

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY: APPLIED BUSINESS AND EDUCATION RESEARCH

2026, Vol. 7, No. 8, 3436 – 3447

<http://dx.doi.org/10.11594/ijmaber.07.08.14>

Research Article

Mapping Teenage Rebellion, Autonomy, and Parent-Child Conflict in Southeast Asian Families: A Scoping Review

Rudyard LeRoy A. Benemerito¹, Zsui M. Gabriela¹, Venice Ann F. Venturina¹, Myla M. Arcinas*

¹The Academy, Senior High School, De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines

²Department of Sociology and Behavioral Sciences, De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines

Article history:

Submission 13 July 2026

Revised 15 August 2026

Accepted 23 August 2026

*Corresponding author:

E-mail:

myla.arcinas@disu.edu.ph

ABSTRACT

Teenage rebellion is a familiar lay term, yet how it is conceptualized and studied within Southeast Asian families—settings shaped by collectivist values, filial piety, and strong parental authority—remains unclear. This scoping review mapped the available evidence as a necessary first step toward more focused empirical work. Following the methodological framework of Arksey and O'Malley as refined by Levac and colleagues and reported in line with the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses Extension for Scoping Reviews, two databases were searched for peer-reviewed, English-language studies published between January 2000 and January 2025 on adolescents aged 13 to 19 years living with their families in Southeast Asia. Records were screened against pre-specified eligibility criteria, and data were charted in response to five research questions. Ten studies from six countries (Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, the Philippines, Vietnam, and Indonesia) were included. Only two studies named rebellion directly; most used proxy constructs such as risk taking, conduct problems, aggression, children beyond control, and emotional and behavioral problems. Family conflict, weak parental monitoring or support, peer influence, and socioeconomic strain were the most consistently reported contributing factors. Manifestations centered on defiance, withdrawal, and conflict, whereas outcomes ranged from distress and risk behavior to, in supportive families, prosocial behavior and well-being. Designs were overwhelmingly cross-sectional. Southeast Asian research approaches adolescent rebellion obliquely, through related constructs and predominantly cross-sectional designs. The field would benefit from clearer conceptualization, qualitative work centering adolescents' voices, longitudinal designs, culturally grounded frameworks, and more country-specific evidence.

Keywords: *Adolescents, Autonomy, Filial Piety, Parent-Child Conflict, Scoping Review, Southeast Asia, Teenage Rebellion*

How to cite:

Benemerito, A. L.A., Gabriela, Z. M., Venturina, V. A. F., & Arcinas, M. M. (2026). Mapping Teenage Rebellion, Autonomy, and Parent-Child Conflict in Southeast Asian Families: A Scoping Review. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary: Applied Business and Education Research*. 7(8), 3436 – 3447. doi: 10.11594/ijmaber.07.08.14

Introduction

Adolescence is a developmental stage marked by physical, emotional, cognitive, and social change, during which young people consolidate a sense of identity and seek greater independence from parental authority. As adolescents press for autonomy, the parent-child relationship is renegotiated, and friction within the family commonly increases—so much so that the phenomenon has acquired a popular label: teenage rebellion. In everyday usage, rebellion denotes not merely rule breaking but defiance of authority and the deliberate pursuit of choices that run counter to parental wishes. Within a developmental frame, however, such behavior has been linked less to mere defiance than to the achievement of a central developmental task: identity formation. In Erikson's (1968) psychosocial theory of identity formation, adolescence is characterized by questioning authority, experimenting with independence, and testing social boundaries as the young person works to resolve the tension between identity and role confusion. Consistent with this view, Ganiron et al. (2017) described rebellion as behavior enacted in response to parental rules and authority and motivated largely by a desire for freedom.

The meaning and expression of rebellion are not, however, culturally uniform. Much of the early scholarship on adolescent autonomy and rebellion originated in Western settings, where independence and self-expression are generally regarded as healthy developmental gains. Many Southeast Asian cultures, by contrast, emphasize collectivist values, family cohesion, hierarchical parent-child relationships, and filial obligation. These dynamics are captured by the dual filial piety model of Yeh and Bedford (2003), which distinguishes two dimensions of filial piety: a reciprocal dimension, grounded in gratitude and affective bonding, and an authoritarian dimension, grounded in obedience and deference to parental authority. Behaviors read as healthy expressions of autonomy among Western youth may therefore be interpreted within Southeast Asian households as defiance, disrespect, or a sign of family disharmony.

Despite these sociocultural differences, research on adolescent rebellion remains dominated by Western theoretical, methodological, and terminological perspectives. Existing studies rely heavily on cross-sectional surveys and standardized psychological instruments devel-

oped in Western societies. Although informative about adolescent behavior, such designs capture only a static slice of development and seldom reflect the dynamic, transactional character of family relationships (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The Southeast Asian evidence base is further fragmented because rebellion is typically studied under adjacent labels—conduct problems, aggression, risk behavior, emotional and behavioral difficulties, or parent-child conflict—rather than as rebellion.

