

The Influence of Parenting Style, Achievement Motivation and Self-Regulation on Academic Achievement

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Abstract: This study aimed to empirically prove the variables of parenting style, achievement motivation, and self-regulation on academic achievement. Data were collected employing cluster random sampling to second-grade elementary school students in Cirebon Regency. The results revealed that parenting style, achievement motivation, and self-regulation partially influenced academic achievement. Not only partially, but academic achievement was also indirectly influenced by parenting style and achievement motivation mediated by self-regulation. This study provides a scientific contribution that academic achievement will be better if parents have a role related to positive parenting style. Not only that, but students are also assisted and motivated related to the desire to have an achievement mediated by self-regulation.

Keywords: Parenting Style, Achievement Motivation, Self-regulation, Academic Achievement.

1. Introduction

Academic achievement is the measurement of a student's ability after participating in the learning process within a specific period, measured using relevant instruments. Academic achievement becomes a measure of the student's understanding level of a particular material that has been given after students have experienced the learning process for a certain period, and it is expressed in the form of scores. Academic achievements that students have achieved can be seen through the final results of learning activities. The learning outcomes can be known by the students' parents through the report cards given at the end of learning within a specific time. Academic achievement obtained from report cards at school is a benchmark for accomplishing achievement in the success of children's abilities at certain development stages. Qodriah et al. (2019) argue that the achievement and success will be reached by students is accordance to their motivation.

Academic achievement in formal education is essential so that students compete with each other to achieve the best. According to Spinath (2012), academic achievement is crucial for vocational careers and the socio-economic welfare of individuals in the future. Besides, grades and school achievement tests will be used as selection criteria for employment and college education. According to Borkowski & Thorpe, underachievers are more impulsive, have lower academic goals, are less accurate in assessing their abilities, are more self-critical and less potent about their performance, and tend to give up easily than high achievers (Rajabi, 2012). The importance of students' academic achievement in their education makes them struggle to achieve better performance for the selection criteria for work and higher education.

To accomplish better academic achievement, students can make several efforts, one of which is by studying hard. However, for early childhood, awareness earnestly study cannot be formed from within the children themselves without parents' encouragement to motivate in terms of learning teaching materials provided by schools. It is related to how parents provide assistance and habituation to children at home to study earnestly at home to accomplish better academic achievement. Nowadays, Suzana et al. (2020) argue that the gadget and internet were the most friendly and familiar name among early childhood. Academic achievement is not solely supported by the learning process results but involves several factors that support it, such as internal and external factors, which can affect children's academic achievement in school.

These factors include family and child socio-demographic factors, students' beliefs about their goals, students' beliefs about learning, parental support, attitudes held by peers, teacher-student interactions, and curriculum content (Dukmak, 2016). Other factors have also been disclosed by Dia'z (2018), among others, are the factors of parents, teachers, and students, which influence academic achievement; Dia'z also specified that the motivational factor is considered an element of the subject's involvement in learning.

Academic expectations can be shaped and influenced positively and negatively from a wide range of factors (for example, gender, age, ethnicity, sexual orientation, disability, socio-economic status, religion) and other

external factors, such as peers, parents, and teachers (Lemos, Abad, Almeida, & Colom, 2014). Farooq, Chaudhry, Shafiq, & Berhanu (2011) revealed that the environment and personal students' characteristics play a vital role in the success of academic achievement, apart from school personnel, family members, and the community, who also provide assistance and support to students to achieve better academic achievement. Environmental care also can build the students' of character by helping of teacher and principals (Karim et al., 2020). Furstenberg & Hughes (1995) stated that social structure and parental involvement in children's education could increase academic achievement success. Parental involvement in the form of parenting style is an essential factor in determining children's achievement. Many studies have shown that parental involvement improves children's achievement (Hoover et al., 2014; Galindo & Sheldon, 2012).

Apart from parenting styles that come from external factors, factors that come from within the children also influence academic achievement, including achievement motivation and self-regulation. It is consistent with Stipek, Zimmerman & Schunk's view that one of the most important types of motivation for education is achievement motivation or a general tendency to strive for success and choose success/failure in goal-oriented activities (Slavin, 2018). According to Elliot & Dweck, motivation is a critical factor for learning and academic achievement in childhood to adolescence (Ayub, 2014). It is in accordance with Affum-osei, Adom, Barnie, & Forkuoh's (2014) research, entitled "Achievement Motivation, Academic Self-Concept and Academic Achievement among High School Students". The results of the study concluded a positive relationship between achievement motivation and academic achievement. This study confirms the importance of achievement motivation and academic self-concept on academic achievement.

According to Spinath (2012), academic achievement is a general term for performance results in the intellectual domain taught in schools, colleges, and universities. Scott (2011) views learning outcomes as a description of what learners will learn at the end of the period. Watson defines learning achievement as something that can be done by current students, which previously did not change; these changes as a result of the learning experience. Meanwhile, Maher (2004) asserts that achievement is the maximum success of all the students' efforts.

