

Psicothema (2024) 36(3) 277-286

## **Psicothema**

https://www.psicothema.com/es • ISSN 0214-9915 • eISSN 1886-144X



Colegio Oficial de Psicología del Principado de Asturias

Article

# Giftedness and Family Well-being: The Role of Emotional Intelligence, Perceived Social Support and Stress

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#### ARTICLE INFO

Received: September 27, 2023 Accepted: December 18, 2023

Keywords:
Giftedness
Family well-being
Emotional intelligence
Perceived stress
Perceived social support

#### **ABSTRACT**

**Background:** Families of gifted students may have poorer well-being due to difficulties in parenting. Emotional intelligence could help parents manage negative emotions and improve their self-esteem, and perceived social support and stress could mediate this relationship. The objective of this study was to analyze these variables by testing a mediation model in parents of gifted children and parents in general. **Method:** Questionnaires assessing emotional intelligence, stress, perceived social support, affect and self-esteem were administered to 245 parents (135 had gifted children). Descriptive analyses were performed, mean differences were calculated, and structural equation models (SEMs) were developed and tested. **Results:** Compared with parents in general, the parents of the gifted students reported more negative experiences (Cohen's d = 0.75; p < .01) and less social support from their friends (Cohen's d = 1.54; p < .01). Social support and stress partially mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and well-being. For parents of gifted students, there was partial mediation of social support through positive affect. **Conclusions:** Providing families with tools to promote their emotional intelligence and conducting awareness campaigns focused on understanding and supporting gifted groups will contribute to parents' well-being.

## Altas Capacidades y Bienestar Familiar: el Rol de la Inteligencia Emocional, el Apoyo Social Percibido y el Estrés

#### RESUMEN

Palabras clave:
Altas capacidades
Bienestar familiar
Inteligencia emocional
Estrés percibido
Apoyo social percibido

Antecedentes: Las familias de estudiantes con altas capacidades pueden tener menor bienestar dadas las dificultades en la crianza. La inteligencia emocional podría ayudarles a manejar las emociones negativas y mejorar su autoestima. Apoyo social percibido y estrés podrían mediar esta relación. El objetivo de este trabajo fue analizar dichas variables, testando un modelo de mediación en progenitores con descendientes con alta capacidad y progenitores en general. Método: Se administraron cuestionarios de inteligencia emocional, estrés, apoyo social percibido, afectos y autoestima a 245 progenitores (135 tenían descendientes con altas capacidades). Se realizaron análisis descriptivos, de diferencias de medias y modelos de ecuaciones estructurales (SEM). Resultados: Los progenitores de estudiantes de altas capacidades señalaron más experiencias negativas (d de Cohen = 0.75; p < .01) y percibieron menor apoyo social de sus amistades (d de Cohen = 1.54; p < .01). Apoyo social y estrés mediaron parcialmente la relación entre inteligencia emocional y bienestar. En progenitores de estudiantes con altas capacidades hubo mediación parcial del apoyo social con afecto positivo. Conclusiones: Dotar a las familias de herramientas para fomentar su inteligencia emocional y realizar campañas de sensibilización centradas en la comprensión y apoyo al colectivo de altas capacidades contribuirá a su bienestar.

The well-being of gifted students is a current cause for concern (Cross, 2020). Recent research shows that these students frequently present personal, academic and social problems (Klimecká, 2023). In general, compared with their peers, they have lower self-esteem (Algaba-Mesa & Fernández-Marcos, 2021) and seem less happy (Zeidner, 2021). In addition, they suffer to a greater extent from school bullying and cyberbullying (Laffan et al., 2022), which increases their chances of being victims and of suffering anxiety, depression, stress, anger or frustration (González-Cabrera et al., 2023; Martínez-Monteagudo et al., 2023). Therefore, it is necessary to investigate how the peculiarities of their social situations affect their personal development (Volkova et al., 2022) and how psychosocial support can reinforce the development of their talent (Cross & Cross, 2017).

One aspect that educational agents usually consider when addressing the success of students, both for their emotional regulation (Lee & Kim, 2022) and for their development and well-being (Velotti, 2008), is the effectiveness and adaptation of the family context (Olszewski-Kubilius, 2021; Reyes-Rojas et al., 2019). For the gifted population specifically, parental attitudes have been shown to strongly impact the well-being of these students (Yildiz & Altay, 2021). In addition, parental support during childhood and adolescence is an important precursor to achievement and emotional stability in gifted adults (Freeman, 2015; Rinn & Bishop, 2015).

