

VNIVERSITAT D VALÈNCIA

Facultat de Psicologia

Doctorada en Psicología de la Salud



**Perfil diferencial de menores con medidas judiciales y
menores adaptados socialmente: procesos cognitivos,
emocionales y entorno sociofamiliar.**

TESIS DOCTORAL

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A mi madre, mi referente

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CAPÍTULO I:

MARCO TEÓRICO DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

PRÓLOGO

La presente Tesis Doctoral está compuesta por 3 capítulos generales.

El primer capítulo ofrece una introducción teórica sobre el tema central de la Tesis Doctoral. Se presentan los resultados de la revisión bibliográfica realizada sobre las principales variables objeto de estudio. Los estudios empíricos publicados en el periodo entre 2010 y 2016 nos permiten conocer la investigación reciente sobre las variables psicológicas y sociales relacionadas con la delincuencia en la adolescencia. A partir del marco científico desarrollado en los últimos años se presentan los objetivos generales y específicos de este trabajo de investigación.

El segundo capítulo comprende los 6 estudios realizados en esta Tesis Doctoral. Estos trabajos están presentados siguiendo el formato de artículo de investigación, con su estructura y apartados correspondientes: resumen/abstract, introducción, método, resultados, discusión y referencias bibliográficas. Se trata de artículos publicados o aceptados para su publicación en revistas indexadas en JCR.

El tercer capítulo expone una discusión que integra los resultados de los 6 estudios que componen el capítulo 2 y los artículos más relevantes para la temática investigada, resultantes de la revisión bibliográfica incluida en el capítulo primero. Se trata de concluir las principales contribuciones para el conocimiento de la conducta adaptada y la conducta desadaptada en la adolescencia, con especial interés en la población delincuente. Se discuten las implicaciones en el ámbito de la prevención y la intervención, considerando tanto las variables emocionales como las familiares y sociales.

I. INTRODUCCIÓN

La adolescencia es una etapa clave del desarrollo para adquirir e incrementar procesos cognitivos y emocionales que contribuyen a la autonomía personal y al desarrollo de la identidad propia en las relaciones con los demás, especialmente con sus iguales.

Diferentes e importantes progresos relacionados con las habilidades socioemocionales, entre las que se incluyen la empatía, la disposición prosocial, la autorregulación de las emociones facilitan una mayor madurez social que introducirá a los adolescentes en la edad adulta.

La prevalencia de la agresividad y la delincuencia en la adolescencia es un tema preocupante en la sociedad en general. Analizar y conocer los factores determinantes es un objetivo central en la investigación orientada a la prevención e intervención. En las últimas décadas se han estudiado lo que se podrían denominar variables sociales de la agresión, entre las que destacan la familia y los iguales (Cutrán, Gómez-Fraguela, & Luengo, 2015; Wertz et al., 2016), junto con variables internas, entre las que ocupan un lugar central las emociones (Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur, & Armenta, 2010; Carlo et al., 2012; Llorca, Malonda, & Samper, 2016; Rodríguez, del Barrio, & Carrasco, 2009). Si bien los estilos de crianza son importantes en el desarrollo personal y en el proceso de socialización de niños y adolescentes, los factores sociales de la agresión explican en torno a un 30% de la varianza, lo que plantea la necesidad de estudiar los procesos psicológicos, cognitivos y emocionales, implicados en la conducta agresiva y violenta (Del Barrio & Roa, 2006).

Toda una serie de estudios han mostrado repetidamente que la conducta adolescente está fuertemente determinada por las emociones, así mismo las emociones juegan un importante rol en la adaptación y la regulación de las relaciones interpersonales (Del Barrio & Carrasco, 2014; Domes, Hollerbach, Vohs, Mokros & Habermeyer, 2013; Llorca et al., 2016); por ello es necesario conocer el entramado emocional de una persona joven para poder prever sus posibilidades de respuesta en una situación determinada y ofrecerle mecanismos para elegir la mas correcta o adaptativa.

Diferentes estudios constatan que una emocionalidad negativa junto con una incapacidad para regular las emociones predicen conductas antisociales y delictivas (Caprara, Gerbino, Paciello, Di Giunta, & Pastorelli, 2010; McMahon et al., 2013). La

inestabilidad emocional está asociada con altos niveles de agresión (Carlo et al., 2010; Mestre, Samper, Tur-Porcar, Richaud, & Mesurado, 2012), por lo general un alta capacidad de regulación emocional es adaptativa, mientras que la falta de mecanismos para regular y controlar las emociones es desadaptativa (Bariola, Hughes, & Gullone, 2012).

Los adolescentes que tienen un bajo autocontrol y son irritable e impulsivos son más propensos a exteriorizar problemas de conducta durante la infancia y la adolescencia y mas tarde en la edad adulta.

Así mismo, la investigación en este ámbito ha mostrado que la inestabilidad emocional es el mejor predictor de la conducta agresiva, por el contrario, la empatía y la conducta prosocial se consideran factores importantes para frenar o inhibir la conducta agresiva y delincuente de los adolescentes (Carlo et al., 2010; Mestre, Samper, & Frías, 2002; Van der Graaff, Branje, De Wied, & Meeus, 2012).

Para enmarcar nuestra investigación y conocer mejor las variables relacionadas con la conducta delictiva en la adolescencia se ha llevado a cabo una revisión de los artículos publicados en la última década sobre delincuencia y agresividad en esta etapa evolutiva. La revisión se ha realizado a partir de las bases de datos Scopus, PubMed y Psicinfo y se seleccionaron los artículos publicados sobre la temática objeto de estudio en las revistas científicas desde el año 2010.

Los artículos seleccionados contenían los siguientes términos en el título, en el abstract o en las palabras clave: “delincuencia”, “conducta antisocial”, “delincuentes”, “jóvenes infractores”, “conducta agresiva”, “estilos de crianza y delincuencia”. Se cercó la búsqueda en función de la población, dado que solo se tenían en cuenta los artículos con población adolescente (12-17 años).

Se encontraron un total de 67 artículos, de los cuales se han seleccionado 38 descritos en la tabla 1.

Se siguieron los siguientes criterios de inclusión y exclusión. El primer criterio de inclusión fue que los artículos seleccionados fueran estudios empíricos sobre la conducta prosocial, la conducta agresiva, o la conducta delictiva. Se descartaron todos aquellos artículos que no eran estudios empíricos, también se excluyeron los que eran revisiones bibliográficas, estudios teóricos y estudios de meta-análisis. Otro criterio de

inclusión fue la edad de la población, ya que se decidió centrarse en población adolescente, con edades comprendidas entre 12 y 17 años. También se aplicaron restricciones en lo referente al tipo de delito, no incluyendo aquellos estudios que se centraban en jóvenes infractores con un tipo de delito concreto como podía ser el de agresión sexual. Se procedió a su vez a excluir todos aquellos estudios cuyas variables no eran las estudiadas en la presente Tesis Doctoral (conducta prosocial y agresiva, delincuencia, empatía, estilos parentales y jóvenes delincuentes/ institucionalizados o en situación de riesgo).

La revisión bibliográfica realizada sobre delincuencia y agresividad en la adolescencia en la última década pone de relieve las variables psicológicas y sociales relacionadas con esta problemática. Los estudios empíricos seleccionados destacan una serie de variables psicológicas y comportamentales, así como variables sociales relacionadas con la conducta delictiva y agresiva (ver tabla 1). Entre las primeras destacan:

1. Las que constituyen factores de protección: procesos cognitivos (razonamiento moral, empatía en sus componentes cognitivos (toma de perspectiva o capacidad para ponerse en el lugar del otro) y afectivos (preocupación por el otro), conducta prosocial, mecanismos de afrontamiento productivos, eficaces ante situaciones que producen tensión o requieren la solución a un problema, la inteligencia emocional, la autorregulación emocional (especialmente el control de la ira), emociones positivas, entre las que destaca la empatía en su componente afectivo de preocupación por el otro.
2. Las que constituyen factores de riesgo de la delincuencia y la agresividad: temperamento, especialmente la impulsividad que se sitúa como el principal predictor de la conducta agresiva, mientras que no son tan consistentes los resultados relacionados con la búsqueda de sensaciones. Destacan otros factores de riesgo como la sintomatología depresiva, emociones negativas (entre las que destaca la ira), mecanismos de afrontamiento improductivos, estrategias ineficaces ante los problemas o conflictos, conducta agresiva, consumo de sustancias, problemas de conducta.

Entre las variables sociales destacan: las secuencias de maltrato y las relacionadas con el proceso de socialización: familia, escuela e iguales. Los estilos de crianza se consideran factores de riesgo si en la relación con los padres y madres predomina la

permisividad, la escasa implicación en la crianza o el control negativo (evaluación negativa de los hijos e hijas, castigos, normas y críticas excesivas), o por el contrario, predomina el afecto, la comunicación y las normas. En la relación con los iguales el apego seguro o por el contrario la relación con pares rebeldes o pandillas guardan relación con mas o menos conducta adaptada en el ámbito familiar y escolar.

Además, la investigación sobre esta temática analiza los procesos implicados desde la perspectiva del género y la edad, confirmándose una mayor incidencia de conductas antisociales en los varones respecto a las mujeres de su misma edad (ver tabla 1).

Tabla 1: Estudios sobre agresión y delincuencia en adolescentes

Artículo 1: Adolescentes en situación de riesgo psicosocial ¿Qué papel juega la inteligencia emocional?				
Autores	Año de Publicación	Instrumentos	Variables Estudiadas	Descripción de la muestra
Zavala, M. A., & López, I.	<i>Psicología Conductual</i> (2012)	Inventario de coeficiente emocional de Bar-On: "versión juvenil" (Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth version, Bar-On EQ-i: YV; Bar-On y Parker, 2004). Inventario clínico para adolescentes de Millon (Millon Adolescent Clinical Inventory, MACI; Millon, 2004).	Inteligencia emocional Conductas psicosociales de riesgo	829 adolescentes mexicanos de escuelas secundarias públicas situadas en zonas de bajos recursos económicos, con una edad de entre 13 y 15 años.
Principales Resultados: Se destaca la influencia del sexo como un factor que varía conjuntamente con el coeficiente emocional y sus componentes en la disposición de los adolescentes hacia las conductas de riesgo analizadas.				
Artículo 2: Problemas de conducta de una muestra de menores institucionalizados con antecedentes de maltrato				
Carrasco-Ortiz, M. Á., Rodríguez-Testal, J. F., & Hesse, B. M	<i>Child abuse & neglect</i> (2001)	Listado de problemas de conducta CBC de Achenbach (1978; 1979;Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983).	Secuencias del maltrato y su relación esperable con determinados problemas de conducta	N=90 formados por 3 grupos (edad de 11 a 18 años) N1= niños en acogida N2=ninos cercanos al régimen de acogida en zona marginal de Sevilla N3=ninos

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				provenientes de familias acomodadas
Principales Resultados: Los jóvenes que han experimentado maltrato y, además, se hallan institucionalizados, exhiben en mayor medida conductas externalizadas (conductas delictivas en sus dos formas), al tiempo que conductas de retraimiento.				
Artículo 3: Factores de personalidad y delitos violentos				
Ortiz-Tallo, M., Fierro, A., Blanca, M. J., Cardenal, V., & Sánchez, L. M.	<i>Psicothema</i> (2006)	Big Five Questionnaire (BFQ, Caprara, Barbaranelli & Borgogni 1993, versión española Bermúdez 1995) Escalas Eudemon de Bienestar Personal (EBP) y de Adaptación Social (EAS) (Rivas, Fierro, Jiménez & Berrocal, 1998) Inventario Clínico Multiaxial de Millon-II (MCMII, Millon, 1997)	Evaluación de la personalidad de las personas que han ingresado en prisión por algún tipo de delito violento	54 sujetos (51 varones y 3 mujeres), comparados con un grupo normativo
Principales Resultados: No es posible postular un perfil básico de personalidad de los delincuentes violentos atendiendo a los factores considerados como los «cinco grandes». Se darían dos patrones habituales de comportamiento y formas de afrontar la vida que denominaríamos «dependiente-compulsivo» y con «tendencias psicópatas» y que están relacionados con indicadores de salud mental.				
Artículo 4: Relaciones entre empatía, conducta prosocial, agresividad, autoeficacia y responsabilidad personal y social de los escolares				
Sanmartín, M. G., Carbonell, A. E., & Baños, C. P..	<i>Psicothema</i> (2011)	Index of Empathy for Children and Adolescents (Bryant, 1982) Prosocial Behaviour y la Physical and Verbal Aggression (PB Caprara y Pastorelli, 1993) The Multidimensional Scales of Perceived Self-Efficacy (MSPSE; Bandura, 2001) Contextual Self-Responsibility Questionnaire (CSRQ, de Watson, Newton y Kim, 2003)	VARIABLES PODRÍAN PREDICIR LA RESPONSABILIDAD PERSONAL Y SOCIAL	822 alumnos de 8 a 15 años
Principales Resultados: La conducta prosocial, Empatía y Percepción de eficacia predicen positivamente la Responsabilidad personal y social de los escolares, mientras que la Agresividad ha mostrado relaciones negativas con la Responsabilidad. No se observan diferencias significativas entre reclusos y adolescentes en búsqueda de sensaciones y ausencia de miedo, pero los adolescentes puntúan más alto en impulsividad.				
Artículo 5 : Adolescencia y comportamiento antisocial				
Ordóñez, F., Salas, A., & Colom, R. R.	<i>Psicothema</i> (2002)	Nueva escala diseñada expresamente para este estudio, la Escala de Dificultades de	El comportamiento Antisocial está compuesto	186 personas componían la muestra de reclusos. 154

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		Temperamento de Cantoblanco (EDTC)	por: dificultades de temperamento (ausencia de miedo, la búsqueda de sensaciones y la impulsividad) y el proceso de socialización	eran hombres y 32 mujeres. La edad media era de 32,57 (DT= 9,8 rango de edad= 17-67)
Principales Resultados: No se observan diferencias significativas entre reclusos y adolescentes en búsqueda de sensaciones y ausencia de miedo, pero los adolescentes puntúan más alto en impulsividad.				
Artículo 6 : Comportamiento perturbador en la adolescencia y su relación con el temperamento y los estilos de afrontamiento				
Poch, F. V., Carrasco, M. G., Moreno, Y. G., Ballabriga, M. D. C. J., & Aznar, F. C.	<i>Psicothema</i> (2012)	Youth's Inventory-4 (YI_4, Spanish versión, Gadow y Sprafkin, 1999) Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire (EATQ-R, Ellis y Rothbart, 2001). Escalas de Afrontamiento para Adolescentes (ACS, Fryden berg y Lewis, 1996).	Dos objetivos: a) conocer las diferencias en la sintomatología del trastorno Del comportamiento perturbador durante la adolescencia en función del género, la edad y la ubicación del centro escolar; y b) analizar las relaciones entre las variables temperamentales y de afrontamiento con las dimensiones psicopatológicas de conducta antisocial y negativista desafiante	1.240 adolescentes de edades comprendidas entre los 11 y 17 años
Principales Resultados: Se observa que los chicos realizan un mayor número de conductas antisociales que las chicas, no observándose diferencias según la ubicación del centro escolar. En el caso de la sintomatología negativista desafiante, se observan diferencias según el grupo de edad, siendo a la edad de 13 a 14 años cuando se presenta una mayor sintomatología. Los datos indican una correlación positiva de ambas dimensiones psicopatológicas con surgencia y afrontamiento no productivo y negativa con control voluntario y afrontamiento productivo.				
Artículo 7 : Una propuesta de evaluación de variables familiares en la prevención de la conducta problema en la adolescencia				
Torres, P. V., Fraguela, J.	<i>Psicothema</i>	Se presenta un cuestionario dirigido a evaluar las	Evaluar la validez del	1.818 Adolescentes

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A. G., & Triñanes, E. R.	(2003)	dimensiones de conflicto, comunicación y estilo educativo parental. Absentismo escolar con un ítem concreto y Conducta antisocial (Conducta Antisocial (evaluación de su frecuencia a través de una versión reducida del Cuestionario de Conducta Antisocial; Luengo, Carrillo, Otero y Romero, 1994)	cuestionario que se presenta	y sus familias de las provincias españolas de Cáceres, Valencia, Alicante, Málaga, Madrid, Zaragoza y Santander. La media de edad de esta muestra fue de 12,9 años, siendo el 53% varones y el 47% mujeres.
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Principales Resultados: El instrumento propuesto nos parece de gran utilidad a aquellos investigadores que en sus estudios decidan utilizar un único método evaluativo y varias fuentes de información como estrategia de evaluación de las relaciones familiares dentro de la prevención de la conducta desviada durante la adolescencia.

Artículo 8 : The Longitudinal Associations Between Discrimination, Depressive Symptoms, and Prosocial Behaviors in U.S. Latino/a Recent Immigrant Adolescents

Davis, A. N., Carlo, G., Schwartz, S. J., Unger, J. B., Zamboanga, B. L., Lorenzo-Blanco, E. I., ... & Martinez, M. M.	<i>J Youth Adolescence</i> (2016).	Measure assessing their perceptions of discrimination (Phinney et al. 1998). Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D; Radloff 1991). Prosocial Tendencies Measure-Revised (PTM-R; Carlo et al. 2003).	Medir de manera longitudinal con tres tiempos de medida la interacción entre discriminación, Conducta Prosocial y Síntomas depresivos.	302 adolescentes, 53.3 % chicos con una edad media de 14.51 años.
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Principales Resultados: Importancia de los comportamientos prosociales en la integración o la discriminación de los latinos o inmigrantes recientes en EEUU

Artículo 9 : Cognitive processing of moral and social judgements: A comparison of offenders, students, and control participants

Lahat, A., Gummerum, M., Mackay, L., & Hanoch, Y.	<i>The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology</i> (2015)	The moral-conventional judgements task (Lahat et al., 2012). The Colour and Colour-Word Stroop tasks (Stroop, 1935).	Diferencias de razonamiento moral entre delincuentes y no delincuentes	30 delincuentes (chicos con una edad media de 37,5), 30 estudiantes (chicos con una media de edad de 22,37) y 24 del grupo control (chicos caucásicos media de edad
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				de 33,46).
Principales Resultados: Los del equipo control y los estudiantes tuvieron un tiempo de reacción más rápido y un mayor número de juicios normativos.				
Funciones ejecutivas superiores controlan más los juicios morales de los estudiantes y el grupo control por lo que se concluye que los delincuentes pueden tener un razonamiento más orientado a la norma mientras que los grupo control y estudiantes tienen un razonamiento regido en mayor parte por funciones ejecutivas superiores				
Artículo 10 : The Role of Empathy in Anger Arousal in Violent Offenders and University Students				
Day, A., Mohr, P., Howells, K., Gerace, A., & Lim, L.	<i>International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology</i> (2011)	Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1980). State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory-2 (STAXI-2; Spielberger, 1999). The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, Form C (M-C Form C; Reynolds, 1982).	Este estudio analiza en qué medida el grado de empatía cognitiva (toma de perspectiva) y la parte más afectiva (Preocupación Empática y Malestar personal) predice el grado de ira en una muestra clínica (presos) y en una no clínica (estudiantes)	96 chicos de los cuales 51 estaban recluidos en una prisión de media seguridad con una edad media de 33,06 años. 45 eran estudiantes universitarios con una edad media de 24,42 años
Principales Resultados: La dimensión cognitiva de empatía (toma de perspectiva) fue el predictor más fuerte de la percepción subjetiva de ira				
Los resultados también muestran que no sale reforzada la idea de que los delincuentes tienen una menor capacidad en la adopción de perspectiva				
Artículo 11 : The protective role of prosocial behaviors on antisocial behaviors; The mediating effects of deviant peer affiliation				
Carlo, G., Mestre, M. V., McGinley, M. M., Tur-Porcar, A., Samper, P., & Opal, D.	<i>Journal of adolescence</i> (2014).	Prosocial Tendencies Measure Revised (PTM-R) (Carlo et al., 2003). Physical and verbal aggression scale (AFV Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; Del Barrio et al., 2001). Measure of Self-Reported Delinquency (Osgood, McMorris, & Potenza, 2002).	Relación entre distintos tipos de conducta prosocial la asociación con pares “desviados” y diversos comportamientos agresivos y actos delictivos.	666 adolescentes (46% niñas, edad=15,33, SD = .47) de Valencia, España

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<p>Principales Resultados: Los resultados muestran una relación negativa entre los comportamientos antisociales y formas específicas de conductas prosociales. Por otro lado, se observa que el altruismo no está relacionado de manera directa con conductas delictivas y agresión, pero si lo hace a través de la variable apego a pares “desviados”</p>				
<p>Artículo 12 : Effect of adolescent substance use and antisocial behavior on the development of early adulthood depression</p>				
Choi, T. K., Worley, M. J., Trim, R. S., Howard, D., Brown, S. A., Hopfer, C. J., ... & Wall, T. L.	<i>Psychiatry research</i> (2016)	Diagnostic Inter-view Schedule for Children (DISC Shaffer et al., 1993) Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D; Radloff 1991) Diagnostic Interview Substance Abuse Module (CIDI-SAM Crowley et al., 2001)	Depresión u so de sustancias conductas antisociales	524 con diagnóstico de desorden conductual y uso de sustancias Las edades fueron de 13-19 años
<p>Principales Resultados: La depresión se relaciona con el uso de sustancias y las conductas antisociales</p>				
<p>Artículo 13 : Direct and indirect links between peer factors and adolescent adjustment difficulties</p>				
Criss, M. M., Houlberg, B. J., Cui, L., Bosler, C. D., Morris, A. S., & Silk, J. S.	<i>Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology</i> (2016)	Instrumento adaptado del cuestionario Problem Behavior Frequency Scale (PBFS; Farrell, Danish, & Howard, 1992; Farrell, Kung, White, & Valois, 2000). Sadness and Anger Management Scales (Zeman, Shipman, & Penza-Clyve, 2001; Zeman, Shipman, & Suveg, 2002). Mood and Feelings Questionnaire (MFQ; Angold, Costello, Messer, & Pickles, 1995).	Sintomatología depresiva, conducta antisocial, autoregulación emocional en el apego a pares,	206 adolescentes de edades comprendidas entre 10 y 18 años y sus padres
<p>Principales Resultados: Los resultados muestran que la conducta antisocial de los pares está relacionado de manera directa (pero no indirecta) con la conducta antisocial y síntomas depresivos de los adolescentes.</p> <p>A su vez, la autoregulación emocional referente a la relación con los pares está afectada de manera indirecta con la conducta antisocial y de manera tanto directa como indirecta con la sintomatología depresiva.</p> <p>En general los resultados muestran una pequeña evidencia empírica del papel moderador que juega la edad, el sexo o las diferencias étnicas</p>				
<p>Artículo 14 : Covert antisocial behavior, peer deviancy training, parenting processes, and sex differences in the development of antisocial behavior during childhood</p>				
Snyder, J. J., Schrepfermann, L. P., Bullard, L., McEachern, A. D., & Patterson, G.	<i>Development and Psychopathology</i> (2012)	Eyberg Behavior Inventory ECBI (Eyberg & Pincus, 1999). Sociometric ratings for peer rejection picture sociometric technique (Asher, Singleton, Tinsley,	Frecuencia y consecuencias del apego a pares “desviados”, así como de los estilos de	Estudio 1: 124 niños de escuelas primarias de nivel socioeconómico bajo. Un

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R.	& Hymel, 1979). Child Self-Report of Antisocial Behavior (SRA Loeber, Farrington, Stouthamer-Loeber, & Van Kammen, 1998). Expanded Child–Peer Observation Code (EC-POC; Schrepferman, 2005). Antisocial Content Code (ACC; Oeser & Schrepferman, 2002). Family and Peer Process Code (FPPC; Stubbs, Crosby, Forgatch, & Capaldi, 1998). Specific Affect Coding System (SPAFF; Gottman, McCoy, Coan, & Collier, 1996). Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001)	crianza. Se trata de ver el impacto de dichas variables sobre la conducta (antisocial) del adolescente	50% de la muestra chicas y la media de edad al comenzar la escuela era de 6,5. Estudio 2: 133 chicas y 134 chicos cuya media de edad era de 5,3 en el primer pase y 9,3 en el último.
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Principales Resultados: El apego a pares “desviados”, el rechazo de los pares así como un patrón de crianza desadaptativo contribuyen al desarrollo de la conducta antisocial. Por otra parte una crianza competente mitigó esta contribución.

La relación de los estilos de crianza y el apego a pares con las conductas antisociales fueron similares en chicas y en chicos, pero se observaron niveles más altos de conductas antisociales en los chicos.

Artículo 15 : Longitudinal relations between parental media monitoring and adolescent aggression, prosocial behavior and externalizing problems

Padilla-Walker, L. M., Coyne, S. M., & Collier, K. M.	<i>Journal of adolescence</i> (2016)	Parental media monitoring (Nikken & Jansz, 2006). Adolescent sympathy (Davis, 1983). Prosocial behavior (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Adolescent self-regulation (Novak and Clayton's, 2001). Prosocial behavior (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Aggression (Weinberger & Schwartz, 1990). Externalizing behavior (Barber, Stoltz, Olsen, & Maughn, 2005).	Relación entre la crianza y las conductas de los/las adolescentes y los efectos indirectos que podían estar ejerciendo la simpatía y la autorregulación .	681 y sus madres de las ciudades de Northwestern y Mountain West de USA. Los y las adolescentes y sus madres fueron evaluados entre momentos temporales con un año de intervalo entre cada uno de ellos. La media de edad de los chicos en el primer momento de
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				evaluación era de 13.33 con una desviación típica de 1.06. El total de la muestra estaba compuesta por un total de 73% de chicas
Principales Resultados: Los resultados sugieren que los estilos restrictivos y activos están indirectamente asociados con la conducta prosocial y agresiva de los y las adolescentes. Por un lado el estilo restrictivo tiene consecuencias negativas en los y las adolescentes y el estilo activo tiene consecuencias positivas en los mismos.				
Artículo 16 : The interplay of emotional instability, empathy, and coping on prosocial and aggressive behaviors				
Carlo, G., Mestre, M. V., McGinley, M. M., Samper, P., Tur, A., & Sandman, D.	<i>Personality and Individual Differences</i> (2012)	Inventory of Empathy for Children and Adolescents (Bryant, 1982; Mestre et al., 1999). Multidimensional instrument (IE, AFV y CP, Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; Del Barrio et al., 2001). Escalas de Afrontamiento para Adolescentes (ACS, Frydenberg & Lewis, 1996; Pereña & Seisdedos, 1997).	Empatía, Inestabilidad emocional, Estilo de afrontamiento (centrado en la emoción o en el problema), Conducta prosocial y agresividad	1557 estudiantes (53% chicos) de edades comprendidas entre 12 y 15 años con una media de edad de 13.12 y una desviación típica de .87
Principales Resultados: La inestabilidad emocional predice positivamente el afrontamiento centrado en la emoción y este a su vez predice la conducta agresiva, mientras que la empatía predice de manera positiva el enfrentamiento centrado en el problema que a su vez predice de manera positiva el comportamiento prosocial. Además el afrontamiento centrado en el problema predijo de manera positiva la empatía rasgo que a su vez predijo de manera positiva las conductas prosociales y de manera negativa las conductas agresivas.				
Artículo 17 : The relationship between parent-child conflict and adolescent antisocial behavior: Confirming shared environmental mediation				
Klahr, A. M., Rueter, M. A., McGue, M., Iacono, W. G., & Burt, S. A.	<i>Journal of abnormal child psychology</i> (2011).	Delinquent Behavior Index (DBI, Burt and Donnellan 2008; Burt et al. 2007; Farrington and West 1971; Gibson 1967). Parental Environment Questionnaire (PEQ; Elkins et al. 1997).	El objetivo del presente estudio fue examinar las diferentes causas de los conflictos entre hijos y padres, así como las conductas antisociales de los hijos.	1199 adolescentes adoptados y no adoptados. 610 familias: 406 adoptivas, 204 no adoptivas. Con al menos

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				un adolescente menor de 19 años.
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Principales Resultados: Los resultados indican que los conflictos entre padres e hijos predicen las conductas antisociales de los mismos. Esta relación es equivalente en hijos adoptados y en hijos biológicos

Artículo 18 : Psychopathy, gang membership, and moral disengagement among juvenile offenders

Dhingra, K., Debowska, A., Sharratt, K., Hyland, P., & Kola-Palmer, S.	<i>Journal of Criminal Psychology</i> (2015)	The Mechanisms of Moral Disengagement (Bandura, Barbarelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996). The Psychopathy Checklist: Youth Version (PCL-YV; Forth, Kosson, & Hare, 2003). Composite International Diagnostic Interview (CIDI, highly structured clinical interview based on DSM-IV and ICD-10 diagnostic criteria, Kessler & Ustün, 2004). <i>Exposure to Violence Inventory</i> (ETV; Selner-O'Hagan, Kindlon, Buka, Raudenbush, & Earls, 1998). <i>The Quality of Parental Relationships Inventory</i> (Conger, Ge, Elder, Lorenz, & Simons, 1994).	El objetivo de este estudio fue investigar el impacto de factores psicopáticos y la pertenencia a pandillas con el desajuste moral. En esta relación se tuvieron en cuenta factores como la edad, etnia, haber escapado de casa, arresto de algún familiar o amigo, abuso de sustancias, exposición a la violencia (víctima o testigo) y calidez u hostilidad materna.	769 jóvenes infractores de edades comprendidas entre 14 y 17 años (cuando cometieron el delito)
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Principales Resultados: Las variables independientes que contribuyeron de manera significativa a la explicación del modelo fueron: edad, género, exposición a la violencia, pertenencia a bandas y psicopatía. La psicopatía es un fuerte predictor del desajuste moral en los adolescentes, de manera que los jóvenes que presentan mayores rasgos psicopáticos utilizan más estrategias de racionalización y justificación de sus comportamientos perjudiciales hacia los demás

Artículo 19 : Pro-bullying attitudes among incarcerated juvenile delinquents: Antisocial behavior, psychopathic tendencies and violent crime

Wiklund, G., Ruchkin, V. V., Koposov, R. A., & af Klinteberg, B.	<i>International journal of law and psychiatry</i> (2014).	<i>Pro-bullying Attitude Scale</i> (PAS, Väfors Fritz, Ruchkin, Koposov, & af Klinteberg, 2008; Väfors Fritz, Wiklund et al., 2008) <i>Youth Self-Report</i> (YSR, Achenbach, 1991). <i>Antisocial Behavior Checklist</i> (ABC); <i>violent behavior</i> (Ham, Zucker, & Fitzgerald, 1993; Zucker & Noll, 1980).	El objetivo fue evaluar una nueva escala destinada a evaluar las actitudes de Bulling.	259 chicos infractores reclutados voluntariamente de una institución correccional juvenil en Arkhangelsk, noroeste de Rusia.
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		<i>Childhood Psychopathy Scale (CPS, Lynam 1997).</i>		
<p>Principales Resultados: Se realizó un análisis factorial del cual se obtuvieron dos factores: Factor 1 : Sumisión/Dominancia Y EL Factor 2: Manipulación / Impulsividad.</p> <p>Se contempla la utilidad de esta escala para identificar individuos de alto riesgo a la hora de realizar conductas de bullying entre los jóvenes institucionalizados.</p>				
<p>Artículo 20 : Parent and peer restrictions of opportunities attenuate the link between low self-control and antisocial behavior.</p>				
<p>Kuhn, E. S., & Laird, R. D.</p> <p><i>Social Development</i> (2013)</p> <p>24-item low self-control scale (Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik, & Arneklev, 1993). Antisocial Peer Involvement (Dishion, Patterson, Stoolmiller, and Skinner, 1991). Unsupervised Time 7 ítems que fueron desarrollados para este estudio. Un ejemplo de esos ítems sería “Con qué frecuencia has visto películas o escuchado música sin la presencia de un adulto”. Parental Solicitation (Stattin and Kerr, 2000). Family Rules: 7 ítems que fueron desarrollados para este estudio. Un ejemplo de esos ítems sería “Tus padres te imponen reglas sobre: la música que escuchas, como debes pasar tu tiempo libre...”. Problem Behavior Frequency Scale (PBFS; Farrell, Kung, White, & Valois, 2000)</p> <p>El objetivo del presente estudio fue evaluar si la variable oportunidades restringidas atenuaba la relación entre bajo autocontrol y conducta antisocial.</p> <p>180 adolescentes con una media de edad de 12.04 de los cuales un 49,4 % era chicas.</p>				
<p>Principales Resultados: Oportunidades estratificadas atenúa la relación entre bajo autocontrol y conducta antisocial de tal manera que el autocontrol tiene una asociación menos fuerte con la conducta antisocial cuando se experimentaba más participación, menos tiempo sin supervisión por parte de los padres, más implicación paterna y se establecían más reglas en la familia.</p> <p>Por el contrario el autocontrol jugaba un papel más importante en su asociación con la conducta antisocial cuando los adolescentes experimentan una mayor relación con los compañeros con más conductas antisociales, pasaban más tiempo sin supervisión y tenían menores niveles de implicación paterna así como menos reglas dentro del entorno familiar.</p>				
<p>Artículo 21 : Susceptibility to Peer Influence, Self-Control, and Delinquency</p>				
Meldrum, R. C., Miller, H. V., & Flexon, J. L.	<i>Sociological Inquiry</i> (2013)	Delinquency (Adapted Conger & Elder, 1994). Susceptibility to Peer	El presente estudio tiene dos objetivos. El primer	1.526 familias. Se evaluaron 12 veces y se

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		<p>Influence (Steinberg and Monahan, 2007).</p> <p>Child Behavior Checklist (Achenbach 1991).</p>	<p>objetivo fue establecer el rol del autocontrol en la etiología de la susceptibilidad a la influencia de los pares.</p> <p>El segundo objetivo fue examinar el efecto de los dos constructos anteriores sobre la delincuencia auto informada.</p>	<p>concluyó con una evaluación final cuando el niño ya tenía 15 años.</p>
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Principales Resultados: Los resultados muestran que los individuos más altos en autocontrol son menos susceptibles a la influencia de los pares. A su vez, la susceptibilidad a la influencia de los pares es un predictor más fuerte de la delincuencia que el autocontrol. Por otra parte, el autocontrol modera la influencia de la susceptibilidad a la influencia de los pares y la delincuencia. En conclusión, el efecto de la susceptibilidad a la influencia de los pares sobre la delincuencia es más fuerte para las personas con niveles más altos de autocontrol.

Artículo 22 : Reciprocal relationships between parenting behavior and disruptive psychopathology from childhood through adolescence

Burke, J. D., Pardini, D. A., & Loeber, R.	<i>Journal of abnormal child psychology</i> (2008)	<p>Diagnostic Interview Schedule for Children (DISC; Costello et al. 1987).</p> <p>DSM-III-R diagnoses of antisocial personality disorder (APD).</p> <p>Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia (SADS; Endicott and Spitzer 1978).</p> <p>Parenting questionnaire (Loeber et al. 1998).</p> <p>Parental Involvement: 6 ítems en los que se hacía referencia a la frecuencia con la que realizaban diversas actividades con su hijo.</p> <p>Poor Communication: 18 ítems que indican la satisfacción de la comunicación entre padre e hijo.</p> <p>Poor Supervision: 17 ítems que evalúan la participación del niño en tareas familiares, el tiempo empleado en tareas con el niño...</p>	<p>El objetivo fue analizar las relaciones recíprocas entre el comportamiento de los padres (supervisión, comunicación, Participación, disciplina y castigo severo) y los síntomas del trastorno disruptivo infantil en una muestra clínica.</p>	<p>177 chicos reclutados en clínicas de Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania y en Atenas y Atlanta, Georgia.</p> <p>Los participantes comenzaron el estudio con edades comprendidas entre 7 y 12 años y participaron en evaluaciones de seguimiento tanto a ellos como a sus familias hasta los 17 años.</p>
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		Harsh Discipline: 1 ítem “Si su hijo hace algo que no se le permite hacer ¿le pega o golpea con algún objeto?”		
Principales Resultados: Los resultados revelan una mayor influencia de la conducta del niño en los padres que la conducta de los padres en el niño				
Artículo 23 : Gendered perspectives on depression and antisocial behaviors an extension of the failure model in adolescents				
Boots, D. P., Wareham, J., & Weir, H.	<i>Criminal Justice and Behavior</i> (2011).	Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach, 1991a, 1992). Conflict Tactics scales (Straus, 1979).	El objetivo del presente estudio fue analizar la relación entre género, delincuencia y síntomas depresivos en la adolescencia.	Estudio de cohorte con 1018 casos recogidos en tres momentos temporales. Las edades de los participantes fueron 3, 6, 9, 12, 15 y 18 y sus padres o cuidadores primarios.
Principales Resultados: Los resultados muestran algunas diferencias relacionadas con el género; en los chicos “cantidad de fracasos” en las relaciones interpersonales y dominancia predicen la depresión y las conductas delictivas mientras que en las chicas es la depresión el único factor que contribuye a las conductas delictivas y problemas afectivos en la adolescencia				
Artículo 24 : Bivariate trajectories of substance use and antisocial behavior: associations with emerging adult outcomes in a high-risk sample				
Trim, R. S., Worley, M. J., Wall, T. L., Hopfer, C. J., Crowley, T. J., Hewitt, J. K., & Brown, S. A.	<i>Emerging adulthood</i> (2015).	Composite International Diagnostic Interview— Substance Abuse Module (CIDI-SAM; Crowley, Mikulich, Ehlers, Whitmore, & MacDonald, 2001). Diagnostic Interview Schedule for Children (Piacentini et al., 1993; Schwab-Stone et al., 1993; Shaffer et al., 1993). Demographic variables. Information regarding age, gender, ethnicity, years of education, and religiosity (5-item measure adapted from Jessor & Jessor, 1977).	El objetivo del estudio era identificar trayectorias que relacionaban el uso de sustancias y las conductas antisociales y ver su evolución en la adolescencia y el inicio de la edad adulta	536 Muestra de alto riesgo (73% hombres) con una edad media de 16.1 y en el seguimiento de 22. 6
Principales Resultados: Se identificaron cinco trayectorias basadas en el uso de alcohol y drogas, y conductas antisociales en la adolescencia. El 56% de la muestra presentó un abuso de sustancias y alcohol. Un 91% de la muestra indicó un descenso en sus conductas antisociales. Se encontró que el uso crónico de alcohol y drogas con la manifestación crónica de conductas antisociales se relacionó con unas tasas más altas de dependencia de sustancias, trastorno antisocial de la personalidad y diversos trastornos psicosociales.				

Artículo 25 : Moral identity and adolescent prosocial and antisocial behaviors: Interactions with moral disengagement and self-regulation				
Hardy, S. A., Bean, D. S., & Olsen, J. A.	<i>Journal of youth and adolescence</i> (2015).	Moral Internalization (Aquino and Reed's, 2002). Moral Self-relevance (Barriga et al. 2001). Moral Ideal Self (Hardy et al. 2014). Contingencies of Self-Worth Scale (Crocker et al. 2003). Moral disengagement (Bandura et al. 1996). Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire—Revised (EATQ-R; Ellis and Rothbart 2001). Youth Inventory of Involvementscale (Pancer et al. 2007). Youth Inventory of Involvement scale (Pancer et al. 2007). Child Behavior Checklist (School-Age version; Achenbach and Rescorla 2001).	El objetivo del presente estudio fue examinar la identidad moral no solo como predictor sino como moderador de las relaciones entre los otros predictores (desconexión moral y autorregulación) y los comportamientos prosociales y antisociales de los adolescentes.	384 adolescentes (42% mujeres) de edades comprendidas entre 15 y 18 años.
Principales Resultados: En cuanto a las conductas antisociales la interacción entre identidad moral y desconexión moral predijo las conductas agresivas. A su vez, la relación entre identidad moral y autorregulación fue un factor predictor de las conductas agresivas y transgresoras. En lo que respecta a las conductas prosociales ninguna relación entre las tres variables predictoras fue significativa. Se podría concluir que la identidad moral puede amortiguar los efectos negativos de la alta desconexión moral y la baja autorregulación				
Artículo 26 : Effects of parental monitoring and exposure to community violence on antisocial behavior and anxiety/depression among adolescents				
Bacchini, D., Miranda, M. C., & Affuso, G.	<i>Journal of interpersonal violence</i> (2011).	Youth Self-Report (Achenbach, 1991). Antisocial behavior.(Bacchini & Affuso, 2006). Adaptación Community Experience Questionnaire (Schwartz & Proctor, 2000). Adolescents' Self-Report of Parental Monitoring (Capaldi & Patterson, 1989). (Caprara, Pastorelli, Regalia, Scabini, &	El objetivo del presente estudio fue establecer la influencia del género, la exposición a la violencia y supervisión parental en el comportamiento antisocial, así como en la depresión y la ansiedad en la adolescencia.	489 adolescentes, 290 chicos y 189 chicas de edades comprendidas entre 16 y 19 años de edad.

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		Bandura, 2005).		
Principales Resultados: Los resultados muestran que los chicos con altos niveles de exposición a la violencia (testigo o víctima) y un bajo nivel de supervisión paterna aumentan los niveles de conductas antisociales. En cuanto a las chicas ser víctima de violencia junto con una pobre supervisión paterna predice un mayor número de síntomas relacionados con la ansiedad y la depresión. Tanto el género como la supervisión por parte de los padres desempeñan un rol moderador, minimizando o maximizando los efectos de la exposición a la violencia.				
Artículo 27 : Antisocial behavior trajectories and social victimization within and between school years in early adolescence				
Light, J. M., Rusby, J. C., Nies, K. M., & Snijders, T. A.	<i>Journal of Research on Adolescence</i> (2014).	Antisocial behavior scale from the Oregon Healthy Teens Survey (Biglan, Metzler, & Ary, 1994). Social victimization a través de auto-informes donde se les preguntaba con qué frecuencia experimentaban algún tipo de agresión por parte de los pares.	El objetivo del estudio fue estimar las trayectorias de conducta antisocial para chicos y chicas aplicando una metodología longitudinal a tres años.	5742 de 11 escuelas de EEUU que completaban 4 veces al año los cuestionarios durante tres años.
Principales Resultados: El comportamiento antisocial aumentó durante el sexto curso, pero a comienzos del séptimo curso en chicos y del octavo en chicas disminuyó durante el año escolar.				
Artículo 28 : The relation between risk and protective factors for problem behaviors and depressive symptoms, antisocial behavior, and alcohol use in adolescence				
Monahan, K. C., Oesterle, S., Rhew, I., & Hawkins, J. D.	<i>Journal of community psychology</i> (2014).	CTC-YS Brief Depressive Symptoms scale (Sharp, Goodyer, & Croudace, 2006). Alcohol use: Los estudiantes debían informar si habían consumido alcohol en los últimos 30 días. Antisocial behavior. Autoinforme. Risk and protective factors. Este estudio incluye 24 factores de riesgo y 12 factores de protección que incluyen la comunidad, la escuela, la familia y los pares (Arthur, Hawkins, Pollard, Catalano, & Baglioni, 2002).	El objetivo del presente estudio es como los factores de riesgo y de protección en el ámbito de la comunidad, pares, familiares y escuela, están relacionados con el comportamiento antisocial y el uso/abuso de sustancias	2002 estudiantes (52% eran chicos) en octavo y décimo grado.
Principales Resultados: Los resultados muestran que los factores de protección y de riesgo para la conducta antisocial y el uso/abuso de alcohol están asociados con síntomas depresivos				
Artículo 29: Understanding youth violence: The mediating effects of gender, poverty and vulnerability				
McAra, L., & McVie, S.	<i>Journal of Criminal Justice</i> (2016).	Para medir la violencia se utilizaron tres ítems: asalto, robo y tenencia de armas.	El objetivo del presente estudio es entender	4300 jóvenes de edades comprendidas

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		<p>Se crearon categorías entre los adolescentes en función de un grado mayor o menor de riesgo. Se utilizaron las variables: supervisión de los cuidadores, conflictos con los cuidadores, apego, absentismo escolar, conductas de riesgo para la salud, uso y abuso de sustancias y factores de personalidad (impulsividad y autoestima)</p>	<p>mejor la violencia en la adolescencia estudiando la relación de esta con el género y con distintos factores de riesgo y protección.</p>	<p>entre 12 y 17 años.</p>
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Principales Resultados: Los resultados muestran que la violencia muestra una fuerte asociación con el género, así como con los niveles de pobreza en el hogar y el barrio.

Estas relaciones se mantienen incluso cuando se controlan los factores de riesgo y protección vinculados a la victimización y las relaciones tanto en la escuela como con sus cuidadores.