Because the relevant evidence is dispersed across disciplines (developmental psychology, sociology, public health, education, and family studies) and characterized by heterogeneous constructs, a scoping review is the most appropriate method. Unlike reviews addressing a focused question of effectiveness, scoping reviews map the extent, range, and nature of available evidence, clarify concepts, and identify gaps for future research (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). The present review examines how adolescent rebellion, autonomy, and parent-child conflict have been conceptualized and studied in Southeast Asia and defines directions for future work.

Research Questions

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. How is teenage rebellion (or a related construct) defined in Southeast Asian literature?
2. What motivations or contributing factors are associated with it?
3. How does it manifest within family relationships?
4. What developmental, relational, or psychosocial outcomes are associated with it?
5. What gaps exist in the current literature?

Methodology

Protocol and Reporting

The review followed the methodological framework proposed by Arksey and O'Malley (2005) and subsequently refined by Levac et al. (2010), comprising five stages: (a) identifying the research questions; (b) identifying relevant studies; (c) study selection; (d) charting the data; and (e) collating, summarizing, and reporting the results. Reporting adheres to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses Extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR; Tricco et al., 2018). Consistent with scoping-review methodology,

no formal risk-of-bias appraisal was conducted; the emphasis is on mapping the breadth of the evidence.

Eligibility Criteria

Studies were included if they met the criteria summarized in Table 1. In brief, eligible

records were peer-reviewed, English-language journal articles published between January 2000 and January 2025 that examined adolescents (target age 13–19 years) living with their families in a Southeast Asian context and that addressed rebellion, autonomy, defiance, parent–child conflict, or closely related constructs.

Table 1. Eligibility Criteria for the Scoping Review

Criterion	Inclusion	Exclusion
Publication period	Published January 2000–January 2025	Published before 2000
Peer review	Peer-reviewed journal articles	Theses, reports, conference abstracts, and non-peer-reviewed sources
Language	Written in English	Non-English publications
Population	Adolescents (target 13–19 years) living with parents or in a nuclear family	Samples outside the adolescent range with no extractable adolescent data; non-family living arrangements
Context	Southeast Asian countries (e.g., the Philippines, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam, Singapore)	Studies set wholly outside Southeast Asia
Focus	Addresses rebellion, autonomy, defiance, parent–child conflict, or closely related constructs within family life	No focus on family relationships, conflict, autonomy, or related adolescent behavior

Note. Criteria were specified a priori and applied at both title–abstract and full-text screening.

Information Sources and Search Strategy

Two databases, Scopus and JSTOR, were searched. Boolean search strings combined terms for adolescence, rebellion or autonomy or conflict, family, and Southeast Asian contexts. The exact strings, filters, and yields are

documented in Table 2. A broader Scopus string (S3) was run to capture studies that framed the topic in terms of parental control, family conflict, or intergenerational conflict rather than rebellion.

Table 2. Search Strategy, Filters, and Yield by Database

ID	Database	Search string (abbreviated)	Filters	Results
S1	Scopus	(“adolescent*” OR “teen*” OR “youth”) AND (“rebellion” OR “defiance” OR “parent-child conflict” OR “autonomy”) AND (“family” OR “parenting” OR “filial piety”) AND (“Southeast Asia” OR named SEA countries)	2000–2025; English; peer-reviewed	34
S2	JSTOR	(“adolescent*” OR “teen*” OR “youth”) AND (“parent-child conflict” OR “autonomy” OR “filial piety”) AND (named SEA countries)	2000–2025; English; articles	18
S3	Scopus	(“youth” OR “adolescent*”) AND (“parental control” OR “family conflict” OR “intergenerational conflict”) AND (named SEA countries)	2000–2025; English; social sciences	27

Note. SEA = Southeast Asia. The SEA countries specified were the Philippines, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam, and Singapore. Scopus yielded 61 records across S1 and S3; JSTOR yielded 18; total = 79.

Selection of Sources of Evidence

Records were screened by title and abstract against the eligibility criteria, after which potentially relevant reports were retrieved and

assessed in full text. The flow of records through identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion is reported in Figure 1 and Table 3.

Data Charting

A standardized charting form was used to extract, for each included study, bibliographic details (authors, year), country and context, research objectives, theoretical or conceptual framework, study design, sample size and sampling technique, data collection method and instruments, analysis, and key findings. Critically, each study was also coded against the five research questions, capturing its definition or related concept, contributing factors, family manifestations, outcomes, and stated or implied gaps.

