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Parenting Styles as Antecedent to Self-Esteem of Adolescents in Rongai Sub-County, Nakuru County, Kenya

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Article info	Abstract
Article history:	Adolescence is a time when teenagers try to balance their own wants and
Received August 2022	needs with the wishes of their parents. Consequently, parenting styles play a
Reviewed September 2022	key role in helping young people either overcome this developmental
Accepted October 2022	milestone without much challenge or instill negative lived experiences with
Published November 2022	detrimental effects on their self-esteem. This article focuses on the role of parenting style in developing adolescent self-esteem. A descriptive survey
Keywords:	was conducted on a target population of 38411 adolescents in the Rongai
Adolescents	sub-county of Nakuru, Kenya. A self-response questionnaire was
Self-esteem	administered to stratified random samples of 450 respondents aged 13 to 19
Parenting styles	years. A total of 380 questionnaires were completed in full, which
Self-concept	corresponds to a response rate of 84.4%. The respondents comprised 204 (53.5%) female and 176 (46.5%) male. 252 (66.3%) of the respondents had
How to cite this article:	both parents, 108 (28.5%) single parents and 20 (5.2%) legal guardians. Self-
Kay, J (2022). Parenting Styles	esteem was high in 169 (44.4%), moderate in 134 (35.2%), and low in 78
as Antecedent to Self-	(20.4%) of the respondents respectively. Authoritarian parenting accounted
Esteem of Adolescents in	for 278 (73.2%), compared to authoritarian 78 (20%) and permissive
Rongai Sub-County,	parenting 26 (6.8%). Self-esteem was highest in adolescents with
Nakuru County, Kenya.	authoritative parenting 214 (56.28%) compared to 46 (12%) with
East African Journal of	authoritarian parenting and 44 (11.6%) with permissive parenting. The p-
Humanities and Social	value was calculated to be <0.001 by the chi-square test, and therefore the
Sciences. 1(1): 46-57	association between parenting style and adolescent self-esteem was found to
	be significant. The result of this study presents significant implications for parenting styles and adolescent self-esteem in Rongai sub-county.

Introduction

Adolescence is a critical period of rapid development culminating in a unique sense of self and identity (Moksnes & Reidunsdatter, 2019; Okunlola et al., 2020). This period is usually accompanied by mood swings, risky behaviors, and conflicts with parents. If the developmental milestones are not properly negotiated, the developmental process can either be disrupted or blocked (Jinan, Yusof, Binti, Vellasamy, Ahmad, A blocked & Motevalli. 2022). Rahman. developmental process often leads to mental crises and a variety of mental health problems in adolescents (Peng, Hu, Yu, Xiao, & Luo, 2021). Interpersonal emotional, social, and physical adolescence interactions during can be influenced by these traits and consequently affect their self-esteem (Feist et al., 2012). intrapersonal Furthermore. interactions conceptualize implicit self-esteem in the form of positive or negative attitudes towards oneself (Boden et al., 2008; Rosenberg, 1965).

Adolescent mental health is influenced by many personal factors such as biological and psychological variables environmental and factors which include family, school and peer group are considered to be major factors (Carr, 2015). Parenting style is a variable of familial factors that have been shown to have a significant impact on adolescent mental health (Newman et al., 2008; Huang et al., 2010). Parental and family factors have influenced fluctuating self-esteem in adolescence (Emam & Abu-Serei, 2014). During adolescence, parents, along with peers, become a major contributor to self-esteem (Jinan, Yusof, Binti, Vellasamy, Ahmad, Rahman, & Motevalli, 2022). Therefore, the role of parents in caring for their children is significant (Setiana & Darmayanti, 2020).

The conceptualization of self-esteem has evolved over the years. Rosenberg (1965) operationalized it as the combination of thoughts and feelings about one's worth and importance. It is a personal evaluation that a person makes of themselves, their sense of their own worth, worth, importance, or abilities. Thus, self-esteem

can be been viewed as personal self-judgment and worth based primarily on externally imposed criteria, which include societal judgments or assumptions, family values, or perceived success and failure in various areas of life. Baumeister (1997) and Harter (1999) added that self-esteem is the evaluative and emotional dimension of self-concept that is considered equivalent to selfesteem, self-assessment, and self-worth. Building on this definition, some researchers view selfesteem as confidence in one's ability to think; Confidence in one's own ability to cope with basic life challenges; belief in one's right to be successful and happy; feeling worthy, deserving, and entitled to assert our needs and desires, achieve our values, and enjoy the benefits of our efforts. As a positive or negative attitude towards oneself, it encompasses the positive or negative orientation towards oneself. Viewed from this perspective, self-esteem is an individual's sense of one's worth or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves, appreciates, appreciates or likes.

