Perceived Parenting Styles and Parental Inconsistency Scale: Construct Validity in Young Adults

Guadalupe de la Iglesia
National Council of Scientific and Technical Research (CONICET)
Buenos Aires, Argentina.
University of Buenos Aires (UBA)
Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Juliana Beatriz Stover
National Council of Scientific and Technical Research (CONICET)
Buenos Aires, Argentina.
University of Buenos Aires (UBA)
Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Agustín Freiberg Hoffmann
University of Buenos Aires (UBA)
Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Mercedes Fernández Liporace
National Council of Scientific and Technical Research (CONICET)
Buenos Aires, Argentina.
University of Buenos Aires (UBA)
Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Abstract

The study examines evidences of construct validity of the Perceived Parental Styles and Parental Inconsistency scale –EPIPP–, on a sample of 369 young adults. Individuals were asked about their father and their mother by means of 24 items. These conform six subscales that constitute a first-order-model–Affection, Dialogue, Indifference, Verbal Coercion, Physical Coercion and Prohibition– that additionally group into two major scales –a second-order model–:Responsiveness and Demandingness.A confirmatory factor analysis was carried out on the first-order and second-order factor structures, using maximum likelihood and a bootstrap procedure with 500 random samples. Resulting indexes showed an excellent fit in both models for the Father and Mother versions. Furthermore, adequate results were obtained in a cross-validation and a factorial invariance analysis. This way, solid evidences of construct validity were obtained for the EPIPP, suggesting it for the assessment of perceived parenting in young adults.

Keywords: Parenting– Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Cross-validation – Young adults – Factorial Invariance

1. Assessing Parenting

Parenting assessment shows a great variety of approaches. A first decision takes into account the fact that parenting is a transaction that involves at least two parties: a parent and a child. With this in mind, researchers must decide whether they ask the parents about their parenting practices (Capaldi & Patterson, 1989; Furman & Giberson, 1995; Gerard, 1994; Lovejoy,Weis, O'Hare & Rubin, 1999; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen & Hart, 1995), whether asking the children about how they perceive their parents (Ausubel, Baltasar, Rosenthal, Blackman, Schpoont & Welkowitz, 1954; Sánchez Gutiérrez, 2009; Schaefer, 1965; Serot & Teevan, 1961), or the consideration of both sources at once, pursuing a conjoint description of parenting (Bell, 1968; Boykin & Allen, 2001; Lovejoy et al., 1999; Maccoby, 2007). Although this last option is thought to be the most accurate, it implies several difficulties in data recollection, especially when adult population is being examined–such as inaccessibility to one of the parties–.

From a cognitive perspective (Ausubel et al., 1954; Sánchez Gutiérrez, 2009; Schaefer, 1965; Serot & Teevan, 1961), the second option –asking the children about how their parents raised them–appears as a valid way to assess parenting. This viewpoint emphasizes that their perceptions are more relevant than the parents' actual behaviors, since they are hypothesized to have a bigger impact in the offspring's well being.

1.1. Dimensions Versus Categories

A second decision concerns how parenting is conceived from a theoretical perspective.Two main approaches have been proposed: *dimensional* and *categorical*. The first one includes the assessment of two main parenting dimensions: responsiveness and demandingness. Responsiveness refers to the degree in which parents express affection, warmth and dialogue with their children (Ainsworth, Bell & Stayton, 1971; Baumrind, 1991a, 1994, 1996a; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Rohner, 2004). Demandingness, on the other hand, is related to the regulation of the offspring's behavior by means of verbal or physical coercion, limitssetting, prohibitions, rules and discipline. On certain occasions a third dimension is analyzed: parental inconsistency. It refers to changes in parenting for each parent along time –intraparental inconsistency–, differences in parenting between parents –interparental inconsistency– and incongruence between parenting and the culture where the family is inserted –extraparental inconsistency–. Not so widely studied, the concept is often examined regarding its hypothesized association with mental health (e. g. Benson, Buehler & Gerard, 2008; Casullo & Fernández Liporace, 2008; Dwairy, 2007; Dwairy & Achoui, 2006; Dwairy, Achoui, Abouserie & Farah, 2006; Dwairy,Achoui, Filus, Rezvannia, Casullo & Vohra, 2010; Lee, Daniels & Kissinger, 2006; Lengua, 2006; Sturge-Apple, Davies & Cummings, 2006; Tildesley & Andrews, 2008).

