

Parental style, parental practices, and socialization outcomes: An investigation of their linkages in the consumer socialization context

By: Chankon Kim, [Zhiyong Yang](#), and Hanjoon Lee

Kim, Chankon, Zhiyong Yang, and Hanjoon Lee (2015), “Parental Style, Parental Practices, and Socialization Outcomes: An Investigation of Their Linkages in the Consumer Socialization Context,” *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 49, 15–33.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joep.2015.03.006>



© 2015 Elsevier B.V. This work is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License](#).

Abstract:

This study aims to generate insights into the mechanisms through which parental style influences adolescent consumer socialization. Toward this end, it examines two alternative conceptual frameworks: (1) The mediation model which posits two key dimensions of parental style (responsiveness and demandingness) as antecedent variables affecting adolescent consumer socialization directly and indirectly through parental socialization practices and (2) the moderation model which posits each parental style dimension as a moderator of the link between parental socialization practices and adolescent socialization outcomes. The influences of maternal and paternal parental styles on adolescent socialization outcomes are investigated separately and compared. Results provide stronger support for the mediation model. They also show that mothers’ parental style and practices are more influential than fathers’ in shaping adolescents’ consumer socialization outcomes.

Keywords: parental style | parental practice | consumer socialization | demandingness | responsiveness

Article:

1. Introduction

Parents as key agents of socialization play a critical role in children’s/adolescents’ acquisition of consumer skills, attitudes, and knowledge. The wide array of consumer socialization outcomes that parents influence include children’s decision-making style, marketplace and transaction knowledge, attitude toward advertising, materialism, consumption autonomy, influence and participation in the family purchase process (Carlson and Grossbart, 1988, Carlson et al., 1992, Flouri, 2003, John, 1999, Rose, 1999, Rose et al., 2002). A majority of past research on parental influence on consumer socialization has focused on the linkages between key attributes of parenting and the above socialization outcome variables. Parental style, along with family communication pattern, has emerged prominently as one of these parenting attributes (Bao et al., 2007, Carlson and Grossbart, 1988, Carlson and Tanner, 2006, Rose, 1999).

In the broader field of parenting and child development, although past research has provided substantial support for the significant role parental style plays in shaping children's developmental outcomes, a group of researchers led by Darling and Steinberg (1993) have long suggested that to better understand the socialization process, it would be helpful to distinguish between parental styles and parental practices (Also see Bean et al., 2003, Brenner and Fox, 1999).

According to Darling and Steinberg (1993), parental style is defined as “a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and create an emotional climate in which the parents' behaviors are expressed” whereas parental practices are “specific, goal-directed behaviors through which parents perform their parental duties” (p. 493). Parents engage in parental practices with the purpose of attaining specific socialization goals, and in this sense, parental practices tend to have immediate impact on a child's life. On the other hand, Darling and Steinberg view the role of parental style as a moderator of the link between parental practices and child outcomes, hence having an indirect effect on child outcomes.

While the conceptual framework advanced by Darling and Steinberg is cogent, it is also conceivable that parental style may directly influence parental practices, which may in turn influence child socialization outcomes. Some researchers (Chao, 2000, Fletcher et al., 2008) have argued that parental practices comprising parents' actual behaviors are a way in which parents express their parenting style. In fact, research conducted in the area of consumer socialization more than two decades ago by Carlson and Grossbart (1988) and Crosby and Grossbart (1984) demonstrated the importance of parental style as a basis for explaining differences in parents' consumer socialization practices. In addition to the potential impact parental style may have on parental practices, past research has produced a large volume of evidence that parental style also directly affects children's socialization outcomes (e.g., Bao et al., 2007, Baumrind, 1991, Lamborn et al., 1991). Thus, the manner in which the three components of the socialization process – parental style, parental practice, and child outcome – are linked together may be more complex than commonly presumed. Consequently, the theoretical distinction between parental style and practices entails a need for empirical work to ascertain the relationship between them as well as their impact on child outcomes. Despite, there has been little research to date that examines the linkage between these two parenting variables and their respective roles in child development. This is particularly the case in the area of consumer socialization.

A review of past studies in parental style reveals another issue of concern. Most of these studies focus on the parental style of mothers and very few examine how fathers' parental style influences child outcomes. As a result, there is little knowledge regarding the extent to which mothers and fathers show a similar type of parenting and whether mothers' and fathers' parental styles or parental practices have similar effects on child outcomes. The few studies that examine both fathers' and mothers' parental styles suggest that mothers and fathers are likely to play unique roles in the socialization of their children (Laible and Carlo, 2004, Sim, 2003). Past consumer socialization research on the associations between parental style and child outcomes is similarly based largely on mothers' self-reports of their parental styles and focuses mainly on the effects of mothers' parental style on child outcomes. Consequently, there is a conspicuous

absence of research findings that shed light on the role of fathers' parental style or parental practices.

This study addresses these gaps in the consumer socialization literature. Its primary objective is to investigate the manners in which parental style influences adolescent consumer socialization outcomes. Specifically, it proposes and tests two alternative conceptual frameworks that specify differing patterns of relationships among parental style, parental practices, and consumer socialization outcomes. The first conceptual framework – the mediation model – mirrors the more traditional view regarding the role of parental style in adolescent socialization and posits that parental style influences consumer socialization outcomes both directly and indirectly through parental practices, i.e., a partial mediation by parental practices of the effects of parental style on socialization outcomes. In the second framework – the moderation model, which is based on Darling and Steinberg's (1993) theorization, parental style is posited as a moderator of the relationship between parental practices and consumer socialization outcomes. Another objective of this study involves investigations into mother–father differences in parental style and parental practices as well as in the pattern of relationships among parental style, parental practices, and consumer socialization outcomes.

2. Literature review

2.1. Mediation model

2.1.1. The link between parental style and adolescent outcomes

Parental style is typically conceived as having two underlying dimensions – demandingness and responsiveness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Demandingness which emphasizes parental control and supervision refers to “the claim parents make on children to become integrated into the family as a whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys” (Baumrind, 1991, p.61). Demanding parents are likely to place strict regulations and standards on their children's behaviors and be more apt to monitor them and enforce compliance through firm and consistent discipline (Barber, 1996, Carlo et al., 2007). There is in general supportive evidence that links demandingness (also labeled behavior control) to fewer externalizing problems, such as antisocial behavior and conduct disorders, among adolescents (Barber and Olsen, 1997, Eigenberg et al., 2006, Pettit et al., 2001). Parental monitoring is also considered a form of parental behavior control (Pettit et al., 2001), and researchers have found that high levels of monitoring are associated with lower levels of externalizing problems (Klein and Forehand, 2000, Rai et al., 2003) and delinquent behavior (Pettit et al., 2001). The links between parental demandingness and an array of positive adolescent outcomes have been attributed to the fact that behavioral control fosters self-regulation children need to inhibit disruptive behavior and engage in socially approved behavior compliance (Hart et al., 2003, Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

In the context of consumer socialization, given that the primary goal of consumer socialization is to teach children basic rational aspects of consumption, key socialization outcomes relate to children's acquisition of market place knowledge and consumer skills/ability to buy and use products in a rational and efficient way (Moschis and Churchill, 1978, Moschis et al., 1984).

There is dearth of research examining the link between parental style dimensions and these consumer outcomes. An investigation by Bao et al.'s (2007) is a rare case of consumer research focusing on the links between parental style and consumer socialization outcomes. The socialization outcome variables examined in this study, however, do not pertain to the abovementioned key consumer socialization goals targeted by parents. They found that higher parental demandingness indirectly led to children's greater use of bilateral influence strategies (e.g., reasoning) and less influence in family consumption decisions through higher perceptions of parental power.

Responsiveness which is akin to parental warmth, support, and involvement refers to "actions which intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands" (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62). To a greater extent than in the case of demandingness, there is supportive evidence linking parental responsiveness to a wide range of positive adolescent socialization outcomes. Researchers have shown relatively consistent positive associations between responsiveness and adolescents' self-esteem (Laible et al., 2004, Lamborn et al., 1991, Phares, 1999), social competence (Barber et al., 2005, Laible and Carlo, 2004, Pettit et al., 1991), and prosocial behaviors (Eberly and Montemayer, 1999, Laible et al., 2004). These positive socialization consequences of parental responsiveness may be ascribed to the parent-child attachment engendered by parental involvement (a form of parental responsiveness). Securely attached children are more popular, more empathic, inclined to approach others and respond to them with more positive affect, and are more self-confident and more cooperative (Barber et al., 2005). In the consumer socialization context, Bao et al.'s (2007) study found that, similarly as parental demandingness, higher parental responsiveness led to higher perceptions of parental power by children, which in turn led to their greater use of bilateral influence strategies and less influence in family consumption decisions.

While many studies have examined parental style dimensions separately, other studies focused on their interactive influences on adolescent socialization outcomes. These studies, by comparing the parental style groups produced by the combined effects of the demandingness and responsiveness dimensions – authoritative (demanding and responsive), authoritarian (demanding but not responsive), permissive (responsive but not demanding), and neglectful (neither demanding nor responsive) – investigated the effect of parental style on children's socialization outcomes. Results of these studies have provided consistent evidence that children reared by authoritative parents experience the most positive developmental outcomes with respect to a wide array of factors such as prosocial behavior (Eigenberg et al., 2006, Laible and Carlo, 2004), social competence (Baumrind, 1991, Steinberg, 1990), self-reliance (Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch, 1991), academic achievement (Leung et al., 1998, Steinberg et al., 1992), cognitive competency (Darling, 1999), and psychological stress and delinquency (Lamborn et al., 1991, Pettock-Peckam and Morgan-Lopez, 2006).

2.1.2. The link between parental style and parental practices

Whereas parental style is thought of as a more global, stylistic variable reflecting the emotional tone between parent and child, parental practices are more situation specific and comprise parents' actual behaviors (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Co-shopping with a child or providing

consumer education to a child on how to make a good purchase decision are specific examples of parental practice aimed at developing a child's consumer competence. According to Darling and Steinberg (1993), parental style has an indirect impact on child outcomes by acting as a moderator of the link between parental practices and child outcomes. An alternative view regarding the role of parental style holds that parental practices (domain-specific parental socialization behaviors) are the instantiation of parents' parental style (a constellation of parental socialization attitudes) (Chao, 2000, Fletcher et al., 2008), and as such, parental style should directly influence parental practices. Consequently, both higher degrees of parental demandingness and parental responsiveness are likely associated with a greater frequency of engaging in consumer education of children by parents to achieve desirable consumer socialization outcomes.