Self-esteem is a crucial factor when it comes to understanding functioning of social, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral tendencies (Martinez et al., 2020). As an important element of a person's self-concept (Moksnes & Reidunsdatter, 2019; Shabanishad et al., 2019), self-esteem plays a crucial role in healthy growth of adolescents (Xin Yun et al., 2019). In addition, self-esteem allows one to adapt to life's challenges and to feel successful and happy, it improves the ability to think confidently, to feel valued and satisfied (Xin Yun et al., 2019). Meanwhile, Rosenberg identified it as a person's feelings and thoughts about self-esteem (Moksnes & Reidunsdatter, 2019). Self-esteem is also the affective and evaluative element of self-concept, which is vulnerable to various internal and external developments and changes during adolescence (Yun et al., 2019). Research has found that selfesteem contributes to both behavioral and psychological adaptation in young people. High self-esteem is associated with greater life satisfaction and acts as a catalyst against negative stresses such as depression and anxiety

(Martinez et al., 2020; Yun et al., 2019). Referring to previous research, higher self-esteem is inversely related to anxiety, fear, and depression, and is also positively related to life satisfaction and happiness. Furthermore, personal selfesteem lowers depression levels and is directly correlated with social group interactions (Okunlola et al., 2020). Thus, self-esteem shaped by parenting practices significantly influences emotional and social adjustments (Moon-Seo et al., 2021).

As one of the closest people in adolescents' lives, parents and their parenting styles have a significant impact on adolescents' personality, mental health, and self-esteem (Noordin et al., 2020). Darling and Steinberg (1993)conceptualized parenting styles as a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that together create an emotional climate in which the parent's behavior is expressed. Baumrind (1966; 1971) proposed three types of parenting styles characterized by responsiveness and entitlement: authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive parenting. Later came the fourth style, also characterized by responsiveness and demand, careless or uninvolved style (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The responsiveness dimension relates to how parents express love and affection, speak to their children, support them and argue with them (Axpe et al., 2019; Martnez et al., 2019; Martinez et al., 2020; Martnez & Garca, 2008). . While the entitlement dimension indicates the extent to which parents exercise supervision and control, maintain a position of authority, and set norms for children (Baumrind, 1991; Garcia & Serra, 2019).

Authoritarian parenting style is defined by less responsive parents but high demands (Hoskins, 2014). In this parenting style, parents restrict their children's autonomy and decide behavioral tendencies for them (Hesari & Hejazi, 2011). In contrast, the authoritative parenting style, defined as parents in control of children's decisions (Rahman et al., 2017), demonstrates the appropriate level of independence and mutual

parent-child relationship by providing high emotional support and skills combined. This style also includes dialogue for children to develop their talents and interests, with parents acting as controllers (Setiana & Darmavanti, 2020). This parenting style is a mixture of permissive and authoritarian styles (Hesari & Hejazi, 2011). The authoritative parenting style involves dialogues with children to develop their talents and interests, with parents acting as & Darmayanti, mentors (Setiana 2020). Additionally, this style gives children the permission and courage to expand their opinions and beliefs (Rahman et al., 2017). Setiana and Darmayanti (2020) found that an authoritative parenting style is effective compared to an authoritarian and permissive parenting style because it develops a positive adolescent selfrecommends concept and an adolescent parenting style to parents. Meanwhile, the permissive parenting style represents more parental responsiveness but less demand, leading to lower parental expectations of their children because they have paid more attention to them. Permissive parents encourage children's autonomy, allowing them to make their own decisions and have their activities (Hesari & Hejazi, 2011). In comparison, neglectful parenting is defined by the parents' lack of responsiveness and entitlement (Setiana & Darmayanti, 2020).

