878 males (41.3%), both adolescents and adults ($M = 36.19$ and $SD = 20.55$). This sample was divided into 4 age groups: adolescents ($n = 607$, 352 females, 58%) aged 12–18 years ($M = 16.63$ and $SD = 1.61$); young adults ($n = 603$, 352 females, 58.4%) aged 19–35 years ($M = 23.55$ and $SD = 3.72$); middle-aged adults ($n = 509$, 327 females, 64.2%) aged 36–59 years ($M = 48.35$ and $SD = 6.38$); older adults ($n = 406$, 216 women, 53.2%) aged 60 years and over ($M = 68.99$ and $SD = 8.04$). The grouping of participants into different age groups is based on different previous studies [3,8,107]. It included adolescents (when parental socialization in process), and three groups of adult

children (when parental socialization is finished), divided into young, middle-aged, and older adults based on the common age classification of the studies in adulthood and old age [108]. All participants had similar socioeconomic characteristics and they were from a community sample of middle-class families.

Following the a priori power analysis [109–111] which is usually used in studies to calculate statistical power, a minimum sample of 1724 participants was determined necessary to achieve detection with a statistical power of 0.95 ($\alpha = 0.05$; $\beta = 0.05$; $1 - \beta = 0.95$) a low effect-size, $f = 0.10$ [112,113]. With the sample size of the present study, 2125 participants, it is possible to detect a very small effect size, $f = 0.09$ (by fixing $\alpha = 0.05$; $\beta = 0.05$; $1 - \beta = 0.95$). Sample collection was carried out by collecting responses to online questionnaires with mandatory responses hosted on the university website during the 2019–2020 and 2021–2022 academic years. Participants usually take almost 45 min to answer the online survey. All the participants in this study (a) were Spanish, as were their parents and four grandparents; (b) lived in two-parent nuclear families with a mother or primary female caregiver and a father or primary male caregiver, and (c) participated voluntarily. Adolescents were recruited from the complete list of high schools through random selection. Young adult participants were recruited in undergraduate education courses. Middle-aged participants were recruited from randomly selected middle-class neighborhoods. The procedure of selection was based on door-to-door-canvassing. The different neighborhoods were stratified by quartile of average household patrimony, and three middle-class neighborhoods were randomly selected. Older adult participants were recruited by randomly selecting from the full list of senior centers. Participants signed a declaration of consent and parental consent was required for adolescent participation. In all cases, anonymity and confidentiality of

responses were assured. As data protection measures, (a) identifiers (e.g., university account) and survey data were stored in separate archives and (b) directory passwords were safeguarded, and sensitive archives were encrypted. In addition, respondents were informed about their rights and freedoms following the Helsinki procedure. Participants were made aware that participation was voluntary and that they could drop out of the procedure and no longer participate in the study if they wished to do so (for a similar procedure, see Garcia et al., 2021 [67]). The questionnaires were assessed for doubtful response patterns as implausible inconsistencies between negatively and positively worded responses [114–116]. About 1.00% ($n = 22$) of the participants were recognized as questionable and eliminated from the sample.

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. Parental Socialization

Parental socialization was measured with two specific scales of the PARQ Questionnaire (Parental Acceptance Rejection/Control Questionnaire): the Warmth/Affection Scale (WAS) [117,118], and the Parental Control Scale (PCS) [117,119]. Parental warmth was assessed by the Warmth/Affection Scale (WAS) [117,118]. This scale consists of 20 items and aims to measure parental involvement and affection perceived by children (e.g., “My parents make me feel loved and needed”; “My parents show me that they love me”). For adult children, the items are the same but are written in the past tense (e.g., “My parents were really interested in what I did”; “They told me how proud they were when I behaved well”). The alpha coefficient of the WAS scale was 0.944. Parental strictness was assessed by Parental Control Scale (PCS)

[117,119]. The PCS scale consists of 13 items intended to measure parental control, imposition, and strictness, also perceived by children (e.g., “My parents want to control anything I do”; “My parents tell me exactly when I have to be back home when I go out”). As with the previous scale, in the adult version of the questionnaire, the PCS scale items appear in the past tense (e.g., “My parents told me that I should do things the way they wanted me to do them”; “My parents gave me tasks and did not allow me to do anything else until I finished them”). The alpha coefficient of the PCS scale was 0.902. The adult version of the WAS scale and the PCS scale have good psychometric qualities to measure parental socialization in adult children [120,121]. Both scales use a Likert-type scale with a range from 1 “almost never true” to 4 “almost always true”. Higher scores indicate a greater perception of warmth and strictness.

The four parental socialization styles were defined following the procedure of dichotomization by the median of the warmth/affection and parental control scores, examining both variables simultaneously: authoritative style (above the median in both measures), neglectful (below the median in both measures), authoritarian (below the median in warmth/affection and above in parental control), and indulgent (above the median in warmth/affection and below in parental control) [8,14,21]. For heuristic rather than diagnostic purposes, the median dichotomization procedure (rather than using predetermined cut-off points) allows families to be classified into one of the four parenting styles according to their scores, which may be above or below the median value, providing a sample-specific categorization of families [8,21,105]. For example, families in the “neglectful” household are indeed relatively more neglectful (i.e., less warm and strict) than the other parents in the sample, although we do not know whether the families we have labeled

“neglectful” would be considered “neglectful” within a different population (see Lamborn et al., 1991, p. 1053 [21]). The factor structure of the Adult Version of the Parental Acceptance/Rejection Questionnaire (which includes the two subscales used in this study: the WAS and the PCS) was confirmed by confirmatory factor analysis. Its invariance by age has been assessed, making it a valid measure for assessing parental socialization in adult children [14,120,121].

2.2.2. Academic/Professional Self-Concept

Academic/professional self-concept was measured by the 6 items of the Academic/professional self-concept dimension of the Multidimensional Self-Concept Scale Form-5 (AF5) [122]. This dimension encompasses how one perceives oneself in the academic/professional environment (e.g., “I do school/professional work well”), and how one feels that one’s teachers/superiors value one’s performance (e.g., “My teachers/supervisors consider me to be a good worker”). The items are answered on a Likert scale with a range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 99 (strongly agree). High scores indicate a high academic/professional self-concept. The alpha coefficient for this dimension of this AF5 scale was 0.879. The AF5 is a widely applied questionnaire for adolescents [8,14,105] and adults [3,6,114] in Spanish language. Several empirical studies have tested the scale’s dimensional structure with exploratory analyses [122] and also with confirmatory factor analyses [116,123,124] in different cultural contexts, such as Spain [124], Portugal [125], Brazil [75], Chile [114], the United States [126] and China [76]. Specifically, the validation of the instrument has shown its invariance by sex, age, and different languages such as Brazilian Portuguese [75], Portuguese [125], Chinese [76], and English [126] with the

Spanish version. In addition, no method effects were found related to negatively worded items on the AF5 scale [114,116].

2.2.3. Self-Esteem

Self-esteem was measured with the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (1965) [127]. This scale is one of the most widely used measures to assess the concept of global self-esteem [30]. It consists of 10 items measuring the degree of self-acceptance and self-respect and is answered on a Likert scale with a range of 1 to 4, with 1 meaning “strongly disagree” and 4 meaning “strongly agree” (e.g., “I am generally satisfied with myself”; “I have a positive attitude towards myself”). High scores denote high self-esteem. However, 5 of the items are written in negative, so they must be counted in reverse (e.g., “I often think that I am not good at anything”; “I feel that I do not have too many things to be proud of”). The total score on self-esteem is obtained with an arithmetic mean of the scores on the 10 items. The alpha coefficient for this scale was 0.848.

2.2.4. Delinquency during Adolescence

Delinquency during adolescence was measured by assessing the frequency of different behaviors such as stealing, confronting the police, or being armed [21,24], exactly, with 8 items such as “Stealing goods from supermarkets (or department stores)” or “Damage strangers’ cars”. The response pattern presents 3 alternatives: “never”, “once”, and “two or more times”. Adolescents reported their current rates, while adults (youth, middle-aged and older adults) reported their rates when they were adolescents [21,67]. Self-reported measures of delinquency during adolescence are used primarily in studies with adolescents, and in studies with adults using the same measures as with adolescents, but with the items in the past tense [21,67]. The coefficient alpha was 0.657. Different

scholars support the use of self-report measures to measure delinquency, even though they are subject to fluctuations both above and below the actual level of activity. They are considered to provide information closer to reality than official police reports do [21,24].

2.2.5. Benevolence Values

Benevolence was measured with the benevolence subscale of the Schwartz Values Inventory (SVI) [128]. The benevolence values were: “Loyal (loyal to my friends and my belonging group)”; “Helpful (working for the welfare of others)”; “Forgiving (forgiving to others)”; “Responsible (trustworthy)”; “Honest (sincere, authentic)”, whose response pattern is reported by a Likert scale ranging from 1 “not important in my life”, to 99 “essential in my life”. The alpha coefficient for this dimension of the SVI scale was 0.730.

2.3. Plan of Analysis

The statistical analysis performed comprised a full multivariate factor analysis (MANOVA), followed by univariate factor analysis (ANOVA), and finally, Bonferroni post hoc tests. First, multivariate factorial design MANOVA ($4 \times 2 \times 4$) was conducted using as dependent variables academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence, while the independent variables were parenting styles (neglectful, indulgent, authoritative, and authoritarian), sex (female vs. male), and age group (adolescent, young adults, middle-aged adults, and older adults). We will use the two demographic variables (adolescent sex and age group) as independent variables (i.e., factors), rather than as statistical covariate controls, to (a) test for any possible moderation (i.e., interaction) and (b) analyze whether well-documented effects of

demographic factors on the dependent variables (i.e., children's outcomes or criterion variables) are as expected in the literature. The factors (i.e., independent variables) in the design controlled (decrease) residual error variance and increase the multivariate Λ -test and univariate F-test power [129–131]. Second, univariate tests were applied for analysis in those sources of variation that reached the statistical level of significance in the multivariate analyses. Ultimately, Bonferroni hypothesis tests were applied to the statistically significant results found in the univariate analysis while maintaining the alpha per study at 5%.

3. Results

3.1. *Distribution of Parenting Styles*

Table 1 provides an overview of the distribution of the participants according to the parenting style: neglectful, indulgent, authoritative, and authoritarian. On the one hand, the indulgent parenting style, $M = 73.60$ and $SD = 4.36$, and authoritative parenting style, $M = 72.65$ and $SD = 4.19$, had higher scores in warmth than the other two parenting styles, neglectful, $M = 56.87$ and $SD = 9.18$, and authoritarian, $M = 55.30$ and $SD = 9.65$. On the other hand, the authoritative parenting, $M = 39.85$ and $SD = 4.84$, and authoritarian parenting, $M = 41.91$ and $SD = 5.47$, scored higher in strictness than the neglectful parenting, $M = 28.32$ and $SD = 5.47$, and indulgent parenting, $M = 28.28$ and $SD = 5.37$.

Table 1. *Distribution of participants by parenting style.*

	Total	Neglectful	Indulgent	Authoritative	Authoritarian
Frequency	2125	442	625	453	605
Percentage	100	20.8	29.4	21.3	28.5
Warmth					
<i>M</i>	64.71	56.87	73.60	72.65	55.30
<i>SD</i>	11.31	9.18	4.36	4.19	9.65
Strictness					
<i>M</i>	34.63	28.32	28.28	39.85	41.91
<i>SD</i>	8.32	5.47	5.37	4.84	5.47

3.2. Adjustment Criteria

Results from correlation analysis between adjustment criteria are presented in Table 2. Academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, and benevolence values were positively correlated between them. In addition, academic/professional self-concept and benevolence values were negatively associated with delinquency during adolescence (see Table 2).

Table 2. *Correlations between adjustment criteria, mean and standard deviation.*

	1	2	3	4
1. Academic/Professional Self-Concept	1	0.363 **	-0.130 **	0.412 **
2. Self-esteem		1	0.007	0.202 **
3. Delinquency during adolescence			1	-0.132 **
4. Benevolence values				1
<i>M</i>	7.48	3.24	1.23	7.97
<i>SD</i>	1.49	0.47	0.28	1.13

** $p < 0.01$.

3.3. Multivariate Analysis

The results from the multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in all main effects: parenting styles, $\Lambda = 0.861$, $F(12, 5529.9) = 26.83$, $p < 0.001$; sex, $\Lambda = 0.913$, $F(4, 2090.0) = 49.85$,

$p < 0.001$; and age groups, $\Lambda = 0.876$, $F(12, 5529.9) = 23.58$, $p < 0.001$. The interaction effects between sex and age group were also statistically significant, $\Lambda = 0.963$, $F(12, 5529.9) = 6.63$, $p < 0.001$ (see Table 3). Neither the interaction effect of parenting styles by sex nor parenting styles by age reached the statistically significant level ($p > 0.05$).

Table 3. MANOVA ($4^a \times 2^b \times 4^c$) for academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence values.

	Λ	F	df_{between}	df_{error}	p
(A) Parenting styles ^a	0.861	26.83	12.0	5529.9	<0.001
(B) Sex ^b	0.913	49.85	4.0	2090.0	<0.001
(C) Age groups ^c	0.876	23.58	12.0	5529.9	<0.001
A $\times$ B	0.990	1.73	12.0	5529.9	0.055
A $\times$ C	0.981	1.10	36.0	7833.9	0.317
B $\times$ C	0.963	6.63	12.0	5529.9	<0.001
A $\times$ B $\times$ C	0.985	0.88	36.0	7833.9	0.671

^a₁ neglectful, ^a₂ indulgent, ^a₃ authoritative, and ^a₄ authoritarian. ^b₁ women, ^b₂ men. ^c₁ adolescents (12–18 years), ^c₂ young adults (19–35 years), ^c₃ middle-aged (36–59 years), and ^c₄ older (60 years and older).

3.4. Univariate Analyses and Post-Hoc Tests

3.4.1. Parenting Styles, Delinquency during Adolescence, and Adjustment

The results of the ANOVAs showed that there are statistically significant differences between parenting styles and all development criteria: academic/professional self-concept, $F(3, 2093) = 55.71$, $p < 0.001$, self-esteem, $F(3, 2093) = 53.95$, $p < 0.001$, delinquency during adolescence, $F(3, 2093) = 12.20$, $p < 0.001$, and benevolence, $F(3, 2093) = 44.81$, $p < 0.001$ (see Table 4).

Table 4. Means, standard deviations, univariate *F*-values, and Bonferroni's post hoc analysis of parenting styles for academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence values.

Adjustment Criteria	Parenting Styles				<i>F</i> (3, 2093)	<i>p</i>
	Neglectful	Indulgent	Authoritative	Authoritarian		
Academic/work self-concept	7.09 ^b (1.49)	7.90 ^a (1.24)	7.81 ^a (1.38)	7.10 ^b (1.64)	54.71	<0.001
Self-esteem	3.15 ^b (0.45)	3.35 ^a (0.45)	3.36 ^a (0.41)	3.09 ^b (0.47)	53.95	<0.001
Delinquency during adolescence	1.26 ^a (0.30)	1.20 ^b (0.24)	1.20 ^b (0.25)	1.27 ^a (0.33)	12.19	<0.001
Benevolence values	7.56 ^c (1.21)	8.22 ^a (1.03)	8.22 ^a (0.97)	7.81 ^b (1.16)	44.81	<0.001

Bonferroni test $\alpha = 0.05$; $a > b > c$.

A constant pattern between parenting styles, delinquency during adolescence, and adjustment was found (see Table 4). Overall, the optimal scores were related to parenting styles based on warmth (i.e., the indulgent and the authoritative). Specifically, children from indulgent and authoritative families scored higher on academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, and benevolence. On the other hand, both parenting styles were related to the lowest scores on delinquency during adolescence. In contrast, neglectful and authoritarian parenting styles were associated with the highest scores on delinquency during adolescence, and the lowest scores on academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, and benevolence (the latter especially for neglectful parenting).

3.4.2. Sex and Age Groups

Univariate analyses also showed that there were statistically significant sex and age group differences for all the adjustment criteria measured ($p < 0.001$). Additionally, the interaction effect between sex and age reached the statistically significant level ($p < 0.05$) only for academic/professional self-concept, $F(3,$

2093) = 13.79, $p < 0.001$, and delinquency during adolescence, $F(3, 2093) = 5.32$, $p = 0.001$.

Examining sex-related differences, females had the highest scores in academic/professional self-concept and benevolence. In contrast, males had the highest scores in self-esteem and delinquency during adolescence (see Table 5).

Table 5. Means, standard deviations, univariate F -values of sex for academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence values.

Adjustment Criteria	Sex		$F(1, 2093)$	p
	Women	Men		
Academic/work	7.60	7.33	7.58	0.006
Self-concept	(1.45)	(1.54)		
Self-esteem	3.20	3.30	53.95	0.001
	(0.48)	(0.44)		
Delinquency during adolescence	1.17	1.32	150.84	0.001
	(0.21)	(0.34)		
Benevolence values	8.07	7.82	24.84	0.001
	(1.12)	(1.12)		

Regarding age-related differences (see Table 6), middle-aged participants (36–59 years old) showed the highest academic/professional self-concept, followed by young adults (19–35 years old) and older adults (60 years old and above). Those with the lowest scores on this criterion were adolescents (12–18 years old). In self-esteem, young adults, middle-aged and older adults had the highest scores on this adjustment criterion, while adolescents, again, scored the lowest. Regarding delinquency during adolescence, young adults scored the highest, followed by adolescents and middle-aged adults, with older participants scoring the lowest. Finally, regarding benevolence values, middle-aged participants showed the highest search for the well-being of others, followed by adolescents and young adults.

Table 6. Means, standard deviations, univariate *F*-values, and Bonferroni's post hoc analysis of age group for academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence values.

Adjustment Criteria	Age				<i>F</i> (3, 2093)	<i>p</i>
	Adolescents	Young Adults	Middle-Aged Adults	Older Adults		
Academic/work Self-concept	7.05 ^c (1.62)	7.43 ^b (1.34)	8.10 ^a (1.16)	7.44 ^b (1.62)	49.15	<0.001
Self-esteem	3.15 ^b (0.48)	3.25 ^a (0.50)	3.31 ^a (0.42)	3.26 ^a (0.43)	11.02	<0.001
Delinquency during adolescence	1.22 ^b (0.28)	1.31 ^a (0.33)	1.23 ^b (0.26)	1.13 ^c (0.20)	41.45	<0.001
Benevolence values	7.78 ^b (1.18)	7.94 ^b (1.08)	8.19 ^a (1.06)	8.01 (1.15)	10.34	<0.001

Bonferroni test $\alpha = 0.05$; $a > b > c$.

In the interaction between sex and age group on academic/professional self-concept (see Figure 1), it can be observed that, in general, academic/professional self-concept tends to be higher in females than in males (this tendency is noticed especially in adolescents). Adolescents had the lowest academic/professional self-concept, in particular male adolescents. However, these sex differences tended to even out as adolescence progresses. It is also noted that academic self-concept tended to increase with age (this tendency is more pronounced in males). In fact, the highest point in relation to academic/professional self-concept for both sexes is in middle age. However, academic/professional was lower among older adults compared to middle-aged adults (this pattern is more pronounced in among older adults compared to middle-aged adults (this pattern is more pronounced in women).

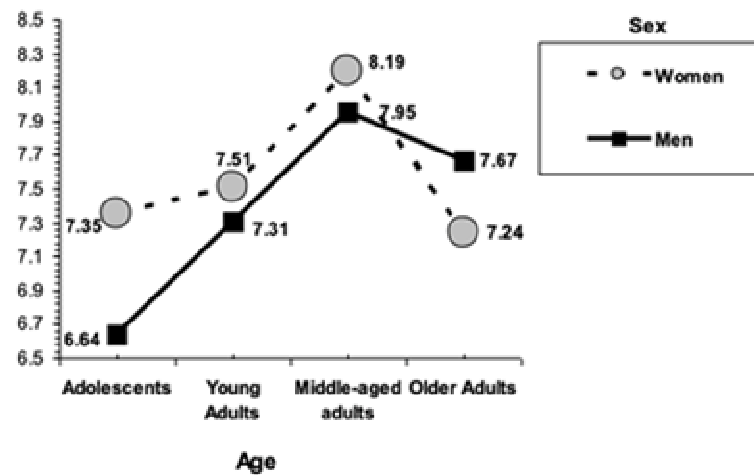


Figure 1. Interactions if sex and age. Academic / professional self-concept.

In the interaction between sex and age group on delinquency during adolescence (see Figure 2), it is generally found that females tend to have lower scores than males. The greater scores were reported by young adults, especially among males. The lowest scores in delinquency during adolescence were reported by older adults for both males and females. Adolescents and middle-aged adults had similar scores, lower than adolescents (a tendency especially remarkably for males), but higher than older adults (see Figure 2).

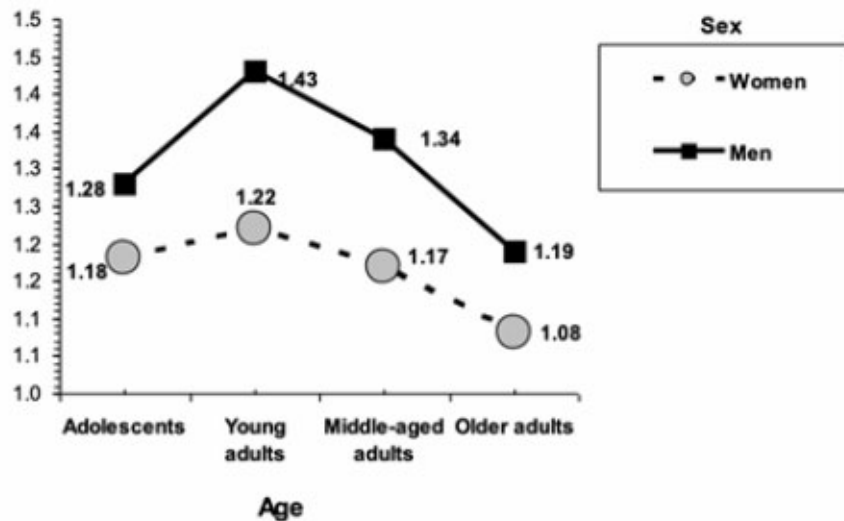


Figure 2. Interactions of sex and age. Delinquency during adolescence.

