

Research Article

Parental Influences on Young EFL Learners' Affection, Cognition, and Achievement in the English Classroom

Shoko Tanaka ^a  and Osamu Takeuchi ^b 

^aKumamoto Gakuen University, Japan; ^bKansai University, Japan

(Received 23 June 2025; accepted 17 November 2025)

ABSTRACT

Developmental psychology has widely recognized the crucial role of parental involvement in children's educational success. However, few studies have fully explored this relationship in second language (L2) learning, especially among young learners. This study investigated the relationships between parental involvement and Japanese young learners' (YLS') affective factors and cognitive processes within L2 classroom based on the social cognitive theory (SCT) framework. A web-based survey was conducted with 278 dyads of Japanese parents and their fifth- and sixth-grade children. By employing factor analyses and structural equation modeling, this study revealed predictive links between parental involvement, children's self-efficacy in L2 learning, goal orientations, use of self-regulated learning (SRL) strategies, L2 classroom engagement, and self-reported L2 achievement. The findings indicate that parental involvement significantly enhances children's self-efficacy beliefs and two specific goal orientation types (valuing learning English as an academic subject and valuing learning communicative English). This study also identified two distinct behavioral pathways to L2 learning behaviors that stem from different goal orientations: children valuing learning communicative English actively engage in classroom activities but use fewer SRL strategies, whereas those valuing learning English as an academic subject tend to use more SRL strategies but demonstrate less classroom engagement directly. This study provides empirical evidence supporting the crucial role of parental involvement in shaping children's L2 learning attitudes and behaviors. It also highlights the importance of shared L2 learning experiences at home to enhance YLS' L2 affective factors and cognitive processes in the classroom, thereby offering a potential expansion of the SCT framework for YLS' L2 learning.

Keywords: parental involvement; goal-orientations; self-efficacy; self-regulated learning strategies; engagement

INTRODUCTION

In developmental psychology, learners' family environment plays an important role in successful academic attainment (Gonzalez-DeHass et al., 2005; Grolnick, 2015; Grolnick et al., 1991; Keith et al., 1993). In particular, parental influence on learning can contribute to the development of young learners (YLS) (Pomerantz et al., 2005). Additionally, in second language (L2) learning contexts, diverse parental factors, including parental autonomy support, involvement, and beliefs about children's learning, have been identified as factors influencing children's affective factors and academic achievement in L2 classrooms (Butler, 2015; Kim & Barrett, 2018; Tanaka & Takeuchi, 2024). Previous studies (Tanaka & Takeuchi, 2023, 2024) have revealed the indirect link between parental involvement and YLS' motivation to learn English and found that children's feelings of competence—"feeling of mastery and effectiveness" (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 11)—play a mediating role. This sense of competence is termed *self-efficacy* in Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory (SCT). Self-efficacy is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3) and is used as a more situation-specific construct. For example, questions concerning self-efficacy inquire about an individual's confidence in performing or completing specific tasks. In the L2 learning context, self-efficacy refers to students' confidence in their ability to complete language tasks in the classroom and achieve their learning goals.

SCT posits that learners' self-efficacy relies on past experiences and influences their behavior. In second language acquisition (SLA), self-efficacy is a key factor shaping learners' actions, such as self-regulated learning (SRL) strategies (e.g., Anam & Stracke, 2016; Wong, 2005) and L2 academic engagement (e.g., Wang et al., 2023) and achievement (e.g., Goetze & Driver, 2022; Golparvar & Khafi, 2021). Regarding learners' SRL strategy use, researchers have verified that self-efficacy beliefs are influential factors (Anam & Stracke, 2016; Bai & Wang, 2023; Wong, 2005; Zhou et al., 2022). For example, Zhou et al. (2022) investigated 340 high school students in China and demonstrated a positive linkage between L2 writing self-efficacy, L2 writing SRL

strategy use, and L2 writing engagement, indicating that learners' self-efficacy enhances the frequent use of SRL strategies. Although they found that self-efficacy significantly influences L2 writing performance among high school students, little is known about how YLs' self-efficacy affects their academic achievement in L2 classrooms.