Artículo 30 : Aggressive versus nonaggressive antisocial behavior: Distinctive etiological moderation by age

Burt, S. A., & Neiderhiser, J. M.	<i>Developmental psychology</i> (2009).	<p>Behavior Problems Index (Feinberg, Button, Neiderhiser, Hetherington, & Reiss, 2007).</p> <p>Behavior Problems Index (Zill, 1985).</p>	<p>El objetivo del presente estudio fue establecer el efecto de las influencias genéticas y la edad en la conducta delincuente y antisocial.</p>	<p>720 parejas de hermanos con edades comprendidas entre 10 y 18 años.</p>
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Principales Resultados: Los resultados mostraron que las influencias genéticas y ambientales sobre la conducta agresiva se mantuvieron estables a lo largo de la etapa de la adolescencia. Por otro lado, las influencias genéticas sobre la conducta delictiva aumentaron durante esta etapa, mientras que las influencias ambientales compartidas por ambos hermanos sobre dicha conducta disminuyeron con la edad.

Artículo 31 : The role of parenting in the prediction of criminal involvement: Findings from a nationally representative sample of youth and a sample of adopted youth

Beaver, K. M., Schwartz, J. A., Connolly, E. J., Al-Ghamdi, M. S., & Kobeisy, A. N.	<i>Developmental psychology</i> (2015).	<p>Se incluyeron un total de cuatro medidas sobre conductas delictivas a los participantes:</p> <p>1- Habían sido detenidos</p> <p>2- Encarcelados</p> <p>3- Condenado a libertad condicional</p> <p>4- Encarcelado varias veces</p> <p>Las respuestas fueron codificadas.</p> <p>Se tuvieron en cuenta cuatro dimensiones en lo que respecta a los estilos de crianza de la madre:</p>	<p>El objetivo de este estudio fue controlar la influencia genética, utilizando participantes adoptados, en los estilos de crianza y las conductas delictivas.</p>	<p>Primera toma de datos fueron un total de 90.000 estudiantes de 132 colegios. De estos 20.745 se les realizó una entrevista a sus cuidadores principales, generalmente las madres.</p> <p>Toma dos hubo un total de 14.738 entrevistas en</p>
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		<p>1- Desvinculación materna 2- Apego 3- Participación en la crianza por parte de la madre 4- Educación En cuanto al padre se tuvieron en cuenta tres factores: 1- Apego 2- Implicación en la crianza 3- Educación 4- Permisividad</p>		<p>el hogar. Toma tres que fue recogida entre el 2007 y 2008 quedaron un total de 15.701 participantes de edades comprendidas entre 24 y 32 años.</p>
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Principales Resultados: Los resultados muestran muy poca evidencia empírica del efecto de la crianza de los padres sobre la conducta delictiva, antes de controlar los factores genéticos. Después de controlar los factores genéticos no se encuentra ninguna evidencia empírica de la influencia de los estilos de crianza sobre la conducta delictiva.

Artículo 32: Antisocial behavior in adolescence: Typology and relation to family context

Sobotková, V., Blatný, M., Jelínek, M., & Hrdlička, M.	<i>The Journal of Early Adolescence</i> (2013)	<p>The Social and Health Assessment (SAHA, Weissberg et al. 1991 & Schwab-Stone et al. 1999). Antisocial Behavior Scale (Schwab-Stone et al., 1999). Parent-Child Interactions Scale (Schwab-Stone et al., 1999). Variables socio-demográficas recogidas mediante auto-informes.</p>	<p>El objetivo fue analizar los factores ambientales y familiares sobre la conducta antisocial en los adolescentes.</p>	<p>2.856 adolescentes (53% chicas) con una media de edad de 13.5 de república Checa.</p>
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Principales Resultados: Se concluye que las diferencias en los niveles de comportamiento antisocial están más relacionadas con los estilos de crianza de los padres que con el nivel sociodemográfico de las familias.

Artículo 33: The role of youth anger in explaining links between parenting and early adolescent prosocial and antisocial behavior.

Houltberg, B. J., Sheffield Morris, A., Cui, L., Henry, C. S., & Criss, M. M.	<i>The Journal of Early Adolescence</i> (2016).	<p><i>Alabama Parenting Questionnaire</i> (APQ; Frick, 1991; Shelton, Frick, & Wootton, 1996). <i>Children's Anger Management Scales</i> (CAMS; Zeman, Shipman, & Penza-Clyve, 2001; Zeman, Shipman, & Suveg, 2002). <i>Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaires</i> (SDQ;</p>	<p>El objetivo del presente estudio fue examinar el rol del control de la ira y la relación con los estilos de crianza y las conductas socialmente ajustadas.</p>	<p>84 niños y adolescentes (41.7% mujeres) de edades comprendidas entre 7 y 15 años.</p>
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CAPÍTULO I: MARCO TEÓRICO DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

		Goodman & Scott, 1999). <i>Relational Aggression Questionnaire</i> (RAQ; Crick, 1997).		
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Principales Resultados: El apoyo parental se relaciona de manera positiva con conductas prosociales de los adolescentes (de forma directa e indirecta a través de la ira). Así pues la permisividad por parte de los padres se asocia de manera positiva con la conducta antisocial (de forma directa e indirecta a través de la ira)

Artículo 34: Juvenile offending and crime in early adulthood: A large sample analysis

Barrett, D. E., & Katsiyannis, A.	<i>Journal of Child and Family Studies</i> (2016).	South Carolina Department of Juvenile Justice (DJJ). South Carolina Budget and Control Board's Office of Research and Statistics (ORS).	El objetivo fue examinar bases de datos amplias para estudiar los antecedentes, experiencias tempranas y las variables relacionadas con la delincuencia. Además se establecen las diferencias entre jóvenes con un delito menor así como un tipo de delincuencia más persistente.	100.000 jóvenes nacieron en el período de 1981-1988 que se vieron involucrados en actividades delictivas. Edades escogidas fueron de 17 a 30 años.
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Principales Resultados: Experiencias adversas tempranas (adversidades familiares, problemas de salud o en la escuela representaron un total del 20% de la varianza en adultos delincuentes. Como antecedentes importantes a la conducta delictiva podríamos nombrar: adversidad temprana, características psicológicas y edad del primer arresto

Artículo 35: The role of self-control and self-esteem and the impact of early risk factors among violent offenders

Woessner, G., & Schneider, S.	<i>Criminal behaviour and mental health</i> (2013).	Multidimensional Self-Esteem Scale (Multidimensionale Selbstwertskaala, MSWS, Schütz and Sellin, 2006). Self-Control Scale (Grasmick et al. 1993). Recalled Parental Rearing Behaviour (Schuhmacher et al., 2000). Multiple Choice Word Test-B (MWT-B, Lehrl, 1999). d2 Test of Attention (Brickenkamp, 2002).	El objetivo fue analizar la relación entre autoestima y autocontrol como características de los delincuentes violentos, y su relación con factores biográficos de riesgo para la conducta violenta.	101 hombres encarcelados delincuentes violentos
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CAPÍTULO I: MARCO TEÓRICO DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

Principales Resultados: La combinación de baja autoestima social, alta autoestima relacionada con el cuerpo y conflictividad familiar son algunas de las características de los delincuentes				
Artículo 36: The moderating role of parenting on the relationship between psychopathy and antisocial behavior in adolescence.				
Silva, T. C., & Stattin, H.	<i>Development and psychopathology</i> (2016)	Youth Psychopathy Inventory. (YPI; Andershed, Kerr, Stattin, & Levander, 2002).	El objetivo fue analizar el impacto de factores de crianza sobre las conductas psicopáticas y antisociales.	900 estudiantes y sus madres(56.5% chicas) media de edad de 15.6.
Principales Resultados: En lo que respecta a los datos recogidos de los jóvenes se observa una relación lineal entre psicopatía y conflictividad y control de los padres. En lo que respecta a los datos recogidos por parte de las madres se establece una relación entre psicopatía y grado de control de los padres, así como de los conflictos. No se observó interacción entre las puntuaciones en psicopatía y factores de crianza. Por otro lado, el conflicto y control e implicación de los padres tuvo un impacto en el nivel de conductas violentas de los adolescentes, independientemente de los rasgos psicopáticos.				
Artículo 37: Moral orientation and relationships in school and adolescent pro-and antisocial behaviors: A multilevel study				
Wissink, I. B., Deković, M., Stams, G. J., Asscher, J. J., Rutten, E., & Zijlstra, B. J.	<i>The journal of school nursing</i> (2014).	Moral Orientation Measure (MOM, Brugman et al. 2003; Stams et al., 2008). Dutch translation of the School Culture Scale (Higgins, 1995). Prosocial Behavior Questionnaire (PBQ; Weir & Duveen, 1981).	El objetivo fue examinar la relación entre factores morales y conductas antisociales y prosociales.	670 estudiantes de los cuales un 47% eran chicos. Las edades de los participantes estaban comprendidas entre 12 y 20 años.
Principales Resultados: Una relación positiva entre alumno-profesor no solo está relacionada con menores niveles de mala conducta dentro de la escuela, sino también fuera de ella. Lo cual nos indica que la figura del profesor es un agente socializador importante de los adolescentes.				
Artículo 38 : Psychopathy and violent misconduct in a sample of violent young offenders.				
Shaffer, C., McCuish, E., Corrado, R. R., Behnken, M. P., & DeLisi, M.	<i>Journal of Criminal Justice</i> (2015)	Psychopathy Checklist: Youth Version (PCL: YV, Forth et al., 2003). Grupo étnico que ellos mismos reportaban. Mal comportamiento en prisión (transporte de armas, represarias, peleas). Exposure to Violence Scale (Hochstetler & DeLisi, 2005).	La mayoría de estudios que evalúan psicópatas delincuentes y sus conductas dentro de las instituciones lo hacen a través de muestras provenientes de EEUU en las cuales la mayoría son de raza africana o	159 chicos que han cometido un delito violento serio.

			caucásica. El presente estudio pretende evaluar dicho comportamiento violento en jóvenes en su mayoría de origen caucásico y que han cometido un delito serio.	
Principales Resultados: Aquellos jóvenes con más síntomas de psicopatía presentan peor conducta y son personas más violentas.				

I.1. LA VIOLENCIA FILIO-PARENTAL: UNA PROBLEMÁTICA ESPECÍFICA.

En la última década se constata un incremento de la violencia y agresiones intrafamiliares especialmente entre los adolescentes y sus padres.

Circular 1/2010 de la Fiscalía General del Estado de 23 de julio de 2010 señalaba que “...los malos tratos familiares protagonizados por los menores están proliferando últimamente de forma que como mínimo cabría calificar de preocupante.”

Las principales causas proceden de “una sociedad permisiva que educa en los derechos de los hijos e hijas, pero no en sus deberes, donde ha calado de forma equívoca el lema “no poner límites” (...), abortando una correcta maduración. Hay padres que no sólo no se hacen respetar, sino que menoscaban la autoridad del maestro, la policía o de otros ciudadanos cuando, en defensa de la convivencia, reprenden a sus descendientes”.

Los datos muestran un incremento en los últimos años. Los datos muestran un incremento en los últimos años. Según los datos de la Memoria de la Fiscalía General del Estado, los expedientes abiertos a jóvenes por este tipo de delito han aumentado año tras año desde 2013 hasta alcanzar las 4898 denuncias de padres/madres a hijos/as durante el año 2015. Desde 2013 hasta 2015, los expedientes abiertos a jóvenes por cualquier tipo de delito han disminuido un 10,02% (29428 a 26425), mientras que los casos de violencia filio-parental han aumentado un 5,13% en el mismo periodo (4659 a 4898). La Comunidad Valenciana es la región que registra el mayor número de delitos de violencia filio-parental en toda España. Según la memoria de la fiscalía de la

comunidad, durante 2015 se abrieron 1056 expedientes a menores por delitos de violencia filio-parental (708 en Valencia, 311 en Alicante y 37 en Castellón). Supone el 21,55% del total en España.

En anteriores Memorias se han realizado diversas consideraciones acerca de esta modalidad delictiva que no en vano se tachó de lacra social, contra la que los esfuerzos y medidas que se aplican a diario en la jurisdicción de menores se revelan insuficientes, ante un problema que hunde sus raíces en una profunda crisis de valores y principios educativos dentro de las relaciones paterno filiales.

Sin perjuicio de las actuaciones que se siguen desde las Fiscalías, las distintas Secciones insisten en el papel fundamental de prevención y educación de las Instituciones.

En los últimos años se ha ido perfilando el concepto y características de la violencia filio-parental.

Cottrell, a principios del siglo XXI, definía la violencia filo-parental como cualquier acto de los hijos que provoque miedo en los padres para obtener poder y control y que tenga como objetivo causar daño físico, psicológico o financiero a estos. Una de las peculiaridades de la violencia filio-parental es que las víctimas son aquellas personas que deberían ser la fuente de protección para los hijos. Por el contrario, son ellas quienes demandan ser protegidas de sus hijos cuando denuncian los abusos de éstos. Un hecho sorprendente es que las víctimas (los padres) son social, económicamente y en ocasiones físicamente más poderosas que los hijos, pero aun así son ellos quienes tienen el poder y control sobre sus padres (Paterson, Luntz, Perlesz y Cotton, 2002).

Garrido (2005) puntualizaba que este tipo de violencia engloba las agresiones ejercidas por niños, adolescentes y jóvenes aparentemente normalizados que proceden de cualquier estrato social y que presentan conductas violentas que incluyen siempre el ámbito familiar. Así mismo, definía este tipo de violencia como un trastorno que reúne un conjunto de conductas agresivas, físicas y psicológicas, tales como golpes, amenazas y extorsión económica, destacando del hijo su falta de conciencia y su escasa capacidad para sentir culpa.

Pérez y Pereira (2006) también describían este tipo de violencia como un conjunto de conductas reiteradas de violencia física, verbal o no verbal, dirigida a los progenitores, o a aquellos adultos que ocupan su lugar, que ejercen su labor de cuidado.

En la misma línea, Cottrell y Monk (2004) establecen como violencia filio-parental, todas aquellas acciones realizadas por adolescentes que intentan causar daño financiero, psicológico o físico a sus padres y/o padrastros

Pereira (2011) define este tipo de violencia como el conjunto de conductas reiteradas de agresiones físicas (golpes, empujones, lanzamiento de objetos), verbales (insultos repetidos, amenazas, chantajes) o no verbales (gestos amenazadores, ruptura de objetos apreciados, robo) dirigida a los progenitores.

Tobeña (2012) defina la violencia filio-parental como cualquier acto de violencia por parte de los hijos hacia sus padres, ya sea de naturaleza física, emocional o psicológica, verbal o financiera y que genera en éstos un miedo intenso a sufrir una agresión más grave.

Más recientemente, Aroca (2013) considera la violencia filio-parental como aquella donde el hijo/a actúa conscientemente con la intención de obtener/mantener poder, control y dominio sobre sus progenitores de forma reiterada, causando daño y tribulación en su víctima, con el fin inmediato de obtener lo que desea, utilizando violencia psicológica, económica o física. La violencia filio-parental presenta un ciclo de la violencia característico con falta *versus* exceso de límites parentales, donde el *modus operandi* en el binomio agresor-víctima adquiere la forma de ciclo coercitivo, de sumisión-hostilidad/hostilidad –sumisión, donde los progenitores maltratados advierten que sus recursos educativos no son efectivos. De hecho cuando utilizan dichos recursos (reprimendas o castigos), el hijo responde incrementando, en intensidad y frecuencia, sus conductas violentas. A partir de ese momento, la madre y/o padre optan por la persuasión, la conciliación o negación que su hijo ignora, incluso, puede reaccionar con mayor desdén porque los considera débiles. Por todo ello, la relación entre padres e hijos se ve atrapada en un proceso de acción-reacción, donde la sumisión parental usada para lograr una pacificación en el clima familiar, provoca un incremento de las exigencias por parte del hijo en contra de las expectativas de la víctima.

Además, se considera la violencia filio-parental como aquella donde el hijo/a actúa conscientemente con la intención de obtener/mantener poder, control y dominio sobre sus progenitores de forma reiterada, causando daño y tribulación en su víctima, con el fin inmediato de obtener lo que desea, utilizando la violencia psicológica, económica y/o física (Aroca 2013).

I.1.1 PERFIL DE AGRESOR O AGRESORA.

El perfil del agresor o agresora en este tipo de violencia familiar ha ido cambiando.

Los agresores suelen ser hijos varones entre 10 a 18 años (Agnew y Huguley, 1989; Cornell Gelles, 1982; Evans y Warren-Sohlberg, 1988; Gallagher, 2008; Paulson, Coombs y Landsverk, 1990; Walsh y Krienert, 2007). Kennair y Mellor (2007) señalan la existencia de diferencias en la edad y género en los hijos agresores. Así, los hijos varones, a medida que van creciendo, tienden a agredeir en menor medida a sus madres y en mayor medida a sus padres, mientras que las hijas, a medida que van creciendo tienden a agredeir más a ambos progenitores (Agnew y Huguley, 1989).

En función de la revisión presentada por Bailín, Tobeña y Sarasa (2007) Se concluye que la mayoría de casos de violencia filio-parental comienzan en la pubertad, entre los 11 y 12 años. Cottrell y Monk (2004) afirman que la mayor incidencia de la problemática se encuentra entre los 10 y 18 años. En estudios llevados a cabo en España se concluye que el rango de edad más vulnerable a sufrir estas problemáticas es de 14 a 17 años.

Por tanto, el perfil del agresor es de un adolescente entre 14 y 16 años, aunque investigaciones recientes amplían el rango de edad de los agresores entre 10 y 18 años, mas frecuentemente varón, clase media y alta, que no está habituado a que le nieguen sus deseos y con baja tolerancia a la frustración. Este perfil pone de relieve la necesidad de profundizar en el análisis de las variables psicológicas y sociales que influyen en las conductas violentas hacia los padres y las madres.

El objetivo de determinados estudios ha sido determinar distintos factores de riesgo a la hora de desarrollar este tipo de violencia (Cottrell, 2001; Garrido, 2005 y Pereira 2011). Este conjunto de variables se pueden agrupar en dos ámbitos: Individual y familiar. En lo referente a las variables individuales encontramos baja autoestima (Estévez, Herrero, Martínez y Musitu, 2006; Ibabe y Jaureguizar, 2011), sintomatología depresiva (Anderson y Bushman, 2002; Ibabe, I., Jaureguizar, J. y Díaz, O., 2007), malestar psicológico (Gámez y Almendros, 2011), sentimientos de soledad (Cava, Musitu y Murgui, 2007; Gifford-Smith y Brownell, 2003; Martínez, Buelga y Cava, 2007; Estévez et al., 2006; Moreno Estévez, Murgui y Musito, 2009), la satisfacción vital (Anderson y Bushman, 2002; Moreno et al., 2009), el autoconcepto negativo

(Baumeister, Smart y Boden, 1996; De la Torre, M. J. García M.C., de la Villa M., Casanova, P.F., 2008), la carencia de habilidad empática (Ibabe et al., 2007; Sempere, M., Losa, B., Pérez, M., Esteve, G. y Cerdá, M., 2005), agresividad (Anderson y Bushman, 2002) y consumo de drogas (Cottrell, 2001).

En lo que respecta al género hay estudios que afirman que existe una mayor tasa de violencia filio-parental en hijos varones teniendo en cuenta que son estos, en general, los que tienden a realizar conductas violentas más graves (Loeber y Hay, 1997; Maccoby y Jacklin, 1980; Paulson et al., 1990). Por otro lado algunas investigaciones señalan tasas similares en hijos e hijas (Bobic, 2002; McCloskey y Licher, 2003). Ibabe y Jaureguizar (2011) Afirman que la VFP es ejercida en igual medida por chicos y chicas y lo que varía en función del género es el tipo de violencia que ejercen; los chicos suelen ejercer más violencia física y las chicas más violencia psicológica (Cuervo y Rechea, 2010; Gámez y Calvete, 2012; Ibabe y Jaureguizar, 2011)

Otro aspecto interesante relacionado con el género del agresor se centra en el tipo de agresión o abuso que ejercen los hijos contra sus padres. Las investigaciones indican, que en general los varones son más propensos a ejercer un maltrato físico, mientras que las mujeres tienen más probabilidades de ejercer un maltrato emocional o verbal (Archer, 2004). Estas diferencias podrían explicar la mayor tasa de hijos varones agresores que son denunciados o derivados a los servicios de salud mental.

Levy (1999) encontró que la mitad de chicas violentas de su muestra informaron haber sido testigos de violencia marital entre sus padres, mientras que en el caso de los chicos solo lo manifestó una quinta parte de ellos.

Otro factor de riesgo a tener en cuenta es el consumo de sustancias (alcohol y drogas) por parte de los hijos agresores (Evans y Warren-Sohlberg, 1988; Pagani et al., 2004) así como la baja autoestima de los mismos (Ibabe, Jaureguizar y Diaz, 2009). Se han encontrado evidencias de una relación positiva entre el abuso de alcohol o drogas por parte de los adolescentes y el comportamiento violento hacia sus padres (Jackson 2003, Pagani et al, 2004). En un estudio Pagani et al (2004) mostró que el abuso de sustancias en los adolescentes aumentaba hasta en un 60% el riesgo de mostrar abuso verbal hacia las madres. Diversos autores concluyen que el consumo de drogas por parte de muchos de estos adolescentes es un factor común en los casos de violencia filio-parental (Bertino et al., 2011); Cottrell 2001; Ibabe y Jaureguizar, 2011). Otros autores (Cottrell,

2001) señalan que el abuso de alcohol y otras drogas no causa la violencia sino que incrementa su severidad y esto a su vez repercutiría en el distanciamiento y falta de comunicación dentro del núcleo familiar.

Se establece pues que la calidad de las relaciones entre padres e hijos constituye una de las variables que mejor predicen la conducta antisocial del hijo o hija adolescente (Musitu, Martínez y Murgui, 2006). En diversos estudios se ha constatado la relación existente entre los problemas de comportamiento violento durante la adolescencia y la presencia de conflictos familiares frecuentes e intensos (Estévez, Murgui, Moreno y Musitu, 2007; Gámez y Calvete, 2012; Ibabe y Jaureguizar, 2011; Tobeña, 2012). Una comunicación deficiente y una baja cohesión afectiva entre los miembros de la familia, se relaciona de manera positiva con el consumo de sustancias (Jiménez, Musitu y Murgui, 2008) y con la conducta violenta (Tobeña, 2012).

Con respecto al autoestima de los agresores, los estudios empíricos concluyen una menor autoestima, así como una baja capacidad de empatía (Ibabe et al., 2009).

En lo referente a la incidencia de esta problemática en ambos sexos, se concluye que este tipo de agresión tienen una incidencia mayor en los hijos varones respecto a las hijas, coincidiendo en diferentes investigaciones que entre un 60% y un 80% de las agresiones son ejercidas por varones (Aroca 2013; Cottrell y Monk 2004; Laurent & Derry, 1999). Cabe señalar que otros estudios como el de Walsh y Krienert (2007) encontraron diferencias significativas en función del género si se analizaba la gravedad de las agresiones físicas, siendo el porcentaje significativamente mayor en chicos (63,3%) que en chicas. Otros estudios realizados en Australia, Nueva Zelanda y Estados Unidos afirman que chicos y chicas están igualados en lo que respecta a las agresiones hacia los padres (Bobic, 2002).

Según la Asociación Altea-España (2008), los hijos e hijas maltratadores utilizan la violencia psicológica (emocional) física y económica para obtener lo que quieren ejerciendo poder y control sobre la víctima.

Es necesario analizar cuáles son las características más importantes de los padres que son víctimas de este tipo de violencia. Cabe señalar que la mayoría de los estudios coinciden en que son las madres las que en mayor medida sufren los abusos de sus hijos (Gallagher, 2008; Kennair y Mellor, 2007; Nock y Kazdin 2002; Pagani, Larocque,

Vitaro y Tremblay 2003; Walsh y Krienert, 2007). Una de las explicaciones que se puede dar a este fenómeno es que los hijos pueden percibir a sus madres más débiles y con menos poder que sus padres. Puede que sea la sociedad la que nos transmite ese mensaje, ya que es socialmente aceptado el que los hombres puedan controlar y dominar a las mujeres. Otra posible explicación es el rol de cuidadoras primarias que suelen poseer las madres, ya que son ellas las que están más vulnerables y accesibles frente a la frustración de sus hijos (Agnew y Huguley 1989; Cottrell, 2001; Cotrell y Monk, 2004; Ulman y Straus, 2003). Eckstein (2002) sugiere que mientras que los padres se defienden físicamente frente a las agresiones de sus hijos, las madres no lo hacen haciéndolas más vulnerables.

Existe una hipótesis en estudio acerca de si la violencia intra-familiar es bidireccional. Desde esa perspectiva un aspecto importante que podría ser objeto de estudio son las características de los padres víctimas de los abusos de sus hijos y las conductas abusivas que estos padres han podido mostrar en sus relaciones familiares. Maxwell y Maxwell (2003) demostraron que el comportamiento abusivo de los padres hacia los hijos, y el hecho de que los hijos hayan sido testigos de la violencia familiar, predice el comportamiento agresivo de los hijos hacia sus progenitores. Aunque el riesgo de realizar actos violentos contra otros aumenta con la exposición a la violencia familiar, no se puede concluir que tras esta exposición se produzcan directamente conductas violentas en los hijos.

En lo referente al tipo de violencia que nos ocupa, la violencia filio-parental, son muchos los estudios que nos sugieren la hipótesis de la bidireccionalidad de la violencia familiar; los hijos que han sido maltratados por sus padres tienen una mayor probabilidad de ejercer conductas violentas sobre los mismos (Hatz, 1995, Langhinrichsen- Rohling y Neidig, 1995; Mahoney y Donnelly, 2000; Meredith, Abbot y Adams 1986; Straus y Hotaling, 1980). Se ha comprobado que a mayor tasa de castigos corporales por parte de los padres hacia los niños, mayor presencia de comportamientos violentos de estos hacia sus padres (Brezina, 1999; Larzelere, 1986; Mahoney y Donnelly, 2000 Patterson, 1995) siendo la frecuencia de la violencia contra los hijos más importante que su intensidad (Peek, Fischery Kidwell, 1985). Una posible explicación para esta posible bidireccionalidad se podría basar en el aprendizaje de modelos de relación basados en la violencia, a través de los cuales los niños interiorizan

que la única forma de resolver conflictos es a través del uso de tácticas violentas (Barkin, Kreitery Durant, 2001; Laurenty Derry, 1999; Mitchell y Finkelhor, 2001). Asimismo, la exposición de los hijos a la violencia marital de sus padres ha sido identificada como un factor decisivo para el futuro comportamiento violento de los hijos hacia sus madres (Cottrell y Monk, 2004; Ulman y Straus, 2003). Una posible explicación para este hecho de que sean las mujeres las víctimas más frecuentes de la violencia de sus hijos, puede ser el modelado que recibe el hijo de su padre cuando este maltrata o infravalora a su madre.

Stith et al. (2000) en sus estudios sobre la transmisión intergeneracional de la violencia marital, sugieren que una historia de violencia marital entre los padres está asociada a un mayor riesgo de ser víctimas en el caso de las hijas mientras que en los hijos lo es de ser agresores en sus futuras relaciones. La violencia física de los padres hacia los hijos está positivamente relacionada con la violencia filio-parental (física, psicológica y emocional), especialmente en hijos varones (Ibabe y Jaureguizar, 2011; Ulman y Straus, 2003). Diversos estudios han encontrado que los hijos que habían sido testigos de violencia entre los padres tenían una mayor probabilidad de participar en conductas violentas hacia sus madres, pero no hacia sus padres. Los niños aprenden a comportarse de manera violenta a través de la observación y de la experimentación directa de dichos comportamientos procedentes de los padres. Se podría explicar este fenómeno a través de la teoría del aprendizaje social porque una gran proporción de niños y adolescentes que cometan abusos han sido maltratados física o sexualmente por sus padres, o han presenciado situaciones de violencia doméstica. En lo que respecta a la bidireccionalidad de la violencia intrafamiliar se observan mayores tasas en varones, esto puede ser debido a que puede ser el hijo el que aprende el patrón de comportamiento de su padre, mientras que la hija aprenda el de la madre. En esa misma línea, Cottrell y Monk (2004) sugieren que la Violencia filio-parental puede estar influenciada por una combinación del modelo de comportamiento masculino y la idealización del abusador junto con una posible rabia contra la madre por considerar que no ha protegido adecuadamente a la familia.

Otro factor a tener en cuenta es el tipo de violencia ejercida por los agresores. Las conductas violentas que comportan mayor número de denuncias en los juzgados, son las físicas. Sin embargo el maltrato filial se inicia con otro tipo de violencia, la psico-

emocional (insultos, omisión y expresiones de desprecio o desobediencia explícita), que suelen ser el paso previo a la violencia física

Dentro de la violencia filio parental encontramos el efecto iceberg, es decir los datos de incidencia y prevalencia pueden estar sesgados si solo prestamos atención a los actos violentos que son procesados por la justicia. Dicho efecto nos advierte de que puede existir un número mayor de casos de violencia filio parental porque:

- Algunos progenitores tienen recursos económicos y acuden a terapias clínicas privadas
- No se contempla a todas las víctimas de este tipo de violencia (adultos que tienen la guardia potestad, adultos que conviven con el agresor y nuevas parejas de los progenitores del mismo)
- En todas las investigaciones, excluyendo las que utilizan muestras que están cumpliendo medidas judiciales, contemplan la violencia física y dejan a un lado la violencia psicológica y económica, siendo estas también un tipo de maltrato.

En resumen, la revisión bibliográfica realizada específicamente sobre la investigación en violencia filio-parental desde 2010 permiten concluir (ver tabla 2):

1. Una mayor incidencia de esta problemática en el rango de edad entre 12 y 16 años.
2. La importancia de los estilos de crianza y el clima familiar: la cohesión familiar, el afecto, la comunicación actúan como factor de protección y se consideran contextos familiares positivos, por el contrario la conflictividad familiar, la negligencia de los padres en atender las necesidades de sus hijos y la poca implicación en su crianza son factores de riesgo de la violencia filio-parental.
3. En cuanto a las variables personales y sociales destacan como facilitadoras de la violencia filio-parental el consumo de drogas, fracaso escolar, exposición a ambientes y situaciones violentas, sintomatología depresiva, dificultad para expresar emociones, falta de empatía, pocas conductas prosociales, problemas de conducta dentro y fuera del hogar, conductas antisociales.

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4. El tipo de violencia filio-parental se caracteriza por mas agresividad física de los chicos hacia sus padres y mas agresividad verbal de las chicas hacia sus padres. La madre aparece mas frecuentemente como víctima de dicha violencia.

Tabla 2: Estudios sobre violencia filio-parental

Autores	Año de Publicación	Instrumentos	Objetivo del Estudio	Descripción de la muestra
Artículo 1: Conductas violentas de los adolescentes hacia las figuras de autoridad: el papel mediador de las conductas antisociales				
Jaureguizar, J. & Ibabe, I.	Revista de Psicología Social (2012)	<p><i>Escala de Clima Social en la Familia</i> (FES; Moos y Moos, 1981).</p> <p><i>Escala de Clima Social en el Centro Escolar</i> (CES; Moos y Trickett, 1974).</p> <p><i>Cuestionario de Conductas Antisociales y Delictivas</i> (AD; Seisdedos, 1988).</p> <p>Cuestionario de Conductas hacia las Figuras de Autoridad (escala ad hoc).</p>	<p>Analizar las conductas violentas y prosociales de los adolescentes hacia padres y profesores y la relación de dichas conductas con el clima familiar.</p>	<p>687 adolescentes de ambos sexos y de edades comprendidas entre 12 y 16 años de la provincia de Guipúzcoa, España</p>

Principales Resultados

Se obtiene un mayor número de conductas prosociales hacia los padres que hacia los profesores, pero no existen diferencias en lo que respecta a las conductas violentas.

En lo que respecta a la familia la cohesión y el conflicto, mediadas por la conducta antisocial, fueron predictores de la violencia filio-parental. Del mismo modo, la organización escolar y el conflicto familiar medidas por las conductas antisociales de los adolescentes resultaron predictores significativos de la violencia contra los profesores.

Artículo 2: Estilos de socialización familiar y violencia de hijos a padres en población española

Gámez-Guadix, M., Jaureguizar, J., Almendros, C., & Carrobles, J. A	Psicología conductual (2012)	<p>Cuestionario Sociodemográfico Ad Hoc</p> <p><i>Escala de Violencia filio-parental</i> (Basada en Revised Conflict Tactics Sacales, CTS2 y Conflict Tactics Scales, Parent- Chil, CTSPC; Straus y Douglas, 2004).</p> <p><i>“Escala de apoyo y afecto” de la sección D del “Inventario de dimensiones de disciplina”</i> (<i>Dimensions of Discipline Inventory</i>, DDI; Straus y Fauchier, 2007).</p> <p>Escala Ad hoc sobre el control parental</p>	<p>Evaluar la prevalencia de violencia filio-parental en una muestra española. Así como, examinar la relación entre diferentes estilos de socialización parental (democrático, autoritario, indulgente y negligente) y el riesgo de violencia filioparental</p>	<p>1343 universitarios (74% mujeres; edad media= 21,21; <i>DT</i>= 4,21) que informaron si habían ejercido algún tipo de abuso contra sus padres cuando eran preadolescentes</p>
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Principales Resultados

El 4,7% de los participantes admitieron haber agredido físicamente a alguno de sus padres en alguna ocasión y el 72,2% de la muestra informaron haber llevado a cabo alguna conducta considerada como abuso verbal contra sus padres.

Para ambos sexos la prevalencia de algún tipo de abuso verbal contra las madres fue significativamente mayor que contra el padre.

En lo que respecta a los estilos parentales, el estilo negligente incrementó la probabilidad de abuso físico y verbal hacia los padres. El estilo autoritario mostró una relación significativa con el abuso verbal, aunque no con el físico. Por último, el estilo indulgente no incrementó la probabilidad de ningún tipo de abuso hacia los padres.

Artículo 3: Violencia filio-parental: Características personales y familiares de una muestra de servicios sociales

Carrasco,N.	Trabajo social hoy (2014)	Variables sociodemográficas (sexo, edad, edad de comienzo de la VFP, lugar de nacimiento). Variables Psicosociales (consumo de drogas, fracaso escolar, intervenciones anteriores, patología mental diagnosticada y exposición a la violencia). Variables Familiares (tipo de familia, víctima de la violencia, presencia o ausencia de: denuncia, orden de alejamiento o cesión de guarda). Variables relacionadas con la conducta violenta. Toda esta información se obtuvo a través del análisis de informes de actuación del SMUS (Servicio Municipal de Urgencias Sociales) de Bilbao (España).	Analizar las características que presenta una muestra de menores y jóvenes recogida en el Servicio Municipal de Urgencias Sociales (SMUS) de Bilbao por intervenciones catalogadas como Violencia Filio-Parental (VFP). Se examinaron si existían diferencias en función del tipo de familia y el sexo.	72 adolescentes de los cuales el 65.3 % eran varones (n=47) y el 34.7 % mujeres (n=25). Todos ellos eran menores de 21 años
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Principales Resultados

En cuanto a las variables familiares existen diferencias en función del tipo de familia, mayor prevalencia en familias monoparentales (solo madre)

En lo referente a características individuales destacan la edad de comienzo (14.33 años), presencia de intervenciones previas, consumo de drogas, fracaso a nivel escolar, exposición a la violencia y enfermedad mental diagnosticada

En cuanto al sexo existe una mayor presencia de violencia física en chicos y psicológica en chicas.

Artículo 4: Behavioral problems and depressive symptomatology as predictors of child-toparent violence

Ibabe, I., Arnoso, A., Elgorriaga, E.	The European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context (2014)	Intra-family violence (Ibabe & Jaureguizar, 2011). <i>Multi-factor Self-Assessment Child Adjustment Test</i> (Test Autoevaluativo Multifactorial de Adaptación Infantil – TAMAI, Hernández, 2004).	Se estudió si los adolescentes con medida judicial por agredir a sus padres tenían problemas psicológicos diferentes a los	231 Adolescentes de ambos性es y de edades comprendidas entre 14 y 18 años del País Vasco
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		<p><i>Behavior Assessment System for Children</i> (BASC, Reynolds & Kamphaus, 1992).</p> <p><i>Millon Adolescent Clinical Inventory</i> (MACI, Millon, 2004).</p> <p><i>Magallanes Scale of Identification for Attention Deficit</i> (Escala Magallanes de Identificación de Déficit de Atención en Adolescentes – ESMIDA-J, García-Pérez & Magaz, 2006).</p>	adolescentes institucionalizados por otros motivos o a los adolescentes no infractores.	(España). 106 eran adolescentes con problemas judiciales.
Principales Resultados				
Los adolescentes institucionalizados por agredir a sus padres presentaban más problemas de conducta fuera del hogar así como más características asociadas con sintomatología depresiva. Estos problemas pueden precipitar situaciones de conflicto familiar y que los padres presenten dificultad a la hora de controlar a sus hijos.				
Artículo 5: Child-to-parent violence: The role of exposure to violence and its relationship to social-cognitive processing				
Contreras, L., & Cano, M. C.	The European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context (2016)	<p><i>Exposure to Violence Scale</i> (EVS; Orue & Calvete, 2010).</p> <p><i>Warmth Scale</i> (WS) (Fuentes, Motrico, & Bersabé, 1999).</p> <p><i>Attitudes and Social Cognitive Strategies Questionnaire</i> (Cuestionario de Actitudes y Estrategias Cognitivas Sociales, AECS, Moraleda, González-Galán, & García-Gallo, 1998).</p>	Se estudió si la exposición a situaciones violentas en diferentes ambientes (escuela, calle, casa y televisión) y su relación con el procesamiento socio-cognitivo de adolescentes denunciados por agredir a sus padres, adolescentes denunciados por otros motivos y adolescentes sin ningún tipo de denuncia.	90 adolescentes españoles (Jaén). 30 adolescentes denunciados por agredir a los padres. 30 adolescentes denunciados por otro tipo de delito. 30 adolescentes no infractores
Principales Resultados				
Los resultados muestran que los adolescentes con delitos por agresión a los padres muestran niveles más altos de exposición a situaciones violentas en casa. La exposición a situaciones violentas se correlaciona significativamente con percepción social hostil.				
Artículo 6: Factores Individuales y Familiares de Riesgo en casos de Violencia Filio-parental				

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Martínez, S. L., Estévez, E., & Crespo, J. L. C.	Documentos de trabajo social: Revista de trabajo y acción social (2013)	<p><i>Escala de Violencia Filio-parental</i>, (Straus y Dou- glas, 2004).</p> <p><i>Escala de Clima Familiar</i> (FES Family Environment Scale, Moos y Moos, 1981).</p> <p><i>Escala de Comunicación Pa- dres -Hijos -PACS-</i> (Parent Adolescent Communication Scale, Barnes y Olson, 1982).</p> <p><i>Cuestionario de Consumo de Drogas Ilegales</i>, (Carballo et al. 2011).</p> <p><i>Escala de Malestar Psicológico</i>, (Kessler Psychological Distress Scale K10, (Kessler y Mroczek, 1994).</p> <p><i>Escala de Sintomatología Depresiva</i> (CES-D, Center for Epidemiológico Studies Depression Scale, Radloff, 1977).</p> <p><i>Escala de Estrés percibido.</i> (EEP, Cohen, Kamarchk y Merlmelesteinn, 1983).</p> <p><i>Escala de Sentimiento de Soledad</i>, (UCLA, Loneli- ness Scale, Versión 3, Russell, Peplau y Cutrona, 1996).</p> <p><i>Escala de Satisfacción con la Vida</i> (Diener, Emmons, Larsen y Griffin, 1985).</p> <p><i>Escala de Empatía</i> (Muncer y Ling, 2006).</p> <p><i>Escala de Auto- concepto AF-5</i> (García y Musitu, 1999).</p> <p><i>Escala de Alexitimia</i> (Bagby, Parker y Taylor, 1994).</p>	Se analizó la relación existente entre la violencia filio-parental y determinadas variables individuales, tales como el malestar psicológico, sintomatología depresiva, estrés percibido, soledad, autoconcepto, alexitimia, empatía, consumo de drogas y variables familiares como cohesión familiar, expresividad, conflicto familiar y comunicación. Estas relaciones se analizan además en función del sexo.	255 adolescentes de ambos sexos, (125 chicos y 130 chicas), con edades comprendidas entre los 12 y los 18 años
Principales Resultados <p>Los chicos ejercen VFP física en mayor medida que las chicas, mientras que se observa el caso inverso en la VFP verbal, donde la participación de las chicas es mayor. En ambos casos, la frecuencia de la violencia es mayor hacia la madre que hacia el padre.</p> <p>La VFP se asocia a los conflictos y la falta de cohesión afectiva como factores de riesgo familiares.</p> <p>Factores individuales como la sintomatología depresiva, el sentimiento de soledad, el malestar psicológico, nivel de satisfacción con la vida, dificultad para expresar emociones o interactuar emocionalmente, la empatía y el consumo de drogas también correlacionan con la VFP.</p>				
Artículo 7: Protective factors for adolescent violence against authority				

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Ibabe, I., Jaureguizar, J., & Bentler, P. M.	<i>The Spanish journal of psychology</i> (2013)	<p><i>The Family Environment Scale</i> (FES; Moos & Moos, 1981; Spanish version adapted by TEA Ediciones, 1984).</p> <p><i>The Classroom Environment Scale</i> (CES; Moos & Trickett, 1974; Spanish version adapted by Fernández-Ballesteros & Sierra, 1984)</p> <p><i>Antisocial and Criminal Behavior Scale</i> ASB (Allsopp and Feldman 1976, adapted by Seisdedos, 1988)</p> <p><i>Violent Behavior toward Authority Figures Scale</i>(fue creada para el presente estudio)</p> <p>Cuestionario de Conductas hacia las Figuras de Autoridad (escala ad hoc)</p>	<p>El objetivo de este estudio fue analizar el papel protector de un clima familiar y escolar positivo, frente a la violencia contra figuras de autoridad (padres y profesores), así como el papel que juega la conducta antisocial en este tipo de violencia.</p>	687 estudiantes de la provincia de Gipuzkoa (España), de ambos性 (50.1% chicos) de edades comprendidas 12 y 16 años
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Principales Resultados

La cohesión familiar muestra una relación inversa con conductas de abuso hacia los padres, lo que sugiere que un ambiente familiar positivo actúa como factor protector para el desarrollo de conductas violentas hacia los padres.

Tanto el ambiente familiar como el escolar tuvieron efectos directos sobre la conducta violenta del adolescente, mientras que las conductas antisociales mostraron un efecto mediador en dicha relación.

Además se concluye que el ambiente familiar es mejor predictor de la conducta violenta que el ambiente escolar.

Artículo 8: The contribution of family relationships to child-to-parent violence

Ibabe, I., & Bentler, P. M.	<i>Journal of family violence</i> (2016)	<p><i>Conflict Tactics Scale Child-Parents</i> (CTS1; Straus et al. 1998)</p> <p><i>Dimensions of Discipline Inventory</i> (DDI-C; Straus and Fauchier 2007; Spanish adaptation by Calvete et al. 2010).</p> <p><i>Family Environmental Scale</i> (FES; Moos and Moos 1981; Spanish version adapted by TEA Ediciones 1984).</p> <p><i>Prosocial Behavior in Family Scale</i> (adaptation of the Behaviors toward Authority Figures Scale, Jaureguizar et al. 2013).</p>	<p>Analizar la importancia de la calidad de las relaciones familiares y las diferentes estrategias de disciplina familiar con respecto al comportamiento violento o prosocial de los adolescentes hacia sus padres.</p>	585 adolescentes del País Vasco (España) de ambos性 (49 % chicos), y de edades comprendidas entre 12 y 18 años.
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Principales Resultados

Las relaciones familiares tenían efectos directos sobre la violencia hacia los padres.

Así pues, la disciplina familiar basada en la asertividad mostró un efecto mediador en esta relación .

Se encontró que tanto la afectividad familiar como las propias relaciones de los miembros de la misma son los aspectos más importantes a la hora de prevenir comportamientos violentos de los adolescentes.

Artículo 9: Adolescents who assault their parents: a different family profile of young offenders?

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Contreras, L., & Cano, M. C	<i>Violence and victims</i> (2014)	<p>Análisis de los expedientes legales, de los cuales se extrajeron las siguientes variables familiares:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Socio-estructurales: tipo de familia, estado civil de los padres, posición ordinal entre hermanos y estatus económico - Dinámicas: Estilos parentales, relación entre los padres, abuso de drogas en la familia, conductas delictivas en la familia. 	<p>El objetivo del estudio fue comparar y observar las diferencias que existen en las familias de jóvenes que han ejercido conductas violentas hacia sus padres y jóvenes que han cometido otro tipo de delito.</p>	654 jóvenes infractores es (568 hombres y 86 mujeres con una media de edad de 15.87
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Principales Resultados

Los resultados muestran que sí existen diferencias en las variables familiares estudiadas en función del tipo de delito que ha cometido el adolescente.

Se encuentran diferencias en variables familiares tales como: tamaño de la familia, tipo de hogar, estilos de crianza y patrones de interacción de los miembros de la familia.