The health and well-being of parents are fundamental for positive interactions between them and their children (Guzmán et al., 2019; Risi et al., 2021) and for the well-being of the children themselves. In turn, children's well-being deteriorates when families have difficulties (Newland, 2015; Romero-González et al., 2021). As reported in the scientific literature, parents of gifted children express doubts about how to handle difficult behavior, about schooling and learning, and about whether the school system is meeting the needs of their sons and daughters (Dellatorre et al., 2022; Demirel et al., 2023; Guthrie, 2019; Holland & Pell, 2018; Morawska & Sanders, 2009). Despite the evidence of their risk exposure and vulnerability (Llinares-Insa et al., 2020), research on these families is limited (Olszewski-Kubilius, 2021; Papadopoulos, 2021) and does not usually focus on well-being.

In terms of well-being, psychological well-being is based on external criteria, and subjective well-being is personal to each individual (Diener, 1984). In relation to psychological well-being, self-esteem has been identified as a highly relevant personal variable (Rosenberg et al., 1995), and personal value is based on pleasant social experiences (Cheung et al., 2015). Families and peers impose lifestyles, beliefs, etc., which serve as the basis for individual development (Massenzana, 2017). Self-esteem is related to the treatment received by others and successes achieved (Coopersmith, 1967) and plays an important role in parent-child interactions and in improving the subjective well-being of adolescents (Pérez-Fuentes et al., 2019). Moreover, the emotional balance between positive affect and negative affect (that is, the positive and negative experiences and feelings that a person experiences at a certain moment) is decisive for subjective well-being (Arthaud-Day et al., 2005) and the development of neurocognitive skills (Aritio-Solana et al., 2022). Among the variables that research has linked to well-being, there are three that are fundamental: (1) emotional intelligence, (2) perceived social support, and (3) stress.

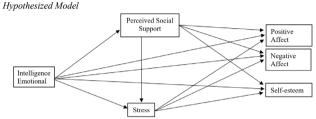
Emotional intelligence is related to good psychological adjustment (Cobos-Sánchez et al., 2017) and subjective wellbeing (Sánchez-Álvarez et al., 2016). Considering the model of emotional intelligence of Mayer and Salovey (1997), emotional clarity and emotional repair directly influence subjective wellbeing (Chico-Librán et al., 2011). Furthermore, emotional attention is negatively associated with well-being (Martínez-Marín et al., 2022), predicts pessimism (Tejada-Gallardo et al., 2022) and does not support the validity of criteria for mental health or adaptive coping (Velasco et al., 2006). Likewise, attentional factors do not seem to be good predictors of perceived social support (Hidalgo-Fuentes et al., 2021).

Perceived social support is a subjective measure that may not coincide with actual support, but its contribution to psychosocial adjustment seems influential (Asberg et al., 2008; Rodríguez-Fernández et al., 2021) and is considered key in the relationship between stress and well-being (Khusaifan & El Keshky, 2021). Social support refers to both the availability and the adequacy of the support links in different contexts and can be considered from two different models (Cohen & Wills, 1985). The directeffect model proposes that social support has a beneficial effect on well-being and health, regardless of an individual's situation. It includes positive affect, a sense of predictability, stability and recognition of self-worth. According to the buffering model, social support is related to well-being in stressed people, and interventions can be implemented by preventing stress. In this sense, fathers and mothers of children with specific needs who perceive more social support have better parental coping (Tak & McCubbin, 2002) and lower levels of stress (Pozo et al., 2006), buffering the effect of stressors on their well-being and mental health (Barrón & Sánchez, 2001).

