

**The Influence of Parenting Styles on
Self-esteem of Young People: A
Systematic Review**



Aslı Akman

190331412

Queen Mary University of London

MSc Mental Health: Psychological Therapies

Supervisor: Dr. Theodora Dallas

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ABSTRACT

Parenting styles have been found to have important effects on young people's lives, and self-esteem is one of the key effects. There are four types of parenting styles; authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglectful. Literature shows inconsistent results about which parenting style elicits higher self-esteem level on young people. The purpose of the current review is to integrate the existing literature in order to compare the four parenting styles as regards to self-esteem of the young people. The search was conducted in four databases; PsycArticles, PsycInfo, Scopus and Web of Science with search terms in order to answer the research question of which parenting style has a better impact on young people's self-esteem. Data extraction was carried out according to the selection criteria. In total, eleven studies were chosen to be reviewed. The participants were young people, exposure was parenting styles and outcome was self-esteem. In order to achieve the minimisation of bias, quality assessment was conducted through NIH tool and the questions of the tool were aimed to focus on the main aspects of investigating the internal validity of the studies. Results of the included studies were summarized narratively according to Popay and colleagues' (2006) guidance of narrative synthesis in systematic reviews. The results demonstrated that there were inconsistencies as to which parenting style elicits higher levels of self-esteem. Overall, higher levels of self-esteem were associated with authoritative and permissive; lower levels of self-esteem were associated with authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles. Although this review included recent studies, it was not feasible to find out which parenting style was

associated with the highest or lowest levels of self-esteem that may stem from cultural varieties. Therefore, for further exploration, this review suggests and recommends investigating the role of culture on parenting styles and potential effects on self-esteem.



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1. INTRODUCTION

There are many factors that affect young peoples' self-esteem, and inevitably parenting style is one of the most prominent factors that has an effect. According to Baumeister and colleagues (2003), for the development of adolescents' self-esteem, the experiences in childhood play a significant role in their parents' behaviour towards them. Parents having a good relationship with their teens by spending time together, keeping promises and appreciating their efforts and strengths can be beneficial for the teen's self-esteem (Iwundu, 2013; cited in Achi 2019). Whereas, in the absence of support, encouragement and guidance from the parents, the teens can stagger and cannot develop or pursue a self-concept or proper ego identity (Achi, 2019). Parenting style plays an enormous role in the development of self-esteem due to children's early interactions with their parents despite the influences of peer interactions (Okrududu, 2010). There have been many researches that investigate the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem, however there is no ultimate decision pointing to the impact of each parenting styles on self-esteem of adolescents.

Parenting styles

Brenner and Fox (1999), defined parenting style as "a stable complex of attitudes and beliefs that form the context in which parenting behaviors occur." There are four types of parenting styles (Authoritarian, Authoritative, Permissive (also known as indulgent), and Neglectful), which consist of two dimensions that are warmth/responsiveness and control/demandingness (Maccoby and Martin, 1983 cited in Baumrind, 1991). Parental responsiveness indicate that parents encourage individuality and self-regulation by being supportive to their children's needs (Baumrind, 1991). On the other hand, parental demandingness indicates the disciplinary efforts of parents whose children disobey with having high maturity demands (Baumrind, 1991).

According to Baumrind (1978, cited in Spera, 2005), authoritative parents have high levels of warmth/responsiveness and control/demandingness; they are concerned with their children's needs and support their interests. Authoritative parents are more flexible; they let their children have a considerable freedom, but they give rational reasons to their restrictions and ensure that their children will conform to the restrictions. They are responsive to their children's needs, they both encourage and support their children, yet maintain an adequate discipline (Driscoll et al., 2008). This type of parents promotes the social, intellectual and academic competence in adolescents (Achi, 2019). Authoritarian parents have high levels of demandingness and low levels of responsiveness (Baumrind, 1978), they are very intolerant of misbehaving and tend to have punitive strategies and attach importance to total obedience of the child (Chen et al., 1997). They show highly directive behaviors and they do not encourage psychological autonomy and individuation (Alt, 2014). These parents have very strict rules, do not want any disobedience, and they dictate demands to their children. Permissive parents also known as indulgent parents, are high in warmth/responsiveness, and low in control/demandingness, these parents are generally child-centered, and they have noncontrolling role unlike authoritative parents (Baumrind, 1989 cited in Aunola, et al., 2000). They allow their children to be independent, and they do not control their behavior strictly (Baumrind, 1991). The last type was found by Maccoby and Martin (1983), as neglectful parents, who are both low in warmth/responsiveness and control/demandingness. According to Pfeiffer (2015), teenagers who have neglectful parents have serious discipline problems in their lives and have difficulties establishing healthy relationships in their adulthood. These parents do not supervise and support their children. In addition, they usually so much care about their own needs that they are not concerned with their children's interests and needs. Their attitude can be described as "uninvolvement" to their children's life (Maccoby and Martin, 1983 cited in Baumrind, 1991).

Inconsistent parenting styles can be associated with aggressive and rebellious behaviour of young people (Lightfoot, Cole & Cole, 2009). Generally, authoritarian and permissive parenting are related to mental health problems in adolescents (Baumrind, 1991; Bigner, 1994; Forward, 1989; Wenar, 1994; Whitfield, 1987; cited in Dwairy et al., 2006) such as identity disorder, anxiety disorder, depression, and conduct disorder; whereas authoritative parenting is associated with enhanced mental health and well-being of the offspring (Buri, Louiselle, Misukanis, & Mueller, 1988; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Wenar, 1994; cited in Dwairy et al., 2006). Besides, some studies considering Arab societies indicate that the prevalence of psychological disorders is higher in authoritarian societies (Dwairy, 2004). On the other hand, more authoritative attitude of the parents is associated with a less pessimistic disposition towards parents, higher self-concept and self-esteem, and lower scores in identity disorder, anxiety, depression, and conduct disorder. Moreover, the permissive style is related to low levels of self-esteem and high scores in identity, anxiety, phobia, depression, and conduct disorders among boys (Dwairy, 2004).

TABLE 1 *Classification of parenting styles* (Kang & Moore, 2011)



Self-esteem

Self-esteem is an important concept because it has an enormous role in human life; in Maslow's concept of hierarchical needs the self-esteem is in the highest category which indicate that the person only fulfils his/her potential at that stage (Maslow, 1987). Thus, the factors that affect self-esteem play an important role in the adolescents' lives. It is stated that people's early interactions with their parents are related to their implicit and explicit self-esteem (DeHart et al., 2006). Low self-esteem leads to poor mental and physical health, while predicting antisocial behaviors and depression (Trzesniewski, 2006; Erol and Orth, 2011; McGee and Williams, 2000; cited in Aremu et al., 2019). High self-esteem promotes one's mental health, performance and academic achievement by being more responsible personally and socially (Spinath, Spinath, Harlaar, & Plomin 2006; cited in Hirata and Kamakura, 2018).

The relationship between self-esteem and mental health outcomes are stated in the literature. Low self-esteem is related to the development of depression (Orth, Robins, & Meier, 2009; cited in Yaacob et al., 2009), conversely high levels of self-esteem decrease the level of depression. When the major motive for adolescents becomes the desire of positive regard, this can lead to the frustration of that motive which can be depressing (Rosenberg et al., 1989). In addition, low self-esteem also contributes to the development of a poor or negative self-image (Yaacob et al., 2009). Self-esteem can also be associated with eating disorders and aggressive behaviours (Stice et al., 2002; cited in Veselska et al., 2009) as well as physical health of young people (Veselska et al., 2009). Research also shows the inverse relationship between self-esteem and delinquency of adolescents (Kaplan, 1975; cited in Rosenberg et al., 1989). On the other hand, high self-esteem is associated with better mental health (Sowislo and Orth 2013), proactive coping with stressors (Lo 2002), and low levels of externalizing problems (Teng et al. 2015).

Parenting styles and self-esteem

Self-esteem has been one of the significant measures of adolescent adjustment in studies about parenting (e.g., Amato & Fowler, 2002; Barber, 1990; Barber, Chadwick, & Oerter, 1992; Cava, Musitu, & Murgui, 2006; Coopersmith, 1967; Felson & Zielinsky, 1989; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Rudy & Grusec, 2006 cited in Martinez & Garcia, 2007). Young people's self-esteem is a crucial way to ascertain the level of success of the parenting styles. A study conducted by Hosogi and colleagues (2012) state that the environment where children are raised contributes essentially to the development of their self-esteem. According to Cohen and Rice (1997), adolescents who have mothers that are very responsive to their children during infancy and early adolescents have high levels of self-esteem. It has been stated that Western authoritative parents affect self-esteem positively whilst authoritarian parents affect self-esteem of their offspring negatively (Pinquart and Gerke, 2019). This can be explained by the high parental warmth of authoritative parents which contributes to offspring's self-approval (Yeung et al., 2015) and demandingness of parents support the formation of competence and success which positively affect the self-esteem (Steinberg 2001). It can be considered that children who have neglectful parents can be more autonomous, however these parents do not help their children to find their own direction actively (Chirkov and Ryan, 2001). On the other hand, children of authoritarian parents, cannot internalize positive feelings from their parents, rather they can internalize negative feelings and their need for autonomy cannot be satisfied due to the negative relationship between parent-child (Pinquart and Gerke, 2019). In terms of permissive parents, it is hard to predict the effects because they provide high levels of autonomy and warmth which in turn leads to positive outcomes but when low demandingness is considered, it can prevent the formation of competence or the children can find their own way that lead to positive outcomes. Overall, the researches which focus on the parent-child relationships state that high levels of parental warmth,

responsiveness and involvement with high levels of strictness lead to positive adjustments for adolescents of Euro-American; by offering more emotional support and to establishing guidelines (Martinez and Garcia, 2007). Nevertheless, empirical studies state that parenting styles are challenged by the cultural context and ethnicity background differences (Rodrigues et al., 2013).

Chao (1994) indicated that culture has a significant role in determining the effects of parenting styles on children's self-esteem. Different studies examined whether the results can be generalizable to other ethnic groups or cultures. Although the general consensus is in the positive outcomes of authoritative and permissive parenting style (Zakeri & Karimpour, 2011), there were studies that conclude authoritative parenting style is not the best for all times. For instance, there is no evidence for the positive influence of authoritative parenting style on African American and Asian American adolescents (Dornbusch, et al., 1987; Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch, 1991; McBride-Change & Chang, 1998; cited in Martinez et al., 2007). Likewise, in Arab societies negative effects of authoritarian parenting style for adolescents has not been found (Dwairy et al., 2006). In certain contexts, indulgent parenting style was found to have more positive or equal outcomes than authoritative parenting style (Kim and Rhoner, 2002). In this sense, in Spain (Llinares, 1998; Musitu & Garcia, 2001; cited in Martinez and Garcia, 2007) and in Italy (Marchetti, 1997; cited in Martinez and Garcia, 2007), it was found that adolescents who have indulgent parents got equal or higher scores in different self-esteem measures than adolescents who have authoritative parents.

