

Parents as Teachers: The Influence of Internal and External Factors on Parenting Style Differences

Orangtua sebagai Guru: Peran Faktor Internal dan Eksternal dalam Perbedaan Gaya Pengasuhan kepada Siswa

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Abstract: Research on the relationship between parents and children consistently shows that parents play a major role in developing the child's personality and skills. The influence of parents on children, among others, took place through parenting style. In the Indonesian context, teachers had also been viewed as an authority whose role was similar to parents in educating children, considering students spent a remarkable amount of time learning together with teachers at school. Based on this reason, this study explored whether the parenting styles adopted by teachers as parents at their homes were related to the parenting styles they applied to students at school. We also examined the extent to which gender and education levels influenced parenting. Using accidental sampling, this study was conducted on 501 teachers from five cities in Indonesia using the Parenting Style Scale. The analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between the teacher's parenting styles at home and school. Furthermore, gender was a significant factor in distinguishing one dimension of parenting style, in contrast to the level of education. Further analysis found that domicile influenced parenting behavior, which indicated the role of culture in parenting practices.

Keywords: Parenting style, teacher, family

Abstrak: Riset terkait hubungan orangtua dan anak secara konsisten menunjukkan bahwa orangtua berperan besar dalam mengembangkan kepribadian dan keterampilan anak. Pengaruh orangtua terhadap anak antara lain berlangsung melalui pola asuh yang diterapkan. Pada konteks Indonesia, guru juga dipandang sebagai pihak otoritas layaknya orangtua untuk mendidik anak, khususnya mengingat siswa menghabiskan waktu yang cukup lama untuk belajar bersama dengan guru di sekolah. Untuk itu, penelitian ini menelusuri apakah pola pengasuhan yang diadopsi oleh guru sebagai orangtua berkaitan dengan pola pengasuhan yang diterapkan pada siswa di sekolah. Lebih lanjut, ditelusuri pula seberapa jauh atribut demografi berupa gender dan tingkat pendidikan mempengaruhi pola asuh. Menggunakan teknik aksidental sampling, penelitian ini dilakukan pada 501 guru dari lima kota di Indonesia menggunakan Skala Pola Asuh dalam bentuk kuesioner cetak. Hasil analisis menunjukkan terdapat hubungan positif antara gaya pengasuhan guru di rumah dan di sekolah. Lebih lanjut, gender menjadi faktor yang signifikan membedakan pola asuh pada salah satu dimensi pengasuhan, sementara tidak demikian dengan tingkat pendidikan. Analisis lanjutan juga menemukan bahwa tempat tinggal memengaruhi perilaku pengasuhan, yang mengindikasikan peran budaya di dalam praktik pengasuhan.

Kata kunci: Gaya pengasuhan, guru, keluarga

It has been more than six decades that psychologists researched the role of parenting on children's development in Western society (Riany, Meredith, & Cuskelly, 2017). All those researches pointed out that parents play a large role in their children's lives. They helped to shape the child's personality as well as various abilities and skills. Moreover, it was also found that the way parents brought up their children determined the extent to which children will develop optimally in the cognitive, emotional, and social realms. A so-called "good parenting" practices can enhance the child's emotional skill development, academic readiness, self-control, as well as social competence (Alegre, 2012).

In the psychological literature, this parenting practice in shaping the child refers to the concept of parenting styles. Parenting style is defined as an integration of parents' attitudes toward their child that produce an emotional environment in which the parental behaviors are employed (Baumrind, 1966). Therefore, it includes a series of complex activities conducted by parents during daily affairs, consisting of specific behaviors that stand-alone or interact with each other, which further can affect a child's development (Riany, Meredith, & Cuskelly, 2017). Other sources stated that parenting style can be seen as a process where there were nurturing behavior (feeding, cleaning, and sheltering) toward the child and also socialization to teach the child about the prescriptive and normative behaviors following the rules and expectations of society. Besides, these complex behaviors also involve communicating parents' affection, values, interests, behaviors, and beliefs (Harrington & Whiting, as cited in Gibson & Plumberg, 1980).