Moreover, within the SCT framework, the sociocultural environment influences the degree of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Parents' aspirations for children affect children's goal-setting alongside their self-efficacy for academic achievement (Ansong et al., 2019; Zimmerman et al., 1992). Therefore, children's decisions regarding a goal are based on their parents' beliefs and their self-efficacy. In the context of language learning in South Korea, Choi et al. (2019) observed a negative link between perceived parental pressure and middle school students' L2 self-efficacy.

Parental involvement influences children's goal orientation (Chen & Mok, 2023; Duchesne & Ratelle, 2010; Gonzalez et al., 2002; He et al., 2015; Martins et al., 2020). He et al. (2015) studied 161 sixth graders and their parents in Taiwan's English as a foreign language (EFL) context, revealing that parental literacy involvement positively impacts children's mastery and performance goals. Learners' goal orientations, in turn, affect their behaviors, such as using SRL strategies (Diseth, 2011; Lin, 2019) and engagement (Ramshe et al., 2019; Yi et al., 2020). Lin (2019), with 174 international ESL students in the U.S., identified patterns linking goal orientation and SRL strategy use: mastery goals positively relate to metacognitive and cognitive strategies, while performance goals affect only cognitive strategies. These findings indicate that SRL strategy choices depend on goal orientation. Ramshe et al. (2019) found that Iranian EFL university students' personal best goals influence their behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement. These studies underscore the ties between parental involvement, learners' goal orientations, and behaviors, particularly SRL strategy use and engagement. However, evidence remains limited on YLs.

A meta-analysis conducted by Tanaka (2024) examined parental involvement's impact on EFL learners' academic performance. The analysis, which included 14

articles with 65 correlation outcomes, revealed that parental involvement modestly affects children's L2 learning at home; studies involved both high school and college students. Few studies in the meta-analysis engaged with interdisciplinary research in parenting and SLA, and research focused on YLs' L2 learning was significantly lacking. Among the 14 articles reviewed, seven studies were conducted in China, four in Korea, and one each in Japan, Spain, and Iran. Across these contexts, East Asian societies tended to place a stronger emphasis on parental influences in language learning. However, compared with other East Asian countries, research on parental involvement in YLs' L2 learning in Japan remains limited. The only study conducted in Japan (McEown & Sugita-McEwon, 2019) focused on Japanese college students rather than on YLs. These issues reveal substantial gaps in existing literature. Research on YLs in the L2 domain is increasingly important in Japan due to the shift in compulsory English instruction from fifth to third grade (Ikeda et al., 2019). Addressing the research gaps regarding L2 learning processes of YLs is important, specifically how their feelings or beliefs affect their behavior in L2 classrooms. Considering the dearth of studies examining the influence of parental involvement on children's L2 learning, this study represents an initial exploration of the relationship between parental involvement and YLs' affective factors, as well as its links with YLs' cognition and action in an L2 classroom setting based on the SCT framework. Derived from previous research findings, variables such as children's self-efficacy, goal orientation, SRL strategy use, and engagement indicate children's affective and cognitive factors, and behaviors.

Furthermore, students' self-assessments of their L2 achievement were included as an outcome measure in the analysis. This study aimed to understand better how parental attitudes and behaviors at home affect YLs' L2 learning at school, including their L2 achievement. The following literature review provides an overview of the studies related to each research concept, including empirical studies involving children and adult learners.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Parental Influences on Children's Learning from the Perspective of SCT

According to Bandura (1977, 1997), in SCT, individuals' agency—which refers to the capacity for proactive behaviors or self-directed action—changes within a triadic reciprocal causation system involving behavioral, personal, and environmental factors, rather than a linear causation system. These factors influence each other bidirectionally. In this context, the environmental element in the triadic relationships includes sociocultural background, such as parents' behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs toward L2 learning. From the SCT perspective, parental influence can reinforce personal agency in L2 learning (Bandura, 1977).

