

# Adaptation of parental expectation of children's future scale in Indonesian version

Novia Solichah<sup>1,2</sup>, Nur Ainy Fardana<sup>1</sup>, Samian<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Psychology, Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Airlangga, Surabaya, Indonesia

<sup>2</sup>Department of Psychology, Faculty of Psychology, UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim, Malang, Indonesia

## Article Info

### Article history:

Received May 25, 2024

Revised Oct 15, 2024

Accepted Jan 16, 2025

### Keywords:

Adaptation

Construct reliability

Construct validity

Parental expectation on child's future scale (PECF)

Parents

Psychometric properties

## ABSTRACT

Parental expectations play a crucial role in shaping a child's developmental trajectory, serving as a primary motivator for the attainment of future aspirations. Researchers conducted a literature review on parental expectations toward their children, utilizing ten instruments developed in journal literature from 2008 to 2020. Of particular interest was the Parent Questionnaire containing the Chinese Parental Expectation on Child's Future Scale (CPECF), it constitutes a fundamental framework for comprehending parental anticipations in the realm of child development. This study aimed to adapt and validate the PECF scale, employing established validation procedures endorsed by the International Test Commission. Initially, a cohort of 987 parents participated; however, after data cleansing procedures aimed at eliminating incomplete responses and ensuring accuracy, the analysis focused on 593 respondents. The participants' ages ranged from 21 to 78 years, with a mean age of 35.93 years. Confirmatory Factor Analysis revealed 17 valid and reliable items. The model demonstrated a good fit. These findings suggest that the PECF scale effectively measures parental expectations, aligning with the original scale. It is anticipated that this scale will serve as a valuable tool for research concerning parental expectations in Indonesia, aiding in understanding and addressing the dynamics.

*This is an open access article under the [CC BY-SA](#) license.*



## Corresponding Author:

Nur Ainy Fardana

Department of Psychology, Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Airlangga

4-6 Airlangga Road, Surabaya, East Java, Indonesia

Email: 2022@psikologi.unair.ac.id or noviasolichah@uin-malang.ac.id.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Expectations, as posited by Allison Kanter Agliata and Kimberly Renk, constitute a mindset that propels individuals towards self-improvement, there by equipping them to confront future challenges [1]. This concept of expectations is particularly pertinent to parents with high expectations for their children [2], [3]. Driven by an inherent desire for their children to achieve a brighter future, parents not only articulate these expectations but also actively engage in guiding and supporting their children through various endeavors [4]–[6].

The significance of parental expectations cannot be overstated, especially regarding their profound impact on children's growth and development. Indeed, parental expectations are heralded as the primary impetus behind children's endeavors, instilling in them the drive to strive toward realizing parental aspirations [7]–[10]. As articulated by Creswell [11], parental expectations represent a desire to shape a child's future into one characterized by happiness and positivity. Thus, parental expectations are deemed indispensable for every individual who assumes the mantle of parenthood because they do not want their children to have a bad future. Moreover, Seginer [12] underscores the pivotal role of parental expectations as

a cornerstone of family dynamics, asserting its capacity to influence academic achievement and adolescent development significantly.

Parental expectations play a critical role in shaping children's developmental outcomes, influencing their academic achievements, psychological well-being, and overall life trajectories [13]. However, the tools used to measure these expectations often reflect cultural biases inherent in their country of origin, limiting their applicability in different cultural contexts. This study addresses the need for a culturally relevant tool to measure parental expectations in Indonesia by adapting the parental expectation of children's future scale (PECF), originally developed in a Chinese context by Leung and Shek [14].

Parents' expectations regarding their children's future encompass specific beliefs that hold paramount importance, encapsulating the aspirations parents harbor for their children's development [15]–[17]. Within Chinese culture, parental expectations encompass both practical and cultural ideals [14]. Practical aspirations typically revolve around academic excellence and promising career prospects, whereas cultural ideals encompass the transmission of familial attitudes and values such as fulfilling familial duties and upholding cultural heritage [14], [18]. This notion resonates with the suggestion by Chao and Sentence that parental expectations in Chinese culture revolve around two fundamental values: maintaining the honor of the family surname [19] and attaining success in the future [20].

Chinese parents, by and large, hold high expectations of their children [21], [22]. A Chinese proverb encapsulates this sentiment with the phrase '*wang zi cheng long*,' which translates to 'hope my son becomes a dragon,' symbolizing an ideal way of life [23]. The intention of the dragon is to represent the 'ideal way of life'. Parental expectations are considered pivotal in Chinese society, embodying core values that every parent endeavor to instill, as they are believed to exert a positive influence on children. This is in line with Indonesia's culture [2], [24]–[28].

Various instruments have been developed to measure parental expectations, as evidenced by a comprehensive literature review spanning ten instruments from journal publications between 2008 and 2020. Five of these instruments, sourced from international journals, serve as comprehensive source references for understanding parental expectations and form the basis for recent studies. This research aims to examine these instruments related to parental expectations, which then become the basis of various concepts of parental expectations for their children's development.

Research on parental expectations has demonstrated significant impacts on children's motivation and academic success [29]. Developed foundational theories highlighting how high parental expectations can foster a positive self-concept and drive in children. In the context of Chinese culture, [30] used the PECF scale to reveal its reliability and validity in measuring parental expectations. They found that parental expectations significantly predict adolescents' aspirations and self-evaluations of capability [24]. Explored the motivational aspects of parental expectations, emphasizing the importance of parental encouragement in children's academic and social development. Positive motivation from parents, particularly in academic pursuit, is deemed crucial [31], [32]. Conversely, Crawford [26] suggests that parental expectations are influenced by the surrounding environment, with parents aspiring their children to outperform peers. The dimension of parental support, which involves imparting knowledge, understanding, and skills to nurture children into exemplary individuals [28]. Additionally, Creswell [11] demonstrated through experimental studies that high parental expectations, combined with motivational support, play a crucial role in promoting children's academic achievement and overall development. It makes a major positive contribution to the child's development, particularly in terms of academic achievement. Thus, parental expectations are needed to shape children the way that they want.

Several researchers have explored various concepts and instruments related to parental expectations, employing diverse methodologies to elucidate the multifaceted nature of this phenomenon. Questionnaires coupled with descriptive statistical analyses to examine parental expectations [23], [33], [34]. A meta-analysis [35], and an experimental study approach [11].

Thomas and Zimmer [36] conducted a meta-analysis exploring parental expectations' impact on children's development, revealing a positive average effect. They found that parental expectations, coupled with parental criticism of their children's perfectionism, have a sizeable weighted effect on children's development. Parental expectations and criticism of social perfectionism influence their mindset toward changing their children to outperform their peers. This aligns with Curran and Hill [35] suggestion that parents often harbor unrealistic expectations for themselves and, consequently, for their children, fostering pressure to be perfect compared to others.