The second perspective, the categorical, derives from the joint analysis of the two major dimensions mentioned before –responsiveness and demandingness–. By combining them, different parenting styles can be assessed. De la Iglesia, Ongarato and Fernández Liporace (2011a) proposed a five-style typology based on Maccoby and Martin's (1983) widely used one. It consists of five parenting styles: negligent, authoritarian, permissive, authoritative and overprotective –see Figure 1–. The negligent style emerges when neither demandingness nor responsiveness are found. The authoritarian style combines a high level of demandingness and low responsiveness. In opposition, permissive parents are very responsive but not demanding. Overprotective parents, on the other hand, are both highly responsive and demanding. And, finally, authoritative parents as described by Baumrind (1966) have balanced levels of responsiveness and demandingness.

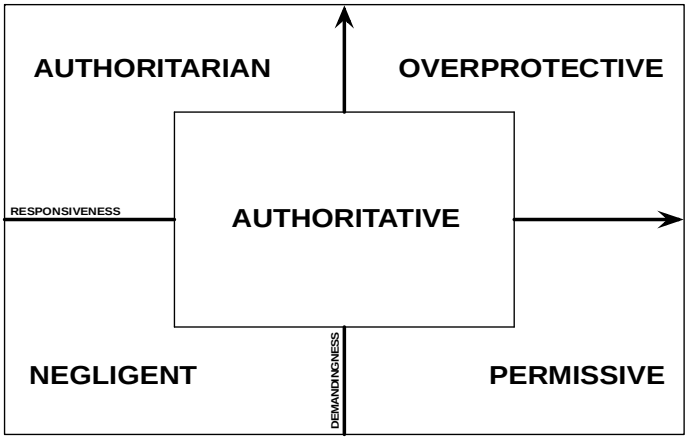

Figure 1:Five-Style Typology (de la Iglesia et al., 2011a)

Considering that both methodologies –dimensional and categorical– are relevant for the assessment of parenting, a psychometric instrument developed to provide the opportunity to choose either or both in a single time data recollection seemed an attractive proposal. The *Perceived Parental Styles and Parental Inconsistency Scale* (de la Iglesia et al., 2011b) meets that demand.

1.2. The Perceived Parental Styles and Parental Inconsistency Scale (EPIPP)

The scale consists of 24 items, which are answered, in a four-point likert scale regarding mother and father. These items are grouped in six subscales–first-order factors–: *Affection*, *Dialogue*, *Indifference*, *Verbal coercion*, *Physical coercion* and *Prohibition*. They are based on another parenting instrument by Musitu and García (2001). The combination of the first three conform one underlying dimension that corresponds to parental *Responsiveness*, and the sum of the remaining three subscales assesses *Demandingness*. This way, the scale provides an analysis of perceived parenting in a dimensional perspective. A categorical analysis is also possible by the identification of the style that characterizes each parent. This can be carried out by considering jointly the scores on each dimensions and determining if they are low, medium or high –by the use of local norms or the calculation of the 25^{th}, 50^{th} and 75^{th} percentiles–.

Finally, an additional part of the scale that asks the respondent about parental behavior through time, and the comparison of the style obtained for the father and for the mother, allows for the optional analysis of intraparental and interparental inconsistency.

The EPIPP already has some psychometric studies, which include evidences of construct validity, internal consistency, and temporal stability of its scores. Though it is presented as a fine instrument for the assessment of this concept, additional research to provide even more information concerning its psychometric properties is required.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

A non-probabilistic sample was constituted by 369 young adults who attended different colleges in Buenos Aires City (82.8% female and 17.2% male). Their ages ranged between 19 and 35 years old (M = 23.54;SD = 2.74). Most of them (97%) attended to a public institution, while the remaining3% attended to different private colleges. In regard of career in course, 59.9% were students of Psychology, 25.2% Nutrition, 6.2% Electronic Engineering, 5.4% Public Translation, and 3.3% attended other careers.

2.2. Materials and Procedure

Data were gathered in collective sessions that took place in free time students had during their courses. Participants signed an informed consent, which guaranteed the confidential treatment of the information, their possibility to desist in answering, and stated the chance of an individual feedback on the results to those who were interested in it–if this was the case, an e-mail address was required–.First, participants were asked to complete a short survey where basic socio-demographic data were inquired (their sex, age, career and college). Then, they answered to the EPIPP (de la Iglesia et al., 2011b), regarding both their parents something that would later constitute both versions of the instrument: *Father* and *Mother*. Previous psychometric studies included first and second-order principal component analyses. As for fiability, internal consistency analysis using Cronbach's alphas ranged from .549 to .753 and ordinal alphas (Elosúa & Zumbo, 2008) from .723 to .846. Also atest-retest procedure resulted in statistical significant correlation for all subscales except for Indifference.

