

Positive Parenting during COVID-19

Understanding Some Antecedents in Critical Times

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Abstract

The aim of this chapter is to explore positive parenting during COVID-19 times in Spain. The study was not only interested *whether* positive parenting occurred during the health crisis, but also *which* predictors explain the process. For doing this, this study is based on 583 Spanish parents. The study was conducted during the State of Alarm in Spain (March-May 2020), where the country experienced a full lockdown. Our results showed that stress, family support, family belongingness, prayer and religious life, and family trust have a significant positive relationship with some of the four dimensions of positive parenting, (bonding, formative, protective and reflexive competences). This research enriches the extensive body of scholarship on positive parenting in at least three ways. First, it explores positive parenting under extraordinary circumstances (COVID-19). Second, it expands the research in Spain with very recent data. Finally, it contributes to understand better the antecedents of positive parenting among contemporary families.

Introduction

The goal of this chapter is to explore positive parenting during the COVID-19 pandemic. The severity of this health crisis is affecting everyone, but it is significant challenging for the most vulnerable ones (Baena-Díez et al. 2020), such as low-educated workers (Farré et al. 2020) or underrepresented minorities (Yancy 2020). Children are not an exception (Johnson 2020; Masonbrink and Hurley 2020). COVID-19 crisis exacerbated dramatically digital inequalities within young students (Beaunoyer, Dupéré, and Guitton 2020), and recent evidence suggests that violence and vulnerability increase during school closures (Cluver et al. 2020).

However, a critical context like this, where parents and children spent much more time together, could also generate a symbolic revolution (Bourdieu 2017; Grau-Grau 2019) towards a new ecological vision to parenthood. For instance, UNICEF¹ or WHO² are providing open-access parenting resources to help building positive relationships during COVID-19 times. In other words, they encourage *positive parenting* during critical times. These initiatives are not completely new. In

2006, the Council of Europe developed and encouraged a set of principles related to positive parenting, which we might find its roots in the United Nations on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), passed in 1989, which offered a new gaze towards children, granting rights as individuals, redefining not only our perspective towards children, but also towards parents-children relationships (Daly and Abela 2007).

The recommendations of the Council of Europe have been also a catalyst for the development of family and social policy (Rodrigo 2010), however, there is still room for improvement. One of the specific recommendations of the Council of Europe is promoting positive parenting, especially in times of economic crisis. We argue that this recommendation could also be perfectly expanded to health crisis as well, where the importance of children growing in a positive family environment is completely relevant, as homes becomes (almost) the only physical environment.

For that reason, we consider that it is totally necessary to understand not only *whether* positive parenting occurred during the health crisis, but also under *which* circumstances occurs.

Understanding the antecedents of positive parenting in extraordinary times might shed new lights and avenues on future social and family policies. To understand the antecedents of positive parenting during COVID-19 times, this study draws on a sample of 583 Spanish parents, conducted during the State of Alarm in Spain (March-May 2020), where the country experienced a full lockdown.

This chapter is organized as follows. After this introduction, we present the theoretical framework of the chapter. Next, we develop the methodological aspects of our study. We then provide the results of our research. Finally, we address the contributions of our work and suggest some implications.

Theoretical Framework

To understand the antecedents of positive parenting during extraordinary times caused by the irruption of COVID-19, this study is rooted in an increasing body of scholarship on child development and parenting.

Why parents parent in a particular way is not a new topic ([Raby et al. 2015](#)). Since ancient times, we found evidences, narratives and stories about parents parenting more effectively than other parents (Rousseau, [1762] 1979). However, the academic literature has been dominated by the negative side of parenting and its implications, such maltreatment and harsh parenting. This tendency has not been an exception during COVID-19 times ([Griffith 2020](#); [Lawson, Piel, and Simon 2020](#)), ignoring or neglecting the other side of the coin. This chapters aims to fill this gap.

For doing this, it is necessary, first, to present the concept of positive parenting. The Council of Europe in the Recommendation 19 defined positive parenting as “parental behaviour based on the best interest of the child that is nurturing, empowering, non-violent and provides recognition and guidance which involves setting of boundaries to enable the full development of the child”. This definition offers an ecological vision of parenthood as a holistic organization of conditions of risks for children, which understand children as capable human being, where the role of parents is providing guidelines to the child’s evolving capacities ([Mateos et al. 2021](#)).