The Parent Questionnaire contained the Chinese parental expectation on child's future scale (CPECF) [14], drawing from the theory proposed by Bastiana *et al.* [17]. The study involved 125 parents in Hong Kong. Reliability analysis indicated that both paternal expectation scale (PEXP) and maternal expectation scale (MEXP) were reliable (0.76 for PEXP and 0.75 for MEXP). The Cronbach's alpha for CPECF overall was 0.829 ( $p < 0.001$ ), indicating good internal consistency. This measuring instrument has been referenced 48 times but does not yet exist in an Indonesian version. The decision to an adaptation of this

measuring instrument is because it is also developed in an Asian country, making it similar to the Indonesian culture. From the obtained results, it can be inferred that parental expectations, as elucidated in the study by [37]. Leung and Shek [14], align with the theory of motivation expectations [17], [38]. This alignment manifests in Parental expectations impacting adolescents' aspirations and self-evaluations of capability. The study supports the notion posited by [17], [38] that both maternal and paternal expectations positively predict adolescent development.

Parental expectations exert a considerable influence on children's well-being and achievements, underscoring the need for a measurement tool capable of capturing specific dimensions of parental expectations [14]. Adapting the scale to Indonesian becomes imperative due to the need to consider diverse cultural and linguistic contexts in comprehending parental expectations for children's future in Indonesia. Indonesian culture embodies distinct values, traditions, and social contexts, which may shape how parents construe and articulate their expectations regarding their children. Hence, utilizing a scale developed within a Chinese cultural context might not accurately reflect the experiences and expectations of Indonesian parents.

By adapting the scale to the Indonesian language and culture, we ensure that the instrument aligns with the local context and can yield valid and pertinent data in researching parental aspirations for the future of their children in Indonesia. Moreover, the Indonesian language differs from Chinese, necessitating precise translation to ensure clarity and accuracy of the scale's questions and statements for Indonesian respondents. Incorrect or inadequate translation could lead to misinterpretation and bias in measuring parental expectations.

Despite the valuable insights provided by these studies, several gaps remain. First, the existing measurement tools, such as the PECF, are culturally specific and may not accurately capture parental expectations in different cultural contexts like Indonesia. Second, the impact of socio-economic factors on parental expectations and their effects on children's development has not been thoroughly explored. Finally, there is a lack of validated instruments for measuring parental expectations in Indonesia, which hinders comprehensive research in this area.

This study aims to fill these gaps by adapting the PECF for the Indonesian context. This adaptation will involve linguistic translation and cultural modifications to ensure the tool's relevance and accuracy for Indonesian parents. By creating a culturally appropriate instrument, this study seeks to provide a valid and reliable means of measuring parental expectations in Indonesia, facilitating more accurate and meaningful research.

## 2. METHOD

The adaptation of the measuring instruments aims to ensure equivalence or equivalence in function between the original measuring tool and the one utilized in the study [39]. Adaptation involves considering differences between the culture of origin of the measurement tool and the culture in which it will be applied to maintain equivalence in meaning [39]. In this study, an adaptation of measuring instruments follows guidelines based on the International Test Commission (ITC) Guidelines for Translating and Adapting Test [40], which comprises five stages: i) preconditioning, ii) test development, iii) confirmation, iv) administration, and v) documentation. The process of translating measuring instruments at the test development stage follows guidelines based on Gance-Cleveland *et al.* [41], which includes five stages: i) translation, ii) synthesis, iii) back translation, iv) expert committee review, and v) pretesting.

According to guidance from the ITC [40], this stage involves several steps: i) ensuring that the translation and adaptation process accounts for linguistic, psychological, and cultural variances within the target population by engaging experts with pertinent proficiency (TD 1), ii) employing suitable translation strategies and methodologies to optimize the applicability of the adapted measure within the target population (TD 2), iii) furnishing proof regarding the content of items and test instructions, and comparability of language and relevance of the measure have similar meanings in the intended population (TD 3) [42], iv) offering proof that the formats of items, scales for rating, categories for scoring, conventions of the test, modes of administration, and other methodologies are suitable for the targeted demographic (TD 4), and v) collecting pilot data on the adapted measure to enable item analyses, reliability assessments, and validity studies in a small setting for important revisions to the adapted measure (readability testing) (TD 5).

The participants in this study were parents (both fathers and mothers) of children aged 4-6 years who voluntarily agreed to participate. Ethical approval was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee with certificate number 359/KE/IV/2024. A questionnaire was utilized as the data collection technique, employing a non-probability convenience sampling technique to reach parents from various backgrounds. This diversity was essential to ensure the broad applicability of the adaptation instrument to a wide range of parents. An online Likert-scale questionnaire was developed using LimeSurvey and distributed via WhatsApp groups and social media. A total of 987 parents participated initially, but after data cleansing for

completeness of answers (302), estimated processing time (75), and attention check (17), 394 respondents failed. Thus, data from 593 respondents were analyzed, ranging in age from 21 to 78 years (mean=35.93, SD=7.6 years) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Participant's demographics

Category	Frequency
Role	Father=237 (40%); Mother=356 (60%)
Parents' education	High School=226 (38%); Diploma=46 (8%); Bachelor=276 (47%); Postgraduate=45 (8%)
Age range of parents	20-30 years=163 (27%); 31-40 years=296 (50%); 41-50 years=102 (17%); 51-80 years=32 (5%)
Gender of children	Male=306 (52%); Female=287 (48%)
Number of children	1=175 (30%); 2=241 (41%); >3=177 (30%)
Place of residence	Living separately from other families (nuclear family) =404 (68%); living with other families (extended family) =189 (32%)
Family income (in million)	1-5=447 (75%); 6-10=123 (21%); 11-20=8 (1%); 21-30=8 (1%); >30=7(1%)

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1. Preconditioning stage

The preconditioning stage constitutes the initial step undertaken by the researcher, involving obtaining the necessary permissions from intellectual property rights/copyright holders related to the measuring instrument before making adaptations. In this stage, the author sought permission via e-mail from the developer of each measuring instrument used in the study. Specifically, the author emailed Janet T. Y. Leung to request permission to use and adapt the parental expectation on child's future scale. The creator of the measuring instrument replied to the correspondence, stating that permission was not required to use the measuring instrument and encouraged its direct utilization. Additionally, Leung provided an attachment outlining the psychometric properties in her email reply.

#### 3.2. Test development (TD)

The adaptation process concerning the language and culture of the measuring instrument in this study adheres to the adaptation flow from Gance-Cleveland *et al.* [41]. This process ensures cultural and linguistic accuracy in the instrument. A detailed explanation of this adaptation is provided as follows:

##### 3.2.1. Translation stage (TD 1 and 2)

The translation of the measuring instrument follows guidelines by Gance-Cleveland [41]. This process encompasses five stages: forward translation, synthesis, backward translation, expert panel evaluation, and pilot testing. The initial stage of the scale adaptation process is forward translation, which involves at least two translators tasked with translating from the primary language to the desired language. This approach allows the researcher to obtain diverse perspectives from the two translators, minimizing ambiguity of meaning. Ideally, the initial translators possess different profiles, with the first translator possessing a deep understanding of the language and concepts related to the scale and the second translator focusing solely on language translation without substantial comprehension of the academic purpose [41].