With regards to the association of parenting styles, self-esteem and mental health of the young people, Sonnak and Towell (2000) stated that parents who gave high levels of control and low levels of care cause particular negative consequences to their offspring. For instance, the offspring becomes more prone to suffer from depression and have low levels of

self-esteem with a tendency for self-criticism. In a study conducted by Peckham and Lopez (2009) it is found that fathers' authoritarian parenting style leads to feelings of having an overprotective father which cause low self-esteem that in turn predicts depressive symptoms and increased alcohol related problems in male offspring. On the other hand, mothers' parenting style that include warmth (permissive and authoritative) increased autonomy and self-esteem that ensure lower levels of depression and alcohol related problems for male offspring (Peckham and Lopez, 2009). However, in the study conducted by Yousaf (2015) it was stated that authoritarian and permissive parenting styles are more likely to have negative influence on the mental health of offspring as well as low levels of self-esteem.

Present study: Rationale, Aims and Hypothesis

The present study aims to provide the results of the empirical studies on the analysis between parenting styles and young people's self-esteem. Synthesizing the existing results, it is noticed that the literature has inconsistent results. There have been two recent literature reviews (Jadon and Tripathi, 2017; Singh, 2017) which indicate the positive implications of authoritative parenting on self-esteem but reaching different results on the impacts of authoritarian parenting styles. However, those reviews did not do a systematic literature search on relevant electronic databases and did not separate the results of parenting practices or self-concept. For this reason, the conclusions are not consistent, and it is difficult to evaluate the results. Thus, there is a need for a systematic review that evaluates the results of the studies comprehensively, without ignoring cultural variables because every culture has its own characteristic.

The current study's focus is on the relationship between the four main parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful) and self-esteem of young people.

This will clarify the dilemma as to which parenting style is associated with the highest and lowest levels of self-esteem. Since a systematic review synthesizes the findings by using scientific approach while critically evaluating it in a systematic manner, this study will be more comprehensive to investigate the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem of young people.

For the investigation of the studies it is hypothesized that firstly parenting styles will have a significant effect on self-esteem of young people. Secondly, authoritative parenting style will positively influence the self-esteem of young people generally whilst, authoritarian parenting style will negatively influence the self-esteem of young people based on the previous findings. The last hypothesis is that the young peoples' self-esteem will be associated more strongly with maternal parenting style rather than paternal parenting style because mothers are the primary caregivers to their children in most of the families, so children can be more influenced by their mothers who are more involved to their lives (Wall and Arnold, 2007).

Overall, this study aims to answer the following question:

Which parenting style has a better impact on young people's self-esteem?

2. METHODS

This study is a systematic review which identifies, classifies, analyses and interprets the relevant information to investigate the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem of young people. The findings will be summarized and presented with narrative synthesis. Systematic review is a proper way of framing research question because it synthesizes the findings using scientific approach while critically evaluating it in a systematic

manner. By carrying out a systematic review, replicability, reliability and validity of the present study increases. (Baker & Weeks, 2014).

2.1 Search strategy

This research topic was approached by the curiosity about the effects of parenting styles on young people. There were many psychological effects of parenting styles but self-esteem was one of the significant variable that needed to be investigated. In order to find relevant articles about that topic, scoping search was performed and identified if a systematic review has already been carried out about the same research question. In the scoping stage, the terms mostly used were noted and the early studies helped to generate new certain search terms. After discovering the gap about the topic, search terms were diversified according to their synonyms to find as many relevant studies as possible by entering them to all electronic databases which are; PsycArticles, PsycInfo, Scopus and Web of Science. In order not to miss any relevant studies, Boolean search type (using OR or AND) was used. Since the age range of participants were varied in the scoping search, young people were indicated as participants in order to comprise multiple studies and age groups. One of the obstacles in that stage was the lacking number of studies relevant with the research question of this review which have open access. In order to overcome that obstacle, reference lists of the relevant studies and grey literature were looked up and manual search was done in order to add more studies for the research. A pilot study was conducted in order to assure that there were no important problems for the proposed plan. The overall list of the search terms can be found in the below table.

“parenting style” **OR**; “authoritative” **OR**; “authoritarian” **OR**; “permissive” **OR**;
 “indulgent” **OR**; “permissive” **OR**; “autocratic” **OR**; parenting **OR**; “parenting
 behaviours” **OR**; “parenting behaviors”

AND;

“self esteem” **OR**; “self confidence” **OR**; “self-confidence” **OR**; “self assurance” **OR**;
 “self-worth” **OR**; “self concept”

AND;

“adolescents” **OR**; “adolescence” **OR**; “teenagers” **OR**; “students”

2.2 Selection Criteria

In order to identify the studies pertaining to the topic of parenting styles and self-esteem of young people, inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied. All relevant studies were screened according to PEO criteria (Table 2) that were published in English. The restricted criteria focused especially on population, exposure and outcome of interest. The population of this systematic review is young people (girls and boys) having age range between 11 to 23 without having any mental disorders. The homogeneity of the group is important because it influences the outcomes of the study. Restricting the young people who have mental disorders can be a critical phase because it can influence the outcomes substantially.

The exposure in this review is the four parenting styles which are authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglectful. Articles that analyse other age groups and investigate the relationship between parenting styles and other variables other than self-esteem were excluded, however the parts that mentioned self-esteem were included. The studies including parenting behaviours or parenting practices rather than parenting styles were also excluded as the scales they used are different. There is no specific comparison group, the focus of this review is to analyse the effects of parenting styles on young people's self-esteem.

The primary outcome of this review is young peoples' high self-esteem as declared in the introduction. Thus, the articles that investigate the four parenting styles by analysing self-esteem is the primary focus. However, as self-esteem has a broad scope, studies that use different dimensions or variables are also included, on the condition that every variable and the relationship between them are scaled separately. In addition, gender differences and the most common parenting styles are the other important considerations in the outcomes.

This review only includes studies that have used quantitative study design because using surveys and questionnaires promotes the aim of the study. However, the search criteria do not indicate a particular research design (e.g. "Cross sectional") in order not to miss any relevant studies that have not got the exact suitable research design as asked for. The detailed selection criteria can be seen in **Table 2**.

	INCLUSION CRITERIA	EXCLUSION CRITERIA
Population	Young people that are both girls and boys Age range between 11-24 years Both mothers and fathers	Individuals apart from 10-25 years. Young people having any diagnosed mental disorders Mothers and fathers having any diagnosed mental disorders
Exposure	Authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting styles	Parenting practices and behaviours
Outcome	Studies that are investigating the four parenting styles in terms of self-esteem Studies that are investigating the gender differences Studies that are investigating the most common parenting style	Studies that do not report the relationship between parenting styles in terms of self-esteem
Study design	Quantitative studies	Qualitative studies

2.3 Data Extraction

The search terms above were added to the electronic databases to start the systematic review. The results of the database searches were added into an electronic system, MENDELEY. The process of selecting the relevant articles was done accordingly; the first step of the data extraction was the elimination of duplicates of the articles because of the abundance. The second stage was about reading the titles and abstracts of the remaining articles and extracting the irrelevant articles. In the final step, the articles which have relevant titles and abstracts were read completely in order to determine if the articles were suitable for the purpose of this systematic review. Lastly, the articles which were found to be in

accordance with the aim of this systematic review, included in this review. A manual search and the reference list of the selected articles were referred in order to have additional studies.

2.4 Quality Assessment

The bias potential and the quality of methodology was evaluated by the appropriate quality assessment tool after data extraction. In this review NIH Quality Assessment tool for cross sectional studies was used in order to assess the qualities of the selected studies on a scale from one to three for each section that will be assessed by the checklist (**see Appendix**).

The questions of the tool are aimed at focusing on the main aspects of investigating the internal validity of the studies. High risk of bias indicates low quality of the studies. The study design should be in a way that gives more attention to determine whether there is a relationship between the exposure and outcome. In addition, the design of high-quality studies should be done accordingly; clearly defined population and research question, measurements should be accurate for both outcome and exposure, population should be recruited from the same group and there should be given importance to statistical analysis.

2.5 Data Synthesis

After extraction of the data, this systematic review analysed data through population, exposure, outcome and study design. The selected studies were demonstrated by narrative synthesis because it is appropriate for the purpose of this systematic review by critically discussing and summarizing the selected articles. The clinical implications of each selected article will be mentioned with their strengths and weaknesses.

3. RESULTS

In this systematic review, four databases (PsycArticles, PsycInfo, Scopus, Web of Science) were used providing 3205 results in the primary research. First of all, the duplicates were removed. After that, titles of the studies were reviewed in accordance with their relevancy with the current review, and large number of articles were removed due to the irrelevant titles and language. Then, the abstracts of the remaining articles were screened and the studies that were found to be irrelevant were removed. The studies were removed because they included non-desired age groups as sample, other than young people, and they were about parenting but not exactly the parenting styles. Some papers mentioned only one parenting style, some of them compared the two parenting styles which is not the aim of the current review. At the last stage, studies having relevant abstracts were read in full in order to have a full understanding of each study that endorses the population, exposure, outcome and study design matched with the aim of the current review. After careful excerpting, 125 studies were removed due to their study designs and having different outcomes. There were some studies having longitudinal study designs (Heinonen et al., 2003), which were against the general study designs; most of the studies that were about the same topic as the current review used cross-sectional studies therefore the aim is to include cross-sectional or correlational studies. A large number of studies were excluded due to including self-esteem as an outcome but also having other outcomes that were assessed altogether, whereas the aim is to measure self-esteem separately with the parenting styles. There were a number of studies that include only maternal or paternal parenting styles and divorced parents (Bastaitis et al., 2012; Antonopoulou et al., 2012; Sasi and Mathew, 2018) which conflict with the purpose of the study because the current review aimed to include both mothers' and fathers' parenting styles. After reading the full texts and excluding the studies because of the reasons mentioned above, 10 studies were selected to include in the review. In addition to that through the

manual search, one more study (Yun et al., 2019) was chosen for the inclusion of the review due to its relevance with this review's aim and its date as it is not an old study. In total, **11** studies were selected for the inclusion of the review.

The following 11 studies are presented as: Hirata and Kamakura, 2018; Milevsky et al., 2006; Hong et al., 2015; Martinez and Garcia, 2007; Martinez and Garcia, 2008; Rodrigues et al., 2013; Aremu et al., 2019; Martinez et al., 2007; Martinez et al., 2020; McKinney et al., 2008; Yun et al., 2019.