Synthesis of Results

Findings were synthesized descriptively and grouped by research question rather than by individual study in order to identify patterns across studies. Quantitative study characteristics are summarized numerically (counts,

ranges), and question-specific content is presented in matrix tables accompanied by a narrative synthesis.

Results and Discussion

Search Results and Study Selection

A total of 79 records were identified (Scopus, $n = 61$ across two strings; JSTOR, $n = 18$). After 14 duplicate records were removed, 65 records were screened by title and abstract, and 43 were excluded. Twenty-two reports were then sought for retrieval and assessed in full text, and 12 were excluded for the following reasons: context outside Southeast Asia ($n = 4$), age outside the target range ($n = 2$), no family-relationship focus ($n = 3$), not peer-reviewed or full text unavailable ($n = 2$), and a duplicate identified at full text ($n = 1$). Ten studies met all eligibility criteria and were charted (see Figure 1 and Table 3).

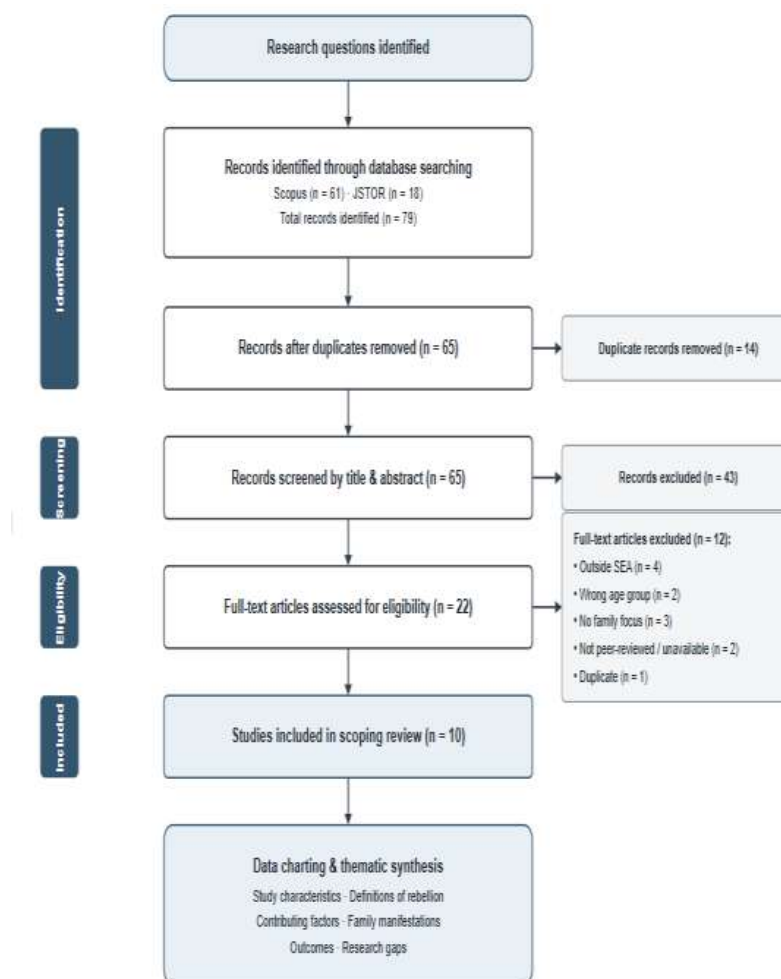


Figure 1. Flow of Records Through the Scoping Review Process. Note. Adapted from the PRISMA extension for scoping reviews (Tricco et al, 2018). SEA = Southeast Asia.

Table 3. PRISMA-ScR Flow of Records Through the Review

Stage	Step	n
Identification	Records identified through database searching (Scopus n = 61; JSTOR n = 18)	79
Identification	Duplicate records removed before screening	14
Screening	Records screened (title and abstract)	65
Screening	Records excluded at title and abstract	43
Eligibility	Reports sought for retrieval and assessed for eligibility (full text)	22
Eligibility	Reports excluded with reasons	12
Included	Studies included in the scoping review	10

Note. Reports excluded at full text (n = 12): context outside Southeast Asia (n = 4), age outside target range (n = 2), no family-relationship focus (n = 3), not peer-reviewed or full text unavailable (n = 2), and duplicate identified at full text (n = 1).

