

International Perspectives in Psychology: Research, Practice, Consultation

The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Parenting Styles on Self-esteem in a Sample of Respondents in Nigeria

--Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	
Full Title:	The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Parenting Styles on Self-esteem in a Sample of Respondents in Nigeria
Abstract:	<p>Studies consistently suggest that emotional intelligence and parenting styles are associated with self-esteem, although validation has relatively been based on correlation analysis. Using a sample of 252 respondents in Nigeria, the present study examined the relationships among parenting styles, emotional intelligence, and self-esteem with the aim of generating knowledge that transcends the nature and extent of their correlations. A bivariate analysis identified significant correlations: emotional intelligence (i.e., self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, uses of emotion, and regulation of emotion), authoritative parenting, and authoritarian parenting significantly positively correlated with self-esteem. There was no significant correlation between emotional intelligence and parenting styles. Results of the independent-samples t test indicated that emotional intelligence and self-esteem differed by gender. Specifically, women were more likely than men to report high self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, and uses of emotion. Similarly, women were more likely than men to report high self-esteem. Using multiple regression analysis, emotional intelligence and parenting styles were associated with self-esteem: being a student, emotional intelligence (i.e., self-emotion appraisal and uses of emotion), and authoritative parenting were associated with self-esteem. Emotional intelligence accounted for a larger effect on self-esteem than did parenting styles. In general, findings lend credence to the relevance of authoritative parenting in the development of self-esteem and suggest that, among components of emotional intelligence, uses of emotion and self-emotion appraisal may be considered in facilitating improvement of self-esteem among young adults at the developmental stage of increasing self-esteem. Implications of findings for research, education, and practice are discussed.</p>
Article Type:	Article
Keywords:	self-esteem, emotional intelligence, parenting styles, parental authority, authoritative parenting
Corresponding Author:	Sunday B. Fakunmoju, PhD Westfield State University Westfield, MA UNITED STATES
Corresponding Author E-Mail:	sfakunmoju@westfield.ma.edu
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:	
Corresponding Author's Institution:	Westfield State University
Other Authors:	Funmi O Bammeke, PhD Ntandoyenkosi Maphosa, MSW
Author Comments:	
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:	
First Author:	Sunday B. Fakunmoju, PhD
Order of Authors Secondary Information:	
Suggested Reviewers:	<p>Martin Pinquart, PhD Professor, Philipps-Universitat Marburg pinquart@staff.uni-marburg.de Dr. Pinquart has conducted meta-analysis on parenting styles and self-esteem and is methodologically and analytically competent to provide meaningful feedback on the</p>

	<p>manuscript.</p> <p>Romin W. Tafarodi, PhD Associate Professor, University of Toronto at Scarborough tafarodi@psych.utoronto.ca Dr. Romin has published on parental authority and self-esteem and is analytically competent to comprehend and provide meaningful insight on the contents of the manuscript.</p> <p>María del Carmen Pérez-Fuentes, PhD Professor, Universidad de Almería mpf421@ual.es Dr. Pérez-Fuentes has published on emotional intelligence and self-esteem and will provide helpful feedback that may improve the manuscript.</p> <p>Hiromi Hirata, PhD Professor, Kagawa Nutrition University hhiromi@eiyo.ac.jp Dr. Hirata has written on the effects of parenting styles on self-esteem and will provide meaningful feedback for the manuscript.</p>
Opposed Reviewers:	

June 29, 2020

Stuart Carr
Editor, International Perspectives in Psychology
Massey University
School of Psychology
North Shore, Auckland 0745, New Zealand

Dear Dr. Carr:

We attach a submission titled, “The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Parenting Styles on Self-Esteem in a Sample of Respondents in Nigeria” to International Perspectives in Psychology for peer review. The manuscript includes the abstract, main text, four tables, and one figure. My coauthors below are in agreement with the authorship of the manuscript:

Professor Funmi O. Bammeke
Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences
University of Lagos
Lagos, Nigeria
E-mail: Obammeke@unilag.edu.ng

Ntandoyenkosi Maphosa
Lecturer, Social Work, University of Johannesburg
Auckland Park, Johannesburg, South Africa
Email: ntandom@uj.ac.za

We also make the following declarations in respect of the research and authorship of the manuscript:

FUNDING: The authors received no funding for the study.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST: The authors declare no conflict of interest

ETHICAL APPROVAL: All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

INFORMED CONSENT: Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

The manuscript has not been previously published and is not under consideration by any other journal.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

(Signed)
Sunday Fakunmoju PhD, LCSW-C
Westfield State University, Department of Social Work
577 Western Avenue, Westfield, MA 01086, USA

The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Parenting Styles
on Self-Esteem in a Sample of Respondents in Nigeria

Sunday B. Fakunmoju, PhD

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5187-0677>

1. Westfield State University
577 Western Avenue

Westfield, MA 01806, United States of America

E-mail: SFakunmoju@westfield.ma.edu; BFakus@yahoo.com

Tel.: 410-804-0860; 413-572-8336; Fax: 413-579-3122

2. Faculty of Humanities
Department of Social Work
University of Johannesburg,
P. O. Box 524
Auckland Park 2006
South Africa

Funmi O. Bammeke, PhD

Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences

University of Lagos

Lagos, Nigeria

E-mail: Obammeke@unilag.edu.ng

Tel. 011234- 805 261 3685

Ntandoyenkosi Maphosa, MSW

Lecturer, Social Work, University of Johannesburg

Auckland Park, Johannesburg, South Africa

Email: ntandom@uj.ac.za

Phone: 27-78-948-9724

Funding: The authors received no funding for the study.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest

Ethical approval: All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

Informed consent: Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Abstract

Studies consistently suggest that emotional intelligence and parenting styles are associated with self-esteem, although validation has relatively been based on correlation analysis. Using a sample of 252 respondents in Nigeria, the present study examined the relationships among parenting styles, emotional intelligence, and self-esteem with the aim of generating knowledge that transcends the nature and extent of their correlations. A bivariate analysis identified significant correlations: emotional intelligence (i.e., self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, uses of emotion, and regulation of emotion), authoritative parenting, and authoritarian parenting significantly positively correlated with self-esteem. There was no significant correlation between emotional intelligence and parenting styles. Results of the independent-samples t test indicated that emotional intelligence and self-esteem differed by gender. Specifically, women were more likely than men to report high self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, and uses of emotion. Similarly, women were more likely than men to report high self-esteem. Using multiple regression analysis, emotional intelligence and parenting styles were associated with self-esteem: being a student, emotional intelligence (i.e., self-emotion appraisal and uses of emotion), and authoritative parenting were associated with self-esteem. Emotional intelligence accounted for a larger effect on self-esteem than did parenting styles. In general, findings lend credence to the relevance of authoritative parenting in the development of self-esteem and suggest that, among components of emotional intelligence, uses of emotion and self-emotion appraisal may be considered in facilitating improvement of self-esteem among young adults at the developmental stage of increasing self-esteem. Implications of findings for research, education, and practice are discussed.

Keywords: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, parenting styles, parental authority, authoritative parenting.

Implications for Impact

Self-esteem is critical to empowerment and emotional well-being of adolescents and young adults. Findings in this study suggest that emotional intelligence and authoritative parenting style may facilitate the development and improvement of self-esteem. A social policy that strengthens parental use of authoritative parenting and interventions that focus on how to use and appraise self-emotion will therefore go a long way in facilitating and improving self-esteem among young adults.

Introduction

Studies on self-esteem, emotional intelligence, and parenting styles have identified considerable associations that validate their importance to human development (e.g., Asghari & Besharat, 2011; Belean & Năstasă, 2017; Bibi et al., 2016; Buri, 1989; Buri et al., 1988; Mitrofan, 2011; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019). Although the strengths of their associations range from small to moderate, contradictory conclusions are pervasive, partly because analytical choices that informed the conclusions are primarily correlational. Questions about their complex relationships remain unanswered: predictive validity in the context of competing variables, bidirectional association, and reciprocal predictive relationships among them remain unexplored; questions about relative stability versus developmental dynamism of self-esteem in terms of its association with progressively evolving emotional intelligence remain unanswered; and analytical considerations to disentangle the conceptual overlap between self-esteem and emotional intelligence remain largely ignored. This article examines the associations and differences in self-esteem, emotional intelligence, and parenting styles among young adults, with the aim of generating knowledge that transcends the nature and extent of their correlations.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem relates to negative or positive attitude towards self and concerns how individuals perceive and evaluate themselves (Rosenberg, 1965). It is an affective, psychological, and personality dimension of the self and encompasses a constellation of judgment about physical attributes, psychological competence, social interaction, coping skills, and mental abilities about self (Cheung et al., 2015a; Körük, 2017). As an affective appraisal of self, it has endured considerable empirical scrutiny. It has been associated with health (Jafflin et al., 2019), personal and professional burnout (Kupcewicz & Józwick, 2020), mental health (Curvis et al., 2018), academic performance and achievement (Christy & Mythili, 2020), and

victimization and perpetration of bullying (Jankauskiene et al., 2008). A study found nonsuicidal self-injury and sense of identity assessment form scores in adolescents to be predictive of self-esteem (Akdemir et al., 2016). A meta-analysis of studies also indicates that self-esteem is negatively associated with aggression (Teng et al., 2015) and depression and anxiety (Orth & Robins, 2013; Sowislo & Orth, 2013).