In relation to stress, this occurs when the demands exceed the coping resources of an individual (Lazarus & Folkman, 1986), and emotional intelligence is an important factor in the assessment of these situations as more or less threatening (Mikolajczak et al., 2006) and in stress control (Gutiérrez-Cobo et al., 2016). The characteristic effects of stress include negative affect (Baum et al., 1981) and the deterioration of psychological well-being (Obbarius et al., 2021); they are also linked to feelings of helplessness and the possible loss of self-esteem when the inability to cope adequately is attributed to an individual's own ability or personality traits and not to external causes (Garber & Seligman, 1980). Parental stress has been shown to be related to negative outcomes in parents and children, negatively influencing attachment (Moreira et al., 2015). In fact, some studies indicate that parenting itself can generate stress (Deaton & Stone, 2014), especially when educational needs are detected (González et al., 2019). In particular, the parents of gifted students provide additional input to educate their children (Papadopoulos, 2021), adding challenges in their training process (Jolly et al., 2013) that can generate stress. Rimlinger (2016) found higher levels of anxiety and stress among parents of gifted students than among parents in a normative sample. In recent studies (Aperribai & Garemendi, 2020; Free, 2017; McDowall, 2019), parents of gifted students have been shown to be frustrated with the educational system and indicated a lack of understanding on the part of families and professionals, stigmatization, social isolation and lack of support.

According to Rey et al. (2019), exploring possible mediators of the association between emotional intelligence and indicators of well-being in different groups is necessary. Based on the theoretical review carried out, the focus of this work was family well-being, and the aim was to determine whether perceived social support and stress are mediators of the relationship between emotional intelligence and well-being indicators (positive affect, negative affect and self-esteem) of parents (Figure 1). We also aimed to establish differences in the levels and relationships of these variables depending on whether the students had been identified as being gifted.

Figure 1



Perceived social support is expected to be negatively related to stress (Cohen & Wills, 1985) and negative affect. Likewise, it is expected that this perceived support is positively correlated with emotional intelligence, in its dimensions of clarity and repair (Hidalgo-Fuentes et al., 2021), and with positive affect and selfesteem because it is positively related to well-being (Pozo et al., 2006). Stress is expected to be inversely related to emotional intelligence (Gutiérrez-Cobo et al., 2016; Mikolajczak et al., 2006) and positive affect and self-esteem (Baum et al., 1981; Garber & Seligman, 1980) and directly associated with negative affect (Moreira et al., 2015). In addition, parents of gifted students face additional educational challenges (Renati et al., 2022), which seems to involve greater family stress (Beckman, 1991). Consequently, these parents are expected to have more stress, less perceived social support, greater negative affect and lower self-esteem than other parents, despite having the same emotional intelligence and positive affect.

### Method

## **Participants**

The study sample was composed of 245 parents (fathers and mothers) divided into two distinct groups. Subsample 1 included 135 parents of gifted students (77% mothers) aged 31-65 years (M=43.65; SD=4.12); most were married or cohabiting (94.8%) and had completed university studies (45.1%). Subsample 2 comprised 110 parents [81.8% mothers; aged 34-57 years (M=44.57; SD=4.48) of students who did not belong to the gifted group and/or who had never been evaluated for giftedness; 90.9% cohabitated or were married, and 44.5% had a university degree.

#### Instruments

To analyze emotional well-being, the Spanish adaptation of the Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE) by

Diener et al. (2010) and Cassaretto and Martínez (2017) was used. The SPANE comprises twelve items rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never, 5 = always). There are six items on positive (e.g., "happy") and negative (e.g., "sad") experiences. Cronbach's alpha for positive experiences was .92 in subsample 1 and .94 in subsample 2. Cronbach's alpha for negative experiences was .85 in subsample 1 and .83 in subsample 2.

Emotional intelligence was assessed with the Spanish adaptation of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale-24 (TMMS-24) by Fernández-Berrocal et al. (2004). It consists of 24 items organized into three factors: attention, clarity and repair. In this study, two of the factors were used as predictors of subjective well-being: clarity (e.g., "I usually know my feelings about people") and repair (e.g., "When I am angry, I try to change my mood"). Cronbach's alpha for clarity was .86 in subsample 1 and .87 in subsample 2. Cronbach's alpha for repair was .85 in subsample 1 and .86 in subsample 2. Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).

Stress was evaluated with the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) by Cohen et al. (1983), in its Spanish version by Remor (2006). It consists of 14 items (e.g., "In the last month, how often have you felt nervous or stressed?"), and responses are provided with a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never, 5 = very often). Reliability was high in subsample 1 ( $\alpha = .85$ ) and in subsample 2 ( $\alpha = .82$ ).