In order to provide such guidelines, parents need parental competences. Competence is an integrative concept that refers to the ability of people to generate and coordinate responses in the short and long term associated with the performance of their vital tasks ([Gómez-Muzzio and Muñoz-Quinteros 2013](#)). In this line, parental competences could be defined as the set of capacities that allow parents to generate and coordinate responses in the short and long term associated with the performance of their vital tasks as parents, according to their children needs and educational standards considered acceptable by society, by taking advantage of all the opportunities and support provided by their social context ([Rodrigo et al. 2009, 2008](#)).

Recently, [Gómez-Muzzio and Muñoz-Quinteros \(2013\)](#) made an important effort to develop and validated a positive parenting scale, divided in four parental competences. This four competences are bonding, formative, protective and reflexive competences, which have their roots in the intersection of three robust theoretical frameworks that will be briefly presented below: ecological human development ([Bronfenbrenner 1979, 2005](#)), attachment theory ([Bowlby 1969](#); [Cassidy and Shaver 1999](#)) and family resilience ([Walsh 2015, 2003](#)).

Ecological human development argues that humans are able to generate, environments in which people live and grow. So, in other words, human have the capacity to create an optimal social context, which means that parents have the capacity or at least the potentiality for creating an optimal social context for children. The main idea is how to convert potential capabilities in real agency, by

cultivating and generating optimal ecologies. This process of transformation is known as *proximal process* (Bronfenbrenner and Ceci 1994), which has some similarities (Houston 2017) with the concept of Habitus³ developed by Bourdieu (2003), which links the structure with agency. For generating such ecologies, or for being able to *shape* the structure, parents need specific parental competences.

In parallel, attachment theory is another crucial framework to understand the importance of positive parenting and parental competences. According to this framework⁴, infants and young children need an intimate and a continuous relationship to fully develop themselves. For example, parental warmth is associated with an increase of feeling of security, which enhance children's feeling of belongingness, which at the same time, reduces self-oriented concerns (Hoffman 2000). In order to generate these relationships with fruitful implications, bonding competences are needed.

Thirdly, family resilience is another framework which is intertwined with positive parenting and parental competences. Family resilience is defined as the family ability to withstand and rebound from disruptive life challenges. According to the author (Walsh 2003), nine key processes are necessary to develop family resilience: (1) make meaning of adversity, (2) positive outlook, (3) transcendence and spirituality, (4) flexibility, (5) connectedness, (6) social and economic resources, (7) clarity, (8) open emotional expression and (9) collaborative problem-solving. COVID-19 is a perfect example of a disruptive life challenge, and so, family resilience a good asset. In order to develop family resilience, parental competences are also needed.

With three frameworks in mind (ecological human development, attachment theory and family resilience), Gómez-Muzzio and Muñoz-Quinteros (2013) developed the validated scale aforementioned before (E2P) with four parental competences, which will be used as the dependent variable of this research.

Bonding competences are defined as the set of knowledge, skills and daily practices of parenting aimed at promoting a style of secure attachment (Bowlby 1969) and adequate socio-emotional development in children. Bonding competences are manifested primarily through socioemotional parenting practices (Bornstein and Putnick 2012), including a variety of verbal, affective and physical action such kisses, smiles, openness or careful listening.

Formative competences are defined as the set of knowledge, skills and daily practices of parenting aimed at promoting the development, learning and socialization of children, manifested through didactic parenting practices. Such practices include behaviours such stimulating infants to get involved and understand the world around them, which is relevant during COVID-19 times, as well as generating opportunities to observe, imitate and learn (Bornstein and Putnick 2012; Gómez-Muzzio and Muñoz-Quinteros 2013).

Protective competences are defined as the set of knowledge, skills and daily practices of parenting aimed to caring children and adequately protect them, by protecting their human development needs, ensuring their rights, and promoting their physical, emotional and sexual integrity. We understand protection in its full sense, not limited to needs, but also related with rights and full development. These competences are manifested through material parenting practices, including nutrition or supervision against risks. In other words, such competences explain the way parents organize the children's physical world (Bronfenbrenner 1986; Gómez-Muzzio and Muñoz-Quinteros 2013).