Meanwhile, parenting style is often defined as the main socialization mechanism, namely the primary means of training and preparing children to meet their environment's demands and take advantage (Gadsden, Ford, & Breiner, 2016). Berk reveals that parenting as a style of raising children is a combination of parenting behaviors that occur in various situations, creating a lasting childcare climate (Care, n.d.). Meanwhile, Juffer et al. view parenting as genetic inheritance and a direct effect of one's self-manifestation experience through beliefs gained from parental behavior (Psychologiczne, 2016). Bornstein & Zlotnik (2008) concluded that parenting styles are several elements that combine to create an emotional climate, where parents can communicate attitudes, express responsibility, convey feelings, and provide quality concerns about caring for their children.

On the other hand, Kanfer & Ackerman characterize motivation as an effort to direct attention to the task (intensity) over time (McLaughlin et al., 2005). Meanwhile, Hull defines motivation as the initiation of learning patterns or learning habits in the form of movement or behavior (Schunk, 1995). Corno distinguishes willingness from motivation; motivation refers to a situational process that leads to the choice of one's goals, whereas willingness refers to a situational process that deals with implementing strategies and the achievement of one's goals (Zimmerman, Barry J; Schunk, 2018). According to Spinath, Toussaint, Spengler, & Spinath, motivation can provide direction, intensity, and persistence of a person's behavior (Klassen, Eifler, Hufer, & Riemann, 2019).

Furthermore, Bandura describes self-regulation as the ability to control one's behavior, and it is the hardworking human personality (Hargis, 2000). Bandura said that "a social cognitive perspective is distinctive in viewing self-regulation as an interaction of personal, behavioral, and environmental triadic processes." According to him, social cognitive perspectives differ in viewing self-regulation as an interaction of personal triadic processes, behavior, and the environment (Boekaerts, Pintrich, & Zeidner, 2000).

So far, the researcher has not found any direct positive or indirect influence between parenting style, achievement motivation, and self-regulation on second-grade elementary school children's academic achievement. There has been no previous research regarding the academic achievement of second-grade elementary school students by looking at the influence of parenting style, achievement motivation, and self-regulation jointly. In previous studies, research on parenting style, achievement motivation, self-regulation, and academic achievement was measured separately using a research sample of students in upper-grade elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, university, administration staff, parents, and teachers. Meanwhile, the current researcher conducted this research on low-grade children (second-grade elementary school).

For this reason, the researcher intends to see whether there is a positive influence between parenting styles, achievement motivation, and self-regulation on early childhood academic achievement at the early elementary school level in West Java Province. This study was conducted on second-grade elementary school students because the academic achievement measurement can only be done at the elementary school level. Meanwhile, the ability of children aged 0-6 years was measured by the STPPA (Standard of Child Development Achievement Level).

2. Method

This study used a survey method with path analysis techniques. The data collection process was carried out utilizing a questionnaire as a research instrument. This study analyzed the effect of one variable on other variables. In this case, the variables studied were of two kinds: (1) exogenous variables and (2) endogenous variables. The exogenous variables in this study were parenting style (X1), achievement motivation (X2), and self-regulation (X3), which had direct and indirect effects on endogenous variables, namely the academic achievement of second-grade elementary school students (Y).

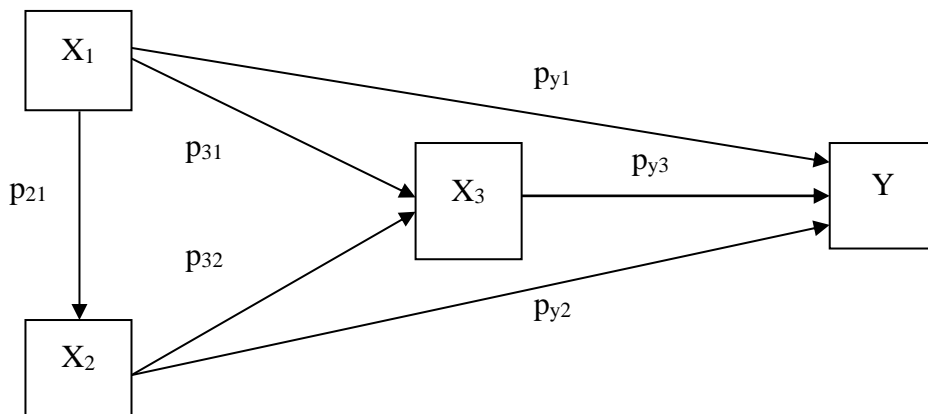
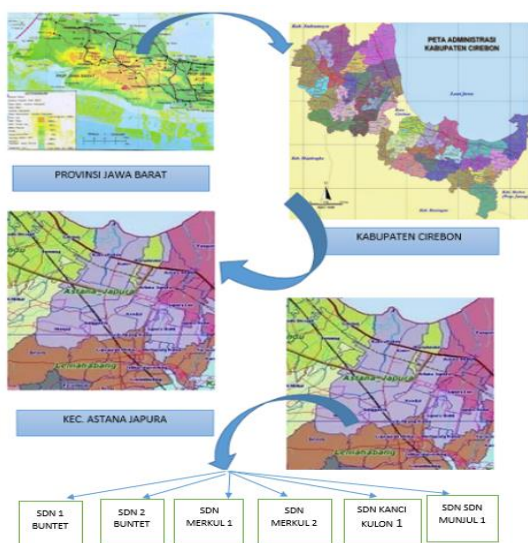