Many researchers have addressed the issue of parenting styles and their impact on adolescent self-esteem (e.g., Okunlola et al., 2020). A positive parenting style is related to positive predictors of self-esteem, while a negative parenting style can result in poor self-esteem (Aremu et al., 2019; Zakeri & Karimpour, 2011). Parenting style is one of the most important determinants of adolescent mental health (Rezvan & Dsouza, 2017). It is a psychological description of standard parenting strategies used by parents (Adimora et al., 2015). The interaction effect between parents and children has been empirically linked to children's self-esteem. Studies suggest that parenting style is related to self-esteem. Previous studies have suggested that children's self-esteem is positively related to a

permissive parenting style. However, the results of the studies on parental authority or control and self-esteem were not consistent. While some studies found that parental control has no relationship or negative relationship with selfesteem, other studies found that parental authority is positively related to self-esteem.

Reference research (Chen & Dornbusch, 1998; Prez-Fuentes et al., 2019; Rahman et al., 2017; Setiana & Darmayanti, 2020; Vazsonyi et al., 2003) shows that the more authoritarian the parents, the lower the self were appreciation of young people (Banica et al., 2019; Okunlola et al., 2020; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019). Pinquart and Gerke (2019) said that authoritarian and neglectful parenting is also associated with lower self-esteem in adolescents. The outcome for neglectful parenting led to the lowest self-esteem among adolescents (Okunlola et al., 2020).

Both interpersonal acceptance-rejection theory (IPAR) (i.e., the re-development of parental acceptance-rejection theory) and family systems theory indicate that parenting style has an impact on adolescent self-esteem (Peng, Hu, Yu, Xiao, & Luo, 2021). IPAR theory posits that interpersonal acceptance and rejection consistently across cultures and other sociodemographic predicts the groups psychological and behavioral adjustment of children and adults (Rohner, 2016; Rohner & Lansford, 2017). Parents are important caregivers for children in general, and parental acceptance and rejection has an extremely important impact on children's self-esteem (Peng, Hu, Yu, Xiao, & Luo, 2021). In particular, parental emotional warmth as a positive parenting style has a positive impact on youthful self-esteem; meanwhile, parental rejection as a negative parenting style has a negative and lasting impact on adolescent self-esteem (Rohner & Britner, 2002; Rohner et al., 2005; Rohner, 2016; Rohner and Lansford, 2017). On the other hand, according to the theory of the family system, the stability, harmony and health of the entire family system have a decisive influence on the psychological and emotional development of

children. The parent-child relationship is an important part of the family system. Parenting style exerts a crucial influence on the development of a child's self-esteem through the interactions of family functions (Bowen and Kerr, 2009). Cross-cultural comparative studies and meta-analyses have supported the above two theories (Khaleque, 2013; Wang et al., 2018; Rohner et al., 2019, 2020).

Vulnerability models suggest that high selfesteem protects individuals from the harmful effects of stress, while low self-esteem increases their vulnerability to the effects of stress (Zeigler-Hill, 2011; Moksnes and Reidunsdatter, 2019). This theory is supported by a variety of studies showing that self-esteem is positively correlated with physical and mental health, positive selfesteem has an important protective effect on adolescent mental health, while low self-esteem has a negative impact on adolescent mental health Adolescents impacts adolescent mental health and overall life satisfaction (Abe, 2004; Mann et al., 2004; Boden et al., 2008; Gao et al., 2015; Moksnes & Reidunsdatter, 2019; Pazzaglia et al., 2020).

Research focused on children has shown that the environment in which children grow up is a major contributor to the development of their self-esteem. This means that everything from school and family dynamics to socioeconomic status and parenting styles have a major impact on children. Some research has been conducted specifically examining the effect of the four parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and disinterested). There are some differences between the results in terms of parenting style related to self-esteem. Martinez and Garcia (2007) found that children of uninvolved parents had the highest self-esteem, while children of authoritarian parents had the lowest. Another study later conducted by Garcia Martinez and (2008) found that adolescents with indulgent parents had the same or higher levels of self-esteem than adolescents with authoritarian parents. Research also showed that teens with authoritarian and uninvolved

parents had the lowest self-esteem. Alternatively, Garcia and Gracia (2009) found that both the indulgent parenting style and the authoritarian parenting style children had the highest levels of self-esteem. It was also concluded that the authoritarian and indulgent parent-children scored the highest on self-esteem.