4. Discussion

4.1. Main Findings

This study analyzed the relationship between parenting styles (e.g., neglectful, indulgent, authoritative, and authoritarian), delinquency during adolescence, and adjustment based on academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, and benevolence values. The results of the present study in a European country (Spain) revealed that children from indulgent (warmth without strictness) and authoritative (warmth with strictness) families, both adolescents and adults, are those who showed a greater psychological adjustment based on a higher academic/professional self-concept, higher self-esteem, greater benevolence values and, in turn, a lower rate of delinquency during adolescence. The lower expression of delinquent

behavior points to the protective role of these two parental styles against deviance to the social standards. On the opposite side, the neglectful (neither warmth nor strictness) and authoritarian (strictness, but not warmth) styles were associated with the greatest delinquency during adolescence and the lowest adjustment in terms of academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, and benevolence values.

4.2. Comparing Present Findings with Previous Research

The findings from the present study conducted in the Spanish cultural context seem to suggest that parenting styles without the warmth component are those related to the greatest delinquency during adolescence and the lower adjustment. Hence, it seems that parental warmth is an essential component of socialization in this cultural context (i.e., Europe), while strictness might be unnecessary to achieve effective socialization, in line with some recent studies, most of them with adolescents [12,24,48,61].

In addition, as opposed to classical research with middle-class European American families, the findings of this study revealed that parental strictness seems to be unnecessary when it is accompanied by parental warmth (indulgent and authoritative children reported the same scores) and even harmful when is not accompanied by parental warmth (children from authoritarian families had lower adjustment). The present study examined delinquency during adolescence, one of the most extreme forms of deviance against social standards usually examined in parenting studies [21,82]. On the one hand, contrary to the present findings, classical results from European American families identified that adolescents with lower rates of delinquency are those from families with strictness (i.e., authoritative and authoritarian) [21,28]. According to classical research, although adolescents from indulgent families benefit

from parental warmth as much as those from authoritative families, they pay the cost for the lack of family control by reporting high delinquency rates, as do those from neglectful families [21,28]. In agreement with classical research, only parental strictness protects against deviance in its most drastic form (delinquency), but also in other forms such as drug use [21,28]. On the other hand, as opposed to results from European American families, the present findings seem to suggest that the use of reasoning and dialogue within an emotional climate of confidence and security (i.e., parenting styles characterized by warmth) is enough to transmit the social norms.

Among the objectives of socialization is not only to prevent social problems but also to favor the development of the individual as someone valuable and capable of doing well at school and work [9,10]. In this sense, the present results also identify that warmth is the key parental component that ensures maximum benefits for adolescent and adult children to feel valued and with good qualities (i.e., good self-esteem), to be confident in their abilities both at school and at work (i.e., good academic/professional self-concept), and to have as a priority the values of benevolence, which are those that favor empathic and prosocial behaviors.

4.3. The Optimal Parenting across the Globe within the Two-Dimensional Framework

Another contribution of the present study is that allows researchers across the world to examine parental socialization within a common theoretical framework, the so-called two-dimensional model [10], based on the two main parental dimensions (i.e., warmth and strictness) and the four parental styles that arise from the combination of the two dimensions

(i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful). The use of the same theoretical model makes it possible to compare the results of different studies carried out in different countries and cultural contexts.

The cultural context in which parental socialization takes place is key to understanding the discrepant results of the literature [13,41]. According to classical results, it was identified the benefits of strictness combined with warmth (i.e., the authoritative style). However, at least in this cultural context analyzed (i.e., European countries), it seems that the greatest adjustment is only associated with parental warmth without strictness (i.e., the indulgent style). Additionally, to test which is the best parenting in a particular context, it is quite important to use the same procedure (the use of a split procedure to assign families to the parenting groups) as well as the same research design and statistical analysis used in the previous studies in European American families [21,28,82] and other recent studies [24,132]. In this sense, the present research follows the same techniques, procedure, research design, and statistical analysis to test which parenting style is beneficial or harmful for adjustment in adolescents and adult children.

Addressing the debate regarding the best parenting style, the results do not support the universality of the authoritative style as the only optimal style and add more evidence that the context plays a key role in the effectiveness of parenting styles. Moreover, that the results advocate the implementation of educational programs based on warmth is consistent with other studies carried out in the Spanish context, or in Latin American or Southern European countries [13,44,60]. Thus, this study extends the evidence on the benefits of the indulgent parenting style, in the short and long term, and on four developmental criteria: academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence values.

4.4. Extending the Study of Parental Socialization beyond Adolescence

Another important contribution of the present study is that it provides empirical evidence regarding the relationship between parenting styles and psychological adjustment beyond adolescence—extending the importance of socialization when this process has been completed [3,4,62]. Adolescents, but also adult children, socialized by attachment-based families benefit from having both lower rates of adolescent delinquency and good adjustment. Specifically, according to the multivariate analysis, neither interaction effect of parenting styles by sex nor parenting styles by age were found for the adjustment criteria (self-esteem, self-concept, delinquency during adolescence, and benevolence values) suggesting that parental warmth without strictness (i.e., the indulgent style) is related to the same benefits in adjustment for sons and daughters as well as in adolescence (during parental socialization) and beyond (in adulthood and old age). In this line, the results seem to support the maintenance of the benefits of successful socialization over time [28,133,134].

Although it was not the focus of the research, some sex and age-related differences were found in line with some other studies [8,14,107]. Males showed higher self-esteem, lower academic/professional self-concept, especially in adolescence, lower expression of benevolence values, and higher rates of delinquency during adolescence, especially young adults. Additionally, in academic/professional self-concept the greatest scores were obtained by adolescents and the highest but middle-aged adults (young and older adults were in a middle position). In self-esteem, the lowest scores correspond to adolescents. In delinquency, young adults were those who had the greatest rates during their adolescence, followed by

adolescents and middle-aged adults, while the lowest scores corresponded to older adults. Finally, in benevolence values, middle-aged adults showed greater scores than young adults and adolescents.

Differences in adjustment in adolescence, adulthood, and old life can be explained by different influences within the family (e.g., parental socialization) and outside the family (e.g., peers or media) [12,49,66]. Despite all these influences, in the present study, there was found a consistent pattern between parenting styles and children's adjustment.

4.5. Limitations

When it comes to the limitations of the study, it is worth highlighting its cross-sectional nature and the non-experimental methodology, so it is not possible to establish causal relationships between the variables studied. However, the measure of socialization has been the same for both adolescent and adult children, as have the criteria for psychosocial development. It should be considered that in the present study, parental socialization is captured through the main two dimensions to conform to the four parenting styles (i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful), which are different parenting typologies of other parenting studies that have captured parental socialization through the clustering method as LPA (i.e., latent profile analysis) [135–137]. Additionally, it should be considered that responses in the present study are offered by children who seem to have more accurate responses compared to parents [138,139]. The study of parental socialization beyond adolescence requires us to use the same measures of parental socialization as for adolescent children, but with the statements in the past tense as it followed in the previous studies [14,65,120,121]. Overall, past-tense reports of general items (e.g., parental socialization) without

specific details (e.g., dates or specific events) are usually considered acceptable, especially in community studies [140,141]. Specifically, empirical data support the factorial invariance of the two-dimensional model (i.e., warmth and strictness) across sex and age [14]. In any case, caution should be exercised because, in the case of adult children, especially middle-aged and older adults, it has been a long time since they were raised by their parents until now [14,120,121,142]. However, according to the main findings of the present study, even though adolescents and adult children grew up at different times, differences in their adjustment are equally related to parenting styles with the same pattern: only those from warm and non-strict families (i.e., the indulgent) reported the highest academic/professional self-concept, self-esteem, and benevolent values, and the lowest delinquency during adolescence. Future studies should move towards longitudinal follow-ups of children after socialization [143], although these projects are highly costly and do not usually provide very different results from cross-sectional ones, although they do allow more specific relationships to be established. Finally, it should be considered that all participants were from middle-class families, so results should be extended in future studies to other settings and SES (e.g., risk neighborhoods).

5. Conclusions

The present work examines the relationship between parenting across age groups and its impact on psychosocial adjustment. Most of the previous studies have been focused on the impact of parents on the child's adjustment as the parental socialization process occurs [12,60] or based on the study of parenting practices [4,59] rather than on parenting styles.

However, the present study assesses the relationship between parenting styles in which children were raised and children's psychosocial adjustment during adolescence and beyond in a European country (i.e., Spain). Present findings revealed that parenting characterized by warmth (i.e., indulgent and authoritative styles) is related to higher psychological adjustment, as opposed to neglectful and authoritarian styles, which are associated with the poorest results. Specifically, children raised by indulgent families presented similar or higher psychosocial adjustment than those from authoritative homes. These results disagree with other studies conducted in different cultures that state that authoritative [21,28,31] or authoritarian [20,43] parenting are related to the greatest scores in child adjustment. However, the present findings agree with the most recent evidence about parenting conducted in Latin American or Southern European countries that highlights the importance of warmth without strictness (i.e., indulgent parenting) to achieve the best psychosocial adjustment of the child [13,44,60].

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, S.C.-G., O.F.G., M.A., F.C. and F.G.; methodology, M.A., F.C. and F.G.; software, F.G.; validation, S.C.-G., O.F.G., M.A., F.C. and F.G.; formal analysis, S.C.-G., M.A. and F.C.; investigation, S.C.-G., O.F.G., M.A., F.C. and F.G.; resources, S.C.-G., O.F.G., M.A., F.C. and F.G.; data curation, M.A. and F.C.; writing—original draft preparation, S.C.-G., O.F.G. and M.A.; writing—review and editing, O.F.G. and F.G.; visualization, S.C.-G., M.A. and F.C.; supervision, O.F.G. and F.G.; project administration, O.F.G. and F.G.; funding acquisition, O.F.G. and M.A. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: The research reported in this study has been partially supported by Grants CIAICO/2021/252 (Generalitat Valenciana and European Regional Development Fund), FPU20/06307 (Ministry of Universities, Government of Spain), ACIF/2016/431

and BEFPI/2017/058, which provided funding for a research stay at the Nottingham Trent University, UK (Generalitat Valenciana and European Social Fund).

Institutional Review Board Statement: The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, and approved by the College Research Ethics Committee (CREC) of Nottingham Trent University (protocol code No. 2017/90, May 2017) for studies involving humans.

Informed Consent Statement: Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

Data Availability Statement: Data can be made available for consultation upon request to the corresponding author and with permission of the participants of the study.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Darling, N.; Steinberg, L. Parenting Style as Context: An Integrative Model. *Psychol. Bull.* **1993**, *113*, 487–496.
2. Sandoval-Obando, E.; Alcaide, M.; Salazar-Muñoz, M.; Peña-Troncoso, S.; Hernández-Mosqueira, C.; Gimenez-Serrano, S. Raising Children in Risk Neighborhoods from Chile: Examining the Relationship between Parenting Stress and Parental Adjustment. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2022**, *19*, 45.
3. Villarejo, S.; Martínez-Escudero, J.A.; García, O.F. Parenting Styles and their Contribution to Children Personal and Social Adjustment. *Ansiedad Estres* **2020**, *26*, 1–8.
4. García, O.F.; Fuentes, M.C.; Gracia, E.; Serra, E.; García, F. Parenting Warmth and Strictness across Three Generations: Parenting Styles and Psychosocial Adjustment. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2020**, *17*, 7487.

5. Maccoby, E.E. The Role of Parents in the Socialization of Children—A Historical Overview. *Dev. Psychol.* **1992**, *28*, 1006–1017.
6. Martinez-Escudero, J.A.; Villarejo, S.; Garcia, O.F.; Garcia, F. Parental Socialization and its Impact across the Lifespan. *Behav. Sci.* **2020**, *10*, 101.
7. Grusec, J.E.; Goodnow, J.J. Impact of Parental Discipline Methods on the Childs Internalization of Values: A Reconceptualization of Current Points-of-View. *Dev. Psychol.* **1994**, *30*, 4–19.
8. Garcia, O.F.; Serra, E. Raising Children with Poor School Performance: Parenting Styles and Short- and Long-Term Consequences for Adolescent and Adult Development. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2019**, *16*, 1089.
9. Baumrind, D. Parental Disciplinary Patterns and Social Competence in Children. *Youth Soc.* **1978**, *9*, 239–276.
10. Maccoby, E.E.; Martin, J.A. Socialization in the context of the family: Parent–child interaction. In *Handbook of Child Psychology*; Mussen, P.H., Ed.; Wiley: New York, NY, USA, 1983; Volume 4, pp. 1–101.
11. Moffitt, T.E. Adolescence-Limited and Life-Course-Persistent Antisocial Behavior: A Developmental Taxonomy. *Psychol. Rev.* **1993**, *100*, 674–701.
12. Garcia, O.F.; Serra, E.; Zacaes, J.J.; Calafat, A.; Garcia, F. Alcohol use and Abuse and Motivations for Drinking and Non-Drinking among Spanish Adolescents: Do we Know enough when we Know Parenting Style? *Psychol. Health* **2020**, *35*, 645–654.
13. Garcia, F.; Serra, E.; Garcia, O.F.; Martinez, I.; Cruise, E. A Third Emerging Stage for the Current Digital Society? Optimal Parenting Styles in Spain, the United States, Germany, and Brazil. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2019**, *16*, 2333.
14. Garcia, O.F.; Serra, E.; Zacaes, J.J.; Garcia, F. Parenting Styles and Short- and Long-Term Socialization Outcomes: A Study among Spanish Adolescents and Older Adults. *Psychosoc. Interv.* **2018**, *27*, 153–161.
15. Covell, K.; Grusec, J.E.; King, G. The Intergenerational Transmission of Maternal Discipline and Standards for Behavior. *Soc. Dev.* **1995**, *4*, 32–43.
16. Freud, S. *New Introductory Lectures on Psycho-Analysis*; Hogarth Press: London, UK, 1933.

17. Watson, J.B. *Psychological Care of Infant and Child*; G. Allen & Unwin: London, UK, 1928.
18. Symonds, P.M. *The Psychology of Parent-Child Relationships*; Appleton-Century-Crofts: New York, NY, USA, 1939.
19. Martínez, I.; Cruise, E.; Garcia, O.F.; Murgui, S. English Validation of the Parental Socialization Scale—ESPA29. *Front. Psychol.* **2017**, *8*, 865.
20. Chao, R.K. Extending Research on the Consequences of Parenting Style for Chinese Americans and European Americans. *Child Dev.* **2001**, *72*, 1832–1843.
21. Lamborn, S.D.; Mounts, N.S.; Steinberg, L.; Dornbusch, S.M. Patterns of Competence and Adjustment among Adolescents from Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful Families. *Child Dev.* **1991**, *62*, 1049–1065.
22. Schaefer, E.S. A Circumplex Model for Maternal Behavior. *J. Abnorm. Soc. Psychol.* **1959**, *59*, 226–235.
23. Steinberg, L. Psychological control: Style or substance? In *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development: Changes in Parental Authority during Adolescence*; Smetana, J.G., Ed.; Jossey-Bass: San Francisco, CA, USA, 2005; pp. 71–78.
24. Garcia, F.; Gracia, E. Is always Authoritative the Optimum Parenting Style? Evidence from Spanish Families. *Adolescence* **2009**, *44*, 101–131.
25. Smetana, J.G. Parenting Styles and Conceptions of Parental Authority during Adolescence. *Child Dev.* **1995**, *66*, 299–316.
26. Steinberg, L.; Mounts, N.S.; Lamborn, S.D.; Dornbusch, S.M. Authoritative Parenting and Adolescent Adjustment across Varied Ecological Niches. *J. Res. Adolesc.* **1991**, *1*, 19–36.
27. Steinberg, L.; Lamborn, S.D.; Dornbusch, S.M.; Darling, N. Impact of Parenting Practices on Adolescent Achievement: Authoritative Parenting, School Involvement, and Encouragement to Succeed. *Child Dev.* **1992**, *63*, 1266–1281.
28. Steinberg, L.; Lamborn, S.D.; Darling, N.; Mounts, N.S.; Dornbusch, S.M. Over-Time Changes in Adjustment and Competence among Adolescents from

- Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful Families. *Child Dev.* **1994**, *65*, 754–770.
29. Baumrind, D. Effective parenting during the early adolescent transition. In *Advances in Family Research Series. Family Transitions*; Cowan, P.A., Herington, E.M., Eds.; Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.: Hillsdale, NJ, USA, 1991; pp. 111–163.
 30. Raboteg-Saric, Z.; Sakic, M. Relations of Parenting Styles and Friendship Quality to Self-Esteem, Life Satisfaction and Happiness in Adolescents. *Appl. Res. Qual. Life* **2014**, *9*, 749–765.
 31. Baumrind, D. The Influence of Parenting Style on Adolescent Competence and Substance use. *J. Early Adolesc.* **1991**, *11*, 56–95.
 32. Kritzas, N.; Grobler, A.A. The Relationship between Perceived Parenting Styles and Resilience during Adolescence. *J. Child Adolesc. Ment. Health* **2005**, *17*, 1–12.
 33. Aunola, K.; Stattin, H.; Nurmi, J.E. Parenting Styles and Adolescents' Achievement Strategies. *J. Adolesc.* **2000**, *23*, 205–222.
 34. Im-Bolter, N.; Zadeh, Z.Y.; Ling, D. Early Parenting Beliefs and Academic Achievement: The Mediating Role of Language. *Early Child Dev. Care* **2013**, *183*, 1811–1826.
 35. Yeung, J.W.K. Family Processes, Parenting Practices, and Psychosocial Maturity of Chinese Youths: A Latent Variable Interaction and Mediation Analysis. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2021**, *18*, 4357.
 36. Sadeghi, S.; Ayoubi, S.; Brand, S. Parenting Styles Predict Future-Oriented Cognition in Children: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Children* **2022**, *9*, 1589.
 37. Xiong, R.; Li, S.D.; Xia, Y. A Longitudinal Study of Authoritative Parenting, Juvenile Delinquency and Crime Victimization among Chinese Adolescents. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2020**, *17*, 1405.
 38. Lavric, M.; Naterer, A. The Power of Authoritative Parenting: A Cross-National Study of Effects of Exposure to Different Parenting Styles on Life Satisfaction. *Child. Youth Serv. Rev.* **2020**, *116*, 105274.
 39. Nie, T.; Yan, Q.; Chen, Y. Authoritative Parenting Style and Proactive Behaviors: Evidence from China? *Sustainability* **2022**, *14*, 3435.

40. Baumrind, D. Current patterns of Parental Authority. *Dev. Psychol.* **1971**, 4, 1–103.
41. Pinquart, M.; Kauser, R. Do the Associations of Parenting Styles with Behavior Problems and Academic Achievement Vary by Culture? Results from a Meta-Analysis. *Cult. Divers. Ethn. Minor. Psychol.* **2018**, 24, 75–100.
42. Baumrind, D. An Exploratory Study of Socialization Effects on Black Children: Some Black-White Comparisons. *Child Dev.* **1972**, 43, 261–267.
43. Dwairy, M.; Achoui, M. Introduction to Three Cross-Regional Research Studies on Parenting Styles, Individuation, and Mental Health in Arab Societies. *J. Cross-Cult. Psychol.* **2006**, 37, 221–229.
44. Calafat, A.; Garcia, F.; Juan, M.; Becoña, E.; Fernández-Hermida, J.R. Which Parenting Style is More Protective against Adolescent Substance use? Evidence within the European Context. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* **2014**, 138, 185–192.
45. Fuentes, M.C.; Garcia, F.; Gracia, E.; Alarcón, A. Parental Socialization Styles and Psychological Adjustment. A Study in Spanish Adolescents. *Rev. Psicodidact.* **2015**, 20, 117–138.
46. Milevsky, A. Relationships in Transition: Maternal and Paternal Parenting Styles and Change in Sibling Dynamics during Adolescence. *Eur. J. Dev. Psychol.* **2022**, 19, 89–109.
47. Martínez, I.; Garcia, J.F. Internalization of Values and Self-Esteem among Brazilian Teenagers from Authoritative, Indulgent, Authoritarian, and Neglectful Homes. *Adolescence* **2008**, 43, 13–29.
48. Martínez, I.; Garcia, J.F. Impact of Parenting Styles on Adolescents' Self-Esteem and Internalization of Values in Spain. *Span. J. Psychol.* **2007**, 10, 338–348.
49. Bronfenbrenner, U. Ecology of the Family as a Context for Human-Development—Research Perspectives. *Dev. Psychol.* **1986**, 22, 723–742.
50. Rudy, D.; Grusec, J.E. Authoritarian Parenting in Individualist and Collectivist Groups: Associations with Maternal Emotion and Cognition and Children's Self-Esteem. *J. Fam. Psychol.* **2006**, 20, 68–78.

51. Rudy, D.; Grusec, J.E. Correlates of Authoritarian Parenting in Individualist and Collectivist Cultures and Implications for Understanding the Transmission of Values. *J. Cross-Cult. Psychol.* **2001**, *32*, 202–212.
52. Singelis, T.M.; Triandis, H.C.; Bhawuk, D.P.S.; Gelfand, M.J. Horizontal and Vertical Dimensions of Individualism and Collectivism: A Theoretical and Measurement Refinement. *Cross-Cult. Res.* **1995**, *29*, 240–275.
53. Triandis, H.C. Individualism-Collectivism and Personality. *J. Pers.* **2001**, *69*, 907–924.
54. Triandis, H.C. *Individualism and Collectivism*; Westview Press: Boulder, CO, USA, 1995; p. 259.
55. Wang, S.Y.; Tamis-LeMonda, C.S. Do Child-Rearing Values in Taiwan and the United States Reflect Cultural Values of Collectivism and Individualism? *J. Cross-Cult. Psychol.* **2003**, *34*, 629–642.
56. Clark, T.T.; Yang, C.; McClernon, F.J.; Fuemmeler, B.F. Racial Differences in Parenting Style Typologies and Heavy Episodic Drinking Trajectories. *Health Psychol.* **2015**, *34*, 697–708.
57. Deater-Deckard, K.; Dodge, K.A.; Bates, J.E.; Pettit, G.S. Physical Discipline among African American and European American Mothers: Links to Children's Externalizing Behaviors. *Dev. Psychol.* **1996**, *32*, 1065–1072.
58. Dwairy, M.; Achoui, M.; Abouserfe, R.; Farah, A. Parenting Styles, Individuation, and Mental Health of Arab Adolescents: A Third Cross-Regional Research Study. *J. Cross-Cult. Psychol.* **2006**, *37*, 262–272.
59. Martínez, I.; Murgui, S.; Garcia, O.F.; Garcia, F. Parenting and Adolescent Adjustment: The Mediational Role of Family Self-Esteem. *J. Child Fam. Stud.* **2021**, *30*, 1184–1197.
60. Martinez, I.; Garcia, F.; Veiga, F.; Garcia, O.F.; Rodrigues, Y.; Serra, E. Parenting Styles, Internalization of Values and Self-Esteem: A Cross-Cultural Study in Spain, Portugal and Brazil. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2020**, *17*, 2370.
61. Martínez, I.; Garcia, J.F.; Yubero, S. Parenting Styles and Adolescents' Self-Esteem in Brazil. *Psychol. Rep.* **2007**, *100*, 731–745.