Emotional Intelligence

A cognitive ability that is deemed critical to understanding self-esteem is emotional intelligence, which is described as the “ability to engage in sophisticated information processing about one’s own and others’ emotion and the ability to use this information as a guide to thinking and behavior” (Mayer et al., 2008, p. 503). It concerns how people perceive and understand emotions of self and others and successfully regulate and communicate those emotions in interacting with others (Zeidner et al., 2009). Over the years, the conception of emotional intelligence has evolved from being conceived as a constellation of interconnected mental abilities to being considered a blend of dispositional traits (e.g., “happiness, self-esteem, optimism, and self-management”; Mayer et al., 2008, p. 503), a proliferation of models that seems to undermine its predictive validity. Nevertheless, retaining emotional intelligence as a constellation of interconnected mental abilities is critical to understanding its predictive validity of dispositional traits.

Emotional intelligence is conceived less in isolation to itself than in relation to other cognitive, dispositional, or personality traits. It has effects on learning, relationships, social, occupational, and psychological well-being and draws its explanatory power from socially challenging opportunity theory (Zeidner et al., 2009). It is associated with aggressive behavior (Qualter et al., 2019), mental illness (e.g., depression, anxiety disorders, bipolar disorder,

aggressive behavior; alcohol and substance abuse; Brackett et al., 2011; Hertel et al., 2009; Kaypaklı & Tamam, 2019; Leite et al., 2019; Lizeretti et al., 2012; Mayer et al., 2008; Mikolajczak et al., 2009; Trinidad & Johnson 2002), and academic performance (MacCann et al., 2020). It is based on cognition, in contrast to self-esteem, which is based on affect (Roberts et al., 2001). It is amenable to improvement and capable of improving performance (Cheung et al., 2015b). It is “an indicator of psychological adjustment” (Delhom et al., 2018, p. 1713). Because “self-esteem stability was low during childhood, increased throughout adolescence and young adulthood, and declined during midlife and old age” (Trzesniewski et al., 2002, p. 205), it is possible that emotional intelligence is likely to accelerate self-esteem among adolescents and young adults and improve declining self-esteem in persons in midlife and old age.

Parenting Styles

A consistently identified major influence on self-esteem is parenting styles, which could be described as entailing child-rearing values and goals, as well as parenting practices and attitudes in raising children (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Piquart & Gerke, 2019). Baumrind (1966) described three prototypes of child-rearing practices: (a) permissive (i.e., “the permissive parent attempts to behave in a nonpunitive, acceptant, and affirmative manner toward the child’s impulses, desires, and actions”); (b) authoritarian (i.e., “the authoritarian parent attempts to shape, control, and evaluate the behavior and attitudes of the child in accordance with a set standard of conduct, usually an absolute standard, theologically motivated and formulated by a higher authority”), and (c) authoritative (i.e., “the authoritative parent attempts to direct the child’s activities in a rational, issue-oriented manner. She encourages verbal give and take, shares with the child the reasoning behind her policy, and solicits his objections when he refuses

to conform”; pp. 889-891). Based on Baumrind’s conceptualization, Buri (1991) developed a parental authority questionnaire to operationalize parenting styles.

Parenting styles are associated with internalizing, externalizing, and general maladjustment problems (Moreno Méndez et al., 2020), problematic, binge drinking (Zuquette et al., 2019), and peer problems (Obimakinde et al., 2019). Among the three major parenting styles, authoritative parenting has been consistently associated with positive outcomes (e.g., “psychosocial competence . . . maturation, resilience, optimism, self-reliance, social competence, self-esteem;” Kuppens & Ceulemans, 2019, p. 169), compared to negative outcomes associated with authoritarian parenting (e.g., aggression, delinquency, anxiety disorders, stress, general adjustment problems; Adubale, 2017; Hovee et al., 2008; Kuppens & Ceulemans, 2019; Moreno et al., 2020; Stevens et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2009; Wolfradt et al., 2003) and permissive parenting (e.g., depression, anxiety; Adubale, 2017; Kuppens & Ceulemans, 2019; Moreno et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2009; Wolfradt et al., 2003). In general, punitive parenting style has detrimental effects on the mental well-being of children (Zubizarreta et al., 2019).

Associations Among Parenting Styles, Emotional Intelligence, and Self-Esteem

Figure 1 describes the model for understanding the effects of demographic characteristics, emotional intelligence, and parenting styles on self-esteem. Beyond the associations between parenting styles and emotional intelligence, the model highlights the individual effects of parenting styles and emotional intelligence on self-esteem in ways that clarify their relevance for policy, practice, and research.

[Figure 1 near here]

Association Between Emotional Intelligence and Self-Esteem

Studies consistently report a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and self-esteem and describe the strength of the relationship as ranging from low to medium (Bibi et al., 2016; Nnabuife et al., 2018; Rani & Marzuki, 2017; Sa et al., 2019). An increasing number of studies validate the association and other studies suggest that the variables share unique associations with other variables, such as academic performance and achievement (Christy & Mythili, 2020; MacCann et al., 2020) and mental illness (Orth & Robins, 2013; Kaypaklı & Tamam, 2019; Sowislo & Orth, 2013), suggesting that they are worthy of further exploration.

Effects of Emotional Intelligence on Self-Esteem

Most studies describing the low to moderate association between emotional intelligence and self-esteem have arrived at conclusions about the relationship without examining the relationship in the context of other relevant variables. Studies describing the predictive effects of emotional intelligence on self-esteem are relatively few and some examined only the predictive effects in the context of mediation analysis. For example, in a mediation framework, Johar (2014) depicted the effects of emotional intelligence on organizational commitment through self-esteem, thereby suggesting a considerable impact of emotional intelligence on self-esteem. A similar study highlighted the mediating effects of emotional intelligence on the relationship between achievement and self-esteem: “Accordingly, emotional intelligence is likely to underlie social competence and mediate the contribution of achievement to self-esteem” (Cheung et al., 2015a, p. 63). The authors concluded that “the results imply the value of raising emotional intelligence in order to consolidate the basis for the young adult's self-esteem” (p. 63). In the mediation models, both studies depicted emotional intelligence as having effects on self-esteem.

Recent studies by Pérez-Fuentes, Jurado, del Pino et al. (2019) and by Pérez-Fuentes, Jurado, and Gázquez Linares (2019) support the predictive significance of emotional intelligence on self-esteem in nursing and health care professionals. However, a study examining the reciprocal relationship between emotional intelligence and self-esteem did not find any significant effects of emotional intelligence on self-esteem, despite finding effects of self-esteem on self-assessed emotional intelligence (Cheung et al., 2015b).

A cursory look at background characteristics may put the lack of reciprocity in the proper perspective, since background characteristics may have more significant relevance to self-esteem than emotional intelligence. To date, a more compelling evidence points to moderate association between emotional intelligence and self-esteem and considerable predictive effects of emotional intelligence on self-esteem. A study found emotional intelligence and self-esteem to be predictive of self-efficacy in teachers (Şahin, 2017) and risky sexual behavior in students (Ugoji, 2013). Nevertheless, questions about which components of emotional intelligence have considerable effects on self-esteem remain unanswered, since emotional intelligence is not a monolithic construct but a construct with several components or subconstructs (at least four components have been identified in the body of empirical research).

Association Between Parenting Styles and Self-Esteem

Similar to the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-esteem, studies have identified small to moderate positive associations between authoritative parenting and self-esteem (Antonopoulou et al., 2012; Buri, 1989; Buri et al., 1988; Mitrofan, 2011; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019; Perez-Gramaje et al., 2020) and a negative or inverse association between authoritarian parenting and self-esteem (Buri, 1989; Buri et al., 1988; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019). Although Pinquart and Gerke (2019) found a very small positive association between permissive

parenting and self-esteem in their meta-analysis, Buri et al. (1988) did not find any such association. People develop self-esteem over time through socialization and life experiences (Harter, 2012; Rosenberg, 1965, as cited in Pinguart & Gerke, 2019) and levels of self-esteem vary by society. People from Western societies tend to endorse individualism and favor authoritative parenting, which has positive effects on self-esteem, compared to people from non-Western societies who are known to endorse collectivism and tend to favor authoritarian parenting, which is also known to have negative effects on self-esteem (Bosson & Swann, 2009; Pinguart & Gerke, 2019; Rudy & Grusec, 2001). Nevertheless, Pinguart and Gerke (2019) did not identify any variations between Western and non-Western societies when examining associations between parenting styles and self-esteem in their meta-analysis of 116 studies. Instead, the associations were deemed to be “universal across cultures” (p. 2029).

Effects of Parenting Styles on Self-Esteem

In the same way that judgment on the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-esteem was based on correlation analysis, most analyses on the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem have been based on findings from correlational analysis, which results in limited understanding of the predictive capacity of the variables (e.g., the predictive effects of parenting styles on self-esteem). However, a recent study by Hirata and Kamakura (2018) indicated that authoritative parenting style is predictive of self-esteem for both male and female participants, with a moderate effect size. A similar study demonstrated the nurturing effects of authoritative parenting style in describing its effects on self-esteem in a structural equation model (Tafarodi et al., 2010).

