ALTERIDAD
REVISTA DE EDUCACIÓN
p-ISSN:1390-325X / e-ISSN:1390-8642
http://alteridad.ups.edu.ec

july-december 2022
Vol. 17, No. 2, 287-300
https://doi.org/10.17163/alt.v17n2.2022.09

Positive parenting and self-regulation of learning in adolescents

Parentalidad positiva y autorregulación de aprendizaje en adolescentes

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Received on: 2021-11-25 / **Revised on:** 2022-03-14 / **Accepted on:** 2022-05-31 / **Published on:** 2022-07-01

Abstract

The Self-Determination Theory study the motivation for student learning in relation to parenting, facilitating the factor of autonomy for self-regulated learning. In this conceptual framework, the objective of this work is to analyze the influence of parental achievement goals, support for autonomy and parental control on self-regulation of learning in adolescents in the city of Cuenca (Ecuador). A quantitative, descriptive and correlational cross-sectional focus is assumed. 1056 adolescents (47 % female and 53 % male) from 18 educational institutions, aged 14-19 years, and 1692 parents (56 % mothers and 44 % fathers) participated. The scales of: Self-regulation of Learning (Chávez y Merino, 2016), Achievement-Oriented Goals (Inda-Caro *et al.*, 2020) and Autonomy Support Scale (Mageau *et al.*, 2015) were applied. The data reveal a positive relationship between support for autonomy provided by parents and the autonomous regulation of adolescent learning. Consequently, it is confirmed that positive parenting is a promoter of this type of learning, of an active and self-directed nature, which could be associated with satisfactory academic results. From this derives the need for close family-school collaboration so that parents strengthen the type of parental behavior that facilitates the involvement of the student as protagonist of their learning process.

Keywords: Positive parenting, self-regulated learning, active learning, parental achievement goals, motivation, parental control.

Resumen

La Teoría de la Autodeterminación estudia la motivación para el aprendizaje de los y las adolescentes en relación con la parentalidad, siendo esta última un factor facilitador de la autonomía para el aprendizaje autorregulado. En este marco conceptual, el objetivo de esta investigación es conocer el papel de las metas de logro parental, el apoyo a la autonomía y el control parental en la autorregulación del aprendizaje en adolescentes de la ciudad de Cuenca (Ecuador). Se asume un enfoque cuantitativo, correlacional de corte transversal. Participaron 1056 adolescentes (47 % mujeres y 53 % varones) de 18 instituciones educativas, de 14 a 19 años, y 1692 progenitores (56 % madres y 44 % padres). Se aplicaron las siguientes escalas: Autorregulación del Aprendizaje (Chávez y Merino, 2016), Metas Orientadas al Logro (Inda-Caro *et al.*, 2020) y Autonomy Support Scale (Mageau *et al.*, 2015). Los datos revelan una relación positiva entre el apoyo a la autonomía proporcionado por los progenitores y la regulación autónoma del aprendizaje de adolescentes. En consecuencia, se confirma que la parentalidad positiva es un factor promotor de este tipo de aprendizaje, de carácter activo y autodirigido, que podría estar asociado con resultados académicos satisfactorios. De ello se deriva la necesidad de una estrecha colaboración familia-escuela para que los padres y madres robustezcan el tipo de comportamiento parental que facilite la implicación del estudiante como protagonista de su proceso de aprendizaje.

Descriptores: Parentalidad positiva, aprendizaje autorregulado, aprendizaje activo, metas de logro parental, motivación, control parental.

Suggested citation: Palacios M. D., Torío-López S. and Murga-Menoyo M. Á. (2022). Positive parenting and self-regulation of learning in adolescents. *Alteridad, (17)*2, 287-300. https://doi.org/10.17163/alt.v17n2.2022.09

1 Introduction

The Self-Determination Theory, SDT, is a theoretical model of motivation that highlights the natural tendency of students to explore their environments, to grow, to learn, and to develop (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2017). It assumes that all students have motivational resources that enable them to engage in one's own learning and achieve a positive school trajectory (Deci and Ryan, 2002; Reeve *et al*., 2004; Vansteenkiste *et al*., 2010). However, it also admits that some social contexts provide adequate support while others impair human development. In this direction, SDT focuses on the dimensions of parents—affection, support for autonomy and structure—that are valuable as they facilitate the three innate needs of people: competence, autonomy, and relationship. On the contrary, the dimensions of rejection, psychological control and disorganization hinder sons and daughters from feeling competent, autonomous, and connected with other (Grolnick, 2009; Grolnick *et al*., 2015; Soenens *et al*. 2019).