In the broad area of child development, there is a dearth of research investigating the link between parental style and parental practices. A study by Carlo et al. (2007) showed that only parental responsiveness positively affected parental practices such as providing social rewards (e.g., praising children) and engaging in conversations (e.g., discussing moral themes with children) which in turn impacted children's prosocial behavior. An earlier study by Steinberg et al. (1992) demonstrated that authoritative parents are more likely than nonauthoritative parents to show involvement in their child's schooling, thereby establishing a link between parental style and practices. In contrast, the few studies of parental style found in the area of consumer socialization focus mainly on its ability to explain differences in parents' (largely mothers') consumer socialization practices. For example, Carlson and Grossbart (1988), using a five-group typology of parental style (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, neglecting, and rigid controlling), examined the associations between mothers' parental style and socialization practices which included granting consumption autonomy to children, mother-child communication about consumption, restriction of children's consumption, and mediation of children's media exposure. Among their findings were: (1) authoritative mothers and permissive mothers interact more with children by co-shopping and asking children's opinions than do authoritarian and neglecting mothers; (2) permissive mothers impose fewer restrictions on their children's consumption than other parental style mothers; and (3) authoritative mothers co-view more than all other groups except permissive mothers. A subsequent study by Carlson et al. (1992), using the same parental style typology, investigated the link between maternal parental style and mother-child communication orientation regarding consumer issues and consumption. Some of the findings included that authoritative mothers were more socio oriented in consumption communication (geared toward promoting children's obedience and conformity to parental control) than all the other parental style mothers except authoritarian mothers, and authoritative mothers and permissive mothers were more concept oriented (geared toward fostering development of children's own skills and competence as consumers) than the neglecting and authoritarian mothers.

2.1.3. The Link between parental practices and socialization outcomes

Darling and Steinberg (1993) posited that parental practices rather than parental style are the mechanisms through which parents directly help their child attain their socialization goals. In other words, parental practices have a direct effect on the development of specific child behaviors. In the domain of consumer socialization, the primary way by which parents achieve

their socialization goals of imparting their children skills and knowledge relevant to their functioning as consumers is through parent–child consumption interaction (Carlson et al., 1992, Viswanathan et al., 2000). Parent–child consumption interaction encompasses a range of goal-oriented parental behaviors or parental practices, such as parent–child discussions about how to shop for the best value, advertising, and importance of budgeting and money management. Through overt consumption interaction with their children (i.e., parental practices), parents conduct purposive training and educating of their children on the rational orientations regarding consumer decision making and consumption (Grossbart et al., 1991, Palan, 1998).

Past research in consumer socialization generally shows a positive relationship between parent–child consumption interaction and the adolescent’s frequency of performing socially desirable consumer acts. For example, the frequency of parent–adolescent communication about consumption was found to be positively associated with the child’s knowledge of prices of selected products, rational consumer behaviors such as managing money and comparative shopping, and the use of price reduction (“sales”) as a criterion for purchase decision making (Moore and Stevens, 1975, Moschis, 1976, Moschis and Moore, 1980). Palan (1998) similarly showed that consumption interaction is positively related to the adolescent’s frequency of engaging in rational and efficient consumer activities (e.g. comparative shopping, planning how to spend money, buying recyclable containers instead of disposable ones, etc.).

2.1.4. Mediation hypotheses

Based on the literature discussed above, the relationships among parental style, parental practices, and adolescent socialization outcomes envisaged in the mediation model are posited in the following hypotheses:

H1a. Higher levels of parental demandingness are associated with more positive adolescent consumer socialization outcomes.

H1b. Higher levels of parental responsiveness are associated with more positive adolescent consumer socialization outcomes.

H2a. Higher levels of parental demandingness are associated with greater frequencies of parental consumer socialization practices.

H2b. Higher levels of parental responsiveness are associated with greater frequencies of parental consumer socialization practices.

H3. Higher frequencies of parent consumer socialization practices are associated with more positive adolescent consumer socialization outcomes.

2.2. Moderation model

An alternative view regarding the manner in which parental style influences adolescent socialization outcomes was proposed by Darling and Steinberg (1993). They suggested that parenting style is a steady composite of attitudes that creates an emotional climate or context

within which domain-specific parenting practices are made more or less effective. Spurred by Darling and Steinberg's (1993) suggestion, researchers have examined the role of parental style as a moderator of the relationship between parental practices and child outcomes. For example, Fletcher et al. (2008) investigated if the effectiveness of maternal disciplinary strategies (i.e., parental practices) is impacted by the stylistic context (i.e., parental style) in which they are used. They reported that for several indicators of child well-being (e.g., internalizing, externalizing, and social problems), negative associations with mothers' punitive discipline were evident only within the authoritarian parental style group. More evidence supporting Darling and Steinberg's postulation is found in earlier studies focusing on the relationship between parental school involvement and children's school achievement (Paulson et al., 1998, Steinberg et al., 1992). Both of these studies found that the relationship is strongest for students with authoritative parents, which indicates a moderating effect of parental style.

Another study by Mounts (2002) examined the moderating role of parental style for the association between parental peer management practices (e.g., guiding, prohibiting, supporting, etc.) and adolescents' Time 1 and Time 2 drug use and friends' Time 1 drug use. Her study results provided support for the moderating role of parental style for 7 of the paths linking parental practices and adolescents' and friends' drug use at the selected time points. Among the findings was that higher levels of guiding were associated with lower levels of Time 1 drug use for adolescents of parents with the authoritative, authoritarian, or permissive styles but with higher levels of Time 1 drug use for adolescents of parents with the uninvolved (neglectful) style. The study also found that the relation between prohibiting and adolescents' Time 2 drug use was negative for the authoritative and authoritarian groups, whereas the relation was positive for the uninvolved group.

In the area of consumer socialization, there is absence of research examining the moderating effect of parental style on the relationship between parental practices and consumer socialization outcomes. Whereas the studies reviewed above examined the moderating effect of parental style using a typological measurement strategy, the moderating effect testing in this study involved one parental style dimension at a time. Specifically, the moderation model posits that the relationships between parental consumer socialization practices and adolescent consumer outcomes are moderated by parental demandingness and parental responsiveness. Based on the results from past child development research which consistently provided evidence that children reared by authoritative (demanding and responsive) parents show the most favorable and positive outcomes (Amato and Fowler, 2002, Pong et al., 2010), the following moderating effect is hypothesized for the two parental style dimensions as an alternative conceptualization of the role of parental style in consumer socialization:

H4a. The relationships between parental consumer socialization practices and adolescent consumer outcomes would be stronger (and positive) in the high parental demandingness context.

H4b. The relationships between parental consumer socialization practices and adolescent socialization outcomes would be stronger (and positive) in the high parental responsiveness context.

2.3. Differential parenting between mothers and fathers

Although small in number, studies of gender differences in parenting have shown that mothers and fathers have different relationships with their children and adolescents (Laible and Carlo, 2004, McKinney and Renk, 2008). These studies have shown that mothers take more time taking care of their children and are more often engaged in disciplinary activities, whereas fathers spend a greater portion of their time with their children in leisure and play activities (Lewis and Lamb, 2003, Renk et al., 2003). There is also evidence that mothers tend to provide more warmth and support (responsiveness) and tend to have closer relationships with their children compared to fathers (Holmbeck et al., 1995, Phares, 1999). Similarly, studies by Conrade and Ho (2001) and Russel et al. (1998), using Baumrind's typology, both found that mothers are more likely than fathers to use authoritative style, whereas fathers are more likely than mothers to use authoritarian style.

A small number of past studies that investigated different relationships that mothers and fathers have with their children appear to support the idea that parenting dimensions (i.e., parental style and parental practice) may have differential effects on child outcomes depending on the gender of the parent. A recent investigation by Jewell, Krohn, Scott, Carton, and Meinz (2008) suggested that mothers' authoritarian parental style and fathers' permissive style are related to increasing externalizing behaviors of children. Laible and Carlo's investigation (2004) into the unique relations of maternal and paternal parental style dimensions to child outcomes revealed that perceived support from mothers was associated with both higher levels of sympathy and self-worth in adolescents, and perceived rigid control (e.g., coercion, guilt induction, rejection, etc.) from mothers was associated with lower levels of self-worth and perceived social competence in adolescents. In contrast, perceived paternal support and rigid control from fathers was unrelated to most of the adolescent outcome measures with the only exception of sympathy – paternal support was just as predictive as was maternal support in predicting sympathy. As to why maternal parental style dimensions are more influential in predicting adolescent outcomes, the authors conjectured that adolescents typically report higher levels of intimacy and disclosure with mothers and this open discourse and intimacy between mothers and adolescents may be important in fostering social competence and self-worth.

In another study, Repinski and Shonk (2002) found that mothers' warm/supportive behavior, as compared to fathers' warm/supportive behavior, correlated more strongly and consistently with more adaptive school functioning and less involvement in problem behavior. They also observed that mothers' hostile behavior was associated significantly with adolescents' poorer academic and behavioral outcomes. There are studies, however, indicating no differential impact by mothers' and fathers' behavior on children's academic and behavioral functioning (Conger et al., 1997, Melby and Conger, 1996). For the comparison of fathers' and mothers' mediation model, based on what the majority of existing findings show, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5. The effects of parental style dimensions and parental practices on adolescent consumer socialization outcomes are stronger for mothers than fathers.

On the other hand, there is very little literature that suggests how the moderating effect of demandingness and responsiveness would vary between fathers and mothers. Hence, this portion of between-gender investigation is largely exploratory.

3. Method

3.1. Data

Data for this study come from self-administered questionnaires distributed to parents via high school students whose ages ranged between 13 and 18 at two high schools in Eastern Canada with the approvals from their school board and principals. Students took home a package containing two questionnaires for their parents and a cover letter. The cover letter explained the purpose of the study – to gain a better understanding of the role of parents in children’s consumer education – and requested each parent to complete his/her questionnaire without consulting with the other. Students brought back the completed mother’s and father’s questionnaires to school.