Association Between Parenting Styles and Emotional Intelligence

The association between parenting styles and emotional intelligence is evident in the body of empirical research. Specifically, in a study of adolescents, authoritative parenting was found to have effects on emotional intelligence (Asghari & Besharat, 2011; Cameron et al., 2020; Chong & Chan, 2015; Mitrofan, 2011), a finding that was validated by another study with parents in which democratic parental style was deemed to have positive effects on emotional intelligence (Belean & Năstasă, 2017). A study in Nigeria reached a similar conclusion of the positive association between authoritative parenting by fathers and mothers and emotional intelligence (Adekeye et al., 2015). A literature review on the relationship between parenting styles and emotional intelligence found that “parental responsiveness, parental emotion-related coaching, and parental positive demandingness are related to children’s higher emotional intelligence, while parental negative demandingness is related to children’s lower emotional intelligence” (Alegre, 2010, p. 56). It is interesting that parenting styles and emotional intelligence share unique associations with other variables: both emotional intelligence and nonauthoritative parenting have been associated with addiction and drinking problems (Leite et al., 2019; Zuquette et al., 2019) and internalizing and externalizing problems (Hertel et al., 2009; Kuppens & Ceulemans, 2019; Lizeretti et al., 2012).

Effects of Demographic Factors on Self-Esteem

Current research provides only limited guidance for determining the effects of demographic characteristics on self-esteem in a predictive model, a challenge that may partly be attributed to the fact that most studies reported only correlation analysis in describing the association of relevant variables with self-esteem. Regrettably, correlation does not imply causation, as temporal order cannot be established in correlation analysis. While intuitively

possible, depending on the nature of variables being correlated, it is analytically difficult to establish independent and dependent variable in correlation analysis. More challenging in disentangling the complexities of the relationships is the fact that studies describing the predictive effects of relevant variables on self-esteem did not control for demographic variables in the regression analysis (Hirata & Kamakura, 2018; Johar, 2014; Tafarodi et al., 2010), although Pérez-Fuentes, Jurado, del Pino et al. (2019) and Pérez-Fuentes Jurado, and Gazquez Linares (2019) considered “years of experience in the profession as the selection variable” in their step-wise regression model (p. 4, 6). However, recent studies by Cheung et al. (2015a, 2015b) controlled for demographic variables and found age, business major, and year of study to be significantly predictive of self-esteem in the regression and structural equation model. Akdemir et al. (2016) found gender and presence of a sibling among other factors to be predictive of self-esteem.

Gender Differences in Emotional Intelligence and Self-Esteem

Studies on gender differences in emotional intelligence and self-esteem have produced inconsistent results; some studies identified gender differences and others did not. Studies that found significant relationships suggest that female respondents (girls) were more likely to demonstrate higher emotional intelligence than male respondents (boys; Bibi et al., 2016; Carr, 2009; Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Harrod & Scheer, 2005; Katyal & Awasthi, 2005; Petrides & Furnham, 2000), although Sa et al. (2019) found the opposite: “Emotional intelligence scores were higher among male individuals than among female” (p. 536; see also Ajmal et al., 2017; Khalili, n.d.). Some evidence suggests that the mediating effects of age must be considered in the relationship: Age mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and gender (Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2012). However, some studies did not identify gender differences in

emotional intelligence (George et al., 2017; Mokhlesi & Patil, 2018; Nnabuife et al., 2018; Rathi, 2015).

Similar to emotional intelligence, several studies identified gender differences in self-esteem. Studies that identified these differences suggested that female respondents had higher self-esteem than male respondents (Christy & Mythili, 2020; Jenaabadi, 2014), although the result of past meta-analysis suggested that males scored higher than females on self-esteem (Kling et al., 1999; see also Gomez-Baya et al., 2016; Magee & Upenieks, 2019). Yet, it has been suggested that the moderating effect of age must be considered in the relationship because “self-esteem increases from adolescence to middle adulthood” and then decreases as age increases (Bleidorn et al., 2016, p. 404; Magee & Upenieks, 2019; Orth & Robins, 2014). However, some studies did not identify gender differences in self-esteem (Bibi et al., 2016; Nnabuife et al., 2018; Sa et al., 2019).

Based on the above review, the following research questions were developed:

1. Does emotional intelligence differ by gender?
2. Does self-esteem differ by gender?
3. Are there associations among education status, emotional intelligence, parenting styles, and self-esteem?

Materials and Methods

This study utilized self-report methodology to collect data through SurveyMonkey.com™ from a convenience sample of university students (graduate and undergraduate) and nonstudents in Lagos State, Nigeria. A total of 376 participants responded to the survey. Listwise deletion was applied to the 376 responses to address missing responses and, after excluding incomplete demographic information, 252 cases remained for analysis. Listwise deletion was used to address

missing data to avoid duplication of responses because it took more than one attempt for some respondents to complete the survey due to Internet connection problems. Additional information about the study may be obtained from (Authors citation will be provided after blind review).

Measures

Self-esteem was operationalized using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). The scale comprises 10 items that capture respondents' self-report about self-esteem. Examples of questions are "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself;" "At times, I think I am no good at all," and "I feel that I have a number of good qualities". The 10 items are rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 4 = *strongly agree*). Items 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9 are reverse coded. Higher scores indicate higher reports of self-esteem and lower scores indicate lower reports of self-esteem. The internal consistency estimate was .78.

Emotional intelligence was operationalized using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Law et al., 2004; Wong & Law, 2002). The scale comprises 16 questions that measure four domains of emotional intelligence: self-emotion appraisal (4 items), others' emotion appraisal (4 items), uses of emotion (4 items), and regulation of emotion (4 items). Examples of questions are "I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time," "I am able to control my temper so that I can handle difficulties rationally," "I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them," and "I always know my friends' emotions." The 16 items are rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). Higher scores indicate higher reports of emotional intelligence and lower scores indicate lower reports of emotional intelligence. The internal consistency estimate for the overall scale was .93 (self-emotion appraisal = .84, others' emotion appraisal = .89, uses of emotion = .89, and regulation of emotion = .90).

Parenting styles was operationalized using a parental authority questionnaire (Buri, 1989, 1991). The scale comprises 30 items that measure three domains of parenting styles: authoritative parenting (10 items), authoritarian parenting (10 items), and permissive parenting (10 items). Examples of questions are “My parent has always encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I have felt that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable,” “While I was growing up, my parent felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do,” and “Even if his/her children didn't agree with him/her, my parent felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what he/she thought was right.” The 30 items are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Higher scores indicate higher reports of parental authority and lower scores indicate lower reports of parental authority. The Cronbach’s alpha for the overall scale was .91 (authoritative parenting appraisal = .85, authoritarian parenting = .86, and permissive parenting = .74).

Sample Characteristics

The sample was mainly comprised of single ($n = 222$, 88.1%) male ($n = 184$, 58.7%) and female ($n = 104$, 41.3%) young adults with an average age of 25 years ($SD = 6.12$) and without a child ($n = 224$, 88.9%). The majority were undergraduate students ($n = 120$, 47.6%), graduate students ($n = 66$, 26.2%), or nonstudents ($n = 66$, 26.2%) from moderately wealthy ($n = 113$, 44.8%) or neither-rich-nor-poor ($n = 114$, 45.2%) backgrounds. The ethnic background of the majority was Yoruba ($n = 198$, 78.6%); most identified Christianity ($n = 201$, 79.8%) as their religious background. Table 1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

[Table 1 near here]

Data Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 20™ (IBM Corp., 2011). Analyses included (a) descriptive analysis to describe respondents' demographic characteristics, (b) zero-order correlations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, and parenting styles, (c) independent-samples *t* test to determine gender differences in emotional intelligence and self-esteem, and (d) hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine predictors of self-esteem. The covariates *age*, *gender*, *marital status*, *educational status*, *ethnic background*, and *religious background* were entered on Step 1, emotional intelligence (i.e., self-emotional appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, uses of emotion, and regulation of emotion) were entered on Step 2, and parenting styles (i.e., authoritative parenting and authoritarian parenting) were entered on Step 3.

Results

Associations Among Emotional Intelligence, Parenting Styles, and Self-Esteem

Table 2 describes bivariate relationships among self-esteem, emotional intelligence, and parenting styles. Self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, uses of emotion, regulation of emotion, authoritative parenting, and authoritarian parenting were significantly positively associated with self-esteem. Although emotional intelligence variables (i.e., self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, uses of emotion, regulation of emotion) were significantly related to each other in the way in which parenting styles variables (i.e., authoritative parenting, authoritarian parenting, and permissive parenting) were significantly positively associated with each other, there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and parenting styles variables.

[Table 2 near here]

Gender Differences in Emotional Intelligence and Self-Esteem

Results of the independent-samples t test to determine whether emotional intelligence and self-esteem differ by gender suggested that women were more likely than men to report high emotional intelligence and self-esteem (Table 3). Specifically, women were more likely than men to report higher self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, and uses of emotion. Similarly, women were more likely than men to report higher self-esteem.

[Table 3 near here]

Effects of Parenting Styles and Emotional Intelligence on Self-Esteem

The final model describing the predictors of self-esteem was significant ($F_{(12, 251)} = 7.364$, $p < .0005$) and accounted for 27% (adjusted $R^2 = .23$) of the variance in self-esteem. Results indicated that student status, emotional intelligence, and parenting styles were associated with self-esteem (Table 4). Specifically, all things being equal, *being a student* ($\beta = .21$, $p < .0005$), *self-emotion appraisal* ($\beta = .16$, $p = .028$), *uses of emotion* ($\beta = .16$, $p = .043$), and *authoritative parenting style* ($\beta = .30$, $p < .0005$) were significantly related to self-esteem (Research Questions 1, 2, and 3). Emotional intelligence (approximately 12%) accounted for a larger effect on self-esteem than did parenting styles (8%), unlike the approximately 11% variance in emotional intelligence accounted for by self-esteem (Table 4).

[Table 4 near here]

Discussion

Emotional intelligence, parenting styles, and self-esteem remain vital for understanding development of young adults. Their importance is highlighted in the present study in which their associations and gender differences were identified.