Finally, reflexive competences are defined as the set of knowledge, skills and practices parents use to reflect on their own influences and trajectories as parents. Such competences are manifested thought monitoring parenting practices, including own evaluations as parents, evaluations of child's

development or receiving and sending feedback (Fonagy et al. [1991](#); Gómez-Muzzio and Muñoz-Quinteros [2013](#)).

These four competences are the basis of positive parenting. The implications of positive parenting are well known. For example, positive parenting has a significant impact on the self-esteem of university students (Batool [2020](#)), it is related with lower levels of internet abuse among adolescents (Rivera et al. [2021](#)), or predicts children's effortful control (Eisenberg et al. [2005](#)). However, the antecedents of positive parenting remain understudied.

For this chapter, we will examine six potential antecedents of positive parenting: stress, family support, sense of belongingness, prayer and religious life, family trust and daily life motives (see [Figure 10.1](#)). Stress has been found as a clear *stressor* of quality of family life (Pittman and Lloyd [1988](#)), and clear predictor of poor communications and low relationship satisfaction (Bodenmann [2005](#)), and we assume it could also have a negative impact on positive parenting.

The relationship between family support to positive parenting is suggested by the development of the dyadic coping theory⁵ (Bodenmann 2008), arguing that supportive family environments tends to improve the quality of the family relations. In this vein, we assume that family support might act as a powerful predictor of positive parenting.

The belongingness hypothesis (Baumeister and Leary [1995](#)) assumes, first, that people need for frequent and affective interactions with few people, and second, these interactions must take place in a stable and enduring framework. Evidence suggests that the sense of belongingness is positively related with positive emotions such joy, contentment or calm (Baumeister and Leary [1995](#)). Following these findings, we assume that a high sense of belongingness will be positively related with positive parenting.

Religion might be an asset for family life (Abbott, Berry and Meredith [1990](#)). Religion forms values and beliefs, and in turn, behaviours. Parenting is influenced by beliefs and values that parents held (Godina [2014](#)). Empirical evidence suggests that religion is positively related with children well-being by two mechanisms: fostering prosocial motivation, and avoiding deviant behaviours (Petts and Knoester [2007](#)). In this line, we assume that praying and parent's religious life will be positively related with positive parenting.

Trust has been considered an integrative force of society, acting as an essential role for the survival of democracy and for healthy economies (Putnam [1993](#); Fukuyama [1995](#)). Trust is also a key force in the family life, where family members are trusted according to their involvement in family practices (Carlo and Widmer [2011](#)). According to Carlo and Widmer, acquaintance length, frequency, loyalty and reciprocal support relationships explain in a certain degree the level of trust among family members. Although families can be considered as a fabric of trust, evidence suggested that families are also embedded in conflicts, power relationships and ambivalence (Luescher and Pillemer [1998](#); Widmer [1999](#)). Trust and distrust affects positive and negative the quality of the relationships (Carlo and Widmer [2011](#)), so, we assume that family trust will be positively related with positive parenting.

Finally, daily life motives understood as positive or negative perception on daily events might also be related with positive parenting. Positive outlook is a key process to foster family resilience (Walsh [2015, 2003](#)), and it acts as a powerful force to overcome stressful situations. For that reason, we suggest that positive daily life motives will be related with positive parenting.

Figure 10.1 Model

Methods

Participants and Procedure

The study was conducted by the Institute of Advances Families Studies at Universitat Internacional de Catalunya, together with the Centro di Ateneo Studi e Ricerche sulla Famiglia of the Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore. We collected our data from a representative national sample of 1707 participants. Participation was voluntary and anonymous, and the criteria for inclusion for this study of the antecedents of positive parenting were (a) being married or in a stable relationship, and (b) having at least one child under 18 years old; this resulted in a final subsample of 583 parents.

Among the respondents, 53% were women and 47% were men, with an average age of 44.7 years ($SD=7.09$), 80.6% were working, 33% had a university degree and the average age of the children was 11.5 years. We conducted ANOVA to see if there were any differences between these family structures with differences in children ages. The results did not show any significant differences between the young families, teen family, adult family, grown up family on all the measures studied.

Measures

Positive Parenting

To measure positive parenting, we used an adapted version with 25 items of the E2P scale (*Escala de Parentalidad Positiva*) elaborated by Gómez-Muzzio and Muñoz-Quinteros (2013)⁶, divided in four dimensions. Table 10.1 provides descriptive statistics of the four dimensions of positive parenting. A complete list of items is included in Appendix A. See also Table 10.2.