In total, 236 mothers and 194 fathers’ returned their completed questionnaires. Of these, there were 189 sets of questionnaires completed by matching parents; 47 questionnaires completed by mothers only; and 5 questionnaires completed by fathers only. The total number of packages handed out was approximately 800. Of the fathers in this study, 78.9% (153) were older than 40 (Median = 41–50), 40.2% reported a partial university or higher level of education, and 60.8% reported a household income greater than \$60,000 (Median = \$60,001–80,000). Of the mothers in this study, a little smaller percentage (70.8% or 167) were older than 40 (Median = 41–50), 37.3% reported a partial university or higher level of education, and a smaller percentage of mothers (52.5%) reported a household income greater than \$60,000 (Median = \$60,001–80,000). For the adolescents whose parent(s) participated in the survey, the average age was 15.6 and 62% were female.

3.2. Measures

3.2.1. Parental style

Fathers and mothers reported their own parental styles. Maccoby and Martin’s (1983) two dimensions of parenting style – demandingness and responsiveness – were gauged with the items selected from the past studies of parental style (Darling and Toyokawa, 1997, Lamborn et al., 1991, Paulson, 1994, Small and Kerns, 1993). Nine items (1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree) that on the face strongly reflected parental control and supervision were chosen to measure the dimension of demandingness ($\alpha = .73$ for fathers; $\alpha = .72$ for mothers). Thirteen items (1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree) were chosen for the measure of responsiveness for their appearance to capture such parenting characteristics as warmth, acceptance, and involvement ($\alpha = .86$ for fathers; $\alpha = .87$ for mothers). The measurement items for these two dimensions are presented in Appendix A. Parents were told to refer to the child who brought the questionnaires to them when responding to these items.

Table 1. CFA results of mothers’ and fathers’ parental consumer socialization practice items: factor loadings (λ), average variance extracted (AVE), construct reliability (ρ), and factor correlations (ϕ).

	Mothers			Fathers			
	λ	AVE	ρ	λ	AVE	ρ	
<i>Factor 1: Consumer education on purchase decision-making</i>		.65	.88		.63	.87	
1. I talk to my child about why I like or don’t like to shop at certain stores	.77			.83			
2. I talk to my child about why I buy the brands or products I purchase	.85			.80			
3. I talk to my child about what I like and don’t like about various products or brands made by different companies	.78			.78			
4. I talk to my child about my views on “how to choose between products and brands”	.82			.77			
<i>Factor 2: Consumer education on money management</i>		.56	.79		.57	.79	
1. I tell my child to shop around before buying something that costs a lot of money	.79			.70			
2. I talk to my child about the importance of comparing prices and brands before buying something that costs a lot of money	.83			.85			
3. I tell my child to keep track of the money s/he spends and saves	.61			.70			
<i>Factor 3: Discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping</i>		.44	.76		.43	.75	
1. My child and I talk about buying things	.74			.74			
2. My child and I talk about things we see or hear advertised	.65			.66			
3. I go shopping with my child	.64			.55			
4. I tell my child why I bought some things for myself	.61			.66			
	Mothers			Fathers			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	
<i>Factor correlations (ϕ)</i>							
Factor 1	1.00			Factor 1	1.00		
Factor 2	.66	1.00		Factor 2	.63	1.00	
Factor 3	.66	.49	1.00	Factor 3	.61	.59	1.00

3.2.2. Parental practices

Each parent responded to 12 parental practice items capturing the frequency of consumption-related education they may provide to their children (1 = Never; 5 = Very often). Five of these items came from Palan’s (1998) 6-item consumption-interaction measure that dealt with “how parents interact with their children concerning prior purchasing advice, budgeting, prudent spending, and opinions on items already purchased” (p. 343). The other seven were designed along the same lines to augment those selected from Palan’s list. Again, parents were told to refer to the child who brought the questionnaires to them when responding to these items. In order to ascertain the dimensionality of these items and, more importantly, to identify those items for which a similar factor pattern existed across mothers’ and fathers’ subsamples, an iterative procedure involving rounds of factor analysis (principal axis factoring with oblimin rotation) and reliability analysis was conducted. After deleting one item, factor analysis successfully produced an equivalent three-factor pattern for the two respondent groups. All of the items in both solutions had a loading value greater than .50 on their highest loading factors, and all of the factors showed an α value greater than .7. These three factors were labeled “consumer education on purchase decision-making” (4 items), “consumer education on money management” (3

items), and “discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping” (4 items). (See Table 1 for the actual items.)

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) of the three-factor model subsequently conducted for each parental subsample provided acceptable fit indications (for fathers’ model: $\chi^2 = 114.10$, $df = 41$; GFI = .90; CFI = .96; NFI = .93; RMSEA = .10 and for mothers’ model: $\chi^2 = 133.48$, $df = 41$; GFI = .90; CFI = .96; NFI = .94; RMSEA = .10). Results in both cases showed by and large favorable indications of single-method convergent validity (i.e., item convergence) and discriminant validity for the three groups of items reflecting three correlated parental consumer socialization practice factors. Item convergence is indicated by the average variance extracted (AVE) for the items loading on a given factor and construct reliability (ρ). As can be seen in Table 1, the AVE value was greater than .5, thereby providing strong evidence of convergence (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991) for the factors of consumer education on purchase decision-making and consumer education on money management in both mothers’ and fathers’ CFA solutions. However, the AVE values of .44 and .43 resulted respectively for mothers’ and fathers’ factor of discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping provide only moderate support for item convergence. On the other hand, construct reliability values (ρ s), ranging between .75 and .88 for the mothers’ and fathers’ factors, indicate satisfactory levels of item convergence in all cases.

Assessments of discriminant validity of the factors were made based on Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) criterion that the AVE values for all factors be greater than the squared values of corresponding factor correlations. This requirement was met for all AVE values in both mothers’ and fathers’ CFA solutions except for one. The AVE value of .44 for the factor of discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping was higher than the squared value of its correlation with the factor of consumer education on money management ($\rho_{32} = .49$), but essentially tied the squared value of its correlation with the factor of consumer education on purchase decision-making ($\rho_{31} = .66$, see Factor Correlations in Table 1). These generally high correlations among the different types of parental practice were rather expected however since parents are likely to simultaneously engage in multiple approaches to instilling consumer skills and knowledge to their children. Bagozzi and Yi (1991) proposed a less stringent test of discriminant validity – comparing the fit of a nested model in which all factor correlations were set to unity with that of the unconstrained model. The χ^2 difference from this comparison was highly significant in both mothers’ and fathers’ tests ($\Delta\chi^2 = 184.13$, $df = 3$, $p = .00$ in mothers’ test; $\Delta\chi^2 = 164.11$, $df = 3$, $p = .00$ in fathers’ test), suggesting that the three factors are discriminant of one another.

3.2.3. Adolescent socialization outcomes

Given the primary goal of consumer socialization is to teach young people market knowledge as well as rational purchase/consumption behaviors, parents responded to 11 items designed to capture their assessments of how prudent their children’s shopping behavior was (6 items, 1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree) and their children’s consumer competence as indicated by the level of market knowledge they possessed (5 items, 1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree). These items were obtained from Kim, Lee, and Tomiuk’s (2009) study of adolescent consumers’ decision-making styles. Item purification based on factor analysis (principal factoring with oblimin rotation) and reliability analysis led to the deletion of one item

(which intended to measure consumer competence) before a two-factor pattern equivalent across mothers' and fathers' subsamples was achieved. All of the items in each solution had a loading value greater than .50 on their highest loading factor, and all of the factors showed an α value greater than .80. (See Table 2 for the actual items.)

Table 2. CFA results of mothers' and fathers' assessments of adolescents' consumer socialization outcome items: factor loadings (λ), average variance extracted (AVE), construct reliability (ρ), and factor correlations (φ).

	Mothers			Fathers		
	λ	AVE	ρ	λ	AVE	ρ
<i>Factor 1: Prudent shopping behavior</i>		.61	.90	.61	.90	
1. My child plans how to spend his/her money	.59			.66		
2. My child compares prices and brands before buying something that costs a lot of money	.79			.81		
3. My child keeps track of money s/he spends and saves	.71			.75		
4. My child shops around before buying something that costs a lot of money	.84			.82		
5. My child carefully studies the choices available before s/he buys something that costs a lot of money	.90			.84		
6. My child looks carefully to find the best values for the money	.81			.79		
<i>Factor 2: Consumer competence</i>		.62	.86	.57	.84	
1. My child knows a lot about different brands of products s/he buys	.80			.75		
2. My child knows a lot about different types of stores	.75			.71		
3. My child is usually well informed about what is a reasonable price to pay for something	.76			.77		
4. My child knows a lot about choices available for things s/he buys	.83			.78		
	Mothers			Fathers		
	Factor 1		Factor 2	Factor 1		Factor 2
<i>Factor correlations (φ)</i>						
Factor 1	1.00			Factor 1	1.00	
Factor 2	.69	1.00		Factor 2	.67	1.00

CFAs conducted in the next stage showed acceptable fit indications for the two-factor model for fathers and mothers (for fathers' model: $\chi^2 = 127.21$, $df = 34$; GFI = .88; CFI = .96; NFI = .94; RMSEA = .12 and for mothers' model: $\chi^2 = 126.29$, $df = 34$; GFI = .91; CFI = .96; NFI = .96; RMSEA = .10). First, strong evidence of item convergence for the two socialization outcome factors was provided by the AVE values greater than .5 in both solutions. This was reinforced by high construct reliabilities (ρ s) ranging from .84 to .90 (see Table 2). Evidence for discriminant validity of the factors was found from both the fit comparison between the unconstrained CFA model and the nested model with the factor correlation constrained to unity as well as Fornell and Larcker's test. The χ^2 differences from the two fit comparisons were highly significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 180.76$, $df = 1$, $p = .00$ in mothers' test; $\Delta\chi^2 = 139.57$, $df = 1$, $p = .00$ in fathers' test). Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion was also fully met in both cases: The AVE value was larger than their corresponding factor correlation (φ_{21}) in both solutions. These results rendered strong support for the discriminant validity of the two adolescents' socialization outcome factors.