To date, it is known that several parenting styles differ in their characteristics and corresponding effects on children. To map these differences in parenting style, Baumrind (1996; 1971) identified two

main factors of parenting style which were demandingness and responsiveness. It was said that this mapping of parenting practices was the most widely used in the academic discourse on parenting style (Hale, 2008). Demandingness refers to the standard set by parents for the child, whereas responsiveness refers to the parent's response to the child's need (Durgel, Vijver, & Yagmurlu, 2012). A high demanding parenting style means there is a high tendency for parents to control their children and demand that they behave exactly as the parents' wish. Thus, this factor portrays the extent to which parents set guidelines for their children, and how they apply discipline based on these guidelines (Fletcher, Walls, Cook, Madison, & Bridges, 2008; García, Serra, Zacarés, & García, 2018). By contrast, responsiveness is an emotional characteristic of nurturing, depicting the extent to which parents support their children and meet the needs of their children. Therefore, high responsiveness parenting style will yield the parents' profile who are highly attuned to their children, know their children's needs, and tend to follow the children's wishes (Durgel, Vijver, & Yagmurlu, 2012; García, Serra, Zacarés, & García, 2018).

These two main factors of parenting style suggested by Baumrind (1996) further yield four different parenting practices. However, it is said that classifying these practices into the typology of parenting for research purpose tend to omit the detailed activities in the parenting behavior, which are often influenced by both the two factors mentioned even though there will be one dominant factor. For example, the previous study on parenting style often showed that it was very rare for parents to apply permissive parenting consistently to their children, in which there was no demandingness factor at all in this practice (Vinden, 2001). Thus, it can be seen that analyzing the main factors of parenting style will yield a better

picture of its practices.

Another perspective is taken by Hoffman (1970; Castelain, Bernard, van der Henst, & Mercier, 2015) in which he examined three strategies that parents use when teaching children, especially about good and bad behavior. The first is induction, where parents explain why something is allowed or not allowed, with an emphasis on the consequences for others. The second is power assertion, where the parents provide punishment for the child's misconduct, either physical or verbal. The third parenting strategy is love withdrawal, where the parents refuse to give affection to their children. According to Hoffman (1970), induction parenting teaches children standards of conduct by providing them with insight, so they do not need to be controlled by parents through rewards or punishments. On the other hand, both power assertion and love withdrawal parenting can also teach children the difference between good and bad behavior. Nevertheless, a child becomes extremely dependent on parental control exercised through rewards and punishments. In both styles, the parents act as a controller as in Baumrid's demandingness parenting style. This similarity of both power assertion and love withdrawal as controlling parenting thus further makes these two strategies often regarded as power strategies (Castelain, Bernard, van der Henst, & Mercier, 2015).

Grusec and Kuzynski (1997) suggested the importance of parents in serving as role models to their children so that the children can internalize the rules or standards that the parents want to teach. As children were socialized firstly in the hands of parents as a family with direct interaction (Roksa & Potter, 2011), the parents become the adult figures that their children identify with. The same principle applies to teachers, who act as substitutes for parents and are respected authorities at school. By watching the examples set by their parents and teachers, children learn

about norms or values for daily life (Clark, Schostak, & Hammersley-Fletcher, 2018). Furthermore, the school where the relationship established between the teacher and students is also the first formal institution that will be enrolled by children for a substantial amount of time (Pretsch & Ehrhardt-Madapathi, 2018). This makes the role of the teacher becomes strategic in contributing to shaping children, which also endorsed by the fact that school serves as a major micro-system that influences children's development.

In Indonesia, most children spend a considerable amount of time in school in which it is mandatory for children to attend primary to secondary education for twelve years across their lifetime. In this case, teachers are seen as substitutes for parents whenever children are at school. This is because teachers are in charge of educating the children, which shapes their skills and personality alongside home learning (Pretsch & Ehrhardt-Madapathi, 2018; Clark, Schostak, & Hammersley-Fletcher, 2018). Meanwhile, it is known that parents influence their children in various ways through the patterns of interaction between them (Alegre, 2012; Riany, Meredith, & Cuskelly, 2017). Holden and Miller (as cited in Babiarz, 2009) further revealed that these influences are constant, regardless of the time, situation, or child's status. In this case, we consider that parents who work as teachers might demonstrate certain parenting styles, not only when interacting with their own children at home, but also when educating students at school. From this point of view, the parenting style teacher use with their students could be part of the context in which education takes place. Therefore, this study aims to clarify whether the parenting style teacher use with their students at school is related to the style they use with their own children at home.