Stress

The level of stress was assessed on different dimensions like work, economic situation, family management, using a 11-item scale ranging to responses from 1 (absolutely nothing) to 4 (very much) and 5 (it doesn't concern me). The items included such as: "loss of job", "not to have enough money to spend", "work-family balance" ($\alpha = .77$).

Family Support

Family support was assessed using a 4-item scale to which participants responded from 1 (nothing) to 5 (very much). The items included such as "My family helps me emotionally and gives the support that I need", "My family truly intends to help me in making decisions" ($\alpha = .92$).

Sense of Belongingness

Sense of belongingness was assessed using 4-item scale, which measured the feeling of belongingness towards their family, community, city/village and nation. Participants responded if their level of belongingness feeling increased or decreased during COVID-19 on a scale of 1 (has decreased a lot) to 5 (has increased a lot). The items included such as, "my family", "my community" ($\alpha = .78$).

Prayer and Religious Life

Prayer and religious life variable assessed the practice of prayer and religiousness in their daily life using a 2-item scale (one item was scale transformed), to which participants responded from 1 (totally disagreed) to 4 (totally agreed). The items included were: “In my daily life religion is important” and “prayer and meditation help in this period of coronavirus” ($\alpha = .75$).

Family Trust

Family trust was assessed using a scale of 7 items, where participants had to choose the most appropriate affirmation that described their personal relationship with their family members. The items included such as, “they strengthen trust within the family”, “they proportionate the good feeling of being accompanied and not being isolated”.

Daily Life Motives

Daily life motives variable measured the positive or negative perceptions on daily life events. These perceptions of daily life motives were based on three characteristics: clarity in goal setting, motives for realization of daily tasks and if events were exactly judged or exaggerated. These characteristics were assessed using a scale of 3 items, where participants had to respond on a scale of 1 to 7 to measure the extreme nature of their feelings for each of the statements. 1 measures their negative perceptions and 7 measures the positive perceptions.

Table 10.1 Descriptive statistics of positive parenting

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Bonding competences	3,70	0,52
Formative competences	3,70	0,69
Protective competences	3,52	0,52
Reflexive competences	3,59	0,60

N=583

Table 10.2 Descriptive statistics of antecedent variables of positive parenting

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Daily life motives	4,60	0,86
Prayer and religious life	1,73	0,83
Sense of belongingness	3,26	0,67
Family support	3,92	0,89
Stress	4,55	6,08

Family trust	3,29	1,57
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N=583

Data Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to assess the different validity and reliability factors of the measurement model using SPSS and AMOS. The appropriateness of the principal component factor analysis was assessed via a sampling adequacy test, namely the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test. The KMO value was 0.92, which is indicative of good reliability of the factors. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant at 0.00, which is also indicative of robust factor analysis.

The reliability of the positive parenting dimensions was evaluated by means of Cronbach's Alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) measurement values. Cronbach's α values were between 0.88 and 0.90 and the CR values ranged from 0.70 to 0.88, which all exceeded the universally accepted reliability measure score of 0.70. Hence, all four positive parenting constructs exhibited acceptable reliability. Next, the constructs' convergent validity was considered by assessing factor loadings and the average variance extracted (AVE). The scores of the factor loadings were 0.58–0.81, and the AVE scores were 0.52–0.58, which is suggestive of convergent validity as the scores were all above 0.5. Discriminatory validity was assessed by comparing the square root of AVE values for each of the positive parenting construct against the other construct correlations. Table 10.3 shows that all construct AVE square root values were larger than correlation values, which is indicative of discriminant validity.

Table 10.3 Correlations between positive parenting constructs

Bonding competences	0,74			
Formative competences	0,43	0,76		
Protective competences	0,12	0,54	0,74	
Reflexive competences	0,32	0,16	0,44	0,73

Results

We conducted a structural equation modelling (SEM) to analyse the relationship between the independent variables and the four dimensions of positive parenting, namely, bonding, protective, reflexive, and formative competences as shown in Figure 10.2. The results (see table 10.4) showed an overall model fit with a chi-squared statistic, $\chi^2 = 15.52$ with $df = 13$, $p > .00$; CFI = .99; NFI = .99; RMSEA = .02. Overall, the variables; stress, family support, sense of belongingness, prayer and religious life, family trust and daily life motive, significantly explain at least one of the four dimensions of positive parenting. In the following paragraphs, we discuss the results in detail.