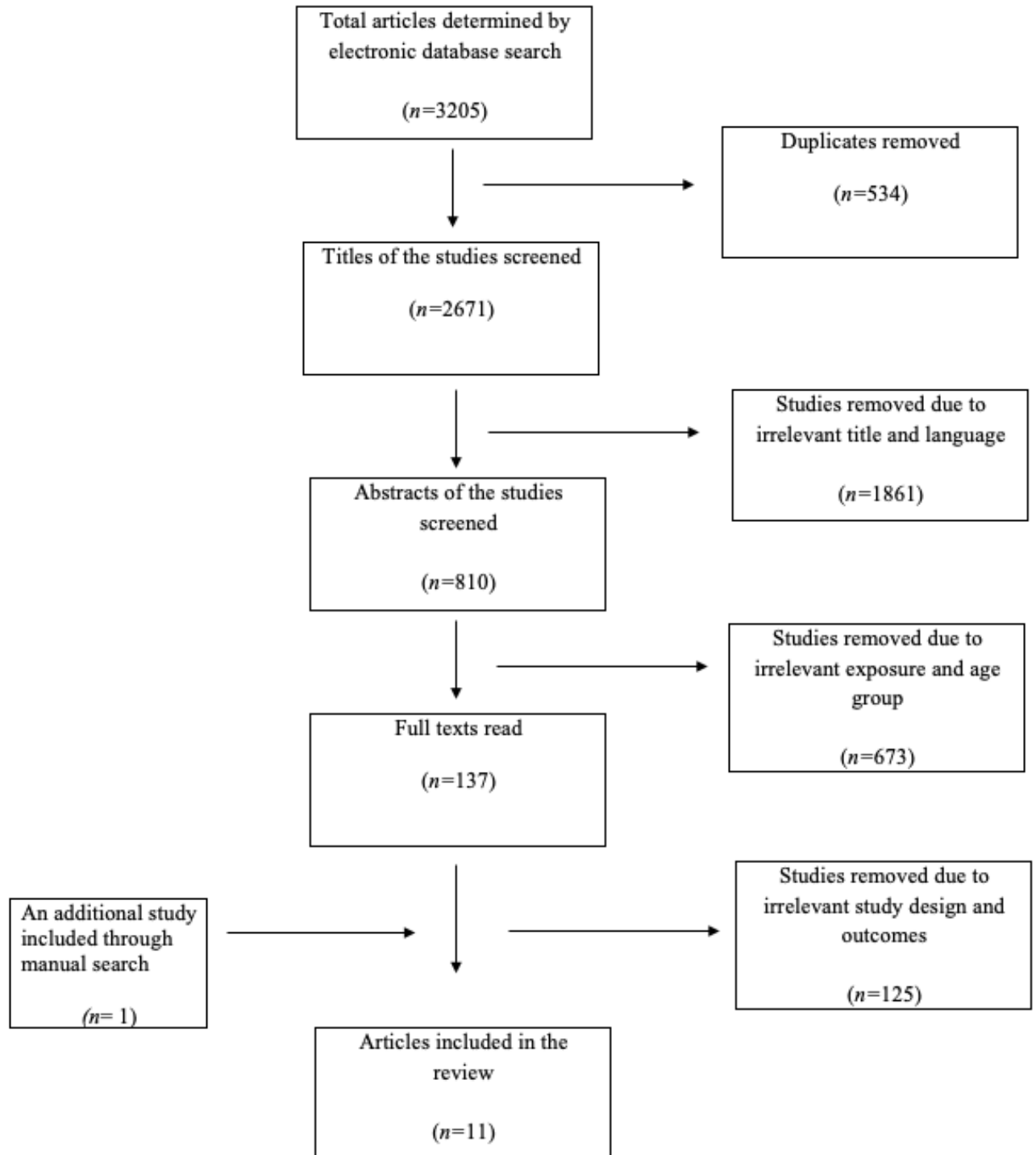


Figure 1 Flow diagram demonstrating selection process of the included articles in the review, with the numbers of studies excluded at each stage and a brief explanation of why.

3.1 Study Characteristics

The studies selected for this study used quantitative methods in their designs consisting of correlational ($N=2$) and cross-sectional ($N=9$). All of the studies were conducted in different countries and cultures. However, the majority of the studies were from Spain, Portugal and Brazil (Martinez et al., 2020; Martinez and Garcia, 2007; Rodrigues et al., 2013; Martinez and Garcia, 2008; Martinez et al., 2007).

There were five studies that investigate only the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem of young people (Yun et al., 2019; Martinez et al., 2007; Hong et al., 2015; Aremu et al., 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2013). Internalization of values was another outcome variable for three studies that were conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2020), Martinez and Garcia (2008) and Martinez and Garcia (2007). Hirata and Kamakura (2018) analysed the effects of parenting styles on each self-esteem and personal growth initiative while Milevsky and colleagues (2006) investigated the relationship of parenting styles with self-esteem, depression and life-satisfaction. Lastly, McKinney and colleagues (2008) examined the effects of parenting styles on emotional adjustment in late adolescence by investigating depression, anxiety and self-esteem.

The majority of the studies (Martinez and Garcia, 2007; Martinez and Garcia, 2008; Rodrigues et al., 2013; Martinez et al., 2007; Martinez et al., 2020) analysed the four types of parenting styles which are authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting styles by using ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale (Musitu & Garcia, 2001). The Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991) used by five studies that (Hirata and Kamakura, 2018; Hong et al., 2015; Aremu et al., 2019; McKinney et al., 2008; Yun et al., 2019) assess three types of parenting styles which are authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. Lastly, Milevsky and colleagues (2006) used Acceptance/Involvement and Strictness/Supervision sub-scales of Authoritative Parenting Measure (Steinberg et al., 1994) in order to

assess authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting styles. Apart from these, the other details of the included studies can be seen further in **Table 3**.

In all of the studies, both exposure and outcome scales were filled by young people keeping it confidential; they evaluated their parents' parenting styles scales and evaluated themselves on self-esteem scales. Every study gave importance to the explanation of the objective and the question of their study. The data were collected from schools and selected through a simple random sampling method in the studies conducted by Martinez et al., 2020; Rodrigues et al., 2013; Aremu et al., 2019; Martinez and Garcia, 2007.

Martinez and Garcia (2007) used block design in their study by including three control demographic controls that were young peoples' gender, age, and type of school. The aim of the block design was that there should not be an interaction between parenting styles with the control variables (adolescents' gender, age, and type of school). Another aim of the block design was that the three demographic controls should be related to the two clusters of the outcome variables which were young peoples' self-esteem and value priorities.

Milevsky and colleagues (2006) applied a passive consent in their study by informing the parents in advance about the nature of the study and the parents are permitted to call the research office if they do not want their children to take part in the study. This type of procedure enabled the researchers to fully investigate the four types of parenting styles. However less than 1% of the parents requested not to involve their children in the study.

TABLE 3 *Summary of the Study Characteristics*

Study	Population	Exposure	Outcomes	Findings
Hirata and Kamakura (2018) Correlational study	<i>N</i> = 329, 18-23 y 164 males, 165 females University students Japan	Parenting styles: PAQ (Buri, 1991) Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive Parenting styles	Self-esteem: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)	No significant impact of permissive and authoritarian parenting styles on self-esteem of both female and male participants.
Milevsky and colleagues (2006) Cross-sectional	<i>N</i> = 272 9 th and 11 th grades students 145 males, 127 females North-eastern U.S.	Parenting styles: Acceptance/Involvement and Strictness/Supervision subscales of Authoritative Parenting Measure (Steinberg et al., 1994) Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Neglectful Parenting styles	Self-esteem: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)	The main effect of maternal parenting style was significant for self-esteem $F(3,262) = 14.43, p < .01$ The main effect for paternal parenting style was significant for self-esteem $F(3,253) = 11.72, p < .01$
Yun and colleagues (2019) Cross-sectional	<i>N</i> =504 252 males, 252 females Malaysia 13-17 years old adolescents	Parenting styles: PAQ (Buri, 1991) Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive Parenting styles	Self-esteem: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)	Negative correlation between parenting styles and self-esteem of young people with Pearson correlation coefficient of $-.170$

<p>Martinez and Garcia (2008)</p> <p>Cross-sectional</p>	<p><i>N</i>= 1198</p> <p>Mean age: 16.46</p> <p>Northeast Brazil</p> <p>55.5% females</p>	<p>Parenting Styles:</p> <p>ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale (Musitu & Garcia, 2001)</p> <p>Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent and Neglectful Parenting styles</p>	<p>Self-esteem:</p> <p>Multidimensional Self-esteem Scale AF5 (Garcia & Musitu, 1999)</p>	<p>Parenting styles had statistically significant main effects on all dimensions of self-esteem</p> <p>Main effects of parenting styles, $\Lambda = .756$, $F(15, 1355.8) = 9.63$, $p < .001$</p>
<p>Rodrigues and colleagues (2013)</p> <p>Cross-sectional</p>	<p><i>N</i>= 517</p> <p>11-18 years</p> <p>214 males, 303 females</p> <p>Portugal</p>	<p>Parenting Styles:</p> <p>ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale (Musitu & Garcia, 2001)</p> <p>Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent and Neglectful Parenting styles</p>	<p>Self-esteem:</p> <p>Multidimensional Self-esteem Scale AF5 (Garcia & Musitu, 1999)</p>	<p>No statistically significant main effects of parenting styles and physical self-esteem of young people.</p> <p>Main effects of parenting styles, $\Lambda = .834$, $F(15, 1364.1) = 6.17$, $p < .001$</p>
<p>Martinez and colleagues (2020)</p> <p>Cross-sectional</p>	<p><i>N</i>=2091</p> <p>12-18 years old adolescents</p> <p>Spain: 793 Portugal: 675 Brazil: 623</p> <p>52.1% females</p>	<p>Parenting Styles:</p> <p>ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale (Musitu & Garcia, 2001)</p> <p>Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent and Neglectful Parenting styles</p>	<p>Self-esteem:</p> <p>Multidimensional Self-esteem Scale AF5 (Garcia & Musitu, 1999)</p>	<p>Self-esteem yielded statistically significant main effects of parenting, $\Lambda = 0.852$, $F(15, 5629.2) = 22.41$, $p < .001$</p>