Characteristics of Included Studies

The 10 studies were conducted in six Southeast Asian nations: Malaysia (three studies), Indonesia (two studies), the Philippines (two studies), Singapore (one study), Thailand (one study), and Vietnam (one study). In chronological order, the corpus comprised Choo and Shek (2013), Gray et al. (2013), Azmawati et al. (2015), Ganiron et al. (2017), Kaur et al. (2019), Nguyen et al. (2019), Syed Nong et al. (2025), Pengpid et al. (2025), Saputra et al. (2025), and Sundari et al. (2025). Publications spanned 2013 to 2025, with a concentration of recent (2025) studies. Eight were predominantly quantitative and cross-sectional (two drawing

on the Global School-Based Student Health Survey), one was descriptive mixed methods, and one was a qualitative socio-legal study (Syed Nong et al., 2025). Survey sample sizes ranged from 256 to 10,175 adolescents, and the socio-legal study drew on four key informants. Frameworks varied—attachment, systems, and cumulative-risk models; positive youth development; problem-behavior theory; the socio-ecological model; and the developmental assets framework—alongside a socio-legal lens, whereas some studies specified no explicit theory. Full characteristics appear in Table 4, and the mapping of studies to research questions is presented in Table 5.

Table 4. Characteristics of the 10 Included Studies

Study	Country	Design	Sample	Framework	RQs
Choo & Shek (2013)	Singapore	Cross-sectional survey	1,599	Attachment theory; systems theory; cumulative-risk model	2, 3, 4, 5 (1 partial)
Gray et al. (2013)	Thailand	Cross-sectional survey	905	Positive youth development and well-being	2, 3, 4, 5
Azmawati et al. (2015)	Malaysia	Comparative cross-sectional	306	Family environment and risk-behavior framework	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
Ganiron et al. (2017)	Philippines	Descriptive (mixed methods)	32	No explicit framework (development, identity, peer influence)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
Kaur et al. (2019)	Malaysia	Cross-sectional survey	2,429	Developmental assets framework	2, 3, 4, 5
Nguyen et al. (2019)	Vietnam	Cross-sectional survey (GSHS)	3,331	Parent-adolescent bonding; parenting-style theory	2, 3, 4, 5 (1 partial)
Syed Nong et al. (2025)	Malaysia	Qualitative socio-legal	4 key informants	Socio-legal approach	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
Pengpid et al. (2025)	Philippines	Cross-sectional survey (GSHS)	10,175	Socio-ecological model	2, 3, 4, 5
Saputra et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Cross-sectional correlational	423	Problem-behavior theory	2, 3, 4, 5 (1 partial)

Study	Country	Design	Sample	Framework	RQs
Sundari et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Cross-sectional survey	256	Biopsychosocial framework	2, 3, 4, 5 (1 partial)

Note. GSHS = Global School-Based Student Health Survey; RQs = research questions addressed.

Table 5. Coverage Matrix: Research Questions Addressed by Each Study

Study	RQ1	RQ2	RQ3	RQ4	RQ5
Choo & Shek (2013)	●	●	●	●	●
Gray et al. (2013)	–	●	●	●	●
Azmawati et al. (2015)	●	●	●	●	●
Ganiron et al. (2017)	●	●	●	●	●
Kaur et al. (2019)	–	●	●	●	●
Nguyen et al. (2019)	●	●	●	●	●
Syed Nong et al. (2025)	●	●	●	●	●
Pengpid et al. (2025)	–	●	●	●	●
Saputra et al. (2025)	●	●	●	●	●
Sundari et al. (2025)	●	●	●	●	●

Note. RQ = research question. ● = directly addresses; ● = partially addresses; – = not addressed.

Defining Rebellion

Direct references to teenage rebellion were rare. Ganiron et al. (2017) alone explicitly theorized rebellion, framing it as adolescents' search for independence, identity, and autonomy, typically expressed as disobedience toward parents or authority. The most concrete operational category was the Malaysian legal classification of children beyond control used by Syed Nong et al. (2025). Several studies en-

gaged rebellion only indirectly, through proxies such as risk-taking behavior, adolescent drinking, aggression and conduct problems, emotional and behavioral problems, and illicit drug use. Two studies effectively examined the inverse—prosocial behavior and well-being—and so contributed little to a definition (Gray et al., 2013; Kaur et al., 2019). Overall, the evidence base is conceptually heterogeneous rather than uniform (see Table 6).

Table 6. Definitions and Related Concepts of Teenage Rebellion Across Studies

Study	Country	Definition or related concept
Ganiron et al. (2017)	Philippines	Frames rebellion explicitly as adolescents seeking independence, identity, and autonomy, typically expressed through disobedience toward parents or authority figures.
Syed Nong et al. (2025)	Malaysia	Operationalizes the legal category of children beyond control—minors whom parents cannot adequately supervise, who engage in truancy, running away, drug abuse, sexual misconduct, defiance of parental authority, and disrespect toward parents.
Azmawati et al. (2015)	Malaysia	Treats adolescent risk-taking behavior as the operative proxy for rebellion.
Choo & Shek (2013)	Singapore	Does not name rebellion; works through related constructs of adolescent risk behaviors (drinking, drunkenness), peer influence, and family conflict.
Nguyen et al. (2019)	Vietnam	Does not define rebellion directly but references adolescent rebellion as a normative developmental period framing parent-adolescent bonding.
Saputra et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Uses aggression and conduct problems as related constructs standing in for rebellion.
Sundari et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Partially engages the concept through emotional and behavioral problems measured on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire.
Kaur et al. (2019)	Malaysia	Does not discuss rebellion; frames the inverse—positive youth development and prosocial behavior.