62. Gimenez-Serrano, S.; Alcaide, M.; Reyes, M.; Zacarés, J.J.; Celdrán, M. Beyond Parenting Socialization Years: The Relationship between Parenting Dimensions and Grandparenting Functioning. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2022**, *19*, 4528.
63. Scales, P.C.; Benson, P.L.; Oesterle, S.; Hill, K.G.; Hawkins, J.D.; Pashak, T.J. The Dimensions of Successful Young Adult Development: A Conceptual and Measurement Framework. *Appl. Dev. Sci.* **2016**, *20*, 150–174.
64. Andersson, H.; Bergman, L.R. The Role of Task Persistence in Young Adolescence for Successful Educational and Occupational Attainment in Middle Adulthood. *Dev. Psychol.* **2011**, *47*, 950–960.
65. Buri, J.R. Parental Authority Questionnaire. *J. Pers. Assess.* **1991**, *57*, 110–119.
66. Steinberg, L.; Morris, A. Adolescent Development. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* **2001**, *52*, 83–110.
67. Garcia, O.F.; Lopez-Fernandez, O.; Serra, E. Raising Spanish Children with an Antisocial Tendency: Do we Know what the Optimal Parenting Style is? *J. Interpers. Violence* **2021**, *36*, 6117–6144.
68. Eccles, J.; Midgley, C.; Wigfield, A.; Buchanan, C.; Reuman, D.; Flanagan, C.; Maciver, D. Development during Adolescence—the Impact of Stage-Environment Fit on Young Adolescents Experiences in Schools and in Families. *Am. Psychol.* **1993**, *48*, 90–101.
69. Li, Y.; Lerner, R.M. Trajectories of School Engagement during Adolescence: Implications for Grades, Depression, Delinquency, and Substance use. *Dev. Psychol.* **2011**, *47*, 233–247.
70. Lau, S.; Leung, K. Relations with Parents and School and Chinese Adolescents' Self-Concept, Delinquency, and Academic Performance. *Br. J. Educ. Psychol.* **1992**, *62*, 193–202.
71. Mier, C.; Ladny, R.T. Does Self-Esteem Negatively Impact Crime and Delinquency? A Meta-Analytic Review of 25 Years of Evidence. *Deviant Behav.* **2018**, *39*, 1006–1022.

72. Fuentes, M.C.; Garcia, O.F.; Garcia, F. Protective and Risk Factors for Adolescent Substance use in Spain: Self-Esteem and Other Indicators of Personal Well-being and Ill-being. *Sustainability* **2020**, *12*, 5962.
73. Ludwig, K.B.; Pittman, J.F. Adolescent Prosocial Values and Self-Efficacy in Relation to Delinquency, Risky Sexual Behavior, and Drug use. *Youth Soc.* **1999**, *30*, 461–482.
74. Robins, R.W.; Trzesniewski, K.H. Self-Esteem Development across the Lifespan. *Curr. Dir. Psychol. Sci.* **2005**, *14*, 158–162.
75. Garcia, F.; Martínez, I.; Balluerka, N.; Cruise, E.; Garcia, O.F.; Serra, E. Validation of the Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire AF5 in Brazil: Testing Factor Structure and Measurement Invariance across Language (Brazilian and Spanish), Gender, and Age. *Front. Psychol.* **2018**, *9*, 2250.
76. Chen, F.; Garcia, O.F.; Fuentes, M.C.; Garcia-Ros, R.; Garcia, F. Self-Concept in China: Validation of the Chinese Version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept (AF5) Questionnaire. *Symmetry* **2020**, *12*, 798.
77. Marsh, H.W.; Shavelson, R.J. Self Concept: Its Multifaceted, Hierarchical Structure. *Educ. Psychol.* **1985**, *20*, 107–123.
78. Shavelson, R.J.; Hubner, J.J.; Stanton, G.C. Self-Concept: Validation of Construct Interpretations. *Rev. Educ. Res.* **1976**, *46*, 407–441.
79. Preckel, F.; Niepel, C.; Schneider, M.; Brunner, M. Self-Concept in Adolescence: A Longitudinal Study on Reciprocal Effects of Self-Perceptions in Academic and Social Domains. *J. Adolesc.* **2013**, *36*, 1165–1175.
80. Grusec, J.E.; Hastings, P.D. *Handbook of Socialization: Theory and Research*; Guilford Press: New York, NY, USA, 2007; p. 720.
81. Griffiths, N.L.; Thomas, K.; Dyer, B.; Rea, J.; Bardi, A. The Values of Only-Children: Power and Benevolence in the Spotlight. *J. Res. Pers.* **2021**, *92*, 104096.
82. Steinberg, L.; Blatt-Eisengart, I.; Cauffman, E. Patterns of Competence and Adjustment among Adolescents from Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, and Neglectful Homes: A Replication in a Sample of Serious Juvenile Offenders. *J. Res. Adolesc.* **2006**, *16*, 47–58.

83. Fandino, R.; Basanta, J.; Sanmarco, J.; Arce, R.; Farina, F. Evaluation of the Executive Functioning and Psychological Adjustment of Child-to-Parent Offenders: Epidemiology and Quantification of Harm. *Front. Psychol.* **2021**, *12*, 616855.
84. Blos, P. The Second Individuation Process of Adolescence. *Psychoanal. Study Child* **1967**, *22*, 162–186.
85. Erikson, E.H. *Identity: Youth and Crisis*; Norton & Co.: Oxford, UK, 1968.
86. Arnett, J. Adolescent Storm and Stress, Reconsidered. *Am. Psychol.* **1999**, *54*, 317–326.
87. Steinberg, L. We Know some Things: Parent-Adolescent Relationships in Retrospect and Prospect. *J. Res. Adolesc.* **2001**, *11*, 1–19.
88. Gobbi, G.; Atkin, T.; Zytynski, T.; Wang, S.; Askari, S.; Boruff, J.; Ware, M.; Marmorstein, N.; Cipriani, A.; Dendukuri, N.; et al. Association of Cannabis use in Adolescence and Risk of Depression, Anxiety, and Suicidality in Young Adulthood A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Jama Psychiatry* **2019**, *76*, 426–434.
89. Moffitt, T.E. Male Antisocial Behaviour in Adolescence and Beyond. *Nat. Hum. Behav.* **2018**, *2*, 177–186.
90. Kann, L.; McManus, T.; Harris, W.A.; Shanklin, S.L.; Flint, K.H.; Queen, B.; Lowry, R.; Chyen, D.; Whittle, L.; Thornton, J.; et al. Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance—United States, 2017. *MMWR Surv. Summ.* **2018**, *67*, 1–114.
91. Wang, T.W.; Gentzke, A.S.; Creamer, M.R.; Cullen, K.A.; Holder-Hayes, E.; Sawdey, M.D.; Anic, G.M.; Portnoy, D.B.; Hu, S.; Homa, D.M.; et al. Tobacco Product use and Associated Factors among Middle and High School Students—United States, 2019. *MMWR Surv. Summ.* **2019**, *68*, 1–22.
92. Dahl, R.E.; Allen, N.B.; Wilbrecht, L.; Suleiman, A.B. Importance of Investing in Adolescence from a Developmental Science Perspective. *Nature* **2018**, *554*, 441–450.
93. Spear, L.P. Effects of Adolescent Alcohol Consumption on the Brain and Behaviour. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **2018**, *19*, 197–214.

94. Veiga, F.H.; Festas, I.; García, O.F.; Oliveira, Í.M.; Veiga, C.M.; Martins, C.; Covas, F.; Carvalho, N.A. Do Students with Immigrant and Native Parents Perceive Themselves as Equally Engaged in School during Adolescence? *Curr. Psychol.* **2021**.
95. Musitu-Ferrer, D.; Esteban Ibáñez, M.; León, C.; Garcia, O.F. Is School Adjustment Related to Environmental Empathy and Connectedness to Nature? *Psychosoc. Interv.* **2019**, *28*, 101–110.
96. Veiga, F.H.; Garcia, F.; Reeve, J.; Wentzel, K.; Garcia, O.F. When Adolescents with High Self-Concept Lose their Engagement in School. *Rev. Psicodidact.* **2015**, *20*, 305–320.
97. Riquelme, M.; Garcia, O.F.; Serra, E. Psychosocial Maladjustment in Adolescence: Parental Socialization, Self-Esteem, and Substance use. *An. Psicol.* **2018**, *34*, 536–544.
98. Perez-Gramaje, A.F.; Garcia, O.F.; Reyes, M.; Serra, E.; Garcia, F. Parenting Styles and Aggressive Adolescents: Relationships with Self-Esteem and Personal Maladjustment. *Eur. J. Psychol. Appl. Leg. Context* **2020**, *12*, 1–10.
99. Gallarin, M.; Torres-Gomez, B.; Alonso-Arbiol, I. Aggressiveness in Adopted and Non-Adopted Teens: The Role of Parenting, Attachment Security, and Gender. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2021**, *18*, 2034.
100. Veiga, F.H.; Garcia, F.; Neto, F.; Almeida, L. The Differentiation and Promotion of Students' Rights in Portugal. *Sch. Psychol. Int.* **2009**, *30*, 421–436.
101. Fuentes, M.C.; Alarcón, A.; Gracia, E.; Garcia, F. School Adjustment among Spanish Adolescents: Influence of Parental Socialization. *Cult. Educ.* **2015**, *27*, 6847.
102. Martinez, I.; Garcia, F.; Fuentes, M.C.; Veiga, F.; Garcia, O.F.; Rodrigues, Y.; Cruise, E.; Serra, E. Researching Parental Socialization Styles across Three Cultural Contexts: Scale ESPA29 Bi-Dimensional Validity in Spain, Portugal, and Brazil. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2019**, *16*, 197.
103. Coelho, A.V.; Bear, G.G.; Bras, P. A Multilevel Analysis of the Importance of School Climate for the Trajectories of Students' Self-Concept and Self-Esteem throughout the Middle School Transition. *J. Youth Adolesc.* **2020**, *49*, 1793–1804.

104. Marsh, H.W.; Martin, A.J. Academic Self-Concept and Academic Achievement: Relations and Causal Ordering. *Br. J. Educ. Psychol.* **2011**, *81*, 59–77.
105. Queiroz, P.; Garcia, O.F.; Garcia, F.; Zacaes, J.J.; Camino, C. Self and Nature: Parental Socialization, Self-Esteem, and Environmental Values in Spanish Adolescents. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2020**, *17*, 3732.
106. Struch, N.; Schwartz, S.H.; van der Kloot, W.A. Meanings of Basic Values for Women and Men: A Cross-Cultural Analysis. *Personal. Soc. Psychol. Bull.* **2002**, *28*, 16–28.
107. Gimenez-Serrano, S.; Garcia, F.; Garcia, O.F. Parenting Styles and its Relations with Personal and Social Adjustment Beyond Adolescence: Is the Current Evidence enough? *Eur. J. Dev. Psychol.* **2021**, *19*, 749–769.
108. Mcadams, D.; Aubin, E.; Logan, R. Generativity among Young, Midlife, and Older Adults. *Psychol. Aging* **1993**, *8*, 221–230.
109. Gracia, E.; Garcia, F.; Musitu, G. Macrosocial Determinants of Social Integration: Social-Class and Area Effect. *J. Community Appl. Soc. Psychol.* **1995**, *5*, 105–119.
110. Garcia, J.F.; Pascual, J.; Frias, M.D.; VanKrunckelsven, D.; Murgui, S. Design and Power Analysis: N and Confidence Intervals of Means. *Psicothema* **2008**, *20*, 933–938.
111. Erdfelder, E.; Faul, F.; Buchner, A. GPOWER: A General Power Analysis Program. *Behav. Res. Methods* **1996**, *28*, 1–11. [CrossRef]
112. Faul, F.; Erdfelder, E.; Lang, A.G.; Buchner, A. G*Power3: A Flexible Statistical Power Analysis Program for the Social, Behavioral, and Biomedical Sciences. *Behav. Res. Methods* **2007**, *39*, 175–191.
113. Pérez, J.F.G.; Navarro, D.F.; Llobell, J.P. Statistical Power of Solomon Design. *Psicothema* **1999**, *11*, 431–436.
114. Garcia, J.F.; Musitu, G.; Riquelme, E.; Riquelme, P. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the “Autoconcepto Forma 5” Questionnaire in Young Adults from Spain and Chile. *Span. J. Psychol.* **2011**, *14*, 648–658.
115. Tomás, J.M.; Oliver, A. Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Scale: Two Factors or Method Effects. *Struct. Equ. Model.* **1999**, *6*, 84–98.

116. Tomás,J.M.;Oliver,A.Confirmatory Factor Analysis of a Spanish Multidimensional Scale of Self-Concept. *Interam .J. Psychol.* **2004**, 38, 285–293.
117. Rohner, R.P. Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (PARQ/Control). In *Handbook for the Study of Parental Acceptance and Rejection*; Rohner, R.P., Khaleque, A., Eds.; Rohner Research Publications: Storrs, CT, USA, 2005; pp. 137–186.
118. Khaleque,A.; Rohner,R.P. Perceived Parental Acceptance-Rejection and Psychological Adjustment: A Meta-Analysis of Cross- Cultural and Intracultural Studies. *J. Marriage Fam.* **2002**, 64, 54–64.
119. Rohner, R.P.; Khaleque, A. Reliability and Validity of the Parental Control Scale: A Meta-Analysis of Cross-Cultural and Intracultural Studies. *J. Cross-Cult. Psychol.* **2003**, 34, 643–649.
120. Gomez,R.;Rohner,R.P.Tests of Factor Structure and Measurement Invariance in the United States and Australia using the Adult Version of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire. *Cross-Cult. Res.* **2011**, 45, 267–285.
121. Senese,V.P.;Bacchini,D.;Miranda,M.C.;Aurino,C.;Somma,F.;Amato,G.;Rohner, R.P.TheAdult Parental Acceptance–Rejection Questionnaire: A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Italian and American Short Forms. *Parent. Sci. Pract.* **2016**, 16, 219–236.
122. Garcia,F.;Musitu,G.*AF5:Self-ConceptForm5*;TEAEditions:Madrid,Spain,1999;p.39.
123. Fuentes,M.C.;Garcia,F.;Gracia,E.;Lila,M.Self- Concept and Drug use in Adolescence. *Adicciones***2011**,23,237–248.[CrossRef]
124. Murgui,S.;García,C.;García,A.;Garcia,F.Self-Concept in Young Dancers and Non-Practitioners: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the AF5 Scale. *Rev. Psicol. Deporte* **2012**, 21, 263–269.
125. Garcia,J.F.;Musitu,G.;Veiga,F.H.Self-Concept in Adults from Spain and Portugal. *Psicothema* **2006**,18,551–556.
126. Garcia,F.;Gracia,E.;Zelevnova,A.Validation of the English Version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire. *Psicothema* **2013**, 25, 549–555.

128 Capítulo III: Estudio 2 – Parental Socialization, Delinquency during Adolescence and Adjustment in Adolescents and Adult Children

127. Rosenberg, M. *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*; Princeton University Press: Princeton, NJ, USA, 1965; p. 326.
128. Schwartz, S.H.; Bilsky, W. Toward a Universal Psychological Structure of Human Values. *J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.* **1987**, *53*, 550–562.
129. Gracia, E.; Garcia, F.; Lila, M. Police Attitudes to wards Policing Partner Violence against Women: Do they Correspond to Different Psychosocial Profiles? *J. Interpers. Violence* **2011**, *26*, 189–207.
130. Maxwell, S.E.; Delaney, H.D. *Designing Experiments and Analyzing Data: A Model Comparison Perspective*, 2nd ed.; Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: Mahwah, NJ, USA, 2004.
131. Kirk, R.E. *Experimental Design: Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences*, 2nd ed.; Brooks/Cole Pub. Co.: Monterey, CA, USA, 1982.
132. Fuentes, M.C.; Alarcón, A.; Garcia, F.; Gracia, E. Use of Alcohol, Tobacco, Cannabis and Other Drugs in Adolescence: Effects of Family and Neighborhood. *An. Psicol.* **2015**, *31*, 1000–1007.
133. Stafford, M.; Kuh, D.L.; Gale, C.R.; Mishra, G.; Richards, M. Parent-Child Relationships and Offspring's Positive Mental Wellbeing from Adolescence to Early Older Age. *J. Posit. Psychol.* **2016**, *11*, 326–337.
134. Rothrauff, T.C.; Cooney, T.M.; An, J.S. Remembered Parenting Styles and Adjustment in Middle and Late Adulthood. *J. Gerontol. Ser. B Psychol. Sci. Soc. Sci.* **2009**, *64*, 137–146.
135. Ayon, C.; Williams, L.R.; Marsiglia, F.F.; Ayers, S.; Kiehne, E. A Latent Profile Analysis of Latino Parenting: The Infusion of Cultural Values on Family Conflict. *Fam. Soc.* **2015**, *96*, 203–210.
136. Borden, L.A.; Herman, K.C.; Stormont, M.; Goel, N.; Darney, D.; Reinke, W.M.; Webster-Stratton, C. Latent Profile Analysis of Observed Parenting Behaviors in a Clinic Sample. *J. Abnorm. Child Psychol.* **2014**, *42*, 731–742.
137. Huang, X.; Schumacker, R.E.; Chen, B.; Chiu, M. Latent Class Analysis to Identify Parental Involvement Styles in Chinese Children's Learning at Home. *Behav. Sci.* **2022**, *12*, 237.

138. Barry, C.T.; Frick, P.J.; Grafeman, S.J. Child versus Parent Reports of Parenting Practices: Implications for the Conceptualization of Child Behavioral and Emotional Problems. *Assessment* **2008**, *15*, 294–303.
139. Gonzales, N.A.; Cauce, A.M.; Mason, C.A. Interobserver Agreement in the Assessment of Parental Behavior and Parent-Adolescent Conflict: African American Mothers, Daughters, and Independent Observers. *Child Dev.* **1996**, *67*, 1483–1498.
140. Brewin, C.; Andrews, B.; Gotlib, I. Psychopathology and Early Experience—A Reappraisal of Retrospective Reports. *Psychol. Bull.* **1993**, *113*, 82–98.
141. Khaleque, A.; Rohner, R.P. Pan cultural Associations between Perceived Parental Acceptance and Psychological Adjustment of Children and Adults: A Meta-Analytic Review of Worldwide Research. *J. Cross-Cult. Psychol.* **2012**, *43*, 784–800.
142. Varan, A.; Rohner, R.P.; Eryuksel, G. Intimate Partner Acceptance, Parental Acceptance in Childhood, and Psychological Adjustment among Turkish Adults in Ongoing Attachment Relationships. *Cross-Cult. Res.* **2008**, *42*, 46–56.
143. Pedersen, W.; Hart, R.K.; Moffitt, T.E.; von Soest, T. Delinquency Abstainers in Adolescence and Educational and Labor Market Outcomes in Midlife: A Population-Based 25-Year Longitudinal Study. *Dev. Psychol.* **2020**, *56*, 2167–2176.

Capítulo IV

Estudio 3— Do We Know Enough about Negative Parenting? Recent Evidence on Parenting Styles and Child Maladjustment

Tercero Artículo

Chen, F., Garcia, O. F., Alcaide, M. , Garcia-Ros, R., & Garcia, F. (2024). Do We Know Enough about Negative Parenting? Recent Evidence on Parenting Styles and Child Maladjustment. *The European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context*, doi.org/10.5093/ejpalc2023a4

Abstract

Background: There are serious doubts as to whether parental strictness, one of the two main dimensions of parental style, can be a negative or positive component of parenting in traditional societies. Method: Parenting style (authoritarian, authoritative,

indulgent, and neglectful) was captured from strictness and warmth dimensions and child maladjustment was assessed with problems of self-esteem and self-concept (academic, social, emotional, family, and physical) studied worldwide. The sample was composed of 1,282 Chinese participants (676 females, 52.7%), 581 adolescent children (age ranging from 12-18 years, 45.3%), and 701 young adult children (age ranging from 19-31 years, 54.7%). A $4 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial MANOVA was applied for all outcomes using parenting style, sex, and age as the independent variables. Results: The statistical analysis plainly indicated that authoritarian (strictness but not warmth) and neglectful (neither strictness nor warmth) parenting styles were associated with higher maladjustment in terms of lower self-esteem and self-concept scores. Indulgent (not strictness but warmth) and authoritative (strictness and warmth) parenting were positive parenting styles acting as protective factors against self-esteem and self-concept problems. The authoritative style (strictness and warmth), but not the authoritarian parenting style (strictness but not warmth), was the most positive parenting for academic self-concept, but only among adolescents. Conclusions: Interestingly, completely contrary to expectations that authoritarian parenting might be a positive parenting in traditional societies, present findings suggest that the authoritarian style might be a negative parenting related to child maladjustment.

Keywords: parenting styles, warmth and strictness, authoritarian parenting, Chinese traditional society, self-esteem and self-concept problems

Resumen

Antecedentes: Existen serias dudas sobre si la severidad parental, una de las dos dimensiones principales del estilo parental, puede ser un componente negativo o positivo de la socialización en las sociedades tradicionales. **Método:** El estilo parental (autoritario, autorizativo, indulgente y negligente) se evaluó a partir de las dimensiones de severidad y afecto, y el desajuste de los hijos por medio de problemas de autoestima y autoconcepto (académicos, sociales, emocionales, familiares y físicos) estudiados en todo el mundo. La muestra estaba compuesta por 1,282 participantes chinos (676 mujeres, 52.7%), 581 hijos adolescentes (de 12 a 18 años, 45.3%) y 701 hijos adultos jóvenes (de 19 a 31 años, 54.7%). Se aplicó un MANOVA factorial $4 \times 2 \times 2$ para todos los criterios utilizando el estilo parental, el sexo y la edad como variables independientes. **Resultados:** El análisis estadístico indicó claramente que el estilo parental autoritario (severidad sin afecto) y el negligente (ni severidad ni afecto) estaban relacionados con un mayor desajuste, como indican las menores puntuaciones de autoestima y autoconcepto. El estilo indulgente (afecto sin severidad) y el autorizativo (severidad y afecto) fueron estilos parentales positivos que actuaron como factores protectores contra los problemas de autoestima y autoconcepto. El estilo autorizativo (severidad y afecto), pero no el autoritario (severidad sin afecto), fue el más positivo para el autoconcepto académico, pero sólo en los adolescentes. **Conclusiones:** En contra de las expectativas de que el estilo parental autoritario podría ser positivo para la socialización en las sociedades tradicionales, los presentes resultados sugieren que la socialización autoritaria es un estilo parental negativo relacionado con problemas de desajuste de los hijos.