3. Results

In order to study the six-factor structure of the EPPIP in its Father and Mother versions, a first-order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out using maximum likelihood estimation. Several fit indexes were examined. Indexes of absolute and incremental fit were included: *GFI* (Goodness-of-Fit Index), *AGFI* (Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index), *SRMS* (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual), *CFI* (Comparative Fit Index) and *RMSEA* (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation). A *bootstrap* procedure with the generation of 500 random samples complemented the calculation of the parameters for a more precise estimation with 95% confidence intervals.

Indexes obtained for the first-order CFA showed an excellent fit for both versions: Father (*GFI* = .923; *AGFI* = .903; *SRMR* = .049; *CFI* = .931; *RMSEA* = .038) and Mother (*GFI* = .922; *AGFI* = .902; *SRMR* = .049; *CFI* = .911; *RMSEA* = .040). All factorial weights and covariances were statistically significant –Table 1–. As seen in Figure 2, factorial weights in both versions were higher than the minimum expected (Kline, 1998) –the lower weight was .42–. Also, covariances between factors exhibited evidences of discriminant validity in most of them (*cov*< .50), except for the one between affection and dialogue (Father: *cov*= .67; Mother: *cov*= .55), and for that between verbal coercion and prohibition (Father: *cov*= .56; Mother: *cov* = .59), which presented higher associations than expected.

Table1: First-Order CFA: Parameters Obtained By Boostrap (Mean Values and Confidence Intervals of 95%)

Version:			Father				Mother			
Factor		Item	Standarized Parameters			p-value	Standarized Parameters			p-value
			Mean	Inferior	Superior		Mean	Inferior	Superior	
Affection	→	Item 1	.562	.447	.661	.004	.546	.434	.655	.004
Affection	→	Item 7	.528	.428	.623	.004	.505	.363	.627	.004
Affection	→	Item 13	.615	.504	.699	.004	.611	.497	.703	.004
Affection	→	Item 19	.700	.619	.760	.004	.633	.519	.719	.004
Affection	→	Item 24	.653	.562	.736	.004	.602	.491	.693	.004
Dialogue	→	Item 2	.546	.435	.653	.004	.516	.404	.613	.004
Dialogue	→	Item 8	.539	.437	.635	.004	.596	.470	.705	.004
Dialogue	→	Item 14	.612	.501	.706	.004	.553	.436	.661	.004
Dialogue	→	Item 20	.719	.618	.805	.004	.657	.555	.758	.004
Indifference	→	Item 3	.543	.426	.644	.004	.455	.323	.597	.004
Indifference	→	Item 9	.574	.434	.682	.004	.556	.400	.714	.004
Indifference	→	Item 15	.561	.427	.664	.004	.442	.288	.594	.004
Indifference	→	Item 21	.643	.504	.755	.004	.512	.373	.651	.004
Verbal Coercion	→	Item 4	.512	.364	.649	.004	.473	.346	.585	.004
Verbal Coercion	→	Item 10	.615	.467	.758	.004	.675	.545	.778	.004
Verbal Coercion	→	Item 16	.415	.250	.573	.004	.690	.576	.777	.004
Verbal Coercion	→	Item 22	.462	.311	.599	.004	.512	.364	.626	.004
Physical Coercion	→	Item 5	.720	.612	.826	.004	.714	.576	.860	.004
Physical Coercion	→	Item 11	.771	.651	.873	.004	.636	.488	.759	.004
Physical Coercion	→	Item 17	.732	.614	.836	.004	.644	.471	.778	.004
Prohibition	→	Item 6	.448	.308	.572	.004	.525	.423	.636	.004
Prohibition	→	Item 12	.555	.442	.654	.004	.608	.496	.712	.004
Prohibition	→	Item 18	.727	.595	.842	.004	.526	.380	.647	.004
Prohibition	→	Item 23	.548	.430	.663	.004	.637	.532	.745	.004