Concerning family support, when a parent perceives a high support extended by their families, all the four dimensions of positive parenting is significantly found to be positively related to all the dimensions of positive parenting; bonding ($\beta = .31$, $p < .001$), reflexive ($\beta = .30$, $p < .001$), protective

($\beta = .34, p < .001$), formative ($\beta = .31, p < .001$). The results show that stress does not seem to be a significant predictor over positive parenting competences ($p > .10$), when it comes to formative, protective, reflexive, but for bonding competency alone ($\beta = .01, p < .10$). In a way, it is an interesting result to know that the level of stress a parent carries do not affect negatively to positive parenting except for bonding behaviour of positive parenting.

Regarding sense of belongingness, it was found to be significantly positively related to the dimension of formative competences of positive parenting ($\beta = .10, p < .10$). That is, as the parents' sense of belongingness perceptions increases towards their family, community, city and nation, positive parenting regarding formative competences increases highly. Similarly, family trust was also found to be significantly positively related to formative competences of positive parenting alone ($\beta = .04, p < .10$). That is, as parents perceive a higher trusting and relying relationship with their family members, positive parenting increases highly for the formative competences.

Concerning the daily life motive perceptions of parents, results showed that, except for bonding competences, all other competency dimensions of positive parenting was significantly related (reflexive ($\beta = .14, p < .001$); protective ($\beta = .08, p < .05$); formative ($\beta = .11, p < .01$)). That is, as parents tend to increase positive perceptions on their daily life events such as having clear objectives, perceiving the realization of daily tasks with satisfaction and pleasure and if events are perceived as it is occurred instead of exaggerating to extremes, positive parenting is shown to increase significantly.

Finally, results show that prayer and religious life practices of parents are significantly related to bonding and reflexive competences of positive parenting (bonding ($\beta = .05, p < .10$); reflexive ($\beta = .07, p < .10$)). These findings are intuitively reasonable as parents tend to increase in their reflexiveness according to their beliefs and values which may be resulting from their prayer and religious life.

Table 10.4 Results of the antecedents of positive parenting

<i>Bonding competences</i>			<i>.13</i>
Prayer and religious life*	0,050	p < .10	
Daily life motives	0,043	0,218	
Family trust	0,020	0,312	
Stress*	0,009	p < .10	
Family support***	0,31	p < .001	
Sense of belongingness	0,01	0,99	
Formative competences			<i>.10</i>
Stress	0,005	0,400	
Family support***	0,308	p < .001	
Sense of belongingness*	0,103	p < .10	
Family trust*	0,045	p < .10	
Prayer and religious life	0,054	0,258	
Daily life motives**	0,115	p < .01	
Protective competences			<i>.12</i>
Stress	0,004	0,443	
Prayer and religious life	0,045	0,289	
Daily life motives*	0,085	p < .05	

Family trust	0,017	0,463	
Family support***	0,34	p < .001	
Sense of belongingness	0,04	0,45	
Reflexive competences			.13
Sense of belongingness	0,014	0,776	
Prayer and religious life*	0,073	p < .10	
Daily life motives***	0,142	p < .001	
Family trust	-0,019	0,379	
Stress	0,006	0,260	
Family support***	0,30	p < .001	

Figure 10.2 Model with results

Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter explores the antecedents of positive parenting during these extraordinary times caused by the pandemic of COVID-19, using a sample of 583 Spanish parents with children under 18 years old. We aimed to better understand not only *whether* positive parenting occurs, but also under *which* circumstances. Our results suggest the stress, family support, sense of belongingness, prayer and religious life, family trust and daily life motive significantly explain at least one of the four dimensions of positive parenting.

Our study showed that stress does not seem to be a significant predictor of positive parenting, except for bonding competences. Thus, although stress has been presented as a clear predictor of poor communication which diminish the quality of family life (Pittman and Lloyd 1988; Bodenmann 2005), our findings suggest that level of stress do not affect negatively to formative, protective and reflexive competences. However, we do not need to diminishing the importance of the effects between stress and bonding competences, as such competences (aimed at promoting a style of secure attachment) are crucial for the optimal development of children (Bowlby 1969).