According to Sabates and Feinstein (2005; Belsky, 1984), parenting styles are also influenced by parents' educational

background. This is due to the benefit of education as the parents' cognitive references and resources in facilitating the child's learning, while also fostering a willingness to learn about parenting, influencing the decision-making process related to the child and his or her development, and assessing the child's potential and skills. Based on these theses, this study also aims to explore further whether there is a difference in parenting style to parents' educational background.

In addition to educational background, this study investigates differences in parenting styles to gender. This is because there are differences in parenting behavior between mothers and fathers (Stephens, 2009). Mothers were described as more involved in nurturing and caring for the needs of the child. They also spent more time with the child even if they worked outside the home. In contrast, fathers were depicted as spending less time with the child, even though that time was usually spent playing, talking, and doing educational or recreational activities with the child. Pohl, Bender, and Lachmann (as cited in Stephens, 2009) added that while interacting with others including children, women showed more empathy, whereas men tended to be more assertive. We assume that these differences in behavior between men and women influence their parenting style.

In summary, this study aims to explore three research questions. The main question is: "Is there any relationship between teachers' parenting style used with their students at school and used with their own children at home?" Following this main research question, we examine two other questions: "Is there any difference of parenting style to parents' educational background?" and "Is there any difference of parenting style to gender?" Accordingly, we formulate three null hypotheses as follows:

1. There is no relationship between a teacher's parenting style at home and at

school.

2. There is no difference in parenting styles to parents' educational background.
3. There is no difference in parenting styles to gender.

Method

Participants and Sampling Procedure

The participants were 501 parents who worked as elementary school teachers. They lived in five areas or cities in Indonesia that are Jakarta-Bogor-Depok-Tangerang-Bekasi (Jabodetabek) (34.5%), Yogyakarta (22.6%), Medan (21.6%), and Makassar (21.4%). These cities were chosen as a representative for a different kind of culture in Indonesia. It is said that culture and parenting styles have a dual relationship with each other (Durgel, van de Vijver & Yagmurlu, 2012; Keshavarz & Baharudin, 2009; Bornstein 2012). Thus, we aim to include a diverse participant in this study by choosing Jabodetabek as a cluster of the urban cities, followed by Yogyakarta, Medan, and Makassar to represent the city from each mainland in Indonesia's archipelago.

The sampling technique was accidental sampling since the population size was unknown and was used for the ease of the data collection (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). We collected the data by distributing a printed questionnaire in the face-to-face interaction in which we visited the schools where the teachers taught.

The participant characteristics are summarized in Table 1. As shown, the majority of the participants were women having a bachelor's degree. The majority had two to four children. Most of them had been teachers for 21–30 years.

Data Collection

To measure parenting style, this study used the Parenting Style Scale

constructed by Prianto (2006) which consists of four dimensions: induction, responsiveness, demandingness, and modeling. Each dimension consists of five items; thus, the overall scale has 20 items. Responses are given on a four-point Likert scale ranging from Very Unlikely (1) to Very Likely (4).

The results of a reliability test for each dimension yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.766 (induction), 0.770 (responsiveness), 0.671 (demandingness), and 0.759 (modeling). The result of validity test using Corrected Item-Total Correlation (CrIT) showed that the 20 items of the scale have item-total correlation scores ranging from 0.312 to 0.617.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using Pearson correlation to answer the first research question (Hypothesis 1). The second research question (Hypothesis 2) was answered using a one-way ANOVA, and the third research question (Hypothesis 3) was answered using an independent sample t-test. The data were analyzed with SPSS version 18.0.

Result

The demographics of the study participants are described in Table 1. As shown in the table, most participants of this study were women (83,2%), and have

undergraduate degrees (80,8%). More than 76% of the participants have 2 children or more, and have been working for more than 10 years.

Table 1. Participants' Characteristics

Sample Characteristics		N	%
Gender	Woman	417	83,2
	Man	84	16,8
Education	Graduate	50	10
	Undergraduate	405	80,8
	Diploma	41	8,2
	High School	5	1
Number of children	1 child	85	17
	2 – 4 children	381	76,1
	5 – 7 children	35	6,9
Duration of work	1 – 10 years	76	15,16
	11 – 20 years	81	16,17
	21 – 30 years	222	44,32
	31 – 40 years	122	24,35

The results for the first research question, whether there is a relationship between the participants' parenting style with their children versus their students, are summarized in Table 2. As the table shows, all the dimensions of parenting style were correlated to each other across participant roles (i.e. parent or teacher). Therefore, the first null hypothesis is rejected, which means that there is a significant relationship between the participants' parenting styles adopted as parents and teachers.