Associations Among Parenting Styles, Emotional Intelligence, and Self-Esteem

Consistent with previous studies that found small to moderate associations (Bibi et al., 2016; Nnabuife et al., 2018; Rani & Marzuki, 2017; Sa et al., 2019), emotional intelligence, authoritative parenting, and authoritarian parenting significantly positively correlated with self-esteem. Emotional intelligence was found to be correlated with self-esteem, suggesting that an in-depth knowledge about one could improve understanding of the other. For example, the variables shared unique association with educational (e.g., academic performance and achievement; Christy & Mythili, 2020; MacCann et al., 2020) and mental health issues (e.g., depression, anxiety; Orth & Robins, 2013; Kaypaklı & Tamam, 2019; Sowislo & Orth, 2013), suggesting that they are worthy of consideration for addressing academic and psychological issues in young adults.

In parallel to findings in previous studies (Antonopoulou et al., 2012; Buri, 1989; Buri et al., 1988; Mitrofan, 2011; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019; Perez-Gramaje et al., 2020), authoritative parenting correlated with self-esteem, thereby lending credence to the universality of the association (Pinquart & Gerke, 2019). Although previous studies found negative or inverse relationships between authoritarian parenting and self-esteem (Buri, 1989; Buri et al., 1988; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019), a statistically significant low positive relationship was noted in the present study. Contrary to a very small positive association between permissive parenting and self-esteem found in a recent meta-analysis (Pinquart & Gerke, 2019), the association was negative and not statistically significant in the present study, a finding that is similar to that reported by Buri et al. (1988). Similarly, despite the significant association between parenting styles and emotional intelligence in previous studies (Adekeye et al., 2015; Alegre, 2010;

Asghari & Besharat, 2011; Belean & Năstasă, 2017; Cameron et al., 2020; Chong & Chan, 2015), the present study did not find any significant correlation.

Gender Differences in Parenting Styles, Emotional Intelligence, and Self-Esteem

In this study, emotional intelligence differed by gender: Women were more likely than men to demonstrate high emotional intelligence, a difference that is particularly statistically significant for three of the four components of emotional intelligence (i.e., self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, and uses of emotion). This validates findings from previous studies (Bibi et al., 2016; Carr, 2009; Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Harrod & Scheer, 2005; Katyal & Awasthi, 2005; Petrides & Furnham, 2000) but contradicts studies that did not identify gender differences in emotional intelligence (George et al., 2017; Mokhlesi & Patil, 2018; Nnabuife et al., 2018; Rathi, 2015) or that identified men to be likely to have higher emotional intelligence than women (Sa et al., 2019). Similarly, it was found that female respondents had higher self-esteem than male respondents, which is consistent with previous studies (Christy & Mythili, 2020; Jenaabadi, 2014) but contrary to findings in some studies that identified males to be likely to have higher self-esteem than females (Gomez-Baya et al., 2016; Kling et al., 1999; see also Magee & Upenieks, 2019) or that did not identify gender differences in self-esteem (Bibi et al., 2016; Nnabuife et al., 2018; Sa et al., 2019). Beyond the greater propensity of men to agree with strongly worded questions women (Magee & Upenieks, 2019) or the greater tendency of women to agree with strongly worded items (Michaelides et al., 2016), future hope and aspiration engendered by undergraduate and graduate education, supportive relationships and decent socioeconomic family background, resilience and emancipation in the face of cultural oppression, and optimism engendered by religious beliefs may be attributed to why women perceive and evaluate self or use and appraise self and others' emotion better than men.

1
2
3
4 Women's ability to acquire and utilize emotional skills for survival and navigate complex
5
6 socioemotional environments underlie their ability to foster emotional connection and engage
7
8 successfully in social interaction with others to a greater extent than that seen in men.
9

10
11 The present study did not identify gender differences in parenting styles, a finding that is
12 particularly not surprising, given the lack of contrary evidence in the body of empirical research.
13
14 Although studies on gender differences in parenting styles or on paternal and maternal
15
16 differences in parenting styles are relatively sparse, anecdotal evidence suggests that fathers are
17
18 more inclined to an authoritarian parenting style while mothers are more inclined to authoritative
19
20 or permissive parenting styles. In fact, the influence of culture, personality, and gender of child
21
22 in parenting choices must be considered in understanding gender differences in parenting styles
23
24 (Nhan, n.d.; Uji, 2014; Weisberg et al., 2011). Fathers tend to be caring and compassionate
25
26 toward their daughters, in contrast to firm and aggressive treatment of sons. Fathers also tend to
27
28 be the parent of choice in engaging in physical activities with children, whereas mothers tend to
29
30 be the parent of choice in meeting the nurturing and supportive needs of children. In fact, gender
31
32 of child and parents are identified as risk factors for victimization with corporal punishment:
33
34 Although "mothers used corporal punishment more frequently than fathers" (Mahoney et al.,
35
36 2000, p. 266), boys are more physically punished than girls (Khoury-Kassabri et al., 2014;
37
38 Lansford et al., 2010) and fathers are more likely to perpetrate physical abuse in parenting a child
39
40 (Lee et al., 2008). Despite these anecdotal differences in practices, findings in the present study
41
42 did not identify gender differences in parenting styles experiences reported by respondents.
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51

52 **Effects of Emotional Intelligence and Parenting Styles on Self-Esteem**

53
54
55 In addition to correlations, effects of emotional intelligence and parenting styles on self-
56
57 esteem were examined, after controlling for demographic characteristics. The results provided
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 better clarification of the associations, in contrast to previous studies. The analysis identified the
5
6 effects of student status on self-esteem: Being a student was associated with self-esteem, which
7
8 is not surprising when one considers the importance of education on self-esteem. Self-esteem
9
10 encompasses unique characteristics (e.g., self-confidence, competence, sense of social
11
12 belongingness, self-identity, self-control) that are necessary for academic performance and
13
14 achievement among students. Education enhances positive perception of self, aspirations about
15
16 the future, and engagement in social experience to the extent of helping promote favorable
17
18 evaluation and judgment about self. In fact, certain qualities (e.g., confidence, competence) come
19
20 with experience of being a student and determine the extent to which one succeeds academically
21
22 or perceives self favorably (Booth & Gerard, 2011). In a meta-analysis that analyzed 46 studies
23
24 from 150 studies examined, Köruk (2017) concluded that “self- esteem has a medium level effect
25
26 . . . on student achievement” (p. 254).
27
28
29
30
31

32
33 The results regarding the effects of authoritative parenting on self-esteem confirmed
34
35 previous studies (Hirata & Kamakura, 2018; Tafarodi et al., 2010) and suggest that authoritative
36
37 parenting has the capacity to promote self-esteem. Parents utilize various parenting styles to raise
38
39 children and shape their psychological well-being and behavior through socialization. The
40
41 nurturing nature of authoritative parenting and its associated degree of “warmth, support,
42
43 affirmation” may be attributed to its positive effects on self-esteem (Pinquart & Gerke, 2019;
44
45 Tafarodi et al., 2010, p. 301). Authoritative parents are “warm, firm, and accepting of their
46
47 *children’s* needs for psychological autonomy” to express opinions and form own beliefs
48
49 (Steinberg, 2001, p. 1, emphasis added; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019). This nurturing component of
50
51 authoritative parenting plays a significant role in the emergence and development of self-esteem.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 Similar to authoritative parenting, emotional intelligence was predictive of self-esteem, as
5
6 in previous studies (Cheung et al., 2015a; Johar, 2014; Pérez-Fuentes, Jurado, del Pino et al.,
7
8 2019; Pérez-Fuentes, Jurado, & Gásquez Linares, 2019) and suggests that emotional intelligence
9
10 is worthy of consideration in promotion of self-esteem, although the uses of emotion and self-
11
12 emotional appraisal are the most important predictors. However, Cheung et al. (2015b) did not
13
14 identify reciprocal predictive effects of emotional intelligence on self-esteem and concluded that
15
16 “perceived and real performance based on emotional intelligence is not sufficient to enhance
17
18 self-esteem” (p. 302). In their reciprocal model, they found self-esteem to be a strong predictor
19
20 of self-assessed emotional intelligence, in contrast to the present study, in which emotional
21
22 intelligence accounted for more variance in self-esteem than self-esteem accounted for variance
23
24 in emotional intelligence. Several factors may be attributed to this difference in findings,
25
26 including differences in sample (undergraduate students versus a mixed sample of students and
27
28 nonstudents), age (early stage of young adulthood versus middle stage of young adulthood), and
29
30 analytic choices (structural equation modeling versus multiple regression analysis). Nevertheless,
31
32 findings in the present study lend credence to the relevance of emotional intelligence to self-
33
34 esteem and suggest that the ability to use and appraise self-emotion successfully might boost
35
36 self-confidence and how one feels about self. Increasing emotional intelligence has the potential
37
38 to increase self-esteem in young adults.