Figure 1. Research Constellation

The population in this study were all parents guardians of elementary school students in West Java Province for the 2019/2020 school year, with a total of 4,446,679 spread across elementary schools in 27 cities/regencies, 627 sub-districts, and 645 villages in 14 Regional Technical Implementation Units (UPTD) of Cities and Regencies.

The regional sampling technique is used to determine the sample if the subject to be researched an extensive data source, then the sampling is based on a defined population area (Sugiono, 2011). The sampling technique was then carried out stratified and multistage. The technique was also stratified multistage random sampling.



Based on these calculations, the minimum sample size was 265 students of the second-grade elementary school from the total number, around 928 students of the second-grade elementary school in Astanajapura Sub-district.

Furthermore, the determination of the research sample can be seen in Figure 1.2 as follows.

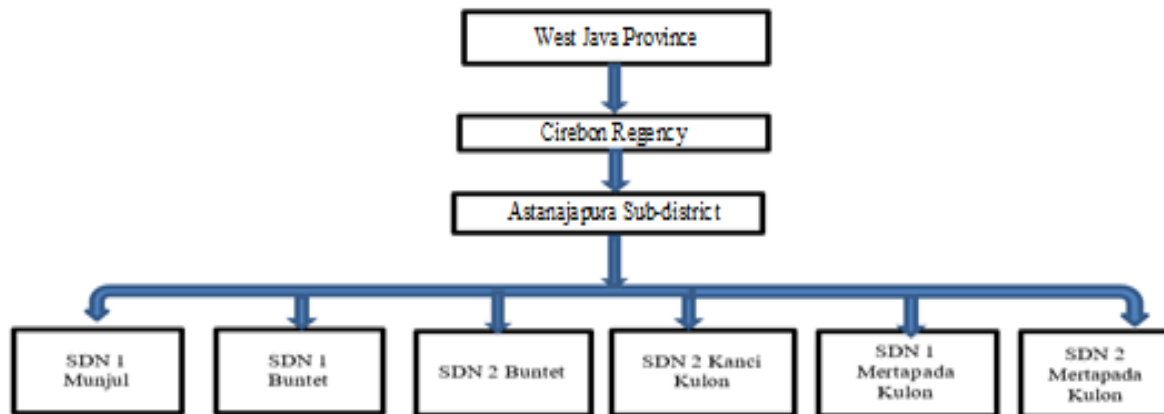


Figure 2. The Determination of the Research Sample

Two phases were employed in analyzing the data: the descriptive and the inferential phases. The descriptive phase included grouping the research data presentation, then calculating the required statistical measures to be presented in a more meaningful form. Data presentation in this phase was in the form of tables and diagrams. The statistical measures used were mean, the measure of variation (standard deviation), mode, median, and data range. Meanwhile, the inductive or inferential phase was carried out to draw conclusions based on the data processing results obtained by sampling techniques. Inferential analysis was utilized to test the hypothesis using path analysis, preceded by a test of requirements analysis, including tests for normality, homogeneity of variance, significance, and linearity. After the test requirements have been met, then the research hypothesis was tested.

As the basis for calculating the path analysis, the linearity and significance tests of the regression were first carried out. This test was intended to see whether the regression obtained was significant to make conclusions about the influence between several variables analyzed. This test was conducted with the help of an ANOVA table with a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$; to determine whether the regression equation is significant or not, it is seen with the F-test. If $F_{\text{-count}} > F_{\text{-table}}$, then the regression equation is significant. Meanwhile, to determine whether the regression equation is linear or not, the F-test is seen. If $F_{\text{-count}} < F_{\text{-table}}$, then the regression equation is linear.

3. Findings and Discussion

Findings

The data description comprised data on the academic achievement variable (Y), referred to as the endogenous variable, parenting style variable (X_1) and achievement motivation variable (X_2) as exogenous variables, self-regulation variable (X_3) as a moderator variable. Each variable's description is explained successively starting from the variables Y, X_1 , X_2 , and X_3 .