The above approach leads us to point out that the 'family' ecosystem is a social area with great contrasts and contradictions (Torrubia *et al*., 2017). The influence of the family on its members is seen by being the subsystem closest to the subject, the immediate environment that contains the person, and the one that most intervenes in its formation (Bronfenbrenner and Morris, 2006). From this perspective, "the family, understood as a warm, intimate and supportive environment, offers possibilities for personal development and a source of well-being; and is the basic socializing agent and learning scenario" (Torío López, 2018, p.17). The optimal development of a child is the result of positive parental practices that favor the affective bond in the parental relationships. For this reason, according to Ryan and Deci (2000), an adequate exercise of parenthood meets the basic needs of competence, autonomy, and bonding, to foster both intrinsic motivation and internalized forms of extrinsic motivation in sons and daughters. Additionally, many teachers struggle daily to motivate students who lack of enthusiasm, refuse to cooperate, or even show aggressive behavior in the classroom. They are behaviors far from the type of self-regulated learning that is required for the adolescent's school success. The main role of parents in the socialization of their sons and daughters can contribute to overcoming family-school partnership.

The aim of this research are the dimensions of parental goals, parental support for autonomy and psychological control, variables that in positive parenthood can boost regulated motivation for good adolescent learning performance. In short, it is intended to know whether positive parenthood is a factor that promotes autonomy and the self-regulation of learning in the student. Finding answers to this concern in a specific context is the purpose of this work.

2 Theoretical framework

2.1 Self-regulation of learning

Self-regulation of learning "is the process through which students activate and maintain cognitions, behaviors, and affections that are systematically oriented to achieving their goals" (Schunk and Zimmerman, 1994, p. 309). In this way, self-regulation of learning has positive correlations with academic performance, as Rosario *et al*. demonstrated (2014) in a study in which students with more school failure had less self-regulation of learning.

In the theoretical framework of STD, the importance of developing the internal potential of human beings as elements that model personality and self-regulatory ability is emphasized, demonstrating the inherent character of individuals toward growth and assimilation (Ryan *et al*., 1997). In this perspective, in the internalization process present in the socialization of individuals, behavior is not always intrinsically motivated; and an important distinction is made between autonomous and controlled regulation (Ryan and Deci, 2008). In both cases, it is an ener-

gized/managed process by the same individuals who will guide the behaviors to their learning to monitor, regulate and control their thoughts, motivations, and behaviors until achieving them (Stover *et al*., 2017). However, in the first case –autonomous regulation – autonomous learning is encouraged, i.e., self-regulated learning that is inherently motivated. In contrast, there are different forms of extrinsic motivation in controlled learning; social factors encourage or threaten internalization and integration of the regulation of these behaviors (Deci and Ryan, 1985, 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2017; Stover *et al*., 2017). Consequently, STD believes that the environment, including the relationships among socializing agents, plays an essential role in making people's behavior autonomous, or be well controlled. In this way, the student experiences a notorious learning through cooperative strategies of teaching, services and socio-educational learning that bring education institutions and society closer to the academic improvement of the student (González-Alonso *et al.,* 2022).

2.2 The goals of parental achievement

The sub-theory of the content of goals advocates that people orient their behavior toward goals or lifelong goals that can be articulated into two broad categories: intrinsic goals and extrinsic goals (Ryan and Deci, 2008). The first, associated with intrinsic motivation, includes four aspects: personal growth, affiliation, health, and community contribution; it relates to the satisfaction of basic psychological needs and contributes to psychological well-being. Extrinsic goals, associated with extrinsic motivation, are articulated into three categories: fame, physical appearance, and financial success; they relate to external manifestations, reactions of others, interpersonal comparison, need for approval, and are associated with poor people's well-being (Deci and Ryan, 2017).