Artículo 10: **Violent and prosocial behavior by adolescents toward parents and teachers in a community sample.**

Jaureguizar, J., Ibabe, I., & Straus, M. A.	<i>Psychology in the Schools</i> (2013)	<p><i>Family Relationships</i> (FES, Moos & Moos, 1981; Spanish version was adapted by TEA Ediciones, 1984)</p> <p><i>Classroom Relationships</i> (CES; Moos and Trickett, 1974; Spanish version was adapted by Fernández-Ballesteros & Sierra, 1984)</p> <p><i>Antisocial and Criminal Behavior Scale A-C</i> (Spanish version of the Antisocial Behavior-ASB and Behavior Questionnaire-CC by Allsopp & Feldman, 1976; Spanish version was adapted by Seisdedos, 1988)</p> <p><i>Behaviors Toward Authority Figures Scale</i> (Jaureguizar & Ibabe, 2012)</p>	<p>El objetivo de este estudio fue estudiar los comportamientos agresivos y prosociales de los adolescentes hacia sus padres y profesores y la relación de dichos comportamientos con la percepción del contexto escolar y familiar.</p>	687 adolescentes de la provincia de Gipuzkoa (España) de edades comprendidas entre 12 y 16 años
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Principales Resultados

Una relación positiva del adolescente con su familia se asocia a menores niveles de conductas violentas y mayores niveles de conductas prosociales.

En lo que se refiere al contexto escolar, las relaciones positivas en el aula solo se relacionan con las conductas prosociales.

Los resultados muestran que las conductas antisociales y delictivas juegan un papel mediador en las relaciones tanto familiares como en el aula y en las conductas violentas contra las figuras de autoridad.

Artículo 11: **Predictores familiares de la violencia filio-parental: el papel de la disciplina familiar.**

Ibabe, I.	<i>Anales de psicología (2015)</i>	<p><i>Escalas Tácticas para Conflictos Hijo-Padres</i> (CTS1; Straus, Hamby, Finkel- hor, Moore y Runyan, 1998)</p> <p><i>Escalas Tácticas Revisadas</i> (CTS2; Straus, Hamby, Boney-Mccoy y Sugarman, 1996).</p> <p><i>Inventario de Dimensiones de Disciplina</i> (DDI-C; Straus y Fauchier, 2007; adaptación española de Calvete et al., 2010)</p> <p><i>Escala de Clima Social Familiar</i> (FES; Moos y Moos, 1981; adaptación española de TEA ediciones, 1984)</p> <p><i>Escala de Conductas hacia las Figuras de Autoridad</i> (Jaureguizar e Ibabe, 2012).</p>	<p>El objetivo principal de este estudio era analizar el papel de las relaciones paternofiliales y la disciplina familiar en el desarrollo de conductas violentas y prosociales de los adolescentes hacia sus padres</p>	<p>585 hijos/as (48% chicos) entre 12 y 18 años procedentes de 8 centros escolares de la Comunidad Autónoma del País Vasco.</p>
Principales Resultados				

Los resultados indican que las relaciones familiares basadas en el afecto y la comunicación son las que favorecen las conductas prosociales de los hijos, y reducen las conductas violentas de éstos en el hogar

Por otra parte, las estrategias de disciplina parental coercitivas y las estrategias parcialmente coercitivas (supervisión y coste de respuesta) se asocian a un mayor nivel de violencia física y psicológica de los hijos adolescentes hacia sus padres

I.1.2 CRIANZA Y CONDUCTA: EL ROL DE LAS EMOCIONES EN ADOLESCENTES DELINCUENTES Y NO DELINCUENTES.

Los artículos que se presentan en la Tesis se han centrado mas en los procesos emocionales y cognitivos que regulan la conducta adaptada y desadaptada en la adolescencia, pero se han evaluado y analizado también los estilos de crianza en la adolescencia en población delincuente y población escolarizada normalmente.

Presentamos a continuación los principales resultados obtenidos en las muestras evaluadas.

Los participantes son los mismos que en los artículos que se incluyen en la tesis. Una muestra formada por 220 adolescentes que fueron seleccionados de manera aleatoria de diez centros públicos y concertados dentro del área metropolitana de Valencia, 145 chicos (65.9%) y 75 chicas (34.1%). Las edades de los sujetos abarcan un rango de 15-18 años, presentando una media de edad de 16.40 con una desviación estándar de 1.25. En lo que respecta a la clase social de adolescentes estudiados observamos que la mayor parte proceden de familias de una clase social III o media (35.9%) y clase social IV o

media baja (37.7%). Nos encontramos en menor medida familias de clase social II o media alta (11.8%) y clase social V o baja (8.2%) (Hollinshead, 1975).

Una segunda muestra formada por 220 jóvenes infractores que fueron reclutados de cuatro centros de menores de la Comunidad Valenciana. Entre los delitos por los que estos jóvenes cumplían una medida judicial destacan la violencia contra sus progenitores, daños contra el patrimonio, delitos contra la salud pública y delitos contra de la integridad de las personas. En cuanto al sexo de los participantes en la muestra de menores infractores nos encontramos un total de 148 chicos (67.3%) y 72 chicas (32.7%). En lo que respecta a los chicos y chicas institucionalizados encontramos una media de edad de 16.22 y una desviación estándar de 1.49. En referencia al tipo de delito por el cual los adolescentes cumplían una medida judicial en el centro nos encontramos que el más prevalente es la violencia filio-parental (60.7%) seguido de robo con fuerza (33.7%) y en menor medida les siguen delitos como atentado a la autoridad (2.6%), incumplimiento de libertad vigilada (2%) y lesiones (1%).

En relación con la clase social de los adolescentes que se encuentran cumpliendo una medida judicial, la mayor parte de las familias se sitúan en la clase social IV o media baja (51.4%), seguida de la clase social III o media (23.2%) y en menor medida encontramos familias pertenecientes una clase social II o media alta (3.2%) y clase social V o baja (6.8%).

Por tanto, se trata de dos muestras equiparadas en cuanto las variables personales y sociales.

Los instrumentos que ambas muestras cumplimentaron se describen a continuación.

Escala de Agresión Física y Verbal (Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale; Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993, versión española por Del Barrio, Moreno, y López, 2001) Evalúa la conducta de hacer daño a otros, de forma física y verbal. Consta de 20 ítems con tres alternativas de respuesta (a menudo, a veces o nunca). Ejemplo de ítem: “Hablo mal de mis compañeros.” El alpha de Cronbach fue de .90.

Emotional Instability Scale (IE, Caprara y Pastorelli, 1993; Del Barrio et al., 2001) Describe la conducta que indica una falta de autocontrol en situaciones sociales como resultado de la escasa capacidad para frenar la impulsividad y emocionalidad. Ejemplo de ítem “Interrumpo a los demás cuando hablan”. El Alpha de Cronbach fue de .85.

Prosocial Behavior (CP, Caprara y Pastorelli 1993; Del Barrio et al., 2001) para evaluar los comportamientos de ayuda, la confianza y la simpatía a través de 15 ítems con tres alternativas de respuesta (a menudo, a veces, o nunca), dependiendo de la frecuencia con la que el participante se involucra en una conducta determinada. Un ejemplo es el ítem, "Trato de ayudar a los demás." El alpha de Crombach fue de .81.

Child Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI, Samper, Cortés, Mestre, Nácher & Tur 2006; Schaefer 1965) Este cuestionario utiliza 38 elementos para evaluar los estilos de crianza que establecen las relaciones padre-hijo desde el punto de vista del adolescente. Hay tres respuestas posibles: 1 (nunca), 2 (a veces), y 3 (siempre). El instrumento se compone de cuatro factores. El apoyo y la comunicación se refiere a la percepción de apoyo emocional y afecto percibido por los niños, junto con el respeto a las reglas previamente establecidas. Un ejemplo de ítem es, "Él o ella le gusta hablar de noticias conmigo." Se estableció un alpha de Cronbach de .94 Ofertas de control negativo / psicológicas con el control intrusivo, basada en la culpa, irritabilidad, y la evaluación de rechazo hacia el hijo o hija. Un ejemplo de ítem es, "Él o ella quiere controlar todo lo que hago." Se obtuvo un alpha de Cronbach de .89 La permisividad se dirige a la tendencia de los padres para que sus hijos hacen lo que quieren con un desconocimiento de las reglas o límites. Un ejemplo de ítem es, "Él o ella me deja salir cuando quiera." El alpha de Cronbach de esta escala es .75. Por último, negligencia alude a la falta de control y la indiferencia hacia las necesidades de los niños. Un ejemplo de ítem es, "Él o ella se olvida de darme lo que necesito" se obtuvo un alpha de Cronbach de .79.

El objetivo se centra en analizar la relación entre los estilos de crianza del padre y la madre (apoyo, control negativo, negligencia y permisividad) y la conducta prosocial y agresiva, incluyendo el rol mediador de las emociones negativas (inestabilidad emocional) y emociones positivas (preocupación empática). Se trata de comparar el efecto de la relación con los padres en ambos grupos de adolescentes, delincuentes y no delincuentes.

A continuación se muestran los principales resultados obtenidos en los Modelos de Ecuaciones Estructurales.

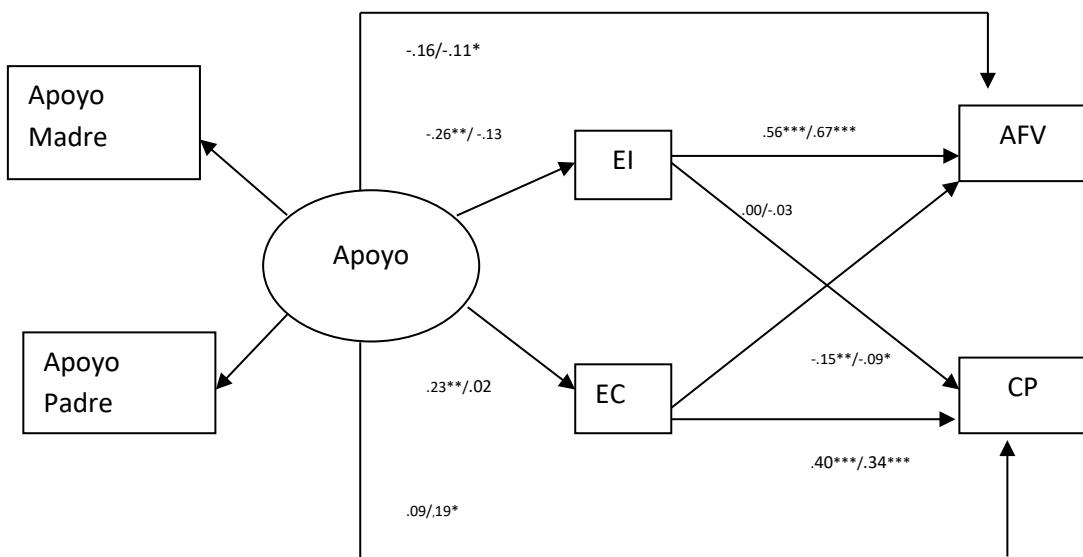


Figura 1. Valores de coeficientes estandarizados de path de no infractores e infractores correspondientes al estilo parental apoyo. Valores estandarizados. IE = Inestabilidad Emocional; AFV = Agresividad Física y Verbal; CP: Conducta Prosocial

Nota. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

Nota. No infractores valor izquierdo, infractores valor derecho.

Tabla 3.

Análisis multigrupo correspondiente al estilo parental aceptación y comparación de los modelos a través de los cambios en el Ji cuadrao y en el índice de ajuste CFI

	χ^2	df	p	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta\chi^2/d$	ΔCFI
									f		
Model 1	42.148	10	.00	4.215	.97	.88	.94	.008			
Model 2	48.292	15	.00	3.219	.96	.91	.93	.011	6.14	5	
Model 3	60.503	19	.00	3.184	.96	.91	.92	.012	12.21	4	.01
Model 4	61.832	20	.00	3.092	.96	.90	.92	.014	1.329	1	.01
Model 5	95.122	26	.00	3.659	.93	.89	.87	.017	33.29	6	.00
Model 6	593.422	30	.00	19.781	.70	.58	.00	.042	498.3	4	.05

Modelo 1 (Unconstrained); Modelo 2 (Measurement weights); Modelo 3 (Structural weights); Modelo 4 (Structural covariances); Modelo 5 (Structural residuals); Modelo 6 (Measurement residuals)

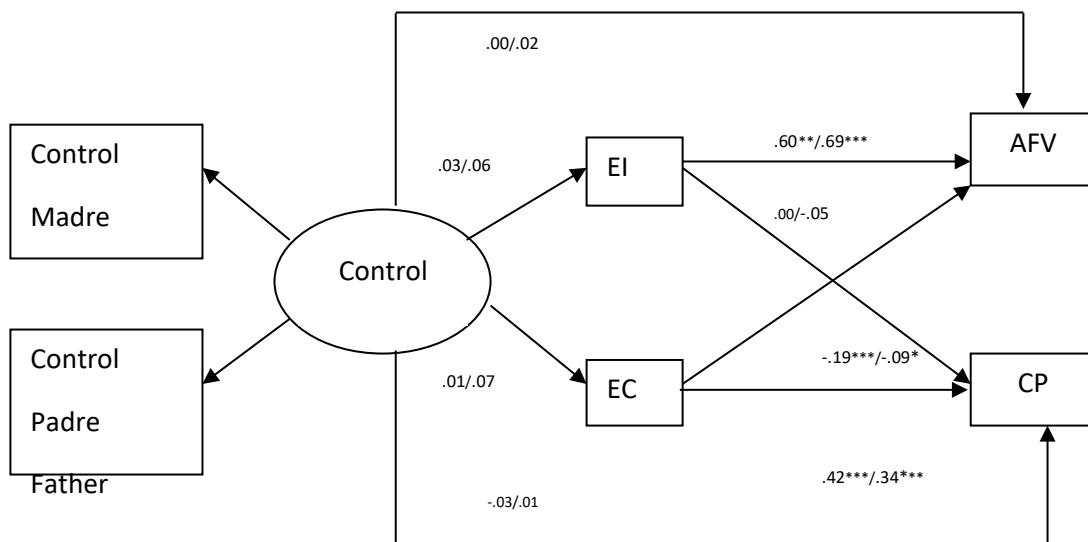


Figura 2. Valores de coeficientes estandarizados de path de no infractores e infractores correspondientes al estilo control negativo. Valores estandarizados. IE = Inestabilidad Emocional; AFV = Agresividad Física y Verbal; CP: Conducta Prosocial

Nota. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

Nota. No infractores valor izquierdo, infractores valor derecho.

Tabla 4.

Análisis multigrupo correspondiente al estilo control negativo y comparación de los modelos a través de los cambios en el Ji cuadrao y en el índice de ajuste CFI

	χ^2	df	p	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta\chi^2/\text{df}$	ΔCFI
Model 1	4.804	10	.00	4.880	.96	.85	.93	.013			
Model 2	53.845	15	.00	3.590	.96	.89	.93	.014	49.04	5	
Model 3	64.894	19	.00	3.415	.95	.90	.92	.015	11.04	4	.00
Model 4	64.899	20	.00	3.245	.95	.90	.92	.015	0.005	1	.01
Model 5	109.583	26	.00	4.215	.92	.87	.85	.019	44.684	6	.00
Model 6	571.722	30	.00	19.057	.72	.62	.00	.038	462.14	4	.07

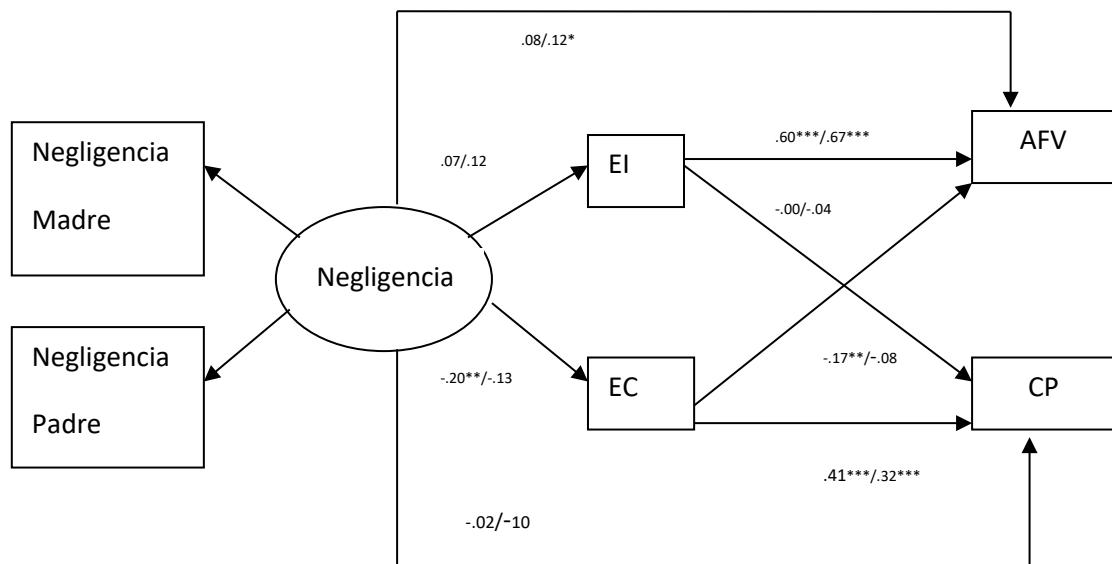


Figure 3. Valores de coeficientes estandarizados de path de no infractores e infractores correspondientes al estilo negligencia. Valores estandarizados. IE = Inestabilidad Emocional; AFV = Agresividad Física y Verbal; CP: Conducta Prosocial

Nota. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

Nota. No infractores valor izquierdo, infractores valor derecho.

Tabla 5.

Análisis multigrupo correspondiente al estilo negligencia y comparación de los modelos a través de los cambios en el Ji cuadrao y en el índice de ajuste CFI

	χ^2	Df	p	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta\chi^2/\text{df}$	ΔCFI
Model 1	41.526	10	.00	4.15	.97	.88	.94	.010			
Model 2	43.229	15	.00	2.88	.97	.91	.94	.010	1.70	5	
Model 3	53.704	19	.00	2.83	.96	.92	.93	.012	10.47	4	.00
Model 4	56.194	20	.00	2.81	.96	.92	.93	.014	2.49	1	.01
Model 5	102.648	26	.00	3.95	.93	.88	.85	.025	46.45	6	.00
Model 6	552.840	30	.00	18.42	.73	.61	.00	.045	450.19	4	.08

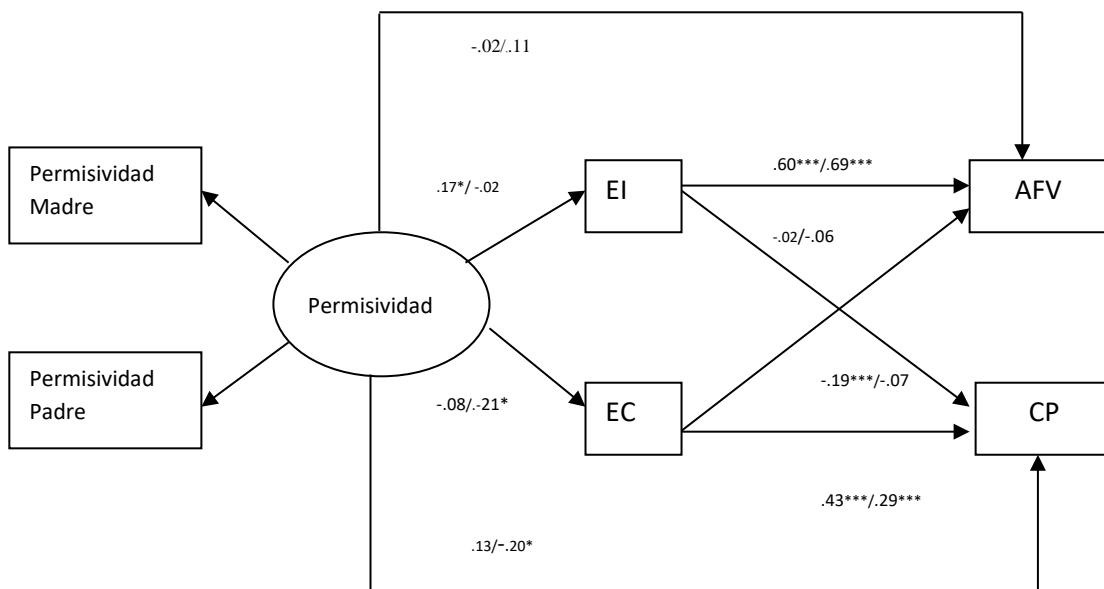


Figure 4. Valores de coeficientes estandarizados de path de no infractores e infractores correspondientes al estilo permisividad. Valores estandarizados. IE = Inestabilidad Emocional; AFV = Agresividad Física y Verbal; CP: Conducta Prosocial

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

Note. No infractores valor izquierdo, infractores valor derecho.

Tabla 6.

Análisis multigrupo correspondiente al estilo permisividad y comparación de los modelos a través de los cambios en el Ji cuadrao y en el índice de ajuste CFI

	χ^2	Df	p	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta\chi^2/\text{df}$	ΔCFI
Model 1	42.776	10	.00	4.28	.97	.87	.94	.009			
Model 2	60.191	15	.00	4.01	.96	.88	.93	.014	17.42	5	
Model 3	71.426	19	.00	3.76	.95	.89	.92	.015	11.24	4	.01
Model 4	71.784	20	.00	3.59	.95	.89	.91	.016	.36	1	.01
Model 5	127.926	26	.00	4.92	.91	.86	.82	.024	56.14	6	.00
Model 6	603.769	30	.00	20.13	.72	.61	.00	.05	475.84	4	.09

Las diferentes ecuaciones estructurales muestran que el apoyo del padre y de la madre promueve la conducta prosocial e inhibe la agresividad física y verbal en el grupo de delincuentes, a la vez que inhibe la inestabilidad emocional y desarrolla la empatía en los no delincuentes. Por el contrario, el estilo de crianza caracterizado por padres ausentes, que no atienden las necesidades de los hijos (negligencia) es un factor de riesgo, ya que favorece la conducta agresiva en los delincuentes y disminuye la preocupación empática en los no delincuentes. La permisividad extrema también resulta ser un estilo de crianza negativo al inhibir la preocupación empática y la conducta prosocial en los delincuentes y favorecer la inestabilidad emocional en los no delincuentes. El control negativo por parte de los padres no mantiene una relación ni con la conducta ni con las emociones en ninguno de los dos grupos de adolescentes.

En general, los estilos de crianza parecen tener un efecto mas directo sobre la conducta de los delincuentes. El estilo de crianza caracterizado por el apoyo, afecto, comunicación, normas y coherencia en su aplicación resulta ser el estilo de crianza mas positivo para el desarrollo personal de los hijos e hijas, ejerciendo un efecto directo sobre la conducta de los adolescentes que han delinquido, favoreciendo la conducta prosocial e inhibiendo la agresividad física y verbal. La crianza caracterizada por la negligencia o indiferencia de los padres ante las necesidades de los hijos y su falta de

control tiene efectos negativos, dado que actúa directamente sobre la agresividad en los delincuentes e inhibe la empatía en los no delincuentes. Efectos similares tiene la permisividad extrema de los padres (hijos sin reglas ni límites) sobre la conducta y las emociones de los hijos e hijas, ya que actúa como inhibidor de la empatía y la conducta prosocial en la población delincuente, a la vez que facilita la inestabilidad emocional en la población general.

Por tanto, se constata la importancia de los estilos de crianza en adolescentes delincuentes (la mayoría por violencia filio-parental) y no delincuentes, aunque los efectos de las relaciones con los padres son diferentes en cada grupo.

II. OBJETIVOS

El objetivo general de la investigación era analizar el perfil diferencial de los adolescentes delincuentes que están cumpliendo una medida judicial (en su mayor parte por violencia filio-parental) y los no delincuentes. El perfil se centra en las emociones y procesos cognitivos, así como en los dos contextos de socialización más relevantes: la familia y el grupo de iguales.

Esta Tesis Doctoral se basa en los resultados de la evaluación realizada en población adolescente escolarizada en Centros de Educación Primaria y Secundaria y en adolescentes que han delinquido y cumplen una medida judicial en Centros de Menores. Se presentan seis estudios científicos con los siguientes objetivos específicos:

1. Dada la importancia que las emociones y la inestabilidad emocional tienen en la adolescencia, el objetivo del primer estudio fue analizar las variables predictoras de la inestabilidad emocional en los últimos años de la infancia y los primeros de la adolescencia, considerando variables personales, los estilos de crianza de los padres y la relación con los iguales.
2. Continuando en el estudio de las emociones en la adolescencia, y dada la incidencia de la ansiedad y la depresión en esta etapa evolutiva, el objetivo del segundo estudio fue establecer, a través de un diseño longitudinal, las variables con mayor poder predictor de los síntomas de ansiedad y aquellas que discriminan entre los adolescentes más o menos ansiosos. Se trata de diferenciar entre los procesos cognitivos y las emociones que facilitan los síntomas de ansiedad y aquellos que protegen a los adolescentes de dichos síntomas.

3. Dada la comorbilidad entre ansiedad y depresión, el objetivo del tercer estudio fue analizar las variables mas relacionadas con la depresión, en concreto, la interacción entre afectos negativos (inestabilidad emocional, ira estado y rasgo, agresividad física y verbal y depresión), analizando las relaciones en nuestra muestra a través del tiempo.
4. A partir de los resultados obtenidos en población general los estudios siguientes se centran en comparar el funcionamiento de las emociones y su relación con la conducta en adolescentes delincuentes y no delincuentes. El objetivo del cuarto estudio fue comparar las relaciones entre inestabilidad emocional y ansiedad, depresión y agresividad moduladas por la ira en ambos grupos.
5. A partir de los resultados obtenidos en el estudio de las emociones se decide incorporar procesos cognitivos en la predicción de la conducta adaptada (conducta prosocial) y la conducta desadaptada (agresividad física y verbal). El objetivo del quinto estudio fue analizar los procesos cognitivos (razonamiento moral prosocial, toma de perspectiva) y los procesos emocionales (preocupación empática, inestabilidad emocional, ira estado-rasgo) que interactúan en la predicción de la conducta agresiva física y verbal y en la conducta prosocial, tanto en los adolescentes delincuentes, como en los que no han delinquido.
6. Si bien diferentes estudios han analizado la relación entre emociones negativas y falta de regulación emocional en la conducta agresiva, hay menos investigación que incluya procesos cognitivo-emocionales, como la conciencia emocional y la autoeficacia emocional. El objetivo de este ultimo estudio era analizar el rol mediador de la autoeficacia emocional y la inestabilidad emocional entre la conciencia emocional y la agresividad y la ira. Se trata de poner a prueba este modelo en población delincuente y no delincuente.

CAPÍTULO II:

ARTÍCULOS EMPÍRICOS

ARTICLE 1

Emotional Instability in Late Childhood and Early Adolescence: Parenting
and Peer Attachment

Article 1: Emotional Instability in Late Childhood and Early Adolescence: Parenting and Peer Attachment

Abstract

The aim of this study is to analyze the predictive variables of emotional instability in late childhood and early adolescence, considering the role of parents and peers. Effects were analyzed separately by child gender. We examined parenting styles and peer attachment. Personal variables were empathy, anger, and the mechanisms used to cope with this anger (externalization and self-control). Participants were 610 students, 316 female and 294 male, aged 9 to 12. Main gender differences for each variable were examined using one-way ANOVAS. Two multiple linear regression analyses (one for boys and one for girls) explained 50.9% and 35.5% of variance in emotional instability. The effect of peer attachment was greater than the effect of parenting styles in predicting emotional instability.

Keywords: Parenting, Emotional Instability, Peer attachment, Empathy

Emotional instability is usually defined as a tendency to exhibit rapid, unexpected, intense affective reactions. Likely causes of aggressive tendencies and difficulties in prosocial behaviors are emotional dysregulation and intense emotional responding, which are basic features of emotional instability (Carlo et al., 2012; Koenigsberg, 2010). Emotional instability is associated with high levels of aggression (Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur, & Armenta, 2010a; Mestre, Samper, Tur-Porcar, Richaud, & Mesurado, 2012), addictive behaviors, behavioral problems, and borderline personality (Mehroof & Griffiths, 2010). Generally, a high level of regulation is adaptive and healthy, whereas less regulation is maladaptive (Bariola, Hughes, & Gullone, 2012).

In this sense, research has indicated the importance of emotional regulation and self-control in the development of empathy, prosocial behavior, and acceptance between peers during childhood and adolescence (Caprara, Di Giunta, Pastorelli, & Eisenberg, 2013; Nocentini, Pastorelli, & Menesini, 2013). Conversely, research has shown that impulsiveness hinders relationships between peers and is strongly related to aggression. People who have little self-control and are sometimes irritable and impulsive are more prone to externalizing behavioral problems in childhood, during adolescence, and later in adulthood. Therefore, more emotionally unstable individuals—with fewer resources to curb impulsiveness—are more prone to aggression, whereas adolescents who are more empathic—and who therefore have greater emotional control—are more prosocial (Carlo et al., 2010a; Rodriguez, Mirón & Rial, 2012). In other words, control processes regulate emotions and behaviors, and enable acceptance by peers (Delgado, Oliva, & Sánchez-Queija, 2011). Secure attachment with peers is essential for adolescents to develop social skills. It provides emotional support that transmits security (Escobar, Fernández-Baena, Miranda, Trianes, & Cowie, 2011). Studies of adolescents have shown that emotional instability is the best predictor of aggressive behavior. Conversely, empathy, prosocial behavior, and self-control of rage inhibit aggression (Carlo et al., 2010a; Carlo et al., 2012). Furthermore, studies have confirmed the need to include empathy and emotional regulation among the factors related to psychological and social adaptation, and peer attachment (Samper, Mestre, Malonda, & Mesurado, 2015).

The literature depicts the family as the main environment where children establish behavioral and social adjustment models (Bronfenbrenner, 1987, 2005). These models guide children through their personal and social transition into adulthood. In this context, parenting style affects children's capabilities to establish social relationships and self-regulate behavior. At

the same time, learning processes and temperament regulate effects of parenting style. Through temperament and learning processes, children can react to parents with differing degrees of adaptation or resistance. Thus, an emotionally unstable and impulsive child may provoke a more hostile reaction from parents that makes the child react with greater aggression (Wahl & Metzner, 2012).

In recent years, studies have highlighted that control in parent-child relationships coupled with warmth and affection are determinant factors in children's social and emotional development (Garthe, Sullivan, & Kliewer, 2015; Ramirez-Lucas, Ferrando, & Sainz, 2015). An excess of parental control may deprive children of the opportunity to develop their autonomy. In contrast, parents' warmth and affection—characterized by positive approval of the child—coupled with a set of coherent, steady rules positively affects children's psychological adjustment (Carlo et al., 2010a; Khaleque, 2012).

These studies analyze together as a whole, parenting styles of fathers and of mothers. Nevertheless, are few studies (e.g. Tur, Mestre, Samper, & Malonda, 2012; Wahl & Metzner, 2012) that have separately analyzed the father's and mother's parenting styles and their effects on children's emotional development and behavior. Differences in mothers' and fathers' roles in predicting children's behavior and emotional development imply that gender is an important variable in research on parenting styles.

In this prediction, in addition to the family, intervenes school environment, ie, the place where children interact with each other as they develop and where children establish relationships with peers.

In this sense, the peer acceptance among children and adolescents is associated with an ability to perceive emotions and solve problems. Researchers have identified emotional variables such as emotion regulation and empathy as processes that help children and adolescents build relationships, and hence adjust socially. Conversely, impulsiveness hinders social adjustment (Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur, & Armenta, 2010b; Mestre et al., 2012).

Furthermore, in preadolescence (age that our work is focused), self-efficacy and empathy are related to peer attachment. The emotional component of empathy is considered a controlled emotion that is directed toward the feelings of others (Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie, & Reiser, 2000). Accordingly, the emotional component of empathy counteracts impulsiveness and a lack of self-control (Carlo et al., 2010b; Carlo et al., 2012).

In all this context exposed, in addition to the importance of gender in parenting style, psychologists have reported gender differences in children's empathy, personal variables, peer attachment (Mestre, Samper, Frías, & Tur, 2009; Rodríguez, Miron, & Rial, 2012). And longitudinal studies have shown that gender differences increase with age (Garaigordobil & García de Galdeano, 2006; Van der Graaff, Branje, De Wied, & Meeus, 2012). Relations with peers become increasingly important between the ages of 10 and 20, when linkages with peers begin to satisfy adolescents' attachment needs. In contrast, during childhood, parents usually satisfy these needs. In this sense, adolescence marks a period of transition whereby dependence on parental relations shifts to dependence on peer relationships (Zeifman & Hazan, 2008). Research has shown the influence of parental relations as antecedents of relations among peers, with gender as a mediator of personal relationships (Cai, Hardy, Olsenc, Nelson, & Yamawakib, 2013; Pérez & Alvarado, 2015). Accordingly, between early adolescence and early adulthood, adolescents' peer attachment increases significantly, with girls obtaining higher scores, principally during early adolescence. These differences diminish as adolescents become older.

Recent research has focused on analyzing how parenting styles affect children's personal and social development (Pérez & Alvarado, 2015; Ramirez et al., 2015). Another line of research has focused on the importance of peer relations (Groh et al., 2014, Samper et al., 2015). However, little research, has simultaneously examined the effects of parenting styles and peer relations. The current study contributes to the literature by analyzing mothers' and fathers' parenting styles, peer attachment, and personal variables related to the expression of emotions such as anger and empathy. The aim of this study was to determine how these variables affect a key factor of children's emotional development: emotional instability. To achieve this aim, we investigated to what extent parenting style and parent-child relationships affect the development of psychological processes that aid social interaction and prevent emotional instability, impulsiveness, and a lack of self-control in situations of tension. In addition, the study identified parenting styles that correlate with emotional instability. Furthermore, results show how peer attachment affects emotional instability.

We studied late childhood and preadolescence (ages 9–12 years). At this age, while parenting style remains important in children's education and development, children begin to encounter a greater degree of pressure and influence from peers. Furthermore, this age range is also when gender differences begin to arise and broaden. Our general objective was to analyze the

effect of different parenting styles, personal variables (emotional and cognitive), and peer attachment on emotional instability. We paid special attention to gender differences in both parents and children. Within this general objective, we formulated the following specific objectives: a) to analyze gender differences in parenting style, attachment with peers, and personal variables; and b) to analyze the effect of parenting styles, peer attachment, and personal variables (i.e., empathy and anger) on the dependent variable (i.e., emotional instability).

Method

Participants

The sample comprised 610 students, 316 female and 294 male, with an age range of 9 to 12 years old, randomly selected from public and private schools in Valencia (Spain). Students were in either the fifth year of primary education or the first year of compulsory secondary education. They are families from middle and lower-middle socioeconomic status. Parents' educational level was: higher studies: fathers 33%, mothers 34%; secondary studies: fathers 28%, mothers 28%; and primary studies: fathers 20%, mothers 22%. We ask to students for the presence of both parents at home. The majority of students responded that both the father and mother lived at home (74%). The remaining 26% of students came from families in which one of the parents did not live at home for one of the following reasons: parents were separated or divorced (21%), parents were absent for some other reason (4%), or one of the parents had died (1%).

Procedure

Eleven schools participated. We obtained IRB approval from the school council and ensured parental consent before working with students. Students participated voluntarily. Trained research staff administered the survey during school hours to groups of students in two 45-minute sessions in students' classrooms.

Measures

All measures were self-report. We adapted all measures for our use. All measures were validated in samples of Spanish adolescents.

Parenting styles. The questionnaire on parenting styles was adapted from *Children's Reports of Parental Behavior: An Inventory* (Samper, Cortés, Mestre, Nácher, & Tur, 2006; Schaefer,

1965). The questionnaire comprised 38 items evaluating parenting styles that defined students' parent-child relationships, according to students' perceptions. Examples items were: "He/She [father/mother] likes to talk to me," "He/She often praises me," and "He/She loses control when I don't follow his/her advice." Participants used a 3-point scale (1 = *situation always applies* - 3 = *situation never applies*) to indicate the degree to which several family situations applied to them. We urged participants to respond considering fathers' and mothers' behaviors separately. Factors. *Permissiveness*: extreme *laissez-faire*, complete freedom without rules or limits (mother: $\alpha = .66$ and father: $\alpha = .65$); *Autonomy and love*: stimulating sociability and independent thinking (mother: $\alpha = .76$ and father: $\alpha = .74$); *Love*: positive evaluation, expressions of affection, emotional support (mother $\alpha = .76$ and father: $\alpha = .77$); *Love and control*: intellectual stimulation of children, discipline centered on the child (mother: $\alpha = .86$ and father: $\alpha = .90$); *Control*: intrusion, control through guilt and paternal direction (mother: $\alpha = .78$ and father: $\alpha = .75$); *Control and hostility*: application of strict rules, punishment, and squabbles (mother: $\alpha = .68$ and father: $\alpha = .70$); *Hostility*: predominance of irritability, negative evaluation, and rejection (mother: $\alpha = .76$ and father: $\alpha = .77$); *Hostility and negligence*: hostility and simultaneous extreme autonomy, children's perceptions of parental negligence (mother: $\alpha = .67$ and father: $\alpha = .69$).

Emotional instability. *The Emotional Instability Scale* (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; Del Barrio, Moreno, & López, 2001) comprised 15 items to measure behaviors that indicated a lack of self-control in social situations owing to a limited ability to restrain impulsiveness and emotionality. Example items were: "I interrupt others when they speak," and "I can't keep still." The scale shows an acceptable level of reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .85$).

Empathy. *The Interpersonal Reactivity Index* (IRI) (Davis, 1980; Mestre, Frías, & Samper, 2004) used two emotional factors (*Empathic Concern* and *Personal Distress*) and two cognitive factors (*Perspective Taking* and *Fantasy*) to evaluate participants' empathetic disposition. Each factor had seven items such as "The problems of others worry me" (*Empathic Concern*: Cronbach's $\alpha = .73$). "When I must decide, I listen to different opinions" (*Perspective Taking*: Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$). "I identify with the characters of a novel" (*Fantasy*: Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$), and "When I see someone hurt, I get upset" (*Personal Distress*: Cronbach's $\alpha = .72$). Items were measured on a 5-point scale (1 = *does not describe you well*, 5 = *describes you very well*). Several studies using European, North American, and

Spanish samples have demonstrated the IRI's adequate psychometric properties (Davis, 1983; Mestre et al., 2004; 2009).

Anger. *The State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI)* (Del Barrio, Aluja, & Spielberger, 2003; Del Barrio, Spielberger, & Moscoso, 1998) evaluated students' anger as a state (13 items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$) and as a trait (10 items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$). The STAXI was also used to evaluate mechanisms to confront this anger (externalization: 9 items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .69$; self-control: 13 items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$) in situations that provoke anger. Example items were: "I'm furious," "I feel like yelling," "I've got a strong personality," "When I'm angry I prefer to be alone," and "I slam doors."

Peer Attachment. *Attachment to Peers* (taken from the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA); Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). This instrument used 12 items to evaluate behavioral and affective/cognitive dimensions of adolescents' peer attachment. Example items were: "My friends respect my feelings," "I tell my friends about my problems and difficulties," and "If my friends know that something is worrying me, they ask me about it." Cronbach's alpha for this index was .68.

Data Analysis

First, SPSS 19 was used to calculate means and standard deviations and to perform ANOVAs to study mean differences between boys and girls for each variable to test for mean differences across genders. Correlation analysis was carried out to test the relationships among variables. Finally, two multiple linear regression analyses (one for boys and one for girls) were calculated to establish whether parents or peers better predict emotional instability.

Results

Preliminary Analysis

We used one-way ANOVAs to study mean differences between boys and girls for each variable. Table 1 summarizes means and standard deviations.

Table 1

Means and standard deviations

	Measure	Children overall	<i>M</i>	Male children	Female children
		(<i>SD</i>)		<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)
Emotional instability	Emotional instability	1.63 (.351)		1.70 (.366)	1.57 (.326)
	Perspective taking	3.36 (.724)		3.23 (.758)	3.49 (.670)
Empathy	Empathic concern	3.49 (.648)		3.38 (.653)	3.59 (.629)
	Personal distress	2.71 (.722)		2.61 (.708)	2.79 (.725)
	Trait	1.66 (.416)		1.66 (.434)	1.65 (.399)
Anger	State	1.09 (.245)		1.13 (.310)	1.06 (.152)
	Externalization	1.71 (.384)		1.74 (.397)	1.68 (.367)
	Self-control	2.19 (.442)		2.13 (.454)	2.24 (.424)
Peers	Peer attachment	3.63 (.630)		3.49 (.600)	3.76 (.631)
Parenting	Permissiveness (mother)	1.43 (.378)		1.44 (.407)	1.41 (.349)

Permissiveness (father)	1.40 (.389)	1.41 (.418)	1.37 (.358)
Autonomy and love (mother)	2.36 (.417)	2.34 (.435)	2.38 (.400)
Autonomy and love (father)	2.19 (.505)	2.18 (.521)	2.21 (.490)
Love (mother)	2.44 (.392)	2.42 (.414)	2.46 (.371)
Love (father)	2.30 (.485)	2.28 (.512)	2.31 (.457)
Love and control (mother)	2.31 (.439)	2.28 (.466)	2.35 (.410)
Love and control (father)	2.24 (.503)	2.22 (.525)	2.27 (.480)
Control (mother)	1.90 (.462)	1.96 (.420)	1.85 (.494)
Control (father)	1.83 (.463)	1.87 (.466)	1.70 (.458)
Control and hostility (mother)	1.98 (.480)	2.06 (.465)	1.91 (.483)
Control and hostility (father)	1.93 (.491)	1.99 (.508)	1.88 (.468)
Hostility and negligence (mother)	1.53 (.420)	1.57 (.422)	1.49 (.415)
Hostility and negligence (father)	1.54 (.456)	1.55 (.432)	1.52 (.479)

We observed significant differences between boys and girls. We noticed that boys showed more emotional instability ($F(1, 609) = 21.191, MSE = 2.53, p = .000$), state of anger ($F(1, 609) = 14.272, MSE = .836, p = .000$), and anger externalization behaviors ($F(1, 609) = 4.291, p < .05$). Girls scored more highly in perspective taking ($F(1, 609) = 18.965, MSE = .630, p = .039$), empathic concern ($F(1, 609) = 16.022, MSE = 6.57, p = .000$), personal distress ($F(1, 609) = 10.095, MSE = 5.18, p = .002$), self-control as a mechanism of confronting anger in situations that provoke tension ($F(1, 609) = 10.096, MSE = 1.94, p = .002$), and peer attachment ($F(1, 609) = 28.702, MSE = 10.90, p = .000$). Boys' perceptions of parenting styles also differed significantly from the perceptions of girls. Boys perceived greater control in their relationships with their fathers ($F(1, 609) = 4.188, MSE = .89, p = .041$) and mothers ($F(1, 609) = 7.681, MSE = 1.62, p = .006$), more control and hostility with their fathers ($F(1, 609) = 7.512, MSE = 1.79, p = .006$) and mothers ($F(1, 609) = 16.171, MSE = 3.74, p = .000$), and more hostility and negligence with their mothers ($F(1, 609) = 4.577, MSE = .80, p = .033$).

Correlational Analysis

Tables 2 and 3 show Pearson's correlation coefficients between variables. Results for boys and girls are presented separately. We observed that emotional instability was significantly positively correlated with trait (in boys and girls) and state anger (only in boys) and externalization of anger (in girls and boys). Conversely, emotional instability was negatively correlated with perspective taking, self-control, and peer attachment in boys and girls.

Table 2

Pearson's correlations between emotional instability, empathy, anger, and peer attachment

Variables	Boys								Girls							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. EI	-								-							
2. PT	.323**	-.323**	-						-.282**	-						
3. EC	-.101	.398**	-						-.107	.379**	-					
4. PD	.097	.090	.183*	-					.151**	.045	.287**	-				
5. TA	.602**	-.149**	-.059	.111**	-				.428**	-.147**	-.077	.155**	-			
6. SA	.308**	-.102*	-.041	.070	.501**	-			.089	.015	-.060	.116*	.321**	-		
7. SC	-.311**	.385**	.279**	.003	-.276**	-.209**	-		-.358**	.407**	.303**	.071	-.249**	-.107	-	
8. Ex	.588**	-.165**	-.058	.015	.638**	.436**	-.298**	-	.449**	-.125**	-.042	.097	.642**	.217**	-.237**	-
9. PA	-.242**	.354**	.210**	-.026	-.148**	-.086	.137*	-.111	-.161**	.200**	.120*	-.090	-.089	-.050	.097	-.073

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; Legend: EI = Emotional Instability; PT = Perspective Takimg; EC = Empathic Concern; PD = Personal Distress; TA = Trais Anger; SA = State Anger; SC = Self-control; Ex = Exteriorization; PA = Peers Attachment.