The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS) by Zimet et al. (1988) and validated in Spanish by Landeta and Calvete (2002) was used to evaluate perceived social support. This scale assesses the subjective perception of social support respondents receive from family (e.g., "My family truly tries to help me"), from friends (e.g., "I can count on my friends when things go wrong") and from other significant people (e.g., "There is someone who truly is a source of well-being for me"). For perceived social support from the family, Cronbach's alpha was .96 in subsample 1 and .95 in subsample 2; for friends, Cronbach's alpha was .96 in subsample 1 and .95 in subsample 2; and for other significant people, Cronbach's alpha was .92 in subsample 1 and .90 in subsample 2. The 12 items are scored with a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

To assess self-esteem, the Spanish version of the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSE, Rosenberg, 1965) by Martín-Albo et al. (2007) was used. It consists of 10 items (e.g., "In general, I am satisfied with myself") scored with a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for subsample 1 was .86, and that for subsample 2 was .85.

#### **Procedure**

Convenience sampling was used. The inclusion criterion for being part of subsample 1 was a finding of high intellectual capacity by a legally recognized specialist. Participants were assessed through a specific gifted association. For subsample 2, which functioned as a comparative group, the inclusion criterion was not having a finding of high intellectual capacity. Each parent completed the questionnaires separately. This study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Catholic University of Valencia (UCV/2015-2016/05). Participation was voluntary; there was no retribution. All participants signed an informed consent form.

#### **Data Analysis**

The SPSS statistical package and AMOS were used, both version 28. First, descriptive analyses were carried out to analyze the emotional intelligence, perceived social support, level of perceived stress, positive affect, negative affect and self-esteem of the parents. Second, to analyze the differences between groups, t tests for independent samples were performed, and Cohen's d was calculated for the effect size ( $\geq 0.2$  small;  $\geq 0.5$  medium;  $\geq 0.8$  large). In addition, assumptions of normality and linearity were verified by the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, and bivariate correlations were also used. The significance level was set at .05.

In this study, a mediation model that included all the study variables was developed and tested. Structural equation model (SEM) methodology was used to analyze all the relational hypotheses and validate the proposed theoretical model. The estimation method used was maximum likelihood (MLE). Direct and indirect effects were also analyzed. Indirect effects explain the relationship between independent and dependent variables and were tested using the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval method (MacKinnon et al., 2002). Four mediation analyses were carried out with the total sample, the respecified model with the total sample, the multigroup analysis for both groups of parents, and the respecified model for parents of non-assessed students with high intellectual abilities. Absolute and relative indices were evaluated to demonstrate the goodness of fit: the chi-square distribution, the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI), the normed fit index (NFI) and the goodness-of-fit index (GFI). Nonsignificant  $\chi^2$  values indicated a good fit of the model. The CFI, NFI and GFI were considered acceptable with values ≥ .90, and the RMSEA was considered acceptable with a value  $\leq 0.08$ . There were no missing data.

#### Results

As shown in Table 1, the parents of students who were gifted were similar in terms of emotional intelligence, stress, self-esteem, and positive experiences. However, there were significant

differences in perceived social support from friends and in negative experiences; parents of gifted students perceived less social support from friends and more negative experiences. As shown in Table 1, the effect on the social support of friends was medium-to-large in relation to negative affect.

Next, correlation analyses of the variables under study were conducted (Table 2). Perceived social support (family, friends and significant others) was negatively related to parental stress. The results also showed that (a) perceived social support was positively related to emotional intelligence, positive affect and self-esteem and negatively related to negative affect; (b) parental stress was negatively related to emotional intelligence, positive affect and self-esteem and positively related to negative affect; and (c) perceived social support was positively related to emotional attention. Emotional attention was only positively correlated with stress and negative experiences and negatively correlated with self-esteem; therefore, this factor was eliminated from subsequent analyses.