In the academic world, goals have two orientations; on the one hand, the approximation to success and avoidance to failure; and, on the other, the task. In the latter, students are interested in improving their skills and building new knowledge. However, in the orientation toward success in homework, students aim to protect their own image before themselves and others (Pintrich, 2003). From this theoretical approach, Dahling and Ruppel (2016) show that students with low orientation to the task show less academic self-efficacy, while those students with a high orientation to the task show better school performance. Mageau *et al*. (2016) formulate three types of orientations of achievement goals when applying this conceptual model to the goals of parental achievement in the area of family socialization: a) goals oriented to the mastery of the task: focused on the learning and the goal cognition of the activity that the children develop; b) goals oriented to success in the outcome of the task: aimed at demonstrating that children are better than others in the execution of a given activity; and c) goals aimed at avoiding task failure: explain the behavior of those parents who prevent their sons and daughters from making mistakes so that they do not feel inferior or disqualified by others. For Gonida and Cortina (2014), the goals of parents—goals of parental achievement—can direct parental practices, particularly toward support for autonomy and psychological control. The task-oriented parental goal (intrinsic motivation) supports for autonomy and facilitates autonomous regulation of learning; in contrast, parental achievement goals directed at task success and avoidance of failure (extrinsic motivation) are linked to psychological control and explain controlled regulation of student learning.

2.3 Support for autonomy and psychological control

The parental dimension for STD, *support for autonomy,* refers to parental practice that guides children to think their own way and make decisions according to their attitudes, interests, and

values (Grolnick *et al.,* 2014; Ryan *et al*., 2006). It is important to emphasize that support for autonomy is the base of intrinsic motivation and internalized forms of extrinsic motivation. In addition, it is positively associated with the perception of general competence in children and adolescents, which facilitates a sense of success in academic tasks (Grolnick, 2009; Grolnick *et al*., 2015). In this perspective, studies indicate that sons and daughters who show better academic and psychosocial skills have parents who promote their initiative, listen to their opinions, and enable them to make decisions (Joussemet *et al*., 2005; Joussemet *et al*., 2014). In the study of parenthood, psychological control is contradictory with the promotion of the autonomy in children (Rodríguez Meirinhos *et al.,* 2019). In the STD framework, "psychological control refers to those behaviors that interfere with the thoughts and feelings of sons and daughters" (Barber, 1996, p. 3297). Rodríguez Menéndez *et al*. (2018) say that psychological control integrates three essential components: a) manipulation and coercion practices that dominate and pressure the child in the demands or expectations of parents; b) intrusion into the emotions of the children; and c) lack of respect to children.

Assuming the above, psychological control is a parental practice with negative consequences for children's development because it frustrates their autonomy. In this direction, studies indicate that psychological control increases the risk of children to have problematic behaviors at home, at school, or with their peers, and facilitates the development of anxiety symptoms, which could have a negative impact on adolescent academic performance and interpersonal relationships (Barber and Xia, 2013; Kuppens *et al.,* 2013; Pinquart and Kauser, 2018; Scharf and Goldner, 2018). Additional studies corroborate that, when family upbringing favors support for autonomy, this parental practice explains a better internalization of learning and an autonomous motivation in children and adolescents, as well as improved psychological well-being; while psychological control, a coercive environment, and external motivation inhibit or reduce the interest of intrinsically motivated activities (Bernier *et al.,* 2010; Brenning *et al.,* 2015; Grolnick, 2009; Grolnick *et al.,* 2014).

Because of the latter, the objectives of the study seek to understand the situation in this regard in a local context. As a general objective, this research aims to know how parental goals operate in self-regulation of learning in the case of adolescents and families in the city of Cuenca (Ecuador). The specific objectives are a) to identify self-regulation of learning in adolescents, its characteristics, and the type of predominant regulation; b) to analyze this variable in relation to the goals of parental achievement (mastery of the task, success in the task and avoidance of failure) and c) to check for possible relationships of this variable with the support for autonomy versus psychological *control*. Additionally, to look for differences according to the sex of adolescents and parents.

3 Methodology

The research is quantitative, with a cross-sectional correlational design that allows the relationship between goals of parental achievement, support for autonomy and parental control in self-regulation of learning among adolescents in the city of Cuenca.