48 **Strengths and Limitations of the Study**

49
50 This study has both strengths and limitations. An important strength relates to its
51
52 examination of the relationships among emotional intelligence, parenting styles, and self-esteem
53
54 beyond correlation analysis. In fact, it is the first known study to examine the influence of
55
56 parenting styles and emotional intelligence on self-esteem in respondents in Nigeria. The
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 knowledge derived provides the basis for future comparisons. Another strength of the study
5
6
7 relates to its use of the Internet, which allows for wider coverage of data collection from a large
8
9
10 section of respondents. Similarly, the anonymity that the online system affords data collection
11
12 enhances the validity of findings. There are strong indications that respondents “perceived their
13
14 anonymity was better protected when completing online questionnaires” (Ward et al., 2014,
15
16 p. 84). In general, findings provide considerable opportunity for comparisons with empirical
17
18 knowledge from similar studies across societies.
19
20

21 Despite the above strengths, some limitations are notable, one which relates to the use of
22
23 the Internet to collect data from respondents: Those who have access to the Internet may differ
24
25 markedly in their views and characteristics from those who lack access to the Internet, thereby
26
27 limiting the generalizability of findings. Nevertheless, research indicates that computerized or
28
29 online data are suitable for explanatory research (Briones & Benham, 2017; Walter et al., 2018).
30
31 Several studies have utilized the online mode of data collection (Authors, 2013-2020; Buchanan
32
33 & Smith, 1999; Olatunji et al., 2015; Stanton, 1998) and results indicate that data that are
34
35 collected in paper-and pencil format are equivalent to those that are collected online (Colasante
36
37 et al., 2019; Gosling et al., 2004; Lewis et al., 2009; Weigold et al., 2013) across countries (De
38
39 Beuckelaer & Filip Lievens, 2009). Moreover, respondents in this study appeared to be educated
40
41 young adults, suggesting that the findings may not be generalizable to less educated older adults.
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 **Implications for Policy, Practice, and Research**

49

50 Findings in the present study have implications for policy, practice, and research. The
51
52 positive effects of authoritative parenting on self-esteem demonstrate the importance of adopting
53
54 the parenting practice for proper development or bottom-up formation of self-esteem. A social
55
56 policy that strengthens parental use of authoritative parenting during childhood will go a long
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1 way in witnessing favorable self-esteem during adulthood. Similar predictive effects of
2
3
4
5
6
7 emotional intelligence on self-esteem suggest that continued development of self-esteem depends
8
9 in part on fostering emotional intelligence, such that interventions focusing on uses of emotion
10
11 and appraisal of self-emotion have a better chance of improving self-esteem among young adults.
12
13 Because one cannot go back to childhood to enhance authoritative parenting experiences of
14
15 young adults, enhancing their emotional intelligence becomes the viable tool for increasing self-
16
17 esteem. As a result, integrating emotional intelligence content in training, curriculum, and
18
19 awareness-raising programs will aid in improving self-esteem in young adults. Because it is
20
21 cognitive trait, emotional intelligence can be learned and people can be trained to increase
22
23 emotional intelligence, which in turn may improve self-esteem and its associated effects. Social
24
25 interaction is critical to utilization of emotional intelligence: Social and cognitive activities that
26
27 reward socialization would not only increase emotional intelligence but also have indirect effects
28
29 on self-esteem. Therefore, social experience and educational activities, including leisure, that
30
31 may increase emotional intelligence have the potential to improve self-esteem.
32
33
34
35
36
37

38 To increase knowledge about parenting styles and emotional intelligence, future studies
39
40 may consider a combination of respondents in various developmental stages to determine the
41
42 influence of emotional intelligence on self-esteem across developmental stages, instead of
43
44 focusing on a single population of respondents (e.g., adolescents, students, parents, young
45
46 adults). For example, because “self-esteem stability was low during childhood, increased
47
48 throughout adolescence and young adulthood, and declined during midlife and old age”
49
50 (Trzesniewski et al., 2002, p. 205; see also Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005), comparative analysis
51
52 of emotional intelligence and self-esteem across the lifespan may focus on similarities and
53
54 differences among respondents in their childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and old age. Such
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 studies may help to determine the trajectory of emotional intelligence and self-esteem, the type
5
6 of interventions that will improve self-esteem, the possible role of emotional intelligence on
7
8 developmental change in self-esteem, and when emotional intelligence may be best deployed to
9
10 improve self-esteem. For example, “Developmental periods during which rank order stability is
11
12 relatively low may be ideal targets of intervention programs because self-esteem may be
13
14 particularly malleable during these times of relative upheaval in the self-concept” (Robins &
15
16 Trzesniewski, 2005, p. 160). The integration of developmental focus in the examination of the
17
18 association between emotional intelligence and self-esteem may clarify their reciprocal
19
20 predictive relationship.
21
22
23
24

25
26 It must be reiterated that emotional intelligence and self-esteem share unique association
27
28 with educational outcomes, such as academic performance and achievement (e.g., Christy &
29
30 Mythili, 2020; MacCann et al., 2020) and mental illness, such as depression and anxiety (e.g.,
31
32 Orth & Robins, 2013; Kaypaklı & Tamam, 2019; Sowislo & Orth, 2013). As a result, future
33
34 studies may examine the underlying mechanisms or mediating role of their shared association.
35
36
37

38 **Conclusion**

39
40 Gender is critical to understanding emotional intelligence and self-esteem and student
41
42 status is vital to understanding self-esteem. Although emotional intelligence and authoritative
43
44 parenting were predictive of self-esteem, emotional intelligence accounted for more variance in
45
46 self-esteem than did authoritative parenting, suggesting that emotional intelligence is more
47
48 critical to improvement in self-esteem in young adults at the developmental stage of increasing
49
50 self-esteem. Nevertheless, findings demonstrate that cognitive, affective, and parental factors
51
52 play a critical role in social and psychological development and how individuals perceive and
53
54 interact with self and others.
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

References

- Adekeye, O. A., Alao, A. A., Adeusi, S. O., Odukoya, J., & Godspower, C. S. (2015, November 16-18). *Correlates between parenting styles and the emotional intelligence: A study of senior secondary school students in Lagos State*. ICERI2015 Conference, Seville, Spain. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/74db/d58d1c675c41fde1af1c3117832adbecb404.pdf>
- Adubale, A. A. (2017). Parenting styles as predictors of anxiety and depression of in-school adolescents in Nigeria. *Africa Education Review*, *14*(3-4), 111-121. <https://doi.org/10.1080/18146627.2017.1264864>
- Ajmal, S., Javed, S., & Javed, H. (2017). Gender differences in emotional intelligence among medical students. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, *8*(3), 205-207. https://www.ijbssnet.com/journals/Vol_8_No_3_March_2017/22.pdf
- Akdemir, D., Çak, T., Aslan, C., Aydos, B. S., Nalbant, K., & Çuhadaroğlu-Çetin, F. (2016). Predictors of self-esteem in adolescents with a psychiatric referral. *Turkish Journal of Pediatrics*, *58*(1), 69-78. [10.24953/turkjped.2016.01.010](https://doi.org/10.24953/turkjped.2016.01.010)
- Alegre, A. (2010). Parenting styles and children's emotional intelligence: What do we know? *The Family Journal*, *19*(1), 56-62. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1066480710387486>
- Antonopoulou, K., Alexopoulos, D. A., & Maridaki-Kassotaki, K. (2012). Perceptions of father parenting style, empathy, and self-esteem among Greek preadolescents. *Marriage & Family Review*, *48*(3), 293-309. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01494929.2012.665016>
- Asghari, M. S., & Besharat, M. A. (2011). The relation of perceived parenting with emotional intelligence. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *30*(2011), 231-235. [10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.10.046](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.10.046)

- 1
2
3
4 Baumrind, D. (1966). Effects of authoritative parental control on child behavior. *Child*
5
6
7 *Development*, 37(4), 887-907.
8
9 https://arowe.pbworks.com/f/baumrind_1966_parenting.pdf
10
- 11 Belean, R. D., & Năstasă, L. E. (2017). The relationship between parental style, parental
12
13 competence and emotional intelligence. *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Brasov.*
14
15
16 *Series VII: Social Sciences. Law*, 10, 181-190.
17
- 18 Bibi, S., Saqlain, S., & Mussawar, B. (2016). Relationship between emotional intelligence and
19
20 self esteem among Pakistani. *Journal of Psychology & Psychotherapy*, 6(4), 1-6.
21
22
23 10.4172/2161-0487.1000279
24
- 25
26 Bleidorn, W., Arslan, R. C., Denissen, J. J. A., Rentfrow, P. J., Gebauer, J. E., & Potter, J. I.
27
28 (2016). Age and gender differences in self-esteem: A cross-cultural window. *Journal of*
29
30 *Personality and Social Psychology*, 111(3), 396-410.
31
32 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/pspp0000078>
33
34
- 35
36 Booth, M. Z., & Gerard, J. M. (2011). Self-esteem and academic achievement: A comparative
37
38 study of adolescent students in England and the United States. *Compare*, 41(5), 629-648.
39
40
41 10.1080/03057925.2011.566688
42
- 43 Bosson, J. K., & Swann, W. B., Jr. (2009). *Self-esteem: Nature, origins, and consequences*. In R.
44
45 Hoyle & M. Leary (Eds.), *Handbook of individual differences in social behavior* (pp.
46
47 527-546). Guilford.
48
49
- 50 Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2011). Emotional intelligence: Implications for
51
52 personal, social, academic, and workplace success. *Social and Personality Psychology*
53
54 *Compass*, 5(1), 88-103. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2010.00334.x>
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