The structural equation formed in the first substructure model consisted of three path coefficients from variables X_1 to Y, X_2 to Y, and X_3 to Y in the form of $Y = p_{y1}X_1 + p_{y2}X_2 + p_{y3}X_3 + p_{y\varepsilon_1}$. Multiple correlation coefficient $R_{y.123} = 0.472$, with a probability value of Sig. (0.000) < significant level (0.05), then multiple correlation coefficients were significant. The coefficient of determination in the first model substructure was $(R_{y.123})^2 = 0,222$, and the rest ($p_{y\varepsilon_1}$) of 0.778 was influenced by other factors not examined. Thus, the form of the structural equation in the first substructure model was $Y = 0,219X_1 + 0,238X_2 + 0,216X_3 + 0,778$. A description of the first model path coefficient estimation is presented in Table 1 and visualized in Figure 3 below:

Table 1. SPSS Results of the First Model

Model		Coefficients ^a		t	Sig.
		Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	63,793	1,685		37,866 ,000
	Parenting style (X1)	,075	,019	,219	3,879 ,000
	Achievement motivation (X2)	,065	,015	,238	4,224 ,000
	Self-regulation (X3)	,072	,019	,216	3,785 ,000

a. Dependent Variable: Academic achievement (Y)

The estimation results of the first structural model are shown in the following figure.

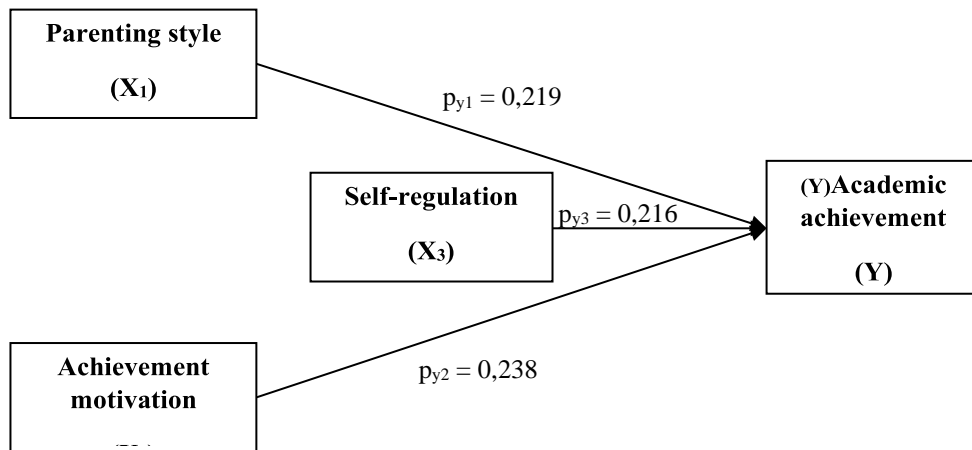


Figure 3. Empirical Path Diagram for Structural Model 1

The structural equation formed in the second substructure model consisted of two path coefficients from variables X₁ to X₃ and X₂ to X₃ in the form of X₃ = p₃₁X₁ + p₃₂X₂ + p₃ε₂. Multiple correlation coefficient R_{3,12} = 0.325 with a probability value of Sig. (0.000) < significant level (0.05), then the multiple correlation coefficient was significant. The coefficient of determination (R_{3,12})² = 0.106 and the rest (p₃ε₂) of 0.894 were influenced by other factors not examined. Thus, the form of the structural equation in the second substructure model was X₃ = 0,215X₁ + 0,205X₂ + 0,894. The description of the second model path coefficient estimate is depicted in Table 2 and visualized in Figure 4.7 below:

Table 2. SPSS Results of the Second Model

Model	Coefficients ^a		t	Sig.	
	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients			
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
2	(Constant)	37,116	4,935		7,521,000
	Parenting style (X1)	,222	,061	,215	3,633,000
	Achievement motivation (X2)	,169	,049	,205	3,464,001

a. Dependent Variable: Self-regulation (X3)

The estimation results of the second structural model are displayed in the following figure.