3.1 Population and sample

The mean age of fathers was 51.95 (*SD*=6.04), and the mean age of mothers was 49.95 (*SD*=5.29).

With the information provided by the Coordination of Education Zone 6, the population of 25 870 adolescents enrolled in first, second and third year of high school in the educational institutions of the city of Cuenca (Ecuador), located in the urban area was determined. With the subsequent authorization of local education authorities, educational institutions were selected. For this purpose, a multi-

stage sampling was used, determining 18 institutions; subsequently, the random selection of each level of high school was made by conglomerates. The sample size calculation was performed with a 95 % confidence level and 3 % margin of error. Once the sample was calculated, the choice of institutions was done at random with a total of 10 public institutions and eight private from the city of Cuenca (Ecuador). This study is based on a sample of 1056 adolescents, of whom 47% are women, 53% are men; the mean age was 16.10 years (*SD*= 1.10). 1692 parents participated, 56% are mothers and 44% are fathers. The mean age of mothers was 42.73 (*SD*= 6.65), and the mean age of fathers was 45.36 (*SD*= 7.89). Regarding the level of education of mothers, it is reported that 39.1% completed elementary school, 31% completed high school and 29.9% completed higher education level. Regarding fathers, 35.3% reported they completed elementary school, 31.6% completed high school and 33.1% completed higher education.

3.2 Instruments

The instruments used to measure the study variables were three scales, which have been adapted from scales of international use.

1. Learning Self-Regulating Scale (Chávez and Merino, 2016) adaptation of the Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire, SRQ-L (Williams and Merino, 2016). The questionnaire filled out by adolescents includes two subscales a) *Autonomous Regulation* (item: 1,3,6,9,11 and 12) and b) *Controlled Regulation* (item: 2,4,5,7,8,10,13 and 14). There are 14 items for a Likert-type response scale, with five possible degrees of agreement, from (1) "Not true for me" to (5) "Totally true for me"—as in the original scale. The internal consistency of the instrument yields a coefficient: α .75, for autonomous learning, and α .72, for controlled learning.
2. Parental scale of achievement-oriented goals (Inda-Caro *et al*., 2020), adaptation of *Parental Achievement Goals* AGQ (Mageau *et al.,* 2016). This instrument consists of 11 items, according to a Likert scale, with seven possible degrees of agreement, ranging from (1) "I do not agree" to (7) "I strongly agree". It was filled in by the parents who reflected in three types of goals: a) task-oriented, which measure the interest of parents in the effectiveness of learning (item: 3, 6 and 10); b) goals aimed at success in the outcome of the task, which reflect the interest of parents in achieving recognition for their sons and daughters (item 2, 4, 7 and 8); and, c) goals aimed at avoiding task failure, which include parental behaviors to prevent children from being perceived as less competent than their peers (item: 1, 5, 9, and 11). The internal consistency of the instrument yields the following coefficients: α 0.75 (mothers), and α 0.72 (fathers).
3. Permanent Parental Autonomy Support Scale, P-PASS (Mageau *et al.,* 2015). This scale addresses two dimensions: a) support for autonomy, with three indicators: election of the offer in certain limits; explain reasons behind demands, rules and limits; and be aware of accepting and recognizing the child's feelings; and b) psychological control, with three indicators: threatening to punish the child; inducing guilt; and promoting achievement goals. It is an instrument with 24 items, with a Likert-type response scale with 7 response alternatives (1-7). The scale has a high reliability index, high internal consistency: support (α_{mother} = 0.88 α_{father}=0.85); control (α_{mother} = 0.86; α_{father} = 0.84)

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

In the first day in the institutions, the students were given a closed envelope addressed to their parents containing the following documents:

information of the research; questionnaire for parents (mother and/or father), with the corresponding consent to use the data; consent to authorize the participation of their sons and daughters in the research. In the second visit, the envelopes with the completed documents were collected and, once the authorization of the parents was verified, the questionnaires were applied to the students. The questionnaire was applied in the classroom during the academic year, in October, November and December (school year 2019-2020).