Palabras clave: estilos parentales, afecto y severidad, estilo parental autoritario, sociedad tradicional china, problemas de autoestima y autoconcepto.

One of the main objectives of the family is to help children develop confidence and acceptance of themselves as valuable persons in different areas of life. Studying parental socialization based on a theoretical model characterized by two dimensions (i.e., warmth and strictness) and four parental styles (i.e., authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful) allows identifying the optimal parental style for child development across the world. However, much of the research on parenting is based on studies conducted in Western societies, primarily in the United States (Brown et al., 1993; Lamborn et al., 1991) and Europe (Calafat et al., 2014; Fuentes et al., 2019), and the optimal parenting style may not necessarily be the same across all cultures (Pinquart & Kauser, 2018; Rudy & Grusec, 2001). This means that benefits of parenting style that combine strictness and warmth (the authoritative style) which have been identified from studies conducted with European-American parents (Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1994) may not be applicable to Eastern societies. The present study aims to examine the relationship between parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful) and both the self-esteem and self-concept (academic, social, emotional, family, and physical) of adolescents and young adult children from a relatively unexplored culture of Asia: Chinese families from the People's Republic of China.

Two-dimensional Theoretical Model with Four Parenting Styles

For decades, the study of parental socialization has been conducted using a theoretical framework with two orthogonal or unrelated dimensions (i.e., warmth and strictness) and four parenting styles (i.e., authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful) (Lamborn et al., 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Warmth refers to the extent to which parents show affection or warmth, and the level of involvement with their children (Gimenez-Serrano, Alcaide et al., 2022; Martinez et al., 2019). Other labels that share the meaning of warmth include responsiveness (Baumrind, 1983), acceptance (Symonds, 1939), love (Schaefer, 1959), care (Orlansky, 1949; Watson, 1928), nurturance (Freud, 1933), or acceptance/involvement (Steinberg et al., 1994). Strictness refers to the extent to which parents use strict rules and limits, tend to apply physical and/or verbal corrections, as well as demanding practices (Dakers & Guse, 2020; Martinez et al., 2017). Other labels that share the meaning of strictness include demandingness (Baumrind, 1991), hostility (Baldwin, 1955), domination (Symonds, 1939), inflexibility (Sears et al., 1957), supervision (Steinberg et al., 1994), control (Schaefer, 1959; Watson, 1928), or firm control (Steinberg et al., 1989). Four parenting styles were defined by examining the combined effects of warmth and strictness: authoritarian (characterized by strictness without warmth), authoritative (characterized by strictness and warmth), indulgent (characterized by warmth without strictness), and neglectful (characterized by a lack of strictness and warmth).

The Optimal Parenting Style

Much research, mainly conducted in the US with European American families, reveals the benefits of strictness when accompanied by warmth (i.e., authoritative parenting)

(Baumrind, 1967; Baumrind, 1971; Lamborn et al., 1991; Mounts & Steinberg, 1995; Steinberg, 2001; Steinberg, Lamborn, et al., 1992). Authoritative parenting is related to some benefits such as good school grades (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Steinberg, Lamborn et al., 1992), greater maturity and development (Steinberg, 2001; Steinberg et al., 1989), less behavioral problems (Fletcher et al., 1995; Steinberg et al., 1991), and decreased drug use (Baumrind, 1991; Steinberg et al., 1991). However, the benefits of the authoritative parenting style may not be common to all contexts and settings (Palacios et al., 2022; Pinquart & Kauser, 2018; Rudy & Grusec, 2001). Some research conducted in the United States with ethnic minorities, such as African American (Baumrind, 1972; Deater-Deckard et al., 1996), Hispanic American (Pinquart & Kauser, 2018; Zayas & Solari, 1994), and Asian-American (Chao, 1994, 2001) has revealed certain benefits of parental strictness without warmth (authoritarian parenting). For example, authoritarian parenting has detrimental consequences on European-American children, but not on African American children (Deater-Deckard et al., 1996), who even report advantages such as assertiveness and independence (Baumrind, 1972).

Asian-American families have received special attention given how they tend to prioritize preserving their culture of origin, which can be different from that of the host country (i.e., US) in certain aspects (Chao, 1994, 2001). In this context, authoritarian parenting seems to not be related to harmful consequences in Asian-American individuals and even adolescents raised in authoritarian families do very well in school (Chao, 1994, 1996, 2000, 2001), especially those from China, Japan, and South Korea (Chao, 2000). As Chao (2000)

points out, Asian-American adolescents from authoritarian families tend to maintain the highest grades. In the same line, some research conducted in poor and risky neighborhoods also identified some benefits associated with authoritarian parenting (Baldwin et al., 1990; Furstenberg et al., 1999).

In addition, results on the optimal parenting style reveal inconsistent empirical findings; authoritative parenting is not always related to universal benefits (Chao, 2001; Palacios et al., 2022). To explain these discrepant findings on optimal parenting styles, some studies suggest the importance of social and cultural context (Garcia & Gracia, 2009; Rudy & Grusec, 2001). It is speculated that, despite having the same parents, there may be variations in the degree to which children feel loved, valued, and strongly connected to their family (i.e., the so-called family self-perceptions) depending on the specific background (Baumrind, 1972; Deater-Deckard et al., 1996; Martinez et al., 2021). For instance, among ethnic minorities, who are more likely to live in more dangerous neighborhoods with fewer opportunities, the use of strictness, despite the lack of warmth, could make children find in their parents the security and protection that the community does not offer (Baldwin et al., 1990; Furstenberg et al., 1999). It is argued that in authoritarian homes (characterized by less warmth and more strictness), European-American children may feel that their parents are intrusive, unloving, and uncaring, while African-American children may feel loved, valued, and recognized by their family (Baumrind, 1972; Deater-Deckard et al., 1996).

Chinese Culture: Limited Research and Mixed Results on Optimal Parenting

In any part of the world it is possible to study parenting based on warmth and strictness and its relation to child adjustment. However, optimal parenting, mainly studied in Western countries (e.g., United States and Europe), may not be the

same for Eastern countries. Families in Eastern societies, including Asian and Arab cultures, are raising children within a cultural context that is typically characterized by collectivist and vertical values (Rudy & Grusec, 2001; Triandis, 1989). The individual (e.g., the child) might be a part of a collective (e.g., the family) in which the relationships between the members (e.g., parents and child) are hierarchical and non-egalitarian (X. Y. Chen et al., 1997; Dwairy et al., 2006; Rudy & Grusec, 2001). Traditional societies (e.g., Turkey or China) seem to have especially delimited social roles. Relationships tend to be lower on egalitarianism, but higher on power distance, which could be related in the context of the family to a higher frequency of the use of strictness, but less of warmth. However, unlike in Western countries, the relationship with parents based on authority and discipline could be accepted by the children (Kisbu et al., 2023; D. Wang et al., 2023).

Within Asian societies, China has been studied for decades in part due to its cultural characteristics especially influenced by Confucianism (Chao, 1994; Leung et al., 1998) and the pursuit of jen as the core virtue of life (F. Chen et al., 2020). According to the principles of Confucian thought, an individual is defined by his or her relationships with others, relationships are organized hierarchically, and social order and harmony are preserved if each party fulfills the responsibilities and requirements of role relationships (Chao, 1994; Ho, 1986; Leung et al., 1998). In the Chinese culture, parents and children are expected to assume certain roles to keep the home running smoothly and to foster family harmony (Ho, 1986; Leung et al., 1998; K. Yang, 1986). Parents are required to govern, teach, and discipline their children (e.g., chiao shun and guan) (Chao, 1994; Nelson et al., 2006), whereas children are required obey,

honor, and respect their parents (e.g., filial piety) (Leung et al., 1998; Wu & Chao, 2011). Because of family interdependence, child adhering to socially desirable and culturally approved behavior directly affects the family as a whole (Ho, 1986; K. Yang, 1986). For example, academic success is especially valued in Chinese families (C. S. Chen & Uttal, 1988; Sue & Okazaki, 1990). If children perform poorly academically, they will have disappointed their parents, but also parents will have failed in socialization by being inadequate rulers and caretakers of their family (Chao, 1994, 2000). It has been suggested that parenting based on parental strictness and authority, without making use of involvement and warmth, fits very well with Chinese cultural traits (Ho, 1986). However, empirical findings about the optimal parenting style among Chinese families offer mixed results.

On the one hand, some evidence seems to suggest benefits associated with a parenting style characterized by strictness without warmth (i.e., the authoritarian style) (Chao, 1994, 1996, 2000, 2001). In this sense, studies with immigrant families in the United States (the so-called Chinese-American homes) have revealed that authoritarian parenting is associated with important benefits, especially academically (Chao, 1994, 2001). However, for their counterparts from European-American families, authoritarian parenting is related to poor developmental outcomes (Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg, Lamborn et al., 1992). Other scholars, who have examined ethnic differences in adolescent achievement in the United States, indicate that Chinese-American and other Asian students had the highest grades regardless of family type (maybe due to the cultural repercussions of doing well in school) (Steinberg, Dornsbuch et al., 1992).

The benefits of authoritarian parenting are also found in some studies conducted in China (Ekblad, 1986; Leung et al., 1998; Y.

Li et al., 2010; Quoss & Zhao, 1995). Compared to children from Western countries, it is possible that children from the People's Republic of China (PRC) might feel loved, valued, and protected by their family (the collective) even though their parents tend to be stricter and show less warmth (e.g., praising, hugging, and kissing the child) (Chao, 2000). In this sense, the authoritarian style appears to have no detrimental consequences and is even associated with positive outcomes, such as family satisfaction (Quoss & Zhao, 1995), less depression (Li et al., 2010), and good school adjustment (Ekblad, 1986; Leung et al., 1998; Y. Li et al., 2010). However, benefits related to authoritarian parenting practices have been identified (e.g., using shame to correct sons), without considering the relationship of parental practices with the two dimensions (Ekblad, 1986). Another limitation is that parenting styles are based on global measures for each style (mainly authoritative and authoritarian), but without considering the two main dimensions and the four types of families (Leung et al., 1998; Y. Li et al., 2010; Quoss & Zhao, 1995).

On the other hand, emergent research from China, mainly focused on parenting practices, also seems to suggest the benefits of parental strictness accompanied by high warmth (i.e., authoritative parenting) (X. Y. Chen et al., 1997; X. Y. Chen et al., 2000; Xia et al., 2015). According to these studies, parenting practices that define the authoritative parenting (i.e., the authoritative style), such as those found in European-American families, seem to also be positive in the People's Republic of China (PRC) (Q. Wang et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2004). However, comparisons are mainly limited to some parenting practices corresponding to authoritative or authoritarian parenting styles without considering the two

dimensions (i.e., warmth and strictness) to define the four parenting styles (X. Y. Chen et al., 1997; Zhou et al., 2004). Additionally, some inconsistent results have been described when the effect of authoritarian practices are examined. For example, monitoring and involvement (common to authoritative parents) were related to more school adjustment and less behavioral problems, but parental support (a parental practice based on greater warmth) was surprisingly related to more behavioral problems (see Xia et al., 2015). The limited emergent evidence seems to detect the positive effect of discipline and surveillance (parental strictness), but within a relationship based on dialogue, affection, and trust between parents and children (parental warmth) (Xia et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2017).

Toward a Cross-cultural Paradigm Based on Three Parenting Stages

Optimal parenting may not be the same all over the world (F. Garcia & Gracia, 2009; Pinquart & Kauser, 2018; Rudy & Grusec, 2001). Currently, a new paradigm of optimal parenting has been suggested based on three historical stages, extending the traditional paradigm of only two stages (i.e., authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles) to include the indulgent parenting style (for a review, see Garcia et al., 2019). According to the old paradigm, two optimal stages of optimal parenting (i.e., authoritative and the authoritarian parenting) have been suggested over the past century. The first historical stage corresponded to the benefits of parenting characterized by strictness without warmth (i.e., the authoritarian style). At the beginning of the last century, John B. Watson (Watson, 1928) advised parents about the risk of spoiling their children with unnecessary displays of warmth, while proposing strict parenting to get children to develop regular habits and self-

discipline. Laurence Steinberg (Steinberg, 2001) supports the idea that, for contemporary industrialized societies, parenting based on strictness is effective only when combined with warm parenting (i.e., the authoritative style or second stage). Furthermore, current emergent research in the digital era seriously questions if parenting based on strictness is still needed to achieve the highest child and adolescents' personal and social well being. The three stages occur simultaneously in different contexts, settings, and cultures, so for each specific context the optimal one must be analyzed.

Specifically, the so-called third stage of optimal parental socialization (i.e., the indulgent style) seems to have empirical support based on a growing body of research mainly conducted in European and Latin American countries (Calafat et al., 2014; Climent-Galarza et al., 2022; Garcia & Gracia, 2009; Garcia & Serra, 2019; Martinez & Garcia, 2007, 2008; Martinez et al., 2020; Rodrigues et al., 2013; Villarejo et al., 2020). In contrast to the main findings from studies with European-American families, parenting based on warmth without strictness (i.e., the indulgent style), is associated with optimal scores in different indicators of adjustment and competence such as self-concept and self-esteem (Martinez & Garcia, 2007; Perez-Gramaje et al., 2020), cognitive and affective empathy (Fuentes et al., 2022), less drug use (Riquelme et al., 2018; Villarejo et al., 2023), including motivations for drinking and non-drinking (Garcia, Serra et al., 2020), greater internalization of social values and environmental values (Queiroz et al., 2020), school achievement, and other academic outcomes (Fuentes et al., 2019; Reyes et al., 2023). In this sense, it seems that the indulgent style might be associated with equal or even more positive scores than the authoritative style. It is possible that

adolescents might especially benefit from close relationships with their parents based on warmth, without strictness (Martinez-Escudero et al., 2023). Some emergent results extend the benefits of the third emerging stage (i.e., warmth without strictness) beyond adolescence (Garcia, Serra et al., 2018; Martinez-Escudero et al., 2020; Martinez-Escudero et al., 2023). Indulgent parenting seems to be associated with positive scores once parenting socialization is over, throughout adulthood (Alcaide et al., 2023; Palacios et al., 2022). As in adolescence, adult children who were raised by warm but not strict parents during the socialization years exhibit good adjustment and competence according to different indicators (Climent-Galarza et al., 2022; Garcia, Fuentes et al., 2020; Gimenez-Serrano, Garcia et al., 2022).

The Present Study

Regardless of the cultural and country context, it is important to detect optimal parenting styles, especially in Eastern societies, which are based on different cultural norms and values than Western ones. Contemporary China has undergone significant social, cultural, and economic changes that might affect families (Li, 2020). As X. Li (2020) summarized in her review, Chinese parents traditionally were expected to act as emotionally distant educators and disciplinarians of their children, but the role of parents has evolved during modern social transformations from the Confucian hierarchical ideal based on parental authority and child obedience to more egalitarian relationships between family members. Today, in Chinese societies, parents are more involved in child-rearing and warmer with their children than their predecessors. However, the optimal Chinese parenting based on warmth and strictness (i.e., authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful) still remains unclear. Additionally, family studies in

People's Republic of China (PRC) have serious methodological shortcomings, and even discrepant and contradictory empirical findings.

One of the most important goals of parental socialization is for children to achieve self-confidence as competent members of their society (Baumrind, 1978; Maccoby, 1992; Veiga et al., 2023). Self-esteem arises from an overall appraisal of oneself as a valuable person with good qualities (Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2003; Rosenberg, 1965) and is associated with important benefits for health and well-being as well as protection against emotional and behavioral problems (Coopersmith, 1967; Ybrandt & Armelius, 2010). However, not all children develop a good confidence in oneself and in their abilities. Low self-esteem is related to broad aspects of maladjustment. The lower the self-esteem, the higher the likelihood of aggressive behaviors, including proactive and reactive aggression (J. Yang et al., 2023). Meta-analytic evidence suggests that low self-esteem may have a significant potential negative impact on real-world life experiences, rather than merely being an epiphenomenon of failure in relevant life domains (Orth et al., 2012). Low self-esteem is related to high levels of negative affect, health problems, poor satisfaction with life, depression, and anxiety (Orth & Robins, 2013; Orth et al., 2012; Sowislo & Orth, 2013).

But global self-worth is formed from appraisal in different relevant personal areas (i.e., self-concept) (Chen et al., 2020; Garcia, Martinez, et al., 2018; Marsh & Martin, 2011; Shavelson et al., 1976). Self-perceptions as a competent student who is able to adapt to school demands (the so-called academic self-concept) are positively related to school performance (Marsh & Martin, 2011; Veiga et al., 2015), as well as being processes

conducive to learning (Marsh & Shavelson, 1985; Musitu-Ferrer et al., 2019). However, lower academic self-concept is associated with higher likelihood of problems in school and low academic achievement (Marsh & Martin, 2011). Additionally, the correct adjustment of the individual to society also requires other dimensions of self-concept which are quite relevant (Esnaola et al., 2020). The non-academic components of self-concept (social, emotional, family, and physical) have also been positively associated with well-being and psychosocial adjustment (Fuentes et al., 2020; Fuentes et al., 2011). By contrast, low social self-concept is a risk factor for drug use (Fuentes et al., 2020) and low levels of emotional self-concept are associated with likelihood of anxious insecure attachment (Cornella-Font et al., 2020), whereas low family and physical self-concept are associated with increased risk of childhood trauma (Cornella-Font et al., 2020) and eating disorders (Maiz & Balluerka, 2018), respectively.

The present study analyzes the relationship between parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful) and scores among adolescent and young adult children based on one unidimensional (self-esteem) but also multidimensional approach which includes the academic dimension (academic self-concept) and other non-academic but highly relevant dimensions for personal and social adjustment (social, emotional, family, and physical self-concept). Low self-esteem and self-concept are not only explained by parenting, but also by broad intrafamilial and extrafamilial influences, as well as multiple biological, personal, social, and cultural factors (Harter et al., 1993; Orth et al., 2012; Shavelson et al., 1976). However, despite the multiple influences, parenting has consistently been identified as a protective or risk factor for self-concept and self-esteem problems (Fuentes et al., 2020; Lamborn et al., 1991; Pinquart & Kauser, 2018). Probably due

to the importance of academic achievement in Asian culture, many studies in Chinese families have focused on academic outcomes (e.g., grade point average), without considering other relevant adjustment criteria. Another limitation of previous studies is examining the effect of parental socialization only while it is occurring (e.g., in adolescents), but not beyond, once parental socialization has ended (in adult children). It is expected that parenting styles characterized by high warmth (authoritative and indulgent) would be related to more self-esteem and self-concept (academic, social, emotional, family, and physical) than those parental styles without warmth (authoritarian and neglectful).

Method

Participants and Procedure

The sample was composed of 1,282 participants ranging from 12 to 31 years of age ($M = 17.68$, $SD = 3.37$), 676 females (52.7%) and 606 males (47.3%). Participants included 581 adolescents (45.3%) ranging from 12 to 18 years ($M = 15.08$, $SD = 3.14$) and 701 young adults (54.7%) ranging from 19 to 31 years ($M = 19.84$, $SD = 1.53$). The software G-power 3.1 was used to estimate the statistical power (Faul et al., 2009). The a priori power analysis revealed that a lowest sample of 1,200 participants was needed to identify the medium-low effect size usually described for parenting styles, $f = .12$ (Cohen, 1977; Garcia et al., 2008; Lamborn et al., 1991) based on a statistical power of 0.95 (Type I and Type II errors, $\alpha = .05$; $1 - \beta = .95$). Considering the study's sample size ($N = 1,282$, $\alpha = \beta = .05$), a sensitivity power analysis indicated that statistically significant differences with a slightly lower small effect size can be

detected in the main effects between the four parenting styles ($f = .116$) (Cohen, 1977; Garcia et al., 2008; Lamborn et al., 1991).

The adolescent participants were recruited from high schools. The heads of all potential participating high schools were invited to participate. When a high school declined the invitation, another school was selected until completing the sample size required (Garcia & Gracia, 2009; Riquelme et al., 2018). Young adults were recruited in undergraduate education courses (Garcia et al., 2021; Manzeske & Stright, 2009). This study follows ethic principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. Data were compiled by using an online survey. The survey consisted of mandatory questions. To guarantee data protection measures, identifiers of participants, as well as survey data, were gathered in different and separate archives; sensitive files were protected and passwords to web directories were stored in an encryption-protected system, (Garcia et al., 2021). The questionnaires were studied for doubtful response patterns, such as describing implausible inconsistencies between responses in positively and negatively worded items (Garcia et al., 2011; Garcia et al., 2021; Tomás & Oliver, 2004). All participants in the present study were Chinese-speaking, as were their parents and four grandparents, had received approval from their parents (in the case of adolescents), had given written consent, and anonymity of their responses was assured.

Measures

Parenting Styles

Parental Warmth was assessed with the 20 items included in the Warmth/Affection Scale (WAS) of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) (Rohner et al., 1978). The WAS scale evaluates the degree to which children perceive their parents as loving, responsive, and involved. Example of items are “Let me know they love me” and “Talk to me in a

warm and loving way” [“他们会向我展示他们爱我” and “他们用亲密的方式与我交流]. The alpha value was .922. Parental strictness was assessed with the 13 items included in the Parental Control Scale (PCS) of the Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) (Rohner et al., 1978). The PCS scale evaluates the degree to which children perceive their parents are strict and exert control over their behavior. Example of items are “Tell me exactly how to do my work” [“他们会清楚地告诉我该如何做事”] and “Insist that I do exactly as I am-told” [“他们坚持要我按照他们要求的方式做”]. The alpha value was .769. Young adults answered the adult version of the WAS and PCS. Both the WAS and PCS have a 4-point response scale ranging from 1 almost never is/was true to 4 almost always is/was true. Previous research has shown that the WAS and PCS for adolescent and adult children are measures with very good psychometric properties that have been used in over 60 cultures worldwide, including China (Khaleque & Ali, 2017; Khaleque & Rohner, 2002; Khaleque & Rohner, 2012; Rohner, 2005). Higher scores on both WAS and PCS scales express higher parental warmth and strictness.

Parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful) were defined by splitting the sample on parental warmth and parental strictness by median-split procedure (i.e., 50th percentile) based on sex and analyzing the two parenting variables simultaneously (Alcaide et al., 2023; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1994). Authoritarian families scored above the median on strictness, but below on parental warmth. Authoritative families scored over the median on both warmth

and strictness. Indulgent families scored above the median on warmth, but below on strictness. Neglectful families scored below the median on both parental variables.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem was assessed using the Rosenberg Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). It consists of 10 statements that evaluate overall feelings of self-worth and self-acceptance. Example of items are “I am able to do things as well as most other people” [“我有能力和别人做的一样好”] and “On the whole, I am satisfied with myself” [“通常来讲，我对自己很满意”]. It follows a 4-point response scale ranging from 1 strongly disagree to 4 strongly agree. Higher rates in the scale express higher self-esteem. Cronbach’s alpha value for this scale was .788.

Self-concept

Self-concept based on academic and non-academic dimensions (social, emotional, family, and physical) was measured with the Chinese AF5 Multidimensional Self-Concept Scale (Chen et al., 2020). The AF5 scale was designed to evaluate self-concept based on five dimensions: academic, social, emotional, family, and physical (Garcia & Musitu, 1999; Garcia, Martinez et al., 2018). The academic subscale evaluates how one perceives their role performance as a good student (or worker). An example of an item is “I do my homework well (professional works)” [“我的工作 (学业) 很出色”]. The social subscale evaluates how one perceives their performance in social and interpersonal relationships. An example of an item is “I make friends easily” [“我很容易交到朋友”]. The emotional subscale evaluates how one perceives their emotional state and their responses to specific situations. An

example of an item is “Many things make me nervous” [“很多事情让我感到很紧张”]. The family subscale evaluates how one perceives their participation, integration, and involvement in the family. An example of an item is “My family is disappointed with me” [“我的家人对我感到失望”] (reversed item). The physical subscale evaluates how one perceives their own appearance and physical condition. An example of an item is “I take good care of my physical health” [“我照顾我的外型”]. The AF5 has good psychometric properties (Chen et al., 2020; Fuentes et al., 2011; Garcia, Martinez et al., 2018; Murgui et al., 2012; Tomás & Oliver, 2004). Both exploratory factorial (Garcia & Musitu, 1999), as well as confirmatory factorial analyses (Fuentes et al., 2011; Murgui et al., 2012; Tomás & Oliver, 2004) tested and confirmed its factorial structure based on five different but related dimensions. Additionally, the AF5 scale showed an invariant factorial structure by sex, age, and different languages such as Portuguese (Garcia et al., 2006), Brazilian-Portuguese (Garcia, Martinez et al., 2018), English (Garcia et al., 2013), and Chinese (Chen et al., 2020). The AF5 has no show method effects related to its negatively worded items (Garcia et al., 2011; Tomás & Oliver, 2004). The AF5 scale has 30 items (six for each dimension) and a 99-point response scale ranging from 1 complete disagreement to 99 complete agreement. Greater scores on AF5 subscales represent a higher self-concept. Cronbach’s alphas for the AF5 subscales were: academic subscale = .867, social subscale = .781, emotional subscale = .729, family subscale = .748, and physical subscale = .671.

Data Analyses

A $4 \times 2 \times 2$ multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted for self-esteem and self-concept (academic, social, emotional, family, and physical) with the independent variables being parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful), sex (females vs. males), and age group (adolescents vs. young adults). Follow-up univariate F tests were applied in each source in which multivariate statistically significant differences were found. Statistical results on the univariate tests were also followed up by post hoc comparisons (Bonferroni) among all possible pairs of means.

Results

Parenting Style Groups

The participants were distributed by parenting styles according to their levels of both parental warmth and strictness (see Table 1). The authoritative parenting ($M = 68.74$, $SD = 5.21$) and indulgent parenting ($M = 68.78$, $SD = 5.27$) styles were associated to higher levels of warmth than the authoritarian parenting ($M = 52.32$, $SD = 8.33$) and neglectful parenting ($M = 53.08$, $SD = 6.62$). Furthermore, authoritative ($M = 38.14$, $SD = 2.47$) and authoritarian parenting ($M = 38.76$, $SD = 3.30$) were associated with greater levels of strictness than indulgent ($M = 31.56$, $SD = 3.10$) and neglectful parenting ($M = 30.94$, $SD = 3.68$).

Table 1. *Distribution of participants by parenting style.*

	Total	Authoritative	Indulgent	Authoritarian	Neglectful
Frequency	1282	332	298	320	332
Percentage	100	25.90	23.20	25.00	25.90
Parental Warmth					
Mean	60.59	68.74	68.78	52.32	53.08
SD	10.32	5.21	5.27	8.33	6.62
Parental Strictness					
Mean	34.90	38.14	31.56	38.76	30.94
SD	4.81	2.47	3.10	3.30	3.68

Multivariate Analyses

Differences reached the statistically significant differences for the main effects of parenting style, $\Lambda = .743$, $F(18, 3567.1) = 21.90$, $p < .001$; sex, $\Lambda = .957$, $F(6, 1261.0) = 9.43$, $p < .001$; and age, $\Lambda = .977$, $F(6, 1261.0) = 5.00$, $p < .001$, and for the interaction effects between parenting and age, $\Lambda = .965$, $F(18, 3567.1) = 2.55$, $p < .001$ (see Table 2).

Table 2. Multivariate Factorial MANOVA $4 \times 2 \times 2$ for Developmental Outcomes Based on Self-esteem and Self-concept (academic, social, emotional, family, and physical).

Source	Λ	F	df_{between}	df_{error}	p
(A) Parenting styles	.743	21.90	18	3567.1	< .001
(B) Sex	.957	9.43	6	1261.0	< .001
(C) Age	.977	5.00	6	1261.0	< .001
A $\times$ B	.984	1.16	18	3567.1	.291
A $\times$ C	.965	2.55	18	3567.1	< .001
B $\times$ C	.994	1.25	6	1261.0	.280
A $\times$ B $\times$ C	.982	1.31	18	3567.1	.169

Sex and Age-related Differences

Although not the focus of the study, some sex- and age-related differences reached statistically significant level (see Table 3). Regarding sex-related differences, male individuals reported greater self-esteem than female individuals. On the contrary, female individuals showed greater social and family self-concept, but lower emotional self-concept, than male individuals. Regarding age-related differences, adolescents reported higher self-esteem and social self-concept than young adults, whereas young adults had higher physical self-concept than adolescents.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics Based on Mean and Standard Deviations (in parenthesis) for Sex and Age, and Univariate F-values on Developmental Outcomes Based on Self-esteem and Self-concept

Developmental Outcomes	Females	Males	<i>F</i> (1, 1266)	Adolescents	Young Adults	<i>F</i> (1, 1266)
Self-esteem	27.75 (3.80)	28.22 (4.06)	4.14*	28.35 (4.19)	27.66 (3.67)	7.85**
Self-concept						
Academic	6.68 (1.86)	6.59 (1.89)	2.18	6.71 (1.98)	6.59 (1.78)	0.38
Social	7.38 (1.72)	7.16 (1.69)	6.82**	7.40 (1.77)	7.17 (1.65)	4.27*
Emotional	5.03 (1.91)	5.34 (1.82)	8.34**	5.24 (1.97)	5.13 (1.79)	0.55
Family	7.79 (1.66)	7.54 (1.58)	9.41**	7.74 (1.73)	7.61 (1.54)	0.36
Physical	5.96 (1.67)	6.16 (1.78)	3.68	5.96 (1.8)	6.14 (1.65)	5.23*

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Parenting Styles

Overall, parenting styles characterized by greater warmth were associated with greater scores on self-esteem and self-concept than parenting without warmth (see Table 4). Additionally, the interaction between parenting style and age was statically significant on self-esteem, $F(3, 1266) = 6.61$, $p < .001$, academic self-concept, $F(3, 1266) = 5.85$, $p < .001$, emotional self-concept, $F(3, 1266) = 3.69$, $p = .012$, and family self-concept, $F(3, 1266) = 4.92$, $p = .002$.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics Mean and Standard Deviations (in parenthesis) for Parenting Style and Univariate F-values on Developmental Outcomes Based on Self-esteem and Self-Concept

Developmental outcomes	Authoritative	Indulgent	Authoritarian	Neglectful	<i>F</i> (3, 1266)
Self-esteem	29.16 ¹ (3.74)	29.05 ¹ (3.80)	26.81 ² (3.81)	26.94 ² (3.74)	40.74***
Self-concept					
Academic	7.29 ¹ (1.71)	6.89 ² (1.98)	6.16 ³ (1.87)	6.23 ³ (1.70)	31.90***
Social	7.72 ¹ (1.59)	7.74 ¹ (1.62)	6.89 ² (1.78)	6.79 ² (1.61)	32.27***
Emotional	5.42 ¹ (1.94)	5.60 ¹ (1.92)	4.73 ² (1.78)	4.97 ² (1.75)	15.90***
Family	8.34 ¹ (1.18)	8.54 ¹ (1.13)	6.74 ³ (1.73)	7.12 ² (1.61)	122.16***
Physical	6.53 ¹ (1.67)	6.38 ¹ (1.72)	5.75 ² (1.72)	5.59 ² (1.61)	25.63***

Note. 1 > 2 > 3.

*** $p < .001$.

With regard to self-esteem, authoritative and indulgent parenting were related to higher scores in self-esteem than the authoritarian and neglectful styles. The family profile by age revealed higher differences between parenting styles in adolescence than in young adults. Overall, an age-related decrease in self-esteem was found in warm families, but the highest scores for both adolescents and young adults corresponded to those raised in authoritative and indulgent homes (see Figure 1, section A). Parenting characterized by a lack of warmth was related to poor self-esteem. However, the lowest scores among adolescents were associated with authoritarian parenting, while among young adults the lowest scores were associated with neglectful parenting.

A similar pattern as in self-esteem was found in self-concept dimensions. The highest scores on the academic dimension were associated with the authoritative style, the lowest corresponded to authoritarian and neglectful styles, and the indulgent parenting was in a middle position. The family profile by age revealed an interesting trend among warm families and the authoritative parenting was associated to higher academic self-concept in adolescence, but not in young adulthood (see Figure 1, section B). Fewer scores related to age were found among authoritative families, and it was observed that young adults raised by authoritative parents scored equally as their peers from indulgent homes. Again, poor academic self-concept was related to non-warm parenting in the adolescent and young adult groups.

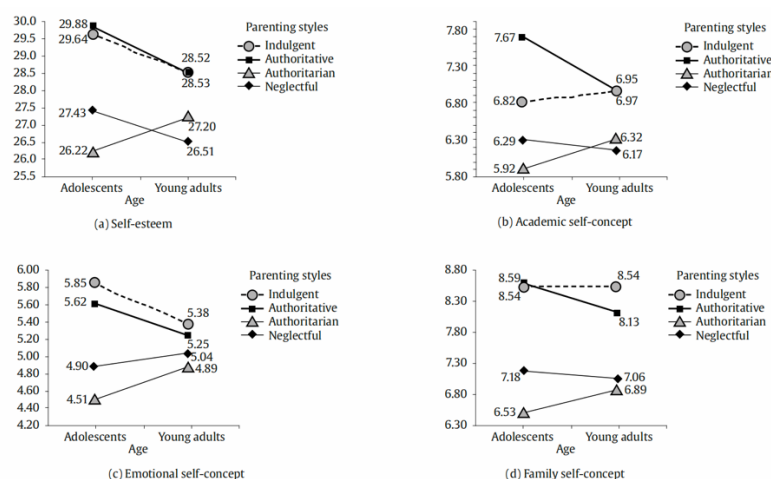


Figure 1. Interaction of Parenting Styles by Age. (a) Self-esteem, (b) academic self-concept, (c) emotional self-concept, and (d) family self-concept.

Individuals with authoritative and indulgent parents reported higher social self-concept than their peers from authoritarian and neglectful families. Regarding emotional self-concept, warm parenting (i.e., authoritative and indulgent styles) was associated with higher scores than non-warm parenting (i.e., authoritarian and neglectful styles). This general pattern was more pronounced among adolescents than young adults (see Figure 1, section C). Although relatively lower scores related to age were observed among authoritative and indulgent homes (the opposite seems to appear among authoritarian families), young adults raised in warm parenting families also tend to report the highest emotional self-concept. Differences in family self-concept revealed that individuals with authoritative and indulgent parents scored more positively than their peers from authoritarian and neglectful homes (within non-warmth styles, authoritarian were related to lower scores than neglectful parenting). The family age profile revealed an interesting pattern in adolescence and young adulthood. Adolescents from

indulgent homes tend to score more similarly than peers from authoritative homes, whereas young adults tend to report better scores when raised by indulgent parents compared to those from authoritative homes (see Figure 1, section D). Conversely, authoritarian and neglectful parenting were associated with low family self-concept, in adolescence the lowest scores corresponded to the authoritarian parenting whereas in young adulthood both authoritarian and neglectful parenting were associated with the lowest scores. Finally, regarding differences on physical self-concept, authoritative and indulgent parenting were related to higher scores compared to authoritarian and neglectful parenting.

Discussion

The present study examined optimal parenting styles among both adolescents and young adult children from the People's Republic of China. Parenting was examined using the classical theoretical framework based on two dimensions (warmth and strictness) and four parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful) whereas socialization outcomes were examined using self-esteem and self-concept based on five dimensions. The results showed a relatively common pattern in the association of parenting styles with self-esteem and self-concept in China, although with some different nuances in adolescence and young adulthood. Overall, parenting styles characterized by warmth were more beneficial for adolescents and young adults to develop good confidence both in themselves (self-esteem) and in their abilities in different areas required for good personal and social adjustment (self-concept).

Authoritative and indulgent parenting were associated with better scores in self-esteem compared to authoritarian and neglectful parenting. Like self-esteem, parenting styles based on warmth (i.e., authoritative and indulgent) were related to higher self-concept than parenting without warmth (i.e., authoritarian and neglectful). The highest academic self-concept corresponded to the authoritative parenting, the lowest to parenting without warmth (authoritarian and neglectful), and the indulgent style was in a middle position. In the social and emotional self-concept, authoritative and indulgent parenting were also related to better scores than authoritarian and neglectful parenting. In family self-concept, the authoritative and indulgent styles were related to high scores, while the authoritarian and neglectful parenting were associated with low scores (the lowest scores correspond to the authoritarian style). Finally, in terms of physical self-concept, individuals raised by authoritative and indulgent parents reported higher scores than their peers from authoritarian and neglectful parents.

Parenting-related differences revealed a relatively common but not equal age-profile among adolescents and young adults in self-esteem and academic, emotional, and family self-concept. Interestingly, the highest academic self-concept was related to the authoritative style, but only in adolescence. Young adults raised by authoritative parents showed the same levels of academic self-concept as their peers from indulgent parents. Also, the differences observed between the highest and lowest scores in self-esteem, academic, social, and emotional self-concept tended to be greater in adolescence compared to young adulthood. However, adolescents and young adults who grew up in indulgent homes scored more optimally than their peers with authoritarian and neglectful parents. Finally, when examining parenting styles and self-esteem and self-concept (authoritarian and neglectful styles), adolescents from

authoritarian families had the lowest scores, while young adults raised by authoritarian and neglectful parents obtained similar and the most negative scores, except in self-esteem (the lowest scores corresponded to neglectful parenting).

According to some research with Chinese families conducted in the United States (Chao, 1994, 2001) and the People's Republic of China (Leung et al., 1998; Quoss & Zhao, 1995), the authoritarian style would be effective in favoring healthy development, but the present findings seriously contradict previous evidence. One of the main goals of socialization is for children to become autonomous and independent adults in their society. Self-esteem (i.e., feeling appreciated and as valuable as other members of society) is a socialization outcome (Baumrind, 1978; Rosenberg, 1965). However, according to the present findings, Chinese adolescents and young adults raised by authoritarian parents do not seem to develop confidence in their abilities to function in society. The global evaluation as a valuable person with good qualities (self-esteem) arises from the subjective appraisal in academic and non-academic domains (i.e., multidimensional self-concept) (Esnaola et al., 2023; Marsh & Shavelson, 1985). Interestingly, the present study revealed that negative correlates of authoritarian style in self-esteem seem to extend to self-concept as well.

Academic success is important in any society, but especially in China (Ho, 1986). Influenced by Chinese cultural values, performance in school represents the success (or failure) of the child, but above that it also represents the degree of success of his or her parents because they have the obligation to care for and protect the family (Chao, 2000). According to previous evidence, adolescents would benefit from strict parenting without warmth especially at school (Chao, 2001; Quoss &

Zhao, 1995). However, the present study shows that adolescents and young adults raised in strict and non-warm homes (authoritarian) appear to be unsuccessful in school (culturally, their parents are also unsuccessful), at least in terms of valuing their learning qualities (academic self-concept). Therefore, findings from the present study seriously question previous empirical evidence about the benefits of the Chinese authoritarian style especially in terms of school adjustment (Chao, 1994, 2001). But school is only one of the important aspects of the psychosocial adaptation of the individual to society (Marsh & Shavelson, 1985). Non-academic self-concept profiles (social, emotional, family, and physical dimensions) also provide important new evidence on the detrimental consequences associated with the authoritarian style.

Previous studies detect benefits associated with strict but not warm parenting (authoritarian style), whereas parental warmth (i.e., when parents tend to express love verbally, give approval and praise, and be there for children if needed) was associated with behavioral and emotional problems in Chinese adolescents (Xia et al., 2015). It would be expected that the authoritarian style would also be associated with good self-perception in psychosocial adjustment (non-academic dimensions of self-concept) (Leung et al., 1998; Quoss & Zhao, 1995). However, the present study shows that adolescents and young adults raised in authoritarian households rate their abilities to relate to peers and make friends (social self-concept), to regulate emotions in difficult situations (emotional self-concept), and their appearance and physical abilities (physical self-concept) very negatively. Additionally, the findings on the relationship of authoritarian style in another of the non-academic dimensions of self-concept, the family dimension, provide crucial new evidence to the literature.

The data from the present study seriously contradict an idea widely supported to explain some benefits associated with authoritarian parenting: that children raised in authoritarian homes develop a good self-perception of their family (Chao, 1994; Ho, 1986). Some scholars argue that family practices based on discipline and strictness fit very well with the Chinese cultural principle of parental authority and rule and that of obedience and loyalty on the part of children, so that warmth and involvement would be unnecessary, as strict parental guidance could be understood as a sign of love and care (Chao, 2000; Quoss & Zhao, 1995). As some students have pointed out, Chinese children with authoritarian parents would feel loved and appreciated by their family (Chao, 1996). However, according to the present study, adolescents and young adults raised in homes characterized by discipline and strictness, but without involvement and warmth (the authoritarians), do not seem to feel appreciated and valued by their family, at least in terms of family self-concept (they obtained the lowest scores).

On the contrary, the present findings revealed that parenting styles characterized by parental warmth are associated with greater scores than non-warm parenting styles. The authoritative style seems to be as effective as the indulgent style for self-esteem and non-academic self-concept, and even better than indulgent parenting for academic self-concept (in adolescents, but not in young adults). Some previous emerging studies conducted in China found that the authoritative style was beneficial while the authoritarian style was detrimental (X. Y. Chen et al., 1997; Zhou et al., 2004), but without analyzing the effects associated with the other two parenting styles (i.e., indulgent and neglectful) because they did not classify parenting practices according to the two dimensions of the

model (i.e., warmth and strictness) that defines the four parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful). However, parenting research based on the two-dimensional theoretical model with four parenting styles, which has been widely tested in Western societies (e.g., Europe and United States) (Calafat et al., 2014; Lamborn et al., 1991), has been little used in Eastern societies, such as China. Therefore, the present study extends the study of parenting based on the two-dimensional model with four parenting styles from the Western to the Eastern societies making it possible to detect the positive parenting style across the world with the same theoretical framework (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Garcia & Gracia, 2009; Garcia et al., 2019; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Martinez & Garcia, 2007; Pinquart & Kauser, 2018). The present study revealed differences in self-concept and self-esteem not only between the two parenting styles characterized by strictness (authoritarian and authoritative) but also between the four parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful).

In the ancient Chinese society, and perhaps when there is a risk of acculturation and loss of identity (Chinese families in foreign countries), hierarchical relationships based on ruling and teaching (by parents) and obedience and loyalty (by children) can guide children and strongly bond family members, which may explain the developmental benefits identified in classical studies (Ho, 1986). By contrast, in contemporary China there seems to be an evolution of the role of parents from traditional forms based on hierarchy and order to more egalitarian relationships between parents and children, although families today continue to be strongly influenced by collectivism (Xia et al., 2015). In this sense, it is possible that the optimal parenting style could be affected by contemporary Chinese culture. Parental warmth (common to indulgent and authoritative

parenting) seems to be beneficial for positive development, probably because of more egalitarian relationships among family members, whereas strictness seems to be unnecessary (in terms of self-esteem and non-academic self-concept), except for academic self-concept (but only in adolescence, not in young adulthood). The results of the present study partially coincide with other previous emerging research focused on parenting practices and their consequences on the emotional and academic development of Chinese adolescents: warm practices were positively related to emotional and academic development, while strict practices were also beneficial but only for academic development (Wang et al., 2007).

Although perhaps to a lesser extent than before, academic achievement is still highly valued socially in contemporary China and therefore seems to affect not only children, but the family as a whole (especially the parents). Chinese adolescents may succeed in secondary and high school and pursue university studies (being the pride of their family), but also fail in their academic goals (bringing shame on the family) (Li, 2020). The greatest benefits of authoritative compared to indulgent parenting were found in the adolescent group (but not in young adults) in academic self-concept, an important indicator of academic adjustment, probably because in the Chinese society school adjustment is one of the most socially valued areas of psychosocial adjustment. The present results suggest that higher academic outcomes (e.g., academic self-concept) may require parental strictness but in combination with warmth (i.e., authoritative parenting), especially in adolescence which is a period of higher vulnerability and difficulties. By contrast, in the young adult group (once socialization is complete), those who were raised in authoritative households (warmth and strictness)

scored equally as their peers from indulgent homes (warmth without strictness), which seems to suggest that the benefits of strictness might be especially good in adolescence, but unnecessary once parental socialization is over (adulthood). It is possible that for young adults, who are not under the supervision and care of parents and are more mature than in adolescence, the greatest benefits related to academic outcomes (e.g., self-concept) could be related to parental warmth regardless of strictness (i.e., authoritative and indulgent).

Although not the central focus, sex- and age-related differences were found. Adolescents scored higher than young adults on self-esteem and social self-concept, but lower on physical self-concept. Additionally, male individuals reported higher self-esteem than female individuals. In terms of self-concept, female individuals had higher social and family self-concept than male individuals, whereas male individuals scored higher than female individuals on emotional self-concept. Sex- and age-related differences in self-esteem and self-concept do not seem to be the same as in Eastern countries, but the main effects of sex and age align with previous research conducted in China (Bleidorn et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2020).