<p>Aremu and colleagues (2019)</p> <p>Cross-sectional</p>	<p><i>N</i>= 504</p> <p>Senior secondary school students</p> <p>Nigeria</p> <p>209 males, 293 females</p>	<p>Parenting styles:</p> <p>PAQ</p> <p>Authoritative, Authoritarian Neglectful and Permissive Parenting styles</p>	<p>Self-esteem:</p> <p>Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)</p>	<p>Significant relationship among perceived maternal ($p=.004$) and paternal ($p=.001$) parenting styles and self-esteem of young people.</p>
<p>Martinez and Garcia (2007)</p> <p>Cross-sectional</p>	<p><i>N</i>= 1456</p> <p>13-16 years old adolescents</p> <p>54.3% females</p> <p>Spain</p>	<p>Parenting Styles:</p> <p>ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale (Musitu & Garcia, 2001)</p> <p>Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent and Neglectful Parenting styles</p>	<p>Self-esteem:</p> <p>Multidimensional Self-esteem Scale AF5 (Garcia & Musitu, 1999)</p>	<p>Parenting styles had statistically significant main effects for academic and family self-esteem dimensions</p> <p>Main effects of parenting styles, $\Lambda = .956$, $F(15, 3920.4) = 4.33$, $p < .001$</p>
<p>Hong and colleagues (2015)</p> <p>Correlational study</p>	<p><i>N</i>= 120</p> <p>102 females, 18 males</p> <p>20-21-22 years old University students</p> <p>Malay: 77 Chinese: 32 Indian: 5</p>	<p>Parenting styles:</p> <p>PAQ (Buri, 1991)</p> <p>Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive Parenting styles</p>	<p>Self-esteem:</p> <p>Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)</p>	<p>All types of parenting styles had a statistically significant effect on self-esteem.</p>

Martinez and colleagues (2007) Cross-sectional	<i>N</i> = 1239 Mean age: 13.4 53.7% females North-east Brazil	Parenting Styles: ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale (Musitu & Garcia, 2001) Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent and Neglectful Parenting styles	Self-esteem: Multidimensional Self-esteem Scale AF5 (Garcia & Musitu, 1999)	Parenting styles had statistically significant main effects for all self-esteem dimensions except from emotional self-esteem
McKinney and colleagues (2008) Cross-sectional	<i>N</i> =475 Mean age:19.15 151 males, 324 females USA 76.2% Caucasian 9.7% Hispanic 6.5% African American 1.9% Asian 3.6% Other 2.1% Did not respond to the item	Parenting styles: PAQ (Buri, 1991) Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive Parenting styles	Self-esteem: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965)	The correlation between the permissive parenting style and self-esteem in accordance with females' (.06) and males' (.04) perspective was not statistically significant.

3.2 Participant Characteristics

Based on the selection criteria of this systematic review, participants from all studies were referred to as “young people”. The participants’ age ranges were indicated as follows: 11-18 years old (Rodrigues et al., 2013); 13-16 years old (Martinez and Garcia, 2007); 20-22 years old (Hong et al., 2015); 15-18 years old (Martinez and Garcia, 2008); 11-15 years old (Martinez et al., 2007); 18-23 years old (Hirata and Kamakura, 2018); 13-17 years old (Yun

et al., 2019); 18-22 years old (McKinney et al., 2008); 12-18 years old (Martinez et al., 2020). In addition, the age range was not mentioned in the two studies yet, the mean age of the young peoples' in the study conducted by Aremu and colleagues (2019) was 14.9 and in 15.5 years in the study conducted by Milevsky and colleagues (2006). The number of participants recruited in each study, varied from a minimum of 120 (Hong et al., 2015) to maximum of 2091 (Martinez et al., 2020). The mean age of the overall participants could not be calculated due to the missing mean age of the participants in the study conducted by Hong and colleagues (2015).

Those included in all of the studies were those who were girls and boys and under the age of 25 because the participants were defined as "young people" as the focus of the review. WHO (2020) defined the age range of young people from 10 to 24. Among all studies, the figure of the participants' age was ranged from 11 the lowest (Rodrigues et al., 2013) and 23 the highest (Hirata and Kamakura, 2018). In the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2020), the majority of the participants were in the age range between 12-14 years and 39.4% in 15-18 years. All studies excluded individuals diagnosed by any mental disorders as the results can be influenced by the essence of any mental disorder.

Among all studies, the participants were young people and put emphasize on the balance between males and females. In the study conducted by Yun and colleagues (2019), there was a total balance between the number of males and females, only in one study (Milevsky et al., 2006) the number of males were more than the number of females; apart from those, the number of females were more than the number of males.

The studies included in the review were conducted in different countries around the world; East Coast of Spain, Middle Coast of Portugal, and Southeast Brazil (Martinez et al., 2020), Malaysia (Yun et al., 2019; Hong et al., 2015), Lisbon (Rodrigues et al, 2013), Nigeria (Aremu et al., 2019), Spain (Martinez and Garcia, 2007), Northeast Brazil (Martinez et al.,

2007; Martinez and Garcia, 2008), Japan (Hirata and Kamakura, 2018), North-eastern U.S (Milevsky et al., 2006) and including different ethnic backgrounds such as 253 European-Americans, 10 African-Americans, 5 Hispanic-Americans, 3 Asian-Americans, and 1 with no ethnicity data, USA (McKinney et al., 2008) and comprising 76.2% Caucasian, 9.7% Hispanic, 6.5% African American, 1.9% Asian, 3.6% Other, and 2.1% did not respond to this item.

The selection criteria for the participants of the studies varied. For instance, in the study conducted by Martinez and Garcia (2007) the participants were selected providing the following categories: were Spanish, as were their parents and four grandparents; (b) lived in two-parent nuclear families, mother or primary female caregiver and father or primary male caregiver; (c) had received their parents' permission to participate; and (d) were attending school at the time the research was done. In the study of Aremu and colleagues (2019), young people who were living with their biological parents were selected to include in their study, whereas young people living with a single parent or not living with their biological parents were excluded from their study. Martinez and colleagues (2020) selected young people who: lived in two-parent nuclear families, mother or primary female caregiver and father or primary male caregiver; and (b) whose parents and four grandparents were born in the country of each sample (Spain, Portugal and Brazil).

3.3 Exposure Characteristics

As an exposure, all studies used a scale that aims to evaluate the parenting styles. Hirata and Kamakura (2018), Hong and colleagues (2015), Aremu and colleagues (2019), McKinney and colleagues (2008), Yun and colleagues (2019) used PAQ (Parental Authority Questionnaire) in their studies that were introduced by Baumrind's (Buri, 1991) typology. Baumrind (1991) stated that there are three types of parenting styles which are; authoritative,

authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. In order to measure those three parenting styles, the questionnaire has 30 items that are answered by the child and designed as a phenomenological appraisal. There are 10 questions for authoritative parenting (e.g. 'I had clear standards of behaviour for my child as he or she was growing up, but I was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of the child'), 10 items measuring the authoritarian parenting style (e.g. 'As my child was growing up I did not allow him or her to question any decision I had made'), and 10 items measuring the permissive parenting style (e.g. 'As my child was growing up, I seldom gave him or her expectations and guidelines for his or her behaviour'). 5-point Likert scales are applied to each item in the questionnaire which are ranging from; Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Neither Disagree nor Agree (3), Agree (4) to Strongly Agree (5). At the end, the parenting style of the particular parent is defined by the obtained highest score among the three parenting styles by looking for the total scores for the items set under each parenting style. In terms of the validity of the test, Buri (1991) stated that PAQ is a valid tool in order to measure and identify each parenting style. Thus, it is a reliable tool because it has higher internal reliability and high in content validity. In the study conducted by Yun and colleagues (2019), the answers of the questionnaire were designed to refer to only one parent, either mother or father. However, in the study of McKinney and colleagues (2008), and Aremu and colleagues (2019) the answers of the questionnaire were completed from the offspring with regards to both their mothers and fathers separately by having two sets of 30 item questionnaire. There was no information about which parent the children evaluate in the other studies. In the study conducted by Hong and colleagues (2015) the scale was translated into Malay language by Kwan (2004) in order to assess the parenting styles more accurately from offspring's perspectives because the national language in Malaysia is Malay language.

In the study conducted by Aremu and colleagues (2019), PAQ was semi structured and self-administered to 40-item instrument designed to measure the perceived parenting styles in terms of authority and disciplinary practices from the perspective of the offspring. All items were ranged from 4- points scale 1 (No never), 2 (Yes occasionally), 3 (Yes often), and 4 (Yes always). The 40 items were split up into four subscales: Permissive, Authoritarian, Authoritative, and Neglectful. Permissive (P: Items 1–10), authoritarian (A: Items 11–20), authoritative or flexible (F: Items 21–30), and neglectful (N: Items 31–40). Every subscale was summed up and the highest score in the subscale indicated the type of parenting. The parents were evaluated by their children considering both the mother and father.

Martinez and Garcia (2007), Martinez and Garcia (2008), Rodrigues and colleagues (2013), Martinez and colleagues (2007), Martinez and colleagues (2020) used ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale (Musitu & Garcia, 2001) in order to measure each parenting style. This scale was designed to involve parents' acceptance/involvement and strictness/imposition axe dimensions by using self-report through young peoples' perspectives of their parents. The family acceptance/involvement dimension was measured by the mothers' and fathers' parenting practices of warmth ("He/she shows affection"), reasoning ("He/she talks to me"), indifference ("He/she seems indifferent"), and detachment ("It's the same to him/her"). There is a negative relation between detachment and indifference and acceptance/involvement dimension. The family strictness/imposition dimension was measured with the mothers' and fathers' practices of revoking privileges ("He/she takes something away from me"), verbal scolding ("He/she scolds me"), and physical punishment ("He/she hits me"). There were 29 contexts and 13 scenarios measuring parenting practices which sample the contexts of obedience in which the family norm is followed by the children (e.g., "If somebody comes over to visit and I behave nicely"), and

16 scenarios which sample the contexts of disobedience in which the family norm is violated by the children (e.g., “If I have broken or spoiled something”). Four-point-scale ranged from one (“never”) to four (“always”) was responded by the young people in order to indicate the frequency of the seven specified parental practices that their mothers and fathers make use of separately. Martinez and colleagues (2020) indicate that the scale was developed specific to the Western culture and the parenting styles were assessed from both contextual (Darling & Steinberg, 1993) and situational (Smetana, 1995) perspectives. There were total of 232 questions, 116 for each parent. It is stated that (Musitu and Garcia, 2004), the higher the acceptance / involvement level, the higher the parents' encouragement of the young people's compliance through affection and correction of maladjustment behaviour through bidirectional communication and reasoning. The higher the Strictness / Imposition score, the more parents turn to impose verbal reprimand, physical punishment, and the removal of privileges to correct the maladjusted behaviour.

ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale (Musitu & Garcia, 2001) was developed originally in Spain for the adolescents between the age of 10 to 18 and focused on the assessment of the four types of parenting styles that are Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent and Neglectful by examining the two variables of Acceptance/Involvement and Strictness/Imposition (Marchetti, 1997; Martinez, 2003; Musitu & Garcia, 2001, 2004; cited in Martinez and Garcia, 2007). Authoritative parents were those who scored high on both Acceptance/Involvement and Strictness/Imposition, whereas Neglectful parents were those who have the lowest scores on both variables. Authoritarian parents obtained the lowest scores on Acceptance/Involvement but the highest scores on Strictness/Imposition. Lastly, Indulgent parents obtained the highest scores on Acceptance/Involvement but the lowest scores on Strictness/Imposition.