Table 3

Pearson's correlations between emotional instability and parental styles by gender

Boys

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. EI	-													
2. P M		.19 **	-											
3. P F		.09		.64 **	-									
4. A/L M		-.12 *		.14 *		.06	-							
5. A/L F		-.20 **		-.02		.25 **		.57 **	-					
6. L M		-.16 **		.06		.05		.60 **		.36 **	-			
7. LF		-.22 **		-.06		.21 **		.39 **		.71 **		.64 **	-	
8. L/C M		-.10		.08		.07		.55 **		.36 **		.64 **	.47 **	-
9. L/C F		-.18 **		-.04		.20 **		.35 **		.68 **		.45 **	.76 **	.66 **
10. C M		.08		.05		.10		.05		.05		.13 *	.11	.15 **
														.14 *
														-

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11. C F	.02	.01	.20**	.09	.23**	.09	.25**	.22**	.30**	.64**	-
12. C/H M	.16**	.03	-.01	.09	.05	.12*	.08	.15**	.10	.58**	.30**
13. C/H F	.05*	-.03	.11	.10	.23**	.10	.26**	.22**	.31**	.40**	.67**
14. H/N M	.27**	.10	.07	-.22**	-.13	-.21**	-.20**	-.21**	-.14*	.38**	.14*
15. H/N F	.16**	.11	.26**	-.12*	-.08	-.12*	-.09	-.05	-.04	.27**	.42**
Girls	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
1. EI	-										
2. P M	-.00	-									
3. P F	.00	.62**	-								
4. A/L M	-.16**	.09	.01	-							
5. A/L F	-.25**	.02	.17**	.56**	-						
6. L M	-.27**	.03	-.08	.65**	.35**	-					
7. LF	-.31**	-.06	.10	.38**	.73**	.59**	-				

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8. L/C M	-.16**	.01	-.05	.52**	.33**	.62**	.40**	-				
9. L/C F	-.17**	-.04	.13*	.35**	.66**	.40**	.67**	.66**	-			
10. C M	.04	0	.03	.00	-.00	-.01	-.06	.09	-.03	-		
11. C F	.06	-.01	-.03	.06	.04	.04	-.00	.12*	.09	.73**	-	
12. C/H M	-.01	-.02	.03	.03	.06	.00	.05	.10	.02	.62**	.41**	-
13. C/H F	.03	.01	-.06	.09	.07	.02	.04	.10	.08	.42**	.60**	.73**
14. H/N M	.18**	.10	.07	-.22**	-.15*	-.21**	-.13*	-.18**	-.16**	.39**	.23**	.35**
15. H/N F	.12*	.13*	.04	-.12*	-.26**	-.09	-.26**	-.12*	-.21**	.24**	.31**	.23**
												.67**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Legend: EI = Emotional Instability; M = Mother; F = Father; P = Permissiveness; A/L = Autonomy and Love; L = Love; L/C = Love and Control; C = Control; C/H = Control and Hostility; H/N = Hostility and Negligence

With respect to parental practices, emotional instability was significantly positively correlated with hostility and negligence in the mother and the father. Likewise, we observed a significant negative correlation between emotional instability and autonomy and love, love, and love and control in the mother and the father.

Table 3 shows a strong correlation between the mother's and father's parenting styles. This correlation implies that children perceive they have similar relationships with their mothers and fathers.

Regression Analysis

Because of significant differences between boys and girls, we performed two multiple linear regression analyses (one for boys and one for girls). The purpose of these analyses was to identify the variables that best predict emotional instability and to establish whether parents or peers better predict emotional instability. The dependent variable was emotional instability, and predictive variables were the parenting styles of the mother and father (affection, control, permissiveness, and negligence), empathy (cognitive and emotional dimensions), experiences with anger (state and trait), externalization versus self-control of anger, and peer attachment. Multicollinearity tests yielded satisfactory results, with all variation inflation factors below the threshold of 2.00, and tolerance for all variables of around 1.00 (Field, 2009) (see Tables 4 and 5).

Regression analysis for boys showed that 50.9% of the variance was explained by anger, as a trait and as a confrontation mechanism (externalization of anger), perspective taking, control and hostility in the mother, control in the mother, and peer attachment. As Table 4 shows, a greater disposition to respond with anger in situations that produce tension, greater control and hostility in the mother, a lower degree of empathy (cognitive dimension), control in the mother, and peer attachment predicted greater emotional instability in boys.

Table 4

Coefficients of multiple regression analysis in the prediction of emotional instability (boys)

	B	Standard error	Beta	T	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	1.086	.145		7.476	.000		
Trait anger	.277	.047		.326	5.868	.000	.577

Externalization	.327	.051	.355	6.429	.000	.584	1.712
Perspective taking	-.089	.022	-.184	-3.980	.000	.834	1.199
Control and hostility (mother)	.143	.041	.183	3.457	.001	.637	1.570
Control (mother)	-.109	.046	-.125	-2.385	.018	.645	1.550
Peer attachment	-.060	.028	-.099	-2.181	.030	.861	1.162

$R^2 = .509$; $F_{(6,276)} = 47.736$; sig. < .000

Regression analysis for girls showed that 35.5% of the variance was explained by externalization of anger as a confrontation mechanism, perspective taking, perception of hostility and negligence in the mother, perception of love from the father, and self-control of anger. Table 5 shows that girls' externalization of anger, perspective taking and personal distress, and hostility and negligence in the mother, weak self-control, and little affection from the father were predictive variables of emotional instability.

Table 5

Coefficients of multiple regression analysis in the prediction of emotional instability (girls)

	B	Standard error	Beta	T	Sig	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	1.428	.183		7.786	.000		
Externalization	.301	.043	.360	7.068	.000	.897	1.115
Hostility and negligence (mother)	.061	.025	.130	2.435	.016	.815	1.227
Perspective taking	.128	.039	.160	3.253	.001	.962	1.040
Love (father)	-.112	.034	-.163	-3.260	.001	.930	1.075
Personal distress	.057	.021	.132	2.712	.007	.976	1.025
Self-control	-.107	.040	-.144	-2.668	.008	.793	1.261

$R^2 = .355$; $F_{(6,278)} = 25.475$; sig < .000

Discussion

This research used a sample of 610 students aged 9–12 to examine how parenting styles, peer attachment, and emotions (empathy and anger) predicted emotional instability (impulsiveness and lack of control). At this age, peer influence begins to replace parental influence. Peers are influencing Western children at an increasingly early stage of children's socialization process (Fuentes, 2005). During this stage, the group's importance in children's lives increases, children spend more time in the company of peers, and children interact with a greater number of diverse social contexts. Simultaneously, adult supervision of children's activities decreases (Fuentes, 2005).

The study's major finding is that emotional instability holds a stronger relationship with anger and the cognitive dimension of empathy like with parenting styles. Moreover, gender appears to be an important factor when predicting children's and adolescents' emotional instability.

Results reveal several differences between boys and girls regarding personal variables and parenting styles. Boys' highest scores were in negative variables such as anger and emotional instability. Conversely, we observed girls to be more empathetic, with a greater capacity for self-control in tense situations (Carlo et al., 2010b). Girls also displayed greater peer attachment. Girls scored more highly than boys in the capability to put themselves in the position of others and in feelings toward people in need. Therefore, we observed gender differences not only in emotions, but also in the ability to understand the situation of others and to put oneself in that position. These findings are consistent with those of the instrument's author (Davis, 1983) and those of other authors (Mestre et al., 2009; Van der Graaff et al., 2012). Furthermore, it is related to greater peer attachment shown by girls. In children's friendships with peers, greater capability to put oneself in another person's position lets the child analyze, understand, and appreciate not only others' behaviors, but also the intentions, feelings, and motives that motivate others. Children can thereby understand that others' intentions, feelings, and motives may differ from their own (Fuentes, 2005).

In the present study, *emotional instability* was not synonymous with internalization, but rather impulsiveness and lack of control (i.e., difficulties in containing behaviors, managing emotions, rapidly processing information, and receiving delayed gratification) (Del Barrio & Roa, 2006). Results show that boys embodied these

characteristics more than girls, reflecting previous studies' findings (Mestre et al., 2012; Richaud et al., 2013). In addition, boys perceived parental relations based on the application of strict rules, punishment, quarrels, negative evaluation, and negligence to a greater degree than girls did. These findings suggest that girls and boys experience gender-specific socialization (e.g., gender-specific parenting practices, and different peer norms and expectations) and/or biological processes (e.g., different physical maturation rates) that result in distinct behavioral development (Carlo et al., 2010b).

Regression analysis to establish predictive variables of emotional instability in boys and girls showed that anger, the cognitive dimension of empathy (perspective taking), and excessively strict, controlling, and negligent parenting styles predicted emotional instability. Anger appeared as a trait among boys, whereas in girls both externalization and self-control of anger appeared as a response when facing situations that produce tension.

Gender differences in predictive variables were notable. For girls, hostility and negligence in mothers with little positive evaluation, affection, and emotional support from the father were predictive variables. For boys, mothers' parenting based on strict rules, punishments, and quarrels was a predictive variable.

Regression analysis showed that a negligent parenting style (i.e., mothers with little involvement in parenting their daughters and who strictly apply rules and punishments, and fathers who offer little affection and emotional support) predicted impulsiveness and a lack of self-control. This finding supports findings of other researchers, who have reported a set of variables (e.g., certain disciplinary practices and parenting styles) with negative effects on children's emotional and psychological stability. Studies have shown a close relationship between emotional problems in children and restrictive control by parents (Trentacosta et al., 2008).

Although parenting styles have traditionally been considered responsible for whether children's behaviors are adaptive (Mestre et al., 2010; Rinaldi & Howe, 2012), many studies have shown that the dimensions of temperament are strongly linked to parenting styles. Studies have shown a bi-directional relationship between temperament and parenting styles. Studies have demonstrated that irritability, impulsiveness, and low self-control create parenting styles with inconsistent discipline, rejection, and negligence. Conversely, parenting styles characterized by consistent discipline and

acceptance are associated with the dimension of temperament and self-control (Lengua, 2006; Trujillo, 2012).

In summary, some effects of parenting style depend on the gender of parents and children: the mother's effect on children's emotional instability is greater than that of the father (Tur et al., 2012; Wahl & Metzner, 2012). As proposed by Kawabata, Alink, Tseng, Ijzendorrn, and Crick (2011), this can be explained by the fact that fathers' parenting may affect children more during childhood because of interactions related to play and physical contact, whereas mothers may be more involved in socialization, especially in children's emotional socialization during later stages of adolescence. As children develop, other external agents such as peers begin to exert a greater influence. Authors have suggested that age-related changes in the strength of the bonds between parent and child may occur earlier than age nine (Bariola et al., 2012).

Finally, although they have not appeared as explanatory variables of emotional instability at this age, strong correlations between parenting styles of the father and mother indicate that children perceive they have similar relationships with both parents. These results reflect findings from other studies (Richaud et al., 2013; Tur-Porcar et al., 2012). In conclusion, anger, children's difficulties in perspective taking, and hostility and negligence of mothers must be considered in relation to children's impulsiveness and lack of self-control in tense situations, regardless of the child's gender.

The main contribution of this study is to present an analysis that combines mothers' and fathers' parenting styles with another key factor during children's development: peer attachment. Results for boys and girls show that emotional and cognitive variables such as parenting styles and peer attachment are equally predictive of emotional instability. These findings should be considered when designing programs teaching self-control and confrontation mechanisms in family and school environments.

Limitations

This cross-sectional study provides insight into a specific point in children's development, but does not allow us to establish causal relationships. Longitudinal studies would allow us to compare the role of parents and peers and study changes in different moments of the child's growth and development.

This study focused on children's and adolescents' self-report responses but did not incorporate other sources of information such as parents' perceptions of relationships with children. In studies that combine these two sources of information, boys are less influenced than girls by social worth.

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ARTICLE 2

Anxiety in adolescence. Can we prevent it?

Article 2: Anxiety in adolescence. Can we prevent it?**Abstract**

Background. Emotions are potent modulators and motivators of the behaviour that the individual displays in the different situations they have to live and they can act as a protection factor or vulnerability of the adapted or maladaptive behaviour. This study focuses on anxiety in adolescence. **Objectives.** The objective is, through a longitudinal study, to analyse the psychological processes and emotions that facilitate the symptoms of anxiety and those which protect the adolescent from these symptoms. **Material and Methods.** 417 adolescents (192 boys and 225 girls) participated in a three-wave longitudinal study in Valencia, Spain. In the first wave, adolescents were either in the third year of secondary school (81 boys and 85 girls) or the fourth year of secondary school (111 boys and 140 girls). The mean age was 14.70 ($SD = 0.68$; range = 13–17 years). This study monitored participating adolescents for three years.

Results. The results indicate a differential profile in the evaluated emotions according to sex, with the girls being the ones to experiment more anxiety and more empathy, while the boys show more emotional instability and aggression.

Conclusions. It is concluded that the best predictors for anxiety are anger state, aggressive behaviour, empathic concern together with the lack of coping mechanisms focused on problem solving and the perception of stress as a threat.

Key words: Adolescence, Anxiety, emotions, coping, stress

Introduction

In the last decades, the study of emotions and their importance in the behaviour of the individual has reached a central interest in research. The ability to know one's emotions and perceive the emotions of others makes interpersonal relationships easier. In the same way, self-regulation of negative emotion, the capacity of self-control when facing situations that cause tension, together with the inhibition of impulsiveness, make it easier to reach effective resolution of conflict and adapted behaviour. In short, emotions are potent modulators and motivators of the behaviour that the individual displays in the different situations they have to live and they can act as a protection factor or vulnerability of the adapted or maladaptive behaviours.

The study of emotions is of special importance in adolescence, stage in which important changes are introduced at all levels: biological changes, psychological changes, maturity changes, all of them teamed with the importance of the group, the peers and the making of decisions at a personal, vocational or professional level. Stage in which has been verified an increase of impulsiveness correlated to more aggressive behaviour in interpersonal relationships and even to more crime (1) (2).

Anxiety disorders have a high prevalence in adolescence and this prevalence rises if anxiety symptoms (3) are taken into consideration, said symptoms, have important physiological manifestations (breathing difficulties, dry mouth, shaking hands, tachycardia), as well as psychological manifestation (excessive worry, fear without reason, panic states) and they have a negative influence in how the adolescent functions, in their academic performance, the acceptance by their peers, the aggressive behaviour and depression.

Anxiety considered as a negative emotional arousal state, often accompanied by a concern about a potential future threat that results in distress (4) highlights the importance of emotional regulation in maintaining anxiety symptoms.

A recent revision of studies in anxiety in childhood and adolescence shows that deficits in emotional competence, empathy, emotional self-efficacy, ability to cope in situations that cause tension and generate negative emotions are processes that could be related to anxiety symptoms (3).

In the same way, some studies conclude the relation between depression and emotions

and uncontrolled conducts like aggressive behaviour, anxiety, anger, emotional instability o personal discomfort (5).

Some authors have pointed out that the ability to discriminate and understand emotions, as well as the lack or decreased empathy has influence over depression and anxiety (6). The emotional changes, the mood changes are related to what is happening to us, our experiences, therefore, certain situations can take us to depression and anxiety.

In the present study we consider analysing the relation between different representative variables of emotional competence and anxiety, with a longitudinal study, throughout adolescence. The objective is to establish the variables with higher predictor power of anxiety symptoms and those that discriminate between more or less anxious adolescents. It is of special interest to differentiate between the cognitive processes and emotions that facilitate anxiety symptoms and those that protect the adolescent from said symptoms.

Moreover, focusing on adolescence the gender variable is included to analyse if a different emotional profile exists between boys and girls.

Material and Methods

Participants

417 adolescents participated in a three-wave longitudinal study in Valencia, Spain. The sample consisted of 192 boys and 225 girls. In the first wave, adolescents were either in the third year of secondary school (81 boys and 85 girls) or the fourth year of secondary school (111 boys and 140 girls). The mean age was 14.70 (SD = 0.68; range = 13–17 years). This study monitored participating adolescents for three years.

Most adolescents came from two-parent households where parents were married (83.7% married; 13.2% divorced). In terms of educational attainment, 21.8% of mothers had less than a secondary school diploma, 42.2% had a secondary school diploma or equivalent and 30.7% had some university education. Similarly, 24% of fathers had less than a high school diploma, 41% had a high school diploma or equivalent and 28.7% had some university education. Most students self-identified themselves as being from Spain (86.6%). Small percentages of the remaining students self-identified themselves as being from Latin America (e.g., 3.4% from Ecuador, 2% from Colombia and 1.1% from Bolivia) and Eastern European countries (e.g., 1.7% from Romania). Participating

schools were randomly selected from the list of all schools in Valencia with students enrolled in compulsory secondary education. In total, 11 schools participated in the study.

Procedure

The research project and the evaluation proposal were presented to the school management team to ask for their authorisation and cooperation.

Approval from the School Council and parental consent were obtained. Participation by students was voluntary; students were free to decline to participate. The survey was administered by trained researchers in the classroom in 50-minute sessions during school hours. The annual assessments took place in three successive years during the first trimester of the school year. The study followed all ethical guidelines, respecting respondents' anonymity for both data collection and data analysis.

Measures

Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS) (7). Evaluates anxiety symptoms and stress during the last week. Example item 'I realized my mouth was dry'. Cronbach's alpha for this study was .81 at time 1, .84 at time 2 and .85 at time 3).

Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (AFV) (8, 9). This instrument uses 20 items to evaluate behaviours that harm others physically or verbally. Example item: 'I fight', 'I threaten my classmates'. Cronbach's alpha for this study was .80 at time 1, .82 at time 2 and .83 at time 3).

Emotional Instability Scale (EI) (8, 9). It describes the behaviour that indicates a lack of self-control in social situations as a result of the scarce ability to curb impulsiveness and emotionality. Example item: 'I am impatient', 'I interrupt others when they talk'. Cronbach's alpha for this study was .82 at time 1, .79 at time 2 and .83 at time 3).

State and Trait Anger Scale (STAXI-N) (10). It evaluates the anger as a state. Example of item: 'I am furious', 'I want to fight'. Cronbach's alpha for this study was .76 at time 1; $\alpha = .88$ at time 2; $\alpha = .90$ at time 3). It evaluates anger trait. Example of item: 'I get easily irritated', 'I am grumpy' ($\alpha = .74$ at time 1; $\alpha = .76$ at time 2; $\alpha = .77$ at time 3).

Stress Appraisal Measure for Adolescents (SAMA), adapted from Stress Appraisal Measure (11). Evaluates how people interpret stressing events. The participants have to

answer items about the way they usually think and feel when they face a stressing situation. The evaluated factors are stress as a challenge (example item: ‘I can face positively the situations that cause me stress’, ‘I have what I need to face stress’) and stress as a threat (example item: ‘Stress has a negative impact on me’, ‘I feel anxious’). Cronbach’s alpha for this study was .79 (challenge) and .79 (threat) at time 1, .82 (challenge) and .81 (threat) at time 2 and .84 (challenge) and .84 (threat) at time 3.

The Interpersonality Reactivity Index (IRI) (12) captures participants’ empathy levels. It measures cognitive (fantasy empathy and perspective taking) and emotional (empathic concern and personal distress) dimensions of empathy. We used emotional dimensions for this study. The empathic concern scale refers to feelings of compassion, concern, and care when seeing others in distress. An example item is “I often have feelings of tenderness and concern towards those less fortunate than I am.” The personal distress scale captures feelings of anxiety and distress evoked by others’ negative experiences. An example item is “In dire or emergency situations I feel uncomfortable.” The reliability of this instrument, measured by Cronbach’s alpha, is as follows: personal distress (.60), empathic concern (.60) at time 1, personal distress (.61), empathic concern (.66) at time 2, and personal distress (.65) and empathic concern (.64) at time 3.

Adolescent Coping Scale (13, 14). Evaluates how adolescents cope with their problems in general. In particular, 18 coping strategies are differentiated: Seek social support, Focus on solving the problem, Making an effort and be successful, Worry, Invest in close friends, Seek belonging, Get their hopes up, The strategy of lack of coping, Tension reduction, Social action, Ignore the problem, Self-blame, Keep it to oneself, Seek spiritual support, Focus on the positive, Seek professional help, Seek relaxing diversions and Physical distraction. These strategies can be classified in three basic coping styles: coping focused on problem solving (example item: ‘I focus on solving what is causing the problem’), coping by seeking support in the relationship with others (example item: ‘talk to others to know what they would do if they had the same problem’) and unproductive coping (example item: ‘cry or shout’). The reliability of this instrument, measured by Cronbach’s alpha, is as follows: problem-solving (.74), support-relationship-others (.84), unproductive (.83) at time 1; problem-solving (.76), support-relationship-others (.84), unproductive (.86) at time 2, and problem-solving (.79), support-relationship-others (.83), unproductive (.87) at time 3.

Data analyses

First of all, a repeated measurements mix variance analysis has been done taking as a factor among the subjects the sex variable to analyse if there are differences between boys and girls taking part during the three evaluated waves for each of the evaluated variables (anxiety, perspective taking, empathic concern, physical and verbal aggression, anger trait and state, emotional instability, coping strategies and stress). On the other hand, we have carried out an analysis of hierarchical regression being this variable dependent on the anxiety that adolescents manifest at time three of the evaluation, with the objective to conclude the evaluated variables with higher predictor power over it in the previous two times, and analyse if the cognitive variables or the emotional variables evaluated are more compelling. The varied regression analysis technique has allowed us to summarise the research findings with the construction of a predictor profile of the variables included in the investigation. The reliability of the psychometric instruments has been measured through Cronbach's alpha.

Results

Table 1 represents the typical measurements and deviations of the emotional and coping variables evaluated throughout the time and by sex.

Table 1. Typical measurements and deviations. Evolution of the emotional and coping variables evaluated by sex throughout the 3 years.

		T1		T2		T3		<i>F</i>
		<i>M</i>	<i>DT</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>DT</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>DT</i>	
Anxiety	Boys	.45	.50	.51	.54	.47	.52	156
	Girls	.60	.56	.63	.58	.64	.66	1.29
Aggressive Behaviour	Boys	1.41	.27	1.36	.27	1.36	.29	4.87**
	Girls	1.28	.20	1.24	.20	1.22	.19	5.87**
Emotional Instability	Boys	1.69	.33	1.70	.33	1.73	.35	1.61
	Girls	1.67	.33	1.63	.28	1.60	.31	4.84**
Anger State	Boys	1.10	.17	1.10	.21	1.13	.30	1.63
	Girls	1.08	.19	1.08	.25	1.08	.23	.07
Anger Trait	Boys	1.77	.36	1.79	.37	1.81	.38	1.30
	Girls	1.79	.36	1.82	.34	1.84	.35	2.59

			Boys	2.43	.58	2.51	.56	2.46	.60	4.34**
		PD	Girls	2.66	.59	2.69	.61	2.70	.58	5.84**
Empathy			Boys	3.38	.56	3.38	.52	3.41	.54	5.89**
		EC	Girls	3.72	.52	3.76	.53	3.83	.57	6.54**
			Boys	3.37	.41	3.33	.42	3.30	.49	1.43
		Resolution	Girls	3.34	.44	3.25	.40	3.23	.42	1.09
	Coping		Boys	2.62	.40	2.54	.39	2.54	.42	1.23
		Relation	Girls	2.71	.43	.266	.40	2.57	.40	4.66**
			Boys	2.40	.36	2.40	.39	2.45	.45	1.22
		Unproductive	Girls	2.50	.41	2.49	.44	2.47	.45	1.09
			Boys	2.68	.75	2.68	.75	2.49	.79	.99
Stress		Challenge	Girls	2.29	.80	2.31	.80	2.29	.85	1.13
			Boys	1.79	.74	2.00	.71	1.95	.75	1.45
		Threat	Girls	1.83	.78	1.96	.75	1.95	.86	4.98**

Note: **.01 level (bilateral); *.05 level (bilateral)

PD = personal distress; EC = empathic concern

The analysis of repeated measurements show that there aren't relevant differences in *anxiety* throughout the time and that the interaction effect between the sex variable and the *anxiety* variable is not significant, which indicates to us that there isn't a different evolution profile of anxiety in boys and girls. However, there are differences between boys and girls in the evaluated time 2 and time 3, being adolescent girls those who score higher in anxiety. *Physical and verbal aggressive behaviour* diminishes throughout time significantly in boys and girls. Likewise, the boys score even higher in the three evaluated times.

As for *emotional instability*, while in the boys it rises slightly in throughout the time, in the girls it diminishes significantly. In time 2 and 3, the boys score significantly higher than the girls in emotional instability. In regards to *empathy*, the differences are significant in both emotional subscales depending on the sex variable, scoring the girls higher in both subscales throughout the three evaluated times.

There aren't significant differences in *anger* state-trait throughout the time or due to sex in any of the evaluated times.

With regards to the *coping* variable evaluated in its three dimensions (focused on problem solving, in the relationship with others and the unproductive one), the results show that, first of all, the strategies focused on problem solving diminish significantly in both girls and boys but there aren't any differences in relation to sex. As for the strategies focused on the relationship with others, the trend is the same, meaning it diminishes significantly in boys and girls but the interaction in this case is significant. Both in time 1 and time 2 the adolescent girls score higher in this coping dimension and in relation to unproductive coping, there aren't significant differences throughout time nor due to sex in any of the evaluated times.

Finally, in relation to the variable of stress perceived as a threat, it rises significantly in time 2 to diminish in time 3, but the differences aren't significant in relation to sex, whilst perceived as a challenge, it also diminishes in time 3, scoring the boys higher than the girls in a significant manner.

The hierarchical regression analyses have been carried out taking the adolescents anxiety in time 3 as the criteria variable. The first block of the equation includes the emotional variables (emotional instability, anger state and trait, aggressive behaviour, empathy) evaluated in time 1; the second block includes the emotional variables evaluated in time 2; the third block includes the coping and stress variables evaluated in time 1; and finally, the fourth block adds the coping and stress variables evaluated in time 2. The multiple co-linear tests have been satisfactory, with all inflation factors of variance of less than 2.00 and the tolerance of all variable close to 1.00.

Table 2 shows the summary of the hierarchical regression analysis of the emotional, coping and stress variables in the adolescents. Due to the relatively big size of sample, which results in an increase of the power, α was fixed as $p \leq 0.01$.

The global prediction for anxiety, has been significant ($F_{(22,416)} = 5.80$; $p < .000$) (see Table 2).

Table 2. Summary of the regression analysis per block of emotional and stress variables in times 1 and 2 in anxiety evaluated in time 3.

	Predictor V	B	Typical Error	$\hat{\alpha}$	t	p	\bar{R}^2
Block 1: Emotions Time 1	IE T1 AFV T1	-,024 -,242	,130 ,163	-,013 -,099	-,182 -1,488	,856 ,138	.062

	Anger state T1	-,001	,162	,000	-,.008	,993	
	Anger Trait T1	,104	,102	,062	1,017	,310	
	PD T1	,073	,056	,071	1,304	,193	
	EC T1	,033	,058	,031	,565	,572	
	IE T2	,115	,142	,059	,812	,417	.105
	AFV T2	,359	,173	,143	2,077	,038	
Block 2: Emotions Time 2	Anger state T2	,435	,126	,168	3,446	,001	
	Anger trait T2	-,191	,098	-,111	-1,936	,054	
	PD T2	-,046	,059	-,045	-,778	,437	
	EC T2	,187	,057	,173	3,278	,001	
	Resolution T1	,015	,088	,010	,167	,867	.038
Block 3: Coping and stress	Relation T1	-,112	,089	-,078	-1,262	,208	
Time 1	Unproductive T1	,004	,096	,002	,037	,970	
	Threat T1	,041	,043	,051	,952	,342	
	Challenge T1	-,041	,038	-,054	-1,082	,280	
	Resolution T2	-,013	,091	-,009	-,142	,887	.040
	Relation T2	-,048	,093	-,032	-,518	,605	
Block 4: Coping and stress Time 2	Unproductive T2	,280	,089	,195	3,146	,002	
	Threat T2	,105	,043	,126	2,426	,016	
	Challenge T2	-,065	,040	-,083	-1,603	,110	

$$F_{(22,416)} = 5.80; p < .000; R^2 = .245$$

AFV = physical and verbal aggressive behaviour; IE = emotional instability; PD = personal distress; EC = empathic concern

The complete model explains the 24.5% of the variance in anxiety of the adolescents of both sexes when they are between 15 and 18 years of age, with the emotional variables evaluated in time 1 explaining the 16.6% of the variance in block 1. The emotional variables evaluated in time 2 represent an additional 10.5% of the variance in block 2. The coping and stress variables evaluated in time 1 represent an additional 3.8% of the variance in block 3 while the coping and stress variables evaluated in time 2 represent the remaining 4% variance in block 4. The emotional as well as the coping and stress variables evaluated in time 1 have no predictor power in the anxiety perceived and felt by the adolescents of both sexes when the are between 15 and 18 years of age. On the other hand, the emotional variables of adolescents of both sexes, in particular anger state, aggressive behaviour and empathic concern, and the unproductive coping and

stress as a treat variables evaluated in time 2, the ones that stand out in terms of predictor power of anxiety in adolescents.

Discussion and conclusion

The results of the study contribute relevant information about the cognitive processes and the emotions to be taken into consideration to prevent anxiety, as well as the gender differences in the evaluated variables. Adolescent girls show more anxiety symptoms and more empathic concern throughout adolescence, while the boys show more emotional instability and more aggressive behaviour. In reference to the coping mechanism which adolescents use to solve problems or face situations that make them tense it is established that through adolescence these effective strategies for problem solving diminish, as they report that they have less mechanisms and resources oriented to problem solving, while at the same time they seek less support from others who could help them. Therefore, we can observe that, during the evaluated period, anxiety is particularly important in girls and emotional instability and aggressive behaviour in boys, while the mechanisms to cope or regulate said emotions diminish.

As to the psychological problems more related to anxiety and with a higher predictor power we can conclude that the emotions and the more immediate cognitive processes, meaning anger state, aggressive behaviour, empathic concern, unproductive coping mechanisms and the perception of stress as a threat evaluated the previous year weigh more heavily, while they don't have the same influence over anxiety in the time 1 of the study.

Therefore, the development of coping mechanisms oriented to problem solving and to emotional self-control when facing situations that cause tension or conflicts that require a solution from the individual and impulsiveness control are processes that need to be taught and developed during adolescence to contribute to the reduction of anxiety, to a good emotional balance related to a more adapted behaviour (3) (15).

To summarise, the results indicate that adolescence anxiety treatment or prevention programs should include the recognition and the acceptance of emotions, emotional self-regulation, as well as the acquisition of coping mechanisms to face situations that produce tension or are perceived as a threat to the adolescent.

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ARTICLE 3:

The role of emotions in depression and aggression

Article 3: The role of emotions in depression and aggression**Abstract**

Depression is a broad and heterogeneous diagnostic grouping, central to which is depressed mood or inability to enjoy most activities. Depressive symptoms are frequently accompanied by conduct problems stemming from anger. It is very important to know the interrelation of these emotions very well to be able to help adolescents to manage them more easily.

The main aim of this article is to present the problem of interaction between negative affects (emotional instability, anger state and trait, physical and verbal aggression and depression) analyzing the different relationship through the time in spanish sample.

The sample included 470 adolescents (192 boys and 225 girls) in a three-wave longitudinal study in Valencia (Spain). The mean age was 14.70 in the first wave. Structural equations modelling was employed to explore two longitudinal models.

The results show differences based on sex, and that an internalised variable, like emotional instability, is relevant to prevent the appearance of depression directly in girls and also the later appearance of aggression as long as anger mediates, in both boys and girls, so the control of anger becomes an important goal to control the rest of the negative affects.

This results has consequences in the preparation of all programmes that try to establish an emotional control on adolescents, as not only has to be taken into account as a direct goal the control of externalised emotions like anger, but internalised emotions like emotional instability have to be taken into account also. Furthermore, it is also made apparent that not only the punctual explosions and externalisation of anger have to be worked on, but the temperamental aspects which are the base of anger trait have to be worked on too.

Key words: emotional instability, anger, depression, aggression, negative emotions, adolescence

Introduction

Children and teenagers can experience emotional disorders like depression, anger or anxiety. Sometimes it can be difficult for adults to understand children's problems because we look at them through adult eyes and we don't understand what is wrong in their lives, but it is important to take problems in young people seriously, because many studies underline their permanence (1).

Depression is a broad and heterogeneous diagnostic grouping, central to which is depressed mood or inability to enjoy most activities. Depressive symptoms are frequently accompanied by symptoms of anxiety, and conduct problems stemming from anger.

Many people who experience together depression, anxiety, feel irritable or angry, especially teenagers, normally they can't interpret nor express their emotional changes appropriately. It is very important to know the interrelation of these emotions very well to be able to help adolescents to manage them more easily. The relationship among these variables is essential to achieve this goal, but the results obtained in several studies about this subject differ from one another due to the use of different methodologies and sources or due to the characteristics of the population being studied (2,3), all of the above difficults the reliability of the results.

Another element to be clarified is the role of gender in this relationship between emotions during adolescence as the results aren't consistent; some authors maintain that there are differences while others don't believe there are any (4).

One of the added problems is the comorbidity very frequent in children and adolescents. About half the people diagnosed with depression are also diagnosed with an anxiety disorder (5,1) and the comorbidity between anger and depression is even higher and it presents enough of a problem in research (6). The comorbidity between depression and conduct problems is also very high (7).

There are many different reasons that explain these emotional factor disorders, some of them are intrinsic to the child, like personality (8), and others are related to the context, especially to the family (9) or parenting (10). All these risk factors are important, but it is specially important the relationship between externalised and internalised conducts throughout time (11) as it allows preventive intervention. In relation to this problem,

many authors defend that externalised problems predict internalised problems (12), but, in some cases a reverse prediction appears, for example, depression predicts aggression in adolescents (13) and it is precisely this that is going to be explored here, the relationship between these constructs. Therefore, the aim is not the search for causes but the analysis of the dynamics of interaction between these emotional variables to be able to contribute which one has a greater explanatory power in relation to the rest and its longitudinal permanency as many studies suggest that prediction through time is not possible especially with adolescent depression (11).

The aim of this article is plural. First we present the problem of interaction between negative affects (emotional instability, anger state and trait, physical and verbal aggression and depression) analyzing the different relationship through the time in our sample. The second goal will be to contribute to the managing of the negative affections depending on their relation to other elements (14) and this way to be able to delineate the most effective protection when facing this type of alterations (15).

Material and Methods

Participants

Four hundred and seventeen adolescents participated in a three-wave longitudinal study in Valencia, Spain. The sample consisted of 192 boys and 225 girls. In the first wave, adolescents were either in the third year of secondary school (81 boys and 85 girls) or the fourth year of secondary school (111 boys and 140 girls). The mean age was 14.70 ($SD = 0.68$; range = 13–17 years). This study monitored participating adolescents for three years.

Most adolescents came from two-parent households where parents were married (83.7% married; 13.2% divorced). In terms of educational attainment, 21.8% of mothers had less than a secondary school diploma, 42.2% had a secondary school diploma or equivalent and 30.7% had some university education. Similarly, 24% of fathers had less than a high school diploma, 41% had a high school diploma or equivalent and 28.7% had some university education. Most students self-identified themselves as being from Spain (86.6%). Small percentages of the remaining students self-identified themselves as being from Latin America (e.g., 3.4% from Ecuador, 2% from Colombia and 1.1% from Bolivia) and Eastern European countries (e.g., 1.7% from Romania). Participating

schools were randomly selected from the list of all schools in Valencia with students enrolled in compulsory secondary education. In total, 11 schools participated in the study.

Procedure

Approval from the School Council and parental consent were obtained. Participation by students was voluntary; students were free to decline to participate. The survey was administered by trained researchers in the classroom in 50-minute sessions during school hours. The annual assessments took place in three successive years during the first trimester of the school year. The study followed all ethical guidelines, respecting respondents' anonymity for both data collection and data analysis.

Measures

Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (AFV) (16,17). This instrument uses 20 items to evaluate behaviours that harm others physically or verbally. Cronbach's alpha for this study was .80 at wave 1, .82 at wave 2 and .83 at wave 3).

Emotional Instability Scale (EI) (16,17). It describes the behaviour that indicates a lack of self-control in social situations as a result of the scarce ability to curb impulsiveness and emotionality). Cronbach's alpha for this study was .82 at wave 1, .79 at wave 2 and .83 at wave 3).

State and Trait Anger Scale (STAXI-N) (18). It evaluates the anger as a state ($\alpha = .76$ at wave 1; $\alpha = .88$ at wave 2; $\alpha = .90$ at wave 3) and trait ($\alpha = .74$ at wave 1; $\alpha = .76$ at wave 2; $\alpha = .77$ at wave 3).

CES-D Scale (19). This scale assesses levels of depressive symptomatology. Cronbach's alpha for this study was $\alpha = .75$ at wave 1; $\alpha = .82$ at wave 2; $\alpha = .82$ at wave 3).

Statistical procedure

First, SPSS 19 was used to calculate means and standard deviations and to perform repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test for mean differences across waves and genders. Correlation analysis was carried out to test the relationships among variables. Finally, structural equations modelling (SEM) in AMOS 17.0 (SPSS Inc., 2007) was employed to explore two longitudinal models. The following goodness-of-fit

indexes were used: chi-square, chi-square divided by degrees of freedom ($\chi^2/d.f.$), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) and Bentler comparative fit index (CFI). Root mean residual (RMR) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used to measure error.

Results

Repeated Measures Analysis

Table 1 presents the measurements and typical deviation of the physical and verbal aggression, depression, anger state and trait and emotional instability throughout the time and by sexes.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations throughout the time and by sexes

		T1		T2		T3		<i>F</i>
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Aggression	Boys	1.41	.27	1.36	.27	1.36	.29	4.87**
	Girls	1.28	.20	1.24	.20	1.22	.19	5.87**
Depression	Boys	1.71	.38	1.91	.37	1.96	.38	29.27**
	Girls	1.87	.45	2.02	.42	2.07	.46	20.12**
Anger State	Boys	1.10	.17	1.10	.21	1.13	.30	1.63
	Girls	1.08	.19	1.08	.25	1.08	.23	.07
Anger Trait	Boys	1.77	.36	1.79	.37	1.81	.38	1.30
	Girls	1.79	.36	1.82	.34	1.84	.35	2.59
E. Instability	Boys	1.69	.33	1.70	.33	1.73	.35	1.61
	Girls	1.67	.33	1.63	.28	1.60	.31	4.84**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. E. Instability = Emotional Instability. T1= Time 1, T2= Time 2 and T3= Time 3

If we take into consideration how the gender factor works in these relations we can observe (table 1) that physical and verbal aggression lowers through the time significantly in boys and girls. In the boys the differences are considerably between T1 and T2 and in the girls between T1 and T2 and between T1 and T3. Having said that, the boys score higher in the three intervals (T1: $F = 29.88$; $p < .001$; T2: $F = 29.51$; $p < .001$; T3: $F = 31.72$; $p < .001$).

Regarding depression, it increases significantly in time in both boys and girls. Also, the differences are significant between T1 and T2 and between T1 and T3, in both sexes. Contrary to what happened with aggression, the girls score higher in the three intervals (T1: $F = 14.65$; $p < .001$; T2: $F = 7.29$; $p < .05$; T3: $F = 5.91$; $p < .05$).

Regarding emotional instability, while in the boys it rises slightly in time (not significantly), in the girls it lowers significantly in interval 2 and 3. In the girls, the differences are significant between T1 and intervals 2 and 3. In T2 ($F = 5.13$; $p < .05$) y 3 ($F = 15.23$; $p < .001$) the boys score higher than the girls in emotional instability. Likewise, there aren't significant differences in T1 ($F = .40$; $p > .05$).

Finally, there aren't any significant differences in anger state, anger trait throughout the time and depending on gender in any of the evaluated intervals (Anger state, T1: $F = 1.80$; $p > .05$; T2: $F = .35$; $p > .05$; T3: $F = 3.14$; $p > .05$; Anger trait, T1: $F = .22$; $p > .05$; T2: $F = .88$; $p > .05$; T3: $F = .69$; $p > .05$). However, in both sexes, anger tends to increase slightly.

Correlations

The results show first of all (see table 2), that depression in interval 3 correlates with aggression in the three intervals in boys, while in girls, depression in interval 3 relates to aggression in T2 and T3. Also, depression in T3 relates, in boys, with emotional instability from the first and second intervals, and in girls, with emotional instability in the second and third interval.

Table 2

Correlations by sexes

<i>Boys</i>															
Aggression			Depression			Anger State			Anger Trait			Emotional Instability			
T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	
Aggression T3	.36**	.39**	1	.15*	.08	.17*	.11	.20**	.27**	.19**	.18*	.33**	.22**	.31**	.66**
Depression T3	.16*	.21**	.17*	.29**	.31**	1	.15*	.18*	.17*	.11	.08	.15*	.26**	.23**	.12
<i>Girls</i>															
Aggression			Depression			Anger State			Anger Trait			Emotional Instability			
T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	
Aggression T3	.45**	.63**	1	.11	.20**	.25**	.23**	.34**	.34**	.35**	.37**	.47**	.45**	.55**	.66**
Depression T3	.05	.21**	.25**	.39**	.53**	1	.12	.30**	.29**	.08	.09	.25**	.00	.16*	.25**

Note. **p < .01, * p < .05. T1= Time 1, T2= Time 2 and T3= Time 3

On the other hand, physical and verbal aggression in interval 3 relates to depression in T1 and T3 in boys and in T2 and T3 in girls. Furthermore, aggression in the third interval relates to anger state and anger trait in all intervals, both in boys and girls. These relations are higher in girls than boys. Finally, aggression in T3 relates to emotional instability in the three intervals in both sexes, although to a greater extent in girls.

The more powerful correlations appear between physical and verbal aggression and emotional instability in any of the three intervals evaluated. Likewise, physical and verbal aggression is strongly related to anger trait and state. In all cases, the correlations are more powerful the closer they are in time. It is interesting to point out that the correlation between depression and anger reaches important levels, above all in the case of anger state in girls.

Test of longitudinal model

Differences exist between both boys and girls in all variables except for anger trait. Therefore, we consider more useful the study of structural dynamics separating boys and girls.

Two longitudinal path analyses were tested using AMOS 17 and maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors, one for boys and one for girls. The model test yielded acceptable fit to the data, $\chi^2 (6) = 14.73$, $p < .05$, $\chi^2 / \text{df} = 2.45$; GFI = .98; AGFI = .93; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .059 and RMR = .005.

The results show, in the boys' model, that emotional instability in interval 1 predicts in an indirect way the physical and verbal aggression in interval 3 through anger state-trait in interval 2 (see figure 1).

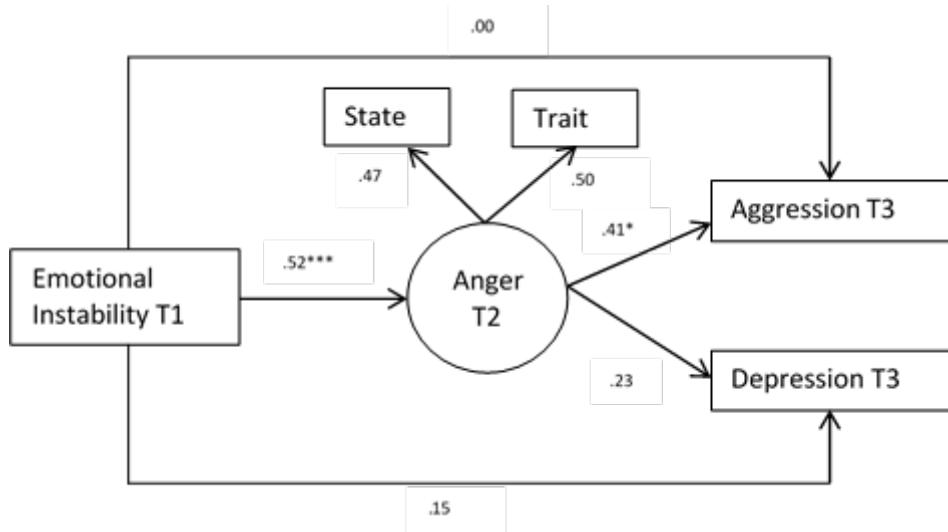


Figure 1. Multigroup structural equation model for boys. Standardized values.

Note. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. T1= Time 1, T2= Time 2 and T3= Time 3

In the case of the girls, the results show that emotional instability in interval 1 predicts directly the depression in interval three. However, it is a strong predictor of anger, both state and trait in interval 2. The same way as in the boys, anger in interval 2 is also a mediator between emotional instability and physical and verbal aggression. Also, contrary to what happens with the boys, anger in interval 3 is a mediator between emotional instability and depression in interval 3 (see figure 2).