Following forward translation, the next step is to synthesize the translations provided by the two translators. Synthesis entails reviewing the translated statement items individually and addressing any issues encountered during the initial translation process. The outcome of this process is the statement items of the scale translated from the original language to the intended language [41]. The translators reached a consensus to produce a single Indonesian questionnaire (T1.2).

Subsequent to obtaining the translation results from the primary language to the desired language, namely the questionnaire in Indonesian from the previous synthesis process, the next phase involves backward translation of the translated results to the original language. This validation step ensures that the translation to the intended language reflects the same meaning as the original statement items. Two translators and one synthesizer (B1 and B2) undertook this process. It was preferred that the individual involved in this aspect would lack understanding of the concept of the adapted scale item and possess a mother tongue resembling the native language of the scale being translated, facilitating a more natural process [41]. At this stage, a translator with a minimum of three years' experience residing in an English-speaking country was selected. As in the forward translation process, the two translators deliberated on the results of the two backward translations (B1 and B2), resulting in a consensus on a single English questionnaire.

### 3.2.2. Expert committee review (TD 3 and 4)

The expert review process occurred subsequent to the translation of the measuring instrument, aiming to validate the translation results. Expert reviewers were selected based on their proficiency in English and Indonesian, knowledge of the subject matter, and understanding of the context in which the data were collected. Translators meeting these criteria also participated as committee members [41]. Experts validated the translation by comparing the original scale version with the translated version, providing ratings for the compiled items. Researchers referred to studies by Sperber [42] to assess the level of comparability and similarity between the original version and the back-translated and forward-translated versions of items.

Following the assessment of scale items by three experts, the average value for each item was calculated. According to Sperber [42]. If the mean score exceeds 3 (with 7 indicating the lowest agreement and 1 indicating the highest agreement), the item necessitates a formal review of its translation. Similarly, any mean score falling between 2.5 and 3 in the similarity section is considered problematic, and warrants review for possible item revision. In theory, retranslated items may differ from the original questionnaire in linguistic form, but the conveyed meaning should ideally remain similar. However, similarity of meaning is prioritized over language form, which may vary to ensure similarity of meaning. Comparability mean score total 1.54 and range 1-2. Similarity mean score total 1.54 and range 1-2.

Furthermore, after receiving results from linguistic experts, the researcher conducted a content expert test to evaluate item format, rating scale, scoring category, test convention, administration mode, and other procedures according to the intended population in the expert review, namely Educational and Developmental Psychologists in accordance with the research context. Content validity was assessed by calculating the content validity index (CVI) for the five adapted measuring instruments. The CVI calculation was based on guidelines from Yaghmale [43], with four assessments: relevance, clarity, simplicity, and ambiguity. The I-CVI and S-CVI calculation was done using guidelines from [44], [45]. After obtaining input from content review experts, the researcher developed the draft scale and administration procedures to offer proof that the item formats, rating scales, scoring criteria, test protocols, administration methods, and other processes were suitable for the target population (TD 4).

### 3.2.3. Content validity index (CVI)

In this study, evidence derived from the content of the test was acquired through calculation the CVI for four adapted measurement tools. Experts rated items' relevance, clarity, or importance, assigning scores from 1 (not relevant, not clear, not important) to 4 (very relevant, very clear, very important). Polit *et al.* [46] stated that the CVI value can be calculated for each item on the scale (I-CVI) as well as for the scale as a whole (S-CVI). Based on expert assessments (scores 1-4), a dichotomous assessment was made again, where scores of 1 or 2 were given a score of 0 and scores of 3 or 4 were given a score of 1. Furthermore, the I-CVI score was calculated by summing the rating value of each item and dividing by the number of expert reviewers. In contrast, the S-CVI was calculated by summing the I-CVI score divided by the total number of items. An item is considered good if it has an I-CVI  $\geq 0.78$ , while the S-CVI score is considered good if it is  $\geq 0.90$ . The calculation results for each item on the scale yielded an I-CVI score=1, as did the S-CVI score for all scales involved in this study, indicating good content validity for all scales.

### 3.2.4. Pilot study

Stage 5 is utilized to assess whether the translated scale is understandable, applicable, and complete. In this stage, the researcher engaged 30 parent respondents with the assistance of LimeSurvey, but only 21 individuals (13 mothers and 8 fathers) provided full input and assessment by filling out the piloted scale. The piloted scale was accompanied by a column where participants could offer comments or input regarding the scale items. This aligns with guidelines from [47], specifying that the process of this readability test involves evaluating instructions and questionnaire items with 5-15 respondents. Several items required re-examination and correction based on feedback provided by respondents, including feelings of difficulty in understanding statements, confusing meanings, complicated sentences, and sentences with more than two words confusing). These items were addressed by the researcher, and the complete scale processing time ranged from 7 to 11 minutes. The items needing adjustments were on the PECF, specifically items number 1, 7, 8 and 9.

Following the receipt of results and improvements from the pilot study or readability test, researchers improved the items. Subsequently, content experts reassessed content validity ratio (CVR). The three experts deemed the items appropriate without any noted issues. After expert review, researchers registered for ethical testing at Ubaya University, obtaining ethical clearance with registration number 359/KE/IV/2024.

### 3.3. Confirmation stage

Based on guidance from the International Test Commission [40], stage 3 involves guidelines grounded in empirical analyses of scale validity studies. Additionally, it furnishes statistical evidence concerning construct validity, particularly through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The validity of this measuring instrument aims to derive evidence derived from associations with other variables. Construct validity comprises a set of statements or items used to measure and reflect latent constructs theoretically to ensure accurate measurements [48]–[50]. Convergent validity and discriminant validity are included in the tests for construct validity.

#### 3.3.1. Validity based on internal structure

The author examined the validity of the internal structure using confirmatory factor analysis conducted with JASP software. Convergent validity, average variance extracted (AVE), and construct reliability (CR) can be determined based on factor loading from CFA. According to Hair *et al.* [51], the standard AVE value is  $>0.5$  with a CR value  $>0.7$ . Model fit to the data was assessed using the guidelines from [52].

The most common index of model accuracy is the Chi-square value to evaluate model fit. Ideally, the Chi-square value is not significant ( $p$ -value  $>0.05$ ), suggesting no distinction between the model and the data [52]. However, the Chi-square value is sensitive to sample size, where larger samples tend to yield significant estimation results, suggesting poor model fit. In such cases, researchers are advised to consider other parameters. The PECF is unidimensional, and a first-order CFA model was employed in the analysis of this instrument. The results of testing the validity of each adapted measuring instrument are outlined in the subsequent explanation.