Apart from those two scales, Milevsky and colleagues (2006) preferred to measure maternal and paternal parenting style separately with acceptance /involvement and the strictness/supervision sub-scales of the Authoritative Parenting Measure (Steinberg et al., 1994). The items on the acceptance/involvement scale assessed young peoples' perception of parental love, acceptance, involvement and closeness, as "I can count on my mother/father to help me out if I have some kind of problem" or "When my mother/father wants me to do something, she/he explains why." There were 9 items measuring the acceptance/involvement subscale ranging from 1 to 4 scale: the higher the scores obtained, the higher the acceptance/involvement of the parents are. The items on the acceptance/involvement scale assessed young peoples' perception of parental supervision and monitoring, such as "How much does your mother/father try to know where you go at night?". In addition, the strictness/supervision sub-scale included the items such as "In a typical week, what is the latest you can stay out on school nights?". There were 8 items measuring strictness/supervision subscale using 1-4 Likert style scale; the higher the scores obtained, the higher the strictness/supervision of the parents are. The scores were used in order to classify the parents into four parenting styles. Authoritative parents scored above average on both the acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision scales, Authoritarian parents scored below average on the acceptance/involvement sub-scale and above average on the strictness/supervision sub-scale, Permissive parents scored above average on the acceptance/involvement sub-scale and below average on the strictness/supervision sub-scale, and Neglectful parents scored below average on both the acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision scales. This classification was done separately for maternal and paternal parenting styles.

3.4 Outcome Characteristics

The one and main outcome of the studies that were conducted by Yun and colleagues (2019), Aremu and colleagues (2019), Hong and colleagues (2015), Martinez and colleagues (2007) and Rodrigues and colleagues (2013) was self-esteem. Along with self-esteem of young people, Martinez and colleagues (2020), Martinez and Garcia (2007), Martinez and Garcia (2008) investigate internalization of values; McKinney and colleagues (2008) investigate depression and anxiety; Hirata and Kamakura (2018) investigated personal growth initiative and Milevsky and colleagues (2006) investigate depression and life satisfaction.

Self-esteem was measured by Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) in six of the studies (Hirata and Kamakura (2018), Milevsky and colleagues (2006), Hong and colleagues (2015), Aremu and colleagues (2019), McKinney and colleagues (2008), Yun and colleagues (2019)) and in five of the studies (Martinez and colleagues (2007), Martinez and Garcia (2008), Rodrigues and colleagues (2013), Martinez and Garcia (2007), Martinez and colleagues (2020)) the outcome measure was Multidimensional Self-esteem Scale AF5 (Garcia & Musitu, 1999).

Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale is globally applied unidimensional measure and designed to assess self-esteem as self-report which can be applied to variety of population without making discrimination (“I am able to do things as well as most other people”). It has 10 items in the inventory and it has high reliability (alpha .92). In terms of validity, the specific aim of the inventory is to measure the level of self-esteem, so it accords with the aim of the review. The inventory is designed as 4-point-Likert-Scale ranging from 1-4; Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree to Strongly Agree. There are 10 items in total including 5 reversed questions, the scores are obtained by getting the total from the respective scale. The higher RSE score, the higher the level of self-esteem is. The calculation of the scores include score

of 0 for Strongly disagree whilst the score of 3 for Strongly agree which leads the lowest score to 0 and the highest score to 30. The questionnaire was translated into Bahasa Melayu by Azrul Masiron (2009) in the study conducted by Hong and colleagues (2015) in order to obtain more accurate results. Aremu and colleagues (2019), adjusted the Rosenberg Self-esteem scale (Driscoll, 2018) by adapting the scores to 12-30, the scores higher than 26 indicate high self-esteem and the scores lower than 25 indicate low self-esteem. Milevsky and colleagues (2006) and Hirata and Kamakura (2018) indicate that they used 5-point rating scale (5 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree).

Multidimensional Self-esteem Scale AF5 involves five dimensions of self-esteem which are; academic (e.g., “I do my homework well”), social (e.g., reversed item, “It is difficult for me to talk to strangers”), emotional (e.g., reversed item, “Many things make me nervous”), family (e.g., “My family would help me with any type of problem”), and physical (e.g., “I take good care of my physical health”). The scale has 30 items that are divided into six items in order to assess each dimension. The participants rated each item from 1 to 99-point score that is depicted with a thermometer (1- full disagreement, 99 full agreement). The scale was originally developed and normalized in Spain and it has been translated into English, Portuguese, Brazilian-Portuguese, Basque, and Catalan languages and analysed with exploratory and confirmatory analyses. The scale is more specific to certain countries such as Spain, Portugal, and Brazil, and self-esteem is understood as more hierarchically ordered, multidimensional and differentiated by age.

Parenting styles

The perceived parenting style from young people varied within the studies. The majority of the young people perceived their parents as Authoritative; in the study conducted by Yun and colleagues (2019), 18.1% of the students perceived their parents as Authoritarian,

63.3% as Authoritative and 18.7% as Permissive, in the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2020), the authoritative group was 28.0%, the indulgent group was 22.1%, the authoritarian group was 22.1%, and the neglectful group was 27.7%. In the study conducted by Aremu and colleagues (2019), authoritative parenting style was the highest perceived parenting style; father 36.3% and mother 38.9% but followed very closely by the authoritarian parenting style; father 34.9% and mother 32.7% few of the young people rated their parents as having more than one parenting style as 8.7%. Martinez and Garcia (2007) found that the frequency of authoritative and neglectful parenting styles was nearly same; young people perceived their parents as authoritative 26.9% and neglectful as 26.6% whereas indulgent parenting style was perceived the lowest as 23.1%. Another study that was conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2007) found that the highest parenting style was authoritative with 27,3% followed by neglectful with 26,4% and the lowest was indulgent with 22,2 %. Lastly, Rodrigues and colleagues (2013) agreed that the authoritative parenting style was the most dominant parenting style with 27,9%, followed by neglectful (27,5%) and the lowest parenting style was indulgent with 22,1%.

On the other hand, Hong and colleagues (2015) found that the most dominant parenting style was permissive according to the young people; the mean value of permissive parenting style was 3,925, followed by authoritative (3,916) and lastly authoritarian (2,294). Apart from those, Martinez and Garcia (2008) claimed that the most dominant perceived parenting style was neglectful with 32,5% and the least dominant parenting styles were authoritarian and indulgent parenting styles with 18,3% each.

Two studies investigated the maternal and paternal parenting styles separately (McKinney et al., 2008; Milevsky et al., 2006) and two studies investigated males' and females' perception of parenting styles separately (Hirata and Kamakura, 2018; Aremu et al., 2019). In the study conducted by McKinney and colleagues (2008), males evaluated their

fathers and mothers as authoritative with a mean value of 33.77 and 35.97 the highest respectively and similarly, females evaluated their fathers and mothers as authoritative with a mean value of 34.42 and 37.08 the highest respectively. Milevsky and colleagues (2006) indicated that the most dominant perceived maternal parenting style was authoritative with 36,8%, whilst the most dominant perceived paternal parenting style was neglectful with 41,5%. There were no gender differences of perceived parenting style in the study conducted by Hirata and Kamakura (2018), the most dominant parenting style was authoritative parenting style for both males and females with mean values of 3,237 and 3,258 respectively. In the study conducted by Aremu and colleagues (2019) the results indicate that females perceived their fathers as more authoritative, but the results were not statistically significant. On the other hand, males perceived their mothers as more authoritative and females perceived them as more authoritative, these results were statistically significant.

Self-esteem

In the study conducted by Hong and colleagues (2015), the mean score of young peoples' self-esteems was found to be 3,89 which is a high score. Aremu and colleagues (2019) reported that most (90.0%) of the young people feel that they have good qualities, majority (88.7%) feel that they are people to worth, 83.4% indicated that they can do things as well as most people does and 81.4% indicated that they have positive attitude toward themselves. Nevertheless, 78.9% indicated they wish to have more respect for themselves and 48.6% reported they do not have much to be proud of. Among all respondents, 41.0% had high self-esteem and 59.0% had low self-esteem. Females had low self-esteem (34.7%) than males (24.1%) but the relationship was not statistically significant.

In terms of the differences between males and females, Rodrigues and colleagues (2013) found that there were significant differences between males and females in emotional

and physical self-esteem $F(1, 512) = 18.58$ and $F(1, 512) = 38.42$ respectively. On average, males obtained higher scores than females on both dimensions (emotional: $M = 6.07$, $SD = 2.07$, vs. $M = 5.29$, $SD = 1.95$; physical: $M = 7.20$, $SD = 1.76$, vs. $M = 6.22$, $SD = 1.75$). In terms of age, they found that older adolescents obtained significantly higher scores in emotional self-esteem than younger adolescents ($M = 6.01$, $SD = 2.14$, vs. $M = 5.42$, $SD = 1.95$). In the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2007), they indicated that girls reported higher academic self-esteem than boys ($M = 6.88$, $SD = 1.76$; $F = 7.82$, $p = .005$) whilst, boys reported higher emotional self-esteem than girls ($M = 4.54$, $SD = 2.04$; $F = 13.79$, $p < .001$). In the study conducted by Hirata and Kamakura (2018), the self-esteem level of males ($M = 3.105$) were higher than the females ($M = 3.077$). In terms of age, adolescents 14-15 years of age ($M = 7.47$, $SD = 2.02$) indicated lower family self-esteem than adolescents 11-13 years of age ($M = 7.78$, $SD = 1.78$; $F = 4.02$, $p = .046$).

In the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2020), in academic self-esteem, the results indicated the main effects for each country, $F(2, 2043) = 36.76$, $p < 0.001$, sex, $F(2, 2043) = 13.72$, $p < 0.001$, and age, $F(2, 2043) = 14.88$, $p < 0.001$. Young people from Portugal ($M = 6.78$, $SD = 1.49$) and Brazil ($M = 6.95$, $SD = 1.67$) reported higher levels of academic self-esteem than young people from Spain ($M = 6.20$, $SD = 1.91$). Females ($M = 6.72$, $SD = 1.70$) indicated higher levels of academic self-esteem than males ($M = 6.49$, $SD = 1.77$) and early adolescents ($M = 6.74$, $SD = 1.81$) reported higher scores than late adolescents ($M = 6.41$, $SD = 1.60$). In social self-esteem, the results revealed the main effects for each country, $F(2, 2043) = 12.58$, $p < 0.001$. Young people from Brazil ($M = 8.16$, $SD = 1.25$) indicated the highest scores whilst, young people from Spain ($M = 7.79$, $SD = 1.41$) indicated the lowest scores. In emotional self-esteem, an interaction effect was found between sex, age and country ($F(2, 2043) = 7.17$, $p = 0.001$). In Portugal, females in late adolescence showed higher scores than females in early adolescence whilst in Spain early adolescents obtained

higher scores than late adolescents. On the other hand, males in their late adolescence indicated higher scores on emotional self-esteem than males in their early adolescence in Spain and Portugal, however this was not found in Brazil. In family self-esteem, an interaction effect between age and country was found ($F(2,2043) = 3.01$, $p = 0.049$). Only in Spain late adolescents reported less family self-esteem than early adolescents. In terms of physical self-esteem, an interaction effect between sex and country was found ($F(2,2043) = 5.13$, $p = 0.006$). Sex related differences indicated a similar pattern for each country; males obtained higher scores on physical self-esteem than females in Spain, Portugal and Brazil.