Table 1
Descriptive Data

	Total sample (n = 245)	Parents of Non-Gifted Students (n = 110)	A Parents of -Gifted Students (n = 135)	t-test	
	M (SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	t; p	Cohen's
Attention	3.36 (0.73)	3.34 (0.75)	3.38 (0.71)		
Clarity	3.88 (0.68)	3.88 (0.66)	3.89 (0.66)		
Reparation	3.93 (0.69)	3.97 (0.66)	3.90 (0.71)		
PSP - Family	5.92 (1.29)	5.94 (1.15)	5.90 (1.40)		
PSP - Friends	5.42 (1.58)	5.80 (1.25)	5.11 (1.74)	3.58; .001	1.54
PSP - Others	6.07 (1.27)	6.08 (1.19)	6.05 (1.34)		
Stress	2.49 (0.56)	2.49 (0.51)	2.49 (0.61)		
Self-esteem	4.16 (0.67)	4.11 (0.63)	4.20 (0.70)		
Positive Affect	4.03 (0.70)	4.04 (0.70)	4.02 (0.70)		
Negative Affect	2.25 (0.76)	2.12 (0.66)	2.36 (0.82)	-2.57; .005	0.75

Note. PSP = Perceived Social Support

 Table 2

 Bivariate Correlations Between the Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1									
!	.07	1								
	10	.38**	1							
	.05	.28**	.18**	1						
i	00	.23**	.23**	.48**	1					
	.02	.29**	.17**	.74**	.49**	1				
	.15*	32**	31**	28**	25**	30**	1			
;	20**	.40**	.46**	.27**	.32**	.26**	48**	1		
)	00	.39**	.47**	.30**	.32**	.37**	51**	.47**	1	
0	.18**	29**	35**	23**	20**	29**	.58**	43**	53**	1

Note: 1 = Attention; 2 = Clarity; 3 = Reparation; 4 = Family social support; 5 = Social support from friends; 6 = Social support from significant others; 7 = Stress; 8 = Self-esteem; 9 = Positive affect; 10 = Negative affect; \*\*p < .05; \*\*\*p < .01

To test the hypothesized model (Figure 1), with the complete sample of parents, we first constructed an SEM. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was significant for all variables ( $\leq$ .05); therefore, there was evidence of a nonnormal distribution. The results obtained (Table 3) showed good fit indices, with the exception of the RMSEA. The RMSEA was  $\geq$  0.10, which, following Sahoo (2019), indicated a reasonable fit. Kenny et al. (2015) state that for small samples in models with small degrees of freedom, the RMSEA often indicates a poor fit pattern. In this case, the RMSEA was higher than the cutoff point, even though the model was correctly specified. Thus, in this study, the RMSEA was not used to measure the fit indices of the model. Next, we found that not all the variables were significantly related (Figure 2). Specifically, the relationship between social support and negative experiences was not significant.

**Table 3** SEM Indices of Goodness of Fit (n = 245)

Model	$\chi^2/df(p)$	NFI	IFI	CFI	RMSEA
Total Sample	22.07/3 (.00)	.95	.96	.96	0.16
Respecified model	24.26/4 (.00)	.95	.96	.96	0.14
Multi-group	28.73/8 (.00)	.94	.96	.96	0.10
Respecified Model for Parents of Non-Gifted Students	20.73/6 (.00)	.90	.91	.91	0.15
Respecified Model for Parents of Gifted Students	11.96/5 (.03)	.96	.98	.98	0.10

We respecified the model by eliminating this relationship. The results showed a good fit index, and all the variables were significantly related (Figure 2). Then, we used multigroup SEM to analyze the differences in the respecified model for both groups.

The results showed that the model was a good fit (Table 3). However, in the group of parents with non-assessed children, the relationships between social support and positive experiences and between emotional intelligence and negative experiences were not significant (see Figure 3). Among the parents of gifted students, the relationship between social support and self-esteem was not significant (Figure 4). Next, we respecified the two models.

The results for parents with non-assessed children showed that perceived social support partially mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-esteem. Stress partially mediated the relationships between emotional intelligence and positive experiences and between emotional intelligence and self-esteem; the relationships between emotional intelligence and negative experiences were also fully mediated. Furthermore, perceived social support was significantly related to stress.