Goodness-of-fit (GOF) test results with cut-of-value criteria indicate that the Chi-square value is expected to be non-significant ( $p$ -value  $>0.05$ ). Additionally, RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) should be  $<0.08$ , goodness-of-fit (GFI) index value  $\geq 0.9$  is considered a good fit, while  $0.8 \leq \text{GFI} < 0.9$  is acceptable or marginally fit. Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) with a value  $\geq 0.9$  is considered fit, marginal if, and  $0.8 \leq \text{AGFI} < 0.9$  is marginally fit. CMIN/DF is expected to be  $\leq 2.00$ . tucker lewis index (TLI) values  $\geq 0.9$  are classified as a good fit, while  $0.8 \leq \text{TLI} < 0.9$  is considered a marginal fit. The comparative fit index (CFI) value  $\geq 0.9$  indicates a good fit, and  $0.8 \leq \text{CFI} < 0.9$  suggests a marginally fit model. incremental fit index (IFI) should be  $\geq 0.90$ , and normed fit index (NFI) should also be  $\geq 0.90$  [53], [54].

Based on Table 2, it is evident that the resulting GOF coefficients indicate that all criteria have been met, signifying that the measurement model of parental expectations regarding a child's future is deemed feasible and satisfies the requirements of unidimensionality for use in the structural measurement stage. This aligns with the perspective by Miller *et al.* [55], who cited Hair *et al.* [51], proposing that utilizing 4-5 goodness-of-fit criteria is satisfactory for evaluating the model's viability, as long as each aspect of goodness-of-fit is covered, comprising absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices, and parsimony fit indices. Thus, the resulting structural equation modeling (SEM) can be utilized to analyze and test the hypotheses proposed in this study.

Testing the PECF with 17 items resulted in factor loadings ranging from 0.417 to 0.775 as presented in Table 3. Based on the pilot test with 593 respondents and first-order CFA results, it was noted that item number 3 had a factor loading below 0.5, specifically 0.417. According to Hair *et al.* [48], an item with a factor loading of 0.30-0.40 is minimally interpretable, while a factor loading of  $\geq 0.70$  indicates a well-defined structure [48], [56], [57].

Convergent validity was fulfilled based on confirmatory factor analysis (see Figure 1). Discriminant validity is a prerequisite to demonstrating the validity of a measurement construct can be evaluated by comparing the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) with the squared value of the correlation ( $R^2$ ) between constructs. Furthermore, discriminant validity can be verified by comparing the correlation value with 1, where if the correlation value is smaller than 1, discriminant validity is achieved [58]–[60]. In line with this point, Hair *et al.* [48] explained that an aspect has strong discriminant validity if its root AVE value is greater than the correlation coefficient between constructs. For example, the discriminant validity for aspect i1 is 0.443, which is greater than the correlation coefficients for the other aspects that range from 0.145 to 0.248. From the analysis, it was found that all aspects have good discriminant validity. Table 4 depicts the comparison table between AVE and  $R^2$ .

CFA offers reliability values, such as construct reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). These metrics help assess the consistency and validity of the constructs. Table 5 provides a detailed calculation of CR and AVE. If the CR value  $\geq 0.7$ , it indicates good reliability; CR values between 0.6 and around 0.7, along with AVE values  $\geq 0.5$ , indicate acceptable reliability. However, if CR  $\geq 0.6$  while AVE is below 0.5, then convergence validity remains adequate [48], [61], [62]. The CFA analysis conducted in this study yielded reliability results for each item as: achievement = 0.858, independence = 0.419, work = 0.751, family = 0.608, and behavior = 0.825 as shown in Table 5. The CFI results were 0.862, RMSEA was 0.107, and SRMR was 0.063. These findings align with prior research, such as Leung and Shek [30] which reported an overall Cronbach's alpha of 0.829. Similarly, research by Leung and Shek [37] obtained a result of 0.883 for PECF.

Table 2. Model first-order

Criteria parameter	Parameter tit	Model	Conclusion
Chi-square	<Chi-square table	0.001	Poor fit
CFI	$\geq 0.90$ (good fit)	0.862	Marginal fit
	$0.8 \leq GFI \leq 0.9$ (marginal fit)		
TLI	$\geq 0.90$ (good fit)	0.827	Marginal fit
	$0.8 \leq GFI \leq 0.9$ (marginal fit)		
NNFI	$\geq 0.90$ (good fit)	0.827	Marginal fit
	$0.8 \leq GFI \leq 0.9$ (marginal fit)		
NFI	$\geq 0.90$	0.846	Marginal fit
RFI	$\geq 0.90$ (good fit)	0.806	Marginal fit
	$0.8 \leq GFI \leq 0.9$ (marginal fit)		
IFI	$\geq 0.90$	0.863	Marginal fit
RNI	$\geq 0.90$ (good fit)	0.862	Marginal fit
	$0.8 \leq GFI \leq 0.9$ (marginal fit)		
RMSEA	$\leq 0.08$	0.107	Poor fit
GFI	$\geq 0.90$ (good fit)	0.989	Good fit
	$0.8 \leq GFI \leq 0.9$ (marginal fit)		

Table 3. Factor loading

Factor	Item	Factor loading
Achievement	i14	0.754
	i15	0.728
	i16	0.638
Self-reliance	i6	0.738
	i7	0.472
Work	i2	0.531
	i4	0.795
	i5	0.673
Family	i3	0.417
	i11	0.685
	i12	0.495
	i13	0.646
Behavior	i1	0.684
	i8	0.775
	i9	0.746
	i10	0.672
	i17	0.594