Parenting styles and Self-esteem

For the effects of parenting styles on self-esteem of young people, Rodrigues and colleagues (2013) reported that indulgent parenting style was related to higher academic self-esteem ($M = 6.98$) than authoritarian ($M = 6.40$) and neglectful parenting styles ($M = 6.41$). With respect to emotional ($M = 5.93$) and social self-esteem ($M = 7.75$), young people of indulgent parents obtained higher scores on self-esteem than young people of authoritarian parents ($M = 5.22$; $M = 7.24$). In terms of family self-esteem, young people from indulgent families ($M = 8.92$) obtained higher scores than young people from authoritative ($M = 8.34$), authoritarian ($M = 6.91$) and neglectful families ($M = 6.57$).

Milevsky and colleagues (2006) reported the results separately for maternal and paternal parenting styles. With respect to maternal parenting styles and self-esteem of young people, higher scores of self-esteem were obtained from those who have authoritative mothers ($M = 4.20$) whereas young people scored higher on self-esteem who have permissive fathers ($M = 4.14$), followed by authoritative parenting style ($M = 4.13$). Neglectful parenting style led to the lowest score of self-esteem for both maternal ($M = 3.51$) and paternal parenting style ($M = 3.56$).

In the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2007), young people of authoritative (M=7.44) and indulgent (M=7.74) families obtained higher scores on academic self-esteem than young people of authoritarian (M=6.78) and neglectful (M=6.65) families. Young people from authoritative parents scored higher on social (M=7.41), family (M=8.16) and physical (M=6.83) self-esteem dimensions. On the other hand, young people from authoritarian parents scored the lowest on social (M=6.70), family (M=6.33) and physical self-esteem (M=6.31).

Martinez and Garcia (2008) indicated that young people from authoritative (M=7.33) and indulgent (M=7.39) families had higher scores on academic self-esteem than young people from authoritarian (M=6.35) and neglectful families (M=6.63). However, social self-esteem only differed between indulgent (M=7.45) and authoritarian (M=6.84) families which had the lowest scores of self-esteems. The family self-esteem of young people who have indulgent (M=8.87) parents scored the highest whilst the scores of authoritative parenting style (M=7.93) was higher than authoritarian (M=6.02) and neglectful parenting styles (M=7.33). Young people of authoritarian families got the lowest scores on family self-esteem (M=6.02). Young people from indulgent families (M=7.07) scored higher on physical self-esteem than those from authoritarian (M=6.26) or neglectful families (M=6.04); and young people from authoritative families (M=6.70) obtained higher scores than those from authoritarian families (M=6.26) on physical self-esteem.

In the study conducted by Martinez and Garcia (2007), the results indicated that young people of indulgent parents (M=6.48) had higher academic self-esteem than the others who had parents from different parenting styles, whilst young people from authoritarian families (M=5.47) had the lowest scores for academic self-esteem. Young people who perceived their parents as indulgent (M=8.84) scored higher on family self-esteem than those

who had parents from other parenting styles. Furthermore, family self-esteem was higher in young people who have authoritative parents ($M=8.42$) than in those who have authoritarian ($M=7.08$) and neglectful parents ($M=7.85$); and young people from authoritarian parents scored the lowest level of family self-esteem ($M=7.08$).

Hong and colleagues (2015) investigate the correlation between parenting styles and self-esteem of young people by using Pearson correlation analysis. It is stated that authoritarian parenting style was negatively correlated with self-esteem ($r = -0.611$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, authoritative ($r = 0.471$, $p < 0.01$) and permissive ($r = 0.420$, $p < 0.01$) parenting styles were positively correlated with self-esteem of young people.

In the study conducted by Hirata and Kamakura (2018), it is stated that authoritative parenting style had a significant influence on female ($\beta = .282$, $p < .001$) and male young peoples' ($\beta = .170$, $p < .05$) self-esteem. R^2 shows how much variance is explained by the models. According to findings, the variance is explained much better with the model for females than males. Since the coefficient of authoritative variable for females ($\beta = .282$) was higher than males ($\beta = .170$), it can be argued that being female increases self-esteem more than being male.

Aremu and colleagues (2019) reported that more than half (53.6%) of the young people who have high self-esteem evaluated their fathers as flexible (authoritative) whilst 69.4% of the young people who have low self-esteem evaluated their fathers as neglectful. Half of the participants (51.0%) who have high self-esteem perceived their mothers as flexible whilst 71.8% of the participants who have low self-esteem perceived their mothers as neglectful. In addition, Pearson correlation coefficient test indicated that fathers' parenting style shows a positive and significant relationship between flexible parenting style and self-esteem ($r= 0.141$, $p= .001$), while a negative statistically significant relationship exists

between authoritarian parenting style and self-esteem ($r= 0.077$, $p= .042$). The results of maternal parenting style also indicate a statistically significant positive relationship between flexible parenting style and self-esteem ($r=0.137$, $p= .001$) and significant positive relationship between either maternal and paternal parenting style and self-esteem of young people.

In the study conducted by Yun and colleagues (2019), it is reported that, only authoritarian parenting style had a positive Pearson correlation coefficient with self-esteem (.090); authoritative (-.195) and permissive (-.153) parenting styles had negative Pearson correlation coefficient which means they have negative linear relationship. Overall, the level of self-esteem of young people was negatively influenced by perceived parenting style.

Martinez and colleagues (2020) stated that indulgent parenting style was related to the highest scores on each dimension of self-esteem whereas, authoritarian parenting style was related to the lowest scores on each dimension of self-esteem. In academic self-esteem, young people who have indulgent parents scored higher ($M=7.07$) than authoritative parents ($M=6.79$) followed by neglectful parents ($M=6.34$). In social self-esteem, young people who perceived their parents as indulgent ($M=8.22$) and authoritative ($M=8.10$) scored higher than those with neglectful ($M=7.81$) and authoritarian ($M=7.68$) parents. In emotional self-esteem, authoritarian parenting style ($M=4.92$) was related to lower scores than neglectful ($M=5.49$) and authoritative ($M=5.24$) parenting styles. In family self-esteem, young people of indulgent families ($M=8.90$) obtained higher scores than those of other parenting styles, young people from authoritative ($M=8.58$) families obtained higher scores than authoritarian ($M= 7.32$) and neglectful ($M=7.99$) families, and the lowest scores obtained from authoritarian parenting. Lastly, in physical self-esteem indulgent parenting ($M=6.71$) was related to higher scores than authoritarian ($M=6.21$) and neglectful ($M=6.22$) parenting.

In the study conducted by McKinney and colleagues (2008), it is stated that both males and females relate authoritative parenting style to higher levels of self-esteem. The correlation between females' perception of authoritative parenting style and self-esteem was .30 and statistically significant and males' perception of authoritative parenting style and self-esteem was .23 and statistically significant. On the other hand, the correlation between females' perception of authoritarian parenting style and self-esteem was -.25 and statistically significant whereas males' perception of authoritative parenting style and self-esteem was -.16 and it not statistically significant.

Other outcomes

Milevsky and colleagues (2006) assessed depression and life satisfaction of young people apart from self-esteem. Depression was assessed with the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Short Depression Scale (Andresen, Malmgren, Carter, & Patrick, 1994; Radloff, 1977). The scale was designed to ask participants their feelings and behaviors and asked to state how often they felt this way during the past week. Items were such as "I was bothered by things that usually don't bother me," and "I felt that everything I did was an effort." Responses were scored on a 1 to 4 scale, 1 "rarely or none of the time" and 4 "all of the time," that higher scores indicate higher levels of depression. Life satisfaction was assessed by asking the participants to indicate how satisfied they are with their life these days on a scale from 1 to 7, with 1 being extremely dissatisfied and 7 being extremely satisfied (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976).

Martinez and Garcia (2008), Martinez and Garcia (2007) and Martinez and colleagues (2020) investigated internalization of values of young people along with self-esteem. Self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence) and conservation (tradition, conformity, and security) values of young people were assessed with the Schwartz (1992) value inventory,

adapted from Struch and colleagues (2002). Participants scored the importance of each value using a 99-point rating scale from 1 (opposed to my values) to 99 (of supreme importance).

Hirata and Kamakura (2018) measured personal growth initiative along with self-esteem of young people. The Personal Growth Initiative Scale (PGIS-II; Robitschek et al., 2012) is a multidimensional measure of PGI which consists of 16 items and assesses one's compliance with growth experiences and improving his/herself. The Japanese version of the PGIS -II was translated by Tokuyoshi and Iwasaki (2014). This scale consists of 4 subscales: readiness for change (four items); planfulness (five items); using resources (three items); and intentional behavior (four items). Participants rated the items on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (definitely disagree) to 6 (definitely agree).

McKinney and colleagues (2008) investigated depression and anxiety of young people apart from self-esteem. The Beck Depression Inventory (BDI-II; Beck, Steer, & Brown, 1996) was used in order to assess depression with a 21- item scale. Participants answer statements about themselves on a 4-point scale which indicates the severity of a symptom. Anxiety was measured with Manifest Anxiety Scale (MAS; Taylor, 1953) which is a 50-item scale and aims to measure adolescent anxiety. Young people answered true/false statements about symptoms related to anxiety.

Milevsky and colleagues (2006) indicated that maternal authoritative parenting style scored higher on life satisfaction ($M=5.97$) and lower on depression of young people ($M=1.70$) than the other parenting styles. Paternal parenting style yielded the same results as maternal parenting style; the scores of life satisfaction ($M=5.94$) was higher and depression ($M=1.67$) was lower on young people who have authoritative fathers than other types of parenting style.

Martinez and Garcia (2008) stated that parenting styles had statistically significant main effects on all self-transcendence and conservation values. Young people of authoritative and indulgent families gave more priority to universalism, benevolence and conformity values than those of authoritarian or neglectful families. Young people of authoritarian families scored the lowest on all values. Higher priority to benevolence was reported by participants from indulgent (M=9.08) and authoritative (M=8.85). Young people with authoritative parents scored higher in security values (M=8.68) than those with authoritarian (M=7.42) and neglectful parents (M=8.17).

Martinez and Garcia (2007) found that authoritative (M=7.65) families gave higher priority to universalism values than authoritarian (M=7.40) and neglectful families (M=7.23). Higher priority was given to benevolence values by young people of authoritative (M=7.89) and indulgent parents (M=7.89) than by those of authoritarian (M=7.65) and neglectful families (M=7.44). In the conservation of values, the highest scores were obtained from young people of authoritative parents in conformity (M=7.81), tradition (M=6.40) and security (M=7.52).