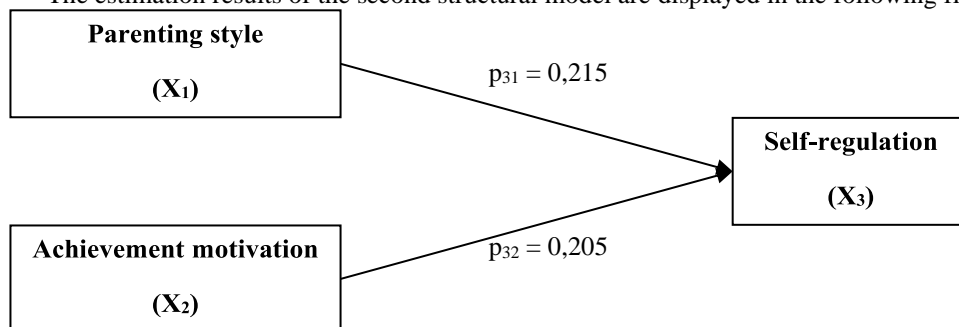


Figure 4. Empirical Path Diagram for Structural Model 2

The structural equation in the third substructure model was formed by the path coefficient of variable X_1 to X_2 in the form of $X_2 = p_{21}X_1 + p_{2\varepsilon_3}$. The correlation coefficient $r_{12} = 0,201$ with a probability value of $\text{Sig. } (0.001) < \text{significant level } (0.05)$, then the correlation coefficient was significant. The coefficient of determination was $(r_{12})^2 = 0,040$, and the rest ($p_{2\varepsilon_3}$) of 0.960 was influenced by other factors not examined. Therefore, the form of the structural equation in the third substructure model was $X_2 = 0,201X_1 + 0,960$. A description of the estimated path coefficient for the third model is described in Table 3 and visualized in Figure 5 below.

Table 3. SPSS Results of the Third Model

Model	Coefficients ^a				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
3(Constant)	44,025	5,559		7,919,000	
Parenting style (X1)	,251	,075	,201	3,353,001	

a. Dependent Variable: Achievement motivation (X2)

The results of the estimation of the third structural model are shown in the following figure.

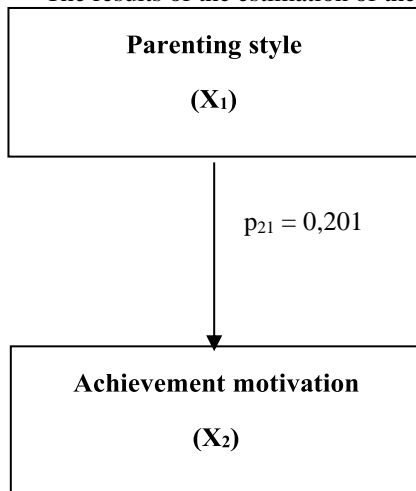


Figure 5. Empirical Path Diagram for Structural Model 3

The analysis and calculation process results in the direct effect section could be summarized as follows.

Table 4. Direct Influence Between Variables

No	Direct Influence	Path Coefficient	Sig.	A	Explanation
1.	X_1 to Y	0,219	0,000	0,05	Significant
2.	X_2 to Y	0,238	0,000	0,05	Significant
3.	X_3 to Y	0,216	0,000	0,05	Significant
4.	X_1 to X_3	0,215	0,000	0,05	Significant
5.	X_2 to X_3	0,205	0,001	0,05	Significant
6.	X_1 to X_2	0,201	0,001	0,05	Significant

The overall path analysis model can be seen in Figure 6 below.

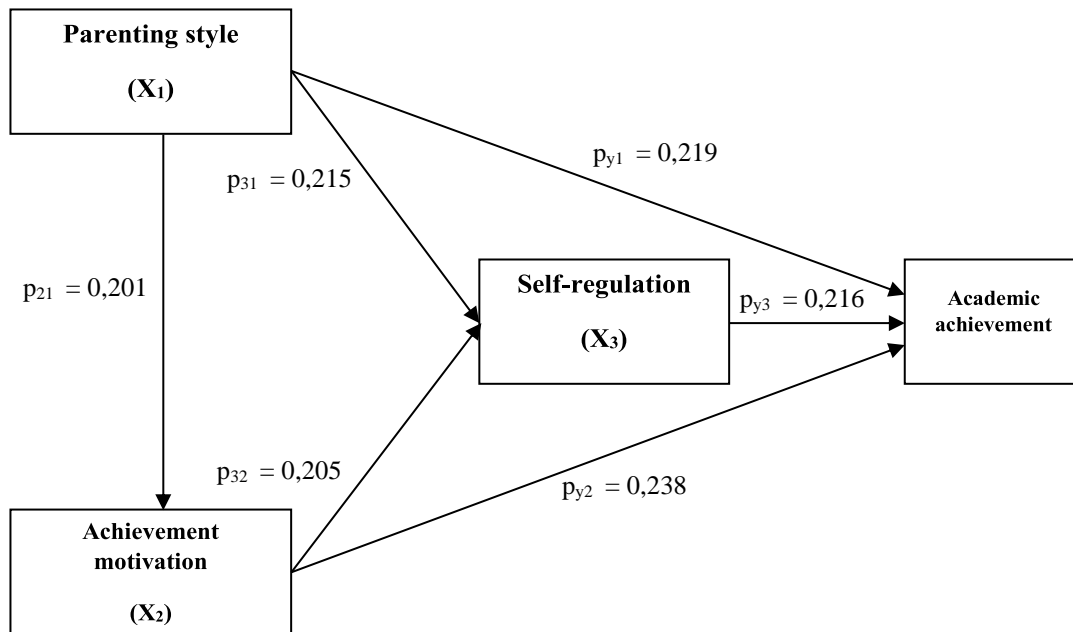


Figure 6. Structural Relationship Model between Variables Based on the Path Analysis Calculation Result

Furthermore, in the figure above, the Goodness Fit Index (GFI) was tested with the help of the Lisrel program, the results of which can be seen in the chart below.