Interestingly, our results showed that daily life motives (such as positive perceptions, or realization of daily tasks with pleasure) is positively related with all the competency dimensions, except for bonding competences. In other words, positively life motives are associated with the promoting of the socialization of children, with the protection with children needs and with the capacity to reflect about the parenting style, but not necessarily with promoting a secure attachment, as if bonding competences or attachment (Bowlby 1969; Shaver and Fraley 2000) have another intrinsic *nature* that deserves more academic attention.

Our study also empirically demonstrates the positive relationship between family support, when a parent perceives a high support extended by their families, and all the four dimensions of positive parenting. These findings are in line with the dyadic coping theory (Bodenmann 2008), which suggests that supportive family environments tends to improve the quality of the family relations.

The rest of results show partial relationships. For example, sense of belongingness and family trust are significantly positively related to the dimension of formative competences of positive parenting (those promoting the development, learning and socialization of children), but not with the rest of competences. Finally, our results suggest that prayer and religious life practices of parents are significantly related to bonding and reflexive competences of positive parenting, which could be explained by how religion and prayer encourage people to deeply examine their tasks and practices in general, as well as constructing strong ties with others.

In summary, this research enriches the extensive body of scholarship on positive parenting in at least three ways. First, it contributes to the literature of positive parenting by exploring positive parenting under extraordinary circumstances (COVID-19), showing not only that positive parenting also takes place in critical times, but also examining which elements explain such behaviour. Second, the current study advances the literature of positive parenting, by expanding the research in Spain. Finally, this study contributes to the field, by understanding better the antecedents of positive parenting, which compared to the outcomes (Sanders et al. 2014; Batool 2020; Rivera et al. 2021), have been understudied.

Our study has both strengths and limitations. One, strength is the national representativeness of our sample, which included parents in all the Spanish autonomous communities, with various levels of education. Another, strength is that our research was conducted during very critical times, where the population was forced to a full lockdown. However, one limitation of our study is that we collected data on a particular moment in time, without knowing previous levels of positive parenting. Another limitation is that our data does not allow to have an overall picture of each household as only one respondent per household filled the survey. Future research might explore the antecedents of positive parenting using longitudinal data, and including the perception of both parents, and if possible, children perception.

Notes

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Appendix A Items used for measuring positive parenting

<i>Types of parental competences</i>	Items <i>English</i> <i>Spanish (original)</i>
Bonding competences	1. I spend time to play, draw and do other activities with my children <i>He dedicado tiempo para jugar, dibujar y hacer otras actividades con mis hijos</i>
	2. With my children, we sing or dance together <i>Con mis hijos/as, cantamos o bailamos juntos</i>
	3. With my children, we watch age-appropriate TV shows or movies together <i>Con mis hijos/as, vemos juntos programas de TV o películas apropiadas a su edad</i>
	4. I manage to put myself in the place of my children <i>Logro ponerme en el lugar de mis hijos/as</i>
	5. When my children demand my attention, I respond quickly <i>Cuando mis hijos/as reclaman mi atención, respondo pronto, en poco tiempo</i>
	6. With my children, we laugh together at funny things <i>Con mis hijos/as, nos reímos juntos de cosas divertidas</i>
	7. My children spend most of the day playing video games or connected to the Internet <i>Mis hijos/as pasan la mayor parte del día jugando a videojuegos o conectados/as an Internet</i>
	8. I explicitly show my affection to my children (e.g., I say “son / daughter, I love you very much; or I give them kisses and hugs) <i>Demuestro explícitamente mi cariño a mis hijos/as (ej., le digo “hijo/a, te quiero mucho; o le doy besos y abrazos)</i>
Formative competences	9. I talk with my children about a topic or daily event related to Covid-19