Regarding the direct effects, emotional intelligence was significantly associated with perceived social support (B = .52, SE = .17, p = .002) and stress (B = -.40, SE = .08, p = .001). Perceived social support was significantly related to self-esteem (B = .14, SE = .05, p = .006). Perceived social support was significantly associated with stress (B = -.1, SE = .04, p = .02). In addition, stress was significantly associated with positive affect (B = -.31, SE = .13, p = .01) and negative affect (B = .65, SE = .11, p = .001) and with self-esteem (B = -.39, SE = .11, p = .001). Regarding indirect effects, the bootstrapping results showed that the indirect effects of emotional intelligence on self-esteem due to perceived social support and stress were significant (coefficient = .07, 95% CI [.02, .18]; coefficient =

.15, 95% IC [.06, .29]). The indirect mediating effects of emotional intelligence on positive and negative well-being due to stress (coefficient = .12, 95% CI [.3,.25]; coefficient = -.26, 95% CI [.41, -.15]) were significant. The indirect effects of emotional intelligence on self-esteem and positive affect and negative affect mediated by stress and influenced by perceived social support were significant (coefficient = .02, 95% CI [.004, .05]; coefficient = .01, 95% CI [.00,.04]; coefficient = -.03, 95% CI [-.07, -.001]). Thus, perceived social support partially mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-esteem and between emotional intelligence and positive affect and completely mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and negative affect.

For the parents of gifted students, perceived social support partially mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and positive experiences. Stress partially mediated the relationships between emotional intelligence and positive and negative experiences and between emotional intelligence and self-esteem. Furthermore, perceived social support was significantly related to stress.

Figure 2
Non-Standardized Coefficients of the Hypothesized and Respecified Model and Significance

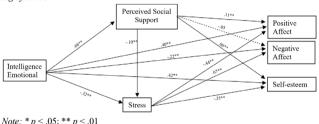


Figure 3
Model of Parents of Non-Gifted Students

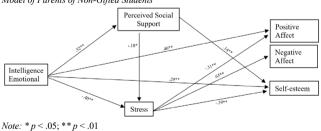
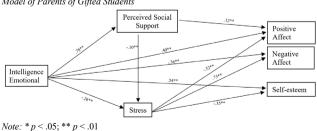


Figure 4
Model of Parents of Gifted Students



In relation to the direct effects, the results showed that emotional intelligence was significantly associated with perceived social

support (B = .78, SE = .17, p = .001) and stress (B = -.26, SE = .08, p = .003). Perceived social support was significantly associated with positive affect (B = .12, SE = .03, p = .001). Perceived social support was significantly associated with stress (B = -.1, SE = .04, p = .01). Furthermore, stress was significantly associated with positive affect (B = -.52, SE = .07, p = .001), negative affect (B = .75, SE = .09, p = .001), and self-esteem (B = -.35, SE = .08, p = .001). For the indirect effects, bootstrapping showed that the impact of emotional intelligence on positive affect attributable to perceived social support and stress was significant (coefficient = .09, 95% CI [.03, .18]; coefficient = .14, 95% CI [.06, .26]). The mediating effect of emotional intelligence on negative affect and self-esteem due to stress (coefficient = -.20, 95% CI [-.39, -.08]; coefficient = .09, 95% CI [.03, .19]) was significant.

The indirect effects of emotional intelligence on positive affect and negative affect and stress-mediated self-esteem that were influenced by perceived social support were significant (coefficient = .04, 95% CI [.007, .08]; coefficient = .06, 95% CI [-.12, -.02]; coefficient = .03, 95% IC [.01, .07]). Thus, perceived social support partially mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and positive affect, and stress, influenced by perceived social support, partially mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-esteem and between emotional intelligence and positive affect and negative affect.

#### Discussion

The relationship between well-being and parenthood is variable (Becker et al., 2019) and complex (Deaton & Stone, 2014) because the well-being of parents depends on different factors (Nelson et al., 2014), especially when considering vulnerable groups such as gifted students (Algaba-Mesa & Fernández-Marcos, 2021). Recent research results indicate that the experience of parents with gifted children differs from that of other parents (Papadopoulos, 2021; Renati et al., 2022). Therefore, the objective of our study was to investigate the mediating effect of parents' perceived social support and stress on the relationship between their emotional intelligence and well-being by comparing model for parents with identified and unidentified gifted children.

The data indicate that the parents of gifted students suffer significantly more negative experiences, a phenomenon that is related to lower subjective well-being (Arthaud-Day et al., 2005). Likewise, these fathers and mothers perceived less support from their friends, which may be derived from being misunderstood by other parents (Free, 2017; McDowall, 2019) and the presence of myths and stereotypes that abound among them (Aperribai & Garamendi, 2020). However, in line with what was found by Saliez et al. (2022) in their study on the differences in the burnout of parents with gifted sons and daughters and other parents, no differences were found in perceived stress between the two groups. Regarding self-esteem, the differences between the groups were also not significant, a result that is related to the fact that these parents tend to attribute negative experiences to external causes and not to their lack of parenting ability (Garber & Seligman, 1980).