4. Analysis and results

The analysis involved estimating and contrasting the effects of parental style as specified in two alternative models for fathers and mothers. The mediation model specifies direct effects of the demandingness and responsiveness dimensions of parental style on the three parental socialization practice variables (consumer education on purchase decision-making, consumer education on money management, and discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping) as well as the two adolescent consumer socialization outcome variables (prudent shopping behavior and consumer competence). The mediation model also stipulates the effects of the parental practice variables on the consumer outcome variables. Aside from parental style and parental practice variables, adolescents' sex and age were suspected to be covariates of the consumer socialization outcomes and incorporated in the model as having a direct influence on the two consumer outcome variables. The moderation model, on the other hand, specifies that the effects of parental practice variables on the adolescent outcome variables are moderated by demandingness and responsiveness. Fig. 1 shows the diagrammatic representations of these two models. Because of the large number of indicators (in the mediation model), all scales were summed to represent relevant constructs (Banerjee et al., 2003, Calantone et al., 1996), and all models were estimated with path analysis using LISREL 8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). Means and standard deviations of the variables in analysis as well as correlations among them computed for the mother and father subsamples are presented in Table 3.

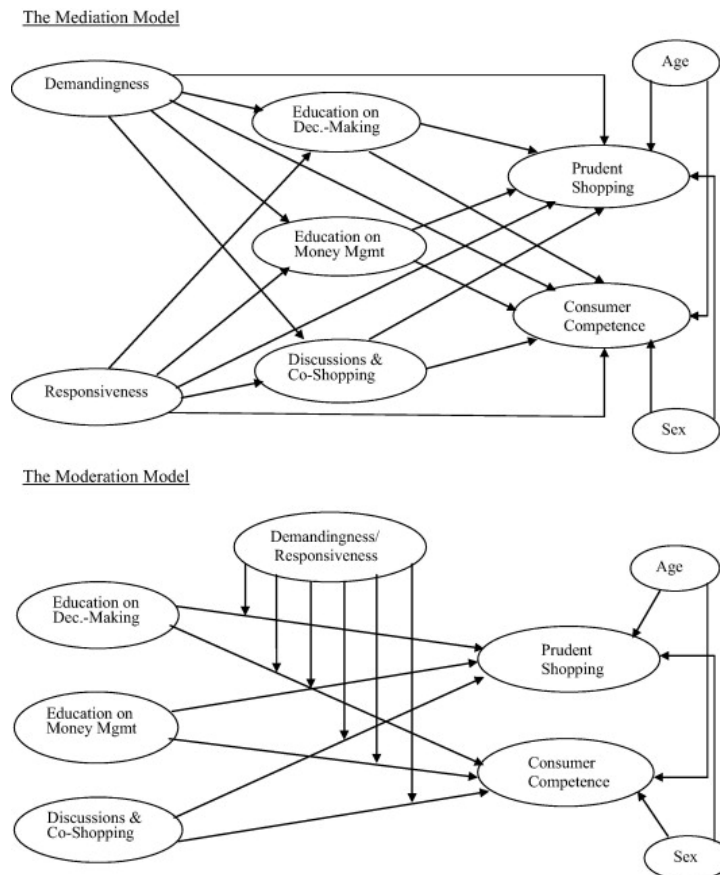


Fig. 1. The mediation model and the moderation model relating parental style dimensions, consumer socialization practices, and consumer socialization outcomes.

Table 3. Correlations among parental style, parental practice, and adolescent outcome variables for the mother and father subsamples.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Mean	SD
<i>Mothers</i>													
1. Mother's demandingness	1.00											3.83	.55
2. Mother's responsiveness	.31 ^a	1.00										4.19	.55
3. Mother's consumer education on purchase decision-making	.15 ^b	.24 ^a	1.00									3.23	.85
4. Mother's consumer education on money management	.40 ^a	.35 ^a	.56 ^a	1.00								3.84	.75
5. Mother's discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping	.06	.40 ^a	.55 ^a	.35 ^a	1.00							3.35	.65
6. Adolescent's prudent shopping behavior (assessed by mothers)	.10	.31 ^a	.23 ^a	.32 ^a	.26 ^a	1.00						3.62	.87
7. Adolescent's consumer competence (assessed by mothers)	.01	.40 ^a	.31 ^a	.25 ^a	.35 ^a	.62 ^a	1.00					3.69	.76
8. Adolescent's sex	-.05	.06	.16 ^b	.06	.12 ^c	.03	.09	1.00				61% ^d	–
9. Adolescent's age	-.12 ^c	-.03	-.12 ^c	-.06	-.15 ^b	-.02	.06	-.05	1.00			15.61	1.82
<i>Fathers</i>													
1. Father's demandingness	1.00											3.59	.55
2. Father's responsiveness	.17 ^b	1.00										3.91	.57
3. Father's consumer education on purchase decision-making	.19 ^a	.15 ^b	1.00									2.90	.79
4. Father's consumer education on money management	.31 ^a	.24 ^a	.53 ^a	1.00								3.45	.82
5. Father's discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping	.07	.45 ^a	.49 ^a	.46 ^a	1.00							2.96	.65
6. Adolescent's prudent shopping behavior (assessed by fathers)	.08	.19 ^a	.13 ^c	.11	.22 ^a	1.00						3.47	.83
7. Adolescent's consumer competence (assessed by fathers)	.09	.22 ^a	.02	.10	.21 ^a	.56 ^a	1.00					3.50	.71
8. Adolescent's sex	-.05	.13 ^c	-.02	-.05	.00	.10	.17 ^b	1.00				64% ^d	–
9. Adolescent's age	-.07	-.12	.15 ^b	.08	-.08	-.06	-.05	-.07	1.00			15.64	2.03

^a $p < .01$.

^b $p < .05$.

^c $p < .10$.

^d The percentage of female adolescents.

Table 4. Results of the mediation model estimations.

Path	Mother model		Father model	
	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	t-Value
Demandingness → Education on purchase decision-making (γ_{11})	.08	1.18	.17	2.40 ^b
Demandingness → Education on money management (γ_{21})	.32	5.26 ^a	.28	4.08 ^a
Demandingness → Discussions of consump. issues and co-shopping (γ_{31})	-.08	-1.19	.00	-.06
Demandingness → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{41})	-.07	-1.03	.04	.57
Demandingness → Consumer competence (γ_{51})	-.13	-2.04 ^b	.08	1.03
Responsiveness → Education on purchase decision-making (γ_{12})	.21	3.13 ^a	.12	1.71 ^c
Responsiveness → Education on money management (γ_{22})	.25	4.05 ^a	.19	2.73 ^a
Responsiveness → Discussions of consump. issues and co-shopping (γ_{32})	.43	6.77 ^a	.45	6.83 ^a
Responsiveness → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{42})	.21	2.94 ^a	.10	1.17
Responsiveness → Consumer competence (γ_{52})	.34	5.07 ^a	.10	1.31
Adolescents' sex → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{43})	-.01	-.19	.09	1.20
Adolescents' sex → Consumer competence (γ_{53})	.03	.44	.16	2.26 ^b
Adolescents' age → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{44})	.01	.20	-.03	-.48
Adolescents' age → Consumer competence (γ_{54})	.10	1.73 ^c	.01	.14
Educ. on purchase dec.-making → Prudent shopping behavior (β_{41})	.00	.03	.04	.48
Educ. on purchase dec.-making → Consumer competence (β_{51})	.16	2.06 ^b	-.13	-1.51
Educ. on money management → Prudent shopping behavior (β_{42})	.24	2.95 ^a	-.01	-.07
Educ. on money management → Consumer competence (β_{52})	.05	.70	.04	.42
Discussions of consump. issues and co-shopping → Prudent shopping (β_{43})	.10	1.30	.15	1.62
Discussions of consump. issues and co-shopping → Consumer competence (β_{53})	.13	1.77 ^c	.20	2.24 ^b

^a $p < .01$.^b $p < .05$.^c $p < .10$.

4.1. Descriptive statistics and bivariate relationships

As presented in Table 3, for the two parental style dimensions, mothers showed significantly higher levels of both demandingness and responsiveness than fathers (for demandingness: $M_{mothers} = 3.83$ vs. $M_{fathers} = 3.59$, $t = 4.57$, $p < .01$ and for responsiveness: 4.19 vs. 3.91 , $t = 5.20$, $p < .01$). These results are consistent with those reported by Laible and Carlo (2004). In terms of the consumer socialization practices measured in this study, mothers again showed significantly higher involvement than fathers in all three types. They engaged in more frequent interactions with their children to provide consumer education on purchase decision-making ($M_{mothers} = 3.23$ vs. $M_{fathers} = 2.90$, $t = 4.11$, $p < .01$), money management ($M_{mothers} = 3.84$ vs. $M_{fathers} = 3.45$, $t = 5.08$, $p < .01$), and also more frequent discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping ($M_{mothers} = 3.35$ vs. $M_{fathers} = 2.96$, $t = 6.18$, $p < .01$). These results are also in agreement with the general understanding that fathers spend less time taking care of their children/adolescents relative to mothers (Phares, 1999, Renk et al., 2003). Mothers and fathers further differed in the assessments of their adolescent's shopping behavior and consumer competence. Although the difference was only marginally significant, mothers more strongly than fathers thought that their child's shopping behavior was prudent ($M_{mothers} = 3.62$ vs. $M_{fathers} = 3.47$, $t = 1.90$, $p < .10$). Mothers also rated their child's consumer competence significantly higher than fathers ($M_{mothers} = 3.69$ vs. $M_{fathers} = 3.50$, $t = 2.67$, $p < .01$).

Among the correlations presented in Table 3, the ones that warrant a closer look are those between demandingness and responsiveness of each parent's parental style. For both mothers and fathers, the correlations are positive and significant ($r = .31$, $p < .01$ for mothers; $r = .17$, $p < .05$ for fathers). This observation that parents who are higher in demandingness also tend to be more responsive is consistent with past findings (Carlo et al., 2007, Darling and Toyokawa, 1997, Fletcher et al., 2008). Finally, although not presented in Table 3, further analysis revealed moderate correlations between mothers and fathers on each of the two parenting style dimensions ($r = .37$, $p < .01$, between mothers' demandingness and fathers' demandingness; $r = .36$, $p < .01$, between mothers' responsiveness and fathers' responsiveness), suggesting a fair degree of similarity between the parental styles of each parent.