In the study conducted by Hirata and Kamakura (2018), it is found that in male participants, the authoritative parenting style had significant influence on intentional behaviour ($\beta = .326, p < .001$), planfulness ($\beta = .292, p < .001$), readiness for change ($\beta = .187, p < .05$) and using resources ($\beta = .188, p < .05$). In female participants, the authoritative parenting style had a significant influence on intentional behaviour ($\beta = .197, p < .01$), planfulness ($\beta = .375, p < .001$), readiness for change ($\beta = .447, p < .001$) and using resources ($\beta = .289, p < .00$). However, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles had no significant influence on PGI.

In the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2020), young people of indulgent and authoritative parents gave higher priority to self-transcendence values (i.e., universalism and benevolence) and conservation values (security, conformity, and tradition) than their peers from authoritarian and neglectful parents. In self-transcendence values, indulgent parenting style obtained the highest score both for universalism and (M=8.15) benevolence (M=8.35) followed by authoritative parenting style (M=8.12; M=8.23) and the lowest score was obtained from neglectful parenting style (M=7.55; M=7.86). In the conservation values higher priority was given by authoritative parents to security (M=7.97) and tradition values (M=7.04) whilst conformity values were the highest in indulgent parents (M=8.21).

McKinney and colleagues (2008) stated that authoritative parenting style was related to lower levels of depression and anxiety both in males and females. In terms of anxiety, males' anxiety was negatively associated with authoritative parenting style by having a correlation of -.14, but it was not statistically significant. On the other hand, females' anxiety was statistically significant and negatively correlated with authoritative parenting style (-.21). Conversely, authoritarian parenting style was positively associated and statistically significant with anxiety for both males (.24) and females (.31). With regard to depression, the results for females were statistically significant indicating that authoritarian parenting style was positively (.27) and authoritative (-.20) parenting style was negatively associated with depression. The results of males were at the same line with females, negative correlation with authoritative (-.16) and positive correlation with authoritarian (.07), however they were not statistically significant.

3.5 Assessment of Quality

The NIH Quality Assessment Tool for Cross-Sectional Studies was chosen to assess the quality of eleven studies. The tool was implemented by a questionnaire that compares the

qualities of the studies across a range of different topics such as outcome, exposure measures, clearly defined method and statistical analysis. The rating of the mentioned segments was referred to as Yes, No or Other (Cannot Determine, Not Applicable, Not Reported). In the included studies, some segments were not applicable due to the nature of cross-sectional studies such as; follow up rate, blinding of outcome measures, repeated exposure assessment and different levels of the exposure of interest.

Regarding the clear research question, each study reported their aim and it was easy to understand what they were trying to find because high quality scientific research explicitly defines a research question. In terms of clearly defined population, every study defined the group of people from which the study participants were selected, using demographics, location, and time period. However, Aremu and colleagues (2019), and Milevsky and colleagues (2006) did not mention the age range and Hong and colleagues (2015) did not mention the mean age of the recruited participants. In addition, at least 50% participation rate was important because when fewer than 50% of the people participated in the study, there could be a concern that the study population does not adequately represent the target population, which increases the risk of bias. Martinez and colleagues (2020), McKinney and colleagues (2008), Hirata and Kamakura (2018) and Milevsky and colleagues (2006) failed to report any participation rate. The inclusion and exclusion criteria were clearly defined in all studies that gave clearly defined method of the included studies. Martinez and colleagues (2020), Martinez and Garcia (2007), Martinez and Garcia (2008), Martinez and colleagues (2007) and Rodrigues and colleagues (2013) reported the statistical power of the study, whilst none of the studies specified why they chose the selected population.

In the NIH Quality Assessment Tool for Cross-Sectional Studies it is indicated that for the question of “were the exposure(s) of interest measured prior to the outcome(s) being

measured?" the answer should be "no" for cross-sectional analyses because generally exposures and outcomes are measured during the same timeframe. The same method was applied for the question of "Sufficient timeframe to see an effect". Due to the nature of cross-sectional studies, they allow no time to see an effect, because exposures and outcomes are assessed at the same time, so those would get a "no" response. Follow up rate, repeated exposure assessment and blinding of outcome measures were not applicable for cross-sectional studies as well.

For the purpose of the current review, the only exposure was the parenting style, therefore there are no "different levels of the exposure of interest" in any of the included studies. The exposure measures and assessment were done very explicitly in every study, the tools and measures used were reliable and validated which are Parental Authority Questionnaire (Buri, 1991), ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale (Musitu & Garcia, 2001) and Acceptance/Involvement and Strictness/ Supervision sub-scales of Authoritative Parenting Measure (Steinberg et al., 1994). It is important because it influences confidence in the reported exposures. When exposures are measured with less accuracy or validity, it becomes hard to see an association between exposure and outcome.

In terms of outcomes; details, tools or methods for measuring outcomes were accurate and reliable. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) and Multidimensional Self-esteem Scale AF5 (Garcia & Musitu, 1999) have been validated and are objective scales. This issue is important because it influences confidence in the validity of study results. Statistical analysis is the last question of the tool that investigates whether key potential confounding variables were measured; every included study gave importance to statistical analysis in the results section.

In addition to the NIH Quality Assessment Tool, it is also observed that reporting bias can be seen that the authors do not report the findings objectively. For instance, in the abstract of the study conducted by Yun and colleagues (2019), the participants were indicated as consisting of 500 young people however in the methods section it is stated that there were 504 young people as participants. There was a reporting bias which was written in the abstract wrongly.

The rating by segment can be seen in **Table 4**.



TABLE 4 *NIH Quality Assessment Tool for Cross-Sectional Studies*

	Clear research question	Clearly defined population	At least 50% participation rate	Groups recruited from the same population	Sample size justification	Exposure assessed prior to outcome measurement	Sufficient timeframe to see an effect	Different levels of the exposure of interest	Exposure measures and assessment	Repeated exposure assessment	Outcome measures	Blinding of outcome assessors	Follow-up rate	Statistical analyses
Martinez and colleagues (2020)	YES	YES	NR	YES	YES	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
McKinney and colleagues (2008)	YES	YES	NR	YES	NO	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
Yun and colleagues (2019)	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
Aremu and colleagues (2019)	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
Hirata and Kamakura (2018)	YES	YES	NR	YES	NO	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
Hong and colleagues (2015)	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
Martinez and Garcia (2007)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
Martinez and Garcia (2008)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
Martinez and colleagues (2007)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
Milevsky and colleagues (2006)	YES	NO	NR	YES	NO	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES
Rodrigues and colleagues (2013)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NA	YES	NA	YES	NA	NA	YES

3.6 Narrative Summary:

The culmination of the review shows evidence that parenting styles have an effect on self-esteem of young people. There was no one conclusion about which parenting style has the highest effect on young people's self-esteem. For instance, indulgent parenting style was associated with the highest levels of self-esteem in all dimensions in the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2020); highest levels of emotional, social, academic and family self-esteem in the study conducted by Rodrigues and colleagues (2013); highest levels of academic self-esteem in the study of Martinez and colleagues (2007); highest levels of academic, social, family and physical self-esteem (Martinez and Garcia, 2008); highest levels of academic and family self-esteem (Martinez and Garcia, 2007) and highest levels of self-esteem perceived from their fathers in the study conducted by Milevsky and colleagues (2006). On the other hand, authoritative parenting style was associated with the highest levels of self-esteem in the studies conducted by Hirata and Kamakura (2018), McKinney and colleagues (2008) and Aremu and colleagues (2019); highest levels of social, family and physical self-esteem in the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2007) and highest levels of self-esteem perceived from their mothers in the study conducted by Milevsky and colleagues (2006). In addition, Hong and colleagues (2015) concluded that indulgent and authoritative parenting styles were associated with higher levels of self-esteem, whereas Yun and colleagues (2019) stated that only authoritarian parenting style has a positive correlation with self-esteem of the young people.

In terms of the lowest association between parenting styles and young people's self-esteem, authoritarian parenting style was found to be related to the lowest scores of self-esteem. For instance, Rodrigues and colleagues (2013) reported lower levels of self-esteem in all dimensions; lowest levels of family, social and physical self-esteem in the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2007); lowest scores were stated on academic, social

and family self-esteem in the study conducted by Martinez and Garcia (2008); lower levels of academic and family self-esteem in the study conducted by Martinez and Garcia (2007) and lowest scores obtained from the studies conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2020) and McKinney and colleagues (2008) for both male and female participants. On the other hand, lower levels of self-esteem was associated with neglectful parenting styles such as; Milevsky and colleagues (2006) stated that perceived maternal and paternal parenting style was associated with lower levels of self-esteem; Martinez and colleagues (2007) reported lower scores on academic self-esteem and Martinez and Garcia (2008) found lower scores for physical self-esteem. Aremu and colleagues (2019) stated the negative relationship between self-esteem and authoritarian, neglectful and indulgent parenting styles; Hong and colleagues (2015) reported that authoritarian parenting style was negatively correlated with self-esteem and lastly, Yun and colleagues (2019) indicated that authoritative and indulgent parenting styles were negatively correlated with young people's self-esteem.

Generally, studies stated the main effects of parenting styles on self-esteem of young people. For instance, in terms of parenting styles; Martinez and colleagues (2007) stated significant main effects for all dimensions of self-esteem except emotional self-esteem. Milevsky and colleagues (2006) stated the significant main effect of self-esteem for maternal and paternal parenting style; Rodrigues and colleagues (2013) reported significant main effects for all self-esteem dimensions except physical self-esteem; Martinez and Garcia (2007) found significant main effects for academic and family self-esteem; Martinez and colleagues (2020) stated significant interaction effects and Martinez and Garcia (2008) indicated significant main effects for self-esteem, however post hoc Bonferroni analyses did not show any differences for emotional self-esteem. McKinney and colleagues (2008), Hong and colleagues (2015) and Aremu and colleagues (2019) reported positive statistically significant relationship between maternal and paternal parenting styles and self-esteem.

However, Yun and colleagues (2019) stated that young people's self-esteem was negatively influenced by their perceived parenting styles.

That being said, effect sizes of the studies were indicated in the studies conducted by Martinez and Garcia (2007), Martinez and colleagues (2020) and Rodrigues and colleagues (2013). In the study conducted by Martinez and Garcia (2007), priori power analysis indicated that 1424 participants were needed to detect an unfavourable small effect size ($f = .10$) with a power of .90 ($\alpha = .05, 1 - \beta = .90$) in F-test among the four parenting styles (Erdfelder, Faul, & Buchner, 1996). In the study conducted by Rodrigues and colleagues (2013), although the sample size was lower than expected, the sensitivity analysis (Faul et al., 2009; García et al., 2008) indicated that it could detect ($N = 514, \alpha = \beta = .05$) the expected effect size ($f = .18$) with a power close to the priori fixed value ($1 - \beta = .94$). Additionally, Martinez and colleagues (2020) stated that, the sensitivity power analysis of the full sample ($N = 2091, \alpha = \beta = 0.05$) indicated that F main effects between the four parenting styles can detect even a small effect size ($f = 0.09$) [63,64,66]. The nearest 5% ($n = 121$) cases included the inconsistencies and were deleted from the study sample.