3.4 Data analysis

Measures of central tendency and dispersion were obtained. Based on the sample size, the Kolmogorov Smirnov test was applied, which allowed the data normality hypothesis to be rejected (pvalue <.05). Therefore, non-parametric methods such as Mann Whitney, Wilcoxon, and Friedman's U-test were used for cross-group comparison, as well as Spearman's correlation coefficient to test the existence or absence of correlation between "parental goals" and "support for autonomy versus psychological control" with "self-regulation of learning". Data processing was performed using the SPSS 25 statistical package.

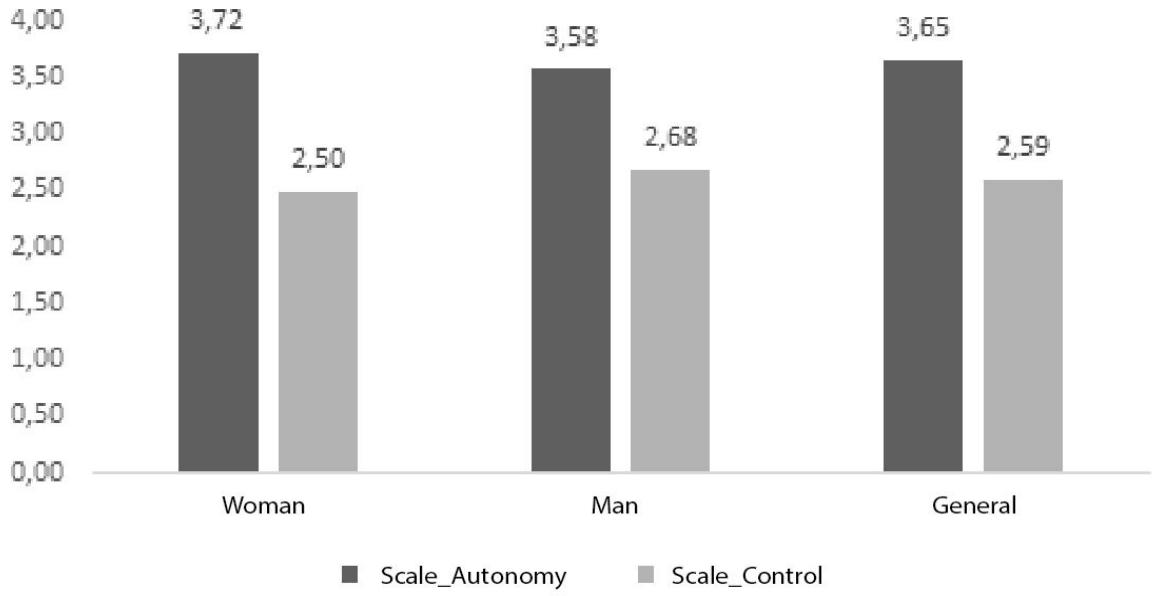
4 Results

4.1 Self-regulation of learning in adolescents

As can be seen in Figure 1, considering the sample as a whole, adolescents show a higher average on the autonomy scale than on the control scale (M_{aut} = 3.65 and SD_{aut} = 0.7; M_{cont} = 2.59 and DT_{cont} = .71). This data shows a clear positive orientation toward the autonomous self-regulation scale, followed by controlled regulation. A more in-depth analysis, considering both sexes separately, indicates that the data collected using the scales of autonomous regulation and controlled regulation showed significant differences between men and women (Z = -26.31, p value =.0001, d = 1.26). On the autonomy scale, the latter obtained a higher score (Z = -3,246, p value =.049), while on the control scale, a higher score was observed for males (Z = 4.06, p value = .001). These results show differences in women regarding autonomous regulation that could favor a type of learning and self-regulation. Consequently, the sex of the participants makes a difference with respect to the way in which student learning is self-regulated.

Figure 1

Self-regulation of learning in adolescents according to their sex



Source: Our elaboration.

4.2 Self-regulation of learning in adolescents: How it relates to parental achievement goals

Parental achievement goals (mastery of homework, success in homework, and avoidance of failure) were analyzed considering the gender of parents. As shown in Table 1, the data first place the goals oriented to the "mastery of the task (effectiveness of learning), with the highest mean ($m_{d.parents}$ = 6.42 and $SD_{d.parents}$ = .80; $m_{d.mothers}$ = 6.40 and $SD_{d.mothers}$ = .81); followed by the goal "task success) ($m_{d.parents}$ = 5.93 and $SD_{.parents}$ = 1.06; $m_{d.mothers}$ = 5.78 and $SD_{d.mothers}$ = 1.16); and, thirdly, "failure avoidance goal with scores below average ($m_{e.parents}$= 2.65 and $SD_{e.parents}$ = 1.58; ($m_{e.mothers}$=2.56 and $SD_{e.mothers}$=1.58).