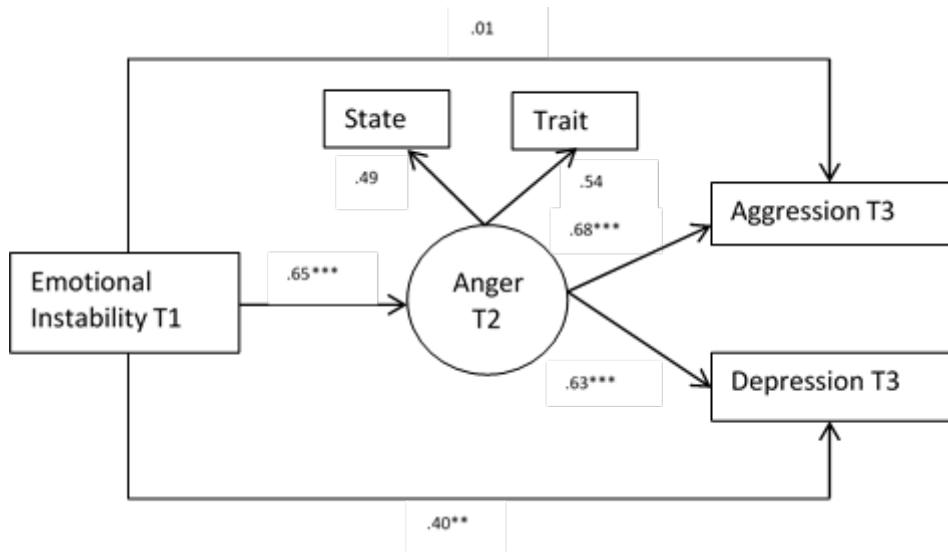


Figure 2. Multigroup structural equation model for girls. Standardized values.

Note. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. T1= Time 1, T2= Time 2 and T3= Time 3

In turn, the girls and boys' models differ in the predictive power because in the girls it is higher in all instances both in the direct prediction of depression as well as in its mediator function of anger (see figure 2).

To sum up we can defend that an internalised variable, like emotional instability, is relevant to prevent the appearance of depression directly in girls and also the later appearance of aggression as long as anger mediates, in both sexes.

Discussion and conclusion

The longitudinal data shows two things: First of all, we see a strong consistency of the instruments used and secondly, also, a permanency of the alterations that have been studied. This is consistent with the literature that shows that in adolescence, its related problems, as well as having a high prevalence, cannot be interpreted, in any way, as a transitory alteration (7).

As we have already seen, the correlation between aggression and depression isn't important enough to become a powerful predictor either near in time or later on. This means that, despite the existence of a specific association, it is too weak and, in fact, in the literature it appears as a variable association (20).

Here in almost all variables the correlations are much more powerful when they coincide in time and this connection weakens as the evaluations are further in time, however, the data of this study about the relation between emotional instability and depression show that the power of this relationship is maintained throughout time, which is a new contribution.

The correlation between anger and the rest of the variables seems much more intense with aggression than with any other. Here a much more intense correlation will be made based on the proximity in time as it is more frequent (3). The fact that the correlation between anger and depression is weaker than the correlation with aggression is something that appears in the literature repeatedly (21).

It becomes apparent that for the purpose of emotional interaction, anger trait represents a more important role than the anger state which we can find consistently in previous research about emotions in adolescence (22). This is perfectly coherent given that anger state is crucial and it is not permanent and therefore it has to vary much more easily than anger trait (22, 23).

The structural equations reveals that with the mediation of anger, emotional instability acquires a higher predictive power as time goes by both in boys and girls. There is a great structural parallelism but with quantitative differences. These results can also be found in other investigations (24).

In regards to anger, there appears a great balance in the role it performs in the case of boys and girls. This implicitly means that the control of anger becomes an important goal to control the rest of the negative affects. Theoretically this would only justify the need to include anger in the negative affects model from the Clark and Watson model, as it occupies a special place in the relation with depression.

To sum up, in the models it becomes apparent that instability predicts depression and anger, but not aggression, the latter only appears if instability is associated to anger.

The limitations of this research, as it happens in every case, is the absence of some conditions that could improve the conclusions, like, for example, to have had included different sources of information, however, as mainly the emotional variables have been studied, the selection of the self-report has undeniable advantages.

From all that has been presented we can extract several conclusions: First of all and, as it is obvious, there is an important difference between boys and girls in the emotional field. However, these differences are more quantitative than qualitative.

On the other hand we can state that the prediction of emotions of the internalised kind can predict those internalised directly, but also the indirectly internalised if we take anger into account. It is obvious that all this has consequences in the preparation of all programmes that try to establish an emotional control on adolescents, as not only has to be taken into account as a direct goal the control of externalised emotions like anger, but internalised emotions like emotional instability have to be taken into account also.

Furthermore, it is also made apparent that not only the punctual explosions and externalisation of anger have to be worked on, but the temperamental aspects which are

the base of anger trait have to be worked on too. This is in line with a more globalized concept of control of emotions to make it effective in the long term.

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ARTICLE 4:

Depression and aggressive behaviour in adolescents offenders and non-offenders

Article 4: Depresión y agresividad en adolescentes delincuentes y no delincuentes.
Depression and aggressive behaviour in adolescents offenders and non-offenders

Abstract

Background: Adolescent behaviour is strongly linked to emotions. The aim of this study is 1) analyse the differences between young offenders and non-offenders in emotional instability, anger, aggressive behaviour, anxiety and depression, and also the differences according to sex; and 2) compare the relation between emotional instability and anxiety, depression and aggressive behaviour mediated or modulated by anger in both groups.

Method: participants are 440 adolescents, both male and female (15-18 years old). 220 were young offenders from four different correctional centres of the Valencia Region. The other 220 participants were randomly chosen from ten public and private schools in the Valencia metropolitan area. In the Schools the instruments were applied collectively in the classroom, with a 50 minutes maximum duration. In the Youth Detention Centre the application was carried out in small groups.

Results: The structural equation model (SEM) carried out on each group, young offenders and non-offenders show a relation between the assessed variables. Emotional instability appears strongly related with anger in both samples, but anger just predicts depression and aggressive behaviour in the offender population.

Conclusions: The results give relevant information for treatment and prevention of aggressive behaviour and delinquency in teenagers through emotional regulation.

Key words: offenders, adolescence, emotions, aggressive behaviour, depression

Resumen

Antecedentes: La conducta adolescente está fuertemente determinada por las emociones. El objetivo es 1) analizar las diferencias entre los jóvenes infractores y los no infractores en inestabilidad emocional, ira, comportamiento agresivo, ansiedad y depresión, así como las diferencias según el sexo; y 2) comparar la relación entre inestabilidad emocional y ansiedad, depresión y comportamiento agresivo mediado o modulado por la ira en ambos grupos. Método: participaron 440 varones y mujeres (15-18 años), 220 adolescentes delincuentes procedentes de cuatro Centros de Menores de la Comunidad Valenciana. Los 220 restantes fueron seleccionados aleatoriamente de diez

Centros públicos y concertados de Valencia. En los centros escolares los instrumentos se aplicaron colectivamente en el aula. En el Centro de Detención Juvenil, la aplicación se realizó en pequeños grupos.

Resultados: Los Modelos de Ecuaciones Estructurales realizados para cada uno de los grupos, muestran que la inestabilidad emocional aparece fuertemente relacionada con la ira en ambas muestras, pero la ira únicamente predice la depresión y la agresividad en la población delincuente.

Conclusiones: Los resultados aportan información relevante para el tratamiento y la prevención de la agresividad y la delincuencia en la adolescencia a través de la regulación emocional, especialmente el de la ira.

Palabras clave: delincuentes, adolescentes, emociones, agresión, depresión

Depression and aggressive behaviour in adolescents offenders and non-offenders

A whole series of studies have repeatedly shown that adolescent behaviour is highly determined by emotions (del Barrio & Carrasco, 2014; Domes, Hollerbach, Vohs, Mokros, & Habermeyer, 2013; Llorca, Malonda, & Samper, 2016); for this reason it is necessary to know the emotional framework of a young person to try and predict their reaction capabilities in a given situation and to be able to help them choose the better option.

Despite having widely studied the different emotions, their interaction and mutual interdependency has still not been pinpointed and this is essential knowledge needed when selecting an answer, as their different combinations result in different consequences.

In the case of personalities with aggressive or delinquent behaviour, the research shows the importance of several family and social variables (Catrín, Gómez-Fraguela, & Luengo, 2015; Gázquez et al., 2016), although the social factor of aggressive behaviour only explains 30% of the variance, which justifies the study of the internal variables of the subject and the emotion in particular (del Barrio & Roa, 2006; Rodríguez, del Barrio, & Carrasco, 2009; Herrero, Ordóñez, Salas, & Colom, 2002).

On a revision of delinquent behaviour (Redondo & Andrés-Pueyo, 2007) a risk factor survey of these behaviours is carried out, and amongst them appear impulsiveness, irritability and aggressive behaviour as relevant elements in the appearance of social maladjustment. It could even be said that, as in a chemical reaction, the sequence of its different factors is crucial, in the case of emotional behaviour it is also important the movement and sequence of the different elements they are made of.

In particular, it is known that anger, which is a decisive factor in the appearance of aggressive behaviour (del Barrio & Roa, 2006), is strongly related to other variables amongst which we find emotional instability, depression and anxiety, given the comorbidity the latter ones have with each other (Brown, Meiser-Stedman, Woods, & Lester, 2016; del Barrio & Carrasco, 2014; Kerth, Tilman, & Luby, 2015; Poirier et al., 2015). In this respect, different investigations have concluded that impulsiveness, the lack of emotional control appear as anger predictors which, moreover, determines aggressive behaviour (Mestre, Samper, & Frías, 2002; Mestre, Samper, Tur, Richaud, &

Mesurado, 2012). To all of this it is added that emotional instability predicts the appearance of depression in the long term, as demonstrated by recent longitudinal studies (Llorca et al., 2016). Therefore, a complex framework formed by all the emotions is observed.

On the other hand, different studies provide data about the relation between delinquency and depression (Ibabe, Arnoso, & Elgorriaga, 2014; Lalayants & Prince, 2014). Some studies point out that young offenders experience depression in a high percentage (Teplin, Abram, McClelland, Dulcan, & Mericle, 2002). But it is more difficult to find results about the causal link between them. There are investigations that consider that the problems in behaviour precede depression, although there are others that defend the opposite premise (Vahl et al., 2016).

Along the same lines, there are different studies that deal with teenage delinquency and emotions (Domes et al., 2013; Herrero et al., 2002; Lalayants & Prince, 2014; Redondo & Andrés-Pueyo, 2007) however there are a lot less studies about the specific interaction of those emotions. The relevance of our study consists in analysing how the negative emotions behave and their relation to the maladapted behaviour in the young offenders population and if it follows the same pattern as the general population. The obtained results can give a more precise orientation for the intervention with young offenders and the prevention of delinquency in the general population.

Following the theoretical premise given and the investigation in this area, the aims of the study are as follows: 1) analyse the differences between young offenders and non-offenders in the evaluated variables (emotional instability, anger, aggressive behaviour, anxiety and depression) and also the differences according to sex; and 2) compare the relation between emotional instability and anxiety, depression and aggressive behaviour mediated or modulated by anger in both groups.

To this end, two samples have been selected: one of adolescents from general population and another one from young offenders, as it has been demonstrated that young offenders groups present a higher frequency of high aggressive behaviour and anger (Andrés-Pueyo & Echeburúa, 2010).

The analysis of the differences in how emotions work in both young offenders and non-offenders can help to better understand the process that triggers aggressive behaviour

and how to manage it as it has been tried in other cases of parallel violence (Echeburúa, Amor, Loinaz, & de Corral, 2010).

Method

Participants

440 adolescents have taken part, 220 were young offenders who were selected from different correctional centres of the Valencia Region, who where carrying out different court sentences. Amongst the crimes for which these adolescents where carrying out different court sentences violence against their parents, damage against property, crime against public health and bodily harm are highlighted. The rest of the sample was selected randomly from public and private schools in the Valencia metropolitan area. The selection was made equating both subgroups in age, sex and controlling the representation of the social status, verifying that there aren't significant differences between the two groups related to these socio demographic variables.

The subgroup of young offenders includes 148 boys (67.3%) and 72 girls (32.7%); amongst the participants selected from the general population we find 145 boys (65.9%) and 75 girls (34.1%). The ages are between 15-18 years. The mean age of the institutionalised boys and girls is 16.22 and a standard deviation of 1.25.

If we take into consideration de reason for the placement in the youth detention centre, it is established that the main crime is child to parent violence (60.7%) followed by aggravated robbery (33.7%) and in a lesser degree other crimes are attempt against authority (2.6%), breach of parole (2%) and bodily harm (1%).

With regards to social status, the representation is similar in both groups, although not identical. The young offenders are situated mainly in a lower middle class (51.4%), followed by middle class (23.2%); and to a lesser degree we find families that belong to an upper class (3.2%) and lower class (6.8%).

As for the non-offenders group, the percentage of adolescents in lower middle class diminishes (37.7%) and there is a slightly higher percentage of families that belong to a middle class (35.9%). We find less middle upper class families (11.8%) and lower class (8.2%).

Instruments

Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; del Barrio, Moreno, & López, 2001). It evaluates behaviours that harm others physically or verbally. This instrument uses 20 items with three possible answers (*often, sometimes or never*). Example of item: “I speak badly of my classmates”. Cronbach’s Alpha in the adaptation of del Barrio et al. (2001) was .84. Cronbach’s Alpha for this study is .89 (offenders) and .86 (non-offenders).

Emotional Instability Scale (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; del Barrio et al., 2001). It describes the behaviour that indicates a lack of self-control in social situations as a result of the scarce ability to curb impulsiveness and emotionality. Example of item: “I am impatient”, “I interrupt others when they talk”. Cronbach’s Alpha of del barrio et al. (2001) was .74. Cronbach’s alpha for this study is .82 (offenders) and .82 (non-offenders)

State and Trait Anger Scale (STAXI-N, del Barrio, Aluja, & Spielberger, 2003). It evaluates the anger as a state (feeling, expression and total score of anger) and as a trait (disposition, reaction and total score). Example of item: “I am furious”, “I want to shout”. Cronbach’s alpha of the authors is .81 for anger-state and .71 for anger-trait. Cronbach’s alpha for this study is .90 at anger-state and .78 at anger-trait (offenders) and .88 at anger-state and .75 at anger-state (non-offenders).

Center for Epidemiologic Studies -Depression Scale (CES-D; Eaton, 2004; Radloff, 1977). Evaluates the frequency and severity of experiencing negative emotions, depressive symptoms in the previous week. Example of item: “I was upset by things that don’t normally upset me”. In addition to internal consistency, CES-D scores have demonstrated acceptable reliability, with cronbach’s alphas from .70 to .90 in others studies (Edwards, Cheavens, Heiy, & Cukrowicz, 2010; Rusell, Crockett, Shen, & Lee, 2008). The Cronbach’s alpha of this study is .85 (offenders) and .83 (non-offenders).

Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS, Norton, 2007). It evaluates possible anxiety symptoms and stress during the previous week. Example of item: “I realised my mouth was dry”. Cronbach’s alpha of the author for the anxiety scale was .78. Conbach’s alpha is .77 (offenders) and .74 (non-offenders).

Procedure

In the Secondary Schools the instruments were applied collectively in the classroom, with a 50 minutes maximum duration. In the Youth Detention Centre the application of the questionnaires was carried out in small groups made out of two or three and when necessary it was carried out individually. The research project was presented to the school management teams and teachers of the selected schools and to the management of the youth detention centres in the Valencia Region that took part in the study. The cooperation of the centres and the evaluation carried out had the authorisation of the Valencian Government and also had parental permission. The participation of the adolescents was voluntary and anonymous, taking into consideration all ethical principles pertaining to research with human beings included in the Helsinki Declaration, under the current regulations.

Data Analysis

In the first place, analyses of variance (ANOVA) have been carried out to calculate the differences of measurements between young offenders and non-offenders, for each of the variables (anxiety, depression, physical and verbal aggression, anger trait and emotional instability). In the second place, Pearson's Correlation Analysis have been carried out between the variables being studied to observe the degree of relation and the relation trends amongst them, as well as to observe possible problems with correlation amongst them for each subgroup. Finally, it has been tested how fitting the theoretical model designed through the Structural Equation Models (SEM) is, for each of the groups of adolescents, offenders and non-offenders.

The following strong predictors have been used to determine the goodness of fit: chi square compared to the degrees of freedom ($\chi^2/d. f.$), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), a robust comparative fit index (CFI), the *goodness of fit index* (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) and the root mean residual (RMR) (Bollen, 1989).

Results

Analysis of Variance

If we take into consideration the differences between both groups, young offenders and non-offenders, the analysis of variance show significant differences in all evaluated

variables: anxiety, depression, aggressive behaviour, anger and emotional instability, with the young offenders group reaching the highest levels in all of them (see Table 1)

Table 1

ANOVAs. Measurement and standard deviations

		T1			
		<i>M</i>	<i>DT</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2_p
Anxiety	Offenders	1.73	.36	11.10**	.02
	Non Offenders	1.63	.26		
Depression	Offenders	2.26	.44	19.69***	.04
	Non Offenders	2.08	.40		
Aggressive	Offenders	1.64	.39	91.87***	.17
Behaviour	Non Offenders	1.32	.30		
Anger Trait	Offenders	1.99	.44	28.19***	.06
	Non Offenders	1.78	.38		
Emotional instability	Offenders	1.93	.36	60.77***	.12
	Non Offenders	1.67	.35		

Note:

F, statistics based on one-way ANOVAs; η^2_p , Partial Eta squared, effect size measure (.01 = small effect; .06 = medium effect; .13 = large effect; Cohen, 1988). ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

If we take into consideration de differences between both groups taking sex into account (see Table 2) we find that there are no differences between boys and girls in any of the groups in the variables of anxiety, anger trait or emotional instability. However, we find that depression is higher in girls, in both the young offenders and non-offenders groups (see Table 2). Aggressive behaviour behaves differently as there are differences between boys and girls, but only in the non-offenders group, meaning it is established that a higher level of physical and verbal abuse in boys in the general population, while in the young offenders group there are no differences reaching both sexes higher scores than the adolescents that have not committed a crime. Seeing as there are no differences based on sex in most of the evaluated variables, except depression, this variable (sex) has not been taken into consideration in the rest of the analysis.

Table2

Differences in measurements according to sex in the Offenders and Non-Offenders group

			<i>M</i>	<i>DT</i>	<i>F</i>	η_p^2
Anxiety	Offenders	Boys	1.71	.32	1.37	.00
		Girls	1.77	.42		
	Non-Offenders	Boys	1.61	.22	1.67	.00
		Girls	1.66	.33		
Depression	Offenders	Boys	2.15	.41	27.72***	.11
		Girls	2.47	.43		
	Non-Offenders	Boys	2.01	.35	14.25***	.06
		Girls	2.22	.44		
Aggressive Behaviour	Offenders	Boys	1.65	.36	.09	.00
		Girls	1.63	.44		
	Non-Offenders	Boys	1.36	.30	6.31*	.03
		Girls	1.25	.29		
Anger Trait	Offenders	Boys	1.97	.43	1.25	.00
		Girls	2.04	.47		
	Non-Offenders	Boys	1.77	.38	.23	.00
		Girls	1.80	.38		
Emotional Instability	Offenders	Boys	1.92	.34	.42	.00
		Girls	1.96	.40		
	Non-Offenders	Boys	1.70	.31	2.90	.01
		Girls	1.61	.40		

Note:

F, statistics based on one-way ANOVAs; η_p^2 , Partial Eta squared, effect size measure (.01 = small effect; .06 = medium effect; .13 = large effect; Cohen, 1988).

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Correlation Analysis

The correlation analysis shows that in both groups, the relation between emotional instability, anger trait and aggressive behaviour is direct and significant. As related to depression and anxiety, in the non-offenders group correlates significantly with all the other variables while in the offenders group depression only correlates with anger trait;

as for anxiety we find that in the offenders group, it correlates with depression and anger trait, while in the non-offenders group it only correlates with depression (see Table 3)

Table 3

Correlations

Offenders					
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Anxiety	1				
2. Depression	.416**	1			
3. Aggressive Behaviour	.050	.079	1		
4. Anger Trait	.198**	.220**	.442**	1	
5. Emotional Instability	.115	.071	.696**	.530**	1
Non-Offenders					
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Anxiety	1				
2. Depression	.224**	1			
3. Aggressive Behaviour	.041	.185**	1		
4. Anger Trait	.070	.215**	.418**	1	
5. Emotional Instability	.021	.215**	.627**	.551**	1

Note:

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Structural Equation Model

The Structural equation model presents a good fit. The indexes of fit related to the multi-group structural model carried out are the following: $\chi^2/d. f. = 105.11/58 = 1.81$; CFI = .95; GFI = .95; AGFI = .91; RMR = .01; RMSEA = .04 (.03, .05).

Having seen that in the correlations, emotional instability appeared as one of the strongest variables, we have used it to analyse its predictor power in both groups.

As we can see (see Figure 1), in the young offenders group all the variables are directly or indirectly related.

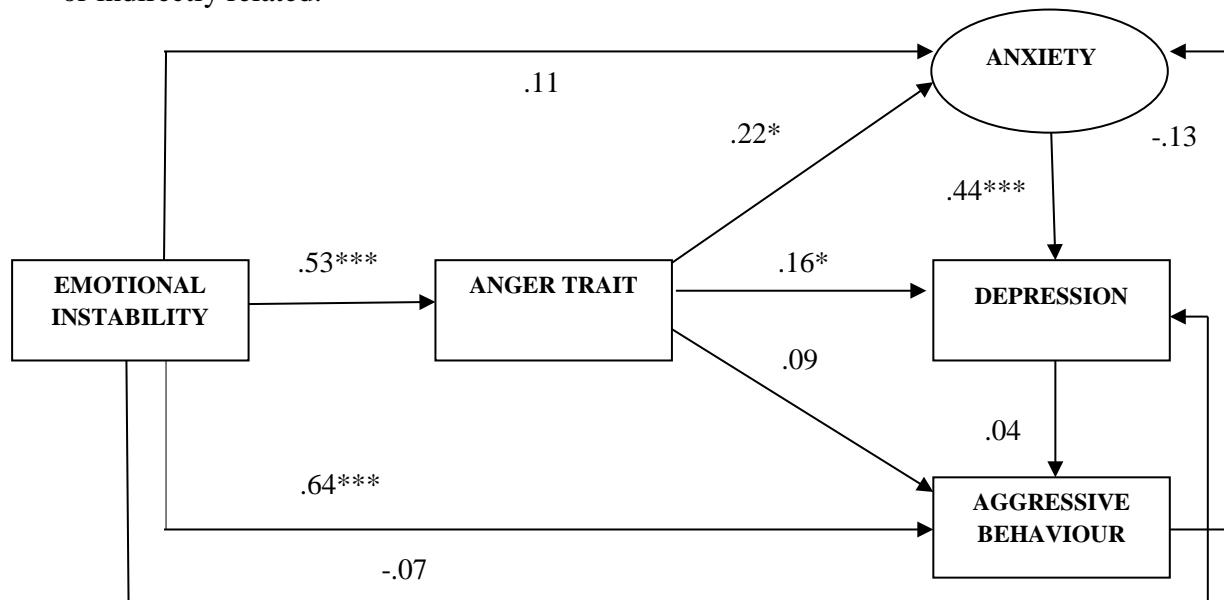


Figure 1. Multiple-group Structural Equation Model: Offenders. Standardised values.

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

Emotional instability directly predicts both anger trait and aggressive behaviour. Anger trait also mediates anxiety and depression and anxiety is also directly related to depression.

Conversely, in the non-offenders group, the structure is different. Emotional instability directly relates to anger trait as well as aggressive behaviour and depression.

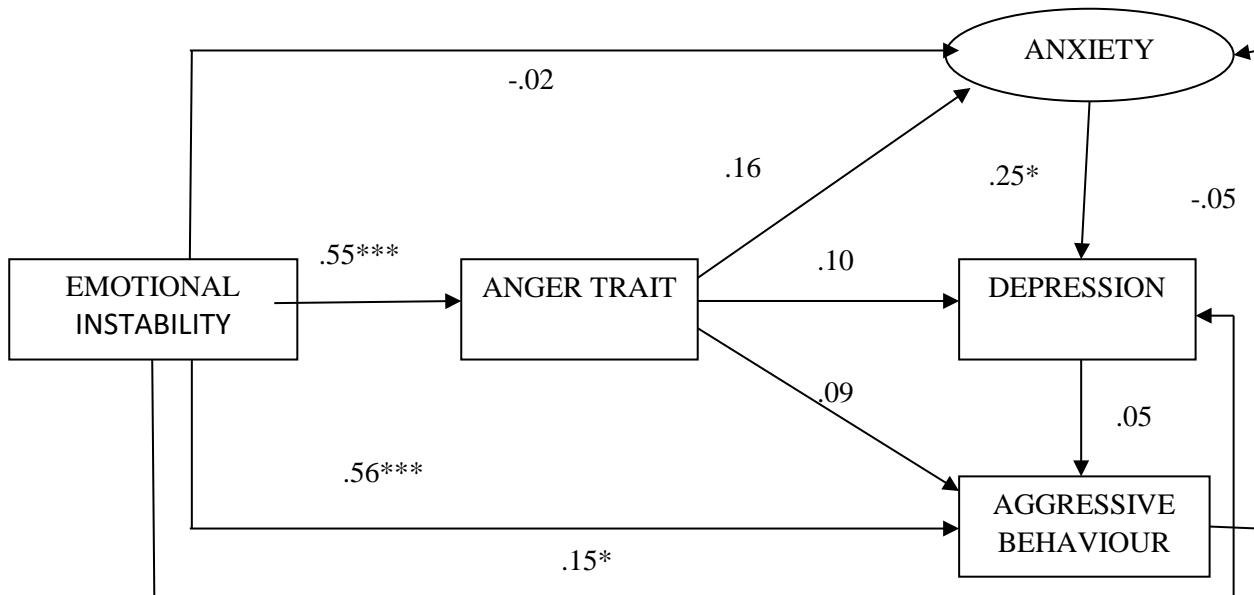


Figure 2. Multiple-group Structural Equation Model: Non-Offenders. Standardised values.

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

Finally, anxiety relates in a direct way with depression but not as strongly as in the offenders group. Anger trait, differing from the young offenders group, has no relation with either anxiety or depression.

Discussion

As already indicated, the aims of the study were, first of all, to analyse the differences between young offenders and non-offenders in the evaluated variables (emotional instability, anger, aggressive behaviour, anxiety and depression), and analyse the differences depending on sex, and on the second place, compare the relation between emotional instability and anxiety, depression and aggressive behaviour mediated or modulated by anger in both groups.

In relation to the first aim, the obtained results show differences between young offenders and no-offenders in the evaluated emotions (anger, anxiety) as well as the behaviours (physical and verbal aggression), being the young offenders the ones to reach higher scores. Likewise, this group shows a higher impulsiveness and lack of self control and at the same time more depressive symptoms. These results are coherent with the research on the subject that establishes the importance of emotions and lack of control over them in aggressive behaviour and crime (Andrés-Pueyo, & Echeburúa, 2010; Cutrín, Gómez-Fraguela, Maneiro, Sobral, & Luengo, 2016; Herrero et al., 2002; Ibabe et al., 2014; Lalayants & Prince, 2014; Mestre et al., 2002; Mestre et al., 2012). However, the differences in each of the groups depending on sex are not present in all evaluated variables; only depression symptoms are higher in adolescent girls in both groups adolescents offenders and non-offenders. This data is also coherent with the research that establishes a higher level of depression in the female sex (del Barrio & Carrasco, 2014). In relation to the physical and verbal aggression evaluated, it is established that the young non-offender boys are the ones to reach higher levels of aggressive behaviour when compared with the girls in the same group, whereas the young offender boys and girls do not show significant differences in physical and verbal aggression. This allows us to conclude that aggressive behaviour crossed with sex is a

discriminating criteria between both samples, as the data confirms a higher aggressive behaviour in the young offenders group, independently of the sex of the adolescent who has committed a crime, as the women of this group reach levels of aggressive behaviour as high as the men (Andrés-Pueyo & Echeburúa, 2010).

As for the second aim, the results of the correlation analysis allows us to conclude that the emotional framework of both groups differs much more in relation to the interiorised disorders (anxiety and depression) than in relation to the exteriorised ones (physical and verbal aggression) being anger the emotional variable that maintains a direct and significant relation to anxiety and depression while in the adolescent general population, the map of the relations between the emotions is wider and emotional instability and physical and verbal aggression also intervene (Brown et al., 2016; del Barrio et al., 2001).

The data of the structural equation confirm and enrich this knowledge as it becomes obvious that the emotional framework of the non-offender subjects is much more simple and linear, while in the young offender subjects each and everyone of the emotions are interacting with the others in a much more complex way.

A relation between physical and verbal aggression and depressive symptoms is not established in the structural equations in the young offenders or non-offenders. This result does not coincide with other research that concludes a co-occurrence of the aggressive behaviour and depression symptoms in adolescence.

Even though this studies show that aggressive behaviour predicts depression symptoms, but depression does not predict aggressive behaviour (Van der Giessen et al., 2013) this can be explained by the cross-sectional design of the study as it does not give a time sequence.

To summarise, we could say that in the offender subjects, all the emotions are closely related to each other, as well as the important role played by anger in regards to anxiety and depression.

This data makes obvious the need to act on the young offenders group to improve their emotional situation. The target emotions would be those discussed in the initial explanation and these are emotional instability and anger trait.

The present study provides relevant results about the emotional profile of young offenders and non-offenders. As we already indicated, our study provides information about how negative emotions behave and their relation to maladapted behaviour in the young offender and non-offender population and, on the other hand, if said emotions follow the same pattern as in the general population. The results widen the knowledge of the different role of anger in both groups of adolescents.

This takes us to a series of consequences related to prevention. Even though it is true that it is important to take into account the temperamental dimension of emotional instability and to consider the importance of emotional control of impulsive children, it is essential the intervention in the management of the regulation of anger as an emotion when it rises as a response to adverse or frustrating situations. It is essential to include in intervention programs, strategies that promote the ability to self regulate these negative emotional states allowing us to avoid being overwhelmed by anger and irritability. The research shows that emotion regulation strategies contribute to regulate impulsive tendencies (Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie, & Reiser, 2000), as well as to low levels of anxiety and depression (Eisenberg et al., 2001; Garnefski, Teerds, Kraaij, Legerstee, & Van den Kommer, 2004).

The present study has some limitations namely that of having carried out the evaluation solely through self-assessments. On the other hand, a transversal design has been followed and, finally, the sample only comes from the Valencian Region.

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ARTICLE 5:

Prosocial reasoning and emotions in young offenders and non-offenders

Article 5: Prosocial reasoning and emotions in young offenders and non-offenders**Resumen**

El objetivo de este estudio ha sido analizar los procesos cognitivos (razonamiento moral prosocial, toma de perspectiva) y los procesos emocionales (preocupación empática, inestabilidad emocional, ira estado-rasgo) que interactúan en la predicción de la conducta agresiva y de la conducta prosocial de los adolescentes que han delinquido y los que no, con la finalidad de establecer las variables predictoras en ambos grupos. La muestra constaba de 440 adolescentes, 220 de los participantes eran adolescentes infractores internos en cuatro Centros de Menores de la Comunidad Valenciana, en los que estaban cumpliendo medidas judiciales (67.3% varones y 32.7% mujeres). Los 220 restantes estaban escolarizados en centros públicos y concertados dentro del área metropolitana de Valencia (65.9% varones y 34.1% mujeres). Se equipararon las dos submuestras en edad (15-18 años), sexo, controlando la representación de las clases sociales. Se evaluó el razonamiento moral prosocial, la empatía, la inestabilidad emocional y la ira estado-rasgo, la conducta prosocial y la agresividad física y verbal. Los análisis de regresión jerárquica realizados muestran el peso diferencial de las emociones positivas (preocupación empática) y negativas (inestabilidad emocional e ira) en relación con el razonamiento moral prosocial en la predicción de los adolescentes, especialmente en los infractores. Se comentan los resultados en cuanto a sus implicaciones para la prevención y la reeducación orientada a la reinserción social de los jóvenes infractores.

Palabras clave: razonamiento moral prosocial, emociones, agresividad, conducta prosocial, delincuencia

Abstract

The aim of this study was to analyze the cognitive processes (prosocial moral reasoning, perspective taking) and emotional processes (empathic concern, emotional instability, anger state-trait) which interact in predicting aggressive behaviour and prosocial behaviour of adolescents who have committed a crime and those who haven't, for the purpose to establish the predictor variables in both groups. Participants were 440 adolescents, 220 were young offenders residing in four Youth Detention Centers of Valencia, in which they were carrying out court sentences (67.3% men and 32.7% women). The other 220 were enrolled in public and private schools within the metropolitan area of Valencia (65.9% men and 34.1% women). The two subsamples were equated in age (15-18 years) and sex, controlling the representation of social classes. Prosocial moral reasoning, empathy, emotional instability and state-trait anger, prosocial behaviour and physical and verbal aggression were assessed. Hierarchical regression analyses carried out show the differential weight of positive emotions (empathic concern) and negative ones (emotional instability and anger) in relation to prosocial moral reasoning in predicting adolescents, especially offenders. The results are discussed in terms of their implications for prevention and reeducation oriented to social reinsertion of young offenders.

Key words: prosocial moral reasoning, emotions, aggression, prosocial behavior, delinquency

The prevalence of aggressive behaviour and delinquency in adolescence is a worrying subject for society in general. Analysing and knowing the determinant factors is one of the main objectives of the research oriented to prevention. In the last decades what can be called social variables of aggression have been studied amongst which family and peers are highlighted (Contreras & Cano, 2016; Cutrín, Gómez-Fraguela, & Luengo, 2015; del Barrio & Roa, 2006; Wertz et al., 2016), together with internal variables, amongst which emotions take central stage (Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur, & Armenta, 2010; Carlo et al., 2012; Herrero, Ordoñez, Salas, & Colom, 2002; Llorca, Malonda, & Samper, 2016; Rodríguez, del Barrio, & Carrasco, 2009). Parenting styles are important in personal development and in the socialisation process of children and adolescents, but the social factors of aggressive behaviour explain around 30% of the variance, which present the need to study the psychological, cognitive and emotional processes involved in aggressive and violent behaviour (del Barrio & Roa, 2006).

Different studies establish that a negative emotionality together with an inability to regulate emotions predict antisocial and delinquent, desadaptative behaviours (Caprara, Gerbino, Paciello, Di Giunta, & Pastorelli, 2010; Eisenberg, 2000; McMahon et al., 2013; Moral & Suárez, 2016). As for empathy, it is considered an important factor that helps adolescents to stop or inhibit their aggressive and delinquent behaviour (Carlo et al., 2010; Mestre, Samper, & Frías, 2002; Van der Graaff, Branje, De Wied, & Meeus, 2012). Empathy understood as the ability to understand and share the emotional state of another person includes cognitive and affective components. Cognitive empathy, or the ability to put oneself in the place of another, represents the ability to understand the internal state of the other person. Affective empathy or empathic concern means to share the emotions observed in the other person. It is an affective response to the distress of the other person and therefore it is more focused on the emotions and the estate of that person instead of our own situation (Davis, 1983; Eisenberg, 2000; Hoffman, 2001). The affective component in particular has an important role to inhibit aggressive and delinquent behaviours. People with higher empathy are more sensitive, they respond better to the emotional expressions of others and they have more probabilities of inhibiting harmful behaviours. Different studies have related low empathy with deficit in execution derived from the difficulty to think in abstract and of understanding the relationship between cause and effect in problems. All of this could

difficult the understanding of the situation or circumstances of the other person and therefore, the possibility to share their emotional state (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2004).

However the results of the relationship among empathy, aggressive behaviour and delinquency are inconclusive. There are studies which confirm a negative relationship between empathy and delinquency, being the relationship between low empathy and delinquency, particularly strong in the most violent delinquents (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2004). These studies also point out that the lack of empathy determines that the individuals do not inhibit their behaviour to harm, while a high empathy is a factor in the protection against aggression (Carlo et al., 2010; Mayberry & Espelage, 2007; Mestre, Samper, & Frías, 2002; Wang, Lei, Yang, Gao, & Zhao, 2016). On the other hand, other studies don't find significant differences between offenders and non-offenders in the cognitive and affective factors of empathy (Schalkwijk, Jan Stams, Stegge, Dekker & Peen, 2016). It seems that the results differ through the different samples and cultural contexts (Wang et al., 2016), depending on sex and whether the affective or the cognitive component of empathy is evaluated (Ashraf, Khalid, & Ahmed, 2014). Also age seems to be a discriminating variable. In this sense, studies of meta-analysis with samples of adults conclude a weak relation between empathy and aggressive behaviour (Vachon, Lynam, & Johnson, 2014). Along the same lines, with samples of different ages the results indicate stronger relations between empathy and delinquency amongst the younger set in relation to older subjects or the adults Jolliffe & Farrington, 2004).

Furthermore, the investigation in moral conduct has traditionally highlighted the need to include moral cognition as well as emotions when explaining said conduct. This highlights the importance to analyse and include moral reasoning. The debate between Kohlberg (1984) and Hoffman (2001) has broached the role of cognition (moral thought) and emotions (empathy) when explaining moral development. Following this line, Eisenberg (1986) defended the importance of prosocial moral reasoning, defined as the reasoning that precedes the making of a decision whether or not to carry out a helping behaviour when facing problems that generate a conflict between physical and psychological needs of others and our own wellbeing, in situations where there are no laws or formal social directives. This reasoning contrasts the moral reasoning oriented

to prohibition which emphasises problems of justice, prohibitions, breaking of the law, dilemmas between the respect for life or death (Kohlberg, 1984).

Eisenberg (1986) defined five levels in the prosocial moral reasoning that develops throughout childhood and adolescence: hedonistic reasoning, oriented to approval, oriented to the needs of others, stereotyped and internalised, which includes the reasoning based on empathy. The first three levels are present in early childhood, while the last two are developed later in childhood and in particular during adolescence.

In general, the prosocial moral behaviour is conceptually related to moral emotions such as empathy (worry about others and perspective taking) (Eisenberg, 1986; Hoffman, 2001). Numerous researches have related in a positive way prosocial moral reasoning with prosocial behaviour (behaviour oriented to benefit others) with empathy (Carlo et al., 2010; Mestre, Frías, Samper, & Tur, 2002; Mestre, Samper, Frías, 2002) and in a negative way with aggressive behaviour (Carlo et al., 2010; Laible, Eye, & Carlo, 2008). Prosocial behaviour of children and adolescents has been related in a positive way with the prosocial moral reasoning oriented to the needs of others and in a negative way with hedonistic reasoning. However, in the later years of adolescence the interiorised reasoning becomes stronger, which includes a more abstract reasoning, the ability to put oneself in the place of the other and internalised affection (Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur, & Armenta, 2011).

The research on moral reasoning and delinquency has been more focused on the cognitive theory of moral development and therefore in the evaluation of the stages of moral reasoning presented by Kohlberg, using instruments like the *Sociomoral Reflection Measure* de Gibbs, Basinger y Fuller (1992). The results point out that moral judgement competence, meaning the level of moral reasoning, is not a significant predictor of delinquent behaviour in adolescence (Leenders & Brugman, 2005; Tarry & Emler, 2007). Some conclusions give limited support to the relation between moral reasoning deficit and delinquent behaviour, when the latter is self informed (Beerthuizen, Brugman, & Basinger, 2013).

Other studies are based on other instruments like *The Moral Orientation Measure* (Stams et al., 2008) which integrates the moral cognitive component (moral judgement) and the moral affective component (empathy). In this case, the results indicate that

socio-moral reasoning and empathy are not decisive contributors to the prediction of delinquent behaviour

Therefore, the research on cognitive and emotional processes related to aggressive and delinquent behaviour shows the need to analyse in the offender and non-offender population how the empathy components and impulsiveness or lack of self control interact with the different kinds of prosocial reasoning, in the prediction of aggressive behaviour oriented to harm others physically or verbally, or prosocial behaviour, whose aim is to help the other person and therefore can be considered opposed to aggressive behaviour, having a role of protector of antisocial behaviour in adolescence (Carlo et al., 2014). The thought about dilemmas as to whether oppose or break rules and laws can help understand the aggressive behaviour of young offenders. However, thinking of prevention, it is more coherent to analyse prosocial modal reasoning, meaning, to analyse the reasoning as to whether to help or not to help others or to see to personal interest instead; as to hurt someone to obtain a benefit or on the contrary avoid facing a problem; as to the ability to anticipate the consequences of the action to be taken; to follow the established social rules about what is considered good or bad, to do what gets us approval from others.

There is wide research about empathy, prosocial moral reasoning and prosocial behaviour. However, the relation between prosocial moral reasoning and aggressive behaviour has been studied in a lesser degree and even less, how the mentioned cognitive processes interact with empathy, with negative emotions like anger and impulsiveness or lack of self control in the offender population.

As we focus our study in adolescence, it is necessary to include the differences of sex in the evaluated variables. There is a wide body of research that confirms said differences. In general, the results show that girls score higher than the boys in empathy, in its cognitive and emotional components, and the boys reach higher levels in aggressive behaviour and delinquency (Mestre, Samper, Frías, & Tur, 2009; Van der Graaff, Branje, De Wied & Meeus, 2012; Van der Graaff, Branje, De Wied, Hawk, & Van Lier, 2014).

Based on the investigation on cognitive and emotional processes related to aggressive behaviour and delinquency in adolescence, we focus our study on evaluating these processes in young offenders and non-offenders population. Following these

investigations, one of the hypotheses of the study would be that the offenders group was less empathic and had a more hedonistic reasoning and with a higher impulsiveness and anger, as opposed to the non-offenders (Carlo et al., 2010; Jolliffe & Farrington, 2004; Mayberry & Espelage, 2007; Mestre, Samper, & Frías, 2002; Wang et al., 2016). A second hypotheses we contemplated in the study would be that the prosocial moral reasoning could have predictor power both in the prosocial behaviour and the in the aggressive behaviour in both subsamples, although low empathy, anger and emotional instability will be strong predictors of aggressive behaviour in particular in the offender population (Carlo et al., 2011; Laible et al., 2008).

The main objective, therefore, is to analyse the cognitive processes (prosocial moral reasoning, perspective taking) and the emotional processes (empathic concern, emotional instability, anger state-trait) that interact in the prediction of the physical and verbal aggressive behaviour and the prosocial behaviour in young offenders and non-offenders. The aim is to establish the differential profile depending on the predictor variables in both groups which will help in the prevention of delinquent behaviour. The results obtained will allow us to conclude if the aggressive and prosocial behaviours perform differently in both groups of adolescents and if the reasoning processes as well as empathy and emotional regulation have to be taken into consideration in the explanation of the behaviours.

Other specific objectives are focused on analysing the differences based on sex and between the young offenders and the non-offenders.

Method

Participants

440 adolescents have taken part in the study, 220 of which where young offenders recruited from four Youth Detention Centers of Valencia, in which they were carrying out court sentences, having selected the adolescents depending on the crime committed, looking for a representation of the crimes.

Amongst the crimes this youngsters were carrying out different court sentences, violence against their parents, damage against property, public health crimes and bodily harm stand out. The rest of the sample was randomly selected from eight public and private schools within the metropolitan area of Valencia paying attention to a

stratification of socio-demographic characteristics based on the kind of institution (public and private) to have representative samples of all socioeconomic levels and social groups. The selection of this subsample has been carried out through a probabilistic cluster sample with various successive stages (multistage sampling). This kind of sampling is very efficient when the population is big and it is made out of natural groups like the school or classroom. The final selection for the study was carried out equating both subsamples in age, sex and controlling the representation of social classes.

The subsample of young offenders includes a total of 148 boys (67.3%) and 72 girls (32.7%), in the group of adolescents from the general population we find a total of 145 boys (65.9%) and 75 girls (34.1%). The ages of the subjects are between 15-18 years in both groups. As for the institutionalised boys and girls we find a mean age of 16.22 and a standard deviation of 1.49. The mean age amongst the non-offender boys and girls is 16.40 with a standard deviation of 1.25.

If we consider the crime committed that has originated the stay in the Centre for Minors, it is verified that the more dominant one is child to parent violence (60.7%) followed by aggravated robbery (33.7%) and in a lesser degree other crimes are attempt against authority (2.6%), breach of parole (2%) and bodily harm (1%).

With regards to social class, we have followed the Hollingshead Index (1975) according to which the representation is similar in both groups, although not identical. The young offenders are situated mainly in a lower middle class (51.4%), followed by middle class (23.2%); and to a lesser degree we find families that belong to an upper class (3.2%) and lower class (6.8%).

As for the non-offenders group, there is a slightly higher percentage of families that belong to a middle class (35.9%) and the percentage of adolescents in lower middle class diminishes (37.7%). We find a slightly higher percentage of adolescents that belong to middle upper class (11.8%) and lower class (8.2%).