The result for the second research

Table 2. Correlation matrix of dimensions of the Parenting Style Scale

No	Parenting Style	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
<i>As parent</i>											
1	Induction	17.84	1.896	-							
2	Responsiveness	16.99	2.088	.707*	-						
3	Demandingness	18.09	1.693	.697*	.641*	-					
4	Modeling	17.21	1.949	.693*	.600*	.605*	-				
<i>As teacher</i>											
5	Induction	17.78	1.892	.911*	.678*	.698*	.660*	-			
6	Responsiveness	16.86	2.146	.645*	.869*	.596*	.556*	.707*	-		
7	Demandingness	18.16	1.648	.670*	.588*	.913*	.587*	.705*	.621*	-	
8	Modelling	17.10	1.989	.670*	.582*	.577*	.850*	.677*	.596*	.589*	-

Note. *p < .01

Table 3. Comparison matrix of Parenting Style Scale dimension by gender

No	Parenting Style Scale Dimension	Female		Male		T-value
		M	SD	M	SD	
<i>As parent</i>						
1	Induction	17.94	1.899	17.37	1.822	0.012*
2	Responsiveness	17.07	2.078	16.56	2.102	0.040*
3	Demandingness	18.09	1.711	18.07	1.612	0.913
4	Modeling	17.25	1.950	17.01	1.942	0.309
<i>As teacher</i>						
5	Induction	17.86	1.903	17.39	1.797	0.039*
6	Responsiveness	16.94	2.159	16.43	2.043	0.045*
7	Demandingness	18.17	1.663	18.12	1.579	0.795
8	Modeling	17.15	1.975	16.83	2.047	0.185

Note. * $p < .05$

question, whether there is a difference in parenting style to the participants' educational background, showed no significant difference in parenting style among the different levels of educational background. This finding was true for all dimensions of the Parenting Style Scale and for the roles of both parent and teacher. Therefore, the second hypothesis null is accepted.

The results for the third research question, whether there is a difference in parenting style to gender, are shown in Table 3 above. Among the four parenting styles, two styles differed significantly by the participants' gender. In the induction dimension, female participants had a mean score of 17.94, which was significantly higher than male participants had ($M = 17.37$). Therefore, female participants were more likely to use an induction parenting style. The same was true when they interacted with their students, where their induction dimension had a mean score of

17.86 compared to the male participants' mean score of 17.39. The second dimension of parenting style that had a significant gender difference was the responsiveness dimension. As parents, female participants had a mean score of 17.07 for responsiveness, which was significantly higher than male participants' mean score of 16.56. The same results were obtained when they acted as teachers: the female mean score was 16.94 compared to the male mean score of 16.43. Therefore, the third null hypothesis is rejected.

To further analyze the data, we examined the differences in parenting style by city using a one-way ANOVA. The results are presented in Table 4. Among the four parenting styles dimensions, only the responsiveness dimension showed significant differences by the participants' city of residence. This was true for the role of both parents and teachers. Due to the

Table 4 Comparison of Parenting Style Scale Dimension Scores by City

No	Parenting Style Scale Dimension	df	Mean Square	F	p-value	
<i>As parent</i>						
1	Responsiveness	Between-group	3	15.440	3.595	.014*
		Within-group	497	4.295		
		Total	501			
<i>As teacher</i>						
2	Responsiveness	Between-group	3	20.535	4.552	.004**
		Within-group	497	4.511		
		Total	501			

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

significant results obtained through the one-way ANOVA, a post-hoc analysis using a Scheffe Test was then conducted. Responsiveness parenting were significantly different in participants from Jabodetabek and Yogyakarta. As parents, the participants in Jabodetabek had a mean score of 16.83 for responsiveness, which was significantly lower than the mean score of 17.50 for participants in Yogyakarta. Moreover, as teachers, the participants in Jabodetabek had a significantly lower mean score of 16.65 in the responsiveness dimension, compared to 17.55 for participants in Yogyakarta..