Study	Country	Definition or related concept
Gray et al. (2013)	Thailand	Offers no definition of rebellion; centers on adolescent happiness and well-being.
Pengpid et al. (2025)	Philippines	Offers no definition of rebellion; uses current illicit drug use as the behavioral outcome.

Note. Studies are ordered from the most to the least explicit engagement with the construct of rebellion.

Motivations and Contributing Factors

All 10 studies addressed Research Question 2. Across differing designs, a recurring set of drivers emerged. Family factors predominated: family conflict, poor parent–child relationship quality, low parental monitoring or supervision, family instability, and limited intrafamilial communication each appeared in multiple studies. Peer influence (including peer deviance) and socioeconomic strain (financial hardship, food insecurity) were also frequently

reported. Individual-level factors included low self-control, low self-esteem, psychological distress, and emotional dysregulation, together with the explicit desire for freedom and attention identified by Ganiron et al. (2017). Several studies emphasized protective influences: strong family support, developmental assets, and positive parenting were associated with fewer problem behaviors. Gender also featured, with boys more likely than girls to engage in risky behavior (see Table 7).

Table 7. Motivations and Contributing Factors Reported by Each Study

Study	Country	Contributing factors
Ganiron et al. (2017)	Philippines	Lack of parental attention, peer pressure, family conflict, socioeconomic and financial strain, depression, relationship problems, academic problems, attention seeking, and the desire for freedom.
Choo & Shek (2013)	Singapore	Family conflict, poor parent–child relationship quality, and direct peer pressure drive problem behavior.
Azmawati et al. (2015)	Malaysia	Family conflict, gender (male), living conditions, and an unhealthy family environment contribute to risk taking.
Nguyen et al. (2019)	Vietnam	Parenting style—parental understanding, monitoring, and control—shapes adolescent outcomes; excessive control is harmful.
Syed Nong et al. (2025)	Malaysia	Family instability, marital breakdown, poor parental supervision, neglect, peer pressure, socioeconomic conditions, and community influences.
Pengpid et al. (2025)	Philippines	Male sex, food insecurity, psychological distress, alcohol use, truancy, physical fighting, and in-school drug exposure raise risk; high parental and peer support and drug education lower it.
Saputra et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Low self-control and low self-esteem (internal); peer deviance, low parental monitoring, and media-violence exposure (external) predict aggression.
Sundari et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Eveningness chronotype and low emotional regulation (internal); low maternal education and poor intrafamilial communication (external) predict emotional and behavioral problems.
Kaur et al. (2019)	Malaysia	Strong family support, positive values, and developmental assets foster constructive behavior (protective framing).
Gray et al. (2013)	Thailand	Family environment, family structure, and social support shape behavior and well-being.

Note. Factors are reported as characterized by the original authors; directionality (risk vs. protective) is noted where the source specified it.

Manifestations in Family Relationships

Within the family, rebellion and its proxies manifested most often as defiance of parental authority, disobedience, rude or resistant communication, secrecy and emotional distancing, running away, and overt conflict. A second, relational thread treated parental monitoring, understanding, bonding, and communication as the mechanisms through which families shaped adolescent behavior. Saputra et al.

(2025) showed that parental monitoring reduced aggression by limiting exposure to deviant peers. In contrast, Sundari et al. (2025) found low intrafamilial communication to be a strong predictor of emotional and behavioral problems. The studies with a protective orientation underscored the same axis from the positive side (Gray et al., 2013; Kaur et al., 2019; Pengpid et al., 2025). Details appear in Table 8.

Table 8. Manifestations Within Family Relationships Reported by Each Study

Study	Country	Manifestation in family relationships
Ganiron et al. (2017)	Philippines	Disobedience toward parents, attention seeking within the family, family conflict, and emotional distancing from family relationships.
Syed Nong et al. (2025)	Malaysia	Defiance of parental authority, rudeness toward parents, resistance to instructions, running away from home, and overt family conflict.
Choo & Shek (2013)	Singapore	Family conflict and differing mother–child versus father–child relationship quality are linked to adolescent behavior.
Nguyen et al. (2019)	Vietnam	Parent–adolescent bonding is enacted through parental monitoring, understanding, and control.
Saputra et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Parental monitoring lowers aggression by reducing exposure to deviant peers; weak monitoring increases it.
Sundari et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Low intrafamilial communication is a significant predictor of emotional and behavioral problems (OR = 3.35).
Pengpid et al. (2025)	Philippines	Parental support (supervision, connectedness, bonding, respect) is protective; low support is associated with higher drug use.
Azmawati et al. (2015)	Malaysia	Family conflict and an unhealthy family environment influence adolescent behavior.
Kaur et al. (2019)	Malaysia	Supportive family relationships promote positive social outcomes and healthy adjustment.
Gray et al. (2013)	Thailand	Family structure and family relationships shape adolescent outcomes.