Procedure

It is a cross-sectional study. The adolescents that have taken part filled in self-assessment questionnaires. In the Secondary Schools the instruments were applied collectively in the classroom, with a 50 minutes maximum duration. In the Youth

Detention Centres the application of the questionnaires was carried out in small groups made out of two or three and when necessary it was carried out individually. The research project was presented to the school management teams and teachers of the selected schools and to the management of the youth detention centres in the Valencia Region that took part in the study. The cooperation of the centres and the evaluation carried out had the authorisation of the Valencian Government and also had parental permission. The participation of the adolescents was voluntary and anonymous, taking into consideration all ethical principles pertaining to research with human beings included in the Helsinki Declaration, under the current regulations.

Instruments

All measures have been adapted for use and validated in samples of adolescents from Spain (e.g., Del Barrio et al., 2001; Mestre, Pérez, Frías & Samper, 1999; Mestre, Samper, Frias & Tur, 2009; Mestre et al., 2002). Other research with young offenders and non-offenders has been used (Azimpour, Neasi, Shehni-Yailagh, Arshadi, & Beshlidge, 2013; Carlo, Koller, & Eisenberg, 1998; Carlo, McGinley, Roesch, & Kaminski, 2008; Llorca et al., 2016, 2017).

Prosocial Reasoning Objective Measure (PROM) (Carlo, Eisenberg, & Knight, 1992; Mestre, Frías, Samper, & Tur, 2002). It evaluates the reasoning the subject carries out when facing a problem or need of another person which implies a help response. The responses given by the subject to the stories given to him (Begoña's story, Story of the flood, Story of maths, Story of the accident and Ana's Story) score in the different kinds of reasoning: hedonistic reasoning, oriented to need, oriented to approval, stereotyped and internalised. In each story there are five items that correlate to the five categories of reasoning. The subject gives a value of 1 to 5, where 1 is "non-important" up to a value of 5 "maximum importance". There would be 5 categories with scores: a score for the "hedonistic" category (which includes hedonistic and direct reciprocity items), one score oriented to need, one to approval, one stereotyped and one internalised score (which includes friendliness, perspective taking, positive and negative affection, general reciprocity and internalised value items).

It allows to discriminate amongst subjects who justify the behaviour based on their personal interests, those who feel pressure for outside approval and people who are guided more by what society considers good or bad or rather by principles, equality

criteria, responsibility, anticipating of positive or negative consequences that can result of an action.

Cronbach's Alpha for each kind of reasoning evaluated in this study is for young offenders: Hedonistic $\alpha = .72$; Needs $\alpha = .67$; Approval $\alpha = .83$; Stereotyped $\alpha = .67$; Internalised $\alpha = .70$; and Hedonistic $\alpha = .71$; Approval $\alpha = .80$; Internalised $\alpha = .71$; Stereotyped $\alpha = .65$; Need $\alpha = .70$ for non-offenders.

The Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1983; Mestre, Samper, & Frías, 2002). It evaluates the empathic disposition through four factors, two cognitive ones and two emotional ones. It is made up of 28 items with 5 choices to answer ranging from 1 (does not describe you well) to 5 (describes you very well). In this study the cognitive factor *Perspective Taking* (PT): ability to understand the point of view of the other person or to be able to put oneself in their place (Cronbach's Alpha .65 for young offenders and .70 for non-offenders), sample item: "When I am upset with someone I try to put myself in their place for a moment"; and the emotional factor *Empathic concern* (EC): feelings of concern, compassion and affection for others (Cronbach's Alpha .65 for young offenders and .67 for non-offenders), sample item "When I see someone who is being treated unjustly, I feel compassion towards them".

Prosocial Behaviour Scale (PB) (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; del Barrio et al, 2001). It evaluates helping behaviour, trust and sympathy. It is made up of 15 items with three response choices which score from 3 to 1 where 3 indicates "often", 2 "sometimes" and 1 "never". Sample item: "I help my classmates to do their homework". The Cronbach's Alpha is .81 (offenders) y .79 (non-offenders).

Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; del Barrio et al., 2001). It evaluates behaviours that harm others physically or verbally. It is made up of 20 items with three response choices which score from 3 to 1 where 3 indicates "often", 2 "sometimes" and 1 "never". Sample item: "I speak badly of my peers". The Cronbach's Alpha is .89 (offenders) and .86 (non-offenders).

Escala de Inestabilidad Emocional (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; del Barrio et al., 2001). It describes the behaviour that indicates a lack of self-control in social situations as a result of the scarce ability to curb impulsiveness and emotionality. It is made up of 15 items with three response choices which score from 3 to 1 where 3 indicates "often", 2

“sometimes” and 1 “never”. Sample item: “I interrupt others when they talk”. Cronbach’s Alpha is .82 (offenders) and .82 (non-offenders)

Inventory of Expression of Anger State-Trait (STAXI-N, del Barrio, Aluja, & Spielberger, 2004; del Barrio, Spielberger, & Moscoso, 1998). It evaluates the anger as a state (feeling, expression and total score of anger) and as a trait (disposition, reaction and total score). Sample of item: “I am furious”, “I want to shout”. Cronbach’s Alpha is .90 (offenders) and .88 (non-offenders).

Data Analysis

In the first place, factorial 2x2 Variance Analyses (ANOVA) between subjects have also been carried out to analyse the possible interaction effect, should there be one, to calculate the differences of averages between boys and girls and between young offenders and non-offenders for each of the variables (hedonistic reasoning, oriented to the needs of others, oriented to approval, stereotyped and internalised, perspective taking, empathic concern, physical and verbal aggression, prosocial behaviour, anger trait, anger state and emotional instability). In the second place, Pearson’s Correlation Analysis have been carried out amongst the variables object of study to observe the degree of relation and the relation trends amongst them, as well as to observe possible problems with correlation amongst them for each subgroup. Finally, we have carried out two hierarchical regression analysis being the dependent variables physical and verbal aggressive behaviour on the one hand and prosocial behaviour on the other, with the aim to conclude the variables with stronger predictor power over both kinds of behaviour and analyse if the cognitive variables or the emotional variables studied have greater bearing.

The multivaried technique of regression analysis has allowed us to summarise the findings of the research with the construction of a predictor profile of the variables included in the research.

Results

The results of the 2x2 variance analyses carried out to analyse the effects of interaction between the factors of sex and young offenders – non-offenders on the emotional and cognitive variables evaluated, point out that it does not exist interaction effect statistically significant, except on the empathic concern variable ($F(1,436) = 4.19$; $p =$

.04). The results of the comparison of the effects point out that non-offender adolescent girls are more empathic than the boys in their group. There are no differences between offender boys or girls. From these results, we analyse separately each of the variables.

The variance analyses carried out to analyse de differences in the variables included in the study between young offenders and non-offenders show that there are significant differences amongst all evaluated variables except for the categories of internalised, stereotyped and oriented to needs reasoning (see Table 1). The young offenders score significantly higher in the hedonistic and oriented to approval reasoning categories. They also manifest more emotional instability, more anger (state-trait) and physical and verbal aggressive behaviour. On the other hand, the non-offender adolescents have scored higher in empathy (both in the cognitive and in the emotional dimensions) and in prosocial behaviour. (see Table 1). The size of the effect was small for the hedonistic reasoning and the reasoning oriented to the approval of others, empathic concern, anger state and prosocial behaviour, it was medium for perspective taking and anger trait, and big for emotional instability and aggressive behaviour.

Table 1

ANOVAs. Typical measurements and deviations

		<i>M</i>	<i>DT</i>	<i>F</i>	η_p^2
Hedonistic	Offenders	2.59	.97	12.77***	.02
	Non-offenders	2.29	.79		
Approval	Offenders	2.53	1.11	17.67***	.03
	Non-offenders	2.12	.90		
Internalised	Offenders	3.57	.91	.26	.00
	Non-offenders	3.52	.82		
Stereotype	Offenders	3.15	.91	1.06	.00
	Non-offenders	3.23	.77		
Needs	Offenders	3.38	.92	3.95	.00
	Non-offenders	3.21	.84		
Perspective taking	Offenders	2.99	.65	28.08***	.06
	Non-offenders	3.33	.65		
Empathic concern	Offenders	3.29	.61	10.35***	.02
	Non-offenders	3.48	.64		

Anger State	Offenders	1.34	.49	14.96***	.03
	Non-offenders	1.18	.33		
Anger Trait	Offenders	1.99	.44	28.19***	.06
	Non-offenders	1.78	.38		
Emotional Instability	Offenders	1.93	.37	60.77***	.12
	Non-offenders	1.67	.35		
Prosocial Behaviour	Offenders	2.38	.38	14.87***	.03
	Non-offenders	2.51	.33		
Aggressive Behaviour	Offenders	1.65	.39	91.87***	.17
	Non-offenders	1.32	.31		

Note:

F, statistics based on one-way ANOVAs; η_p^2 , Partial Eta squared, effect size measure (.01 = small effect; .06 = medium effect; .13 = large effect; Cohen, 1988). ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

The variance analysis show that differences based on sex are not reached in any of the reasoning levels, neither in emotional instability nor anger. The differences in sex between young offenders and non-offenders can be observed in empathy, reaching the girl offenders ($F(1, 439) = 6.39; p < .01; \eta_p^2 = .02$) and non-offenders ($F(1, 439) = 4.46; p < .05; \eta_p^2 = .02$) higher scores in perspective taking in comparison with the males of their groups, however, only the non-offender girls show a higher empathic concern than the non-offender boys ($F(1, 439) = 17.99; p < .001; \eta_p^2 = .07$). In regards to prosocial and aggressive behaviour it is shown that the non-offender girls report more prosocial behaviours than the boys ($F(1, 439) = 4.11; p < .05; \eta_p^2 = .01$), while both offender boys and girls have lower levels of prosocial behaviour, with not significant differences between them. The contrary effect can be observed in aggressive behaviour, in the way that even though the differences are observed in the non-offenders group, it is the boys who reach higher scores ($F(1, 439) = 6.31; p < .01; \eta_p^2 = .02$). The size of the effect was small in all cases except in empathic concern, in non-offender adolescents, where the scale was medium.

Table 2 shows the bivariated correlations for all variables included in the research in both young offenders and non-offender samples.

Table 2

Bivariated Correlations in both subsamples

	Offenders		Non-Offenders	
	Aggressive behaviour	Prosociality	Aggressive behaviour	Prosociality
Hedonistic	.20**	-.07	.22**	-.06
Approval	.16*	-.04	.05	-.08
Internalised	.09	.21**	-.19**	.19**
Stereotyped	.15*	.16*	-.10	.06
Needs	.103	.14*	-.05	.12
Perspective taking	-.26**	.35**	-.25**	.31**
Empathic concern	-.15*	.33**	-.30**	.46**
Anger State	.49**	-.24**	.32**	-.13
Anger Trait	.44**	-.04	.42**	-.18**
Emotional instability	.70**	-.09	.63**	-.09

Note:

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Aggressive behaviour correlates positively and significantly in both subsamples (offenders and non-offenders) with anger as state and trait, with emotional instability and hedonistic reasoning. Moreover, it does it in equal measure in the young offenders subsample with the reasoning oriented to approval and the stereotyped. As for empathy, the correlations are significant and inversed in both subsamples. It also correlates inversely with the internalised reasoning in the case of the non-offender adolescents (see Table 2).

Prosocial behaviour correlates positively and significantly in both subsamples (offenders and non-offenders) with empathy (perspective taking and empathic worry) and with the internalised reasoning. In the case of the young offenders an also positive correlation appears although weaker, with the stereotyped reasoning and oriented to needs. Finally, prosocial behaviour correlates negatively with anger state in the young offenders subsample and with anger trait in the non-offenders subsample (see Table 2).

Given that the variance analyses have shown that there are few significant differences between boys and girls in the evaluated variables, the regression analysis have been carried out in both groups, young offenders and non-offenders, taken as a whole (boys

and girls). The hierarchical regression analysis have been carried out to test the unique contribution of the cognitive variables (prosocial reasoning and perspective taking) to physical and verbal aggressive behaviour and to prosocial behaviour in the young offenders and non-offenders, controlling the influence of emotional variables; the unique contribution of the emotional variables (empathic concern, emotional instability, anger trait and state), controlling the cognitive variables.

The first block of the equation includes the cognitive variables while the second block includes the emotional variables. The multicollinearity tests were satisfactory in all factors of variance inflation less than 2.00 and the tolerance of the variables all close to 1.00.

Table 3 shows the summary of the hierarchical regression analysis for the cognitive variables and the emotional variables about physical and verbal aggression and about the prosocial behaviour in young offenders and non-offenders. Due to the sample being relatively big which results in a bigger power α was fixed as $\leq .01$.

The global prediction of physical and verbal aggressive behaviour was significant for the whole of the sample of young offenders ($F(10, 209) = 29.062, p = .000$) and non-offenders ($F(10, 209) = 18.957, p = .000$). The general model explained 58% of the variance in physical and verbal aggressive behaviour in the young offenders and 46% of the variance in the physical and verbal aggressive behaviour in the non-offenders. The low perspective taking, emotional instability and anger state are the variables that intervene in the prediction of aggressive behaviour in the young offenders, while in the case of the non-offenders the prosocial reasoning determined by the categories of hedonism and low approval from other has a clear weight, although it also comes into the prediction of empathy (low perspective taking and low empathic concern) and emotional instability (see Table 3).

Table 3

Summary of aggressive behaviour and prosocial behaviour regression analysis

Offenders									
Predictors	Aggressive Behaviour				Prosocial Behaviour				ΔR^2
	Beta	t	R^2	ΔR^2	Beta	t	R^2	ΔR^2	
Block 1			.13	.13				.17	.17
Perspective taking	-.30	-4.52***			.30	4.64***			
Hedonistic	.08	n.s.			-.01	n.s.			
Approval	.02	n.s.			-.14	n.s.			
Internalised	.09	n.s.			.07	n.s.			
Stereotyped	.06	n.s.			.10	n.s.			
Needs	-.11	n.s.			-.00	n.s.			
Block 2			.59	.46				.24	.07
Empathic concern	-.057	n.s.			.19	2.62***			
Anger State	.26	5.63***			-.24	-3.66***			
Anger Trait	.05	n.s.			.03	n.s.			
Emotional instability	.53	9.36***			.05	n.s.			
Non-offenders									
Block 1			.15	.15				.13	.13
Perspective taking	-.17	n.s.			.28	3.91***			
Hedonistic	.21	2.60*			.10	n.s.			
Approval	-.19	-2.49*			.04	n.s.			
Internalised	-.11	n.s.			.12	n.s.			
Stereotyped	.01	n.s.			.20	2.20*			
Needs	.05	n.s.			.09	n.s.			
Block 2			.48	.32				.27	.14
Empathic concern	-.20	-3.27**			.44	6.09***			
Anger State	.09	n.s.			-.08	n.s.			
Anger Trait	.04	n.s.			-.03	n.s.			
Emotional instability	.53	8.59***			.054	n.s.			

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; n.s. = not significant

The global prediction of *prosocial behaviour* was significant for the whole of the sample of young offenders ($F(10, 209) = 6.662, p = .000$) and non-offenders ($F(10, 209) = 7.650, p = .000$). The model explained the 22% of the variance in the prosocial behaviour of the young offenders and 23% of the variance of the prosocial behaviour of the non-offenders. Perspective taking and empathic concern are the variables that intervene in the prediction of prosocial behaviour in both subsamples of adolescents (offenders and non-offenders). Moreover, in the case of the young offenders, the low anger state intervenes also in the prediction of the prosocial behaviour, while in the case of the young non-offenders the stereotyped reasoning comes into the prediction as an important variable (see Table 3).

Discussion

It is important to examine the cognitive processes together with the emotional ones to better understand delinquent behaviour, the results are more conclusive if we compare these processes in the population that has committed a crime and another of similar socio-demographic characteristics but which has not committed an infraction punished by law that carries a sentence.

The main aim of this study was to analyse how the cognitive processes (prosocial moral reasoning and perspective taking) interact with the emotional adaptative processes (empathic concern) and the non adaptative ones (emotional instability, anger state and trait) in the aggressive behaviour and prosocial behaviour displayed by adolescents who have broken the law and are carrying out a sentence and those who have not and therefore are considered socially adapted. The aim is to pinpoint the cognitive and emotional processes which have a higher predictor power in the behaviour, which will help to better understand the factors that propel antisocial behaviour in adolescence.

The results show that there are no differences based on sex in any of the levels of prosocial moral reasoning, however, as was expected, girls are more empathic than boys (Mestre et al., 2009; Van der Graaff et al., 2012; Van der Graaff et al., 2014), even though the empathic concern is only higher in girls who haven't committed a crime, in the young offenders sample, it stops being a prominent characteristic in women, who would not have this inhibitor of the behaviour to harm. Differences have not been established in the rest of the evaluated emotions. In relation to the behaviours the non-offender girls report more prosocial behaviours while it is the boys in the same group

who indicate more physical and verbal abuse, one more time prosocial behaviour and aggressive behaviour is on the same level between offender boys and girls.

Relative to the hypothesis formulated, the results indicate differences between young offenders and non-offenders in most of the cognitive and emotional variables evaluated. The adolescents who have broken the law show lower levels of empathy (perspective taking and empathic concern) and of prosocial behaviour and higher levels of aggressive behaviour, emotional instability and anger (state-trait). Regarding prosocial moral reasoning, it is the young offenders who use arguments oriented to personal benefit or to seeking approval of others to a greater extent when deciding on a helping behaviour. These results corroborate the first hypothesis and correlate with the research that highlights the relationship between empathy and antisocial behaviour, as well as the importance of emotions and their regulation in aggressive behaviour (Arce, Fariña, & Novo, 2014; Arce, Seijo, Fariña, & Mohamed-Mohand, 2010; Carlo et al., 2010; Jolliffe & Farrington, 2004; Mayberry & Espelage, 2007; Mestre et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2016).

As for the second hypothesis, in terms of cognitive and emotional processes which predict behaviour, the way they work is different in prosocial behaviour and aggressive behaviour and these differences are shown when comparing offender and non-offender population. That is to say, the results of the regression analysis show that the prosocial moral reasoning, the ability to put oneself in the place of another (perspective taking) and emotional processes like empathic concern, emotional instability or anger, are present and therefore a different relevance in young offenders and non-offender, as well as in the prediction of their prosocial or aggressive behaviour.

In both samples the prosocial moral reasoning has little weight in the prediction of the two evaluated behaviours. Empathy in both its cognitive and emotional components is the strongest predictor in prosocial behaviour in adolescents, independently of whether they have committed a crime or not, moreover a reasoning based on what is considered socially accepted (stereotyped reasoning) also predicts the helping behaviour in the non-offenders, while the low levels of anger (state) predicts it in the young offenders.

These results correlate with the research that considers empathy as a strong motivator of prosocial behaviour. This pattern is repeated in the offender and non-offender samples, therefore, empathy would be a strong motivator of helping behaviour in the adolescents

carrying out a sentence for having had antisocial behaviour which imply harm to others. So then, the regulation of anger (Caprara et al., 2010; McMahon et al., 2013) and the development of empathy (Mestre et al., 2002) could benefit helping behaviour in young offenders, behaviour that also acts as an inhibitor of aggressive behaviour (Carlo et al., 2014).

In the prediction of aggressive behaviour, the cognitive and emotional processes also act differently in both groups. Emotional instability, meaning, lack of selfcontrol and impulsiveness in situations that cause tension is a strong predictor of aggressive behaviour in young offenders and non-offenders, while anger state also affects those who have committed a crime, that is, uncontrolled emotions are strong predictors of aggressive behaviour in adolescence, but they have a bigger role in the young offenders sample. As for the role executed by empathy, although it appears as inhibitor of aggressive behaviour, both in its cognitive and affective components, in the non-offender sample; in the young offender sample only perspective taking reaches predictor power, meaning, the concern for the discomfort of another person and to share their emotions are not feelings in the young offender when deciding aggressive behaviour. These results correlate with other research that establish the relationship between empathy and antisocial and aggressive behaviour in childhood and adolescence (Arce, Fariña, & Vázquez, 2011; Fariña, Arce, & Novo, 2008; Mayberry & Espelage, 2007; Mestre et al., 2002; Van der Graaff et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2016) and differ from those which suggest that they are unrelated constructs.

Once again prosocial moral reasoning makes itself present only in the prediction of aggressive behaviour in non-offenders. The arguments used are situated on a more basic level of hedonistic reasoning, meaning, reasoning focused on personal benefits that can be obtained by the action or the approval of the significant people. These results partially confirm the second hypothesis, given that although it is confirmed the importance of emotions and the low empathy in predicting aggressive behaviour and the important role of empathy in prosocial behaviour, the prosocial moral behaviour only reaches predictor power in the non-offender population, while it is not a significant predictor of antisocial behaviour in adolescence (Leenders & Brugman, 2005; Tarry & Emler, 2007), only the low ability to put oneself in the place of another if the cognitive variable that participates in the prediction. Other research also indicates that young

offenders practise more immature ways of perspective taking and moral reasoning (Lahat, Gummerum, Mackay & Hanoch, 2015; Stams et al., 2006).

Even though this research has limitations: it is based in self assessments, follows a cross-sectional design with a specific age range, these results contribute relevant information for the prevention of delinquent behaviour as well as for the development of intervention programmes directed to social rehabilitation. A sole process does not predict prosocial behaviour or aggressive behaviour. The adapted prosocial behaviour depends on cognitive and affective processes which interact (Stams et al., 2008). To better know the factors associated to aggressive behaviour, it is important to understand the moral judgements that adolescents carry out, how they think when they direct or decide their behaviour, as their thoughts and moral affects can drive antisocial behaviour (Lahat et al., 2015).

Intervention programmes focused on cognitive restructuration can increase the level of socio-moral reasoning, which is a cognitive process that contributes to moral maturity, but it is also necessary to consider empathy together with prosocial moral reasoning, anger and impulsiveness to understand prosocial behaviour and aggressive behaviour. Our results are conclusive about the importance of the ability to put oneself in the place of another and the control of impulsiveness and anger in inhibiting aggressive behaviour in young offenders.

Therefore, for the prevention as well as the reeducation programmes it is necessary to include emotional regulation and empathy (perspective taking and empathic concern), but also prosocial moral reasoning which includes the anticipation of consequences, principles of respect and equality (internalised reasoning), respect for rules (stereotyped reasoning) that gives adolescents arguments besides hedonism or the seeking of approval when deciding their behaviour, an internalised reasoning that is absent in the prediction of adolescent behaviour and that correlates positively with prosocial behaviour and negatively with aggressive behaviour (Carlo et al., 2014).

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ARTICLE 6:

Emotional awareness and aggression in adolescence: the role of emotional instability
and regulatory emotional self-efficacy beliefs

Article 6: Emotional awareness and aggression in adolescence: the role of emotional instability and regulatory emotional self-efficacy beliefs

Abstract

Different studies have shown that emotional deregulation as well as emotional instability are associated to aggressive behaviour although there aren't many studies that have analysed functional cognitive-emotional aspects such as emotional self awareness and emotional self-efficacy beliefs as inhibiting or protecting variables of aggressive behaviour. The objective of this study is to analyse if 1) regulatory emotional self-efficacy beliefs and 2) emotional instability mediate the relationship between emotional awareness and different kinds of aggression (physical and verbal) and different kinds of anger (state and trait). With the purpose of strengthening the standardisation of our results, we have explored the same model within a sample of young offenders and adolescents of the community. The sample was made of 245 males and females (60% males and 40% females, average age = 16.25, SD = 1.42) from four Youth Detention Centres in the Valencian Community, Spain and 416 adolescent males and females from the Valencian Community (46% males and 54% females, average age = 16.73, SD = 65). The analysis of the hypothetical model showed that emotional awareness favours emotional self-efficacy beliefs and inhibits aggressive behaviour in all analysed samples. In the same way, emotional self-efficacy beliefs had just one protective effect towards aggressive behaviour in the sample of adolescents from the community, having found no effect in the sample of young offenders. The results indicate that emotional awareness has a direct inhibiting effect over aggressive behaviour which is not mediated by emotional instability. Finally, emotional instability promotes aggressive behaviour in both samples.

Key words: emotional awareness, regulatory emotional self-efficacy beliefs, emotional instability, aggression

Research has shown that childhood aggression is linked with a number of negative psychosocial outcomes including social rejection, school dropout, delinquency, and adult antisocial behavior (Cairns, Cairns, & Neckerman, 1989; Parker & Asher, 1987). Different studies conclude an increase in aggressive behavior and emotional instability from late childhood to adolescence (Chaux, 2003; Farrington, 2004; Samper, Aparici, & Mestre, 2006). That is why aggression is a problem with extremely negative consequences for both society and the individual. Generally, aggressive behaviour has been understood as any behaviour that is intended to harm another person who does not want to be harmed (Bushman & Huesmann, 2010). But recent research has highlighted the importance of distinguishing amongst the different types of aggression as they have different characteristics. Consequently, the predictor variables of aggressive behaviour or aggressive mental state could vary depending on the kind of aggression we are trying to predict (McQuade, Breaux, Gómez, Zakarian, & Weatherly, 2016). For this reason, in this study we will analyse different aspects of aggressive behaviour like physical aggressive behaviour, verbal aggressive behaviour, and variables related with it like anger as an emotional state and anger as a character trait.

We consider these four variables not at the same level but they help to describe this behaviour, and following Berkowitz arguments, Berkowitz (1990) suggested that unpleasant situations produce generalized negative affect which, in turn, evokes a network of cognitive, physiologic arousal, and behavioral associations related to both fight (i.e., aggressive) and flight (i.e., escape) action tendencies (Scarpa & Raine, 1997). Berkowitz further suggested that more differentiated feelings, such as anger or fear, then occur as a consequence of additional thought or higher-order processing of these associations. Just as Roberton, Daffern, & Bucks (2015) consider, conceptually, there is some overlap between anger and aggression, in that anger is often accompanied by aggressive action tendencies such as an inclination to yell, wanting to hit someone, and wanting to hurt someone (Roseman, Wiest, & Swartz, 1994), which are manifestations of both physical and verbal aggression.

Besides, empirically, several studies show how trait anger has been associated with aggressive behaviors including domestic violence (Barbour, Eckhardt, Davison, & Kassinove, 1998), aggressive driving (Nesbit, Conger, & Conger, 2007), and

institutional aggression (both physical and verbal; Cornell, Peterson, & Richards, 1999) (Roberton et al., 2015).

On the other hand, we consider physical and verbal aggressiveness basing on the results obtained in other studies in which emotional instability constitutes a risk factor that is positively related to physical and verbal aggressiveness (Del Barrio, Moreno, & López, 2001; Tur, Mestre, & Del Barrio, 2004). In addition, aggressiveness and emotional instability are two variables that are strongly correlated positively and significantly with each other (Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur & Armenta, 2010; Del Barrio, Carrasco, Rodríguez & Gordillo, 2009; Tur et al., 2004).

On the other hand, recent research indicates that different psychosocial variables predict aggressive behaviour such as peer popularity (Stoltz, Cillessen, van den Berg, & Gommans, 2016), self-perceived social competence (McQuade et al., 2016), self-esteem (Garofalo, Holden, Zeigler-Hill, & Velotti, 2016). These studies emphasize the importance of analysing the individual differences that could favour or inhibit aggressive behaviour in adolescents. Empirical studies have also shown that emotional deregulation as well as emotional instability are associated to aggressive behaviour (Mestre, Samper, Tur-Porcar, Richaud, & Mesurado, 2012; Pastorelli, Barbaranelli, Cermak, Rozsa, & Caprara 1997) however there are not many studies that have analysed functional cognitive-emotional aspects such as emotional self awareness and emotional self-efficacy beliefs as inhibiting or protecting variables of aggressive behaviour.

Emotional awareness

Emotions play an important role in the adaptation and regulations of interpersonal relationships (Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Bhullar, & Rooke, 2007). Studies show that the inability to be emotionally self aware and to describe emotions verbally – alexithymia (Rieffe et al., 2010)- is positively associated with psychological vulnerability, a depressive state and hostility, as an open manifestation of anger (Rieffe, et al, 2010; Ruedas, Pérez-García, San Juan, & Ruiz, 2006).

In recent years, the opposite construct to alexithymia, referred to as emotional awareness, has been the object of research as a protective factor of physical and psychological health in childhood. Emotional awareness is understood as an attention

process which implies interpretative and evaluative functions, this process allows the monitoring of our own emotions, differentiate amongst them, identify their causes and know the physiological correlations of experiencing an emotion (Rieffe, Oosterveld, Miers, Terwogt, & Ly, 2008).

Rieffe et al. (2008) considers that emotional awareness includes attitudinal aspects such as the positive or negative assessment of our own emotions, the consideration that they are private aspects of oneself or that, conversely, they have to be communicated to others. Emotional awareness is a cognitive skill which facilitates the opportunity to regulate the most primitive emotional reactions and to find reaction patterns which are more adaptive to a particular context (Rieffe et al., 2007). Starting from the premise that it is necessary to have good emotional awareness to face a particular situation appropriately and respond appropriately to different stimuli, we hypothesize in this study that emotional awareness could be a modulating variable of both verbal and physical aggression, as well as anger state and anger trait. On the other hand, it is probable that emotional self awareness isn't the only variable involved in the protection of aggressive behaviour, but, as already shown by previous research, it is regulatory emotional self-efficacy (Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino, & Pastorelli, 2003; Caprara et al., 2008) and emotional instability (Mestre et al., 2012; Mestre, Tur, Samper, & Latorre, 2010; Pastorelli et al., 1997) which prevent or increase inappropriate externalising behaviours. In this study we select these two variables, first because of its strong relationships with aggressive behaviour (Bandura et al., 2003; Caprara et al., 2008; Mestre et al., 2012; Mestre et al., 2010) and, second, because represent two extremes of emotional activity: on the one hand, emotional fluctuations and lack of control (represented by emotional instability) in certain situations and, on the other hand, the belief of being able to cope and express the emotions in front of those situations (represented by the regulatory emotional self-efficacy).

Emotional Instability, regulatory emotional self-efficacy and its mediator role

Emotional instability is generally conceptualized as frequent and intense fluctuations in emotions over time (Larsen & Diener, 1987; Trull et al., 2008). Regarding the links between emotional instability and aggressive disposition, it has been established that early motor restlessness contributes to later impulsiveness and, in association with aggression, enhances the risk of subsequent deviant outcomes (Klinteberg &

Magnusson, 1989; Klinteberg, Schalling, & Magnusson, 1990). Aggressive behaviour represents a compensatory behaviour that can attempt to alleviate symptom distress associated with problems of affect regulation. It can reasonably be argued that aggression could provide the aggressor with an experience of inappropriate discharge of uncomfortable, difficult or unpleasant emotions. Even though different research has shown the direct effect of emotional instability in promoting aggression, we want to study if this variable acts as a mediator variable in the relationship between emotional awareness and aggression. Meaning, it is probable that emotional self awareness doesn't manage to inhibit different manifestations of aggression because emotional instability cancels that ability in the aggressor.

Therefore, it may be that other variables may intervene differently to emotional instability in the relationship between emotion awareness and aggression; they are regulatory emotional self-efficacy. Based on the self-efficacy theory developed by Bandura (1997), Caprara et al. (Caprara et al. 2008; Caprara, Vecchione, Barbaranelli, & Alessandri, 2013) who postulated the concept of regulatory emotional self-efficacy which includes two aspects: self-efficacy in managing negative affect and self-efficacy in expressing positive emotions. The first makes reference to the belief in the ability that one has to improve negative emotional states which can arise when facing different stressing events and the belief in the ability to prevent negative emotions like anger, irritability, discouragement, despondency to overcome us. In the same way, self-efficacy in expressing positive emotions, refers to the belief in one's capacity to experiment or allow oneself to express positive emotions like happiness, enthusiasm and pride as an answer to success and pleasurable events.

Given that previous research has shown that regulatory emotional self-efficacy has a direct effect on aggressive behaviour (Nocentini, Pastorelli, & Menesini, 2013) and that it acts as a protective variable of aggressive behaviour we postulate that it can have a mediator effect between emotional self awareness and aggression. As we have already pointed out, emotional awareness facilitates the opportunity to regulate the most primitive emotional reactions and to find reaction patterns which are more adaptive, therefore it is probable that it generates a greater belief in emotional self-efficacy and that, in turn, it inhibits aggressive behaviour.

Our Study

Based on everything already mentioned, we formulate the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1. Regulatory emotional self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between emotion awareness and two types of aggression (physical and verbal) and two types of anger (state and trait).

Hypothesis 2. Emotional instability will mediate the relationship between emotion awareness and two types of aggression (physical and verbal) and two types of anger (state and trait).

Given that different investigations have shown that gender plays a fundamental role in the analysed variables, we chose to include the gender variable as a covariate in both models postulated in hypotheses 1 and 2.

To the best of our knowledge, no studies have examined the mediating role of regulatory emotional self-efficacy and emotional instability in the association between emotion awareness level and aggression in young offender populations. Several studies have shown differences between these samples in variables related (Arce, farina, & Vázquez, 2011; Contreras & Cano, 2016). In order to strengthen the standardisation of our results, we explored the same model in a matched community sample. We expected that young offenders would show lower levels of emotion awareness and regulatory emotional self-efficacy, and higher levels of emotional instability and aggressive tendencies, than individuals from general population.

For a better understanding of our hypotheses these were shown in Figure 1.

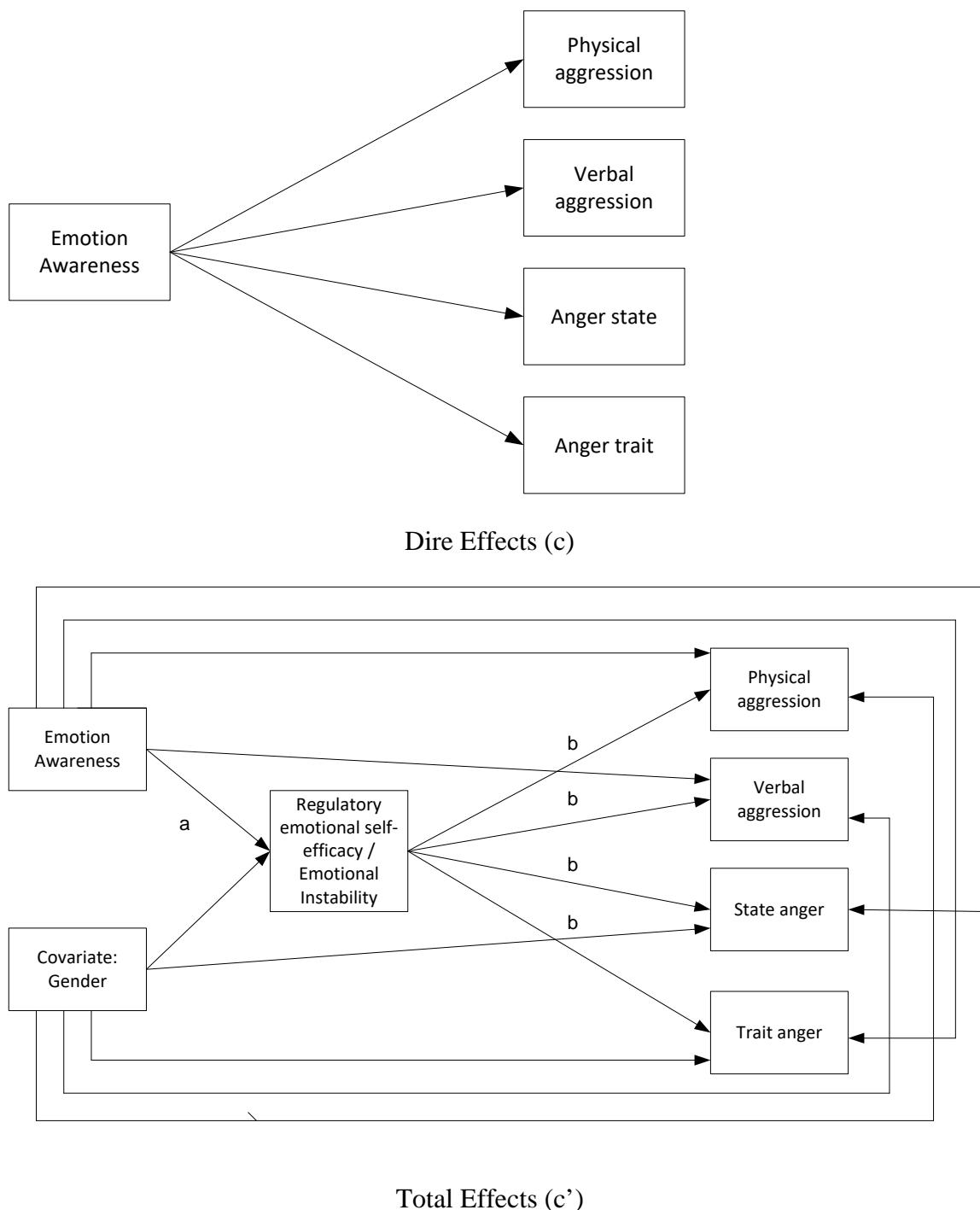


Figure 1. An illustration of our mediation model

Note: An illustration of our mediation model including path labels. More specifically, we hypothesized that the relationship between Emotion awareness level and different types of aggression and anger would be mediated by Regulatory emotional self-efficacy (Indirect effect) and our second hypothesis is that the relationship between Emotion awareness level and different types of aggression and anger would be mediated by emotional instability (Indirect effect).

Method

Participants

Data was obtained from 245 male and female young offenders (60% males and 40% females M age = 16.25, $SD= 1.42$) across four Youth Detention Centres in the Valencian Community, Spain, centres in which the minors serve their sentences for crimes committed, and 416 male and female community participants (46% males and 54% females M age = 16.73, $SD = .65$). The community participants were obtained from public and private schools in the Valencian Community, participating schools were randomly selected from the list of all schools in Valencia with students enrolled in compulsory secondary education. In total, 11 schools participated in the study. Each young offender was Spanish and had been convicted of a violent crime (i.e., offenses involving physical violence towards strangers and parents) theft and petty theft. Participants were asked to complete a series of measures designed to assess their emotional awareness, regulatory emotional self-efficacy, emotional instability and different scale to measure aggression. For the young offender sample, these measures were completed in individual or small group sessions that took place in a quiet room where young offenders usually meet with prison educators. Similarly, community participants completed all questionnaires individually or in small groups in the classrooms of their schools with trained experimenters, which took approximately 45 minutes to complete. All participants provided their written informed consent after being introduced to the aim of the study and participated as volunteers (i.e., they were not compensated for their participation). Participants were assured that they could withdraw from the study at any time and have their responses removed from the database upon request. The Spanish Ministry of Justice approved the procedure for the young offenders. Our procedures for the young offenders and the community members complied with the ethical guidelines of the Spanish Association of Psychology as regards the confidentiality of the information and protection of the data provided.

Measures

Emotional awareness was assessed using the Emotion Awareness Questionnaire (EAQ30; Rieffe et al., 2008, Spanish version Samper-García, Mesurado, Llorca, & Richaud, 2016). The EAQ30 is a self-report questionnaire of 30 items rated on a 3-point scale (1 = *not true*, 2 = *sometimes true*, 3 = *true*) and includes 6 scales: (a)

Differentiating Emotions (“When I am upset, I don’t know if I am sad, scared, or angry”; reversed item, $\alpha = .68$ for young offenders sample, $\alpha = .72$ for community sample); (b) Verbal Sharing of Emotions (“I find it difficult to explain to a friend how I feel”; reversed item, $\alpha = .64$ for young offenders sample, $\alpha = .76$ for community sample); (c) Bodily Awareness (“When I am scared or nervous, I feel something in my tummy” $\alpha = .70$ for young offenders sample, $\alpha = .79$ for community sample); (d) Not Hiding Emotions (“When I am angry or upset, I try to hide this”; reversed item, $\alpha = .74$ for young offenders sample, $\alpha = .81$ for community sample); (e) Analyses of Emotions (“When I have a problem, it helps me when I know how I feel about it”, $\alpha = .60$ for young offenders sample, $\alpha = .69$ for community sample); (f) Attending to Others’ Emotions (“If a friend is upset, I try to understand why”, $\alpha = .68$ for young offenders sample, $\alpha = .75$ for community sample). Twenty items are negatively formulated and thus reversed-scored. In this study we use the sum of all the dimensions to evaluate Emotion Awareness ($\alpha = .72$ for young offenders sample, $\alpha = .78$ for community sample).

Regulatory emotional self-efficacy (Caprara, et al., 2008) was measured by 14 items concerning perceived ability to manage one’s emotional life. These included perceived efficacy to discern one’s emotional states, understand one’s feelings toward others, and manage the expression of positive and negative affect. Includes 3 scales: (a) Perceived self-efficacy to manage positive affect was measured by five items in terms of perceived ability to express liking and affection toward others, to get oneself to express enthusiasm and enjoyment, and to feel satisfaction with personal accomplishments. The item “I can show liking for a person toward whom I am attracted” assessed perceived efficacy to express fondness ($\alpha = .86$ for the young offenders sample and $\alpha = .90$ for the community sample). Perceived self-efficacy to regulate negative affect was assessed by nine items in two factors: (b) perceived self-efficacy in managing anger/irritation: perceived ability to manage negative affect in the face of anxiety-arousing threats, anger provocation, rejection, and disrespect, and to control worrisome ruminations when things go wrong (“i can Manage negative feelings when reprimanded by your parents or significant others”) ($\alpha = .84$ for the young offenders sample and $\alpha = .88$ for the community sample); and (c) perceived self-efficacy in managing despondency/ distress: perceived ability to manage negative affect in the face of despondency and

discouragement (“I can keep from getting discouraged in the face of difficulties”) ($\alpha = .85$ for the young offenders sample and $\alpha = .88$ for the community sample). In this study we use the sum of all dimension to evaluate regulatory emotional self-efficacy ($\alpha = .83$ for the young offenders sample and $\alpha = .88$ for the community sample).

Emotional Instability Scale (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; Spanish version Del Barrio et al., 2001), describes the behaviour that indicates a lack of self control in social situations as a result of the limited ability to refrain impulsiveness and emotionality. It includes 20 items with three possible answers (*often, sometimes or never*). Example items were: “I interrupt others when they speak,” and “I can’t keep still.” The reliability analysis shows a Cronbach’s Alpha of .83 for both samples.

Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; Spanish version Del Barrio et al., 2001). This instrument uses 20 items to evaluate behaviours that harm others physically or verbally. Subjects indicate the frequency with which the behaviour in each statement occurs (*often, sometimes, never*). Example items are, ‘I hit, kick and punch’ and ‘I threaten others’. Cronbach’s alpha for this study was .84 for the young offenders sample and .81 for the community sample in physical aggression and .82 for the young offenders sample and .75 for the community sample in verbal aggression.

Anger State-Trait (STAXI, Spielberger, 1988; Spanish version Del Barrio, Spielberger, & Moscoso, 1998). This self-report questionnaire has three parts. The first part evaluate Anger as a state as follows: the subject must answer according to the following instructions: “Mark the answer that best describes you at this time. Do not think too much about the answer and answer your first impression about how you feel NOW” (example item: “I’m furious”, “I feel like kicking”). The second part evaluate Anger as a trait as follows: he subject must answer according to the following instructions: “Mark the answer that best describes you habitually. Do not think too much about the answer and answer your first impression about how you feel USUALLY” (example item: “I have a strong character”, “It infuriates me correct me in front of others”). The third one describes the level of self control and the coping mechanisms (externalisation or self control) that the subject has in anger inducing situations (example item: “when I’m furious I hide my feelings”, “I take a deep breath to calm myself”). In this study Anger state and Anger trait were used obtaining good reliability indexes (anger state α

= .94 for the young offenders sample and .82 for the community sample, anger trait $\alpha = .81$ for the young offenders sample and .75 for the community sample).

Statistical Analyses

First, the means, standard deviations, and group differences (based on ANOVA/MANOVA designs) on all study variables were calculated. Second, we analysed the correlation among all variables. Finally, we conducted a mediation analysis to test the proposed indirect effects model suggesting that the association between emotion awareness level and aggressive tendencies may be due, at least in part, to regulatory emotional self-efficacy. Given that gender is known to affect levels of several of the included variables, gender was included as covariate in all models. More specifically, we tested a mediation model with a predictor and a covariate, a mediator, and multiple outcomes (i.e., physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state, and anger trait; see Figure 1). To accomplish this, a bootstrapping approach was used (e.g., Hayes, 2009, 2013; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004; Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). Bootstrapping involves creating a repeated series of representations of the population by resampling from the current sample in an attempt to mimic the original sampling procedure. For the current study, we chose to set the number of bootstrapping samples to 1,000. In turn, these 1,000 bootstrapping samples were used to generate a 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect. The confidence interval generated from this process is considered to be statistically significant if it does not contain the value of zero. An SPSS Macro (i.e., PROCESS; Hayes, 2013) was used to conduct the mediation analysis.