4.2. Mediation model analysis and results

The mediation model featuring the two parental style dimensions as antecedent variables, three types of parental socialization practice as mediating variables, the two adolescent socialization outcome variables as dependent variables, and adolescents' sex and age as covariates of the adolescent socialization outcome variables was estimated separately for mothers and fathers. When estimated, both the mother and the father model showed a good fit (for the mother model: $\chi^2 = 13.26$, $df = 15$, $p = .58$; GFI = .99; CFI = 1.00; NFI = .98; RMSEA = .00 and for the father model and $\chi^2 = 12.59$, $df = 15$, $p = .63$; GFI = .99; CFI = 1.00; NFI = .97; RMSEA = .00). The estimated path coefficients in these two models are presented in Table 4. Out of 20 total pathways in each model, the mother model had 9 significant structural coefficients ($p < .05$) and 2 marginally significant coefficients ($p < .10$) whereas the father model had 6 significant and 1 marginally significant paths. The R^2 values for the structural equations involving the three parental practice variables and the two consumer socialization outcome variables as dependent variables ranged between 7% and 20% in the father model and between 6% and 26% in the

mother model. Particularly notable are the substantially higher R^2 values for the structural equations involving the two socialization outcome variables in the mother model ($R^2 = .16$ for prudent shopping and $R^2 = .26$ for consumer competence) than in the father model ($R^2 = .07$ and $R^2 = .10$, in the same order).

Focusing in on the direct effects of each of the two parental style dimensions on the adolescent consumer outcome variables (H1a and H1b), results showed that mothers' demandingness affected only one of the two outcome variables (consumer competence, $\gamma_{51} = -.13$, $t = -2.04$, $p < .05$) – negatively, however, which was in the direction opposite to that hypothesized. Fathers' demandingness showed no significant effect on either of the two adolescent consumer outcome variables. On the other hand, parental responsiveness showed a significant positive effect on both adolescent consumer outcome variables in the mother model (prudent shopping behavior, $\gamma_{42} = .21$, $t = 2.94$, $p < .01$ and consumer competence, $\gamma_{52} = .34$, $t = 5.07$, $p < .01$) but none of the outcome variables in the father model. Hence, these results offer no support for H1a but partial support for H1b.

Regarding H2a and H2b linking parental style dimensions to parental practices, results showed that mothers' demandingness affected only one of the three consumer socialization practice variables (consumer education on money management, $\gamma_{21} = .32$, $t = 5.26$, $p < .01$). Fathers' demandingness likewise showed a significant effect on the education of their children on money management ($\gamma_{21} = .28$, $t = 4.08$, $p < .01$). Fathers' demandingness also showed a significant link to the education of their children on purchase decision-making ($\gamma_{11} = .17$, $t = 2.40$, $p < .05$). These results provide partial support for H2a. On the other hand, the effect of parental responsiveness on parental consumer socialization practices was extensive both in the mother and the father model. As can be seen in Table 4, pathways from mothers' responsiveness to all three consumer socialization practice variables were significant with positive path coefficients (consumer education on purchase decision-making, $\gamma_{12} = .21$, $t = 3.13$, $p < .01$; consumer education on money management, $\gamma_{22} = .25$, $t = 4.05$, $p < .01$; and discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping, $\gamma_{32} = .43$, $t = 6.77$, $p < .01$). Fathers' responsiveness showed a significant link to consumer education on money management ($\gamma_{22} = .19$, $t = 2.73$, $p < .01$), discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping ($\gamma_{32} = .45$, $t = 6.83$, $p < .01$), and a marginally significant link to consumer education on purchase decision-making ($\gamma_{12} = .12$, $t = 1.71$, $p < .10$). Therefore, H2b is strongly supported.

H3 predicted that higher levels of parental socialization practices would lead to more positive adolescent consumer socialization outcomes. Results of the mother-model estimation showed that adolescents' consumer competence was positively affected by mothers' consumer education on purchase decision-making ($\beta_{51} = .16$, $t = 2.06$, $p < .05$) and marginally by mother-child discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping ($\beta_{53} = .13$, $t = 1.77$, $p < .10$). Adolescents' prudent shopping behavior, the other outcome variable, was positively affected by mothers' consumer education on money management ($\beta_{42} = .24$, $t = 2.95$, $p < .01$). Results of the father-model estimation showed only one significant path – that linking father-child discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping to adolescents' consumer competence ($\beta_{53} = .20$, $t = 2.24$, $p < .05$). H3, therefore, receives partial support, but mainly from mothers' results.

Results contained in Table 4 additionally provide insights into the mediating role of parental practices for the relationships between the parental style dimensions and adolescent consumer outcomes. Looking at mothers' results, the only parental consumer practice variable that mediated the effect of demandingness – on adolescents' prudent shopping behavior – was education on money management. The indirect effect of mothers' demandingness on prudent shopping behavior via education on money management was significant ($\gamma_{21} \beta_{42} = .08, p < .05$). Given the absence of a significant direct effect of mothers' demandingness on adolescents' prudent shopping behavior, this was a case of full mediation. As presented earlier, the effect of mothers' responsiveness was considerably more extensive, and all three parental practice variables partially mediated its effect on the adolescent outcome variables. The effect of mothers' responsiveness on adolescents' consumer competence was both direct ($\gamma_{52} = .34, p < .01$) and mediated, albeit at marginally significant levels, by education on purchase decision-making ($\gamma_{12} \beta_{51} = .03, p < .10$) and discussions and co-shopping ($\gamma_{32} \beta_{53} = .06, p < .10$), hence partially mediated. Next, the effect of mothers' responsiveness on adolescents' prudent shopping behavior was similarly both direct ($\gamma_{42} = .21, p < .01$) and mediated by education on money management ($\gamma_{22} \beta_{42} = .06, p < .05$). These results, in sum, provide strong support that mothers' responsiveness directly and indirectly (via consumer education practices) affect adolescents' consumer socialization outcomes.

In strong contrast to mothers' results, there was only one instance of significant mediation in fathers' results. Fathers' responsiveness showed a significant indirect effect on adolescents' consumer competence through discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping ($\gamma_{32} \beta_{53} = .09, p < .05$). This was a case of full mediation since fathers' responsiveness showed no significant direct effect on consumer competence. In short, the notion that parental practices should mediate the link between parental style and adolescent socialization outcomes received fairly strong support, but only from mothers' results. Mothers' results further showed that the mediating roles played by the three types of parental consumer education were largely for the effects of the responsiveness dimension on adolescent consumer outcomes.

4.3. Moderation model analysis and results

The next stage of analysis tested the moderation model (Fig. 1) which is premised on Darling and Steinberg's (1993) view that parental style should moderate the link between parents' consumer socialization practices and adolescent socialization outcomes. Model testing employing a multi-group path model approach was conducted separately for mothers and fathers and involved one parental style dimension at a time. For each parental group, using the median value of the parental style dimension whose moderating effect is under investigation, the sample was split into high and low groups and the model parameters were estimated simultaneously for both groups. In one (two-group) model, all the model parameters were allowed to differ for each group. In the second (two-group) model, the six path coefficients for the pathways linking the three parental practice variables and the two adolescent outcome variables, one at a time, were constrained to be equal in the two groups. The test of moderating effect was conducted by comparing the chi-square values of the two models. If the chi-square value difference between the two models were significant, then it would be concluded that the unconstrained model fits the data significantly better than the constrained model. This in turn would indicate that the relationship between the parental practice variable and adolescent outcome variable in question

differs across the high and low groups for the parenting style dimension under consideration, thereby suggesting the presence of a significant moderator effect.

Table 5 presents the estimated path coefficients for the six pathways for the high and low groups for each parental style dimension and the chi-square difference statistics testing the equality of each path coefficient across the high and low groups for each parental style dimension. As for the moderating effect of the mothers' parental style dimensions, results showed that none of the six path coefficients differed significantly between the high and low groups for parental demandingness as well as parental responsiveness. Hence, these results offer no evidence supporting the hypothesis that mothers' parental style moderates the effects of their parental socialization practices on adolescent consumer outcomes. Fathers' results were slightly more supportive of the moderation hypothesis. Fathers' demandingness showed a marginally significant moderating effect on the pathways linking education on money management to prudent shopping behavior ($\Delta\chi^2 = 3.46, df = 1, p = .06$) and discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping to consumer competence ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2.77, df = 1, p = .10$). The estimated path coefficients for the pathway linking education on money management to prudent shopping behavior for the high- and low-demandingness father groups, albeit both nonsignificant, indicated that education on money management provided by fathers of high demandingness had a negative effect on adolescents' prudent shopping behavior ($\gamma_{12} = -.16, t = -1.19, p > .10$) whereas education on money management provided by fathers of low demandingness showed a positive effect ($\gamma_{12} = .18, t = 1.44, p > .10$). Results also showed that the parental practice of having discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping with children had a significant positive impact on adolescents' consumer competence only when provided by fathers of low demandingness ($\gamma_{12} = .38, t = 2.38, p < .05$ vs. $\gamma_{12} = .05, t = .42, p > .10$ for fathers of high demandingness). The direction of moderation found in both of these two instances, however, is opposite to that hypothesized. H4a anticipated that the relationship between parental socialization practices and adolescent consumer outcomes would be positive and stronger in the high parental demandingness context. As for the moderating effect of fathers' responsiveness, there was one pathway (education on money management \rightarrow adolescent consumer competence) out of the six tested whose estimated path coefficients for the high- and low-responsiveness groups differed – at a marginally significant level ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2.95, df = 1, p = .09$). The two estimated path coefficients revealed, however, that the direction of moderation was again opposite to that hypothesized in H4b. Consumer education on money management positively impacted adolescents' consumer competence at a marginally significant level, only when provided by fathers of low responsiveness ($\gamma_{22} = .20, t = 1.73, p < .10$ for fathers of low responsiveness vs. $\gamma_{22} = -.10, t = -.76, p > .10$ for fathers of high responsiveness).

Whereas no support was found in mothers' results, fathers' results offer at best weak support for the notion that parental style moderates the effect of parental consumer socialization practices on adolescent consumer outcomes. These fathers' results, however, provide no support for H4a and H4b which anticipated stronger positive relationships between parental socialization practices and adolescent consumer outcomes for mothers and fathers of high demandingness (vs. low demandingness) and for mothers and fathers of high responsiveness (vs. low responsiveness).

Table 5. Results of path coefficient equality tests for high and low groups of parental demandingness and responsiveness.