Note. OR = odds ratio.

Developmental, Relational, and Psychosocial Outcomes

Outcomes clustered at two poles. At one end, rebellion-related behavior was associated with substance use, aggression, bullying victimization, depression, loneliness, suicidal ideation, academic difficulty and, at the extreme, criminal involvement (Syed Nong et al., 2025). At the other end, supportive family experiences

were linked to prosocial behavior, social responsibility, happiness, and healthy adjustment (Gray et al., 2013; Kaur et al., 2019). Two studies offered developmental, identity-building readings of conflict, indicating that autonomy seeking is not inherently pathological. This duality—rebellion as risk and rebellion as growth—is a defining feature of the evidence (see Table 9).

Table 9. Developmental, Relational, and Psychosocial Outcomes Reported by Each Study

Study	Country	Outcomes
Ganiron et al. (2017)	Philippines	Depression, risky behavior, strained low-income family relationships, emotional distress, academic problems, and susceptibility to negative peer influence.
Syed Nong et al. (2025)	Malaysia	Escalation into drug abuse, illegal racing, sexual exploitation, criminal behavior, and harm to the child and community.

Study	Country	Outcomes
Choo & Shek (2013)	Singapore	Increased drinking and drunkenness as indicators of poorer well-being and adjustment.
Nguyen et al. (2019)	Vietnam	Bullying victimization, loneliness, suicidal ideation, and other mental-health outcomes.
Pengpid et al. (2025)	Philippines	Psychological distress (suicidal ideation, loneliness, worry) linked to drug use; drug use co-occurs with violence and truancy.
Saputra et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Aggression as the outcome (42% of the variance explained), with a self-esteem-to-self-control developmental pathway.
Sundari et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Emotional problems (30.1%), peer problems (10.9%), and conduct problems (10.5%) prevalent among early adolescents.
Azmawati et al. (2015)	Malaysia	Engagement in dangerous activities, fighting, absenteeism, and other risk behaviors.
Kaur et al. (2019)	Malaysia	Higher prosocial behavior, stronger social responsibility, and healthier development (positive outcomes).
Gray et al. (2013)	Thailand	Greater happiness and psychosocial well-being (positive outcomes).

Note. Percentages are reported as given in the original sources.

Gaps in the Current Literature

Authors converged on a common set of gaps. Cross-sectional designs were repeatedly noted as limiting causal inference, with calls for longitudinal work (Kaur et al., 2019; Pengpid et al., 2025; Sundari et al., 2025). Several authors highlighted the scarcity of culturally specific research on rebellion and on children beyond control in Southeast Asia, as well as the

fragmentation of the evidence (Ganiron et al., 2017; Nguyen et al., 2019; Syed Nong et al., 2025). Others pointed to under-studied populations—out-of-school youth and non-public-school students—and to the need to disentangle maternal from paternal influences (Choo & Shek, 2013). Comparative and cross-cultural designs across Southeast Asian settings were also scarce (see Table 10).

Table 10. Gaps Mentioned or Implied by Each Study

Study	Country	Gaps identified
Choo & Shek (2013)	Singapore	Research is needed beyond public-school students; parental control and authority require examination; maternal and paternal influences should be separated.
Gray et al. (2013)	Thailand	More research is needed on the mechanisms linking family environment to adolescent well-being.
Azmawati et al. (2015)	Malaysia	Comparative studies on family influences and adolescent risk behavior across settings are limited.
Ganiron et al. (2017)	Philippines	Factors of student rebellion remain under-explored, calling for deeper understanding and targeted interventions.
Kaur et al. (2019)	Malaysia	More longitudinal and cross-cultural studies are needed to understand developmental assets over time.
Nguyen et al. (2019)	Vietnam	Research on parent-adolescent bonding in Southeast Asian cultural contexts is limited.
Syed Nong et al. (2025)	Malaysia	Existing research is fragmented; few dedicated studies address children beyond parental control, and legal clarity is limited.
Pengpid et al. (2025)	Philippines	Cross-sectional design limits causal inference; out-of-school youth are excluded; self-report bias is present; prospective studies are called for.
Saputra et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Drivers of aggression among adolescents with conduct problems remain insufficiently understood, especially in Indonesia.
Sundari et al. (2025)	Indonesia	Cross-sectional design and post-pandemic context limit generalizability; longitudinal studies and early screening are recommended.

Note. Gaps are reported as stated or clearly implied by the authors of each included study.