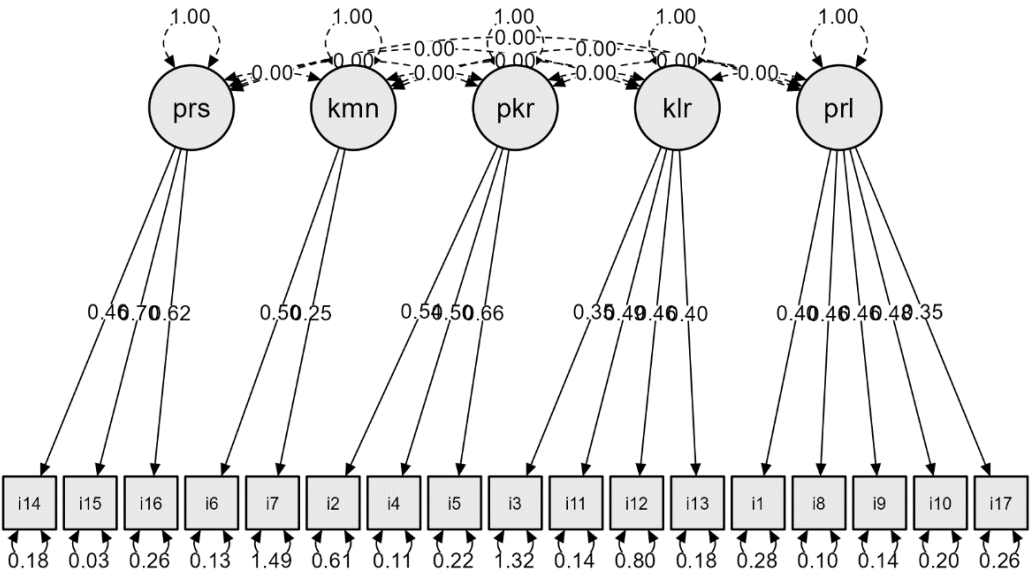


Figure 1. CFA model unidimensionality of PECF scale

Table 4. Discriminant validity

	i1	i2	i3	i4	i5	i6	i7	i8	i9	i10	i11	i12	i13	i14	i15	i16	i17
i1	0.443																
i2	0.230	0.903															
i3	0.165	0.183	0.759														
i4	0.218	0.241	0.174	0.362													
i5	0.248	0.274	0.198	0.260	0.654												
i6	0.205	0.227	0.164	0.215	0.245	0.372											
i7	0.157	0.174	0.126	0.165	0.188	0.155	0.535										
i8	0.197	0.218	0.157	0.206	0.235	0.194	0.149	0.310									
i9	0.203	0.225	0.162	0.213	0.242	0.200	0.154	0.192	0.356								
i10	0.202	0.224	0.161	0.212	0.241	0.199	0.153	0.191	0.197	0.434							
i11	0.194	0.214	0.155	0.203	0.231	0.191	0.147	0.184	0.189	0.188	0.385						
i12	0.145	0.161	0.116	0.153	0.174	0.144	0.110	0.138	0.142	0.141	0.136	0.416					
i13	0.171	0.190	0.137	0.180	0.205	0.169	0.130	0.162	0.167	0.167	0.160	0.120	0.339				
i14	0.214	0.237	0.171	0.225	0.256	0.212	0.162	0.203	0.209	0.208	0.200	0.150	0.177	0.389			
i15	0.241	0.267	0.192	0.253	0.288	0.238	0.183	0.228	0.235	0.234	0.225	0.169	0.199	0.249	0.527		
i16	0.233	0.258	0.186	0.245	0.278	0.230	0.177	0.221	0.228	0.227	0.218	0.163	0.193	0.241	0.271	0.643	
i17	0.167	0.185	0.134	0.176	0.200	0.165	0.127	0.159	0.164	0.163	0.156	0.117	0.138	0.173	0.194	0.188	0.383

Table 5. Reliability

Dimension	Item	CR	AVE	Result
Achievement	i14	0.920	0.407	All constructs are reliable
	i15			
	i16			
Self-reliance	i6	0.920	0.407	
	i7			
	i8			
Work	i2	0.920	0.407	
	i4			
	i5			
Family	i3	0.920	0.407	
	i11			
	i12			
Behavior	i13	0.920	0.407	
	i1			
	i9			
	i10			
	i17			

### 3.4. Discussion

The adaptation and validation of the PECF yielded robust psychometric properties, establishing the scale as a reliable tool for assessing parental expectations within the Indonesian context. The rigorous process of translation, expert review, and pilot testing ensured that the adapted instrument maintained cultural relevance and semantic equivalence with the original scale. The CFA demonstrated acceptable fit indices, and the high content validity indices (I-CVI and S-CVI) confirmed the scale's appropriateness for measuring the intended constructs. These findings underscore the importance of a meticulous adaptation process in cross-cultural research, ensuring both the validity and reliability of the instrument.

This study aligns with recent research by [63] and [64], which emphasize the necessity of maintaining cultural relevance and high content validity during the adaptation of psychological instruments. The PECF's high factor loadings and reliability scores are consistent with contemporary psychometric standards as outlined by [48] and [65]. A notable strength of this study is the comprehensive adaptation process, including expert reviews and pilot testing, which ensured the scale's clarity and applicability. However, the relatively small sample size for the pilot study ( $n=21$ ) limits the generalizability of the findings. Additionally, the marginal fit indices in the CFA suggest that further refinement of the scale may be needed. Unexpectedly, some items required more revisions than anticipated, highlighting the complexities of cross-cultural adaptation.

Despite the robust findings, this study has several limitations. First, the sample size for the pilot study was relatively small ( $n=21$ ), which may limit the generalizability of the results. Future studies should involve larger and more diverse samples to confirm the findings. Second, the study focused on a specific cultural context (Indonesia), and the applicability of the PECF in other cultural contexts remains to be tested. Third, the marginal fit indices in the CFA suggest that further refinement of the scale may be necessary to improve its psychometric properties. Additionally, the reliance on self-reported data could introduce response biases, which should be addressed in future research through triangulation with other data sources.



This study aimed to adapt and validate the PECF for use in Indonesia, successfully achieving these goals and providing a reliable instrument for future research on parental expectations and child development in this context. The rigorous adaptation process and robust psychometric properties of the PECF emphasize the study's contribution to cross-cultural psychology and instrument development [37]. However, unanswered questions remain, particularly regarding the scale's applicability in other cultural contexts and its predictive validity concerning children's outcomes [66].

Parental expectations play a crucial role in shaping a child's development and behavior [67]. Parental expectations can positively influence children's motivation and academic achievement, because when children perceive that their parents believe in their abilities and set achievable goals, they are more likely to strive for success [2], [68], [69]. Parental expectations can influence children's sense of identity and career choices [70]. When parents encourage exploration and provide supportive guidance, children may develop a clearer sense of their strengths and interests [71]. The way parents communicate and manage expectations can affect the quality of the parent-child relationship [72]. Open communication and mutual understanding of expectations can foster trust and closeness between parents and children [73].

Strategies for effectively communicating parental expectations to children is supportive guidance. Providing guidance and encouragement while allowing children to pursue their interests and passions [74]. In addition, positive behavior models are also one way parents convey their expectations. Parents should model the behavior they wish to see in their children. Demonstrating hard work, resilience, and a positive attitude towards challenges can inspire children to adopt the same mindset [75]. Adjusting expectations according to needs is also a way for parents to communicate their expectations of their children [76].

#### 4. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to adapt the PECF and demonstrate its validity. A rigorous adaptation procedure based on ITC guidelines was conducted, and the adapted items fulfilled comparability and similarity interpretations, proving content validity. Empirical evidence of validity indicated that the PECF adaptation to Indonesian language and culture exhibited internal validity and construct reliability. All items were found to be valid and reliable and the PECF scale was found to be unidimensional, measuring parents' expectations of their children. These findings are crucial for designing various activity programs for parents that impact their child's development. Therefore, future research should analyze parental expectations in conjunction with other variables such as academic achievement and parental involvement.