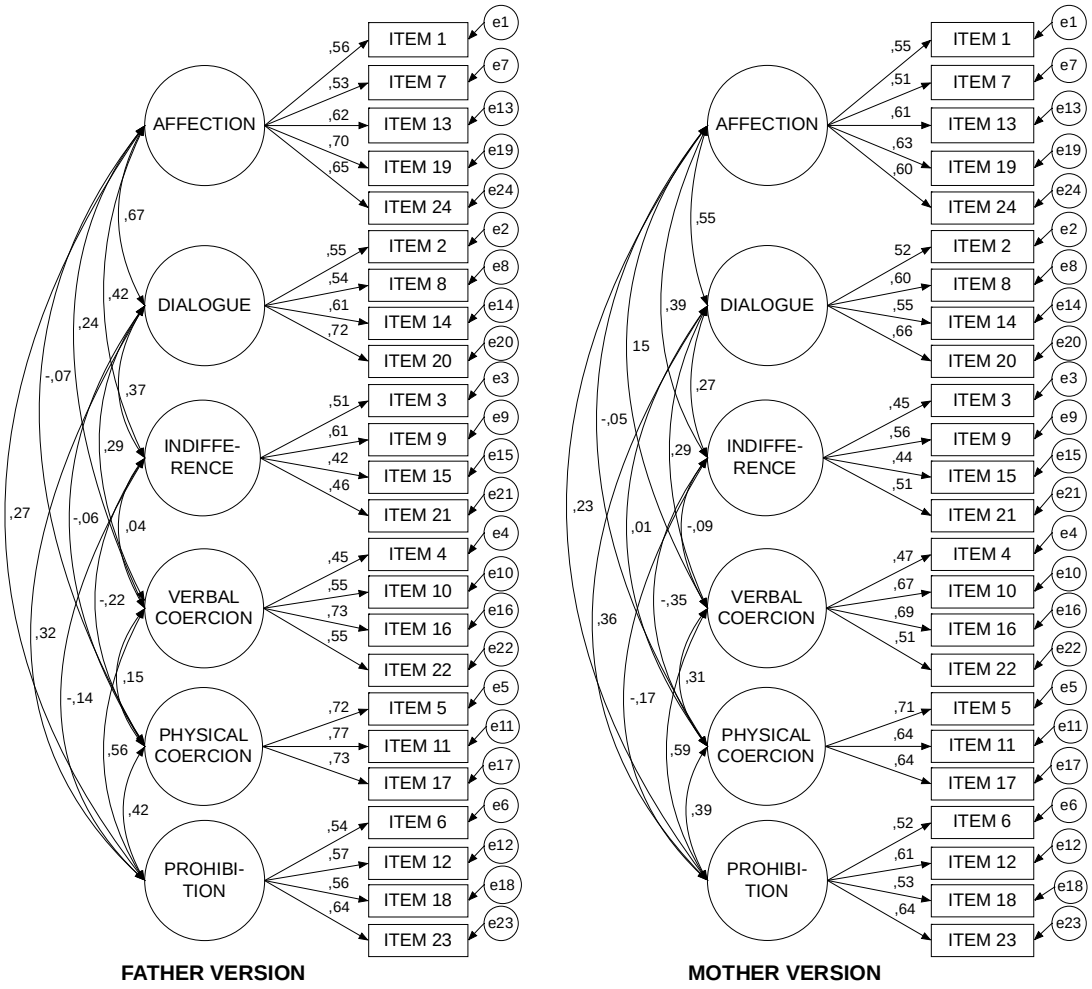

Figure 2*:* First-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the FATHER and MOTHER Versions

Then, a *cross-validation* study and a *factorial invariance* analysis were carried out using two random subsamples generated from the main sample. Fit indexes calculated in the cross-validation analysis were acceptable considering that the original sample was reduced by half –Table 2–. Factorial invariance analysis, on the other hand, was also appropriate –Table 2–. For its calculation, nested models with progressive restrictions were used: first restriction established equal factor loadings; then, equal covariances between factors; and lastly, equal error variances. In both Father and Mother versions non-significant$\Delta\chi^2$ were achieved for all nested models.