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics	
Degrees of Freedom for (C1)-(C2)	0
Maximum Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square (C1)	0.0 (P = 1.0000)

Figure 7. Goodness Fit Index (GFI) Test Results

The p-value was $= 1.0000 > 0.05$ or not significant so that the fit model was classified as very good. In addition to the analysis of the direct influence of parenting style and achievement motivation on academic achievement, there were indirect effects of parenting style and achievement motivation on academic achievement through self-regulation.

4. Discussion

1) Positive Direct Influence of Parenting Styles (X1) on Academic Achievement (Y)

The first hypothesis's analysis results revealed that parenting style had a positive direct effect on academic achievement by 0.219, meaning that increased parenting would increase academic achievement. According to Hoover et al. (2014); Galindo & Sheldon (2012), parental involvement can improve children's academic achievement. It can be achieved because parents play a vital role in identifying children's talents and guiding them (Zahedani, Rezaee, Yazdani, Bagheri, & Nabeiei, 2016).

According to Shute, Hansen, Underwood, & Razzouk (2011), parents have an essential opportunity to influence children's academic achievement. The correlation study has found a modest relationship between variables of parenting and student achievement. It has also been shown by the results of several research reports from parents with the statement that parents talk consistently with their children regarding school, and parents hold high hopes for children to achieve higher academic achievement. Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad affirm that a consistent and supportive parenting relationship can support children's academic achievement outcomes (Wang, Deng, & Dua, 2018). It corroborates with Beran; Khan, Haynes, Armstrong, & Rohner; Uddin, who revealed that parental acceptance had a positive relationship with academic achievement, while parental rejection negatively impacted student academic achievement (Diaconu-Gherasim & Măirean, 2016). In particular, the parental rejection was associated with achievement because of its relationship to mastery goals, whereas autonomous parenting style was

correlated with academic achievement because of its relationship with mastery-avoidance goals (Diaconu-Gherasim & Măirean, 2016).

2) Positive Direct Influence of Achievement Motivation (X2) on Academic Achievement (Y)

The second hypothesis analysis resulted in the finding that achievement motivation positively affected the academic achievement of 0.238. It implied that increasing achievement motivation would increase academic achievement. Achievement motivation is the overall driving force within students that ensures the continuity of learning activities to achieve high academic achievement to achieve the students' desired goals. Stipek, Wentzel & Brophy uncovered that students with high achievement motivation tended to succeed in school (Slavin, 2018). A student who has high achievement motivation will become diligent in the learning process. With this motivation, students' academic achievement can be realized. Students who in the learning process have a strong achievement motivation will definitely persevere and succeed in their studies so that the desire to achieve superior academic achievement can be accomplished. It is because there are three functions of achievement motivation in students, namely encouraging students to act and carry out activities, determining the direction of their actions, and selecting their actions. Thus, the students' actions are always in line with the learning objectives they will achieve.

According to Elliot & Dweck, motivation is a crucial factor for learning and academic achievement from childhood to adolescence (Ayub, 2014). It is in agreement with research by Affum-osei, Adom, Barnie, & Forkuoh (2014), entitled "*Achievement Motivation, Academic Self-Concept, and Academic Achievement among High School Students*", with the results of the study concluding that there was a positive relationship between achievement motivation and academic achievement. This study has confirmed the importance of achievement motivation and academic self-concept on academic achievement. The same has been researched by Boggiano et al. (1992) that achievement motivation positively affected academic achievement; according to them, motivation determines children's achievement scores. Likewise, Karlen, Suter, Hirt, & Maag Merki (2019) mentioned that there was a significant influence between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on academic achievement, where mastery of goals was positively ($\beta = 0.32$), and the goal of avoiding work was negatively correlated ($\beta = -0.13$) with intrinsic motivation. Huang, Lee, & Yeung (2020) said a positive relationship between parents' attitudes towards reading and students' motivation to read in Macau and Chinese, Taipei, amounting to ($\beta_m = .08$, $\beta_t = .11$). Meanwhile, Froiland & Davison (2016) outlined the research that students' intrinsic motivation would predict mathematics achievement in grade 9 and grade 11. Soufi, Damirchi, Sedghi, & Sabayan (2014) found that autonomous academic motivation impacted student academic achievement by ($\beta = 0.03$, $p < 0.01$). Intrinsic motivation was (-0.20 , $p < 0.10$), and extrinsic motivation was (0.15 , $p < 0.10$), which had a significant relationship with academic motivation. Furthermore, academic motivation (0.19 , $p < 0.10$) had a significant and positive effect on academic achievement (Abdelrahman, 2020).