The present study extends the analysis of differences in socialization outcomes as a function of parenting styles based on warmth and strictness to China, although some cautions should be noted. We cannot determine a causal relationship between parenting and socialization outcomes (self-esteem and self-concept) because the methodology is not experimental. However, differences in self-esteem and self-concept related to parenting styles have a similar pattern (main benefits related to parental warmth) to that of studies conducted in the United States and Europe. In addition, the present study examines parenting during adolescence and beyond (among young adults,

once parental socialization has ended) based on a cross-sectional rather than longitudinal design. Although we cannot draw conclusions about the evolution of self-esteem and self-concept throughout adolescence among the individuals of the four households (i.e., authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent, and neglectful), the strategy followed in the present study is often used in research with adult children. Therefore, findings based on a cross-sectional design are preliminary and should be confirmed in longitudinal studies. In addition, the respondents were adolescents and young adults rather than their parents, but some evidence highlights that children are more reliable than parents.

Optimal parenting has been examined for decades. The two-dimensional theoretical model, widely used in Western societies (e.g., United States and Europe), considers the combined effects of warmth and strictness, but has been scarcely used in Eastern societies, especially in China. Contrary to some evidence on the benefits of strictness without parental warmth, especially for academic performance, the present results showed the poor results in self-esteem, non-academic self-concept (social, emotional, family, and physical) and academic self-concept associated with the authoritarian style. Future studies should continue to examine optimal parenting worldwide and, particularly, in China, based on the two-dimensional theoretical model (Maccoby & Martin, 1983) to identify if positive parenting is based on strictness without warmth (the authoritarian style or first stage), strictness with warmth (the authoritative style or second stage), or warmth without strictness (the indulgent style or third stage) (Garcia et al., 2019). The results of the present study provide clear evidence of differences in self-concept and self-esteem in China

depending on parenting styles. Although broad benefits of warmth without strictness in self-esteem and non-academic self-concept are observed (indulgent parenting), optimal parental socialization in China seems to be based on warmth and strictness (authoritative parenting or second stage), especially for academic success but only during adolescence (in terms of academic self-concept). Future studies should examine Chinese parenting styles in adolescence and beyond with longitudinal studies to identify optimal parenting in broad indicators of psychosocial development, particularly academic adjustment.

Conflict of Interest

The authors of this article declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Alcaide, M., Garcia, O. F., Queiroz, P., & Garcia, F. (2023). Adjustment and maladjustment to later life: Evidence about early experiences in the family. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 14, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1059458>
- Baldwin, A. L. (1955). *Behaviour and development in childhood*. Dryden Press.
- Baldwin, A. L., Baldwin, C., & Cole, R. E. (1990). Stress-resistant families and stress-resistant children. In A. L. Baldwin, C. Baldwin, & R. E. Cole (Eds.), *Risk and protective factors in the development of psychopathology* (pp. 257-280). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511752872.016>
- Baumrind, D. (1967). Child rearing practices anteceding three patterns of preschool behavior. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 75(1), 43-88.
- Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental Psychology*, 4(1, pt. 2), 1-103. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0030372>

- Baumrind, D. (1972). An exploratory study of socialization effects on Black children: Some Black-White comparisons. *Child Development*, 43(1), 261-267. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1972.tb01099.x>
- Baumrind, D. (1978). Reciprocal rights and responsibilities in parent-child relations. *Journal of Social Issues*, 34(2), 179-196. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.1978.tb01038.x>
- Baumrind, D. (1983). Rejoinder to Lewis reinterpretation of parental firm control effects: Are authoritative families really harmonious? *Psychological Bulletin*, 94(1), 132-142. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.94.1.132>
- Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 11(1), 56-95. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431691111004>
- Bleidorn, W., Arslan, R. C., Denissen, J. J. A., Rentfrow, P. J., Gebauer, J. E., Potter, J., & Gosling, S. D. (2016). Age and gender differences in self-esteem-a cross-cultural window. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 111(3), 396-410. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pspp0000078>
- Brown, B. B., Mounts, N. S., Lamborn, S. D., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting practices and peer group affiliation in adolescence. *Child Development*, 64(2), 467-482. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1993.tb02922.x>
- Calafat, A., Garcia, F., Juan, M., Becoña, E., & Fernández-Hermida, J. R. (2014). Which parenting style is more protective against adolescent substance use? Evidence within the European context. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 138, 185-192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2014.02.705>
- Chao, R. K. (1994). Beyond parental control and authoritarian parenting style: Understanding Chinese parenting through the cultural notion of training. *Child Development*, 65(4), 1111-1119. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1994.tb00806.x>

- Chao, R. K. (1996). Chinese and European American mothers' beliefs about the role of parenting in children's school success. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 27(4), 403-423. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022196274002>
- Chao, R. K. (2000). The parenting of immigrant Chinese and European American mothers: Relations between parenting styles, socialization goals, and parental practices. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 21(2), 233-248. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0193-3973\(99\)00037-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0193-3973(99)00037-4)
- Chao, R. K. (2001). Extending research on the consequences of parenting style for Chinese Americans and European Americans. *Child Development*, 72(6), 1832-1843. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00381>
- Chen, C. S., & Uttal, D. H. (1988). Cultural values, parents beliefs, and children's achievement in the United States and China. *Human Development*, 31(6), 351-358. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000276334>
- Chen, F., Garcia, O. F., Fuentes, M. C., Garcia-Ros, R., & Garcia, F. (2020). Self-concept in China: Validation of the Chinese version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept (AF5) Questionnaire. *Symmetry-Basel*, 12(798), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.3390/sym12050798>
- Chen, X. Y., Dong, Q., & Zhou, H. (1997). Authoritative and authoritarian parenting practices and social and school performance in Chinese children. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 21(4), 855-873. <https://doi.org/10.1080/016502597384703>
- Chen, X. Y., Liu, M. W., & Li, D. (2000). Parental warmth, control, and indulgence and their relations to adjustment in Chinese children: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 14(3), 401-419. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0893-3200.14.3.401>
- Climent-Galarza, S., Alcaide, M., Garcia, O. F., Chen, F., & Garcia, F. (2022). Parental socialization, delinquency during adolescence and adjustment in adolescents and adult children. *Behavioral Sciences*, 12(11), 448. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bs12110448>
- Cohen, J. (1977). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (Rev ed.). Academic Press.

- Coopersmith, S. (1967). The antecedents of self-esteem. Freeman. Cornella-Font, M., Vinas-Poch, F., Juarez-Lopez, J. R., & Malo-Cerrato, S. (2020). Risk of addiction: Its prevalence in adolescence and its relationship with security of attachment and self-concept. *Clínica y Salud*, 31(1), 21-25. <https://doi.org/10.5093/clysa2020a1>
- Dakers, J., & Guse, T. (2020). Can dimensions of parenting style contribute to self-compassion among South African adolescents? *Journal of Family Studies*, 28(4), 1566-1579. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13229400.2020.1852951>
- Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113(3), 487-496. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.113.3.487>
- Deater-Deckard, K., Dodge, K. A., Bates, J. E., & Pettit, G. S. (1996). Physical discipline among African American and European American mothers: Links to children's externalizing behaviors. *Developmental Psychology*, 32(6), 1065-1072. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.32.6.1065>
- Dornbusch, S. M., Ritter, P. L., Leiderman, P. H., Roberts, D. F., & Fraleigh, M. J. (1987). The relation of parenting style to adolescent school performance. *Child Development*, 58(5), 1244-1257. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1130618>
- Dwairy, M., Achoui, M., Abouserie, R., Farah, A., Sakhleh, A. A., Fayad, M., & Khan, H. K. (2006). Parenting styles in Arab societies: A first cross regional research study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 37(3), 230-247. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022106286922>
- Ekblad, S. (1986). Relationships between child-rearing practices and primary-school children functional adjustment in the Peoples Republic-Of-China. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 27(3), 220-230. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9450.1986.tb01199.x>
- Esnaola, I., Sesé, A., Antonio-Agirre, I., & Azpiazu, L. (2020). The development of multiple self-concept dimensions during adolescence. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 30(1), 100–114. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12451>

- Esnaola, I., Sesé, A., Azpiazu, L., & Wang, Y. (2023). Revisiting the academic self-concept transcultural measurement model: The case of Spain and China. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, e12635. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12635>
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A. G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, 41(4), 1149-1160. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149>
- Fletcher, A. C., Darling, D. E., Steinberg, L., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1995). The company they keep - relation of adolescents adjustment and behavior to their friends perceptions of authoritative parenting in the social network. *Developmental Psychology*, 31(2), 300-310. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.31.2.300>
- Freud, S. (1933). *New introductory lectures on psycho-analysis*. Hogarth Press.
- Fuentes, M. C., Garcia, O. F., Alcaide, M., Garcia-Ros, R., & Garcia, F. (2022). Analyzing when parental warmth but without parental strictness leads to more adolescent empathy and self-concept: Evidence from Spanish homes. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, Article 1060821. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1060821>
- Fuentes, M. C., Garcia, O. F., & Garcia, F. (2020). Protective and risk factors for adolescent substance use in Spain: Self-esteem and other indicators of personal well-being and ill-being. *Sustainability*, 12(15), 5967. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12155962>
- Fuentes, M. C., Garcia, F., Gracia, E., & Lila, M. (2011). Autoconcepto y ajuste psicosocial en la adolescencia [Self-concept and psychosocial adjustment in adolescence]. *Psicothema*, 23(1), 7-12.
- Fuentes, M. C., Garcia-Ros, R., Perez-Gonzalez, F., & Sancerni, D. (2019). Effects of parenting styles on self-regulated learning and academic stress in Spanish adolescents. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(15), 2778. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16152778>
- Furstenberg, F. F., Cook, T., Eccles, J., Elder Jr., G. H., & Sameroff, A. (1999). *Managing to make it: Urban families and adolescent success*. University of Chicago Press.

- Garcia, F., & Gracia, E. (2009). Is always authoritative the optimum parenting style? Evidence from Spanish families. *Adolescence*, 44(173), 101-131.
- Garcia, F., Gracia, E., & Zeleznova, A. (2013). Validation of the English version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire. *Psicothema*, 25(4), 549-555. <https://doi.org/10.7334/psicothema2013.33>
- Garcia, F., Martinez, I., Balluerka, N., Cruise, E., Garcia, O. F., & Serra, E. (2018). Validation of the five-factor self-concept questionnaire AF5 in Brazil: Testing factor structure and measurement invariance across language (Brazilian and Spanish), gender, and age. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 9, Article 2250. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02250>
- Garcia, F., & Musitu, G. (1999). AF5: Self-concept form 5 [AF5: Autoconcepto forma 5]. TEA editions.
- Garcia, F., Serra, E., Garcia, O. F., Martinez, I., & Cruise, E. (2019). A third emerging stage for the current digital society? Optimal parenting styles in Spain, the United States, Germany, and Brazil. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(13), Article 2333. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16132333>
- Garcia, J. F., Musitu, G., & Veiga, F. H. (2006). Self-concept in adults from Spain and Portugal. [Autoconcepto en adultos de España y Portugal] *Psicothema*, 18(3), 551-556.
- Garcia, J. F., Musitu, G., Riquelme, E., & Riquelme, P. (2011). A confirmatory factor analysis of the “Autoconcepto Forma 5” questionnaire in young adults from Spain and Chile. *Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 14(2), 648-658. https://doi.org/10.5209/rev_SJOP.2011.v14.n2.13
- Garcia, J. F., Pascual, J., Frias, M. D., Van Krunkelsven, D., & Murgui, S. (2008). Design and power analysis: n and confidence intervals of means. *Psicothema*, 20(4), 933-938.
- Garcia, O. F., Fuentes, M. C., Gracia, E., Serra, E., & Garcia, F. (2020). Parenting warmth and strictness across three generations: Parenting styles and

- psychosocial adjustment. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(20), 7487. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17207487>
- Garcia, O. F., Lopez-Fernandez, O., & Serra, E. (2021). Raising Spanish children with an antisocial tendency: Do we know what the optimal parenting style is? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 36(13-14), 6117-6144. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260518818426>
- Garcia, O. F., & Serra, E. (2019). Raising children with poor school performance: Parenting styles and short- and long-term consequences for adolescent and adult development. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(1089), 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16071089>
- Garcia, O. F., Serra, E., Zacaes, J. J., Calafat, A., & Garcia, F. (2020). Alcohol use and abuse and motivations for drinking and non-drinking among Spanish adolescents: Do we know enough when we know parenting style? *Psychology & Health*, 35(6), 645-654. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08870446.2019.1675660>
- Garcia, O. F., Serra, E., Zacaes, J. J., & Garcia, F. (2018). Parenting styles and short- and long-term socialization outcomes: A study among Spanish adolescents and older adults. *Psychosocial Intervention*, 27(3), 153-161. <https://doi.org/10.5093/pi2018a21>
- Gimenez-Serrano, S., Alcaide, M., Reyes, M., Zacaes, J. J., & Celdrán, M. (2022). Beyond parenting socialization years: The relationship between parenting dimensions and grandparenting functioning. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(8), 4528. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19084528>
- Gimenez-Serrano, S., Garcia, F., & Garcia, O. F. (2022). Parenting styles and its relations with personal and social adjustment beyond adolescence: Is the current evidence enough? *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 19(5), 749-769. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17405629.2021.1952863>
- Gudjonsson, G. H., & Sigurdsson, J. F. (2003). The relationship of compliance with coping strategies and self-esteem. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 19(2), 117-123.
- Harter, S. (1993). Causes and consequences of low self-esteem in children and adolescents. In R. F. Baumeister (Ed.), *Self-esteem: The puzzle of low self-*

regard (pp. 87-116). Plenum Press. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4684-8956-9_5

Ho, D. Y. F. (1986). Chinese patterns of socialization: A critical review. *The psychology of the Chinese people*. (pp. 1-37). Oxford University Press.

Khaleque, A., & Ali, S. (2017). A systematic review of meta-analyses of research on Interpersonal acceptance-rejection theory: Constructs and measures. *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 9(4, SI), 441-458. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jftr.12228>

Khaleque, A., & Rohner, R. P. (2002). Reliability of measures assessing the pancultural association between perceived parental acceptance-rejection and psychological adjustment: A meta-analysis of cross-cultural and intracultural studies. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33(1), 87-99. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022102033001006>

Khaleque, A., & Rohner, R. P. (2012). Pancultural associations between perceived parental acceptance and psychological adjustment of children and adults: A meta-analytic review of worldwide research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 43(5), 784-800. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022111406120>

Kisbu, Y., Özcan, M., Küçük, G. H., Bozok, M., Kaya, M., & Fikri, G. (2023). Fathering styles in a traditional culture and its association with marital relationship: A latent profile analysis with a nationally representative sample. *Family Process*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1111/famp.12948>

Lamborn, S. D., Mounts, N. S., Steinberg, L., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child Development*, 62(5), 1049-1065. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1991.tb01588.x>

Leung, K., Lau, S., & Lam, W. L. (1998). Parenting styles and academic achievement: A cross-cultural study. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly-Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 44(2), 157-172.

- Li, X. (2020). Fathers' involvement in Chinese societies: Increasing presence, uneven progress. *Child Development Perspectives*, 14(3), 150-156. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cdep.12375>
- Li, Y., Costanzo, P. R., & Putallaz, M. (2010). Maternal socialization goals, parenting styles, and social-emotional adjustment among Chinese and European American young adults: Testing a mediation model. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 171(4), 330-362. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00221325.2010.505969>
- Maccoby, E. E. (1992). The role of parents in the socialization of children - an historical overview. *Developmental Psychology*, 28(6), 1006-1017. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.28.6.1006>
- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology* (pp. 1-101). Wiley.
- Maiz, E., & Balluerka, N. (2018). Trait anxiety and self-concept among children and adolescents with food neophobia. *Food Research International*, 105, 1054-1059. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2017.12.037>
- Manzeske, D. P., & Stright, A. D. (2009). Parenting styles and emotion regulation: The role of behavioral and psychological control during young adulthood. *Journal of Adult Development*, 16(4), 223-229. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10804-009-9068-9>
- Marsh, H. W., & Martin, A. J. (2011). Academic self-concept and academic achievement: Relations and causal ordering. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81(1), 59-77. <https://doi.org/10.1348/000709910X503501>
- Marsh, H. W., & Shavelson, R. J. (1985). Self-concept: Its multifaceted, hierarchical structure. *Educational Psychologist*, 20(3), 107-123. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2003_1
- Martinez, I., Cruise, E., Garcia, O. F., & Murgui, S. (2017). English validation of the Parental Socialization Scale - ESPA29. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8(865), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00865>

- Martinez, I., & Garcia, J. F. (2007). Impact of parenting styles on adolescents' self-esteem and internalization of values in Spain. *Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 10(2), 338-348. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1138741600006600>
- Martinez, I., & Garcia, J. F. (2008). Internalization of values and self-esteem among Brazilian teenagers from authoritative, indulgent, authoritarian, and neglectful homes. *Adolescence*, 43(169), 13-29.
- Martinez, I., Garcia, F., Fuentes, M. C., Veiga, F., Garcia, O. F., Rodrigues, Y., Cruise, E., & Serra, E. (2019). Researching parental socialization styles across three cultural contexts: Scale ESPA29 bi-dimensional validity in Spain, Portugal and Brazil. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(197), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16020197>
- Martinez, I., Garcia, F., Veiga, F., Garcia, O. F., Rodrigues, Y., & Serra, E. (2020). Parenting styles, internalization of values and self-esteem: A cross cultural study in Spain, Portugal and Brazil. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(7), 2370. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17072370>
- Martinez, I., Murgui, S., Garcia, O. F., & Garcia, F. (2021). Parenting and adolescent adjustment: The mediational role of family self-esteem. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 30(5), 1184-1197. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-021-01937-z>
- Martinez-Escudero, J. A., Garcia, O. F., Alcaide, M., Bochons, I., & Garcia, F. (2023). Parental socialization and adjustment components in adolescents and middle-aged adults: How are they related? *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, 16, 1127-1139. <https://doi.org/10.2147/PRBM.S394557>
- Martinez-Escudero, J. A., Villarejo, S., Garcia, O. F., & Garcia, F. (2020). Parental socialization and its impact across the lifespan. *Behavioral Sciences*, 10(6), 101. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bs10060101>
- Mounts, N. S., & Steinberg, L. (1995). An ecological analysis of peer influence on adolescent grade-point average and drug-use. *Developmental Psychology*, 31(6), 915-922. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0012-1649.31.6.915>

- Murgui, S., Garcia, C., Garcia, A., & Garcia, F. (2012). Self-concept in young dancers and non-practitioners: Confirmatory factor analysis of the AF5 scale. [Autoconcepto en jóvenes practicantes de danza y no practicantes: Análisis factorial confirmatorio de la escala AF5] *Revista De Psicología Del Deporte*, 21(2), 263-269.
- Musitu-Ferrer, D., Esteban-Ibañez, M., León-Moreno, C., & García, O. F. (2019). Is school adjustment related to environmental empathy and connectedness to nature? *Psychosocial Intervention*, 28(2), 101-110. <https://doi.org/10.5093/pi2019a8>
- Nelson, D. A., Hart, C. H., Yang, C. M., Olsen, J. A., & Jin, S. H. (2006). Aversive parenting in China: Associations with child physical and relational aggression. *Child Development*, 77(3), 554-572. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2006.00890.x>
- Orlansky, H. (1949). Infant care and personality. *Psychological Bulletin*, 46(1), 1-48. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0058106>
- Orth, U., & Robins, R. W. (2013). Understanding the link between low self-esteem and depression. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 22(6), 455-460. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721413492763>
- Orth, U., Robins, R. W., & Widaman, K. F. (2012). Life-span development of self-esteem and its effects on important life outcomes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 102(6), 1271-1288. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0025558>
- Palacios, I., Garcia, O. F., Alcaide, M., & Garcia, F. (2022). Positive parenting style and positive health beyond the authoritative: Self, universalism values, and protection against emotional vulnerability from Spanish adolescents and adult children. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, Article 1066282. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1066282>
- Perez-Gramaje, A. F., Garcia, O. F., Reyes, M., Serra, E., & Garcia, F. (2020). Parenting styles and aggressive adolescents: Relationships with self-esteem and personal maladjustment. *European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context*, 12(1), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.5093/ejpalc2020a1>
- Pinquart, M., & Kauser, R. (2018). Do the associations of parenting styles with behavior problems and academic achievement vary by culture? Results from a

meta-analysis. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 24(1), 75-100. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000149>

Queiroz, P., Garcia, O. F., Garcia, F., Zacaes, J. J., & Camino, C. (2020). Self and nature: Parental socialization, self-esteem, and environmental values in Spanish adolescents. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(10), 3732. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17103732>

Quoss, B., & Zhao, W. (1995). Parenting styles and children's satisfaction with parenting in China and the United States. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 26(2), 265-280. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015076>

Reyes, M., Garcia, O. F., Perez-Gramaje, A. F., Serra, E., Melendez, J. C., Alcaide, M., & Garcia, F. (2023). Which is the optimum parenting for adolescents with low vs. high self-efficacy? Self-concept, psychological maladjustment and academic performance of adolescents in the Spanish context. *Anales de Psicología*, 39(3), 466-475. <https://doi.org/10.6018/analesps.517741>

Riquelme, M., Garcia, O. F., & Serra, E. (2018). Psychosocial maladjustment in adolescence: Parental socialization, self-esteem, and substance use. *Anales de Psicología*, 34(3), 536-544. <https://doi.org/10.6018/analesps.34.3.315201>

Rodrigues, Y., Veiga, F., Fuentes, M. C., & Garcia, F. (2013). Parenting and adolescents' self-esteem: The Portuguese context. *Revista De Psicodidactica*, 18(2), 395-416. <https://doi.org/10.1387/RevPsicodidact.6842>

Rohner, R. P. (2005). Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ): Test manual. In R. P. Rohner, & A. Khaleque (Eds.), *Handbook for the study of parental acceptance and rejection* (4th ed., pp. 43-106). Center for the Study of Parental Acceptance and Rejection, University of Connecticut. <https://doi.org/10.1037/t05824-000>

Rohner, R. P., Saavedra, J., & Granum, E. O. (1978). Development and validation of the Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Test manual. *Catalogue of Selected Documents in Psychology*, 8, 17-48.

- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton University Press.
- Rudy, D., & Grusec, J. E. (2001). Correlates of authoritarian parenting in individualist and collectivist cultures and implications for understanding the transmission of values. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32(2), 202-212. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022101032002007>
- Schaefer, E. S. (1959). A circumplex model for maternal behavior. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 59(2), 226-235. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0041114>
- Sears, R. R., Maccoby, E. E., & Levin, H. (1957). *Patterns of child rearing*. Row, Peterson.
- Shavelson, R. J., Hubner, J. J., & Stanton, G. C. (1976). Self-concept: Validation of construct interpretations. *Review of Educational Research*, 46(3), 407-441. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543046003407>
- Sowislo, J. F., & Orth, U. (2013). Does low self-esteem predict depression and anxiety? A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin*, 139(1), 213-240. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028931>
- Steinberg, L. (2001). We know some things: Parent-adolescent relationships in retrospect and prospect. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 11(1), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1532-7795.00001>
- Steinberg, L., Dornbusch, S. M., & Brown, B. B. (1992). Ethnic-differences in adolescent achievement: An ecological perspective. *American Psychologist*, 47(5), 723-729. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.47.6.723>
- Steinberg, L., Elmen, J. D., & Mounts, N. S. (1989). Authoritative parenting, psychosocial maturity, and academic-success among adolescents. *Child Development*, 60(6), 1424-1436. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1989.tb04014.x>
- Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S. D., Darling, N., Mounts, N. S., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1994). Over-Time changes in adjustment and competence among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child Development*, 65(3), 754-770. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1994.tb00781.x>

- Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S. D., Dornbusch, S. M., & Darling, N. (1992). Impact of parenting practices on adolescent achievement: Authoritative parenting, school involvement, and encouragement to succeed. *Child Development*, 63(5), 1266-1281. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1131532>
- Steinberg, L., Mounts, N. S., Lamborn, S. D., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment across varied ecological niches. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 1, 19-36.
- Sue, S., & Okazaki, S. (1990). Asian-American educational achievements - a phenomenon in search of an explanation. *American Psychologist*, 45(8), 913-920. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.45.8.913>
- Symonds, P. M. (1939). *The psychology of parent-child relationships*. Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Tomás, J. M., & Oliver, A. (2004). Confirmatory factor analysis of a Spanish multidimensional scale of self-concept. [Análisis psicométrico confirmatorio de una medida multidimensional del autoconcepto en español] *Revista Interamericana De Psicología*, 38(2), 285-293.
- Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96(3), 506-520. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.96.3.506>
- Veiga, F. H., Festas, I., Garcia, O. F., Oliveira, Í. M., Veiga, C. M., Martins, C., Covas, F., & Carvalho, N. A. (2023). Do students with immigrant and native parents perceive themselves as equally engaged in school during adolescence? *Current Psychology*, 42(14), 11902-11916. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-02480-2>
- Veiga, F. H., Garcia, F., Reeve, J., Wentzel, K., & Garcia, O. F. (2015). When adolescents with high self-concept lose their engagement in school. *Revista de Psicodidactica*, 20(2), 305-320. <https://doi.org/10.1387/RevPsicodidact.12671>
- Villarejo, S., Garcia, O. F., Alcaide, M., Villarreal, M. E., & Garcia, F. (2023). Early family experiences, drug use and psychosocial adjustment across the life span: Is parental strictness always a protective factor? *Psychosocial Intervention*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.5093/pi2023a16>

- Villarejo, S., Martinez-Escudero, J. A., & Garcia, O. F. (2020). Estilos parentales y su contribución al ajuste social y personal de los hijos [Parenting styles and their contribution to children personal and social adjustment]. *Ansiedad y Estrés*, 26(1), 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anyes.2019.12.001>
- Wang, D., Xie, R., Yan, R., Ding, W., & Lin, X. (2023). Parents' marital satisfaction, self-compassion, and harsh discipline in China: A dyadic analysis. *Family Relations*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1111/fare.12951>
- Wang, Q., Pomerantz, E. M., & Chen, H. (2007). The role of parents' control in early adolescents' psychological functioning: A longitudinal investigation in the United States and China. *Child Development*, 78(5), 1592-1610. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2007.01085.x>
- Watson, J. B. (1928). In Watson R. (Ed.), *Psychological care of infant and child*. G. Allen & Unwin.
- Wu, C., & Chao, R. K. (2011). Intergenerational cultural dissonance in parent-adolescent relationships among Chinese and European Americans. *Developmental Psychology*, 47(2), 493-508. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021063>
- Xia, Y. R., Wang, C., Li, W., Wilson, S., Bush, K. R., & Peterson, G. (2015). Chinese parenting behaviors, adolescent school adjustment, and problem behavior. *Marriage and Family Review*, 51(6), 489-515. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01494929.2015.1038408>
- Xu, J., Ni, S., Ran, M., & Zhang, C. (2017). The relationship between parenting styles and adolescents' social anxiety in migrant families: A study in Guangdong, China. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 626. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00626>
- Yang, J., Zeng, X., & Wang, X. (2023). Associations among parental phubbing, self-esteem, and adolescents' proactive and reactive aggression: A three-year longitudinal study in China. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-023-01850-2>
- Yang, K. (1986). *Chinese personality and its change. The psychology of the Chinese people*. (pp. 106-170). Oxford University Press.

- Ybrandt, H., & Armelius, K. (2010). Peer aggression and mental health problems: Self-esteem as a mediator. *School Psychology International*, 31(2), 146-163. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034309352267>
- Zayas, L. H., & Solari, F. (1994). Early-childhood socialization in Hispanic families: Context, culture, and practice implications. *Professional Psychology-Research and Practice*, 25(3), 200-206. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7028.25.3.200>
- Zhou, Q., Eisenberg, N., Wang, Y., & Reiser, M. (2004). Chinese children's effortful control and dispositional anger. *Developmental Psychology*, 40(3), 352-366. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.40.3.352>

Capítulo V

Resumen general

Introducción

La socialización de los hijos, una responsabilidad asignada por la sociedad a los padres implica asegurar el cuidado y protección de los niños desde su nacimiento hasta la madurez (edad adulta). Este proceso, conocido como socialización parental, involucra la transmisión de costumbres y valores culturales de los adultos a los jóvenes, para que estos se integren adecuadamente en su propia cultura (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Sandoval-Obando et al., 2022; Villarejo et al., 2020). En general, se considera que un joven se ha convertido en un adulto competente si evita comportamientos inapropiados, establece vínculos cercanos, logra independencia económica y educa con éxito a sus hijos, siendo estos logros el resultado de la educación, el entrenamiento y la imitación (García, Fuentes, et al., 2020; Maccoby, 1992). La investigación en socialización parental se enfoca principalmente en dos áreas: la identificación y descripción de las prácticas parentales hacia sus hijos y el análisis de cómo estos diferentes estilos de socialización afectan el desarrollo infantil (García & Gracia, 2009; Steinberg et al., 1991).

Por varias décadas, la investigación en socialización parental se ha basado en un modelo teórico que incluye dos dimensiones independientes (es decir, afecto y severidad) y cuatro tipos de estilos parentales (es decir, autoritario, autorizativo, indulgente y negligente) (Lamborn et al., 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). El afecto se refiere al grado en que los padres muestran implicación o calidez, y el nivel de involucramiento con sus hijos (Gimenez-Serrano et al., 2022; Martínez, García, et al., 2019). Otras etiquetas que comparten el

significado de afecto incluyen receptividad (Baumrind, 1983), amor (Schaefer, 1959), aceptación (Symonds, 1939), o aceptación/implicación (Steinberg et al., 1994). La severidad se refiere al grado en que los padres usan reglas estrictas y límites, tienden a aplicar correcciones físicas y/o verbales, así como prácticas exigentes (Dakers & Guse, 2020; Martínez et al., 2017). Otras etiquetas que comparten el significado de severidad incluyen exigencia (Baumrind, 1991b), dominación (Symonds, 1939), inflexibilidad (Sears et al., 1957), supervisión (Steinberg et al., 1994), o control firme (Steinberg et al., 1989). Cuatro estilos parentales se definen analizando la combinación de afecto y severidad: autoritario (caracterizado por severidad sin afecto), autorizativo (caracterizado por severidad y afecto), indulgente (caracterizado por afecto sin severidad) y negligente (caracterizado por la falta de severidad y afecto).

Actualmente hay un debate sobre cuál es el estilo de socialización óptimo, es decir, aquel que se relaciona con los mejores resultados evolutivos en diferentes criterios de ajuste de los hijos (por ejemplo, autoestima, autoconcepto y rendimiento académico). Tradicionalmente, principalmente a partir de estudios realizados en Estados Unidos con familias estadounidenses de clase media europea, se ha identificado que la combinación de severidad y afecto es el mejor estilo de socialización parental (Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1991). El estilo autorizativo ha sido definido como el método de socialización capaz de generar los resultados óptimos (Baumrind, 1991a; Steinberg et al., 1994; Steinberg et al., 1992).

Sin embargo, estudios realizados en diversos países, grupos étnicos, estratos socioeconómicos y entornos culturales no han confirmado de manera consistente los efectos positivos en el desarrollo infantil asociados al estilo autorizativo. Investigaciones en Estados Unidos con comunidades étnicas minoritarias, como la afroamericana (Baumrind, 1972; Deater-Deckard et al., 1996) y la latinoamericana (Pinquart & Kauser, 2018; Zayas & Solari, 1994), han mostrado ciertas ventajas de la socialización parental más estricta sin afecto (socialización familiar autoritaria) para favorecer el éxito evolutivo y adaptación de los hijos. Lo mismo se ha observado también en países asiáticos y sociedades árabes (Dwairy et al., 2006). Además, la investigación generalmente examina la socialización parental durante la infancia y especialmente en la adolescencia, un

período de mayor vulnerabilidad. Sin embargo, se conoce menos acerca de la relación entre la socialización y el ajuste más allá de la adolescencia una vez que la socialización parental ha terminado.

Los progenitores chinos tradicionales se ven influenciados por la doctrina confuciana. En esta cultura, la indulgencia por parte de los padres se ve como un descuido en la educación de los hijos, ya que se considera esencial una supervisión constante y exigente para que los niños adquieran comportamientos adecuados y alcancen el éxito tanto en lo social como en lo académico (Ho, 1986; Stevenson et al., 1990). Además, por lo general, se desaconseja la expresión de emociones intensas en público (Chen et al., 2001). Los padres chinos, particularmente los hombres, suelen abstenerse de mostrar abiertamente cariño y amor a sus hijos (como decir "te amo") (Wu et al., 2002). No obstante, con la influencia de la política del hijo único y los valores familiares occidentales, los padres chinos más jóvenes han adoptado actitudes de socialización más flexibles, relajadas y hasta permisivas en comparación con sus predecesores (Shek, 2006). En la sociedad moderna, las metodologías educativas están evolucionando de un enfoque riguroso tradicional hacia uno más pacífico y respetuoso con la individualidad. Los padres están reconociendo cada vez más la importancia de la comunicación positiva, alentadora y empática para el desarrollo emocional y mental de sus hijos, en lugar de recurrir a métodos severos o castigos físicos. Este cambio se manifiesta en las prácticas de socialización de los padres de la nueva generación, quienes tienden a expresar su amor de manera directa a sus hijos y les proporcionan mayor libertad para tomar decisiones propias, promoviendo el pensamiento independiente y el desarrollo de la personalidad del niño. Con estas nuevas perspectivas educativas, la relación entre padres e hijos se ha vuelto más equitativa y abierta. Los padres comienzan a ver a sus hijos como individuos autónomos, respetando sus opiniones y decisiones y animándolos a expresar sus ideas y emociones. Por tanto, la cuestión clave en la literatura más actual es si en la China contemporánea, que ha experimentado importantes transformaciones económicas, políticas y sociales, sigue siendo el estilo autoritario de socialización el mejor enfoque para la educación de los hijos.

El autoconcepto, como dimensiones de uno mismo, se consideran fundamentales tanto en facetas personales como en interacciones

sociales de cada individuo, incluyendo sus éxitos y desafíos, su autorrealización, estado de salud mental y la totalidad de sus relaciones sociales. Tener una percepción positiva de uno mismo es crucial para la vida personal, profesional y social de una persona (Roa García, 2013). El Cuestionario AF5 de Autoconcepto con Cinco Factores se destaca entre las herramientas más empleadas para evaluar el autoconcepto en poblaciones de habla hispana. Este instrumento está diseñado para medir cinco áreas del autoconcepto, a saber, académica, social, emocional, familiar y física. Estudios anteriores han confirmado la solidez estructural del Cuestionario AF5. Análisis factoriales confirmatorios realizados en muestras de diversas regiones y países, incluyendo España (Murgui et al., 2012; Tomás & Oliver, 2004), regiones específicas de España como el País Vasco (Elosua & Muñiz, 2010) y Cataluña (Cerrato et al., 2011), así como en Perú (Bustos et al., 2015), Chile (García et al., 2011), Estados Unidos (García et al., 2013) y Portugal (García et al., 2006), han respaldado ampliamente la validez del cuestionario AF5. Sin embargo, estos estudios se han realizado principalmente en naciones occidentales. Surge así la pregunta sobre si la estructura multidimensional del AF5 es invariante en muestras de España y China.

Objetivos generales

Los objetivos generales de la presente tesis son (i) analizar la invarianza de transcultural de la versión china del cuestionario de autoconcepto el AF5 Autoconcepto Forma-5, originalmente desarrollado en España, (ii) estudiar cuál es el estilo parental óptimo para la socialización de los hijos (es decir, autorizativo, indulgente, autoritario o negligente) en dos contextos culturales tan diferentes como Europa (España) y Asia (China), y (iii) comprobar si el estilo parental óptimo es el mismo o diferente en la cultura europea y en la asiática, utilizando para la comparativa el mismo modelo teórico.

Es importante tener en cuenta que, aunque la socialización parental es un fenómeno universal que se produce en cualquier sociedad, el estudio de esta se ha centrado principalmente en países y culturas occidentales, probablemente porque el origen del modelo teórico sea principalmente occidental (Estados Unidos). Aunque la socialización parental tiene consecuencias muy importantes (positivas, pero también

negativas a veces) sobre el desarrollo psicosocial de los hijos. A su vez, la socialización parental puede estudiarse en cualquier contexto cultural, si bien el tipo de padres (por ejemplo, autorizativo o autoritario) lo es con relación al contexto cultural en el cual se está analizando la socialización, siendo definida cada tipología parental por el mayor o menor grado de uso de afecto y severidad por parte de las familias. Las peculiaridades culturales de la sociedad china han planteado dudas sobre la generalización del modelo, sugiriendo especialmente que los rasgos colectivistas y jerárquicos podrían hacer que la socialización autoritaria no produjera los efectos negativos encontrados en los contextos de clase media de las familias occidentales, principalmente Estados Unidos y Europa. La limitada evidencia empírica ha examinado patrones de prácticas parentales dividiéndolas en autoritarias (severidad sin afecto) y autorizativas (severidad con afecto), pero sin considerar las dos principales dimensiones (afecto y severidad) y los cuatro estilos parentales (autoritario, autorizativo, indulgente y negligente), a pesar de que el modelo teórico bidimensional es ampliamente utilizado en la literatura, si bien principalmente en investigaciones con familias occidentales. Asimismo, los resultados de la limitada evidencia empírica con familias asiáticas parecen no aportar una evidencia clara sobre cuál es la socialización parental óptima; la evidencia parece ser mixta y no concluyente.

Objetivos específicos

A partir de los objetivos generales, se plantean los siguientes objetivos específicos.

Objetivo específico 1

- A. Comprobar la multidimensionalidad de las versiones española y china del AF5 mediante análisis factoriales confirmatorios.
- B. Comprobar que las versiones española y china del AF5 son invariantes.

En el **Estudio 1** se plantea los objetivos específicos arriba mencionados.

Chen, F., Garcia, O. F., Fuentes, M. C., Garcia-Ros, R., & Garcia, F. (2020). Self-Concept in China: Validation of the

Chinese version of the Five-Factor Self-Concept AF5 Questionnaire. *Symmetry*, 12(798), 1-13. doi:10.3390/sym12050798 (Impact factor 2020 = **2.713**; 33/72; **Q2**, Multidisciplinary Sciences; Times cited in WOS January 2024: **47**).

El Estudio 1 analiza la invarianza por sexo, edad y cultura de la estructura teórica factorial de una medida de autoconcepto, el Autoconcepto Forma-5 [AF5], cuestionario desarrollado en español ampliamente utilizado para medir autoconcepto (García et al., 2018). El autoconcepto es uno de los objetivos claves de la socialización y, por tanto, un criterio ampliamente utilizado para evaluar la socialización parental óptima. Los padres deben conseguir que sus hijos tengan un buen funcionamiento en la sociedad, objetivo para el cual deben confiar en sí mismos y en sus habilidades (por ejemplo, como estudiantes. Sin embargo, la invarianza de las medidas debe ser garantizada especialmente en la investigación transcultural. Se comprueba el ajuste del modelo teórico a los datos vía análisis factoriales confirmatorios (CFA) poniendo a prueba tres modelos teóricos: el multidimensional oblicuo (con cinco dimensiones relacionadas) vs. el multidimensional ortogonal y el modelo unidimensional. Después, se comprueba que la estructura factorial con mejor ajuste a los datos sea invariante por cultura (sin diferencias en el significado de los ítems en español y mandarín).

Objetivo específico 2

- A.** Examinar la relación entre los estilos parentales (es decir, indulgente, autorizativo, autoritario y negligente) con indicadores de ajuste para identificar la socialización parental positiva y negativa para el ajuste psicosocial de los hijos.
- B.** Comprobar si los correlatos de los estilos parentales con los indicadores de ajuste psicosocial son iguales o diferentes durante el proceso de socialización (con hijos adolescentes) y posteriormente (más allá de la adolescencia, en hijos adultos jóvenes, de mediana edad y mayores).

En el **Estudio 2** se plantea los objetivos específicos arriba mencionados.

Clement-Galarza, S., Alcaide, M., García, O. F., **Chen, F.**, & García,

F. (2022). Raising Spanish children with an antisocial tendency: Do we know what the optimal parenting style is? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. doi:10.1177/0886260518818426 (Impact factor 2018 = 3.064; 5/46; Q1, Family Studies; Times cited in WOS September 2019: 9).

El Estudio 2 plantea el estudio de la socialización parental en Europa (familias españolas) para identificar, siguiendo el modelo teórico bidimensional de cuatro estilos parentales (autoritario, autorizativo, indulgente y negligente) la socialización parental óptima, tanto en hijos adolescentes (durante el proceso de socialización) como en hijos adultos (concluido el proceso de socialización). Los estudios clásicos principalmente realizados con familias europeo-americanas identifican ampliamente que solo la combinación de severidad y afecto (estilo autorizativo) se relaciona con los mejores resultados evolutivos de los hijos (Baumrind, 1978; Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Sin embargo, estudios más recientes parecen sugerir que el uso de afecto sin severidad (estilo indulgente) podría ser igual o incluso más positivo que con severidad (estilo autorizativo) para conseguir una socialización óptima (Calafat et al., 2014; Martinez et al., 2020). Asimismo, muchos de los estudios sobre socialización parental se han centrado en hijos adolescentes, probablemente porque es un momento crítico en el camino hacia la edad adulta en el que las diferencias entre los adolescentes con mejor y peor ajuste se vuelven más marcadas (e.g. Lamborn et al., 1991). Sin embargo, los correlatos de la socialización familiar han sido menos estudiados más allá de la adolescencia, una vez finalizada la socialización parental. El ajuste psicosocial de los hijos fue examinado a través de la autoestima, el autoconcepto académico/profesional, la prioridad por los valores de benevolencia y la delincuencia durante la adolescencia.

Objetivo específico 3

- A. Examinar la relación entre los estilos parentales (es decir, indulgente, autorizativo, autoritario y negligente), la autoestima y el autoconcepto en adolescentes y jóvenes adultos de China.
- B. Examinar si los correlatos de los estilos parentales cambian o son relativamente iguales en hijos adolescentes (que están bajo

el cuidado y protección de sus padres como parte del proceso socializador) y jóvenes adultos (su socialización ha terminado). En el **Estudio 3** se plantea los objetivos específicos arriba mencionados.

Chen, F., Garcia, O. F., Alcaide, M., Garcia-Ros, R., & Garcia, F. (2024). Do we know enough about negative parenting? Recent evidence on parenting styles and child maladjustment. *European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context*. doi:10.5093/ejpalc2023a4 (Impact factor 2022 = **9.5**; 9/147; **Q1**, Psychology, Multidisciplinary).

El Estudio 3 analiza en la sociedad China la socialización parental óptima también siguiendo el modelo teórico bidimensional de cuatro estilos parentales (autoritario, autorizativo, indulgente y negligente). Se han identificado diferencias en ajuste psicosocial entre los hijos de familias autorizativas, autoritarias, indulgentes y negligentes, pero principalmente en estudios realizados en países occidentales (Garcia & Gracia, 2009; Lamborn et al., 1991). Menos se sabe acerca de lo que sucede en Asia con el estilo parental óptimo. A diferencia de los Estados Unidos y Europa, las características culturales propias de China podrían hacer que el estilo autoritario no tuviera consecuencias perjudiciales e incluso fuera beneficioso, principalmente en el área escolar (Ho, 1986). Sin embargo, no existe evidencia clara sobre si el estilo parental autoritario es efectivo en la socialización parental de las familias chinas. Asimismo, el modelo teórico bidimensional, de uso generalizado en investigaciones en países occidentales, no ha sido prácticamente utilizado en investigaciones con familias chinas; la mayoría se limitaban a comparar prácticas autoritarias y autorizativas. Con el objetivo de identificar la socialización parental óptima en China, el ajuste psicosocial de los hijos chinos fue examinado a través de la autoestima y el autoconcepto (académico, social, emocional, familiar y físico).

Principales resultados

Estudio 1

Los resultados del Estudio 1, en relación con el objetivo específico A, confirmaron la multidimensionalidad de las versiones española y china del AF5 mediante análisis factoriales confirmatorios. Los hallazgos mostraron que la estructura teórica propuesta para el cuestionario AF5 español original, donde el autoconcepto es una construcción multidimensional (es decir, académica, social, emocional, familiar y física) con cinco factores correlacionados, fue confirmada en la muestra china. Específicamente, al comparar la adecuación de los modelos teóricos alternativos con los datos, el modelo de cinco factores correlacionados tuvo un mejor ajuste que el modelo de un solo factor y el modelo de cinco factores ortogonales.