- 1
2
3
4 Briones, E. M., & Benham, G. (2017). An examination of the equivalency of self-report
5
6 measures obtained from crowd-sourced versus undergraduate student samples. *Behavior*
7
8
9 *Research Methods*, 49(1), 320-334. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-016-0710-8>
10
- 11 Buchanan, T., & Smith, J. L. (1999). Using the Internet for psychological research: Personality
12
13 testing on the World Wide Web. *British Journal of Psychology*, 90(Pt. 1), 125-144.
14
15
16 10.1348/000712699161189
17
- 18 Buri, J. R. (1989). Self-esteem and appraisals of parental behavior. *Journal of Adolescent*
19
20 *Research*, 4(1), 33-49. <https://doi.org/10.1177/074355488941003>
21
22
- 23 Buri, J. R. (1991). Parental authority questionnaire. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 57(1),
24
25 110–119. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa5701_13
26
27
- 28 Buri, J. R., Louiselle, P. A., Misukanis, T. M., & Mueller, R. A. (1988). Effects of parental
29
30 authoritarianism and authoritativeness on self-esteem. *Personality and Social Psychology*
31
32 *Bulletin*, 14(2), 271-282.
33
34
- 35 Cameron, M., Cramer, K. M., & Manning, D. (2020). Relating parenting styles to adult
36
37 emotional intelligence: A retrospective study. *Athens Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(3),
38
39 185-196. <https://doi.org/10.30958/ajss.7-3-3>
40
41
42
- 43 Carr, S. E. (2009). Emotional intelligence in medical students: Does it correlate with selection
44
45 measures? *Medical Education*, 43(11), 1069-1077.
46
47
48 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2009.03496.x>
49
- 50 Cheung, C. K., Cheung, H. Y., & Hue, M. (2015a). Emotional Intelligence as a basis for self-
51
52 esteem in young adults. *Journal of Psychology*, 149(1), 63-84.
53
54
55 10.1080/00223980.2013.838540
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

- Cheung, C. K., Cheung, H. Y., & Hue, M. (2015b). Reciprocal influences between self-assessed emotional intelligence and self-esteem. *International Journal of Adolescence & Youth*, 20(3), 295-305. [10.1080/02673843.2013.800567](https://doi.org/10.1080/02673843.2013.800567)
- Chong, W. H., & Chan, C. S. Y. (2015). The mediating role of self-talk between parenting styles and emotional intelligence: An Asian perspective with Singaporean adolescents. *International Perspectives in Psychology: Research, Practice, Consultation*, 4(3), 195–208. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ipp0000034>
- Christy, X. I., & Mythili, T. (2020). Self-esteem, Self-efficacy and academic performance among adolescents. *Journal of Indian Association for Child & Adolescent Mental Health*, 16(2), 123-135.
- Ciarrochi, J., Chan, A. Y., & Bajgar, J. (2001). Measuring emotional intelligence in adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 31(7), 1105-1119. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(00\)00207-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(00)00207-5)
- Colasante, E., Benedetti, E., Fortunato, L., Scalese, M., Potente, R., Cutilli, A., & Molinaro, S. (2019). Paper and-pencil versus computerized administration mode: Comparison of data quality and risk behavior prevalence estimates in the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD). *PLoS ONE*, 14(11), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0225140>
- Curvis, W., Simpson, J., & Hampson, N. (2018). Factors associated with self-esteem following acquired brain injury in adults: A systematic review. *Neuropsychological Rehabilitation*, 28(1), 142-183. [10.1080/09602011.2016.1144515](https://doi.org/10.1080/09602011.2016.1144515)
- Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113(3), 487-496. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.113.3.487>

De Beuckelaer, A., & Filip Lievens, F. (2009). Measurement equivalence of paper-and-pencil and internet organisational surveys: A large-scale examination in 16 countries. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 58(2), 336-361.

10.1111/j.1464-0597.2008.00350.x

Delhom, I., Gutierrez, M., Mayordomo, T., & Melendez, J. C. (2018). Does emotional intelligence predict depressed mood? A structural equation model with elderly people. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 19(6), 1713-1726. 10.1007/s10902-017-9891-9

Fernández-Berrocal, P., Cabello, R., Castillo, R., & Extremera, N. (2012). Gender differences in emotional intelligence: The mediating effect of age. *Behavioral Psychology/Psicología Conductual*, 20(1), 77-89.

George, N., Shanbhag, D. N., George, M., Shaju, A. C., Johnson, R. C., Mathew, P. T., Golapalli, C. P., & Goud, R. (2017). A study of emotional intelligence and perceived parenting styles among adolescents in a rural area in Karnataka. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 6(4), 848-852. https://doi.org/10.4103/jfmpe.jfmpe_100_17

Gomez-Baya, D., Mendoza, R., & Paino, S. (2016). Emotional basis of gender differences in adolescent self-esteem. *Psicologia: Revista Da Associacao Portuguesa Psicologia*, 30(2), 1-14. 10.17575/rpsicol.v30i2.1105

Gosling, S. D., Vazire, S., Srivastava, S., & John, O. P. (2004). Should we trust Web-based studies? A comparative analysis of six preconceptions about Internet questionnaires. *American Psychologist*, 59(2), 93-104. 10.1037/0003-066X.59.2.93

Harrod, N. R., & Scheer, S. D. (2005). An exploration of adolescent emotional intelligence in relation to demographic characteristic. *Adolescence*, 40(159), 503-512.

Harter, S. (2012). *The construction of the self: Developmental and sociocultural foundations*. (2nd ed.). Guilford.

Hertel, J., Schütz, A., & Lammers, C. H. (2009). Emotional intelligence and mental disorder. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 65*(9), 942-954. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.20597>

Hirata, H., & Kamakura, T. (2018). The effects of parenting styles on each personal growth initiative and self-esteem among Japanese university students. *International Journal of Adolescence & Youth, 23*(3), 325-333. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02673843.2017.1371614>

Hoeve, M., Blokland, A., Dubas, J. S., Loeber, R., Gerris, J. R. M., & van der Laan, P. H. (2008). Trajectories of delinquency and parenting styles. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 36*(2), 223-235. [10.1007/s10802-007-9172-x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-007-9172-x)

IBM Corp. (2011). *IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 20.0*.

Jafflin, K., Pfeiffer, C., & Bergman, M. M. (2019). Effects of self-esteem and stress on self-assessed health: A Swiss study from adolescence to early adulthood. *Quality of Life Research, 28*(4), 915-924. [10.1007/s11136-018-2059-1](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11136-018-2059-1)

Jankauskiene, R., Kardelis, K., Sukys, S., & Kardeliene, L. (2008). Associations between school bullying and psychosocial factors. *Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal, 36*(2), 145-161. [10.2224/sbp.2008.36.2.145](https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2008.36.2.145)

Jenaabadi, H. (2014). Studying the relation between emotional intelligence and self esteem with academic achievement. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences, 114*(21), 203-206. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.12.685>

Johar, S. S. H. (2014). The influence of emotional intelligence and self-esteem among employee towards organizational commitment in public sector. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research Administration and Management, 14*(1), 1-8.

- 1
2
3
4 Katyal, S., & Awasthi, E. (2005). Gender differences in emotional intelligence among
5
6 adolescents of Chandigarh. *Journal of Human Ecology, 17*(2), 153-155.
7
8
9 <https://doi.org/10.1080/09709274.2005.11905771>
10
11 Kaypaklı, G. Y., & Tamam, L. (2019). Emotional intelligence in attention deficit hyperactivity
12
13 disorder. *Current Approaches in Psychiatry/Psikiyatride Guncel Yaklasimlar, 11*(1),
14
15 112–119. 10.18863/pgy.467037
16
17
18 Khalili, A. (n.d.). *Gender differences in emotional intelligence among employees of small and*
19
20 *medium enterprise: An empirical study.*
21
22 <http://www.jimsjournal.org/19%20Ashkan%20Khalili.pdf>
23
24
25 Khoury-Kassabri, M., Attar-Schwartz, S., & Zur, H. (2014). Understanding the mediating role of
26
27 corporal punishment in the association between maternal stress, efficacy, co-parenting
28
29 and children's adjustment difficulties among Arab mothers. *Child Abuse & Neglect,*
30
31 *38*(6), 1073-1082. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2014.04.009>
32
33
34
35 Kling, K. C., Hyde, J. S., Showers, C. J., & Buswell, B. N. (1999). Gender differences in self-
36
37 esteem: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*(4), 470-500.
38
39
40 10.1037/0033-2909.125.4.470
41
42
43 Körük, S. (2017). The effect of self-esteem on student achievement. In E. Karadağ (Ed.), *The*
44
45 *factors effecting student achievement* (pp. 247-257). Springer.
46
47
48 Kupcewicz, E., & Józwik, M. (2020). Association of burnout syndrome and global self-esteem
49
50 among Polish nurses. *Archives of Medical Science, 16*(1), 135-145.
51
52 10.5114/aoms.2019.88626
53
54
55 Kuppens, S., & Ceulemans, E. (2019). Parenting styles: A closer look at a well-known concept.
56
57 *Journal of Child & Family Studies, 28*(1), 168-181. 10.1007/s10826-018-1242-x
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Lansford, J. E., Alampay, L. P., Al-Hassan, S., Bacchini, D., Bombi, A. S., Bornstein, M. H., Chang, L., Deater-Deckard, K., Di Giunta, L., Dodge, K. A., Oburu, P., Pastorelli, C., Runyan, D. K., Skinner, A. T., Sorbring, E., Tapanya, S., Tirado, L. M. U., & Zelli, A. (2010). Corporal punishment of children in nine countries as a function of child gender and parent gender. *International Journal of Pediatrics, 1*, 1-12.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2010/672780>

Law, K. S., Wong, C. S., & Song, L. J. (2004). The construct validity of emotional intelligence and its potential utility for management studies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(3), 483-496.