Self-regulation of learning in adolescents and parental achievement goals correlate positively, data are provided in Table 2. In the case of the mother, the goal "failure avoidance" has a significant positive correlation with "controlled regulation" (rho = .205 pvalue = .0001). In the case of fathers, there is a significant positive relationship between the goal "success in the task' and the "autonomous regulation" of adolescents (rho = 0.089 pvalue = .02781); and also between the goal "avoidance of failure" and "controlled regulation" (rho = 0.189 pvalue = .0001).

Table1

Parental Achievement Goals

Parental Goals	Mother		Father	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Task Proficiency	6.40	.81	6.42	.80
Task Success	5.78	1.16	5.93	1.06
Task Avoidance*	2.56	1.58	2.65	1.58

*Note: *p<.05*

It should be noted that the goal "avoidance of task failure"', associated with extrinsic motivation, correlates positively in both parents with the controlled regulation of learning, this being the most significant statistical relationship of the study. It is also noted that the goal "success of the task" in fathers correlates positively with the "autonomous regulation" of the adolescent, while the goal "avoidance of failure" in mothers is the one that shows a positive correlation with this type of regulation.

An apparent contradiction is observed in the case of mothers. The goal of "failure avoidance" correlates positively with both controlled regulation and autonomous regulation, probably because this goal can have an external orientation, linked to psychological control, explaining controlled learning. STD believes that behaviors that have been extrinsic motivated can be internalized when socializing with people, especially those behaviors aimed at academic achievement in students.

Table 2

Correlation Between Self-Regulating Learning Scales and Parental Achievement Goals

Parental Achievement Goals						
Self-regulation of learning	Mother			Father		
	Task Mastery	Task Success	Avoidance of failure	Task Mastery	Task Success	Avoidance of failure
Autonomous Regulation	.067	.067	.090*	.038	.089*	.036
Controlled Regulation	-.001	.058	.205**	-.064	.052	.189**

Note: ** Significant correlation at .01 level; *Significant correlation at .05 level
Source: Our elaboration.

On the other hand, following STD, whose autonomous regulation model enables students to be involved and persist in their academic tasks while controlled regulation is the least favorable for good academic performance, the results could indicate that the parental goals that guide the autonomous regulation of sons and daughters are the most favorable to their academic goals.

4.3 Self-regulation of learning in adolescents related to autonomy support versus psychological control

Table 3 shows Spearman correlations that indicate the relationship between the two dimensions of the PPASS scale, autonomy support and psychological control, and the two self-regulating programming scales: "autonomous regula-

tion and controlled regulation". There are statistically significant positive correlations in parents of both sexes between autonomous regulation of learning and support for autonomy, higher in the case of mothers (rho.270 vs. rho.254); and, on the other hand, between controlled regulation and psychological control, higher in fathers (rho.319 vs. rho.295). This is an indication that the sex of parents is related to support autonomy, in the case of mothers, and psychological control, in fathers.

Table 3

Parental support for psychological autonomy-control, self-regulation

Sex	Instrument	Dimension	Autonomous regulation	Controlled regulation
Mother	PPASS	Support for autonomy	.270**	.037
		Psychological control	.044	.295**
Father	PPASS	Support for autonomy	.254**	-.019
		Psychological control	.047	.319**

Note: *** Significant at level .001, ** Significant at level .01, * Significant at level .05.