Summary of Evidence and Interpretation of Patterns

This review synthesized 10 empirical and legal studies from six Southeast Asian nations to map the current evidence on adolescent rebellion, autonomy seeking, and parent-child conflict. The most prominent finding is conceptual: Teenage rebellion is rarely studied as an explicit, independent construct in Southeast Asian scholarship. Instead, it is approached through a scattered set of behavioral proxies—most often substance use, conduct problems, externalizing aggression, and legal classifications of parental unmanageability. Only one study framed rebellion as a normative developmental milestone linked to identity formation (Ganiron et al., 2017). The result is a literature rich in adjacent behavioral insights but thin on a shared, culturally grounded definition of rebellion.

Despite their differing proxies, the studies converge on a consistent set of core family processes that map closely onto the theories outlined earlier. First, the findings refine classical accounts of adolescent identity. Western theory, notably Erikson's (1968) psychosocial model, treats questioning authority and testing boundaries as normal features of identity development; in Southeast Asia, however, the trajectory depends heavily on the family environment. Where the home is unstable or conflict-ridden, autonomy seeking can escalate into problematic behavior (Choo & Shek, 2013; Pengpid et al., 2025); where families provide strong support and resources, the same developmental energy is channeled toward prosocial behavior and well-being (Gray et al., 2013; Kaur et al., 2019). Boundary testing, in other words, is not intrinsically harmful; its valence depends on the family context.

Second, the review supports the dual filial piety model (Yeh & Bedford, 2003). In Southeast Asian families, parent-child relationships balance obedience with emotional closeness, and the included studies illustrate what happens when that balance is lost. Nguyen et al. (2019) found that parental understanding and monitoring were associated with less bullying victimization and depression, whereas rigid, excessive control was linked to greater loneliness, suicidal ideation, and conflict. When families rely on obedience—the authoritarian dimension of filial piety—without the reciprocal, affective dimension, ordinary adolescent autonomy may be construed as serious defiance,

pushing young people toward secrecy, emotional distance, and the more severe trajectories captured by the children beyond control category (Syed Nong et al., 2025).

Gaps and Future Directions

Three priorities follow from this synthesis. First, conceptual grounding: The field should move beyond wholesale reliance on Western terminology toward models of adolescent autonomy explicitly integrated with collectivist family structures and filial obligation. Second, methodological diversity: Cross-sectional surveys should be complemented by prospective longitudinal designs that track transactional change and support causal inference, as well as by qualitative and mixed-methods work that centers adolescents' own understandings of authority, freedom, and conflict. Third, geographic and demographic expansion: Country-specific evidence remains thin and uneven, with a particular need for work in the Philippines, where small or highly specific samples dominate the existing literature.

Limitations

Consistent with its scoping aims, the review searched only two databases (Scopus and JSTOR) and English-language publications, so relevant work in regional languages or other databases may have been missed. As is standard for scoping reviews, no formal quality appraisal was undertaken, and construct heterogeneity precluded quantitative pooling. Some included studies sampled early adolescents (for example, ages 10–14) or, in one case, professional key informants rather than adolescents, reflecting pragmatic inclusion of the most relevant available evidence. Most eligible articles were published between 2010 and 2025. Charting followed a single standardized form; independent duplicate charting would further strengthen reliability.

Conclusion

This scoping review mapped how adolescent rebellion, autonomy, and parent-child conflict have been conceptualized and studied across six Southeast Asian nations. Rebellion is seldom studied as an explicit construct. Only two of the 10 studies named it directly—one framing it developmentally as a search for identity and autonomy (Ganiron et al., 2017), the other through the Malaysian legal category of children beyond control (Syed Nong et al.,

2025)—whereas the remainder relied on proxies such as risk taking, conduct problems, aggression, emotional and behavioral problems, and illicit drug use.

The most consistent drivers are familial: family conflict, poor parent–child relationship quality, weak parental monitoring or support, family instability, and limited communication. Peer influence and socioeconomic strain are also prominent, alongside individual vulnerabilities (low self-control, low self-esteem, psychological distress) and a male predominance in risky behavior. Strong family support, positive parenting, and developmental assets are reliably protective.

Within the family, rebellion manifests as defiance of parental authority, disobedience, rude or resistant communication, secrecy, emotional distancing, running away, and overt conflict—dynamics mediated by the quality of parental monitoring, bonding, and communication.

Outcomes are double edged. Rebellion-related behavior is associated with substance use, aggression, bullying victimization, depression, loneliness, suicidal ideation, academic difficulty and, at the extreme, criminal involvement. Yet, in supportive families, the same autonomy seeking is channeled toward prosocial behavior, social responsibility, happiness, and healthy adjustment. Autonomy seeking is therefore not inherently pathological.