Table 2: Cross-Validation: Indexes Obtained for two Random Sample Halve

VERSION: FATHER					
	GFI	**AGFI**	**SRMR**	**CFI**	**RMSEA (IC 90%)**
Half 1	.872	.838	.065	.903	.043 (.028 - .056)
Half 2	.878	.845	.063	.915	.044 (.031 - .055)
VERSION: MOTHER					
	GFI	**AGFI**	**SRMR**	**CFI**	**RMSEA (IC 90%)**
Half 1	.884	.854	.064	.922	.036 (.020 - .050)
Half 2	.869	.834	.067	.879	.048 (.036 - .060)

Factorial invariance: Nested models with progressive regressions.

VERSION: FATHER					
	χ^2 (p-value)	**df**	**$\Delta\chi^2$ (p-valor)**	**CFI**	**RMSEA (IC 90%)**
No restrictions	631.766 (.000)	474		.910	.031 (.024 - .037)
Same factor loadings	645.734 (.000)	492	13.968 (*ns*)	.912	.030 (.023 - .036)
Same factor covariance	660.824 (.000)	513	29.058 (*ns*)	.916	.029 (.022 - .035)
Same error variance	706.737 (.000)	537	74.971 (*ns*)	.903	.030 (.024 - .036)
VERSION: MOTHER					
	χ^2 (p-value)	**df**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**CFI**	**RMSEA (IC 90%)**
No restrictions	627.143 (.000)	474		.899	.030 (.023 - .036)
Same factor loadings	651.357 (.000)	492	24.214 (ns)	.895	.030 (.024 - .036)
Same factor covariance	679.486 (.000)	513	52.343(ns)	.890	.030 (.024 - .036)
Same error variance	701.662 (.000)	537	74.519 (ns)	.892	.029 (.023 -.035)

Finally, in an attempt to confirm that the six first-order scales could be grouped into two underlying dimensions, a *second-order* CFA was calculated –also analyzing 500 random samples generated by *bootstrap*–. Fit indexes for the second-order CFA were also satisfactory for the Father (*GFI* = .916; *AGFI* = .897; *SRMR* = .062; *CFI* = .916; *RMSEA* = .041) and Mother (*GFI* = .913; *AGFI* = .893; *SRMR* = .064; *CFI* = .888; *RMSEA* = .044) versions. As seen in Figure 3, factor loadings and covariance values were suitable, except for the standardized regression weight from demandingness to prohibition, which was greaterthan 1. Regarding covariance, the one between *responsiveness* and *demandingness* reflected excellent evidence of discriminant validity (Father: *cov*= .26; Mother: *cov*= .34).