Regarding the analyzed mediation model, the results confirmed the negative relationship between emotional intelligence and perceived stress. In line with previously reported results, people with high emotional intelligence seem to rate stressful situations as less threatening (Mikolajczak et al., 2006). Likewise, emotional intelligence positively predicted positive affect and self-esteem, and negative affect negatively predicted these two dimensions. Furthermore, perceived social support partially mediated the relationship between emotional intelligence and well-being, in turn influencing stress. Specifically, when analyzing the results for fathers and mothers of children who were not gifted, self-esteem played a partial mediating role. However, for families with gifted children, this partial mediation occurred with positive affect but not with self-esteem. Notably, the parents of gifted students in this study were members of family associations, as peer support is one of the most relevant aspects of emotional well-being and a means of reinforcing self-esteem (McLeish & Redshaw, 2017).

Furthermore, in both groups, stress partially mediated the relationships between emotional intelligence and emotional balance and between emotional intelligence and self-esteem. Thus, we can affirm that emotional clarity and reparative capacity are associated with adaptive ways of coping with stress and, ultimately, influence well-being (Chico-Librán et al., 2011). In addition, perceived stress was negatively related to perceived social support in both groups: the lower the perceived social support was, the greater the stress. These results are consistent with those obtained for parents of students with other educational needs, such parents with autistic children (e.g., Pozo et al., 2006).

However, this study is not without limitations; therefore, the generalizability of the results is limited. First, an incidental and unrepresentative sample was used. Regarding the parents with children with intellectual giftedness, all of them belonged to specific associations that provide support. Regarding the sample size, the minimum values were exceeded to validate the proposed theoretical model (Kline, 2011), but authors such as Hair et al. (2014) have reported that larger samples can generate models that are too sensitive. Second, the data collection could have been expanded. We did not ask about all relevant specific variables (Cohen & Willis, 1985), such as the type of perceived support (emotional, material, etc.) or the origin of the stress (family, educational, etc.). Information was not requested on the parents' previous history of mental health problems. Future research should expand the sample by including fathers and mothers who are not members of gifted associations, collecting data of other related variables (e.g., history of mental health problems) and performing a differential analysis of the sex or age of the parents. These aspects will make it possible to control more variables, study the relationships and increase the complexity of the analyses and models proposed.

In conclusion, having gifted children seems to be related to lower parental well-being, which influences the attachment of parents to children (Risi et al., 2021) and, ultimately, affects the well-being of gifted students. Therefore, it is necessary to better plan mean of support and implement comprehensive intervention programs that meet the needs of the entire family. Our results are in line with what has been reported in other studies (De Souza et al., 2023; Manasawala & Desai, 2019), i.e., interventions aimed at increasing the social support and emotional capacities of parents of gifted students could be beneficial and improve their quality of life. Thus, the design and implementation of

social awareness campaigns could be very beneficial because they reduce misunderstandings in the educational community and promote support. Likewise, the development of emotional intervention programs aimed at families could be an effective strategy for increasing emotional resources, helping individuals perceive greater social support, managing stress and promoting the well-being of the whole family.

#### **Author Contributions**

Ana M. Casino García: Conceptualization, Data Curation, Funding Acquisition, Analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Project Administration, Resources, Software, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing. Lucía I. Llinares Insa: Conceptualization, Data Curation, Funding Acquisition, Investigation. Methodology, Resources, Software, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft, Writing Review & Editing. Verónica M. Guillén Martín: Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing. Alba Ibáñez García: Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing.

#### Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the associations AVAST (Asociación Valenciana de Apoyo a las Altas Capacidades) and ACAST (Asociación Altas Capacidades Castellón) for their collaboration.

#### **Funding**

This study has received funding from the Universidad Católica de Valencia UCV (2018-224-001 UCVPROAII/2017/A/022). This funding source had no role in the design of this study, the data collection, the management, analysis and interpretation of the data, the writing of the manuscript, and the decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

## **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

#### **Data Availability Statement**

The data are available anonymously for anyone who demonstrates a genuine interest in them. They can be requested via e-mail to ana.casino@ucv.es

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