Path	High group	Low group	$\Delta\chi^2$
	Coefficient	Coefficient	
<i>Mothers: Demandingness</i>			
Edu. on purchase dec.-making → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{11})	-.05 (-.47)*	.03 (.24)	.25
Edu. on purchase dec.-making → Consumer competence (γ_{21})	.20 (2.13 ^b)	.02 (.18)	1.60
Edu. on money management → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{12})	.37 (2.57 ^a)	.32 (2.65 ^a)	.08
Edu. on money management → Consumer competence (γ_{22})	.19 (1.62)	.07 (.65)	.64
Discussions and co-shopping → Prudent shopping (γ_{13})	.23 (1.63)	.23 (1.71 ^c)	.00
Discussions and co-shopping → Consumer competence (γ_{23})	.26 (2.21 ^b)	.35 (2.88 ^a)	.24
<i>Mothers: Responsiveness</i>			
Edu. on purchase dec.-making → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{11})	.06 (.51)	.32 (2.23 ^b)	1.92
Edu. on purchase dec.-making → Consumer competence (γ_{21})	.22 (2.06 ^b)	.35 (3.17 ^a)	.71
Edu. on money management → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{12})	.29 (2.34 ^b)	.24 (1.88 ^c)	.10
Edu. on money management → Consumer competence (γ_{22})	-.04 (-.40)	.07 (.77)	.67
Discussions and co-shopping → Prudent shopping (γ_{13})	.04 (.27)	-.07 (-.55)	.32
Discussions and co-shopping → Consumer competence (γ_{23})	.04 (.31)	.09 (.98)	.10
<i>Fathers: Demandingness</i>			
Edu. on purchase dec.-making → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{11})	.08 (.61)	.02 (.15)	.11
Edu. on purchase dec.-making → Consumer competence (γ_{21})	.00 (.04)	-.23(-1.79 ^c)	1.99
Edu. on money management → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{12})	-.16 (-1.19)	.18 (1.44)	3.46 ^c
Edu. on money management → Consumer competence (γ_{22})	.01 (.11)	.07 (.65)	.17
Discussions and co-shopping → Prudent shopping (γ_{13})	.21 (1.33)	.12 (.70)	.14
Discussions and co-shopping → Consumer competence (γ_{23})	.05 (.42)	.38 (2.38 ^b)	2.77 ^c
<i>Fathers: Responsiveness</i>			
Edu. on purchase dec.-making → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{11})	.15 (1.16)	-.02 (-.18)	.10
Edu. on purchase dec.-making → Consumer competence (γ_{21})	-.06 (-.42)	-.17 (-1.50)	.45
Edu. on money management → Prudent shopping behavior (γ_{12})	.01 (.10)	-.03 (-.24)	.06
Edu. on money management → Consumer competence (γ_{22})	-.10 (-.76)	.20 (1.73 ^c)	2.95 ^c
Discussions and co-shopping → Prudent shopping (γ_{13})	.07 (.55)	.18 (1.58)	.49
Discussions and co-shopping → Consumer competence (γ_{23})	.20 (1.57)	.19 (1.69 ^c)	.00

* *t*-Values are in the parentheses.

^a *p* < .01.

^b *p* < .05.

^c *p* < .10.

4.4. Gender differences in the effects of parental style and practices on socialization outcomes

Although based on a limited body of literature, gender differences regarding the effects of parental style and parental practices on consumer socialization outcomes were anticipated within the context of the mediation model. H5 predicted greater effects of mothers' parental style and consumer socialization practices on adolescent consumer outcomes than fathers'. To test H5, a series of multigroup analysis, similar to those conducted for the moderating effect testing, were run where each analysis involved comparing the fits of two multigroup models. In one (two-group) model, all hypothesized paths in the mothers' and the fathers' mediation model were freely estimated, and in the other (two-group) model, the ten path coefficients for the pathways linking the two parental style dimensions and the three types of parental practice to the two consumer outcome variables were constrained, one at a time, to be invariant across the mother

and the father model. Of the ten equality tests, four (γ_{51} for Demandingness \rightarrow Consumer Competence: $\Delta\chi^2 = 4.63$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$; γ_{52} for Responsiveness \rightarrow Consumer Competence: $\Delta\chi^2 = 6.22$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$; β_{42} for Consumer Education on Money Management \rightarrow Prudent Shopping: $\Delta\chi^2 = 4.73$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$; and β_{51} for Consumer Education on Purchase Decision-Making \rightarrow Consumer Competence: $\Delta\chi^2 = 6.14$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$) showed a significant result. Specifically, mothers' demandingness had a significant negative effect on adolescent consumer competence ($\gamma_{51} = -.13$, $t = -2.04$, $p < .05$) whereas fathers' demandingness had no significant effect ($\gamma_{51} = .08$, $t = 1.03$, $p > .10$) (Table 4). Mothers' responsiveness showed a significant positive effect on adolescent consumer competence ($\gamma_{52} = .34$, $t = 5.07$, $p < .01$), but fathers' responsiveness had no significant effect ($\gamma_{52} = .10$, $t = 1.31$, $p > .10$). Mothers' education of children on money management had a significant positive effect on adolescents' prudent shopping behavior ($\beta_{42} = .24$, $t = 2.95$, $p < .01$) whereas fathers' education of children on money management had no significant effect ($\beta_{42} = -.01$, $t = -.07$, $p > .10$). Lastly, education of children on purchase decision-making showed a significant positive effect on adolescents' consumer competence in the mother model ($\beta_{51} = .16$, $t = 2.06$, $p < .05$) but its negative effect did not reach the significance level in fathers' model ($\beta_{51} = -.13$, $t = -1.51$, $p > .10$). H5 predicted greater (positive) effects of mothers' parental style and parental practices on consumer socialization outcomes. Thus, three of the four significant results showing a significantly greater positive path coefficient in the mother model confirm H5.

Because of the lack of supporting literature, mother–father differences (and their directions) regarding the effects of the two parental style dimensions on the three parental practice variables were not specified in H5. Nonetheless, a series of multigroup analyses testing the equality of these six pathways across the mother and the father model were conducted. No significant result emerged from these analyses, however.

Finally, results regarding the gender differences in the moderating effect of parental style dimensions warrant remarks, though briefly. As presented in the previous section, while the evidence produced in this study for the moderation hypothesis was weak, it is nonetheless notable that significant results ($p < .10$) were found only for fathers. These results, all at marginal levels of significance, showed that parental consumer socialization practice provided by fathers of low demandingness (vs. fathers of high demandingness) and fathers of low responsiveness (vs. fathers of high responsiveness) tends to have more positive impact on adolescents' socialization outcome. While not altogether intuitive, these results suggest, albeit weakly, that the effectiveness of fathers' consumer socialization practices may be affected by the parental-style context in which they are conducted, whereas this may not be the case for mothers' consumer socialization practices.

5. Discussion

Despite the compelling theoretical and empirical work in child development suggesting that parental styles, parental socialization practices, and adolescent socialization outcomes may be linked in complicated ways, very little research has attempted to clarify the nature of interactions among these key components of the consumer socialization process. Given this backdrop, the study aimed to generate a deeper understanding of the mechanisms through which parental style influences adolescents' consumer socialization. This was done by examining two conceptual

frameworks with differing postulations regarding the pattern of impact parental style has on consumer socialization outcomes. The mediation model postulated a direct effect of parental style on consumer socialization outcomes as well as an indirect effect on consumer socialization outcomes through parents' consumer socialization practices. The moderation model stipulated the role of parental style as a moderator of the associations between parents' consumer socialization practices and adolescents' consumer socialization outcomes. Another aim was to investigate gender (mother–father) differences in parental style and socialization practices as well as the patterns of associations among parental style, parental practices, and adolescents' socialization outcomes.

5.1. Mediation model findings

Results of this study provide strong support for the mediation model. Most notably, the responsiveness dimension of both mothers' and fathers' parental styles was found to have extensive linkages to parental socialization practices, and mothers' responsiveness in particular showed an extensive influence on adolescents' socialization outcomes, both direct and indirect. More responsive mothers were more likely to engage in all three types of consumer socialization education for their children. Mothers' responsive parental style had a direct positive influence on adolescents' development of prudent shopping behavior and consumer competence. Furthermore, it also indirectly influenced adolescents' prudent shopping behavior via consumer education on money management and adolescents' consumer competence via discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping. These findings regarding mothers' responsiveness are generally in line with the prevailing view that maternal support and warmth (akin to responsiveness) promote self-esteem, social competence, and social information processing skills of children (Laible and Carlo, 2004, Pettit et al., 1991).

The overall impact of mothers' demandingness on adolescents' consumer socialization outcomes was weaker than that of mothers' responsiveness. Nonetheless, the significant direct negative association it showed with adolescents' consumer competence is noteworthy. There is a fair amount of evidence that links parents' rigid psychological control (e.g., coercion, guilt reduction, rejection, love withdrawal, etc.) to children's negative development outcomes (Barber, 1996, Barber et al., 2005), but parents' behavioral control has in most cases been linked to a variety of positive child outcomes (Barber and Olsen, 1997, Pettit et al., 2001). This finding, in contrast to past findings, suggests that mothers' predispositions toward even a flexible, behavioral type of control may have a detrimental effect on adolescents' development of consumer competence. A plausible explanation for this discrepant finding may come from the relatively high age of the children studied in this study. Adolescent youth in transition to independent adulthood may easily find parental control attempts on their behaviors as intrusive and interfering, and may react in nonconforming ways. Noncompliance with parents' demands on their behaviors over time may engender a negative impact on key developmental outcomes – including consumer socialization outcomes such as consumer competence development. Mothers' demandingness, however, did have a positive consequence on adolescents' prudent shopping behavior indirectly through mothers' education of adolescents on money management. More demanding mothers tended to educate their children more frequently on responsible money management and this, in turn, had a positive effect on their development of prudent shopping behavior.

The responsiveness dimension of fathers' parental style similarly showed extensive links to parental socialization practices but very little association with adolescents' socialization outcomes. Results show that more responsive fathers tended to educate their children more frequently on purchase decision-making and on money management as well as more frequently engage in discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping with their children. However, the impact of parental style dimensions, either direct or indirect, on adolescent outcome variables was nearly nonexistent. There was only one instance where the mediation model estimation found a significant indirect effect of fathers' responsiveness on adolescent consumer competence via discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping. The overall effect of fathers' demandingness was limited to two parental practice variables. More demanding fathers tended to engage in more frequent education of their children on purchase decision-making and on money management, but none of these parental socialization practices was subsequently linked to adolescents' consumer socialization outcomes. Fathers' demandingness also showed no direct influence on either adolescents' prudent shopping behavior or consumer competence. Therefore, a notable feature regarding the results of fathers' mediation model estimation relates to the lack of association, direct or indirect, between fathers' parental style and adolescent consumer socialization outcomes. Results suggest that the influence of fathers' parental style is unlikely to extend beyond motivating their parental socialization practices. Considering that mothers' education of their children has positive effects on their children's development of consumer skills and knowledge, one may suspect that the approach fathers (at least those in this study) use may possess some flaws not found in mothers'. An insightful explanation of the above finding should come from a better understanding of the differences in the style and content of the consumer socialization practices conducted by mothers and fathers.