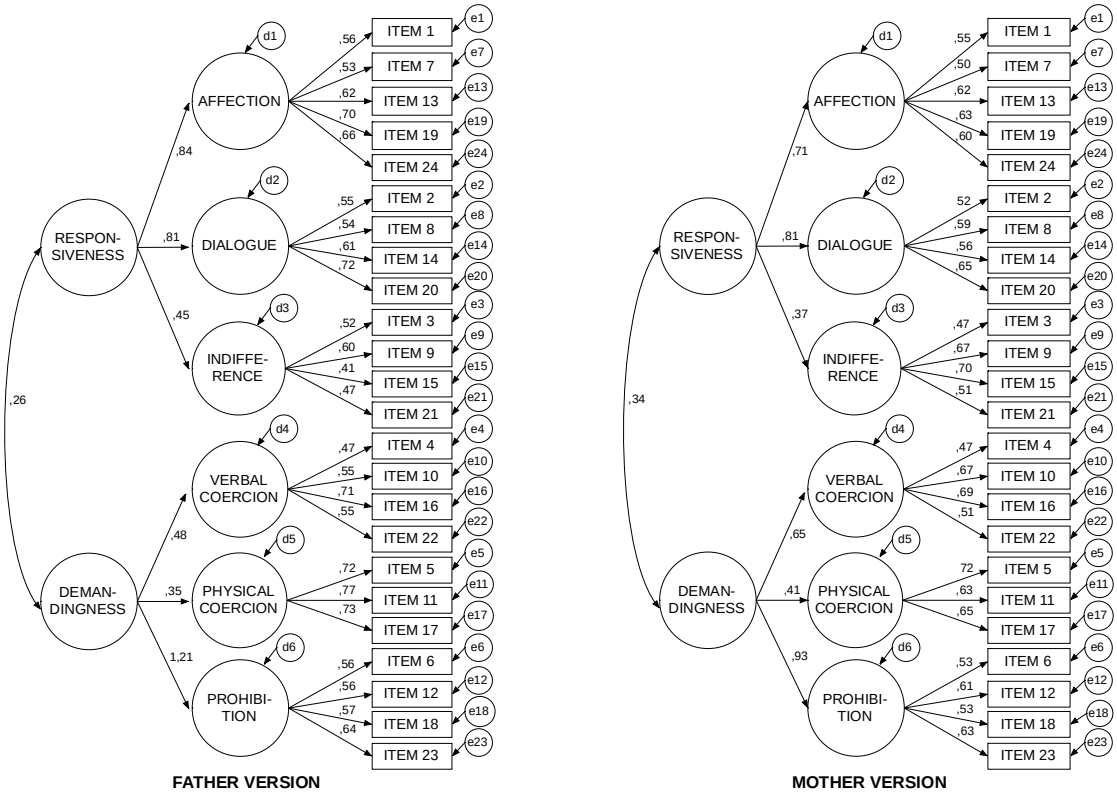

***Figure3.*Second-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the FATHER and MOTHER Versions**

4. Discussion

Obtaining new construct validity evidences for the EPIPP was a requirement for its proper use in young adults. Every psychometric analysis for the EPIPP was fairly satisfactory. Fit indexes for the first and second-order CFA were adequate with all estimates being statistically significant.

As for factor loadings, it must be mentioned the case of a value greater than 1 in the second-order CFA for the Father version. As suggested by Byrne (2010) the model was not re-specified considering its sound theoretical basis and its good performance in all other analyses–cross-validation, factorial invariance–.Feasibility assessment of all other regression weights was extremely satisfactory.

In reference to covariances, in the first-order CFA some of them were slightly higher than the limit usually set for discriminant validity. This was not a striking result as these factors were expected to jointly represent higher underlying dimensions –Responsiveness in the case of affection and dialogue, and Demandingness in the case of verbal coercion and prohibition–. With this in mind, seeking for discriminant covariance between the two major dimensions in the second-order analysis was an unavoidable requirement that was achieved.

Fit indexes were slightly lower than wanted in the case of the cross-validation study. This was expected due to the fact that sample size was reduced by half (Byrne, 2010).However, new studies with wider samples should be an appropriate next step. Factorial invariance testing was also satisfactory, a result that allows concluding that the model proposed for assessing parenting worked equivalently across two samples generated randomly.

In sum, results showed adequate psychometric quality of the EPIPP. Additional evidences of construct validity for both the Father and Mother versions were found. This way, it can be said with fair certainty that parenting can be assessed by two major dimensions –Responsiveness and Demandingness, as posed by many authors (e.g. Baumrind, 1996; Maccoby & Martin, 1983)–, and that in a more detailed analysis a six-factor structure seems suitable–replicating in part Musitu and García's (2001) proposal–.Thus, the EPIPP allows the user for a thorough evaluation of parenting from a cognitive perspective in a dimensional and categorical way.

In addition, the shortness of the instrument stands out as it assesses a multidimensional construct with few items asking about both mother and father simultaneously. Accessibility establishes another advantageous characteristic of the EPIPP as it may be used and evaluated in a fairly simple way.

Perceived parenting research in young adults is scarce despite the fact that it has been remarked that the way individuals were raised plays an important role in their well being throughout all of their life span (Anisman, Zaharia, Meaney & Merali, 1998; Aquilino & Supple, 2001; Kasser, Koestner & Lekes, 2002; Luecken, Appelhans, Karft& Brown, 2006; Maccoby, 1994; Rohner &Veneziano, 2001; Rothrauff, Cooney & An, 2009). Parenting assessment in young adults would benefit the identification of risk groups –as it has been demonstrated that certain parenting practices are related to mental illness and low academic achievement, for example (e.g. Dwairy, 2007; Khan, Haynes, Armstrong & Rhoner, 2010)– and for considering the possible intervention in parental training. It has been stated that parenting practices are transmitted intergenerationally (Dobrianskyj Weber, Selig, Galvão Bernardi & Viezzer Salvador, 2006; Lamm, Keller, Yovsi, Chaudhary, 2008; Martin, Halverson, Wampler & Hollett-Wright, 1991). Hence, perceived parenting doesnot only affect the person being socialized, but could also impact in their own offspring since it is likely that this young adults will embrace and replicate their parents practices. Intergenerational transmission of negative parenting practices could be obstructed by assessment and intervention.