3) Positive Direct Influence of Self-Regulation (X3) on Academic Achievement (Y)

The analysis results of the third hypothesis resulted in the finding that self-regulation had a positive direct effect on academic achievement of 0.216, indicating that increased self-regulation would result in an increase in academic achievement. This study's results align with several experts' opinions, including research results by Sadi & Uyar's (2013) research with the title "*The Relationship Between Self-Efficacy, Self-Regulated Learning Strategies, and Achievement: A Path Model*", which resulted in a study that students who had high self-efficacy and self-regulation in the face of adversity could be successful. Similar to the research carried out by Soufi, Damirchi, Sedghi, & Sabayan (2014), according to them, self-regulation strategies could directly influence the predictive ability of academic achievement by ($\beta = 0.040$, $p < 0.01$). According to Aregu (2013), there was a positive relationship between self-regulation and academic achievement. Alotaibi, Tohmaz, & Jabak (2017) confirmed the research that there was a significant and positive relationship between self-regulation and student achievement. Self-regulation owned by the children would show their seriousness in doing their job to get maximum results.

Moreover, Kizilcec, Pérez-Sanagustín, & Maldonado (2017) stated that individuals with strong self-regulation (SRL) abilities are characterized by planning, managing, and controlling the learning process; they can learn faster and outperform others. Scientific process skill learning can also modified one of students' character (Rinto et al., 2020). Meanwhile, Nadari & Saki (2018) asserted that self-concept and self-regulation variables are suitable predictors of achievement motivation. Besides, Cetin (2015) conveyed research results that self-regulation was positively correlated with student academic achievement. It is thought that goal setting is an essential determinant of student academic performance.

4) Positive Direct Influence of Parenting Styles (X1) on Self-Regulation (X3)

The fourth hypothesis analysis results indicated that parenting had a positive direct effect on self-regulation by 0.215. It signified that increased parenting would result in increased self-regulation. This study's results support the opinion of Seroussi & Yaffe (2020). According to them, parenting styles influenced student self-regulation in schools and self-regulation correlated strongly with children's critical thinking. Then, it was strengthened by Newman (2017) that authoritative parenting was positively correlated with increased self-regulation in children, whereas authoritarian and permissive parenting was associated with decreased self-regulation in children. Further, Jittaseno & Varma S (2017) uncovered that (1) authoritative parenting style directly affected self-regulation. (2) Permissive and authoritarian parenting styles did not have a significant direct effect on self-regulation. (3) Authoritative parenting had a significant indirect effect on self-regulation mediated by self-efficacy and intrinsic value. (4) Permissive and authoritarian parenting styles did not have a significant indirect effect on self-regulation mediated by self-efficacy. (5) Permissive parenting style did not have a significant indirect effect on self-regulation mediated by intrinsic value. Also, (6) authoritarian parenting had a significant indirect effect on self-regulation mediated by intrinsic value.

Karreman, Tuijl, & Aken's (2006) research results revealed a significant relationship between the two types of parental control and self-regulation; the strength of the relationship between parenting and self-regulation varied with different conceptualizations of self-regulation; positive and negative controls were associated with children's adherence. According to Moilanen & Manuel (2017), high self-regulation was associated with high parental acceptance and vice versa. Parenting characterized by high acceptance and low psychological control provides high self-regulation, which in turn allows social competence to develop in relationships with peers.

5) Positive Direct Influence of Achievement Motivation (X2) on Self-Regulation (X3)

The fifth hypothesis analysis results exposed that achievement motivation had a positive direct effect on self-regulation by 0.205. It denoted that increased achievement motivation would result in increased self-regulation. This study's results are consistent with the research by Zheng, Liang, Li, & Tsai (2018), which revealed that students who had positive thoughts about learning English and had intrinsic motivation in English lessons tended to have better self-regulation. Conversely, students who had negative thoughts about learning English and did not have intrinsic motivation tended to have poor self-regulation. Similar results are expressed by Story, Hart, Stasson, & Mahoney (2009) that students who had higher intrinsic motivation reported better self-regulation. Then, it was reinforced by research by León, Núñez, & Liew (2014) that there was a direct influence of motivation on children's self-regulation. According to them, when students feel that schoolwork is interesting and the classroom environment and teachers have a positive and supportive response, they will be motivated independently to be involved in independent learning. Autonomous motivation encourages students to engage in deep information processing to survive to complete studies, even when school lessons are found to be very boring or very tiring, which in the end, self-regulation can result in better mathematics achievement.