For instance, parents' active involvement in their children's learning or schooling positively impacts their children's affective factors and academic achievement (Chow et al., 2017; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Grolnick et al., 1991; Keith et al., 1993; Lara & Saracostti, 2019; Liu, 2024). Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) conducted a factor analysis to identify the structures of parental involvement, categorizing them into three types: *school*, *cognitive/intellectual*, and *personal*. Their findings indicate that these forms of parental involvement positively impact children's affective factors for learning. According to them, school involvement involves parent–school interactions, such as parent–teacher meetings, open school nights, or school events. Cognitive/intellectual involvement refers to how often parents engage in activities with their children, like reading newspapers, discussing current events, buying books, or visiting libraries and museums. Personal involvement includes parents' interests, concerns, and knowledge of their children's school behaviors. Their path analysis indicated that parents' school and cognitive/intellectual involvement boosted children's perceived competence, positively impacting their academic performance. Thus, their findings revealed that learners' perceived competence, which reflects their confidence or beliefs about their capabilities, can serve as a mediator between parental involvement and academic performance. In the context of L2 learning, parents' active involvement in their children's L2 learning may enhance their self-efficacy in learning. This, in turn,

may lead to better academic performance in the L2 learning context. However, this process requires empirical validation.

Parental Influences on Children's Goal Orientation

Children internalize their parents' beliefs into their inner value systems when they perceive autonomy support from their parents (Assor, 2012). Goal orientation represents a specific type of learning belief. In a study involving 520 fourth graders in Hong Kong, Wang and Bai (2023) examined the effects of parental and teacher goal emphasis on children's goal orientation, SRL strategy use, and English test scores. Their structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis revealed that students' perceptions of parental and teacher mastery goal emphasis positively influenced their mastery goal orientation. However, perceived parental mastery goal emphasis negatively predicted students' performance-avoidance goals. Additionally, parental performance goal emphasis positively affected both performance-avoidance and performance-approach goals. Students' mastery goals positively predicted SRL strategy use, while performance-avoidance goals negatively predicted it, impacting English test scores. This indicates that students perceiving mastery goal emphasis from parents and teachers are more likely to adopt mastery orientations, enhancing SRL strategy use and improving test scores. In contrast, perceiving performance goal emphasis from parents tends to foster performance-avoidance goals, hindering SRL strategy use and negatively affecting their English performance. Thus, parental influences on beliefs and behaviors are crucial in shaping children's goal orientations and academic strategy use performance.

Self-Efficacy and L2 Performance

Recently, research on self-efficacy and L2 performance has increased (Bai et al., 2018; Cancino & Mera, 2022; Mills, 2014; Wang & Sun, 2020). A meta-analysis by Goetze and Driver (2022) demonstrated that self-efficacy correlates positively with academic achievement in SLA. This relationship has been explored across the four

language skills, with research examining how self-efficacy influences writing (e.g., Teng & Wang, 2023), listening (e.g., Zhang & Xu, 2024), reading (e.g., Yang et al., 2024), and speaking (e.g., Leeming et al., 2024). Golparvar and Khafi (2021) studied 191 Iranian EFL college students, examining the relationship between three self-efficacy types (linguistic, self-regulatory, and performance), SRL strategy use, and writing performance using SEM. Results indicated that all three self-efficacy types significantly predict summary writing performance. However, the relationship between them and SRL strategy use varies. Linguistic self-efficacy predicts three strategy types (evaluation, source use, and discourse synthesis), while self-regulatory and performance self-efficacy predict only metacognitive strategies (planning and evaluation). Nevertheless, research on the relationship between self-efficacy and the use of different types of strategies remains limited. In this regard, further investigation is necessary to clarify how self-efficacy influences learners' strategy use in the L2 classroom.

Regarding YLs' self-efficacy beliefs in L2 learning, Anam and Stracke (2016) examined the link between self-efficacy beliefs and SRL strategy use among 522 Indonesian sixth graders learning English. They found that students confident in their English skills used strategies more frequently than those lacking confidence. Therefore, self-efficacy is crucial in learners' ability to use strategies even for YLs. Zimmerman (2000) noted that self-efficacy provides students with a sense of agency and helps them regulate their learning through strategy use. Considering this important role, exploring ways to enhance learners' self-efficacy and understand how different contextual factors contribute to its development can be helpful.