Considering the limitations of this study, it must be pointed out the prevalence of females over males in the sample analyzed. Also, the fact that they were college students limits the generalization for the EPIPP to be used in other populations. This way, and despite its proven psychometric qualities, the scale should be tested in other samples that represent different populations. Moreover, up to this point the EPIPP does not have evidences of empirical validity, an important aspect that further studies should test.

5. References

Ainsworth, M. D. S., Bell, S. M.,& Stayton, D. J. (1971). Individual differences in strange situation behavior of one-year-olds. In H. R. Schaffer (Ed.), *The origins of human social relations* (pp. 17-58). London: Academic Press.

Ausubel, D. P., Balthazar, E. E., Rosenthal, I., Blackman, L. S., Schpoont, S. H.,&Welkowitz, J. (1954). Perceived parent attitudes as determinants of children's ego structure. *Child Development, 25(3), 173–183.*

Baumrind, D. (1966). Effects of authoritative parental control on child behavior.*Child Development, 37*, 887–907.

Baumrind, D. (1991a). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use.*The Journal of Early Adolescence, 11(1),* 56–95.

Baumrind, D. (1994). The social context of child maltreatment.*Family Relations, 43(4),* 360–368.

Baumrind, D. (1996). The discipline controversy revisited. *Family Relations: Journal of Applied Family & Child Studies, 45(4),* 405–414.

Bell, R. Q. (1968). A reinterpretation of the direction of effects in studies of socialization.*Psychological Review, 75*, 81–95.

Benson, M. J., Buehler, C.,& Gerard, J. M. (2008). Interparental hostility and early adolescent problem behavior: Spillover via maternal acceptance, harshness, inconsistency, and intrusiveness. *The Journal of Early Adolescence, 28(3),* 428–454.

Boykin, K. A.,& Allen, J. P. (2001). Autonomy and adolescent social functioning: Themoderating effect of risk. *Child Development, 72(1),* 220-235.

Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS. Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming.* New York: Routledge.

Capaldi, D. M.,& Patterson, G. (1989). *Psychometric properties of fourteen latent constructs from the Oregon Youth Study.*New York/Berlin: Springer–Verlag.

Casullo, M. M.,&FernándezLiporace, M. (2008). Percepción sobre estilos e inconsistencia parentales en adolescentes. *Estudos de Psicologia, 25(1),* 3–10.

de la Iglesia, G., Ongarato, P.,& Fernández Liporace, M. (2011a, November). *Evaluación de estilos parentales percibidos: Un breve recorrido histórico.* Trabajo presentado en el 3o Congreso Internacional de Investigación y Práctica Profesional en Psicología, XVIII Jornadas de Investigación and 7o Encuentro de Investigadores en Psicología del Mercosur, Buenos Aires University, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

de la Iglesia, G., Ongarato, P.,& Fernández Liporace, M. (2011b). Propiedades psicométricas de una escala de estilos parentales e inconsistencia parental percibida (EPIPP). *Evaluar, 10,* 32–52.

Dobrianskyj Weber, L. N., Selig, G. A., GalvãoBernardi, M.,&Viezzer Salvador, A. P. (2006). Continuidade dos estilosparentaisatravés das gerações.Transmissãointergeracional de estilosparentais.*Paidéia, 16*(35), 407-414.

Dwairy, M. (2007). Parental inconsistency versus parental authoritarianism:association with symptoms of psychological disorders. *Journal of Youth andAdolescence,* DOI 10.1007/s10964–007–9169–3.

Dwairy, M.,&Achoui, M. (2006). Introduction to three cross–regional research studieson parenting styles, individuation, and mental health in Arab societies. *Journal ofCross–Cultural Psychology, 37(3),* 221–229.

Dwairy, M., Achoui, M., Abouserie, R.,& Farah, A. (2006). Parenting styles,individuation, and mental health of Arab adolescents: A third cross-regional research study. *Forthcoming Issues Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 37(3),* 262–272.

Dwairy, M., Achoui, M., Filus, A., Rezvannia, P., Casullo, M. M.,&Vohra, N. (2010). Parenting, Mental Health and Culture: A Fifth Cross-Cultural Research on Parenting and Psychological Adjustment of Children. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 19*, 36-41.

Elosúa, P.,&Zumbo, B. D. (2008). Coeficientes de fiabilidadparaescalas de respuestacategóricaordenada.*Psicothema, 20*(4), 896-901.