Lee, S. J., Guterman, N. B., & Lee, Y. (2008). Risk factors for paternal physical child abuse. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 32*(9), 846-858. 10.1016/j.chiabu.2007.11.006

Leite, K. P., de Marzio Pestana Martins, F., Trevizol, A. P., de Souza Noto, J. R., & Brietzke, E. (2019). A critical literature review on emotional intelligence in addiction. *Trends in Psychiatry & Psychotherapy, 41*(1), 87-93. 10.1590/2237-6089-2018-0002

Lewis, I. M., Watson, B. C., & White, K. M. (2009). Internet versus paper-and-pencil survey methods in psychological experiments: Equivalence testing of participant responses to health-related messages. *Australian Journal of Psychology, 61*(2), 107-116.

10.1080/00049530802105865

Lizeretti, N. P., Extremera, N., & Rodríguez, A. (2012). Perceived emotional intelligence and clinical symptoms in mental disorders. *Psychiatric Quarterly, 83*(4), 407-418.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11126-012-9211-9>

- 1
2
3
4 MacCann, C., Jiang, Y., Brown, L. E. R., Double, K. S., Bucich, M., & Minbashian, A. (2020).
5
6 Emotional intelligence predicts academic performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological*
7
8 *Bulletin*, 146(2), 150-186. 10.1037/bul0000219
9
- 10
11 Magee, W., & Upenieks, L. (2019). Gender differences in self-esteem, unvarnished self-
12
13 evaluation, future orientation, self-enhancement and self-derogation in a U.S. national
14
15 sample. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 149, 66-77.
16
17 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.05.016>
18
19
- 20
21 Mahoney, A., Donnelly, W. O., Lewis, T., & Maynard, C. (2000). Mother and father self-reports
22
23 of corporal punishment and severe physical aggression toward clinic-referred youth.
24
25 *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 29(2), 266-281. 10.1207/S15374424jccp2902_12
26
27
- 28
29 Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2008). Emotional intelligence new ability or eclectic
30
31 traits? *American Psychologist*, 63(6), 503-517. 10.1037/0003-055x.63.6.503
32
33
- 34 Michaelides, M. P., Zenger, M., Koutsogiorgi, C., Brähler, E., Stöbel-Richter, Y., & Berth, H.
35
36 (2016). Personality correlates and gender invariance of wording effects in the German
37
38 version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 97,
39
40 13-18. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.03.011>
41
42
- 43 Mikolajczak, M., Petrides, K. V., Hurry, J. (2009). Adolescents choosing self- harm as an
44
45 emotion regulation strategy: The protective role of trait emotional intelligence. *British*
46
47 *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 48(Pt. 2), 181-193. 10.1348/014466508X386027
48
49
- 50
51 Mitrofan, L. (2011). The influence of parental style on emotional intelligence and self-esteem at
52
53 adolescents. *Journal of Experiential Psychotherapy*, 14(4), 37-49.
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

- 1
2
3
4 Mokhlesi, V., & Patil, C. B. (2018). A study of gender differences in emotional intelligence and
5
6 learning behaviour among children. *International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 6(4), 55-
7
8 61. 10.25215/0604.047
9
- 10
11 Moreno Méndez, J. H., Espada Sánchez, J. P., & Gómez Becerra, M. I. (2020). Role of parenting
12
13 styles in internalizing, externalizing, and adjustment problems in children. *Salud Mental*,
14
15 43(2), 73-84. 10.17711/SM.0185-3325.2020.011
16
17
- 18
19 Nhan, H. (n.d.). *How do parenting styles, parental gender, and culture impact children's mental*
20
21 *health and behavior?* <https://northernlightnhcc.org/?p=676>
22
23
- 24 Nnabuife, E. J., Chukwuemeka, O. M., Chinwendu, U. P., Ephraim, D., & Ikechukwu, E. (2018).
25
26 The relationship between self-esteem and emotional intelligence among undergraduate
27
28 medical students of Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria. *International Journal of Brain*
29
30 *and Cognitive Sciences*, 7(1), 1-8. 10.5923/j.ijbcs.20180701.01
31
32
- 33
34 Obimakinde, A. M., Omigbodun, O., Adejumo, O., & Adedokun, B. (2019). Parenting styles and
35
36 socio-demographic dynamics associated with mental health of in-school adolescents in
37
38 Ibadan, south-west Nigeria. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Mental Health*, 31(2), 109-
39
40 124. 10.2989/17280583.2019.1662426
41
42
- 43
44 Olatunji, B. O., Ebesutani, C., & Kim, E. H. (2015). Examination of a bifactor model of the three
45
46 domains of disgust scale: Specificity in relation to obsessive-compulsive symptoms.
47
48 *Psychological Assessment*, 27(1), 102-113. 10.1037/pas0000039
49
- 50
51 Orth, U., & Robins, R. W. (2013). Understanding the link between low self-esteem and
52
53 depression. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 22(6) 455-460.
54
55 10.1177/0963721413492763
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Orth, U., & Robins, R. W. (2014). The development of self-esteem. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 23(5), 381-387. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0963721414547414>

Perez-Gramaje, A. F., Garcia, O. F., Reyes, M., Serra, E., & Garcia, F. (2020). Parenting styles and aggressive adolescents: Relationships with self-esteem and personal maladjustment. *European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context*, 12(1), 1-10.
10.5093/ejpalc2020a1

Pérez-Fuentes, M., Jurado, M. M., del Pino, R. M., & Linares, J. J. G. (2019). Emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and empathy as predictors of overall self-esteem in nursing by years of experience. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 1-9.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02035>

Pérez-Fuentes, M., Jurado, M. M., & Gázquez Linares, J. J. (2019). Explanatory value of general self-efficacy, empathy and emotional intelligence in overall self-esteem of healthcare professionals. *Social Work in Public Health*, 34(4), 318-329.
10.1080/19371918.2019.1606752

Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). Gender differences in measured and self-estimated trait emotional intelligence. *Sex Roles*, 42(5-6), 449-461.
<https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007006523133>

Pinquart, M., & Gerke, D. (2019). Associations of parenting styles with self-esteem in children and adolescents: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 28, 2017-2035.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-019-01417-5>

Qualter, P., Urquijo, I., Henzi, P., Barrett, L., & Humphrey, N. (2019). Ability emotional intelligence and children's behaviour in the playground. *Social Development*, 28(2), 430-448. 10.1111/sode.12340

- 1
2
3
4 Rani, U. H., & Marzuki, N. A. (2017). Emotional intelligence vs self-esteem: A study of its
5
6 relationship among hearing-impaired students. *International Journal of Academic*
7
8 *Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 7(3), 317-323.
9
10 <http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBS/v7-i3/2736>
11
12
13
14 Rathi, J. (2015). A study of emotional intelligence of adolescent students in relation to the type
15
16 of school. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 1(13), 456-458.
17
18
19 Roberts, R. D., Zeidner, M., & Matthews, G. (2001). Does emotional intelligence meet
20
21 traditional standards for intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. *Emotion*, 1(3),
22
23 196-231. 10.1037//1528-3542.1.3.196
24
25
26 Robins, R. W., & Trzesniewski, K. H. (2005). Self-esteem development across the lifespan.
27
28 *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 14(3), 158-162.
29
30 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00353.x>
31
32
33 Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton University Press.
34
35
36 Rudy, D., & Grusec, J. (2001). Correlates of authoritarian parenting in individualist and
37
38 collectivist cultures and implications for understanding the transmission of values.
39
40 *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32(2), 202-212.
41
42 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022101032002007>
43
44
45 Sa, B., Ojeh, N., Majumder, M. A. A., Nunes, P., Williams, S., Rao, S. R., & Youssef, F. F.
46
47 (2019). The relationship between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, and empathy
48
49 among students from six health professional programs. *Teaching and Learning in*
50
51 *Medicine*, 31(5), 536-543. 10.1080/10401334.2019.1607741
52
53
54
55 Şahin, H. (2017). Emotional intelligence and self-esteem as predictors of teacher self-efficacy.
56
57 *Educational Research and Reviews*, 12(22), 1107-1111. 10.5897/ERR2017.3385
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

- 1
2
3
4 Sowislo, J. F., & Orth, U. (2013). Does low self-esteem predict depression and anxiety? A meta-
5
6 analysis of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin*, *139*(1), 213-240.
7
8
9 10.1037/a0028931
- 10
11 Stanton, J. M. (1998). An empirical assessment of data collection using the Internet. *Personnel*
12
13 *Psychology*, *51*(3), 709-725. 10.1111/j.1744-6570.1998.tb00259.x
- 14
15
16 Steinberg, L. (2001). We know some things: Parent-adolescent relationships in retrospect and
17
18 prospect. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, *11*(1), 1-19. [https://doi.org/10.1111/1532-](https://doi.org/10.1111/1532-7795.00001)
19
20
21 7795.00001
- 22
23
24 Stevens, A. E., Canu, W. H., Lefler, E. K., & Hartung, C. M. (2019). Maternal parenting style
25
26 and internalizing and ADHD symptoms in college students. *Journal of Child & Family*
27
28 *Studies*, *28*(1), 260-272. 10.1007/s10826-018-1264-4
- 29
30
31 Tafarodi, R. W., Wild, N., & Ho, C. (2010). Parental authority, nurturance, and two-dimensional
32
33 self-esteem. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *51*(4), 294-303. 10.1111/j.1467-
34
35 9450.2009.00804.x
- 36
37
38 Teng, Z., Liu, Y., & Guo, C. (2015). A meta-analysis of the relationship between self-esteem and
39
40 aggression among Chinese students. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, *21*(2), 45-54.
41
42
43 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2015.01.005>
- 44
45
46 Trinidad, D. R., & Johnson, C. A. (2002). The association between emotional intelligence and
47
48 early adolescent tobacco and alcohol use. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *32*(1),
49
50 95-105. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(01\)00008-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(01)00008-3)
- 51
52
53 Trzesniewski, K. H., Donnellan, M. B., & Robins, R. W. (2002). Stability of self-esteem across
54
55 the life span. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, *84*(1), 205-220. 10.1037/0022-
56
57 3514.84.1.205
- 58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