Meanwhile, according to Jansen, van Leeuwen, Janssen, Jak, & Kester (2019), motivation and timing of tasks influenced the effectiveness of children's self-regulation interventions; motivation was closely related to children's self-regulation. A person will be motivated to achieve goals and engage in self-regulation (e.g., organizing and practicing materials, monitoring learning progress, and adapting strategies) (Schunk, 1995). Motivation is crucial because it can affect self-regulation. (Schunk, 1995).

6) Positive Direct Influence of Parenting Styles (X1) on Achievement Motivation (X2)

The sixth hypothesis analysis results provided the finding that parenting style had a positive direct effect on achievement motivation by 0.201, meaning that increased parenting would result in an increase in achievement motivation. This study's results confirm Arenliu, Hoxha, Berxulli, & Gashi (2015), who found a significant positive correlation between authoritative parenting style scores and intrinsic motivation orientation in high school students in Kosovo; students' school success was significantly positively correlated with authoritative parenting styles ($r = 0.16$, $p < 0.001$). In contrast, the other two types of parenting styles were negatively correlated with intrinsic motivation. The same thing was also expressed by Rubin (2017) that authoritative parenting styles had a higher correlation with students' academic motivation than authoritarian or permissive parenting styles, which tended to have a low correlation with academic motivation.

Mahama, Adjei, & Sukpen (2018) said that although there are socio-cultural and socio-economic differences, authoritarian and overprotective parenting has the most significant impact on parenting styles and has a major influence on student motivation. Besides, parents are considered key figures for developing children's academic

motivation (Matthes & Stoeger, 2018). According to Froiland & Davison (2016), parental expectations and peer interest could predict higher intrinsic motivation.

7) Indirect Influence of Parenting Style (X1) on Academic Achievement (Y) through Self-Regulation (X3)

The seventh hypothesis results disclosed the findings that there was an indirect effect of parenting style on academic achievement through self-regulation by 0.265. It suggested that to improve academic achievement, it could be done by improving parenting so that self-regulation increased. This study's results reinforce research conducted by Daniel, Wang, & Berthelsen (2016), who found a direct influence between parental involvement and reading and writing scores after including SRL (self-regulated learning) mediator, and an indirect effect was reflected in the pathway of school-based parental involvement via SRL as a mediator. Parental involvement had a small significant total effect on children's reading scores over the next two years, namely (beta = .07, $p < .01$), mediation model scores on SRL variance of 14%, and 28% of the reading and arithmetic score variance. Based on this research, it appeared that a child's academic achievement could increase if the child were given positive care, and this care could improve the child's self-regulation and, in the end, would impact improving children's academic achievement.

The same research was disclosed by Harmeyer, Ispa, Palermo, & Carlo (2016) that according to them, there was an indirect effect of parenting on children's vocabulary and academic ability through mother-child intimacy and child self-regulation; a formal mediation test was performed using the MLR. The mediated effect was ($= -0.007$, $SE = 0.003$, $p = 0.028$). It suggested a significant indirect effect of parenting pressure on vocabulary and academic ability through mother-child closeness and child self-regulation. Thus, parenting stress was inversely related to mother-child closeness, which in turn predicted children's self-regulation, vocabulary, and academic ability. From these studies, it appeared that there was an increase in ability, which leads to the achievement of high school academic achievement from increased self-regulation of children obtained through open parenting between mother and children.

8) Indirect Influence of Achievement Motivation (X2) on Academic Achievement (Y) through Self Regulation (X3)

The eighth hypothesis results provide the finding that there was an indirect effect of achievement motivation on academic achievement through self-regulation by 0.282, meaning that to improve academic achievement, it could be done by increasing achievement motivation so that self-regulation increased. This study's results align with the research carried out by Bartels & Magun-Jackson (2009). According to them, there was a relationship between avoidance motivation and regulation of academic achievement. Avoidance motivation was related to regulation, namely metacognitive and SRL in general. A person would be motivated to achieve goals and engage in self-regulation (e.g., organizing and practicing materials, monitoring learning progress, and adapting strategies) (Schunk, 1995). Motivation is essential because it can affect self-regulation (Schunk, 1995). Cetin (2015) stated that self-regulation had a positive correlation with student academic achievement.

5. Conclusion

Some parents have high hopes that one day their children can get a high achievement. These expectations are sometimes forced by parents without seeing children's interests and talents as a whole. The high expectation impacts parenting, which tends to impose and results in low motivation in the child and does not have good self-regulation when given responsibility by the classroom teacher.

Parents may have high hopes for their children if they have the potential that matches their interests and talents. On the other hand, parents cannot have high hopes for their children if they do not have the potential that matches their interests and talents. It must be realized by parents so that parents are not disappointed with their children due to high hopes for their children that, in the end, they cannot be fulfilled.

Parents are adults who must understand their children's potential interests and talents. By understanding children's potential interests and talents, parents are expected to become children's pioneers in making choices without coercing them to follow the wishes and desires of parents to like specific scientific fields that are not in accordance with their potential.

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