Based on these results, it is somewhat unclear which of the parenting styles can be considered the most successful based on the child's selfesteem, so further research is needed. Other research has found that certain qualities in a parent can lead to higher self-esteem. Childperceived quality of support predicted higher levels of implicit self-esteem in a study conducted by (Antonopoulou, Alexopoulos & Maridaki-Kassotaki, 2012). This means that children with neglectful parents are likely to have lower self-esteem. Additionally, parents who were perceived as more caring (authoritative and permissive) had a positive effect on their children's self-esteem, while parents who were perceived as overprotective (authoritarian) had a negative effect (DeHart, Pelham, & Tennen, 2006). . Additionally, emotional warmth (authoritative and permissive) was positively higher with self-esteem, correlated while negative loving, anger, and rejection were negatively correlated (Yang & Zhou, 2008).

Methodology

The descriptive survey was conducted in Rongai Sub-County of Nakuru District, which consists of four divisions: Ngata, Kampi Moto, Solai and Rongai. The target population was 38411 adolescents. A stratified sampling technique was used to select a total of 450 respondents from the total population of 38,411.

Parenting styles were operationalised using Steinberg's Parenting Scale (2005), which consisted of 24 items and three subscales: "acceptance-involvement", "psychological autonomy-granting" and "strictness-supervision". The psychological autonomy subscale measures how actively parents support their children's autonomy and individuality through democratic, non-coercive methods. The parental supervision

subscale, which has six questions of the form "How much do your parents TRY to find out where you go at night?" is composed of two different sorts of questions. The other two questions have seven possible answers. This subscale measures the degree to which parents are viewed as controlling or supervising the behavior of the adolescent, with three answer possibilities that range from 1 (they do not try) to 3 (they try a lot). The reliability of the measurement was determined by Cronbach's alpha method of internal consistency. Alpha coefficient for "acceptance-involvement" was 0.81. for "psychological autonomy-granting" was 0.70 and for "behavioral strictness-supervision" was 0.68. The subscales were generally viewed to constitute the 3 parenting styles: Permissive parenting style, Authoritative parenting style, and Authoritarian parenting style. A fourth parenting style identified in research as an uninvolved parenting style was not considered for this study. The validity of the examined measure according to the factor analysis method. The result of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the validity of the measure for use in Kenya.

Self-esteem was similarly measured using Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Scale (CSEI), a 46point scale developed by Coopersmith (1967) to measure self-esteem. It uses a five-point Likert response format from 1 (does not apply at all) to 5 (applies almost always), with a total score range of o to 230. The measure's reliability is tested by Cronbach-Alpha method the of internal consistency. The alpha coefficient for the total self-esteem score was 0.89. The validity of the examined measure according to the factor analysis method. The result of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the validity of the measure for use in Kenya.

Results

The research targeted a population of 38,411 juveniles in Rongai sub-district, Nakuru district. The total sample consisted of 450 adolescent students who were administered a self-answer questionnaire. A total of 380 respondents returned fully completed questionnaires, resulting in a response rate of 84.4%, which was considered sufficient for survey research not only according to Babbie (1995), van Horn and Green (2009) but also according to the results of Aschet al. (1997). Because the samples were stratified into four areas, the study first attempted to determine the distribution of respondents by strata. The distribution of respondents is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution	of	Respondents	by	Sub-County
(n=380)				

C 1 <i>i</i>	Female		Male		Total	
Sub-county	n	%	n	%	n	%
Ngata	56	27.5	54	30.4	111	29.1
Rongai	61	30	42	23.9	101	26.7
Kampi ya Moto	58	28.8	37	20.7	93	24.4
Solai	28	13.8	44	25	75	19.8
Total	203	53.4	177	46.6	380	100

The data presented in Table 1 shows that 111 (29.1%) respondents from Ngata Division, 101 (26.7%) from Rongai Division, 93 (24.4%) from Kampi ya Moto and 75 (19.8%) came from Solai. The sample comprised 203 (53.4%) female and 46.6% male respondents.

Respondents were required to state their actual age. The study established that the youngest respondent was 13 years while the oldest was 19. The mean age was 16 years, with a standard deviation of 1.4. The distribution of respondents according to their age is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of Respondents by Age (n=380)						
Categories Frequency (n) Percentage (
13 years	31	8.1				
14 years	39	10.2				
15 years	42	11				
16 years	57	15				
17 years	110	29				
18 years	58	15.2				
19 years	44	11.5				
Total	380	100				

According to Table 2, 31(8.1%) were aged 13 years while 39(10.2%) were aged 14 years. Similarly, 42(11%) of the total sample were aged 15 years compared to 57(15%) of the total respondents were aged 16 years, 110(29%) were aged 17 years, 58(15.2%) were aged 18 years and 44(11.5%) 19 years. The modal age of the sample was 17 years accounting for 110(29%).