The investigation concerning H5 which suspected greater positive impact of mothers' (vs. fathers') parental style and practices on adolescent consumer socialization outcomes produced some confirming evidence. The significant mother-father differences found in the analysis are worth a close look. In addition to showing that mothers' demandingness negatively influenced adolescents' consumer competence whereas fathers' demandingness showed no significant effect, these differences provide a more definitive clue that mothers' consumer socialization practices may be linked to more positive adolescent socialization outcomes than fathers'. This observation is further reinforced by the R^2 values computed for the two socialization outcome variables in mothers' and fathers' mediation models. It was seen that mothers' parental style and parenting practices were substantially more influential than fathers' in shaping their children's consumer socialization outcomes. Similar findings have been reported in the past (e.g., Laible and Carlo, 2004, Repinski and Shonk, 2002). These studies have shown that fathers' parental dimensions (e.g., support, warmth, and control) are more tenuously associated with their children's socialization outcomes than mothers'. As for the reasons why the maternal style is more influential in predicting adolescent socialization outcomes, a higher degree of involvement mothers (vs. fathers) have in their children's care has been pointed out (Jewell et al., 2008, Renk et al., 2003). In fact, as reported earlier, mothers in this study showed significantly higher degrees of involvement in all three types of parental practice than fathers. Furthermore, they were also found to be more demanding and responsive in their parenting style than fathers. These findings are consistent with the observation presented by Laible and Carlo (2004) that adolescents typically share higher levels of intimacy and disclosure with mothers, and this open

discourse and intimacy between mothers and adolescents may be important in fostering positive socialization outcomes.

5.2. Moderation model findings

While the mediation model proved informative by providing insights into the mechanisms through which parental style influences adolescent consumer socialization outcomes. The moderation model, by and large, failed to get meaningful support from the data. Particularly notable were the results for mothers that neither demandingness nor responsiveness significantly moderated any of the six pathways linking three parental consumer socialization practice variables to two adolescent consumer outcome variables. These rather clear-cut results coupled with those from mothers' mediation model testing suggest that mothers' parental style, instead of functioning as a contextual variable moderating the effects of parental practices on consumer socialization outcomes, impacts their children' consumer socialization outcomes both directly and indirectly through their consumer socialization practices.

Some marginally significant support was found for the moderating effect of fathers' parental style on the relationship between parental socialization practices and adolescent consumer outcomes. A closer look at the significantly moderated pathways revealed some hint of the potentially harmful nature of a highly demanding parental style in fostering positive adolescent consumer socialization outcomes. It should be recalled that a highly demanding parental style of fathers negatively influenced the effectiveness of consumer education on money management on adolescents' prudent shopping behavior and the effectiveness of discussions of consumption issues and co-shopping on adolescents' consumer competence. An earlier finding from mothers' mediation model testing of a significant negative relationship between mothers' demandingness and adolescents' consumer competence similarly alluded to the potentially detrimental effect of a highly demanding parental style on the development of adolescents' consumer competence. In sum, these findings from fathers' results notwithstanding, the overall paucity and strength of evidence found in this study discourages giving credence to the moderation hypothesis.

The fact that the mediation model garnered greater support in this study prompts speculation regarding the potential reasons. Parental style is defined as "a set of attitudes that are communicated to the child" (Darling & Steinberg, 1993), and as such, it was posited as the antecedent variable affecting parental practice – a behavioral construct – in the mediation model, whereas the moderation perspective emphasized the impact of the emotional climate created by this constellation of attitudes on the effectiveness of parental practices. The constellation of attitudes that constitute a parental style encompasses parental attitudes toward general child-rearing orientations and behaviors (e.g., strict parental control and supervision, nurturance of individuality, parental involvement in the child's affairs) instrumental to achieving socialization goals (e.g., social competence, critical thinking, independence). These parental attitudes that make up a parental style are then likely articulated through domain-specific parental behaviors (parental practices), and this appears to be the case for the mediation model test results. In fact, this link between parental style and parental practices was also intimated by Darling and Steinberg (1993): "Thus, global parenting style is expressed partly through parenting practices, because these are some of the behaviors from which children infer the emotional attitudes of their parents" (p. 493).

The findings of this study regarding the moderating role of parental style need to be interpreted in light of the analytical framework used. Most of the past research investigating the moderating effect of parental style examined the stability of the link between parental practice and child outcome across Baumrind's four parental style groups of parents (authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and neglecting) – typically mothers. In contrast, the analytic approach used in this study involved one parental style dimension at a time and examined the stability of the parental practice and child outcome link between the high and low groups with respect to the parental style dimension under consideration. Another aspect of this study that differs from the majority of past studies investigating the moderating effect of parental style is the relatively high age of the children sample employed in this study. It is conceivable that the meaning and effects of parenting practices change with the child's age. Finally, this study differs from these past studies with respect to the socialization domain that was examined. Parental practices used in consumer socialization may differ from those used in academic socialization or other socialization contexts that were previously examined with respect to the extent of their goal directedness and style, and their effects may vary across different parenting domains.

6. Conclusion

An important theoretical advance in the field of child socialization comes from Darling and Steinberg's (1993) conceptual distinction between parental style and parental practice. This theoretical distinction calls for sustained empirical research aiming at ascertaining how each affects the socialization outcomes of children. To this end, this study proposed and tested two alternative theoretical frameworks that incorporate parental style, parental practice, and adolescent socialization outcome as the key constituent constructs of the socialization process in the consumer socialization context. Even in the broad field of child socialization, studies examining the nature of interactions among these three components of child socialization have been rare. This study makes a contribution to the existing body of child/adolescent socialization literature by bringing some clarification on their relationships.

Another notable feature of this study is the examination made of mother–father differences in parental style and consumer socialization practices as well as in the pattern of relationships among the three components of consumer socialization. Consumer socialization studies have typically focused on mothers' parental style and its links with children's consumer socialization outcomes. Findings of this study suggest that fathers' parental style and parental practices may not influence the shaping of adolescents' consumer socialization outcomes as much as mothers'. Given how little knowledge there is, this topic of gender differences in parental style, socialization practices, and parenting impact on children's consumer socialization outcomes warrant much future research effort.

This study also has limitations. Because of the sample size limitation, the moderating-effect testing was done in this study for one parental style dimension at a time. An alternative approach, provided large samples of mothers and fathers, could involve both parental dimensions simultaneously. The tentative nature of the findings obtained in this study regarding the moderating role of parental style should be an inducement for follow-up research. Another limitation concerns this study's reliance on parents' perspectives only in depicting adolescent

consumer socialization. Parents' assessments of their own socialization practices and adolescents' consumer outcomes may contain a social desirability bias (stemming from their desire to present an image of 'good parenting') and a response coherence bias (stemming from their desire to provide consistent responses). Past studies, however, have shown that the level of coincidence between reports made by parents and adolescents is low or, at best, moderate (Foxman et al., 1989, Kim and Lee, 1997). Some researchers have gone as far as to describe their results as showing independent perceptions of the reality (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986). Estimating the models using adolescents' responses (on their parents' parental styles and practices as well as their own consumer socialization outcomes) and comparing the results with those based on parents' responses would shed lights into the different (or similar) perceptual realms of parents and children. This remains a potentially interesting area for future investigation.

Acknowledgement

This research was supported by a grant to the first author from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada.

Appendix A. Measurement items for parental style dimensions – demandingness and responsiveness

Demandingness items

1. I would describe myself as a strict mother (father)
2. I really expect my child to follow family rules
3. I make most of decisions about what my child is allowed to do
4. It really does not matter to me whether or not my child does the chores I ask him/her to do*
5. I let my child do pretty much what s/he wants without questioning his/her decisions*
6. I sometimes tell my child that my decisions should not be questioned
7. I want to know exactly where my child goes at night
8. I want to know what my child does with his/her free time
9. I want to know what my child spends his/her money for

Responsiveness items

1. I expect my child to tell me when s/he thinks a rule is unfair
2. I encourage my child to look both sides of an issue
3. I encourage my child to talk with me about things
4. I do not believe that I should have my own way all the time any more than I believe my child should have his/hers
5. I expect my child to do what I say without having to tell him/her why*
6. I believe my child has a right to his/her own point of view
7. I take an interest in my child's activities
8. I usually tell my child reasons for rules
9. I praise my child if s/he does things well
10. I and my child do fun things together
11. I spend time just talking to my child
12. My child can count on me to help him/her out, if s/he has some kind of problem
13. When I want my child to do something, I explain why

* Reverse coded.

References

- Amato, P. R., & Fowler, F. (2002). Parenting practices, child adjustment, and family diversity. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 64, 703–716.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1991). Multitrait-multimethod matrices in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17, 426–439.
- Banerjee, S. B., Iyer, E. S., & Kashyap, R. K. (2003). Corporate environmentalism: Antecedents and influence of industry type. *Journal of Marketing*, 67, 106–122.
- Bao, Y., Fern, E. F., & Sheng, S. (2007). Parental style and adolescent influence in family consumption decisions: An integrative approach. *Journal of Business Research*, 60, 672–680.
- Barber, B. K. (1996). Parental psychological control: Revisiting a neglected construct. *Child Development*, 67, 3296–3319.
- Barber, B. K., & Olsen, J. A. (1997). Socialization in context: Connection, regulation, and autonomy in the family, school, and neighborhood, and with peers. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 12, 287–315.
- Barber, B. K., Stolz, H. E., & Olsen, J. A. (2005). Parental support, psychological control, and behavioral control: Assessing relevance across time, culture, and method. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 70, 1–137.
- Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and substance use. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 11, 56–95.
- Bean, R. A., Bush, K. R., McKenry, P. C., & Wilson, S. M. (2003). The impact of parental support, behavioral control, and psychological control on the academic achievement and self-esteem of African American and European American Adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 18, 523–541.
- Brenner, V., & Fox, R. (1999). An empirically derived classification of parenting practices. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 18, 523–541.
- Calantone, R. J., Schmidt, J. B., & Song, X. M. (1996). Controllable factors of new product success: A cross-national comparison. *Marketing Science*, 15, 341–358.
- Carlo, G., McGinley, M., Hayes, R., Batenhorst, C., & Wilkinson, J. (2007). Parenting styles or practices? Parenting, sympathy, and prosocial behaviors among adolescents. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 168, 147–176.
- Carlson, L., & Grossbart, S. (1988). Parental style and consumer socialization of children. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15(June), 77–94.
- Carlson, L., Grossbart, S., & Stuenkel, K. J. (1992). The role of parental socialization types on different family communication patterns regarding consumption. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 1(1), 31–52.