4. DISCUSSION

Despite the important efforts to put forward the relationship of parenting styles and self-esteem of young people, a systematic review was lacking to investigate the influence of different parenting styles on young people's self-esteem. Thereby, this review was written in order to gain a deeper insight into the influence of four parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, neglectful) to self-esteem of young people. After investigating four electronic databases which are; PsycArticles, PsycInfo, Scopus and Web of Science, eleven studies (Hirata and Kamakura, 2018; Milevsky et al., 2006; Hong et al., 2015; Martinez and Garcia, 2007; Martinez and Garcia, 2008; Rodrigues et al., 2013; Aremu et al., 2019; Martinez et al., 2007; Martinez et al., 2020; McKinney et al., 2008; Yun et al., 2019) were selected for the relevance with regard to selection criteria. The eleven studies had a commonality in that they all used quantitative methods along with cross-sectional and correlational studies.

The literature search on the subject revealed that parenting styles have an impact on young people's self-esteem although differing conclusions were noted about which parenting style leads to higher levels of self-esteem due to the heterogeneity of the population. The higher levels of self-esteem were obtained from young people who have authoritative and indulgent families and lower levels of self-esteem were reported from young people who have neglectful and authoritarian families in accordance with the previously published research. In terms of the differences among females and males; females reported higher levels of academic self-esteem (Martinez et al., 2020; Martinez et al., 2007; Martinez and Garcia, 2008; Martinez and Garcia, 2007) whereas males reported higher levels of physical self-esteem (Martinez et al., 2020; Martinez and Garcia, 2007; Rodrigues et al., 2013) and emotional self-esteem (Martinez et al., 2007; Martinez and Garcia, 2008; Martinez and Garcia, 2007; Rodrigues et al., 2013).

Evidentially, self-esteem of the young people was higher on perceived authoritative and indulgent parenting styles which have high levels of warmth, and lower on perceived authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles which have low levels of warmth. Parental warmth indicates higher levels of self-esteem, whereas strictness was not of much importance compared to parental warmth. In addition, although fathers are more prone to have distant relationships with their children than the mothers (Wall and Arnold, 2007), parenting styles of mothers and fathers indicate similar associations with young people's self-esteem in some studies comparing maternal and paternal parenting styles. This similarity can be due to the fact that in most families mothers and fathers tend to be congruent on their parenting styles (Milevsky et al., 2006). However, in terms of emotional adjustment, maternal parenting style have a greater influence than paternal parenting style. Higher levels of care and authoritative parenting style were associated with better emotional adjustment, whilst higher levels of overprotection and authoritarian parenting style were associated with poorer emotional adjustment (McKinney et al., 2008).

Some studies investigated other outcomes along with self-esteem such as life satisfaction, depression, internalization of values and anxiety. It is noted that the other outcomes have associations with self-esteem. For instance, positive influence of indulgent parenting style on young people's self-esteem can be generalized to internalization of values as well (Martinez and Garcia, 2007). Similarly, Martinez and Garcia (2008) stated that perceived indulgent parenting style does not differ in self-transcendence and conservation values which have the same or higher levels on self-esteem. Along the same line, higher self-esteem and life satisfaction with lower depression was associated with perceived authoritative parenting style (Milevsky et al., 2006). Hirata and Kamakura (2018) supported the previous findings by indicating that authoritative parenting style had a significant effect on both personal growth initiative and self-esteem, and the same effect for self-esteem and personal

growth initiative on perceived permissive and authoritarian parenting style, showing no significant effects.

The variety in the results of the included studies highlights the differences between the cultural contexts along with other variables such as sex and age which can influence young people's self-esteem. Depending on the characteristics of the culture (Chao, 2001), some parenting styles can have different meanings and can be related to different parenting objectives (Rao, McHale and Pearson, 2003). Thus, the impact of parenting styles on young people can be different in different cultures (Martinez and Garcia, 2007).

Having high or low self-esteem in young people can change their lives dramatically. Parker and Benson (2004) claimed that a person who has high levels of self-esteem has high levels of confidence, emotional stability, social competence and cognitive development. In addition, they can solve their own problems when they have high levels of self-esteem (Philipchalk, 1995). Conversely, too much perceived control can cause low self-esteem because they are not allowed to reject the future directions given and comply with the rules given by their parents (Smith, 2007). Furthermore, for the psychosocial development of their children, parents who adopt authoritarian parenting style tend to have a negative impact and affect the adjustment of the self. The low self-esteem is about the intensive changes of the person undergoing internal changes such as bodily changes or external changes such as relationships with their family and friends (Yun et al., 2019).

As a result, the eleven studies showed parenting styles have an impact on young people's self-esteem, despite the fact that which parenting style was related to higher levels of self-esteem was different. This difference can be occurred since the only influence on young people's self-esteem is not merely the parents. In this regard, young people can also be

influenced by a variety of settings inside and outside the family such as family structure, parental employment, peers or school.

Limitations of the included studies

While searching through the studies, several limitations were discovered, the most common limitation was the fact that young people report their own and their parents' behaviour (Martinez et al., 2020; McKinney et al., 2008; Yun et al., 2019; Aremu et al., 2019; Hong et al., 2015; Martinez and Garcia, 2007; Martinez and Garcia, 2008; Martinez et al., 2007; Rodrigues et al., 2013), that can lead to social desirability bias or memory bias despite the fact that young people's reports show lower social desirability than their parents' reports (Barry et al., 2008). Another most common limitation was that the results of the included studies could not be generalized to the overall population because the sample was not a representative of the overall population, leading to low external validity (Sedgwick, 2013). Third, as the majority of the studies were cross-sectional, the conclusions about directionality were generally based on the previous literature on parenting research. In addition, because of the nature of correlational studies, they were unable to determine causation. Fourth, Yun and colleagues (2019) reported an issue about the validity and reliability of the results because the language used in the questionnaire is English which is the second language of the participants. According to Kaplan & Saccuzzo (2017), the validity and reliability of the scale could be affected by the participants' knowledge of the language that is used in questionnaire. Fifth, there has been a limitation in terms of the imbalance of the number between males and females in the study conducted by Hong and colleagues (2015).

Limitations of this review

This systematic review was also limited on account of the difficulty to access some articles on Queen Mary Online Library, some papers were not accessible. In order to find a larger size of related studies than the pilot study, the number of used databases were increased from 3 to 4. However, a large amount of study could not be found with the newly added database studies. Furthermore, the included studies did not include all four types of parenting styles and the dimensions of self-esteem. For instance, in the studies conducted by Hirata and Kamakura (2018), Hong and colleagues (2015), McKinney and colleagues (2008) and Yun and colleagues (2019), neglectful parenting style was not included. Besides, Milevsky and colleagues (2006) did not investigate all dimensions of self-esteem as well. There could be more clear results if the studies only investigate three or four parenting styles. However, since it was difficult to find studies that investigate the all four types of parenting styles and all dimensions of self-esteem, it was necessary to include those studies in order to provide a sufficient number of studies. Furthermore, as the studies were conducted across different countries, the obtained results were specific to that country and culture. In addition, only studies in English were used in this review and because of this, other possibly important studies had to be excluded due to other languages being used.

Strengths of the included studies

Beyond these limitations, one of the strengths of the included studies in this systematic review was the performance of a priori sample size calculation of some studies in order to reduce the possibility of a Type II error in statistical inference (Martinez et al., 2020; Martinez and Garcia, 2007; Rodrigues et al., 2013). In addition to that, analysing parenting style was done across different cultures in the study conducted by Martinez and colleagues (2020) which can lead to generalization of the findings for that study.

Strengths of this review

This review has also strengths along with the limitations. Firstly, as self-esteem is a broad term, in order to reach as many studies as possible the inclusion criteria was broadened and did not specify self-esteem in terms of its dimensions. Furthermore, the date of the publication of the chosen studies to include in this review ranged from 2007 to 2020. The close publication date of the selected studies to the present time increased the validity, reliability and actuality of findings. In addition to that, due to the cultural variety of studies included, this review can indicate the differences among parenting styles and culture.

Clinical Implications and Future Directions

With regard to future research, as there is insufficient evidence for the effects of parenting styles on levels of self-esteem being available thus far, there is a need for more longitudinal studies in that field. Furthermore, experimental studies can be more helpful in order to test causal relations such as randomised control trials that can educate the parents in order to be more authoritative or permissive towards their offspring, and then check whether there is a change in the self-esteem. Notably, investigating the role of culture on parenting styles and potential effects on self-esteem can be taken into account. Furthermore, in order to assess self-esteem levels across different ages, a new scale is needed.

Conclusions

The purpose of this systematic review was to focus on the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem across a range of ages. The results emphasized the effectiveness and the importance of four parenting styles and change on self-esteem levels

according to various parenting styles. It was not eventually possible to conclude on which parenting style is more effective in terms of higher levels of self-esteem due to the inconsistencies of cultural varieties and measurement differences. However, the results of this review can expand the area of research on parenting styles and self-esteem. In brief, parents are the ones who help to generate their offspring's self-esteem.



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APPENDIX

Quality Assessment Tool for Observational Cohort and Cross-Sectional Studies

Criteria	Yes	No	Other (CD, NR, NA)*
1. Was the research question or objective in this paper clearly stated?			
2. Was the study population clearly specified and defined?			
3. Was the participation rate of eligible persons at least 50%?			
4. Were all the subjects selected or recruited from the same or similar populations (including the same time period)? Were inclusion and exclusion criteria for being in the study prespecified and applied uniformly to all participants?			
5. Was a sample size justification, power description, or variance and effect estimates provided?			
6. For the analyses in this paper, were the exposure(s) of interest measured prior to the outcome(s) being measured?			
7. Was the timeframe sufficient so that one could reasonably expect to see an association between exposure and outcome if it existed?			
8. For exposures that can vary in amount or level, did the study examine different levels of the exposure as related to the outcome (e.g., categories of exposure, or exposure measured as continuous variable)?			
9. Were the exposure measures (independent variables) clearly defined, valid, reliable, and implemented consistently across all study participants?			
10. Was the exposure(s) assessed more than once over time?			
11. Were the outcome measures (dependent variables) clearly defined, valid, reliable, and implemented consistently across all study participants?			
12. Were the outcome assessors blinded to the exposure status of participants?			
13. Was loss to follow-up after baseline 20% or less?			
14. Were key potential confounding variables measured and adjusted statistically for their impact on the relationship between exposure(s) and outcome(s)?			