Within the PROCESS macro, a seed command was implemented, which allowed us to test the model with multiple outcomes. This command is necessary, as the PROCESS macro is limited to testing models with a single predictor, a single mediator and a single outcome. Therefore, we had to run a separate model for each of the two types of aggression (physical and verbal) and two types of anger (state and trait). However, the seed command links each of these four models by ensuring that each bootstrapping process begins with the same number which, in turn, causes the confidence intervals between the four models to adhere to the same bounds. Furthermore, because the same predictor, covariance and mediator variables were used across the models, the direct and indirect effects of the predictor on the four outcome variables will be the same if they

are calculated separately or simultaneously (see Hayes, 2013, for an extended discussion). This approach was used in both the young offenders and the community sample.

Results

The means, standard deviations, and group differences (based on ANOVA/MANOVA designs) on all study variables are provided in Table 1. Consistent with our expectations, the young offenders sample reported lower levels of Emotion Awareness in the total score and in all dimension than the community sample with the exception of dimensions Verbal Sharing of Emotions and Bodily Awareness. Moreover, the young offenders sample reported lower levels of Regulatory emotional self-efficacy in the total score and in all dimension than the community sample with the exception of dimension Perceived self-efficacy in managing despondency/distress. Finally, young offenders reported significantly higher scores on physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state and anger trait than the community sample. Intercorrelations among all measures are provided in Table 2.

Table 1

Emotional Awareness, Regulatory emotional self-efficacy, Emotional Instability, Aggression and Anger: Reliability Coefficients, Descriptive Statistics, and Group Comparison

	Young Offenders Sample (<i>N</i> = 245)		Community Sample (<i>N</i> = 416)		Whole Sample (<i>N</i> = 661)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	η_p^2
Emotion Awareness (EA) total	2.16	.25	2.28	.27	34.61***	.05
EA Dimensions ^a						
EA - Differentiating Emotions	2.13	.43	2.32	.39	32.40***	.05
EA - Verbal Sharing of Emotions	2.05	.56	2.08	.57	.55	.00
EA - Not Hiding Emotions	1.91	.49	2.11	.50	23.54***	.03
EA - Bodily Awareness	2.19	.50	2.16	.55	.79	.00
EA - Attending to Others' Emotion	2.51	.41	2.70	.36	37.80***	.05
EA - Analyses of Emotions	2.19	.42	2.34	.40	37.08***	.05
Regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) total	3.31	.71	3.57	.62	23.96***	.04
RESE Dimensions ^b						
Perceive self-efficacy in expressing positive affect	3.97	.89	4.17	.76	8.33**	.01
Perceived self-efficacy in managing despondency/distress	3.14	.92	3.26	.81	3.27	.00
Perceived self-efficacy in managing anger/irritation	2.80	1.04	3.30	.83	42.58***	.06
Emotional Instability	1.96	.37	1.67	.34	102.31***	.13
Aggression ^c						
Physical aggression	1.67	.47	1.15	.26	333.60***	.37

Verbal aggression	1.67	.41	1.41	.31	82.47***	.11
Anger ^d						
Anger state	1.32	.48	1.11	.21	60.43***	.08
Anger trait	2.01	.45	1.78	.37	48.56***	.07

Note:

F, statistics based on one-way ANOVAs; η_p^2 , Partial Eta squared, effect size measure **effect measurement** (.01 = small effect; .06 = medium effect; .13 = large effect; Cohen, 1988). ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$.

^aOne-Way MANOVA, Hotelling trace $F(6, 655) = 15.58, p \leq .001, \eta_p^2 = .13$

^bOne-Way MANOVA, Hotelling trace $F(2, 659) = 17.02, p \leq .001, \eta_p^2 = .08$

^cOne-Way MANOVA, Hotelling trace $F(2, 659) = 172.99, p \leq .001, \eta_p^2 = .35$

^dOne-Way MANOVA, Hotelling trace $F(2, 659) = 41.03, p \leq .001, \eta_p^2 = .11$

Table 2. Intercorrelations among Emotional Awareness, Regulatory emotional self-efficacy, Emotional Instability, Aggression and Anger in both young offenders ($N = 245$; Below the Diagonal) and the community ($N = 416$; Above the Diagonal) Samples.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Emotion Awareness (EA) total	-	.50***	.70***	.70***	.29***	.56***	.56***	.28***	.44***	.12*	.11*	-.23***	-.24***	-.25***	-.14**	-.13**
2. EA - Differentiating Emotions	.45***	-	.41***	.39***	-.24**	.12*	.07	.22***	.19***	.19***	.14**	-.20***	-.11*	-.17***	.19***	.22***
3. EA - Verbal Sharing of Emotions	.71***	.30***	-	.60***	-.17***	.19***	.18***	.21***	.23***	.17***	.09	-.15**	-.06	-.14**	.04	-.14**
4. EA - Not Hiding Emotions	.55***	.28***	.42***	-	-.11*	.22***	.17***	.20***	.28***	.13**	.07	-.19***	-.12*	-.23***	-.03	-.12*
5. EA - Bodily Awareness	.26***	-.22***	-.13*	-.19**	-	.16***	.19***	-.06	.08	-.15**	-.07	.09	-.02	-.04	.01	.12*
6. EA - Attending to Others' Emotion	.64***	.11	.29***	.09	.22***	-	.39***	.19***	.42***	.01	.02	-.17***	-.28***	-.20***	-.16***	-.03
7. EA - Analyses of Emotions	.54***	-.01	.25***	.11	-.02	.20**	-	.22***	.33***	.06	.14**	-.19***	-.28***	-.18***	-.08	-.09
8. Regulatory emotional self-efficacy (RESE) total	.29***	.10	.25***	.11	-.02	.21**	.24***	-	.69***	.84***	.81***	-.18***	-.23***	-.17***	-.13**	-.14**
9. Perceived self-efficacy in expressing positive affect	.34***	.12	.17**	.09	.13*	.32***	.28***	.63***	-	.37***	.27***	.09	-.24***	-.12**	-.11*	-.01
10. Perceived self-efficacy in managing despondency /distress	.20**	.16*	.24***	.13	-.09	.06	.11	.79***	.27***	-	.59***	-.04	-.05	-.06	-.04	-.08
11. Perceived self-efficacy in managing anger/irritation	.08	-.01	.14*	.02	-.11	.06	.16*	.77***	.16*	.48***	-	-.28***	-.24***	-.21***	-.16***	-.24***
12. Emotional Instability	-.01	-.13*	.04	.07	.08	-.01	-.11	-.08	.12	-.19**	-.13*	-	.52***	.64***	.24***	.39***
13. Physical aggression	-.17**	-.11	-.04	.01	-.01	-.21***	-.23***	-.05	-.01	-.05	-.16**	.67***	-	.52***	.22***	.20***
14. Verbal aggression	-.16**	-.14*	-.08	.02	.04	-.16**	-.22***	-.08	-.03	.03	.15***	.64***	.74***	-	.11*	.23***
15. Anger state	-.23***	-.11	-.15***	-.06	.01	-.21***	-.26***	.03	.04	.02	.03	.33***	.49***	.45***	-	.31***
16. Anger trait	.06	-.23***	-.05	-.03	-.16**	-.02	-.09	.07	.09	.11	-.07	.51***	.48***	.38***	.37***	-

Note: * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$.

Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed that emotion awareness was negatively associated with physical aggression, verbal aggression, and state anger in the young offenders and community samples. Moreover, emotion awareness was negatively associated with anger trait only in the community sample. It is important to note that regulatory emotional self-efficacy was negatively associated with physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state, and anger trait in the community samples but these variables were not associated in the young offenders sample. Finally, emotional instability was positively associated with physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state, and anger trait in both samples.

The regulatory emotional self-efficacy as mediator variable in the relationship between emotion awareness and aggression in the young offenders sample

The summary statistics for this model are presented in Table 3, whereas a graphic depiction is provided in Figure 2. The model explained a significant moderate portion of the variance for each of the dependent variables. Specifically, the model explained: 3% of the variance in physical aggression ($R^2 = .03, F(3, 220) = 2.55, p \leq .05$) and 6% of the variance in anger state ($R^2 = .06, F(3, 220) = 4.30, p \leq .01$). The model was not significant for verbal aggression ($R^2 = .02, F(3, 220) = 1.89, p = .13$) nor for anger trait ($R^2 = .02, F(3, 220) = 1.58, p = .19$). The total effects indicated that emotion awareness level was negatively associated with physical aggression, verbal aggression and anger state. However, no significant association occurred between emotion awareness level and anger trait. Taken together, these results suggest that young offenders with lower levels of emotion awareness reported greater tendencies toward physical aggression and anger state. However, gender is not associated with the two types of aggressive behaviour nor the two types of anger, moreover our mediation hypothesis was not supported. This suggests that there is not an indirect effect of emotion awareness level on certain aspects of aggression (i.e., physical aggression, verbal aggression) nor the two types of anger (anger state and anger trait) through regulatory emotional self-efficacy in young offender sample.

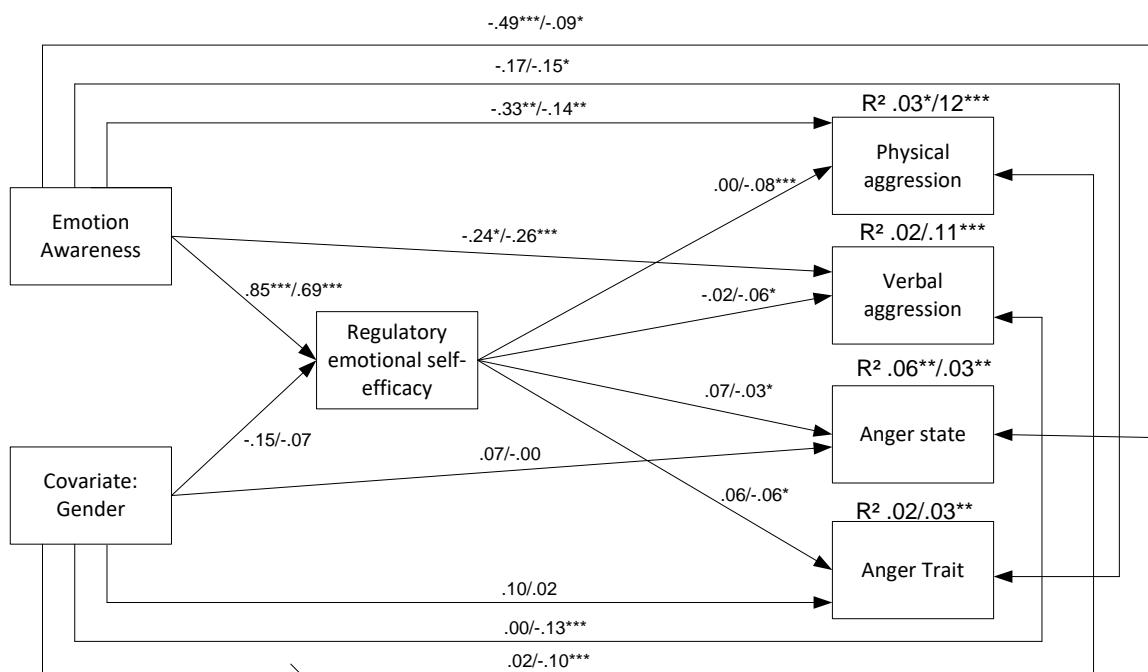


Figure 2. Relationship between emotion awareness, regulatory emotional self-efficacy, aggression and anger controlling gender in young offenders and community sample.

Note: The first path values correspond to the young offenders sample and the second path values corresponds to community sample. Note that the direct and total effects can be seen in Table 3.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Regulatory emotional self-efficacy as mediator variable in the relationship between emotion awareness and aggression in the community sample

The summary statistics for this model are presented in Table 3 and a graphic depiction is provided in Figure 2. The model explained a portion of the variance for each of the dependent variables. In particular, the model explained: 12% of the variance in physical aggression ($R^2 = .12$, $F(3, 406) = 18.03$, $p \leq .001$); 11% of the variance in verbal aggression ($R^2 = .11$, $F(3, 406) = 16.38$, $p \leq .001$); 3% of the variance in anger state ($R^2 = .03$, $F(3, 406) = 4.16$, $p \leq .01$); and 3% of the variance in anger trait ($R^2 = .03$, $F(3, 406) = 3.97$, $p \leq .01$). The total effects indicated that emotion awareness level was negatively associated with physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state and anger

trait. This suggests that community members with lower levels of emotion awareness reported greater tendencies toward physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state and anger trait. Moreover, gender was negatively associated with physical and verbal aggression but not with anger. This suggests that boys community members are more aggressive than the girls. Furthermore, the effect of emotion awareness level on different aspect of aggression (i.e., physical aggression and verbal aggression) and two types of anger (anger state and anger trait) was only partially mediated by regulatory emotional self-efficacy in the community sample. This suggests that there are not a full mediation of regulatory emotional self-efficacy in the relation between emotion awareness level and aggression.

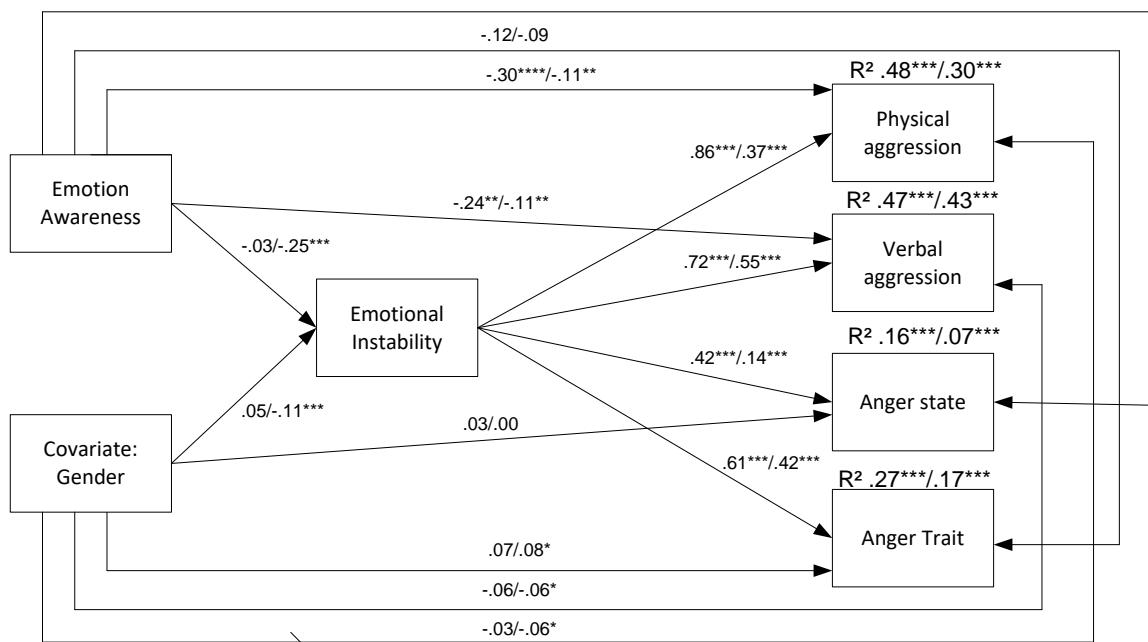


Figure 3. Relationship between emotion awareness, emotional instability, aggression and anger controlling gender in young offenders and community sample.

Note: The first path values correspond to the offenders sample and the second path values corresponds to community sample. Note that the direct and total effects can be seen in Table 4.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Emotional instability as a mediator variable in the relationship between emotion awareness and aggressiveness in the young offender sample

Our second objective was to study the role of emotional instability as a mediator variable between emotion awareness and aggressiveness. The variable gender was used as covariate in these models. The summary statistics for this model are presented in Table 4, whereas a graphic depiction is provided in Figure 3. The model explained a significant portion of the variance for each of the dependent variables. Specifically, the model explained: roughly 48% of the variance in physical aggression ($R^2 = .48$, $F(3, 241) = 73.04$, $p \leq .001$); 47% of the variance in verbal aggression ($R^2 = .47$, $F(3, 241) = 62.10$, $p \leq .001$); 16% of the variance in anger state ($R^2 = .16$, $F(3, 241) = 15.03$, $p \leq .001$); and 27% of the variance in anger trait ($R^2 = .27$, $F(3, 241) = 29.49$, $p \leq .001$). The total effects indicated that emotion awareness level was negatively associated with physical aggression, verbal aggression, and anger state. However, no significant association occurred between emotion awareness level and anger trait. Taken together, these results suggest that young offenders with lower levels of emotion awareness reported greater tendencies toward physical aggression, verbal aggression and anger state. However, gender is not associated with two types of aggressive behaviour nor two types of anger, moreover our mediation hypothesis was not supported by all types of aggression and anger. This suggests that there is not an indirect effect of emotion awareness level on different aspects of aggression (i.e., physical aggression, verbal aggression) and anger (anger state, and anger trait) through emotional instability. But quite the opposite, both variables emotion awareness and emotional instability have a direct effect over all the aggressions included in the study with the exception of anger trait, where only emotional instability has an effect but not emotional awareness.

Table 3. Summary of mediation Analysis for Emotion Awareness level and aggression in the young offenders ($N = 245$; 1000 Bootstraps) and Community Samples ($N = 416$; 1000 Bootstraps) with regulatory emotional self-efficacy as mediating variable.

Predictor Variable (PV)	Mediating Variable (M)	Criterion Variables (CV)	Sample	Effects of PV on M (a)	Covariate Effects of Gender on M	Effect of M on CV (b)	Covariate Effects of Gender on CV	Direct Effect PV on CV	Indirect Effect (Bias Corrected Intervals) (a)(b): 95%CI	Total Effect (c)	R ²
Emotion Awareness	Regulatory emotional self-efficacy	Physical aggression	Offenders	.85***(.19)	-.15 (.10)	-.00(.04)	.02 (.06)	-.33**(.14)	-.00: -.09 to .09	-.33**(.14)	.03*
			Community	.69***(.12)	-.07 (.06)	-.08***(.02)	-.10*** (.02)	-.14**(.05)	-.06: -.10 to -.02	-.20***(.05)	.12***
		Verbal aggression	Offenders	.85***(.19)	-.15 (.10)	-.02(.04)	-.00 (.06)	-.24*(.12)	-.02: -.10 to .06	-.26*(.12)	.02
			Community	.69***(.12)	-.07(.06)	-.06*(.02)	-.13*** (.03)	-.26***(.06)	-.04: -.08 to -.01	-.29***(.06)	.11***
		Anger State	Offenders	.85***(.19)	-.15 (.10)	.07(.04)	.07 (.07)	-.49***(.14)	.06: -.01 to .17	-.43***(.14)	.06**
			Community	.69***(.12)	-.07 (.06)	-.03*(.01)	-.00 (.02)	-.09*(.04)	-.02: -.06 to -.01	-.11**(.04)	.03**
		Anger Trait	Offenders	.85***(.19)	-.15 (.10)	.06(.04)	.10 (.06)	-.17(.13)	.05: -.02 to .16	-.12**(.13)	.02
			Community	.69***(.12)	-.07 (.06)	-.06*(.03)	.02 (.03)	-.15*(.07)	-.04: -.09 to -.00	-.19**(.07)	.03**

Note: * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$.

The estimate values reported are β

Table 4. Summary of mediation Analysis for Emotion Awareness level and aggression in the young offenders ($N = 245$; 1000 Bootstraps) and Community Samples ($N = 416$; 1000 Bootstraps) with emotional instability as mediating variable

Predictor Variable (PV)	Mediating Variable (M)	Criterion Variables (CV)	Sample	Effects of PV on M (a)	Covariate Effects of Gender on M	Effect of M on CV (b)	Covariate Effects of Gender on CV	Direct Effect PV on CV	Indirect Effect (Bias Corrected Intervals) (a)(b): 95%CI	Total Effect (c)	R ²
Emotion Awareness	Emotional Instability	Physical aggression	Offenders	-.03(.09)	.05 (.05)	.86***(.06)	-.03(.05)	-.30***(.09)	-.02: -.18 to .14	-.32***(.09)	.48***
			Community	-.25***(.06)	-.11***(.03)	.37***(.03)	-.06*(.02)	-.11**(.04)	-.09: -.16 to -.05	-.20***(.04)	
		Verbal aggression	Offenders	-.03(.09)	.05 (.05)	.72***(.05)	-.06 (.04)	-.24**(.08)	-.02: -.15 to .12	-.26**(.08)	.47***
			Community	-.25***(.06)	-.11***(.03)	.55***(.03)	-.06*(.02)	-.11**(.05)	-.14: -.21 to -.07	-.25***(.05)	
		Anger State	Offenders	-.03(.09)	.05 (.05)	.42***(.07)	.03 (.06)	-.45***(.11)	-.01: -.10 to .06	-.46***(.11)	.43***
			Community	-.25***(.06)	-.11***(.03)	.14***(.03)	.00(.02)	-.08*(.04)	-.03: -.07 to -.01	-.12**(.04)	
		Anger Trait	Offenders	-.03(.09)	.05 (.05)	.61***(.07)	.07(.06)	-.12(.10)	-.02: -.12 to .10	-.14(.10)	.27***
			Community	-.25***(.06)	-.11***(.03)	.42***(.05)	.08*(.03)	-.09(.06)	-.11: -.18 to -.05	-.20**(.07)	

Note: * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$.

The estimate values reported are β

Emotional instability as a mediator variable in the relationship between emotion awareness and aggressiveness in the community sample

Finally, we studied the role of emotional instability as a mediator variable between emotion awareness and aggressive behaviour in the community sample. The variable gender was used as covariate in these models. The summary statistics for this model are presented in Table 4, whereas a graphic depiction is provided in Figure 3. The model explained a significant portion of the variance for each of the dependent variables. Specifically, the model explained: roughly 30% of the variance in physical aggression ($R^2 = .30$, $F(3, 411) = 57.76$, $p \leq .001$); 43% of the variance in verbal aggression ($R^2 = .43$, $F(3, 411) = 101.46$, $p \leq .001$); 7% of the variance in anger state ($R^2 = .07$, $F(3, 411) = 9.70$, $p \leq .001$); and 17% of the variance in anger trait ($R^2 = .17$, $F(3, 411) = 26.83$, $p \leq .001$). The total effects indicated that emotion awareness level was negatively associated with physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state, and anger trait. Taken together, these results suggest that the community sample with lower levels of emotion awareness reported greater tendencies toward physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state and anger trait. Moreover, gender was negatively associated with physical and verbal aggression and anger trait but not with anger state. This suggests that boy community members are more aggressive than girls while girls have more anger trait than boys. Furthermore, our mediation hypothesis was supported by all types of aggression in the community sample. This suggests that there is an indirect effect of emotion awareness level on different aspects of aggressive behaviour (i.e., physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state, and anger trait) through emotional instability but it is important to note that there is no full mediation but partial mediation.

Discussion

The study of the cognitive-emotional variables has demonstrated to be fundamental in the understanding of the externalising problems of behaviour. Similarly, it was seen that externalising behaviours can have different manifestations like physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger as a negative emotional state or even as a more stable character trait. All of them comprise aggressive behaviours which is necessary to distinguish in

order to identify with greater clarity its predictor variables, being the aim of the present study to contribute with this question by analysing our hypothesis in both the young offenders sample and the community sample.

Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Garofalo et al., 2016), we found that young offenders showed significantly higher levels of emotional instability, physical and verbal aggression as well as anger trait and anger state than community participants. Regarding emotional awareness and regulatory emotional self-efficacy, our results indicated that the community sample scored higher than the young offenders sample, which shows that emotional self awareness, regulatory emotional self-efficacy as well as emotional instability are important distinguishing traits between both groups of adolescents.

Regarding the first hypothesis formulated in this study that postulated that the regulatory emotional self-efficacy mediate the relationship between emotion awareness and different types of aggression, the analysis of the hypothesised model showed that emotional awareness favours regulatory emotional self-efficacy in all the analysed samples. These results indicate that emotional awareness favours attitudinal aspects such as positive or negative valuation of regulatory emotional self-efficacy allowing the adolescents to select one's private emotional aspects from those that should be communicated to others in an adaptive manner. This affirmation is consistent with previous studies (Rieffe et al, 2007; 2008) showing that emotional awareness not only makes having adaptive reactions possible but also contributes towards self confidence in emotional regulation which are fundamental in interpersonal relationships. Just as Caprara et al. (2008) consider, self-efficacy beliefs influence self-regulative standards adopted by people, if they believe they are able to have adaptive responses even when they feel overwhelmed by negative emotions or even if they believe they are capable of expressing their positive emotions, their real ability for efficacy increases favouring adaptive reactions. Our studies have shown that regulatory emotional self-efficacy only had a protective effect towards physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger states and anger trait in the community sample, having found no effect in the young offenders sample. The same thing happened when we studied the mediator effect of regulatory emotional self-efficacy between emotional awareness and the different types of aggression analysed here. That partial mediation effect could only be corroborated in

the community sample and not in the young offenders sample. These results make us think that there are other variables that would better explain (maybe conflict parent-child relationships, aggressive models and inadequate reinforcements) or that prevent more effectively the aggressive behaviour in the young offenders sample. Obviously this variable does not have the same role in the community sample which perhaps presents less maladaptive aggressive behaviours in the young offenders sample. This suggests that more cognitive-emotional processes (like emotional awareness and emotional self-efficacy) has an inverse relationship with the aggressive behaviour of the minors who break the law and perform more violent and maladaptive aggressive behaviours. In turn, this aggression is more impulsive, hence the importance of emotional instability or lack of self control.

Finally and regarding this first hypothesis, this first model further allowed us to show that the total effect of emotional awareness (direct effect plus indirect effect) prevents physical aggression, verbal aggression and anger state in both groups but anger trait only in the community sample. These results confirm previous research which had shown that the inability to identify one's emotions and to express them verbally is positively associated with hostility as an open manifestation of anger (Ruedas et al., 2006) which is the reason why it is not strange that we have found, as a manifestation of a good emotional regulation, that identifying one's emotions prevents both physical and verbal aggression. In fact, in the face of provocative circumstances and stressors, people who cannot sufficiently modulate their strong negative emotions may externalise negative feelings inappropriately (Eisenberg et al., 2001), such as anger and irritation (Olson, Schilling, & Bates, 1999).

Regarding the second hypothesis we postulated in this study that emotional instability will mediate the relationship between emotion awareness and different types of aggression (physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger state, and anger trait), the results of the analysis of the second model show that emotional awareness prevents emotional instability only in the community sample but not so in the young offenders sample. In this sample, fails this cognitive skill that as says Rieffe et al. (2007) facilitates the opportunity to regulate the most primitive emotional reactions, when its interact with situations characterized by lack of control or instability. On the other hand, emotional awareness maintains its protective effect over the physical and verbal

aggression and anger state in both samples but only anger trait in the community sample. In summary, the reading of one's emotional world appears to be effective to prevent different manifestations of aggression even when the aggression levels are high and maladapted as it is the case of the young offenders sample. These findings are similar to that obtained in other studies (Castillo, Salguero, Fernández-Berrocal, & Balluerka, 2013).

Another interesting analysis that we deduce from this second model and consistent with previous studies (Caprara et al., 2008; Mestre et al., 2012; Mestre et al., 2010) is the relevant role played by emotional instability in predicting the different types of aggression. When the mediator role of emotional instability was analysed, as we could observe, there was a great increment of the total explained variance of the models analysed. From this, we can deduce the importance of emotional instability to explain the aggressive behaviour in both the community and the young offenders samples.

It could also be observed that emotional awareness has a significant direct and total effect on each of the aggression manifestations analysed in both samples (with the exception of anger trait whose effect is only significant in the community sample). On the other hand, in the young offenders sample the effect of emotional awareness on aggression is not mediated by emotional instability whereas it is in the community sample. This would make us think that aggressive behaviour in the young offenders sample can be better explained from more stable character traits than from the cognitive-emotional abilities like emotional awareness, maybe emotional instability cancels the ability to identify emotions not being able to stop the rising of disruptive aggressive behaviour.

Limitations and future studies

A limitation of the present study comes from the use of a one-time self-report, which means that there is an inherent method effect contributing to the strength of all of the correlations. The study was based on cross-sectional data; therefore, the direction of the effects in the models is not clear. In future studies, it would be interesting to analyse this models in longitudinal studies. On the other hand, in this study self-reports were used to assess the included variables, therefore it would be interesting to complement them with other evaluation methods in future studies, for example parents and educators reports, specially to measure aggression levels.

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CAPÍTULO III:

DISCUSIÓN GENERAL

I. DISCUSIÓN

El objetivo general de esta Tesis Doctoral fue analizar el perfil diferencial de los adolescentes que están cumpliendo una medida judicial (en su mayor parte por violencia filio-parental) en Centros de reeducación de menores y los no delincuentes, adolescentes escolarizados en Centros de Educación Primaria y Secundaria. El perfil se centra en las emociones y procesos cognitivos, así como en los dos contextos de socialización mas relevantes, como son la familia y el grupo de iguales. A un nivel mas concreto y a partir de la investigación sobre el tema, se trata de ampliar el conocimiento sobre el rol de las emociones y su regulación en la conducta adaptada y desadaptada en la adolescencia, para ello se han evaluado en ambas muestras emociones positivas y negativas.

Esta etapa del ciclo vital es clave para adquirir e incrementar procesos cognitivos y emocionales que contribuyen a la autonomía personal y al desarrollo de una identidad propia en las relaciones sociales. En todo este proceso las experiencias de socialización, entre las que destaca la calidad de las relaciones con los padres, la disciplina ejercida y el uso del razonamiento inductivo en las relaciones con sus hijos e hijas, son claves en el desarrollo personal y social desde la temprana infancia. Así mismo, la adolescencia es una etapa en la que las relaciones con los iguales adquieren mas importancia y se considera una etapa de transición entre una dependencia de las relaciones parentales a una mayor dependencia de los iguales. La aceptación por parte de los compañeros es esencial para la socialización, aporta seguridad y apoyo emocional.

En relación con los objetivos planteados se han realizado seis estudios, cuyos resultados, de forma general, han arrojado evidencias sobre la importancia de las emociones y la dificultad para regularlas en la conducta adaptada (conducta prosocial) y la conducta desadaptada (conducta agresiva). También se constata el rol de la crianza y la relación con iguales en la adolescencia.

Con la intención de facilitar la integración de todos los resultados obtenidos, a continuación discutiremos los datos mas relevantes de cada uno de los seis estudios realizados, por orden de exposición en el capítulo anterior.

Los tres primeros estudios se basan en población adolescente escolarizada a través de un diseño longitudinal, los tres restantes incluyen esta población y una muestra de adolescentes delincuentes.

El primer estudio, *Emotional Instability in Late Childhood and Early Adolescence: Parenting and Peer Attachment*, tuvo como principal objetivo analizar las variables predictivas de la inestabilidad emocional en los últimos años de la infancia y los primeros de la adolescencia, considerando el rol de los padres y los compañeros/amigos.

Los resultados obtenidos muestran las diferencias entre chicos y chicas en la mayoría de las variables evaluadas: los varones adolescentes muestran más inestabilidad emocional, más ira como estado y conductas de externalización de la ira, mientras que las chicas de su misma edad son más empáticas (tanto en la capacidad para ponerse en el lugar del otro, como en la preocupación empática), muestran más mecanismos de autocontrol para afrontar la ira en situaciones que producen tensión y más apego con sus iguales. En relación con la crianza los chicos informan de más control y hostilidad por parte de sus padres y madres, así como más negligencia ejercida por su madre. Así pues, el género aparece como un importante factor en la predicción de la inestabilidad emocional en la infancia y la adolescencia. Los análisis de regresión muestran que las principales variables predictoras de la inestabilidad emocional son la ira, la dimensión cognitiva de la empatía (toma de perspectiva), el control excesivamente estricto por parte de los padres, la hostilidad y/o la negligencia. Para las chicas la hostilidad y la negligencia por parte de sus madres con poco afecto y apoyo emocional del padre son variables predictivas de inestabilidad emocional, mientras que en los chicos la crianza basada en normas excesivamente estrictas, críticas y castigos por parte de la madre, junto con poco apego con sus iguales, son las variables que junto con la ira y la empatía predicen la impulsividad y falta de autocontrol (inestabilidad emocional).

A partir de los resultados obtenidos sobre inestabilidad emocional y su importancia en las emociones se diseña un estudio longitudinal sobre *Anxiety in adolescence: Can we prevent it?* La evaluación se realiza en tres momentos, con un intervalo de un año entre cada evaluación.

Los resultados de nuevo muestran diferencias entre varones y mujeres adolescentes. Las chicas puntúan más alto en ansiedad y en empatía (en su dimensión cognitiva y afectiva) mientras que los chicos puntúan más alto en inestabilidad emocional y agresividad física y verbal. Los cambios a lo largo del periodo evaluado se sitúan en una disminución progresiva de la agresividad en ambos sexos, una disminución de la inestabilidad emocional solo en las chicas, en relación con los mecanismos de

afrontamiento ante situaciones de estrés, en ambos sexos disminuyen las estrategias centradas en la resolución del problema y las que se apoyan en las relaciones con otros.

El análisis de regresión jerárquica muestra que las emociones evaluadas, especialmente la ira como estado, la preocupación empática, la agresividad, las variables de afrontamiento improductivo y el estrés percibido como una amenaza son las variables que destacan en términos de fuerza en la predicción de la ansiedad en la adolescencia.

Los resultados de este estudio aportan información relevante para la prevención de la ansiedad. Se constata que la ansiedad es particularmente importante en las chicas y la inestabilidad emocional y la agresividad es mayor en los chicos, mientras que los mecanismos eficaces para afrontar o regular las emociones disminuyen a lo largo de la adolescencia.

Por tanto el desarrollo de mecanismos de afrontamiento orientados a la solución de problemas y el autocontrol emocional frente a situaciones que producen tensión o requieren encontrar la solución a un problema deben estimularse durante la adolescencia para contribuir a una reducción de la ansiedad y un equilibrio emocional que a su vez contribuyen a una conducta mas adaptada.

Continuando en el estudio del rol de las emociones en la adolescencia se realiza el tercer estudio *The role of emotions in depression and aggression*, también a través de un diseño longitudinal. En la adolescencia se constata un incremento de trastornos emocionales como ansiedad y depresión, además, los síntomas depresivos van frecuentemente acompañados de ansiedad. Por tanto, una vez analizadas, en el estudio anterior, las variables relacionadas con la ansiedad nos planteamos estudiar aquellas que pueden estar mas relacionadas con la depresión.

De nuevo se constatan las diferencias de género en las variables evaluadas. Además de la mayor agresividad física y verbal y mas inestabilidad emocional a lo largo del periodo evaluado en los varones, la depresión se incrementa significativamente en chicos y chicas, en este caso son las chicas las que puntúan mas alto en los tres momentos.

Además, los modelos estructurales muestran un funcionamiento distinto de las emociones en función del sexo. La inestabilidad emocional es un fuerte predictor de la ira (estado-rasgo) en ambos sexos y la ira es un buen mediador entre la inestabilidad

emocional y la agresividad física y verbal. En las chicas, la inestabilidad emocional en el primer tiempo de evaluación predice directamente la sintomatología depresiva en el tercer momento (dos años después), también la ira es un buen mediador entre la inestabilidad emocional y la depresión.

Estos resultados muestran que una variable internalizada, como la inestabilidad emocional, es relevante en la aparición de sintomatología depresiva en las chicas y también en la conducta agresiva de ambos sexos en la medida que interviene la ira. Por tanto, con la mediación de la ira, la inestabilidad emocional alcanza un poder predictivo más alto a través del tiempo. Así pues, el control de la ira se convierte en un objetivo importante para controlar otros afectos negativos.

A partir de estos resultados se realizaron tres estudios con una muestra de adolescentes delincuentes a partir del objetivo de establecer un perfil diferencial entre adolescentes delincuentes y no delincuentes.

El cuarto estudio *Depression and aggression in offenders and non-offenders* se centra como el anterior, en la sintomatología depresiva y la agresividad, pero comparando población delincuente (procedente de Centros de Menores) y no delincuente (procedente de Centros de Enseñanza Secundaria). Para ello se seleccionaron dos muestras equiparadas en sexo y edad y con una representación similar de las clases sociales. En la muestra de menores delincuentes más de un 60% estaban cumpliendo una medida judicial por violencia filio-parental.

Los resultados muestran diferencias significativas entre los dos grupos en todas las variables evaluadas, siendo los adolescentes que han delinquido los que alcanzan puntuaciones mas altas en ansiedad, depresión, ira, inestabilidad emocional y agresividad física y verbal. Las diferencias de género se constatan en algunas de las variables: la sintomatología depresiva es superior en las chicas en ambos grupos, solo en la muestra de población general se constata un mayor nivel de agresividad en los chicos, mientras que en la muestra de adolescentes que han delinquido no hay diferencias, alcanzando ambos性s puntuaciones más elevadas. Este resultado confirma niveles mas altos de conducta agresiva en los adolescentes delincuentes, independientemente del sexo del adolescente que ha cometido el delito.

Los modelos estructurales muestran que en el grupo de adolescentes delincuentes la inestabilidad emocional directamente predice ira rasgo y conducta agresiva. La ira también media en la ansiedad y la depresión, a su vez la ansiedad está fuertemente relacionada con la depresión. En la población general la estructura es diferente, la inestabilidad emocional se relaciona directamente con la ira, con la conducta agresiva y con la depresión, mientras que la ira no guarda relación con la ansiedad o la depresión. La ansiedad también está directamente relacionada con la depresión aunque no con tanta fuerza como en el grupo de delincuentes.

Se concluye que en los sujetos delincuentes todas las emociones están relacionadas entre si, así como el importante rol de la inestabilidad emocional y la ira para explicar la depresión, la ansiedad y la conducta agresiva.

Los resultados aportan información relevante sobre el perfil emocional diferencial de delincuentes y no delincuentes, así como la relación entre las emociones negativas, especialmente la ira, y la conducta desadaptada.

Estos resultados son relevantes para la prevención. Se pone de relieve la necesidad de tener en cuenta la dimensión temperamental de la inestabilidad emocional y considerar la importancia del control emocional de los niños impulsivo. Es esencial la intervención en los mecanismos de regulación de la ira, emoción que se activa ante situaciones frustrantes, desarrollando estrategias que promueven la habilidad para autorregular estados emocionales negativos.

El quinto estudio se centra también en analizar el perfil diferencial entre delincuentes y no delincuentes, pero a partir de los resultados obtenidos en el estudio de las emociones, se decide incorporar procesos cognitivos. En este estudio *Prosocial reasoning and emotions in delinquents and nondelinquents adolescents*, se analizan procesos cognitivos y emocionales en la conducta prosocial versus la conducta agresiva de los dos grupos: delincuentes y no delincuentes. El objetivo principal fue analizar los procesos cognitivos (razonamiento moral prosocial y toma de perspectiva) y los procesos emocionales (preocupación empática, inestabilidad emocional, ira estado-rasgo) que interactúan en la predicción de la conducta agresiva y de la conducta prosocial de los adolescentes que han delinquido y los que no. Se trata de establecer un perfil diferencial que ayude a la prevención de la conducta delictiva.

Los resultados muestran un peso diferencial de los procesos de razonamiento, la empatía y la regulación emocional en la explicación de dichas conductas, así como diferencias de género y entre adolescentes delincuentes y no delincuentes. Los adolescentes infractores respecto a los no infractores utilizan más el razonamiento hedonista y orientado a la aprobación de los demás, son más inestables emocionalmente y muestran más ira y agresividad. Mientras que los adolescentes que no han delinquido alcanzan niveles más altos de empatía y de conducta prosocial.

Las diferencias de género se constatan en la empatía, siendo las chicas de ambos grupos las que tienen más capacidad para ponerse en el lugar del otro, respecto a los varones de su misma edad, así mismo, solo las chicas que no han delinquido informan de más preocupación empática y más conducta prosocial que los varones de su mismo grupo. Por el contrario, son los varones no delincuentes los que alcanzan puntuaciones más altas en agresividad, respecto a las chicas de su grupo. No hay diferencias en función del sexo en ninguna de las categorías de razonamiento moral prosocial evaluadas.

El análisis de regresión para la predicción de la agresividad física y verbal de los adolescentes delincuentes y no delincuentes explica un alto porcentaje de varianza (58% en delincuentes, y el 46% de la varianza en población general). La pobre capacidad para ponerse en el lugar del otro, la inestabilidad emocional y el estado de ira son las variables que mejor predicen la conducta agresiva en población delincuente. En el grupo de no delincuentes interviene en la predicción el razonamiento hedonista y el que busca la aprobación de los demás, junto con la escasa preocupación empática y la inestabilidad emocional.

Por lo que respecta a la predicción de la conducta prosocial, también hay diferencias entre los dos grupos, si bien la empatía (toma de perspectiva y preocupación empática) aparece como un fuerte predictor en la muestra de delincuentes y no delincuentes, en los adolescentes que han delinquido es la ira en sentido negativo la variable que aparece también en la predicción, mientras que en el grupo de no delincuentes entra en la predicción de la conducta orientada a ayudar a otro el razonamiento estereotipado.

Los resultados muestran que el razonamiento prosocial tiene un peso menor en la predicción de la conducta agresiva y de la conducta prosocial en relación con la empatía que aparece como el más fuerte predictor de dichas conductas en ambos grupos. La

inestabilidad emocional es una de las variables con mayor poder predictor de la conducta agresiva.

Estos resultados son relevantes para la prevención y los programas de reeducación orientados a menores que han delinquido. Las estrategias de regulación emocional, el desarrollo de la empatía, tanto en su componente cognitivo (comprender el estado del otro y ponerse en su lugar), como en su componente afectivo (sentimientos orientados al otro) deben estar presentes en estos programas. Además, dado que el razonamiento moral prosocial si que figura como predictor de la conducta prosocial e inhibidor de la conducta agresiva en población general adolescente y está ausente en la muestra de infractores, se deberían introducir programas de entrenamiento en el razonamiento moral prosocial orientados a interiorizar principios y argumentos orientados a la empatía, al bien común, al respeto a las normas y menos orientados al hedonismo o buscar la aprobación de los demás.

Finalmente, para completar el estudio de las emociones se diseñó un estudio orientado a la competencia emocional y autoeficacia, *Emotional awareness and aggression in adolescence: the role of emotional instability and regulatory emotional self-efficacy beliefs*. Si bien diferentes estudios han analizado la relación entre emociones negativas y falta de regulación emocional en la conducta agresiva, tal como concluyen los artículos anteriormente expuestos, hay menos investigación que incluya procesos cognitivo-emocionales, tales como la conciencia emocional y la autoeficacia emocional como variables de vulnerabilidad o protección de la agresividad.

Con el fin de avanzar en el objetivo de la tesis, el presente estudio se realizó también con una muestra de adolescentes delincuentes y no delincuentes con el objetivo de analizar si estos procesos tenían un funcionamiento diferente entre ambos grupos.

La conciencia emocional definida como un proceso atencional que implica funciones interpretativas y evaluativas, este proceso permite el control de nuestras propias emociones, diferenciándolas, identificando sus causas y sus correlatos fisiológicos. Por su parte, la autoeficacia emocional se refiere a la creencia en la habilidad que una persona tiene para mejorar estados emocionales negativos que se activan al enfrentarse a situaciones estresantes, la habilidad para prevenir emociones negativas como la ira, irritabilidad, o abatimiento, así como la habilidad percibida para expresar emociones positivas, como felicidad o entusiasmo.

A partir de investigaciones previas se plantea como objetivo analizar el rol mediador de la autoeficacia emocional y la inestabilidad emocional entre la conciencia emocional y la agresividad y la ira.

Los resultados de nuevo muestran diferencias entre los dos grupos en las variables evaluadas. Los adolescentes delincuentes informan de niveles mas bajos de conciencia emocional y de niveles también mas bajos de autoeficacia emocional en las dimensiones de autoeficacia en expresar emociones positivas y en controlar la ira y la irritabilidad. Por el contrario, estos adolescentes alcanzan niveles mas altos en agresividad (física-verbal) e ira (estado-rasgo).

Los análisis de mediación realizados indican que la asociación entre conciencia emocional y tendencias agresivas puede deberse, al menos en parte a la autoeficacia emocional.

En la muestra de infractores los resultados indican que los que tienen niveles mas bajos de conciencia emocional informan de mas agresividad y mas ira, sin embargo no se confirma la hipótesis de mediación. Por tanto, no hay un efecto indirecto del nivel de conciencia emocional sobre la agresividad y la ira a través de la autoeficacia emocional. Los resultados van en la mista línea en la muestra de población general.

Respecto al papel mediador de la inestabilidad emocional entre la conciencia emocional y la agresividad, los resultados indican que tampoco hay efectos indirectos del nivel de conciencia emocional sobre diferentes aspectos de la agresión (física, verbal, ira estado, ira rasgo) a través de la inestabilidad emocional en la población delincuente. Por el contrario, en los adolescentes que no han delinquido si que se observa un efecto indirecto del nivel de conciencia emocional sobre los diferentes aspectos de la agresión evaluados a través de la inestabilidad emocional, aunque el efecto de mediación es parcial.

Estos resultados amplían el conocimiento sobre las variables cognitivo-emocionales que pueden estar relacionadas con problemas de conducta externalizados.