- Carlson, L., & Tanner, J. F. (2006). Understanding parental beliefs and attitudes about children's sexual behavior: Insights from parental style. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 40, 144–162.
- Chao, R. K. (2000). The parenting of immigrant Chinese and European American mothers: Relations between parenting styles, socialization goals, and parenting practices. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 21, 233–248.
- Conger, K. J., Conger, R. D., & Scaramella, L. V. (1997). Parents, siblings, psychological control, and adolescent adjustment. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 12, 113–138.
- Conrade, G., & Ho, R. (2001). Differential parenting styles for fathers and mothers: Differential treatment for sons and daughters. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 53, 29–35.
- Crosby, L. A., & Grossbart, S. L. (1984). Parental style tendencies and concern about children's advertising. In J. H. Leigh & C. R. Martin, Jr. (Eds.), *Current issues in research in advertising* (pp. 43–63). Ann Arbor, MI: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration.
- Darling, N. (1999). Parenting style and its correlates (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 400517).
- Darling, N., & Toyokawa, T. (1997). Construction and validation of the parenting style inventory II (PSI-II). Unpublished manuscript, The Pennsylvania State University.
- Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113, 487–496.
- Eberly, M. B., & Montemayer, R. (1999). Adolescent affection and helpfulness towards parents: A 2-year follow-up. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 19, 226–248.
- Eigenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Spinrad, T. L. (2006). Prosocial development. In W. Damon & R.M. Lerner (Series Eds.) & N. Eisenberg (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3. Social emotional, and personality development* (6th ed., pp. 646–718). New York: Wiley.
- Fletcher, A. C., Walls, J. K., Cook, E. C., Madison, K. J., & Bridges, T. H. (2008). Parenting style as a moderator of associations between maternal disciplinary strategies and child well-being. *Journal of Family Issues*, 29, 1724–1744.
- Flouri, E. (2003). Exploring the relationship between mothers' and fathers' parenting practices and children's materialist values. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 25, 743–752.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18, 39–50.
- Foxman, E. R., Tansuhaj, P. S., & Ekstrom, K. M. (1989). Family members' perceptions of adolescents' influence in family decision making. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15, 482–491.
- Gecas, V., & Schwalbe, M. (1986). Parental behavior and adolescent self-esteem. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 48, 37–46.

- Grossbart, S., Carlson, L., & Walsh, A. (1991). Consumer socialization and frequency of shopping with children. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 21, 53–58.
- Hart, C. H., Newell, L. D., & Olsen, S. F. (2003). Parenting skills and social-communicative competence in childhood. In J. O. Greene & B. R. Burlison (Eds.), *Handbook of communication and social interaction skills* (pp. 753–797). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Holmbeck, G. N., Paikoff, R. L., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (1995). Parenting adolescents. In M. H. Bornstein (Ed.), *Handbook of parenting* (Vol. 1, pp. 91–118). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Jewell, J. D., Krohn, E. J., Scott, V. G., Carton, M., & Meinz, E. (2008). The differential impact of mothers' and fathers' discipline on preschool children's home and classroom behavior. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 10, 173–188.
- John, D. R. (1999). Consumer socialization of children: A retroactive look at twenty-five years of research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 26, 183–213.
- Jöreskog, K., & Sörbom, D. (1993). LISREL 8: Structural equation modeling with the SIMPLIS command language. Mooresville, IL: Scientific Software International.
- Kim, C., & Lee, H. (1997). Development of family triadic measures for children's purchase influence. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 34, 307–321.
- Kim, C., Lee, H., & Tomiuk, M. (2009). Adolescents' perceptions of family communication patterns and some aspects of their consumer socialization. *Psychology & Marketing*, 26, 888–907.
- Klein, K., & Forehand, R. (2000). Family processes as resources for African American children exposed to a constellation of sociodemographic risk factors. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 1, 53–65.
- Laible, D. H., & Carlo, G. (2004). The differential relations of maternal and paternal support and control to adolescent social competence, self-worth, and sympathy. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 19, 759–782.
- Laible, D. H., Carlo, G., & Roesch, S. C. (2004). Pathways to self-esteem: The role of parent and peer attachment, empathy, and social behaviors. *Journal of Adolescence*, 27, 703–716.
- Lamborn, S. D., Mounts, N. S., Steinberg, L., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Patterns of competence and adjustment among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child Development*, 62, 1049–1065.
- Leung, K. L., Lau, S., & Lam, W. (1998). Parenting styles and academic achievement: A cross-cultural study. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 44, 157–167.
- Lewis, C., & Lamb, M. E. (2003). Fathers' influences on children's development: The evidence from two-parent families. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 18, 211–228.
- Maccoby, E., & Martin, J. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. In P. H. Mussen & E. M. Hetherington (Eds.), *Handbook of child*

- psychology: Socialization, personality, and social development (Vol. 4, pp. 1–101). New York: Wiley.
- McKinney, C., & Renk, K. (2008). Differential parenting between mothers and fathers. *Journal of Family Issues*, 29, 806–827.
- Melby, J. N., & Conger, R. D. (1996). Parental behaviors and adolescent academic performance: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Research in Adolescence*, 6, 113–137.
- Moore, R. L., & Stevens, L. F. (1975). Some communication and demographic determinants of adolescent consumer learning. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 2, 80–92.
- Moschis, G. P. (1976). Acquisition of the consumer role by adolescents. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Graduate School of Business, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706.
- Moschis, G. P., & Churchill, G. A. (1978). Consumer socialization: A theoretical and empirical analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 15, 599–609.
- Moschis, G. P., & Moore, R. L. (1980). Purchasing behavior of adolescent consumers. In R. P. Bagozzi, K. L. Bernhardt, P. S. Busch, D. W. Cravens, J. H. Hair, Jr., & C. A. Scott (Eds.), 1980 AMA educators' conference proceedings (pp. 89–92). Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Moschis, G. P., Moore, R. L., & Smith, R. B. (1984). The impact of family communication on adolescent consumer socialization. In T. Kinnear (Ed.), *Advances in consumer research*, 11 (pp. 314–319). Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.
- Mounts, N. S. (2002). Parental management of adolescent peer relationships in context: The role of parenting style. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 16, 58–69.
- Palan, K. M. (1998). Relationships between family communication and consumer activities of adolescents: An exploratory study. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(4), 338–349.
- Paulson, S. E. (1994). Relations of parenting style and parenting involvement with ninth-grade students' achievement. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 14, 250–267.
- Paulson, S. E., Marchant, G. J., & Rothilsberg, B. A. (1998). Early adolescents' perceptions of patterns of parenting, teaching, and school atmosphere: Implications for achievement. *Journal of Adolescence*, 18, 5–26.
- Pettit, G. S., Harris, A., Bates, J. E., & Dodge, K. A. (1991). Family interaction, social cognition, and children's subsequent relations with peers in kindergarten. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 8, 383–402.
- Pettit, G. S., Laird, R. D., Dodge, K. A., Bates, J. E., & Criss, M. M. (2001). Antecedents and behavior-problem outcomes of parental monitoring and psychological control in early adolescence. *Child Development*, 72, 583–598.
- Pettock-Peckam, J. A., & Morgan-Lopez, A. A. (2006). College drinking behaviors: Mediational links between parenting styles, impulse control, and alcohol-related outcomes. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 20, 117–125.

- Phares, V. (1999). "Poppa" psychology. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Pong, S. L., Johnston, J., & Chen, V. (2010). Authoritarian parenting and Asian adolescent school performance: Insights from the US and Taiwan. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 34, 62–72.
- Rai, A. A., Stanton, B., Wu, Y., Li, X., Galbraith, J., Cottrell, L., et al (2003). Relative influences of perceived parental monitoring and perceived peer involvement on adolescent risk behaviors: An analysis of six cross-sectional data sets. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 33, 108–118.
- Renk, K., Roberts, R., Roddenberry, A., Luick, M., Hillhouse, S., & Meehan, C. (2003). Mothers, fathers, gender role, and time parents spend with their children. *Sex Roles*, 48, 305–315.
- Repinski, D. J., & Shonk, S. M. (2002). Mothers' and fathers' behavior, adolescents' self-representations, and adolescents' adjustment: A meditational model. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 22, 357–383.
- Rose, G. M. (1999). Consumer socialization, parental style, and developmental timetables in the United States and Japan. *Journal of Marketing*, 63(July), 105–119.
- Rose, G. M., Boush, D., & Shoham, A. (2002). Family communication and children's purchasing influence: A cross-national examination. *Journal of Business Research*, 55, 867–873.
- Russel, A., Aloa, V., Feder, T., Glover, A., Miller, H., & Palmer, G. (1998). Sex-based differences in parenting styles in a sample with preschool children. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 50, 89–99.
- Sim, T. N. (2003). The father-adolescent relationship in the context of mother-adolescent relationship: Exploring moderating linkages in a late-adolescent sample in Singapore. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 18, 383–404.
- Small, S. A., & Kerns, D. (1993). Unwanted sexual activity among peers during early and middle adolescence: Incidence and risk factors. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 55, 941–952.
- Steinberg, L. (1990). Interdependency in the family: Autonomy, conflict, and harmony. In S. Feldman & G. Elliot (Eds.), *At the threshold: The developing adolescent* (pp. 255–276). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S., Dornbusch, S., & Darling, N. (1992). Impact of parenting practices on adolescent commitment: Authoritative parenting, school involvement, and encouragement to succeed. *Child Development*, 63, 1266–1281.
- Steinberg, L., Mounts, N. S., Lamborn, S. D., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1991). Authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment across various ecological niches. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 1, 19–36.
- Viswanathan, V., Childers, T. L., & Moore, E. S. (2000). The measurement of intergenerational communication and influence on consumption: Development, validation, and cross-

cultural comparison of the IGEN scale. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28, 406–424.