Furman, W.,&Giberson, R. S. (1995). Identifying the links between parents and their children's sibling relationships. In S. Shulman (Ed.), *Close relationships and socioemotional development: Human development* (Vol. 7, pp. 95–108). Westport, CT: Ablex Publishing.

Gerard, A. (1994). *Parent-Child Relationship Inventory: Manual.* Los Angeles:Western Psychological Services.

Khan, S., Haynes, L., Armstrong, A.,&Rohner, R. P. (2010). Perceived Teacher Acceptance, Parental Acceptance, Academic Achievement, and School Conduct of Middle School Students in the Mississippi Delta Region of the United States. *Cross-Cultural Research, 44*, 283-294.

Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling.* New York: The Guilford Press.

Lamm, B., Keller, H., Yovsi, R. D.,&Chaudhary, N. (2008). Grandmaternal and Maternal Ethnotheories About Early Child Care. *Journal of Family Psychology, 22*(1), 80–88.

Lee, S. M., Daniels, M. H.,& Kissinger, D. B. (2006). Parental influences on adolescent adjustment: parenting styles versus parenting practices. *Family Journal: Counselling and Therapy for Couples and Families. 14(3),* 253–259.

Lengua, L. J. (2006). Growth in temperament and parenting as predictors of adjustment during children's transition to adolescence.*Developmental Psychology, 42(5),* 819–832.

Levy, D. M. (1931).Maternal overprotection and rejection.*Archives of Neurology and Psychiatry, 25*, 886–889.

Levy, D. M. (1938). Maternal overprotection. *Psychiatry: Journal for the Study of Interpersonal Processes, 1*, 561-591.

Levy, D. M. (1939). Maternal overprotection. *Psychiatry: Journal for the Study of Interpersonal Processes, 2*, 99-128.

Levy, D. M. (1966).*Maternal overprotection.* New York: Norton.

Lovejoy, M. C., Weis, R., O'Hare, E.,& Rubin, E. C. (1999).Development and initial validation of the parent behavior inventory.*Psychological Assessment, 11(4),* 534- 545.

Maccoby, E. E. (2007). Historical Overview of Socialization Research and Theory. In J. E. Grusec& P. D. Hastings (Eds.), Handbook of socialization: Theory and research (pp. 13-41). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Maccoby, E. E.,& Martin, J. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent– child interaction. En E. M. Hetherington & P. H. Mussen (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 4. Socialization, personality, and social development* (pp. 1–101). New York: Wiley.

Martin, P., Halverson, C. F., Wampler, K. S.,&Hollett-Wright, N. (1991).Intergenerational Differences in Parenting Styles and Goals.*International Journal of Behavioral Development, 14*(2), 195-207.

Musitu, G.,&García, F. (2001). *ESPA 29. Escala de estilos de socialización parental en la adolescencia.*Madrid: TEA.

Robinson, C. C., Mandleco, F., Olsen, F. S.,& Hart, C. H. (1995). Authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting practices: Development of a new measure. *Psychological Reports, 77*, 819–830.

Rohner, R. P. (2004). The parental "acceptance–rejection syndrome": Universal correlates of perceived rejection. *American Psychologist, 59*, 827–840.

Sánchez Gutierrez, G. (2009). Teorías de niñas y niños sobre el castigo parental. Aportes para la educación y la crianza. *Revista Electrónica ActualidadesInvestigativas en Educación, 9(2),* 1–29.

Schaefer, E. S. (1965). Children's reports of parental behavior: an inventory. *Child Development, 36*, 414–424.

Schaefer, E. S. (1997). *Integration of configurational and factorial models for family relationships and child behavior*. In R. Plutchik& H. R. Conte (Eds.), Circumplex models of personality and emotions (pp. 133–153). Washington: American Psychological Association.

Serot, N. M.,&Teevan R. C. (1961). Perception of the parent–child relationship and its relation to child adjustment.*Child Development, 32*, 373–378.

Sturge-Apple, M. L., Davies, P. T.,& Cummings, E. M. (2006). Hostility and Withdrawal in Marital Conflict: Effects on Parental Emotional Unavailability and Inconsistent Discipline. *Journal of Family Psychology, 20(2),* 227-238.

Tildesley, E. A.,& Andrews, J. A. (2008). The development of children's intentions to use alcohol: direct and indirect effects of parent alcohol use and parenting behaviors. *Psychology of AddictiveBehaviors, 22(3),* 326–339.