Family background referred to the respondent's primary caregiver. 241 (66.3%) of the respondents in the sample enjoyed dual parenthood, 93 (24.4%) were raised by single mothers and 16 (4.1%) by single fathers, while 20 (5.2%) were raised by guardians with 9 (2.3%) being raised by male guardians and 11 (2.9%) by female guardians. The distributions are presented on Table 3.

Table 3

Distribution of Respondents by their Family Background (*n*=380)

Caretakers	Frequency (n)Percentage (%)
Mother	93	24.4
Father	16	4.1
Both parents	241	66.3
Guardian Male	9	2.3
Guardian Female	2 11	2.9
Total	380	100

Self-esteem was measured using Coopersmith's (1967) Self-Esteem Scale (CSEI). Study participants responded to a 46 item scale by use of a five-point Likert response format ranging from one ("not true at all") to five ("true nearly all the time"), with a total score range from 0 to 230. The scale yields a total score and separate scores for 4 subscales: general self, social self-peers, home-parents, and school-academic. Self-esteem was conceptualized as a composite variable derived from the total of non-missing responses on the 46 behavioural presentations that denoted self-esteem characteristics. Since the responses were based on a 5-point Likert scale for this variable, each respondent could only score a possible total of 230. The transition point for low, moderate and high self-esteem were therefore 77

and 154 respectively. The results of the study are presented in Table 4

Table 4

Levels of Self-Esteem as Reported by Respondents (n=380)

Self-esteem	Male		Female		Total	
level	n	%	n	%	n	%
High	98	55.2	68	33.6	169	44.4
Moderate	48	27.2	88	43.2	134	35.2
Low	31	17.6	47	23.2	78	20.4
Total	177	100	203	100	380	100

Among the respondents, 169(44.4%) presented high self-esteem (55.2% male and 33.6% female), 134(35.2%) had moderate self-esteem (27.2% male and 43.2% female), and 78(20.4%) had high self-esteem and low self-esteem (17.6% males and 23.2% females). In terms of parenting style, 278(73.2%) reported an authoritative parenting style, compared to 78(20%) and 26(6.8%) who reported an authoritarian and permissive parenting style, respectively.

Parenting styles were assessed using the Steinberg's Parenting Scale (2005) that was adapted as a parenting styles questionnaire. The original tool consisted of 26 items grouped into three groups that identified key aspects of parenting: participation (9 items), psychological autonomy (9 items) and parental supervision 8 items). The first two groups asked Likert-type questions with answers ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The subscale of participation measures the extent to which adolescents perceive parental behaviors, approaches to affection, sensitivity, and concern. The psychological autonomy subscale examines the extent to which parents use democratic strategies that do not coerce and encourage individuality and autonomy. Finally, the parental supervision sub-scope includes two types of questions: two questions with seven answer choices and six remaining questions (of the type: _ "How hard are your parents trying to find out where you go at night?) with three response options from 1 (they don't try) to 3 (they try hard); This sub-scale assesses the extent to which

parents are perceived as controlling or monitoring adolescents' behavior. Levels of Parenting Styles was conceptualized as a composite variable derived from the total of nonmissing responses on the 26 behavioural presentations that denoted parental practices. Since the responses were based on a 4-point Likert scale for this variable, each respondent could only score a possible total of 104. The dominant parenting styles was then derived from the appropriate subscales. The results of the study are presented in Table 5

Table 5

Levels of Parenting Styles as Reported by Respondents (*n*=380)

Parenting style	Freq. (<i>n</i>)	Perc. (%)
Authoritative parenting	278	73.2
Authoritarian parenting	78	20
Permissive parenting	26	6.8

Data presented in Table 5 indicates that 278(73.2%) of respondents had authoritative parents compared to 78(20%) who had authoritarian parenting experience and 26(6.8%) who reported permissive parenting style.

Further analyses focused on correlations between self-esteem and parenting styles. The results showed positive and significant correlations between permissive and authoritarian parenting styles and self-esteem. A negative, nonsignificant correlation was observed between permissive parenting style and self-esteem. The outcome is presented in Table 6.