#### REFERENCES

- [1] A. K. Agliata and K. Renk, "College students' adjustment: the role of parent-college student expectation discrepancies and communication reciprocity," *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, vol. 37, no. 8, pp. 967–982, 2008, doi: 10.1007/s10964-007-9200-8.
- [2] M. Pinquart and M. Ebeling, "Parental educational expectations and academic achievement in children and adolescents-a meta-analysis," *Educational Psychology Review*, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 463–480, 2020, doi: 10.1007/s10648-019-09506-z.
- [3] Y. Yamamoto and S. D. Holloway, "Parental expectations and children's academic performance in sociocultural context," *Educational Psychology Review*, vol. 22, no. 3, pp. 189–214, 2010, doi: 10.1007/s10648-010-9121-z.
- [4] C. Weismayer, "Applied research in quality of life: a computational literature review," *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 1433–1458, 2022, doi: 10.1007/s11482-021-09969-9.
- [5] I. J. Chen, Y. Wang, Z. Sun, Y. Song, L. Wang, and M. Yang, "The influence of the parental child-rearing gender-role attitude on children's social adjustment in single- and two-parent families: the mediating role of intergenerational identity," *Humanities and Social Sciences Communications*, vol. 10, no. 1, pp. 1–12, 2023, doi: 10.1057/s41599-023-02184-x.
- [6] J. A. Bellingtier, L. E. Schenker, and A. L. Weber, "Judging a book by its older adult cover: age-related expectations and parental preference for children's books," *Current Psychology*, vol. 43, no. 1, pp. 774–786, 2024, doi: 10.1007/s12144-023-04298-6.
- [7] C. A. Chen, C. W. Hsieh, D. Y. Chen, and B. Wen, "Like father, like son: explicating parental influence on adult children's public sector preference," *International Public Management Journal*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 261–279, 2022, doi: 10.1080/10967494.2021.1948467.
- [8] Z. Zhan, Y. Li, H. Mei, and S. Lyu, "Key competencies acquired from stem education: gender-differentiated parental expectations," *Humanities and Social Sciences Communications*, vol. 10, no. 1, pp. 1–10, 2023, doi: 10.1057/s41599-023-01946-x.
- [9] G. Li, B. Li, L. Wang, C. Liu, and L. Lu, "A longitudinal study on the impact of parental academic support and expectations on students' academic achievement: the mediating role of happiness," *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, vol. 38, no. 2, pp. 801–818, 2023, doi: 10.1007/s10212-022-00608-x.
- [10] J. Li, E. Xue, and H. You, "Parental educational expectations and academic achievement of left-behind children in China: the mediating role of parental involvement," *Behavioral Sciences (Basel)*, vol. 14, no. 5, 2024, doi: 10.3390/bs14050371.
- [11] C. Creswell, T. G. O'Connor, and C. R. Brewin, "The impact of parents' expectations on parenting behaviour: an experimental investigation," *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy*, vol. 36, no. 4, pp. 483–490, 2008, doi: 10.1017/S1352465808004414.
- [12] R. Seginer, "Parents' educational expectations and children's academic achievement: a literature review," *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 1–23, 1983.
- [13] H. Lu, P. Nie, and A. Sousa-Poza, "The effect of parental educational expectations on adolescent subjective well-being and the moderating role of perceived academic pressure: longitudinal evidence for china," *Child Indicators Research*, vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 117–137, 2021, doi: 10.1007/s12187-020-09750-8.
- [14] J. T. Y. Leung and D. T. L. Shek, "Expecting my child to become 'dragon' - development of the chinese parental expectation on child's future scale," *International Journal on Disability and Human Development*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 257–265, 2011, doi: 10.1515/IJDHD.2011.043.