Discussion

There is a relationship between the parenting style as a parent and as a teacher. The parenting style parents use in their home with their own children is the one they apply in their interactions with students at school. This finding is in line with a previous study that found parents influence children through patterns of interaction (Riany, Meredith, & Cuskelly, 2017) regardless of their relationship to the child. This study presents that children as either offspring or students receive the same parenting style from adults. In this case, the dynamics of the relationship between a parent and a child could be seen as a more general dynamic between an adult and a child since students are in some sense assumed to be the children of the teacher.

The second finding is that there is a difference in parenting style to gender in the dimensions of induction and responsiveness. Regarding the significantly higher mean score of responsiveness for the female participants compared to the male participants, this might be related to the nature of parenting behavior by women. Since mothers are more nurturing and caring for the needs of their children (Stephens, 2009), it is not surprising that women are more responsive to children's

needs as measured in the dimension of responsiveness. Moreover, women show more empathy toward others, whereas men tend to be more assertive (Pohl et al., as cited in Stephens, 2009). In terms of the induction dimension—where parents control children's behaviors by explaining the consequences for others—this could be done by having empathy toward others first. By definition, empathy is the ability to form an embodied representation of other's emotional state, whereas at the same time being aware of the causal mechanism that induced that emotional state (Gonzalez-Liencre, Shamay-Tsoory, & Brune, 2013). Mothers could be better at induction with their children since they are better at empathizing with other people's perspectives and conditions.

The additional finding that there is a difference in parenting style to the participants' city of residence highlights the contribution of cultural and environmental factors in shaping parental behavior. As we know, individuals are shaped by their social and geographical surroundings which constitute their macro-systems. For instance, research by Durgel, van de Vijver and Yagmurlu (2012) found that parents from Eastern countries applied more parenting patterns that emphasized on compliance with authority, in which the strategy of demandingness become salient. However, parents in Western culture tended to adopt responsive parenting when interacting with children and were open when their children expressed opinions, thus they were more likely to exhibit a responsiveness factor in their parenting.

Our current research sheds a light that even though parents as participants in this study are all coming from Eastern culture, there seem to be variations on their parenting practices when we take into account that parenting is not only about the factors of demandingness and responsiveness as studied previously. Thus, this study opens the possibility to explore cultural practices in parenting practice, which are

not limited only to the main factor of parenting as stated by Baumrind (1996) but also include various other aspects of it. Further details of this variable remain to be explored.

Conclusion

In response to the research questions, the following conclusions are drawn. It was found that there was a significant positive relationship between the parenting style as a parent and as a teacher. The participants used the same parenting style when interacting with their children at home and with their students at school. Also, there was a difference in parenting style to gender for both the role of parents and teachers, but it was only applied for the dimensions of induction and responsiveness. We found that the female participants scored higher in both dimensions than the male participants. However, we found that there was no difference in parenting style to the participants' educational level in interactions with either their own children or students. Moreover, the additional analysis found that there was a difference in parenting style to the participants' city of residence, but only for the dimension of responsiveness. This applies to the participants acting as both parents and teachers. The participants in Yogyakarta scored higher than those from other cities, and their scores were significantly different from those of participants in Jabodetabek.

The results gathered in this study are not without limitations. The first is the small number of male participants. The number of female participants (N = 417) was more than three times that of male participants (N = 84). This relative gender imbalance might be one contributing factor to the results of gender differences in parenting style. Moreover, the majority of participants had an undergraduate level of education (80.8%), compared to post-graduate or high school education. This distribution of educational level might be a contributing factor to the results of differences in parenting style. Furthermore, the scale used to measure parenting style has a reliability coefficient that can be further enhanced, especially in the dimension of demandingness ($\alpha = 0.671$). However, all the items used have already been validated using CrIT scores ranging from 0.312 to 0.617.

Despite these limitations, this study contributes to our understanding of adults' behavior toward children, specifically, the similarity of parenting styles in parent-child and teacher-student relationships. Further study is still needed to elucidate details of the interrelationship between adults and children in terms of parenting style. Moreover, given the finding that the participants' city of residence had some relation to parenting style, it would be interesting to clarify how this factor and other elements of cultural and geographical surroundings affect the parenting style.

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