		<i>Converso con mis hijos/as sobre algún tema o acontecimiento cotidiano relacionado con el COVID-19</i>
		10. I explain to my children what are the rules and limits that must be respected at home (e.g., bedtime, homework schedule) <i>Explico a mis hijos/as cuáles son las normas y límites que deben respetarse en casa (ej., horario de acostarse, horario de hacer tareas escolares)</i>
		11. I apologize to my children when I make a mistake (e.g., if I have yelled at them or I if I took a long time to respond) <i>Me disculpo con mis hijos/as cuando me equivoco (ej., si le he gritado o me he demorado mucho en responderle)</i>
		12. At home, my children respect and follow a daily routine (e.g., television schedule, bedtime, meal schedule) <i>En casa, logro que mis hijos/as respeten y cumplan la rutina diaria (ej., horario de televisión, horario de acostarse, horario de comida)</i>
	Protective competences	13. I am informed about the school tasks assigned to my children (e.g., I ask the teacher or another parent) <i>Estoy informado/a de las tareas que la escuela asigna a mis hijos/as (ej., pregunto al/a profesor/a o a otro/a apoderado/a)</i>
		14. I am in contact with my children's school or kindergarten <i>Estoy en contacto con en la escuela o jardín de infancia de mis hijos/as</i>
		15. At home, my children use toys or objects that stimulate their learning according to their age <i>En casa, mis hijos/as utilizan juguetes u objetos que estimulan su aprendizaje de acuerdo a su edad</i>
		16. At home, my children read (or try to read) appropriate books and stories for their age <i>En casa, mis hijos/as leen (o intenta leer) libros y cuentos apropiados para su edad</i>
		17. I supervise the hygiene and care that my children need (e.g., brushing their teeth, bathing, dressing)

		<i>Superviso la higiene y cuidado que necesitan mis hijos/as (ej., lavarse los dientes, bañarse, vestirse)</i>
		18. At home, I am able to establish a routine in order to organize my children's day <i>En casa, logro establecer una rutina para organizar el día de mis hijos/as</i>
		19. My children follow a healthy balanced diet appropriated for their age (e.g., eat vegetables, fruits, milk, etc.) <i>Logro que mis hijos/as se alimenten de forma equilibrada para su edad (ej., que coma verduras, frutas, leche, etc.)</i>
	Reflexive competences	20. I spend time thinking about how to support my children in their age-specific challenges (e.g., doing exercise at home to develop their physical capabilities) <i>Dedico tiempo a pensar cómo apoyar a mis hijos/as en los desafíos propios de su edad (ej., hacer ejercicio en casa para que desarrolle, su destreza física)</i>
		21. I am able to maintain a good family climate for the development of my children (e.g., arguments are not in front of the child; there is a space for family time and family enjoyment) <i>He logrado mantener un clima familiar bueno para el desarrollo de mis hijos/as (ej., las discusiones no son frente al niño/a; hay tiempo como familia para disfrutar)</i>
		22. I give space to myself, other than raising my children (e.g., doing exercising at home) <i>Me concedo espacios para mí mismo/a, distintos de la crianza de mis hijos/as (ej., hacer ejercicio en casa)</i>
		23. I feel like I have time to rest <i>Siento que tengo tiempo para descansar</i>
		24. I have made sure that my personal life does not harm my children (e.g., if I have arguments with my partner, they are in private, not in front of my children) <i>Me he asegurado de que mi vida personal no dañe a mis hijos/as (ej., si tengo peleas con mi pareja son en privado, no delante de mis hijos/as)</i>
		25. I manage to anticipate the future difficult moments related with raising my children, (e.g., I learn how to support them in their entry to school)

		<i>Logro anticipar los momentos difíciles que vendrán en la crianza de los hijos/as, y me preparo con tiempo (ej., me informo de cómo apoyarlo/a en su ingreso al colegio)</i>
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¹ See <https://www.unicef.org/coronavirus/covid-19-parenting-tips>

² See the campaign #Healthathome: <https://www.who.int/campaigns/connecting-the-world-to-combat-coronavirus/healthyathome/healthyathome> – healthy-parenting.

³ *Habitus* is a complex concept, which aims to explain the mechanism of transformation of passivity/structure/resources to activity/agency/perceptions. Connecting Ecological human development theory with *Habitus* implies that we argue that parents have *some* capacity to have an influence on the agency of their children, by cultivating an optimal social context, in other words, a family environment in their full sense.

⁴ The origins of the theory may be found in Bowlby's earlier work on affectionless children and delinquency (Bowlby 1951).

⁵ Three different forms of dyadic coping are distinguished by Bodenmann (2008): *common dyadic coping* (efforts by both partners to overcome a stressful situation), *supportive coping* (efforts from one partner to the other in front of a stressful situation) and *delegated coping* (when one partner takes over tasks to improve the situation of the partner facing a stressful situation).

⁶ The original scale includes 54 items divided in 4 dimensions (bonding competences, formative competences, protective competences and reflexive competences).