- [15] A. M. Dockery, P. Koshy, and I. W. Li, "Parental expectations of children's higher education participation in Australia," *British Educational Research Journal*, vol. 48, no. 4, pp. 617–639, 2022, doi: 10.1002/berj.3786.
- [16] R. Lazarides, A.-L. Dicke, C. Rubach, E. Oppermann, and J. S. Eccles, "Motivational profiles across domains and academic choices within eccles et al.'s situated expectancy-value theoretical framework," *Developmental Psychology*, vol. 57, no. 11, pp. 1893–1909, Nov. 2021, doi: 10.1037/dev0001250.
- [17] B. Bastiana, A. Abrar, and R. H. Dynasti, "Unpacking mutual expectations in a scavenger family: a case study investigating the parent-child relationship," *Education Quarterly Reviews*, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 121–129, 2024, doi: 10.31014/aior.1993.07.02.581.
- [18] J. Li, "Parental expectations of chinese immigrants: a folk theory about children's school achievement," *Race Ethnicity and Education*, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 167–183, Jul. 2004, doi: 10.1080/1361332042000234286.
- [19] M. Brueckmann, Z. Teuber, J. Hollmann, and E. Wild, "What if parental love is conditional ...? children's self-esteem profiles and their relationship with parental conditional regard and self-kindness," *BMC Psychology*, vol. 11, no. 1, p. 322, Oct. 2023, doi: 10.1186/s40359-023-01380-3.
- [20] A. Wigfield, "The role of children's achievement values in the self-regulation of their learning outcomes," in *Self-Regulation of Learning and Performance Issues and Educational Applications*, Routledge, 2023, pp. 101–124. doi: 10.4324/9780203763353-5.
- [21] F. F. Y. Ng and J. Wei, "Delving into the minds of chinese parents: what beliefs motivate their learning-related practices?," *Child Development Perspectives*, vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 61–67, 2020, doi: 10.1111/cdep.12358.
- [22] N. Zhou, H. Meng, H. Cao, and Y. Liang, "Too-much-of-a-good-thing? the curvilinear associations among chinese adolescents' perceived parental career expectation, internalizing problems, and career development: a three-wave longitudinal study," *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, vol. 70, no. 5, pp. 605–618, 2023, doi: 10.1037/cou0000687.
- [23] D. T. L. Shek, A. M. H. Siu, and T. Yan Lee, "The chinese positive youth development scale: a validation study," *Research on Social Work Practice*, vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 380–391, 2007, doi: 10.1177/1049731506296196.
- [24] Y. Chen, R. Huang, Y. Lu, and K. Zhang, "Education fever in China: children's academic performance and parents' life satisfaction," *Journal of Happiness Studies*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 927–954, 2021, doi: 10.1007/s10902-020-00258-0.
- [25] H. Wang, M. Naghavi, C. Allen, R. M. Barber, Z. A. Bhutta, and A. Carter, "Global, regional, and national life expectancy, all-cause mortality, and cause-specific mortality for 249 causes of death, 1980-2015: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2015," *The Lancet*, vol. 388, no. 10053, pp. 1459–1544, 2022.
- [26] M. Crawford, "Ecological systems theory: exploring the development of the theoretical framework as conceived by bronfenbrenner," *Journal of Public Health Issues and Practices*, vol. 4, no. 2, 2020, doi: 10.33790/jphip1100170.
- [27] L. Zhang, "Parent-child expectation discrepancy and adolescent mental health: evidence from 'China education panel survey,'" *Child Indicators Research*, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 705–730, 2024, doi: 10.1007/s12187-023-10094-2.
- [28] C. Chen, C. Xu, and D.-Y. Chen, "'Expecting children to be dragons' in an east asian context: Parental expectations of children choosing a career in the public sector," *Asia Pacific Journal of Public Administration*, vol. 45, no. 2, pp. 118–138, Apr. 2023, doi: 10.1080/23276665.2022.2039073.
- [29] V. Mih and C. Mih, "The role of parental educational expectations on adolescent school adjustment in romanian rural setting. the mediating effects of adolescents' belief systems and engagement," *Journal of Psychological and Educational Research*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 23–43, 2022.
- [30] J. T. Y. Leung and D. T. L. Shek, "Validation of the chinese parental expectation on child's future scale," *International Journal on Disability and Human Development*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 267–274, 2011, doi: 10.1515/IJDHD.2011.039.
- [31] H. W. Marsh, R. Pekrun, J. Guo, J. Hattie, and E. Karin, *Too much of a good thing might be bad: the double-edged sword of parental aspirations and the adverse effects of aspiration-expectation gaps*, vol. 35, no. 2. Springer US, 2023, doi: 10.1007/s10648-023-09768-8.
- [32] G. Qian, R. Li, F. Qu, Y. An, and X. Guo, "The relationship between parental role expectations and sibling jealousy: the mediating effect of first-born children's role cognition," *Current Psychology*, vol. 43, no. 3, pp. 2136–2143, 2024, doi: 10.1007/s12144-023-04478-4.
- [33] S. Rahmi, "Parental involvement to increase children's reading interest for preschool children's character development," *International Conference on the Roles of Parents in Shaping Children's Characters (ICECED)*, 2018.
- [34] R. K. Shah, "Parental expectations and primary education curriculum in nepal," *International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching (IJIET)*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 26–44, 2020, doi: 10.24071/ijiet.v4i1.2215.
- [35] T. Curran and A. P. Hill, "Young people's perceptions of their parents' expectations and criticism are increasing over time: implications for perfectionism," *Psychological Bulletin*, vol. 148, no. 1–2, pp. 107–128, 2022, doi: 10.1037/bul0000347.
- [36] R. Thomas and M. J. Zimmer-Gembeck, "Behavioral outcomes of parent-child interaction therapy and triple p-positive parenting program: a review and meta-analysis," *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, vol. 35, no. 3, pp. 475–495, 2007, doi: 10.1007/s10802-007-9104-9.
- [37] J. T. Y. Leung and D. T. L. Shek, "The influence of parental expectations and parental control on adolescent well-being in poor Chinese families," *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, vol. 14, no. 4, pp. 847–865, 2019, doi: 10.1007/s11482-017-9540-9.
- [38] S. D. Simpkins, J. A. Fredricks, and J. S. Eccles, "Charting the eccles' expectancy-value model from mothers' beliefs in childhood to youths' activities in adolescence," *Developmental Psychology*, vol. 48, no. 4, pp. 1019–1032, 2012, doi: 10.1037/a0027468.
- [39] C. Zhang et al., "Reliability, validity, and measurement invariance of the general anxiety disorder scale among chinese medical university students," *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, vol. 12, no. May, pp. 1–11, 2021, doi: 10.3389/fpsy.2021.648755.
- [40] K. Gana, G. Broc, N. E. Boudouda, N. Calcagni, and S. Ben Youssef, "The itc guidelines for translating and adapting tests (second edition)," *Pratiques Psychologiques*, vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 175–200, 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.prps.2020.06.005.
- [41] B. Gance-Cleveland et al., "Spanish translation of startsmarttm using the beaton process to ensure tech equity," *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved*, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 85–105, 2021, doi: 10.1353/hpu.2021.0052.
- [42] A. D. Sperber, "Translation and validation of study instruments for cross-cultural research," *Gastroenterology*, vol. 126, no. 1, pp. 124–128, 2004, doi: 10.1053/j.gastro.2003.10.016.
- [43] F. Yaghmaie, "Content validity and its estimation," *Journal of Medical Education*, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 25–27, 2003.
- [44] A. Ibiyemi, Y. Mohd Adnan, M. N. Daud, S. Olanrele, and A. Jogunola, "A content validity study of the test of valuers' support for capturing sustainability in the valuation process in nigeria," *Pacific Rim Property Research Journal*, vol. 25, no. 3, pp. 177–193, 2019, doi: 10.1080/14445921.2019.1703700.
- [45] S. M. Fox-Wasylyshyn and M. M. El-Masri, "Handling missing data in self-report measures," *Research in Nursing & Health*, vol. 28, no. 6, pp. 488–495, Dec. 2005, doi: 10.1002/nur.20100.
- [46] D. F. Polit, C. T. Beck, and S. V. Owen, "Focus on research methods: is the cvi an acceptable indicator of content validity? appraisal and recommendations," *Research in Nursing and Health*, vol. 30, no. 4, pp. 459–467, Aug. 2007, doi: 10.1002/nur.20199.
- [47] C. H. Peterson, N. A. Peterson, and K. G. Powell, "Cognitive interviewing for item development: validity evidence based on content and response processes," *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, vol. 50, no. 4, pp. 217–223, 2017, doi: 10.1080/07481756.2017.1339564.