Correlation Matrix of Self-Esteem and Parenting Styles (*n*=380)

		-	
Variable	1	2	3
1. Permissive parenting			
2. Authoritative parenting	0.36*		
3. Authoritarian parenting	0.11**	-0.001	
4. Adolescent Self-esteem	0.53**	0.40**	-0.03

The research data in Table 6 indicates that adolescent self-esteem correlated positively with

Table 6

permissive parenting style (r = 0.53, p<0.05) and authoritative parenting style (r = 0.4, p<0.05). It was observed that adolescent self-esteem negatively but non-significantly correlated with authoritarian parenting style (r = -0.03, p>0.05).

Concurrent multiple regression of total selfesteem scores on the parenting style subscales revealed that the permissive and authoritative styles were significant positive predictors of selfesteem, while the authoritarian style had no significant predictive power of self-esteem. The findings are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Multiple Regression of Parenting Styles on Self-Esteem (n=380)

Criterion Variable			Self-e	esteem		
Prediction Variables	R	R ²	В	β	t	<i>P</i> <
Permissive parenting			1.54	0.45	11.37	0.001
Authoritative parenting	0.58	0.34	0.87	0.24	6.19	0.001
Authoritarian parenting			-0.22	-0.01	1.38	0.072

To establish the effect of gender in the responses, a *t*-test for comparison of girls and boys participants in study variables was conducted. The results of the *t*-test analysis showed that the mean authoritarian style score of the girls was significantly higher than that of the boys. However, there was no significant difference between girls and boys in terms of permissive and authoritarian parenting styles and selfesteem. The findings are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Comparison of Girls and Boys Participants in <u>Study Variab</u>les (*n*=380)

¥ ¥7 • 11	Girls Boys					
Variable	Mean	sd	Mean	sd	t	P<
Permissive parenting	25.56	5.44	25.04	5.12	1.14	0.321
Authoritative parenting	30.44	5.11	30.43	4.86	0.02	0.702
Authoritarian parenting	14.52	3.01	13.12	2.91	5.38	0.001
Self-esteem	134.52	18.33	135.42	18.00	0.56	0.589

Discussion

Among them, 169 (44.4%) had high self-esteem (55.2% male and 33.6% female), 134 (35.2%) had moderate self-esteem (27.2% male and 43.2% female) and 78 (20.4%) had high self-esteem and low self-esteem (17.6% males and 23.2% females). In terms of parenting style, 278 (73.2%) reported an authoritative parenting style, compared to 78 (20%) and 26 (6.8%) who reported an authoritarian and permissive parenting style, respectively.

Comparing self-esteem with the parenting style pursued showed that among adolescents who received authoritative parenting, 214 (56.28%) had high self-esteem, 114 (30.05%) moderate, and 52 (13.66%) one had low self-esteem. Among adolescents who received authoritarian parenting, 46 (12%) had high self-esteem, 167 (44%) moderate, and 167 (44%) low self-esteem. Among the adolescents with permissive parenting, 44 (11.6%) had high self-esteem, 246 (64.71%) moderate self-esteem, and 89 (23.53%) low self-esteem. The p-value was calculated to be <0.001 by the chi-square test, and therefore the association between parenting style and adolescent self-esteem was found to be significant.

Conclusion

Consistent with the results of previous studies (Herz & Gullone, 1999; DeHart et al., 2006; Yamawaki et al., 2011; Gao et al., 2015; Szkody et al., 2020), the current study supports the theory that the Parenting style can significantly predict self-esteem (i.e., an authoritative parenting style positively predicts self-esteem, while an authoritarian parenting style negatively correlates with self-esteem). Consequently, a negative parenting style leads to adolescents having low self-esteem, while a positive parenting style leads to children developing high self-esteem.be crucial behaviors may play a crucial role in shaping adolescent self-esteem (Shaffer & Kipp, 2013).

Limitations

This study encountered certain limitations. First, since the sample includes teenagers expected to be students from primary and secondary education institutions located in peri-urban areas, the findings should be generalised to other settings and population parameters with caution. Second, the information was obtained through self-reported scales and come respondents had difficulty understanding some items; however, the data collection process was carried out by a competent researcher who ensured that the procedures were adequately followed to standard across all respondent strata.

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