En cuanto al objetivo específico B, los hallazgos corroboraron la invarianza de la medición entre las versiones china y española del Cuestionario AF5. La versión china del AF5 tiene buenas propiedades invariantes en diferentes criterios de índice de múltiples muestras, como las cargas factoriales, y las varianzas y covarianzas de factores; cumplió parcialmente con los criterios respecto a la varianza de error de los ítems. Por lo tanto, la versión china del Cuestionario AF5 tiene el mismo patrón teórico multidimensional que la versión original en español, y puede usarse como una medida fiable y válida del autoconcepto.

Estudio 2

En relación con el objetivo específico A, examinar la relación entre los estilos parentales (es decir, indulgente, autorizativo, autoritario y negligente) con indicadores de ajuste para identificar la socialización parental positiva y negativa para el ajuste psicosocial de los hijos, se identificaron estilos positivos para el ajuste psicosocial de los hijos, pero también otros estilos asociados a consecuencias negativas. Los resultados del presente estudio en un país europeo (España) revelaron que los hijos de familias indulgentes (afecto sin severidad) y autorizativas (afecto con severidad), tanto adolescentes como adultos, son aquellos que mostraron un mayor ajuste psicológico basado en un autoconcepto académico/profesional más alto, mayor

autoestima, mayores valores de benevolencia y, a su vez, una menor tasa de delincuencia durante la adolescencia. La menor expresión de comportamiento delictivo apunta al papel protector de estos dos estilos parentales contra la desviación de las normas sociales. En el lado opuesto, los estilos negligentes (ni afecto ni severidad) y autoritarios (severidad, pero sin afecto) se asociaron con la mayor delincuencia durante la adolescencia y el menor ajuste en términos de autoconcepto académico-profesional, autoestima y valores de benevolencia.

Los hallazgos del Estudio 2, en relación con el objetivo específico B, sobre comprobar si los correlatos de los estilos parentales con los indicadores de ajuste psicosocial son iguales o diferentes durante el proceso de socialización (con hijos adolescentes) y posteriormente (más allá de la adolescencia, en hijos adultos jóvenes, de mediana edad y mayores), ofrecen resultados interesantes. Parecen que las consecuencias (positivas o negativas) de la socialización parental son comunes a hijos adolescentes y adultos. El estudio proporciona evidencia empírica sobre la relación entre los estilos de socialización y el ajuste psicológico más allá de la adolescencia, extendiendo la importancia de la socialización cuando este proceso ha sido completado (García, Fuentes, et al., 2020; Giménez-Serrano et al., 2022; Villarejo et al., 2020). Los adolescentes, pero también los hijos adultos, socializados por familias basadas en el apego se benefician de tener tanto tasas más bajas de delincuencia adolescente como un buen ajuste. Específicamente, según el análisis multivariante, no se encontraron efectos de interacción de los estilos de socialización por sexo ni por edad para los criterios de ajuste (autoestima, autoconcepto, delincuencia durante la adolescencia y valores de benevolencia), lo que sugiere que el afecto parental sin severidad (es decir, el estilo indulgente) está relacionada con los mismos beneficios en el ajuste para hijos e hijas, así como en la adolescencia (durante la socialización parental) y más allá (en la edad adulta y la vejez).

Estudio 3

Los resultados del Estudio 3, en relación con el objetivo A, el presente estudio examinó estilos óptimos de socialización tanto en adolescentes como en hijos adultos jóvenes de la República Popular de China. La socialización se examinó utilizando el marco teórico

clásico basado en dos dimensiones (afecto y severidad) y cuatro estilos parentales (autoritario, autorizativo, indulgente y negligente), mientras que los resultados de la socialización se examinaron usando la autoestima y el autoconcepto basados en cinco dimensiones. Los resultados mostraron un patrón relativamente común en la asociación de estilos de socialización con la autoestima y el autoconcepto en China, aunque con algunas diferencias en la adolescencia y la adultez joven. En general, los estilos de socialización caracterizados por el afecto fueron más beneficiosos para los adolescentes y adultos jóvenes para desarrollar una buena confianza tanto en sí mismos (autoestima) como en sus habilidades en diferentes áreas requeridas para un buen ajuste personal y social (autoconcepto). Los datos del presente estudio contradicen seriamente una idea ampliamente respaldada para explicar algunos beneficios asociados con la socialización autoritaria.

En relación con el objetivo B, de acuerdo con los resultados las diferencias relacionadas con la socialización revelaron un perfil de edad relativamente común pero no igual entre adolescentes y adultos jóvenes en autoestima y autoconcepto académico, emocional y familiar. Curiosamente, el autoconcepto académico más alto se relacionó con el estilo autorizativo, pero solo en la adolescencia. Los adultos jóvenes socializados por padres autorizativos mostraron los mismos niveles de autoconcepto académico que sus compañeros de padres indulgentes. Además, las diferencias observadas entre las puntuaciones más altas y bajas en autoestima, autoconcepto académico, social y emocional tendían a ser mayores en la adolescencia en comparación con la adultez joven. Sin embargo, los adolescentes y adultos jóvenes que crecieron en hogares indulgentes y autorizativos puntuaron de manera positiva que sus compañeros con padres autoritarios y negligentes. Finalmente, al examinar los estilos de socialización familiar, la autoestima y el autoconcepto, los adolescentes de familias autoritarias tuvieron las puntuaciones más bajas, mientras que los adultos jóvenes socializados por padres autoritarios y negligentes obtuvieron puntuaciones similares y más negativas, excepto en autoestima (las puntuaciones más bajas correspondieron a la socialización negligente).

Discusión

En general, los hallazgos de la presente tesis doctoral, elaborada a partir del compendio de tres artículos científicos, muestran que tanto los hijos adolescentes como los adultos españoles socializados en familias indulgentes (afecto sin severidad) presentan resultados iguales o incluso mejores en varios indicadores de competencia y ajuste en comparación con sus pares en familias autoritativas. Por otro lado, entre los hallazgos más importantes, cabe destacar que, en China, los estilos de socialización parental caracterizados por el afecto (autorizativo e indulgente) fueron más beneficiosos para los adolescentes y adultos jóvenes para desarrollar una buena confianza tanto en sí mismos (autoestima) como en sus habilidades en diferentes áreas requeridas para un buen ajuste personal y social (autoconcepto). El estilo autoritario estuvo relacionado con resultados muy negativos, también en el autoconcepto académico.

La socialización requiere del estudio de los patrones parentales y su relación con el ajuste. Aunque el modelo teórico de referencia, el llamado modelo bidimensional de cuatro estilos se utiliza en todo el mundo para identificar la socialización parental óptima, es muy importante para la comparación de los resultados el uso de medidas invariantes. Entre las medidas de ajuste psicosocial de los hijos, cabe destacar la de autoconcepto, ampliamente utilizada, pero con algunos problemas de invarianza. En el caso de la medida empleada de autoconcepto, el cuestionario AF5, las implicaciones del Estudio 1 son cruciales, ya que representan una contribución significativa a la literatura sobre el autoconcepto. El Cuestionario de Autoconcepto AF5, desarrollado originalmente en España, es una de las herramientas más populares para medir el autoconcepto en lengua española, utilizada ampliamente por psicólogos e investigadores. Estudios anteriores han demostrado la invarianza de la estructura pentadimensional del AF5 en países como Portugal (García et al., 2006), Chile (García et al., 2011), Brasil (García et al., 2018) y Estados Unidos (García et al., 2013). De forma coherente, los hallazgos actuales amplían la evidencia empírica sobre la estructura invariante del AF5 a la cultura china. Además, la investigación transcultural pone en duda hasta qué punto se pueden extrapolar los resultados sobre el autoconcepto en sociedades occidentales, como los

países anglosajones y europeos, a sociedades orientales, como China (Spencer-Rodgers et al., 2009). Por tanto, surge la cuestión crucial sobre si la estructura del autoconcepto (es decir, global o multidimensional) es la misma o varía según el contexto cultural. Los principales hallazgos de este estudio sugieren que, a pesar de ciertas variaciones interculturales en el autoconcepto entre individuos de sociedades occidentales y no occidentales, tanto los europeos (españoles) como los orientales (chinos) se perciben a sí mismos mediante una estructura de autoconcepto relacionada y multidimensional.

Por otra parte, el estudio de la socialización parental en Europa, así como en América Latina, parece sugerir que el estilo autorizativo podría no ser siempre el estilo parental óptimo. El Estudio 2 continua la investigación de la socialización parental en Europa aportando hallazgos cruciales. En concreto, explora la relación entre los estilos de socialización en distintos grupos de edad y su impacto en el ajuste psicosocial. La mayoría de los estudios previos se han enfocado en cómo la socialización afecta al ajuste del hijo durante el proceso de socialización parental (Garcia, Serra, et al., 2020; Martinez et al., 2020), o han basado sus conclusiones en el estudio de prácticas de socialización (Garcia, Fuentes, et al., 2020; Martínez et al., 2021), en lugar de en los estilos de socialización. No obstante, este estudio evalúa la conexión entre los estilos parentales en los que fueron socializados los hijos y su ajuste psicosocial durante la adolescencia y más allá en un país europeo, específicamente en España. Los hallazgos revelan que los estilos de socialización caracterizados por el afecto (es decir, los estilos indulgente y autorizativo) están relacionados con un mejor ajuste psicológico, en contraste con los estilos negligente y autoritario, que se asocian con los peores resultados. En particular, los hijos socializados en familias indulgentes mostraron un ajuste psicosocial similar o superior al de aquellos socializados en hogares autorizativos. Estos resultados difieren de otros estudios realizados en diversas culturas, los cuales indican que los estilos de socialización autorizativo (Baumrind, 1991b; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1994) o autoritario (Chao, 2001; Dwairy et al., 2006) están vinculados a las mejores puntuaciones en el ajuste infantil. Sin embargo, los hallazgos actuales coinciden con las evidencias más recientes sobre socialización familiar en países

latinoamericanos o del sur de Europa, que subrayan la importancia del afecto sin severidad (es decir, el estilo parental indulgente) para alcanzar el mejor ajuste psicosocial en los hijos (Calafat et al., 2014; Garcia et al., 2019; Martinez et al., 2020).

Asimismo, cabe destacar que los hallazgos del Estudio 3 en el que se estudia la socialización parental en una cultura asiática tradicional (China) parecen señalar patrones similares, pero no idénticos sobre cuál la socialización familiar más positiva. Como sugieren los hallazgos del Estudio 3, se observó un patrón relativamente común en la asociación de estilos parentales con la autoestima y el autoconcepto en China, aunque con algunas diferencias en la adolescencia y la adultez joven. En general, los estilos parentales caracterizados por el afecto fueron más beneficiosos para que los adolescentes y los adultos jóvenes desarrollen una buena confianza tanto en sí mismos (autoestima) como en sus habilidades en diferentes áreas requeridas para un buen ajuste personal y social (autoconcepto). La socialización parental autorizativa y la indulgente se asociaron con mejores puntuaciones en autoestima en comparación con la socialización en las formas autoritaria y negligente. Al igual que la autoestima, los estilos parentales basados en el afecto (es decir, autorizativo e indulgente) estuvieron relacionados con un autoconcepto más alto que la socialización familiar sin afecto (es decir, autoritaria y negligente). El autoconcepto académico más alto correspondió a la socialización autorizativa, el más bajo a la socialización sin afecto (autoritaria y negligente), y el estilo indulgente ocupó una posición intermedia. En el autoconcepto social y emocional, la socialización familiar autorizativa e indulgente también se relacionó con mejores puntuaciones que la socialización autoritaria y negligente. En el autoconcepto familiar, los estilos autorizativo e indulgente se relacionaron con puntuaciones altas, mientras que la educación familiar autoritaria y negligente se asoció con puntuaciones bajas (las puntuaciones más bajas corresponden al estilo autoritario). Finalmente, en términos de autoconcepto físico, los individuos socializados por padres autorizativos e indulgentes informaron puntuaciones más altas que sus pares de padres autoritarios y negligentes.

Los datos de la presente tesis doctoral por compendio de publicaciones contradicen seriamente una idea ampliamente

respaldada para explicar algunos beneficios asociados con la socialización autoritaria en la sociedad china: que los hijos socializados en hogares autoritarios desarrollan una buena percepción de sí mismos en relación con su familia (Chao, 1994; Ho, 1986). Al contrario, la presente tesis doctoral parece sugerir que el estilo autoritario se asocia a serias consecuencias negativas sobre el desarrollo psicosocial de los hijos. En la sociedad china el afecto parece ser el componente necesario para la socialización óptima (beneficios de los estilos parentales autorizativo e indulgente). Estos resultados son parecidos a los que se encuentran en Europa, si bien entre los estilos de afecto, aquel sin severidad (el indulgente) parece ser igual o incluso más efectivo que el caracterizado por severidad (el autorizativo). Son necesarios más estudios con medidas invariantes que utilizando el mismo modelo teórico (bidimensional con cuatro estilos parentales) examinen en diferentes partes del mundo cuál es la forma óptima de socialización parental.

Referencias

- Baumrind, D. (1972). An exploratory study of socialization effects on black children: Some black-white comparisons. *Child development*, 261-267. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1127891>
- Baumrind, D. (1978). Parental disciplinary patterns and social competence in children. *Youth & Society*, 9(3), 239-267. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118x7800900302>
- Baumrind, D. (1983). Rejoinder to Lewis's reinterpretation of parental firm control effects: Are authoritative families really harmonious? <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.94.1.132>
- Baumrind, D. (1991a). Effective parenting during the early adolescent transition. In *Family transitions* (pp. 111-163). Routledge.
- Baumrind, D. (1991b). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *The journal of early adolescence*, 11(1), 56-95. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0272431691111004>
- Bustos, V., Oliver, A., & Galiana, L. (2015). Validation of the self-concept form 5 in Peruvian undergraduates: a tool for positive psychology. *Psicologia, Reflexão e Crítica*, 28(4), 690.
- Calafat, A., García, F., Juan, M., Becoña, E., & Fernández-Hermida, J. R. (2014). Which parenting style is more protective against

- adolescent substance use? Evidence within the European context. *Drug and alcohol dependence*, 138, 185-192.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2014.02.705>
- Cerrato, S. M., Sílvia Bataller, S. B., Casas, F., Pérez, M. E. G., & Carrasco, M. G. (2011). Psychometric analysis of the AF5 multidimensional scale of self-concept in a sample of adolescents and adults in Catalonia. *Psicothema*, 23(4), 871-878.
- Chao, R. K. (1994). Beyond parental control and authoritarian parenting style: Understanding Chinese parenting through the cultural notion of training. *Child development*, 65(4), 1111-1119. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1131308>
- Chao, R. K. (2001). Extending research on the consequences of parenting style for Chinese Americans and European Americans. *Child development*, 72(6), 1832-1843.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00381>
- Chen, X., Wu, H., Chen, H., Wang, L., & Cen, G. (2001). Parenting practices and aggressive behavior in Chinese children. *Parenting: Science and practice*, 1(3), 159-184.
- Dakers, J., & Guse, T. (2020). Can dimensions of parenting style contribute to self-compassion among South African adolescents? *Journal of Family Studies*, 28(4), 1566-1579.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13229400.2020.1852951>
- Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113(3), 487-496.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.113.3.487>
- Deater-Deckard, K., Dodge, K. A., Bates, J. E., & Pettit, G. S. (1996). Physical discipline among African American and European American mothers: Links to children's externalizing behaviors. *Developmental Psychology*, 32(6), 1065.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.32.6.1065>
- Dwairy, M., Achoui, M., Abouserie, R., Farah, A., Sakhleh, A. A., Fayad, M., & Khan, H. K. (2006). Parenting styles in Arab societies: A first cross-regional research study. *Journal of cross-cultural psychology*, 37(3), 230-247.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022106286922>
- Elosua, P., & Muñiz, J. (2010). Exploring the factorial structure of the self-concept. *European Psychologist*.
- Garcia, F., & Gracia, E. (2009). Is always authoritative the optimum

- parenting style? Evidence from Spanish families. *Adolescence*, 44(173), 101-131. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19435170>
- García, F., Gracia, E., & Zeleznova, A. (2013). Validation of the English version of the five-factor self-concept questionnaire. *Psicothema*, 549-555.
- García, F., Martínez, I., Balluerka, N., Cruise, E., García, O. F., & Serra, E. (2018). Validation of the Five-Factor Self-Concept Questionnaire AF5 in Brazil: testing factor structure and measurement invariance across language (Brazilian and Spanish), gender, and age. *Frontiers in psychology*, 9, 2250.
- García, F., Serra, E., García, O. F., Martínez, I., & Cruise, E. (2019). A third emerging stage for the current digital society? Optimal parenting styles in Spain, the United States, Germany, and Brazil. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 16(13), 2333. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16132333>
- García, J. F., Musitu, G., Riquelme, E., & Riquelme, P. (2011). A confirmatory factor analysis of the “Autoconcepto Forma 5” questionnaire in young adults from Spain and Chile. *The Spanish journal of psychology*, 14(2), 648-658.
- García, J. F., Musitu, G., & Veiga, F. (2006). Self-concept in adults from Spain and Portugal. *Psicothema*, 18(3), 551-556.
- García, O. F., Fuentes, M. C., Gracia, E., Serra, E., & García, F. (2020). Parenting warmth and strictness across three generations: Parenting styles and psychosocial adjustment. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 17(20), 7487. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17207487>
- García, O. F., Serra, E., Zacaes, J. J., Calafat, A., & García, F. (2020). Alcohol use and abuse and motivations for drinking and non-drinking among Spanish adolescents: do we know enough when we know parenting style? *Psychology & health*, 35, 645-664. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08870446.2019.1675660>
- Gimenez-Serrano, S., Alcaide, M., Reyes, M., Zacaes, J. J., & Celdrán, M. (2022). Beyond parenting socialization years: The relationship between parenting dimensions and grandparenting functioning. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 19(8), 4528. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19084528>
- Ho, D. Y. (1986). Chinese patterns of socialization: A critical review.

- <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1987-97682-001>
- Lamborn, S. D., Mounts, N. S., Steinberg, L., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child development*, 62(5), 1049-1065. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1991.tb01588.x>
- Maccoby, E. E. (1992). The role of parents in the socialization of children: An historical overview. *Developmental Psychology*, 28, 1006-1017. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.28.6.1006>
- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. *Handbook of child psychology*, 4, 1-101. <https://agris.fao.org/agris-search/search.do?recordID=US201301452933>
- Martínez, I., Cruise, E., García, Ó. F., & Murgui, S. (2017). English validation of the parental socialization scale—ESPA29. *Frontiers in psychology*, 8, 865. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00865>
- Martínez, I., Garcia, F., Fuentes, M. C., Veiga, F., Garcia, O. F., Rodrigues, Y., Cruise, E., & Serra, E. (2019). Researching parental socialization styles across three cultural contexts: Scale ESPA29 bi-dimensional validity in Spain, Portugal, and Brazil. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 16(2), 197. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16020197>
- Martinez, I., Garcia, F., Veiga, F., Garcia, O. F., Rodrigues, Y., & Serra, E. (2020). Parenting styles, internalization of values and self-esteem: A cross-cultural study in Spain, Portugal and Brazil. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 17(7), 2370. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17072370>
- Martínez, I., Murgui, S., García, O. F., & García, F. (2021). Parenting and adolescent adjustment: The mediational role of family self-esteem. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 30, 1184-1197.
- Murgui, S., Garcia, C., Garcia, A., & Garcia, F. (2012). Self-concept in young dancers and non-practitioners: Confirmatory factor analysis of the AF5 scale. *Revista de Psicología del Deporte*, 21(2), 263-269.
- Pinquart, M., & Kauser, R. (2018). Do the associations of parenting styles with behavior problems and academic achievement vary

- by culture? Results from a meta-analysis. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 24(1), 75.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000149>
- Roa García, A. (2013). La educación emocional, el autoconcepto, la autoestima y su importancia en la infancia. *Edetania*(44), 241-257.
- Sandoval-Obando, E., Alcaide, M., Salazar-Muñoz, M., Peña-Troncoso, S., Hernández-Mosqueira, C., & Gimenez-Serrano, S. (2022). Raising children in risk neighborhoods from Chile: Examining the relationship between parenting stress and parental adjustment. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health*, 19, 45.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19010045>
- Schaefer, E. S. (1959). A circumplex model for maternal behavior. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 59(2), 226.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/h0041114>
- Sears, R. R., Maccoby, E. E., & Levin, H. (1957). Patterns of child rearing. 22(5), 604. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2089503>
- Shek, D. T. (2006). Chinese family research: Puzzles, progress, paradigms, and policy implications. In (Vol. 27, pp. 275-284): Sage Publications Sage CA: Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Spencer-Rodgers, J., Boucher, H. C., Mori, S. C., Wang, L., & Peng, K. (2009). The dialectical self-concept: Contradiction, change, and holism in East Asian cultures. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 35(1), 29-44.
- Steinberg, L., Elmen, J. D., & Mounts, N. S. (1989). Authoritative parenting, psychosocial maturity, and academic success among adolescents. *Child development*, 60(6), 1424-1436.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/1130932>
- Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S. D., Darling, N., Mounts, N. S., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1994). Over time changes in adjustment and competence among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child development*, 65(3), 754-770. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1994.tb00781.x>
- Steinberg, L., Mounts, N. S., Lamborn, S. D., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment across varied ecological niches. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 1, 19-36.
<http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED324558.pdf>

- Stevenson, H. W., Lee, S.-Y., Chen, C., Stigler, J. W., Hsu, C.-C., Kitamura, S., & Hatano, G. (1990). Contexts of achievement: A study of American, Chinese, and Japanese children. *Monographs of the society for research in child development*, i-119. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1166090>
- Symonds, P. M. (1939). The psychology of parent-child relationships. *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 91(6), 818. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00005053-194006000-00079>
- Tomás, J., & Oliver, A. (2004). Confirmatory factor analysis of a Spanish multidimensional scale of self-concept. *Interamerican Journal of Psychology*, 38(2), 285.
- Villarejo, S., Martinez-Escudero, J., & Garcia, O. (2020). Parenting styles and their contribution to children personal and social adjustment. *Ansiedad Estres*, 26, 1-8.
- Wu, P., Robinson, C. C., Yang, C., Hart, C. H., Olsen, S. F., Porter, C. L., Jin, S., Wo, J., & Wu, X. (2002). Similarities and differences in mothers' parenting of preschoolers in China and the United States. *International journal of behavioral development*, 26(6), 481-491. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01650250143000436>
- Zayas, L. H., & Solari, F. (1994). Early childhood socialization in Hispanic families: Context, culture, and practice implications. *Professional psychology: Research and practice*, 25(3), 200. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7028.25.3.200>