A modo de conclusiones, se constata que la conciencia emocional y la autoeficacia emocional alcanzan niveles mas altos en los adolescentes que no han delinquido, mientras que la inestabilidad emocional es mas fuerte en la muestra de delincuentes, por tanto constituyen rasgos diferenciales entre ambos grupos de adolescentes.

La autoeficacia emocional parece tener un efecto de protección hacia la agresividad física y verbal y estados de ira en la población general, no en la población delincuente. Además, la conciencia emocional previene inestabilidad emocional solo en la población general, pero no en la delincuente. Por otra parte, la conciencia emocional mantiene su efecto de protección sobre la agresividad física y verbal y la ira estado en ambas muestras, pero solo sobre la ira rasgo en la población general.

El análisis del mundo emocional es necesario para prevenir diferentes manifestaciones de la agresión incluso cuando los niveles de la agresión son altos y llevan a conductas desadaptadas como es el caso de los delincuentes.

Cuando se analiza el poder mediador de la inestabilidad emocional, se observa que la conciencia emocional tiene un efecto directo y total sobre cada una de las variables de agresividad analizadas en ambas muestras (con excepción de la ira rasgo cuyo efecto se da solo en la población general). Se podría pensar que la conducta agresiva en población delincuente se puede explicar mejor desde rasgos de carácter mas estables, habilidades cognitivo-emocionales tales como la conciencia emocional, podemos suponer que la inestabilidad emocional cancela la habilidad para identificar emociones no siendo capaz de parar la escalada de conducta agresiva disruptiva.

En resumen, los resultados obtenidos en los seis estudios empíricos realizados permiten concluir que las diferencias de género deben ser tenidas en cuenta en la investigación de las emociones y la conducta durante la adolescencia

Las diferencias entre delincuentes y no delincuentes se centran en:

1. El funcionamiento de las emociones y el autocontrol de las mismas, especialmente la ira
2. El rol mas secundario de los procesos cognitivos en la predicción de la conducta en los adolescentes que han delinquido, especialmente por lo que se refiere al razonamiento moral prosocial
3. Importancia de la crianza especialmente la influencia positiva de un estilo de crianza caracterizado por el afecto con normas y la influencia negativa de los estilos de crianza permisivo y negligente.

Además, se constata la importancia de las emociones en la adolescencia y su regulación, así como el proceso de socialización a través de la relación con los padres y el apego seguro con iguales.

Los resultados han puesto de relieve la importancia de la empatía en la inhibición de la agresividad y la delincuencia; por el contrario la ira aparece como la emoción diana en la conducta socialmente desadaptada. En los adolescentes delincuentes todas las emociones están relacionadas estrechamente entre si, pero las emociones diana serían aquellas que están en el núcleo explicativo inicial y estas son la inestabilidad emocional y la ira rasgo.

Estos datos hacen patente la necesidad de actuar sobre el grupo de delincuentes a fin de mejorar su situación emocional y su capacidad de autocontrol.

Si bien los procesos de razonamiento moral ocupan un lugar secundario en los adolescentes que han delinquido deben tenerse en cuenta porque predicen la conducta agresiva o prosocial en los no delincuentes. Por tanto, desarrollar diferentes argumentos orientados al beneficio personal o argumentos orientados al beneficio de otros, o al respeto a las normas establecidas, junto con la regulación emocional orientan al adolescente hacia la autonomía personal y pueden contribuir a la prevención de la conducta desadaptada.

II. LIMITACIONES

A pesar de la relevancia de los resultados encontrados, este trabajo adolece de algunas limitaciones que merecen ser consideradas. En primer lugar, los estudios han seguido un diseño longitudinal en la muestra de adolescentes escolarizados en Centros de Educación Primaria y Educación Secundaria, mientras que en la muestra de adolescentes delincuentes se ha seguido un diseño transversal.

En segundo lugar, la evaluación de las emociones, procesos cognitivos y conductas, así como los estilos de crianza y la relación con pares se ha llevado a cabo a través de autoinformes en ambas muestras. Este tipo de medidas pueden tener algún sesgo por deseabilidad social.

En tercer lugar, la evaluación de la conducta prosocial se hace con un instrumento que mide dicha conducta como un único factor, se podría evaluar los diferentes tipos de conductas prosociales en función de los motivos que las rigen y las características de las

mismas (por ejemplo, altruista, egoísta, pública...). Así mismo, la agresividad evaluada nos ofrece información únicamente sobre la agresividad física y verbal, en futuros estudios se podrían evaluar otros tipos de agresividad.

Sería deseable en futuras investigaciones utilizar diferentes fuentes de información (padres, profesores, compañeros), así como seguir el mismo diseño longitudinal en la muestra de adolescentes delincuentes.

III. LINEAS FUTURAS DE INVESTIGACIÓN

Pese a estas limitaciones, los resultados obtenidos ofrecen información relevante sobre la importancia de las emociones en la adolescencia y especialmente en la población delincuente, por lo que consideramos que futuras investigaciones deben continuar el estudio en este campo abordando las limitaciones mencionadas anteriormente con la inclusión de nuevas propuestas. En este sentido a continuación se sugieren algunas posibles líneas futuras de investigación.

En primer lugar, para superar el riesgo que suponen los instrumentos de autoinforme se deberán incorporar otras formas de evaluación a través de los padres, tutores o los compañeros.

En segundo lugar, dada la importancia de las emociones y su regulación, especialmente en población delincuente, sería interesante en futuros estudios incorporar la evaluación de la Inteligencia Emocional.

Diferentes estudios ponen de relieve la necesidad de tener en cuenta variables adicionales que expliquen la decisión del individuo de poner en marcha o no el manejo de sus emociones hacia un determinado fin. Un consolidado cuerpo de investigación sugiere que la realización de comportamientos delictivos puede ser explicada en parte por las creencias que esas personas tienen de ellos mismos, del mundo y de la violencia. Futuros trabajos deberán incluir estas variables cognitivas asociadas a las creencias, actitudes y justificación de la violencia, para poder explicar su interacción con las habilidades emocionales y con la conducta agresiva.

En tercer lugar, ya que en población delincuente se ha seguido un diseño transversal, se debería continuar la investigación con un diseño longitudinal que permita establecer relaciones causales entre las variables estudiadas y la conducta.

Finalmente, la investigación sobre esta temática podría seguir con estudios transculturales en colaboración con grupos de investigación de otros países que también están estudiando las variables psicológicas y sociales implicadas en la conducta adaptada y desadaptada socialmente.

IV. IMPLICACIONES PRÁCTICAS

Esta investigación tiene implicaciones prácticas, especialmente para desarrollar programas orientados a incrementar la empatía y la conducta prosocial y a prevenir la agresión. También para la reeducación de los adolescentes delincuentes a través del desarrollo de la empatía, la regulación emocional especialmente la ira, la conciencia emocional y la autoeficacia, sin olvidar el razonamiento moral prosocial orientado a la autonomía personal y respeto a las normas, razonamiento que está prácticamente ausente en la población delincuente.

Una mayor comprensión de las emociones implicadas en la agresión puede ayudar en el diseño de programas de prevención y de intervención más efectivos que promuevan las habilidades y estrategias para inhibir dicha conducta y potenciar la conducta prosocial a través de la empatía y la regulación emocional. Es decir, programas que permitan desarrollar competencias necesarias para inhibir la conducta agresiva. Por tanto, tomando en consideración los resultados de estos estudios, una intervención dirigida a reducir y prevenir conductas agresivas debe mostrar especial interés en el uso de estrategias de regulación emocional, tales como las orientadas al control de la ira.

Si bien la regulación de las emociones es central en la prevención de la agresividad y la delincuencia no se puede olvidar el rol de los padres y las madres. Es clave que los niños y las niñas crezcan en un clima familiar caracterizado por el afecto, la comunicación y las normas. La permisividad y la negligencia son los estilos de crianza más negativos en el proceso de socialización. Por tanto, es crucial la reeducación simultánea padres, madres e hijos e hijas ante las conductas delictivas, especialmente ante la violencia filio-parental.

En conclusión, los resultados obtenidos en los seis estudios contribuyen al intento de responder a la pregunta de qué papel tienen las emociones, las habilidades emocionales, los procesos de razonamiento, los estilos de crianza y el apoyo de los iguales en la conducta agresiva y en la conducta prosocial.

Las conclusiones permiten avanzar en el conocimiento de las competencias emocionales y los ambientes de socialización que los niños y adolescentes necesitan para impedir que la violencia sea cada vez menos una opción o un recurso en las relaciones sociales, bien sea con los iguales, con los profesores o con los padres.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

1. The empirical studies about child to parent violence (VFP by its Spanish abbreviation) are focused on analysing family climate and parenting styles, type of aggression towards the parents (physical, verbal), victim of said violence (mother-father), kind of family, exposure to violent situations, protection and vulnerability factors.
2. The bibliographic revision on the subject shows that family cohesion, affection, communication and low levels of conflict have a role as protection factors of the VFP, on the contrary, a coercive discipline, with scant affection and lack of limits correlates to more physical and psychological violence from the children to their parents. Physical aggression has a higher incidence in boys and verbal aggression in girls. In both cases the mother is more vulnerable. The use of drugs, school failure, exposure to violence, behavioural problems in and out of the home, depressive symptoms and impulsiveness are vulnerability factors of the VFP. Conversely, empathy, the ability to express emotion and prosocial behaviours are protection factors.
3. Gender appears as a strong discriminative variable in all the studies carried out, both in the general population and in institutionalised adolescents. The adolescent males show more emotional instability, more anger, more physical and verbal aggression. They perceive more control, hostility and negligence from their parents. The girls are more empathic (both in the ability to put themselves in the place of another and in their empathic concern), they reach higher levels of anxiety, and report more depressive symptoms and more self-control mechanisms to cope with situations that cause tension. They develop attachments to peers and more prosocial behaviours. There is no difference between males and females in moral prosocial reasoning.
4. The main predictor variables of emotional instability are anger, the cognitive dimension of empathy (perspective taking), the excessively strict control of the

parents and hostility and/or negligence as parenting styles. In the girls the hostility and negligence of the mother together with little affection and emotional support from the father are predictor variables, while in the boys stand out parenting based on excessively strict rules, criticism and punishment from the mother together with little attachment to their peers.

5. Anger state, empathic concern, aggressive behaviour and unproductive coping mechanisms when facing stressful situations, together with the perception of stress as a threat are the variables which better predict aggressive behaviour in adolescence.
6. Emotional instability is relevant in the appearance of depressive symptoms in adolescent girls and also in physical and verbal aggression in both sexes, through anger. With the mediation of anger, emotional instability reaches a stronger predictor power in time. Therefore, anger management becomes an important objective to control other affects and negative behaviours.
7. The studies with offender and non offender adolescents indicate that offenders show more anxiety, more depression, anger, emotional instability and physical and verbal aggression. They report lower levels of emotional conscience and emotional self-efficacy, moreover they use a more hedonistic reasoning oriented to look for the approval of others when they have to decide on a behaviour. On the contrary, the non offenders reach higher levels of empathy and prosocial behaviour.
8. In the offender adolescents it is confirmed that negative emotions are strongly related to each other and all of them, in turn, with aggressive behaviour (emotional instability, anger, anxiety, depression, aggressive behaviour). It is also concluded the important role of instability and anger to explain depression, anxiety and aggressive behaviour.
9. Lack of empathy (inadequate capacity to put oneself in the place of another), emotional instability and anger state are the variables which better predict aggressive behaviour in offender adolescents. Prosocial reasoning has a lesser weight in the prediction of aggressive and prosocial behaviour in relation to empathy which appears as the strongest predictor of the mentioned behaviours in both groups. Emotional instability is one of the variables with greater predictor power of aggressive behaviour.

10. Emotional conscience and emotional self-efficacy reach higher levels in non offender adolescents, while emotional instability is greater in offenders. The emotional conscience has a protector effect on physical and verbal aggression, as well as on anger.
11. The support of the father and the mother promotes prosocial behaviour and inhibits aggressive behaviour in the offenders group, while it inhibits emotional instability and develops empathy in non offenders. Conversely, the parenting style characterised by absent parents, who don't take care of the needs of the children (negligence) is a risk factor, as it promotes aggressive behaviour in this group and it reduces empathic concern in the non offenders. Extreme permissiveness it is also a negative parenting style as it inhibits empathic concern and prosocial behaviour in the offender group and contributes to emotional instability in the non offenders. In general, parenting styles appear to have a more direct effect on the behaviour of the offender adolescents.

VI. SUMMARY

The thriving of aggressive behaviour and delinquency in adolescence is a worrying subject for society in general. Analysing and knowing the determinant factors is the main objective in the research focused on prevention and intervention.

The bibliography review carried out in the last decade highlights the psychological and social variables related to this problem. The empirical research selected emphasises a series of psychological and behavioural variables as well as social variables related to delinquent and aggressive behaviours. Among the first, the following stand out:

1. Those which are a protection factor: cognitive processes (moral reasoning, perspective taking or the ability to put oneself in the place of another), prosocial behaviour, coping mechanisms that are productive and efficient when facing situations that provoke tension or require a solution to a problem, emotional intelligence, emotional self-regulation (especially to control anger), positive emotions (empathy in its affective component of concern about others stands out).
2. Those which are risk factors of delinquency and aggressive behaviour: temperament (in particular impulsiveness, main predictor of aggressive

behaviour), depressive symptoms, negative emotions (anger stands out), coping mechanisms that are unproductive or inefficient when facing problems or conflict, aggressive behaviour, substance abuse, behavioural problems.

Among the social variables stand out: abuse sequences and those related to the socialisation process: family, school and peers. The parenting styles are considered risk factors if permissiveness dominates the relationship with the parents, the scarce involvement in parenting or negative control (negative evaluation of the children, punishments, excessive rules and criticism), or on the contrary they are protection factors if it is affection, communication and rules, that dominate. In the relationship with peers, the secure attachment or quite the opposite, the relationship with rebel peers or gangs are related to a more or less adapted behaviour in the home or the school environment.

Furthermore, research in this area analyses the processes involved from gender perspective and age.

In the last decade, an increase of violence and family aggressions, in particular between adolescents and their parents has been verified.

There have been given different definitions of this kind of violence, but in general, the child to parent violence is that in which the child acts consciously with the intent to obtain or maintain power, control and dominance over their parents in a repeated manner, hurting their victim, with the immediate end to obtain what they desire causing psychological, financial or physical violence. The child to parent violence presents a characteristic violence cycle, with lack *versus* excess of parental limits, where the *modus operandi* in the aggressor-victim pair becomes a coercive cycle of submission-hostility / hostility-submission, where the abused parents notice that their educational resources are not effective. In fact, when they use these resources (reprimands or punishments), the child responds by increasing, both in intensity and frequency, their violent behaviours. Due to all this, the relationship between parents and children finds itself trapped in a process of action-reaction, where parental submission used to achieve peace in the home environment, causes an increase of the demands of the child against the expectations of the victim (Aroca, 2013).

At the beginning of this decade the Attorney General's Office Publication 1/2010 highlighted that "... the domestic abuse carried out by minors is spreading lately in a way that it should, at least, be qualified as worrying."

The main causes are due to "a permissive society that educates about the rights of the children, but not about their responsibilities, where the motto "without limits" has wrongly transpired (...) preventing a correct maturation process. There are parents who not only are not able to demand respect, but that diminish the authority of the teacher, the Police or other citizens when, in defence of family life, reprimand their descendants."

The data shows an increase in recent years. Attorney General's Office 2015 Yearly Report shows that the numbers of family violence, unfortunately, remain stable: 4,753 cases open in 2014, compared to 4,659 in 2013 and the 4,936 in 2012.

The profile of the aggressor is that of an adolescent between 14 and 16 years of age, although recent research widens the aggressors age range to between 10 and 18 years of age, more frequently male, middle and upper class, who is not used to having his desires denied and with a low frustration threshold. This profile highlights the need to deepen the analysis of the psychological and social variables that influence violent behaviour against parents.

Another look at the latest published research in the area indicates:

1. A higher occurrence in the age range between 12 and 16 years of age.
2. The importance of the parenting styles and the family environment: family cohesion, affection, and communication act as a protection factor and are considered positive family contexts, and on the contrary, family conflict, parental negligence to attend the needs of their children and the little involvement in their upbringing are risk factors for the child to parent violence.
3. As for the personal and social variables, drug use, school failure, exposure to violent situations and environments, depressive symptoms, difficulty to express feelings, lack of empathy, few prosocial behaviours, behavioural problems in and out of the home and anti-social behaviour stand out as facilitators of child to parent violence.

4. The kind of child to parent violence is characterised by more physical violence from boys towards their parents and more verbal violence from girls towards their parents. The mother appears more frequently as the victim of said violence.

In the research we are presenting in this PhD Thesis, it is established the importance of the parenting styles in young offenders (the majority due to child to parent violence) and non offenders even though the effect of the relationship with the parents is different in each group.

The support of the father and the mother encourages prosocial behaviour and inhibits aggressive behaviour in the offenders group, while inhibiting emotional instability and developing empathy in the non offenders. On the contrary, the parenting style characterised by absent parents who do not attend the needs of the children (negligence) is a risk factor as it contributes to the aggressive behaviour in offenders and reduces empathic concern in non offenders. Extreme permissiveness is also a negative parenting style as it inhibits empathic concern and prosocial behaviour in offenders and contributes to emotional instability in non offenders. In general, parenting styles appear to have a more direct effect on the behaviour of offenders.

Aims

The general aim of the present work was to analyse the differential profile of young offenders who are carrying out sentences (in their majority due to child to parent violence) and of the non offenders. The profile is focused on emotions and cognitive processes, as well as the two more relevant socialisation contexts, namely the family and the peers.

This PhD Thesis is based on data assessment obtained from the six scientific studies that comprise this work, with six specific aims:

1. Given the importance that emotions and emotional instability have in adolescence, the aim of the first study was to analyse the predictor variables for emotional instability in late childhood and the first years of adolescence, taking into consideration personal variables, parenting styles and their relationship with their peers.

2. Continuing the study of emotions in adolescence, and given the impact of anxiety and depression during this time, the aim of the second study was to establish, through a longitudinal study, the variables with higher predictor power of anxiety symptoms and those that discriminate between more or less anxious adolescents. It is of special interest to differentiate between the cognitive processes and emotions that facilitate anxiety symptoms and those that protect the adolescent from said symptoms.
3. Given the co-morbidity between anxiety and depression, the aim of the third study was to analyse the variables greater related to depression, in particular, the interaction between negative affects (emotional instability, anger state and trait, physical and verbal aggression and depression) analysing the different relationships through the time in our sample.
4. From the results obtained in the general population, the following studies focus on comparing how the emotions work and their relation to young offenders and non offenders behaviour. The aim in the forth study was to compare the relations between emotional instability and anxiety; depression and aggressive behaviour modulated by anger in both groups.
5. From the results obtained in the study of emotions it was decided to incorporate cognitive processes. The objective of the fifth study was to analyse the cognitive processes (prosocial moral reasoning, perspective taking) and the emotional processes (empathic concern, emotional instability, anger state-trait) that interact in the prediction of the physical and verbal aggressive behaviour and the prosocial behaviour in young offenders and non-offenders.
6. Even though different studies have analysed the relation between negative emotions and lack of emotional regulation in aggressive behaviour, there is less research that includes cognitive-emotional processes, like emotional awareness and emotional self-efficacy. The aim of this last study was to analyse the mediating role of regulatory emotional self-efficacy and emotional instability in the association between emotion awareness level and aggression in offender populations.

Study 1: Emotional Instability in Late Childhood and Early Adolescence: Parenting and Peer Attachment

The aim of this study was to analyse the effect of different parenting styles, personal variables (emotional and cognitive), and peer attachment on emotional instability. We paid special attention to gender differences in both parents and children. We studied late childhood and preadolescence (ages 9-12 years). At this age, while parenting style remains important in children's education and development, children begin to encounter a greater degree of pressure and influence from peers.

The participants were 610 students, 316 female and 294 male, with an age range of 9 to 12 years old. They completed the following measures: Children's Reports of Parental Behaviour: An Inventory (CRPBI) (Samper et al., 2006; Schaefer, 1965); The Emotional Instability Scale (IE) (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; Del Barrio et al., 2001); The Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1980; Mestre, Frías & Samper, 2004); State and Trait Anger Scale (STAXI) (Del Barrio, Aluja & Spielberger, 2004; Del Barrio, Spielberger & Moscoso, 1998); Attachment to Peers (IPPA) (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987).

The results show significant differences between boys and girls. Boys are more emotionally unstable, they experience higher levels of anger and anger externalisation behaviours. In relation to parenting styles they perceive a higher control and hostility in the relationships with their parents, as well as more negligence on their mothers' part in seeing to their needs. Girls are more empathic (perspective taking, empathic concern and personal distress), they have more self-control mechanisms for anger in situations that produce tension and develop a more sure attachment to peers. The regression analyses show that anger explains 50.9 % of the variance in the prediction of emotional instability in boys, together with a lower degree of empathy, (perspective taking), greater control and hostility in the mother and little peer attachment.

The regression analysis of the girls shows that in girls' externalization of anger, perspective taking and personal distress, and hostility and negligence in the mother, weak self-control, and little affection from the father were predictor variables of emotional instability (35.5% of the variance).

The main contribution of this study is to contribute evidence about the prediction of emotional instability from the personal variables, parenting styles of the father and the mother, together with another key factor during development: peer attachment. As for emotions, anger and empathy are related to emotional instability. Moreover, mothers with little involvement in parenting their daughters and who strictly apply rules and punishments, and fathers who offer little affection and emotional support predicted impulsiveness and a lack of self-control. Peer attachment (in the negative) only reaches predictor power in the boys (Bariola et al., 2012; Carlo, et al., 2012; Groh et al., 2014).

Study 2: Anxiety in adolescence. Can we prevent it?

Taking into consideration the importance of emotions in adolescence, we carried out this study about anxiety. A recent revision of research in anxiety in childhood and adolescence shows that deficits in emotional competence, empathy, emotional self-efficacy, ability to cope in situations that cause tension and generate negative emotions are processes that could be related to anxiety symptoms (Mathews, Koehn, Abtahi & Kerns, 2016; Llorca et al., 2016).

The aim of the present study was to analyse the relation between different representative variables of emotional competency and anxiety in adolescents through a longitudinal study.

The participants were 417 adolescents, 192 boys and 225 girls, evaluated over a period of three years. In the first wave the mean age was 14.70 years ($SD= 0.68$; range= 13-17 years).

All of them completed the following instruments in each evaluation: Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS) (Norton, 2007); Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (AFV) (Del Barrio et al., 2001); Emotional Instability Scale (EI) (Del Barrio, Moreno & López, 2001); State and Trait Anger Scale (STAXI) (Del Barrio et al., 2004); Stress Appraisal Measure for Adolescents (SAMA) (Peacock & Wong, 1990); The Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1980; Mestre et al., 2004); Adolescent Coping Scale (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1995; Pereña & Seisdedos, 1997).

The results again show differences between adolescent boys and girls. The girls score higher in anxiety and empathy (ability to put oneself in the place of others and concern for others), while the boys score higher in emotional instability and physical and verbal

aggression. The changes along the evaluated time frame indicate a progressive reduction of aggressive behaviour in both genders and a reduction of emotional instability only in the girls.

Both girls and boys reduce their effective coping strategies when facing stressful situations (oriented to the solution of the problem and strategies that lean on seeking support).

The hierarchical regression analysis shows that anger state, empathic concern, physical and verbal aggression, unproductive coping mechanisms (ineffective to solve the problem) and the stress perceived as a threat are the variables that stand out in terms of strength to predict anxiety in adolescence.

These results give relevant information to prevent anxiety in adolescence. Given that the effective mechanisms to regulate emotions and cope with stressful situations decrease through adolescence and the lack of these mechanisms is related to more anxiety symptoms, it is necessary to train children and adolescents in productive coping strategies, oriented to problem solving, as well as emotional self-control when facing situations that cause tension or require finding a solution to a problem. The reduction in anxiety will contribute to a higher emotional balance and a more adapted behaviour (Barlow, 2000; Grover, Ginsburg & Ialongo, 2007).

Study 3: The role of emotions in depression and aggression

An increase of emotional disorders like anxiety and depression has been verified in adolescence, also, depressive symptoms frequently present themselves together with anxiety and behavioural problems stemming from anger (Kertz, Belden, Tillman & Luby, 2015; Ingoldsby, Kohl, McMahon & Lengua, 2006). Therefore, in the third study the analysis of the variables related to depression and aggressive behaviour was considered through a longitudinal study. Many people who experience together depression, anxiety, feel irritable or angry, normally cannot interpret nor express their emotional changes appropriately. It is very important to know the interrelation of these emotions very well to be able to help adolescents to manage them more easily.

The aim of the third study was double. The first objective was to analyse the interaction between the negative affects (emotional instability, anger state and trait, physical and verbal aggression and depression), analysing their relations through time. The second

objective was to provide information to the managing of the negative emotions depending on their relation to other to establish more effective prevention strategies against aggressive behaviour and depression (Andrés, Richaud, Castañeiras, Canet-Juric & Rodriguez-Carvajal, 2016; Li, Xu & Chen, 2015).

The participants were 417 adolescents, 192 boys and 225 girls, evaluated for three with a one year gap in between evaluations. In the first wave the mean age was 14.70 years ($SD= 0.68$; range= 13-17 years).

All students completed the following instruments: Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (AFV) (Del Barrio et al., 2001); Emotional Instability Scale (EI) (Del Barrio, Moreno & López, 2001); State and Trait Anger Scale (STAXI) (Del Barrio et al., 2004); CES-D Scale (Radloff, 1991).

The results show once again differences by gender in the evaluated variables. Adolescent boys report more physical and verbal aggressive behaviour and more emotional instability throughout the time period evaluated. Depression symptoms increase significantly in boys and girls during the three years. In this case it is the girls who score higher in the three evaluations.

The structural models show a difference as to how the emotions work in adolescent boys and girls. Emotional instability is a strong predictor of anger (state-trait) in both genders and anger is a good mediator between emotional instability and physical and verbal aggressive behaviour. Moreover, in adolescent girls emotional instability in the first evaluation directly predicts depressive symptoms in the third wave of the study, meaning, two years later. The longitudinal path analysis show that anger is also a good mediator between emotional instability and depression in girls.

These results show that an internalised variable as emotional instability, is relevant in the appearance of depression symptoms in girls and also in the aggressive behaviour of boys and girls to the extent that anger intervenes (Alpaslan, Kocak & Avci, 2016).

In regards to anger, there appears a great balance in the role it performs in the case of boys and girls. This involvement means that the control of anger becomes an important goal to control the rest of the negative affects.

In the models it becomes apparent that instability predicts depression and anger, but not aggression, the latter only appears if instability is associated to anger.

To sum up, the results show important differences in the emotional field between boys and girls throughout adolescence. On the other hand, they provide information about the prediction of depression and aggressive behaviour, information that should be taken into consideration in programmes oriented to establish emotional control in adolescents.

Study 4: Depression and aggression in offenders and non-offenders

The forth study, as the previous one, focuses on depression symptoms and aggressive behaviour in adolescence, but in this case the study compares young offenders with non offenders.

The research on adolescents or youngsters with aggressive or delinquent behaviours shows the importance of various family and social variables (Cutrín et al., 2015), even though the social factor of aggressive behaviour is one of the factors which explain said conducts, which justifies the study of the internal variables of the individual, especially emotion (Rodriguez et al., 2009).

Different research has concluded that impulsiveness and lack of emotional control are predictors of anger which in turn determines aggressive behaviour (Mestre et al., 2012). Furthermore, recent studies add that emotional instability predicts the appearance of depression symptoms throughout time (Llorca et al., 2016). Other studies provide information about the relation between delinquency and depression (Ibabe et al., 2014). Therefore, even though there are studies about delinquency and emotions in adolescence, there are less studies on the specific interaction between said emotions.

The main contribution of the forth study is to analyse how the negative emotions behave and their relation to maladaptive behaviours in young offenders and if these emotions follow the same pattern as in the general population.

The aims of this study were the following: 1) analyse the differences between young offenders and non-offenders in the evaluated variables (emotional instability, anger, aggressive behaviour, anxiety and depression) and also the differences according to gender; and 2) to compare the relation between emotional instability and anxiety, depression and aggressive behaviour mediated or modulated by anger in both groups.

The participants were 440 adolescents, 220 of those were young offenders who were selected from four different correctional centres of the Valencia Region, who where carrying out different court sentences. Most of them were carrying out a sentence due to

child to parent violence. The rest of the sample was selected randomly from ten public and private schools in the Valencia metropolitan area. The selection was made equating both subgroups in age gender and controlling the representation of the social status, verifying that there aren't significant differences between the two groups related to these socio demographic variables.

The subgroup of young offenders includes a total of 148 boys and 72 girls; amongst the participants selected from the general population we find a total of 145 boys and 75 girls. The ages of the subjects are between 15-18 years.

Both groups of adolescents filled in the following instruments: Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (AFV) (Del Barrio et al., 2001); Emotional Instability Scale (EI) (Del Barrio, Moreno & López, 2001); State and Trait Anger Scale (STAXI) (Del Barrio et al., 2004); CES-D Scale (Radloff, 1991; Eaton, Smith, Ybarra, Muntaner, & Tien, 2004); Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS, Norton 2007).

The results show significant differences between the two groups in all variables evaluated, being the young offenders the ones to reach higher scores in anxiety, depression, anger, emotional instability and physical and verbal aggressive behaviour. Likewise, gender differences are established: the girls present more depression symptoms in both groups, only in the non offender sample a higher level of aggressive behaviour can be observed in the boys, while in the young offender sample there is no difference, both boys and girls reach higher levels of aggressive behaviour. This result confirms higher levels of physical and verbal aggressive behaviour in young offenders independently of the gender of the adolescent who has committed the crime.

The structural models show that in the young offender's group emotional instability is a direct predictor of anger trait and aggressive behaviour. Anger also mediates anxiety and depression, in turn anxiety is strongly related to depression. In the non offender adolescents the structure is different, emotional instability relates directly to anger, aggressive behaviour and depression, while anger does not relate to anxiety or depression. Anxiety also directly relates to depression although not as strongly as in the offenders group. A relation between physical and verbal aggressive behaviour and depression symptoms is not established neither in the young offenders nor the non offenders. This result does not coincide with other studies that conclude a co-

occurrence of aggressive behaviour with depression symptoms in adolescence (Van der Giessen, et al., 2013).

To sum up, we conclude that in the offender subjects all emotions are closely related to each other, as well as the important role of anger in anxiety and depression.

This data highlights the need to act upon the offenders group with the aim to improve their emotional situation. The target emotions would be those which we find in the initial explanatory core and they are emotional instability and anger trait.

The present study provides relevant results about the emotional profile of young offenders and non offenders, about how the negative emotions behave and their relation to maladapted behaviour. And on the other hand, if said emotions follow the same pattern as in general population. The results widen the knowledge of the different role of anger in both groups. These results have consequences over prevention. However it is important to take into account the temperamental dimension of emotional instability and consider the importance of emotional control of impulsive children, it is basic to intervene in the management of regulation of anger as emotion when it appears in response to adverse or frustrating situations.

Study 5: Prosocial reasoning and emotions in offender and non-delinquent adolescents

In keeping with the aim to establish a differential profile between offenders and non offenders, the fifth study incorporates the analysis of cognitive processes together with emotional processes.

Different studies establish that a negative emotionality together with an inability to regulate emotions predict antisocial and delinquent behaviour (Caprara et al., 2010; McMahon et al., 2013). Conversely, empathy is considered an inhibitor factor of aggressive and delinquent behaviour (Carlo et al., 2010; Van der Graaff et al., 2012), even though the results on the relation of empathy, aggressive behaviour and delinquency are inconclusive. Although there are studies that confirm a negative relation between empathy and aggressive behaviour (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2004) and they consider empathy as a protection factor from aggressive behaviour (Carlo, et al., 2010; Wang, Lei, Yang, Gao & Zhao, 2016), other studies do not find significant

differences between offenders and non offenders in the cognitive and affective factors of empathy (Schalkwijk, Jan Stams, Stegge, Dekker & Peen, 2016).

On the other hand, the research on moral conduct has highlighted the need to include moral cognitions together with emotions when explaining said behaviour. This justifies the inclusion of moral prosocial reasoning in the study of adapted and maladapted behaviour, in particular to explain the prosocial behaviour (behaviour oriented to benefit others) versus aggressive behaviour (behaviour oriented to harm others).

Even though there is a vast research on empathy, moral prosocial reasoning and prosocial behaviour, the relation between moral prosocial reasoning and aggressive behaviour has been less studied and even less how these cognitive processes interact with empathy and with negative emotions such as anger and lack of self-control in offender population.

The main objective of this study was to analyse the cognitive processes (moral prosocial reasoning and perspective taking) and the emotional processes (empathic concern, emotional instability, anger state-trait) which interact in the prediction of aggressive behaviour and prosocial behaviour of young offenders and non offenders. The purpose of this analysis is to establish a differential profile, according to the predictor variables in both groups, which will help prevent delinquent behaviour. The result will conclude if aggressive and prosocial behaviour perform differently in both groups of adolescents and if to explain these behaviours the reasoning processes as well as empathy and emotional regulation should be considered.

Other specific aims were focused on analysing the differences between cognitive and emotional processes depending on gender and between the young offenders and non offenders.

The participants were 440 adolescents, 220 of those were young offenders who were selected from four different correctional centres of the Valencia Region, who where carrying out different court sentences. Most of them were carrying out a sentence due to child to parent violence. The rest of the sample was selected randomly from ten public and private schools in the Valencia metropolitan area. The selection was made equating both subgroups in age, gender and controlling the representation of the social

status, verifying that there aren't significant differences between the two groups related to these socio demographic variables.

The subgroup of young offenders includes a total of 148 boys and 72 girls; amongst the participants selected from the general population we find a total of 145 boys and 75 girls. The ages of the subjects are between 15-18 years.

Both groups of adolescents filled in the following instruments:

Prosocial Reasoning Objective Measure (PROM) (Carlo, Eisenberg & Knight, 1992; Mestre, Frías, Samper & Tur, 2002); The Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1980; Mestre et al., 2004); Prosocial Behavior Scale (PB) (Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; Del Barrio, Moreno & López, 2001); Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (AFV) (Del Barrio et al., 2001); Emotional Instability Scale (EI) (Del Barrio, Moreno & López, 2001); State and Trait Anger Scale (STAXI-N) (Del Barrio et al., 2004).

The results show a differential weight of the reasoning processes, empathy and emotional regulation in the explanation of said conducts, as well as differences by gender and between young offenders and non offenders in the evaluated processes.

Young offenders use hedonistic reasoning (arguments focused on the personal benefit of the action) more than the non offenders, as well as the reasoning oriented to seek approval from others, furthermore, they are more emotionally unstable and show more anger and aggressive behaviour. On the contrary, the non offender adolescents are more empathic and more prosocial.

The differences between boys and girls can be seen in empathy. The girls of both groups (offenders and non offenders) have a higher capacity to put themselves in the place of another than the boys of the same age. In the same way, only the non offender girls report more empathic concern and more prosocial behaviour than the boys of their group. On the other hand, it is the non offender boys who reach higher scores in aggressive behaviour, compared with the girls in their group; whereas these differences disappear in the offenders group. There is no differences according to gender in any of the moral prosocial reasoning categories evaluated.

The regression analysis for the prediction of physical and verbal aggressive behaviour of the young offenders and non offenders explains a high percentage of variance (58% in offenders and 46% of variance in the general population). The scarce capacity to put

oneself in the place of another, emotional instability and anger (state) are the variables which better predict the aggressive behaviour in offender population. In the non offenders group, the hedonistic reasoning and the reasoning that seeks the approval from others together with low empathic concern and emotional instability intervene in the prediction.

With regards to the prediction of prosocial behaviour, there are also differences between both groups. Even though empathy (perspective taking and empathic concern) appears as a strong predictor in the offender and non offender samples, it is anger in the negative sense the variable that also appears in the prediction in the offenders group. On the other hand, in the non offender group, the stereotyped reasoning comes into the prediction of prosocial behaviour.

The results show that prosocial reasoning has a lesser weight in the prediction of aggressive behaviour and of prosocial behaviour, especially in the offender population, even more if it is compared to empathy, which is the strongest predictor of these behaviours in both groups. On the contrary, emotional instability is one of the variables with stronger predictor power of aggressive behaviour.

These results are relevant for the prevention and the re-education programmes oriented to young offenders. The strategies of emotional regulation, the development of empathy, in both its cognitive component (understand the state of another and to put oneself in their place), and its affective component (feelings oriented toward another) must be present in theses programmes. Also, given that moral prosocial reasoning does appear as predictor of prosocial behaviour and inhibitor of aggressive behaviour in the adolescent general population, and it is absent in the offender sample, programmes for the training on moral prosocial reasoning should be included, oriented to internalise principles and arguments oriented to empathy, the common good, respect for the norms and less oriented to hedonism or to seek approval from others.

Study 6: Emotional awareness and aggression in adolescence: the role of emotional instability and regulatory emotional self-efficacy beliefs.

Finally, to complete the study of emotions, a study oriented to emotional competence and self-efficacy was designed. Even though different studies have analysed the relations between negative emotions and lack of emotional regulation in aggressive

behaviour, as the already mentioned articles conclude, there is less research that shows the cognitive-emotional processes such as emotional awareness and emotional self-efficacy as vulnerability or protection variables of aggressive behaviour.

With the aim of reaching further in the objective of this PhD thesis, the present study was also carried out with a sample of young offenders and non offenders with the objective to analyse if these processes operated differently in both groups.

Emotional awareness defined as an attentional process which implies interpretative and evaluative functions, this process allows the control of our own emotions, distinguishing them and identifying their causes and physiological correlations (Rieffe, Oosterveld, Miers, Terwogt & Ly, 2008). Emotional self-efficacy refers to the belief in the ability a person has to improve negative emotional states which are activated when facing stressing situations, the ability to prevent negative emotions such as anger, irritability, or depression, as well as the perceived ability to express positive emotions like happiness or enthusiasm (Caprara et al., 2008; Caprara, Vecchione, Barbaranelli & Alessandri, 2013).

From previous research the main aim considered is to analyse the mediator role of emotional self-efficacy and emotional instability between emotional awareness and aggressive behaviour and anger. It is a question of testing this model in offender and non offender populations.

Data was obtained from 245 male and female inmates (average age = 16.25) across four Youth Detention Centres in the Valencian Community, Spain, centres in which the minors serve their sentences for crimes committed (more than 60 % were carrying out a sentence due to child to parent violence), and 416 male and female community participants (mean age = 16.73). The community participants were obtained from public and private schools in the Valencian Community, participating schools were randomly selected from the list of all schools in Valencia with students enrolled in compulsory secondary education.

Participants were asked to complete a series of measures designed to assess their emotional awareness, regulatory emotional self-efficacy, emotional instability and different scale to measure aggression.

All of them filled in the following instruments: Emotion Awareness Questionnaire (EAQ30; Rieffe et al., 2008, Spanish version Samper-García, Mesurado, Richaud &, Llorca, 2016; Regulatory emotional self-efficacy (Caprara, et al., 2008); Emotional Instability Scale (IE, Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; Del Barrio et al., 2001); Physical and Verbal Aggression Scale (AFV, Caprara & Pastorelli, 1993; Del Barrio, Moreno & López, 2001); State and Trait Anger Scale (STAXI-N) (Del Barrio et al., 2004).

The results, once more, show the differences between both groups in the evaluated variables. The young offenders report lower levels of emotional awareness and emotional self-efficacy in the self-efficacy dimensions in expressing positive emotions and self-efficacy in controlling anger and irritability. On the other hand, these adolescents reach higher levels of aggressive behaviour (physical and verbal) and anger (state-trait).

The mediation analyses carried out indicate that the association between emotional awareness and aggressive tendencies can be due, at least in part, to emotional self-efficacy.

In the offender sample the results indicate that those with lower levels of emotional awareness report more aggressive behaviour and more anger, however the mediation hypothesis is not confirmed. Therefore, there is no indirect effect of the level of emotional awareness on aggressive behaviour and anger through emotional self-efficacy. The results follow this line in the general population.

As to the mediator role of emotional instability between emotional awareness and aggressive behaviour, the results indicate that there are no indirect effects of the level of emotional awareness on different aspects of aggressive behaviour and anger (physical, verbal, anger state, anger trait) through emotional instability in the offender population. On the other hand, in the non offender adolescents can be observed a direct effect of the level of emotional awareness on the different aspects of aggressive behaviour evaluated, through emotional instability, even though the effect of the mediation is partial.

These results widen the knowledge of the cognitive-emotional variables that can be related to externalised behavioural problems.

By way of conclusions, it is established that non offender adolescents show more emotional awareness, meaning, they are more able to identify and differentiate

emotions, as well as their origin. Moreover, they show more self-efficacy to manage positive and negative emotions. On the other hand, the young offenders show that they are more emotional unstable.

Emotional self-efficacy appears to have a protection effect towards physical and verbal aggressive behaviour and anger states in the general population, no in the offender population. Furthermore, emotional awareness prevents emotional instability only in the general population, but not in the offender population. On the other hand, emotional awareness maintains its protection of physical and verbal aggressive behaviour and anger state in both samples, but only of anger trait in the general population.

These results show that the analysis of the emotional world is necessary to prevent different manifestations of aggressive behaviour, even when the levels of aggressive behaviour are high and they result in maladapted behaviour as is the case of the offenders.

When the mediator power of emotional instability is analysed, it is observed that emotional awareness has a direct and total effect over each of the aggressive behaviour variables analysed in both samples (with the exception of anger trait, the effect of which is only given in the general population). We could think that the aggressive behaviour in the offender population can be better explained from more stable character traits, cognitive-emotional abilities such as emotional awareness. We can assume that emotional instability cancels out the ability to identify emotions not being able to stop the escalation of disruptive aggressive behaviour.

Discussion

These six studies provide strong evidence of the importance of emotions in adolescence and their implication in the adapted and maladapted behaviour, particularly in the prosocial and aggressive behaviour.

The positive and negative emotions of young offenders and non offenders have been evaluated. Based on the research on this subject in recent years. The results have highlighted the importance of empathy to inhibit aggressive behaviour and delinquency, on the othe hand anger appears as the target emotion in maladapted social behaviour.

In young offenders all emotions are closely related to each other, but the target emotions would be those present in the initial explanatory core and they are emotional instability and anger trait.

This data makes the need to act on the young offender group obvious, with the aim to improve their emotional situation and their ability to self-control.

Even though the moral reasoning processes have a secondary place in young offenders, they have to be taken into account because they predict the aggressive and prosocial behaviour in non offenders. Therefore, developing different arguments aimed at personal benefit or arguments aimed at the benefit of others, or at the respect for the established rules, together with emotional regulation take the adolescent towards personal independence and they can contribute to the prevention of maladapted behaviour.

To sum up, this research has practical implications, especially to develop programmes aimed at increasing empathy and prosocial behaviour and to prevent aggressive behaviour. Also for the re-education of young offenders through the development of empathy, emotional regulation, anger in particular, emotional awareness and self-efficacy, not forgetting moral prosocial reasoning aimed at personal independence and the respect for the rules, reasoning which is almost absent in the offender population.

A greater understanding of the emotions involved in aggressive behaviour can help in the design of more effective prevention and intervention programmes that encourage abilities and strategies to inhibit said behaviour and boost prosocial behaviour through empathy and emotional regulation.

Even though the regulation of emotions is at the heart of prevention of aggressive behaviour and delinquency, we cannot forget the role of the parents. It is key that children grow in a family environment characterised by affection, communication and rules. Permissiveness and negligence are the most negative parenting styles in the socialisation progress. Therefore, it is crucial, the simultaneous re-education of parents and children when facing delinquent behaviour, in particular with regards to child to parent violence.

LISTADO DE ARTÍCULOS QUE COMPONEN LA TESIS DOCTORAL:

1. Llorca, A., Samper, P., Malonda, E., & Cortés, M. T. (2017). Factors Associated with Emotional Instability in Late Childhood and Early Adolescence: Family and Peers. *Social Behavior and Personality* (aceptado y en prensa-mayo de 2017).
2. Llorca, A., Malonda, E., & Samper, P. (2017). Anxiety in adolescence. Can we prevent it? *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal*, 21(5), 559-564.
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4. Llorca, A., Malonda, E., & Samper, P. (2017). Depression and aggressive behaviour in adolescents offenders and non-offenders. *Psicothema* (aceptado y será publicado en Mayo de 2017).
5. Llorca, A., Malonda, E., & Samper, P. (2017). Prosocial reasoning and emotions in delinquents and nondelinquents adolescents. *European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context* (aceptado y en prensa).
6. Llorca, A., Mesurado, B., Samper, P., Malonda, E., & Mestre, M.V. (2017). Emotional awareness and aggression in adolescence: the role of emotional instability and regulatory emotional self-efficacy beliefs. *Aggressive Behavior* (en fase de revisión, se han remitido ya las correcciones propuestas por los revisores)

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