5 Discussion

Adolescents in Cuenca have a clear positive orientation toward autonomous regulation of learning, as Peruvian and Portuguese adolescents (Chávez and Merino, 2016; Rothes *et al.*, 2017). As mentioned by STD, the intention is that "students will have the capacity to intervene intentionally in their learning environment, guiding and transforming the events in accordance with their academic objectives" (Rosario *et al.*, 2014, p. 786). Also, although autonomous regulation predominates in the group, there is a significant statistical difference between girls and boys in the two subscales; while self-learning predominates in girls, controlled learning is more common in boys. This gender difference is consistent with other research (Arias *et al.*, 2018; Parra *et al.*, 2014; Suárez-Valenzuela and Suárez-Riveiro, 2019) that have explained the higher adaptation level to school environments, learning strategies, and efficiency that characterize girls. It is observed that the sex of adolescents explains the differences between the two self-regulation scales of learning.

On the other hand, parents of adolescents show that their goals are primarily oriented to the mastery of the task and the success of the task, followed by the goal of avoiding task failure. This result coincides with an investigation that reported that Canadian mothers prefer the mastery of the task, which takes to autonomy; followed by the success of the task that explains psychological control and parental interference in the task of sons and daughters (Gonida and Cortina, 2014). It is also similar to the findings of Inda-Caro *et al.* (2020) where parents prioritized the same goals, identified from the career of their children. In the STD context, the goal of mastery the task is intrinsically motivated and the two remaining goals, task outcome, and task failure avoidance, are linked to extrinsic orientation (Deci and Ryan, 2017).

Findings also show that the parental goal of avoidance task failure is statistically significant in mothers with the scale of controlled regulation. In this case, following Gonida and Cortina (2014), it may be associated with controlling practices to prevent sons and daughters from making mistakes. As for parents, the highest scoring goal is oriented to success in the task, which is linked to autonomous regulation. This result is also related to the study just mentioned,

whose authors observed practices of support for the autonomy of minors in the parents, which consist of listening to their point of view, encouraging them to carry out activities and feeding back their tasks positively.

The goals of parental achievement: task success and avoidance of failure guide parental psychological control practices. In addition, it is noted that a differentiating element of parental goals is the sex of parents; according to Schvaneveldt (2014), a possible explanation for this difference might be culture. In Ecuador, parental practices in mothers, influenced by physical and emotional closeness, include high levels of support along with high levels of control and monitoring of the academic activities of their sons and daughters. Finally, the results show that parental support for autonomy is related to self-regulated learning. The data obtained agree with studies that indicate that support for autonomy is associated with better competencies and academic tasks in adolescents (Grolnick, 2009; Grolnick *et al.*, 2015; Joussemet *et al.*, 2005; Joussemet *et al.*, 2014). This result corroborates that intrinsic motivation and internalized forms of extrinsic motivation are explained by the support for autonomy; moreover, these motivations are positively related to self-regulation (Grolnick, 2014; Ryan and Deci, 2017). In addition, the results show that psychological control of both parents are related to controlled regulation of learning. Previous research has shown that disrespectful behavior by parents has a negative impact on academic performance and that interest in intrinsically motivated academic tasks is diminished (Barber and Xia, 2013; Kuppens *et al.*, 2013; Pinquart and Kauser, 2018; Scharf and Goldner, 2018).

6 Conclusions

The results of the study showed that autonomous regulation of learning, facilitating active and self-directed learning, predominates among students. It is a result that must be reinforced by strategies of self-regulation of learning and evaluation toward the achievement of objectives and the improvement of academic performance in adolescents, as well as the conditions in which the student can be involved and participate in his or her learning, including family-school intervention. It should be stated that in the case of adolescents in Cuenca, family variables—parental achievement goals and parental practices—promote or threaten both intrinsic motivation and internalized forms of extrinsic motivation. Therefore, it is necessary to support the formation of a positive parenthood that will encourage parents to promote healthy psychological growth and academic development of children and adolescents by supporting autonomy and avoiding psychological control practices.

This research has deepened on the contextualized knowledge of the topic; however, there is little research that explicitly studies the relationship between parental achievement goals and self-regulation of learning. Further research must be done on autonomous regulation of learning as a predictor variable of optimal academic performance of students. In this regard, the Theory of Self-Determination provides a solid theoretical framework for advancing possible hypotheses that will illuminate the way forward.

Acknowledgment

This study is funded by the Research Department of the University of Cuenca [DIUC], winning project of the XVII call: "Parental support-control and promotion of autonomy, self-concept and self-regulation of learning in adolescents from Cuenca" (Project Reference: 2040000071632).

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