- 1
2
3
4 Ugoji, F. N. (2013). Determinants of risky sexual behaviors among secondary school students in
5
6 Delta State Nigeria. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 19(3), 408-418.
7
8
9 <https://doi.org/10.1080/02673843.2012.751040>
10
- 11 Uji, M., Sakamoto, A., Adachi, K., & Kitamura, T. (2014). The impact of authoritative,
12
13 authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles on children's later mental health in Japan:
14
15 Focusing on parent and child gender. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 23(2), 293-
16
17 302. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-013-9740-3>
18
19
20
- 21 Walter, S. L., Seibert, S. E., Goering, D., & O'Boyle, E. H. (2018). A tale of two sample sources:
22
23 Do results from online panel data and conventional data converge? *Journal of Business*
24
25 *and Psychology*, 34(4), 425-452. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-9552-y>
26
27
28
- 29 Ward, P., Clark, T., Zabriskie, R., & Morris, T. (2014). Paper/pencil versus online data
30
31 collection: An exploratory study. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 46(1), 84-105.
32
33
34 [10.1080/00222216.2012.11950276](https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.2012.11950276)
35
- 36 Weigold, A., Weigold, I. K., & Russell, E. J. (2013). Examination of the equivalence of self-
37
38 report survey-based paper-and-pencil and internet data collection methods. *Psychological*
39
40 *Methods*, 18(1), 53-70. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031607>
41
42
- 43 Weisberg, Y. J., DeYoung, C. G., & Hirsh, J. B. (2011). Gender differences in personality across
44
45 the ten aspects of the Big Five. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 2(8), Article 178.
46
47
48 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2011.00178>
49
- 50 Williams, L. R., Degnan, K. A., Perez-Edgar, K. E., Henderson, H. A., Rubin, K. H., Pine, D. S.,
51
52 & Fox, N. A. (2009). Impact of behavioral inhibition and parenting style on internalizing
53
54 and externalizing problems from early childhood through adolescence. *Journal of*
55
56 *Abnormal Child Psychology*, 37(8), 1063-1075. [10.1007/s10802-009-9331-3](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-009-9331-3)
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 Wolfradt, U., Hempel, S., & Miles, J. N. (2003). Perceived parenting styles, depersonalisation,
5
6 anxiety and coping behaviour in adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences*,
7
8
9 34(3), 521-532. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(02\)00092-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(02)00092-2)

10
11 Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on
12
13 performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(3), 243-
14
15
16 274.

17
18
19 Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Roberts, R. D. (2009). *What we know about emotional*
20
21 *intelligence: How it affects learning, work, relationships, and our mental health*. MIT.

22
23
24 Zubizarreta, A., Calvete, E., & Hankin, B. L. (2019). Punitive parenting style and psychological
25
26 problems in childhood: The moderating role of warmth and temperament. *Journal of*
27
28 *Child & Family Studies*, 28(1), 233-244. [10.1007/s10826-018-1258-2](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-018-1258-2)

29
30
31 Zuquette, C. R., Opaleye, E. S., Feijó, M. R., Amato, T. C., Ferri, C. P., & Noto, A. R. (2019).
32
33 Contributions of parenting styles and parental drunkenness to adolescent drinking.
34
35
36 *Revista Brasileira de Psiquiatria*, 41(6), 511-517. [10.1590/1516-4446-2018-0041](https://doi.org/10.1590/1516-4446-2018-0041)

37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Table 1*Demographic Characteristics of Respondents*

Sample characteristics	<i>n</i>	%
Age: Mean = 25.86 years, <i>SD</i> = 6.12 years		
Gender		
Male	148	58.7
Female	104	41.3
Marital status		
Single (never married)	222	88.1
Married or other (divorced, widowed)	30	11.9
Educational status		
Student	120	47.6
Graduate	66	26.2
Nonstudent	66	26.2
Family economic background		
Very wealthy	8	3.2
Moderately wealthy	113	44.8
Neither rich nor poor	114	45.2
Moderately poor	15	6.0
Very poor	2	0.8
Children		
Yes	28	11.1
No	224	88.9
Ethnicity		
Yoruba	198	78.6
Igbo and Hausa	54	21.4
Religion		
Christianity	201	79.8
Muslim or other (traditional religion and atheist)	51	20.2

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Self-Esteem, Emotional Intelligence, and Parenting Styles

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Self-esteem	Self-emotion appraisal	Others' emotion appraisal	Uses of emotion	Regulation of emotion	Authoritative parenting	Authoritarian parenting
Self-esteem	3.11	0.48							
Emotional Intelligence ^a	6.11	0.80	.354*						
Self-emotion appraisal	6.24	0.87	.309**						
Others' emotion appraisal	5.85	1.11	.262**	.530**					
Uses of emotion	6.29	0.93	.328**	.560**	.545**				
Regulation of emotion	6.04	1.10	.248**	.526**	.452**	.543**			
Parenting styles ^a	2.96	0.62	.178*						
Authoritative parenting	3.18	0.80	.308**	.035	.072	.120	-.021		
Authoritarian parenting	3.11	0.80	.132*	-.031	-.058	.054	-.066	.532**	
Permissive parenting	2.59	0.64	-.034	.057	.011	.026	.016	.566**	.471**

Note: *N* = 252. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard deviation

^aCorrelation between parenting styles and emotional intelligence (.022) is nonsignificant.

p* < .05 (two-tailed), *p* < .01 (two-tailed).

Table 3*Gender Differences in Emotional Intelligence, Self-Esteem, and Parenting Style*

Variable	Female		Male		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Emotional intelligence	6.25	.66	6.01	.88	2.34	.020
Self-emotion appraisal	6.39	.69	6.14	.96	2.33	.021
Others' emotion appraisal	6.02	.88	5.72	1.24	2.14	.034
Uses of emotion	6.44	.99	6.13	1.12	2.08	.039
Regulation of emotion	6.13	1.12	5.98	1.09	1.07	<i>ns</i>
Self-esteem	3.22	.45	3.04	.49	2.88	.004
Parenting style	2.99	.62	2.94	.66	.761	<i>ns</i>
Authoritative parenting	3.26	.79	3.13	.79	1.27	<i>ns</i>
Authoritarian parenting	3.19	.84	3.06	.78	1.25	<i>ns</i>
Permissive parenting	2.55	.65	2.62	.64	-.93	<i>ns</i>

Note: *df* = 250. *ns* = nonsignificant, *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard deviation.

Table 4*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Predictors of Self-Esteem*

Variable	β	t	95.0% CI		p
			LL	UL	
<i>Step 1</i>					
Age	.05	.72	-.007	.014	.471
Gender ^a	.09	1.67	-.017	.210	.096
Marital status ^b	-.02	-.27	-.217	.165	.786
Educational status ^c	.21	3.56	.100	.350	<.0005
Ethnic background ^d	.01	.22	-.120	.151	.823
Religious background ^e	.07	1.27	-.048	.219	.207
<i>Step 2</i>					
Emotional intelligence ^f					
Self-emotion appraisal	.16	2.21	.010	.171	.028
Others' emotion appraisal	.01	.09	-.059	.064	.929
Uses of emotion	.16	2.04	.003	.160	.043
Regulation of emotion	.06	.81	-.036	.087	.421
<i>Step 3</i>					
Parenting styles ^g					
Authoritative parenting	.30	4.52	.103	.262	<.0005
Authoritarian parenting	-.04	-.60	-.103	.054	.547

Results of analysis using global emotional intelligence and parenting styles, controlling for demographic characteristics, are as follows^h:

^f Emotional intelligence	.33	5.61	.13	.26	<.0005
^g Parenting styles	.18	3.08	.05	.23	.002

Note. Note: CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit. Step 1 ($R^2 = .08$), Step 2 ($R^2 = .19$, R^2 change = 12), and Step 3 ($R^2 = .27$, R^2 change = 08).

A separate analysis describing the predictors of emotional intelligence was equally significant ($F_{(7, 251)} = 5.628, p < .0005$). Being *female* ($\beta = .12, p = .048$), being a *student* ($\beta = .19, p = .002$), and *self-esteem* ($\beta = .33, p < .0005$) were significantly associated with *emotional intelligence*. The model accounted for approximately 18% (adjusted $R^2 = .16$) of the variance in *emotional intelligence*, of which *self-esteem* accounted for approximately 11%.

^aGender = Female = 1, male = 0. ^bMarital status = Single (never married) = 1, other (i.e., married, married but separated, divorced, widowed) = 0. ^cEducational status = Undergraduate/graduate student = 1, Nonstudent = 0. ^dEthnic background = Yoruba = 1, Igbo and Hausa = 0, ^eReligious background = Christianity = 1, Muslim and others (i.e., traditional religion and atheist) = 0. All variables were centered. ^hStudent status (being student) remains significant in this model. *Emotional intelligence* accounted for 11% and *parenting styles* accounted for 3% of the variance in *self-esteem*.

Figure 1

A Proposed Model of the Effects of Emotional Intelligence and Parenting Styles on Self-Esteem