- [48] J. F. Hair, B. J. Babin, R. E. Anderson, and W. C. Black, *Multivariate data analysis*, 8th ed. England: Pearson Prentice, 2019.
- [49] T. Lai, F. Liu, and Y. Huang, "The influence of parental educational expectations on children's higher education attainment: re-estimation based on instrumental variables," *Frontiers in Psychology*, vol. 13, no. May, pp. 1–11, 2022, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2022.899348.
- [50] E. Gervilla-García, D. Lloret-Irles, V. Cabrera-Perona, I. Fernández-Martínez, and J. Anupol, "Online risks at adolescence. design and validation of a parental mediation scale for information and communication technologies," *Infancia y Aprendizaje*, vol. 46, no. 3, pp. 492–528, 2023, doi: 10.1080/02103702.2023.2191428.
- [51] J. F. Hair, W. C. Black, B. J. Babin, and R. E. Anderson, *Multivariate data analysis: overview of multivariate methods*, Seven edit. 2009.
- [52] D. Hooper, J. Coughlan, and M. R. Mullen, "Structural equation modelling: guidelines for determining model fit," *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 53–60, 2008.
- [53] R. Anggriani, A. Anggrawan, and I. Cahyadi, "Structural analysis of the equation model on store atmosphere towards hedonic value and consumer impulsive buying (study at majapahit food center)," *Jurnal Varian*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 61–70, 2020, doi: 10.30812/varian.v4i1.851.
- [54] W. Du, Z. Fan, D. Li, and M. Wu, "Internet use behavior and adolescent mental health: the mediating effects of self-education expectations and parental support," *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, vol. 17, no. February, pp. 1163–1176, 2024, doi: 10.2147/PRBM.S449353.
- [55] M. Miller, I. Tasic, T. Lyons, R. Ewing, and J. B. Grace, "Structural equation modeling," in *Advanced Quantitative Research Methods for Urban Planners*, Routledge, 2020, pp. 185–215. doi: 10.4324/9780429325038-8.
- [56] K. Dianovinina, E. R. Surjaningrum, and P. Y. Wulandari, "Adaptation and validation of the children's cognitive triad inventory for indonesian students," *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education*, vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 1356–1362, 2024, doi: 10.11591/ijere.v13i3.28038.
- [57] M. I. Morshidi, P. K. H. Chew, and L. Suárez, "The higher education expectation scale: development and testing," *Higher Education Research and Development*, vol. 43, no. 2, pp. 377–391, 2024, doi: 10.1080/07294360.2023.2228222.
- [58] M. Perugini and R. P. Bagozzi, "The role of desires and anticipated emotions in goal-directed behaviours: broadening and deepening the theory of planned behaviour," *British Journal of Social Psychology*, vol. 40, no. 1. British Psychological Society, United Kingdom, pp. 79–98, 2001. doi: 10.1348/014466601164704.
- [59] G. W. Cheung, H. D. Cooper-Thomas, R. S. Lau, and L. C. Wang, *Reporting reliability, convergent and discriminant validity with structural equation modeling: A review and best-practice recommendations*, vol. 41, no. 2. Springer US, 2024. doi: 10.1007/s10490-023-09871-y.
- [60] A. Woodman, M. R. Yousif, A. Z. Jebakumar, A. A. Ali Mohamed, and R. Y. Al-Ansari, "Sickle cell disease in sudanese children & psychosocial problems faced by children and parents-a two-scale study," *Vulnerable Children and Youth Studies*, vol. 18, no. 4, pp. 554–569, 2023, doi: 10.1080/17450128.2023.2253388.
- [61] I. Dwiastuti, W. Hendriani, and F. Andriani, "Adaptation and validation the integration scale for indonesian university students: academic and social," *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education*, vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 1311–1320, 2024, doi: 10.11591/ijere.v13i3.26974.
- [62] J. Yang, J. F. Lawrence, and V. Grøver, "Parental expectations and home literacy environment: a questionnaire study of chinese-norwegian dual language learners," *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, vol. 37, no. 1, pp. 159–173, 2023, doi: 10.1080/02568543.2022.2098427.
- [63] V. D. Sousa and W. Rojjanasrirat, "Translation, adaptation and validation of instruments or scales for use in cross-cultural health care research: a clear and user-friendly guideline," *Journal of Evaluation in Clinical Practice*, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 268–274, 2011, doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2753.2010.01434.x.
- [64] V. Zamanzadeh, A. Ghahramanian, M. Rassouli, A. Abbaszadeh, H. Alavi-Majd, and A.-R. Nikanfar, "Design and implementation content validity study: development of an instrument for measuring patient-centered communication," *Journal of Caring Sciences*, vol. 4, no. 2, pp. 165–178, 2015, doi: 10.15171/jcs.2015.017.
- [65] R. B. Kline, "Response to leslie hayduk's review of principles and practice of structural equation modeling, 1 4th edition," *Canadian Studies in Population*, vol. 45, no. 3–4, pp. 188–195, 2018, doi: 10.25336/csp29418.
- [66] L. Coombes *et al.*, "Enhancing validity, reliability and participation in self-reported health outcome measurement for children and young people: a systematic review of recall period, response scale format, and administration modality," *Quality of Life Research*, vol. 30, no. 7, pp. 1803–1832, 2021, doi: 10.1007/s11136-021-02814-4.
- [67] H. Hu, L. Li, and Y. Ye, "The impact of parental educational expectations and parental education on adolescent academics," *Journal of Psychology and Behavior Studies*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 62–67, 2024, doi: 10.32996/jpbs.2024.4.1.7.
- [68] E. Niha, Lindberg and P. Güven, "The impact of parental involvement and expectations on elementary school students' academic achievement," *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, vol. 22, no. 1, pp. 809–840, 2021, doi: 10.17679/inuefd.888292.
- [69] H. Jianqiong and Z. Yuqing, "Parental expectation, cognitive development, and family function: a moderating inverted-u model," *Procedia Computer Science*, vol. 207, no. Kes, pp. 3774–3781, 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.procs.2022.09.439.
- [70] N. Zhou, H. Cao, S. Wang, X. Li, and Y. Liang, "Parental career expectation predicts adolescent career development through career-related parenting practice: transactional dynamics across high school years," *Journal of Career Assessment*, vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 125–141, 2024, doi: 10.1177/10690727231184609.
- [71] M. Wildmon, K. Anthony, and Z. Kamau, "Identifying and navigating the barriers of parental involvement in early childhood education," *Current Issues in Education*, vol. 25, no. 1, pp. 1–24, 2024, doi: 10.14507/cie.vol25iss1.2146.
- [72] Y. Song, J. Wu, Z. Zhou, Y. Tian, W. Li, and H. Xie, "Parent-adolescent discrepancies in educational expectations, relationship quality, and study engagement: a multi-informant study using response surface analysis," *Frontiers in Psychology*, vol. 15, p. 1288644, 2024, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2024.1288644.
- [73] F. Yaoyao, J. Abd Hamid, and J. Tham, "The influence of parenting factors on parent-child attachment and young children 's autonomy in Jiangxi Province, China," *Journal of Research Administration*, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 1–23, 2024.
- [74] D. Linkiewicz, V. V. A. Martinovich, C. M. Rinaldi, N. Howe, and R. Gokiert, "Parental autonomy support in relation to preschool aged children's behavior: examining positive guidance, negative control, and responsiveness," *Clinical Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 810–822, 2021, doi: 10.1177/1359104521999762.
- [75] S. N. Rowley, "Collaborative goal setting in the family check-up: do parents' goals relate to improvement in positive behavior support and child behavior?," University of Pittsburgh, 2023. Accessed: Dec 5, 2024. [Online]. Available: file:///C:/Users/ASUS/Downloads/rowley\_masters\_ETD\_12-06-2023a.pdf.
- [76] A. E. Goldberg, N. McCormick, R. Frost, and A. Moyer, "Reconciling realities, adapting expectations, and reframing 'success': adoptive parents respond to their children's academic interests, challenges, and achievement," *Children and Youth Services Review*, vol. 120, no. August 2020, p. 105790, 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.childyouth.2020.105790.





**BIOGRAPHIES OF AUTHORS**

**Novia Solichah**     is a student in the Doctoral Psychology Program at Airlangga University in Indonesia. She is interested in exploring early literacy development, intervention programs, and parental involvement. She can be contacted at email: [novia.solichah-2022@psikologi.unair.ac.id](mailto:novia.solichah-2022@psikologi.unair.ac.id) or [noviasolichah@uin-malang.ac.id](mailto:noviasolichah@uin-malang.ac.id).



**Nur Ainy Fardana**     is an Associate Professor in the Faculty of Psychology, at Airlangga University in Indonesia. She has expertise in research and training in educational and developmental psychology. Research in educational and developmental psychology, optimizing the development & handling of child development problems, and parental involvement in education and childcare. She can be contacted at email: [nurainy.fardana@psikologi.unair.ac.id](mailto:nurainy.fardana@psikologi.unair.ac.id).



**Samian**     is an Associate Professor in the Faculty of Psychology, at Airlangga University in Indonesia. He has expertise in research of industrial & organizational psychology. Research in leadership, work behavior, and organizational development and change. He can be contacted at email: [samian@psikologi.unair.ac.id](mailto:samian@psikologi.unair.ac.id).