The principal gaps are an overreliance on cross-sectional designs, the absence of culturally grounded conceptualization, fragmentation across adjacent constructs, neglected populations (notably out-of-school youth), insufficient separation of maternal and paternal influences, and a scarcity of comparative cross-cultural and country-specific evidence—most acutely for the Philippines.

Overall, these findings show that family conflict and weak parental engagement are the central correlates of rebellion-related behavior, whereas parental support and strong family bonds are consistently protective. The significance of this synthesis lies in reframing Southeast Asian adolescent rebellion not as deviance to be suppressed but as autonomy seeking whose trajectory is shaped by family context and cultural expectations of filial piety. To advance the field, future research should define rebellion in culturally grounded terms, adopt longitudinal and qualitative methods that center adolescents' own voices, and expand

country-specific and comparative evidence within the region.

References

- Arksey, H., & O'Malley, L. (2005). Scoping studies: Towards a methodological framework. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8(1), 19–32. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1364557032000119616>
- Azmawati, M. N., Hazariah, A. H. S., Shamsul, A. S., Norfazilah, A., Azimatun, N. A., & Rozita, H. (2015). Risk taking behaviour among urban and rural adolescents in two selected districts in Malaysia. *South African Family Practice*, 57(3), 160–165. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20786190.2014.977048>
- Choo, H., & Shek, D. (2013). Quality of parent–child relationship, family conflict, peer pressure, and drinking behaviors of adolescents in an Asian context: The case of Singapore. *Social Indicators Research*, 110(3), 1141–1157. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-011-9977-4>
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. W. W. Norton & Company.
- Ganiron, T. S., Fajardo, P., Baniago, P. A., & Barcelona, M. (2017). Evaluating the factors affecting high school student rebellion. *World Scientific News*, 80, 158–176. <https://worldscientificnews.com/evaluating-the-factors-affecting-high-school-student-rebellion/>
- Gray, R. S., Chamrathirong, A., Pattaravanich, U., & Prasartkul, P. (2013). Happiness among adolescent students in Thailand: Family and non-family factors. *Social Indicators Research*, 110(2), 703–719. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-011-9954-y>
- Kaur, A., Yusof, N., Awang-Hashim, R., Ramli, R., Dalib, S., Mohd Sani, M. A., & Mat Isa, N. (2019). The role of developmental assets for prosocial behaviours among adolescents in Malaysia. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 107, Article 104489. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2019.104489>

- Levac, D., Colquhoun, H., & O'Brien, K. K. (2010). Scoping studies: Advancing the methodology. *Implementation Science*, 5, Article 69. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1748-5908-5-69>
- Nguyen, H. T. L., Nakamura, K., Seino, K., & Al-Sobaihi, S. (2019). Impact of parent-adolescent bonding on school bullying and mental health in a Vietnamese cultural setting: Evidence from the Global School-Based Health Survey. *BMC Psychology*, 7, Article 16. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-019-0294-z>
- Pengpid, S., Peltzer, K., Santos, L. E., & Mallari, E. F. I. (2025). Prevalence, drug education, and other associated factors of current illicit drug use among a nationally representative sample of school-aged adolescents in the Philippines in 2019. *Substance Abuse Treatment, Prevention, and Policy*, 20, Article 22. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13011-025-00652-y>
- Saputra, F., Uthis, P., & Suktrakul, S. (2025). Predicting factors of aggression among Indonesian middle adolescents with conduct problems in the community: A correlational study. *Belitung Nursing Journal*, 11(6), 733-748. <https://doi.org/10.33546/bnj.4109>
- Sundari, R. I., Sitaresmi, M. N., & Lusmilasari, L. (2025). Prevalence and associated factors of emotional and behavioral problems in Indonesian early adolescents: A cross-sectional study. *Belitung Nursing Journal*, 11(4), 496-503. <https://doi.org/10.33546/bnj.3990>
- Syed Nong, S. N. A., Ismail, N., Mustaffa, A., Bidin, A., & Taher, M. A. (2025). From misbehaviour to courtroom: Analyzing Malaysia's legal approach to children beyond parental control. *Jambe Law Journal*, 8(2), 443-474. <https://doi.org/10.22437/jlj.8.2.443-474>
- Tricco, A. C., Lillie, E., Zarin, W., O'Brien, K. K., Colquhoun, H., Levac, D., Moher, D., Peters, M. D. J., Horsley, T., Weeks, L., Hempel, S., Akl, E. A., Chang, C., McGowan, J., Stewart, L., Hartling, L., Aldcroft, A., Wilson, M. G., Garritty, C., ... Straus, S. E. (2018). PRISMA Extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR): Checklist and explanation. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 169(7), 467-473. <https://doi.org/10.7326/M18-0850>
- Yeh, K. H., & Bedford, O. (2003). A test of the dual filial piety model. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 6(3), 215-228. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1467-839X.2003.00122.x>