L2 Classroom Engagement

Recent years have witnessed an increasing interest in learners' *engagement* as their actions after being motivated (Noels, 2016; Reeve & Jang, 2023). Dörnyei (2020) states that engagement can be understood as "motivation plus," where the plus element includes the behavioral outworking of motivation. Engagement is defined as

“the learner’s volitional active involvement in the learning task” and includes “involvement on an emotional, cognitive, and behavioral level situated within a nested system of multiple social contexts” (Mercer, 2022, p. 39). Thus, engagement can be considered one of the indicators of learners’ proactive learning behaviors in the classroom. In L2 learning settings, researchers have explored the effects of instruction on classroom engagement and found that engagement affects students’ academic achievement (Cai & Xing, 2023; Khajavy, 2021; Liu et al., 2023; Someya & Obermeier, 2023); engaged students succeeded in their L2 learning.

Behavioral engagement refers to learners’ behavioral choices in learning (Hiver, 2022); visible and observable actions of student involvement or active participation in learning, including time spent on a task or the degree of persistence; and frequency of taking actions for learning (Arndt, 2023; Oga-Baldwin & Fryer, 2021). *Emotional engagement* refers to learners’ positive emotional reactions during their motivated participation in learning activities (Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Skinner et al., 2008) to the activities or tasks, teachers, and peers, including enthusiasm, interest, curiosity, enjoyment, excitement, and satisfaction (Arndt, 2023; Oga-Baldwin & Fryer, 2021; Reeve & Tseng, 2011). *Cognitive engagement* relates to learners’ active thinking during learning, which involves sustained attention and mental effort (Arndt, 2023; Hiver, 2022) to grasp or master difficult ideas or tasks (Fredricks et al., 2004). Cai and Xing (2023) analyzed 692 undergraduate English students in China. They examined the relationships between students’ self-efficacy, three types of student engagement (behavioral, cognitive, and emotional), and students’ performance on the final English course exam, serving as an index of English achievement. The study using SEM showed that students’ self-efficacy positively predicted three types of engagement. However, only cognitive engagement mediated the link between self-efficacy and English achievement. Similarly, two other studies in China (Liu et al., 2023) and Japan (Someya & Obermeier, 2023) revealed engagement, including behavioral, cognitive, and emotional aspects, to be a positive predictor of achievement. Although different engagement structures have been used in different cultural contexts, these studies collectively show the positive impact of engagement on academic achievement in L2

learning environments. However, limited research has been conducted on YLs' engagement. The present study addresses this gap by exploring how engagement affects achievement.

In addition to behavioral, cognitive, and emotional aspects of engagement, *social engagement* has also been considered a key element in L2 learning. Regarding L2 learning in the classroom, Svalberg (2009) introduced the model of engagement with language and the concept of social engagement. Language classrooms usually require students to perform language exercises or communicative tasks with peers. Therefore, students need to become socially engaged through these interactive activities with their classmates. Social engagement includes attitudes toward collaborative language activities, such as the readiness to interact with classmates and initiate activities with them (Svalberg, 2009, 2018). Following Svalberg's model in the language learning context, Khajavy (2021) empirically investigated the role of L2 engagement, including social engagement in L2 reading comprehension among 125 undergraduate students in Iran. Using path analysis, he demonstrated a significant relationship between L2 engagement (behavioral, cognitive, emotional, and social aspects) and L2 reading comprehension.

Social engagement is associated with the willingness or readiness to interact with teachers or peers (Lambert et al., 2017) and involves students' "initiation and maintenance" of the interaction (Svalberg, 2009, 2018). In Japanese elementary school policies, fostering "an attitude of attempting to proactively communicate in foreign languages while considering the people they are communicating with" comprises one of the aims of L2 learning at school (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology [MEXT], 2017). The national curriculum standards for fifth and sixth graders in Japan clarifies effective teaching approaches that promote collaborative activities, such as pair or group work (MEXT, 2017). Thus, employing social, behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement was appropriate in this study. While L2 engagement and achievement among college students have been explored

(Cai & Xing, 2023; Khajavy, 2021; Liu et al., 2023; Someya & Obermeier, 2023), the applicability of these findings to L2 YLs remains unclear.

Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

Learners' self-efficacy and beliefs (goal orientation) are crucial to facilitate proactive actions that help initiate and sustain their learning. One indicator of learners' proactive actions in the classroom may be how often they use SRL strategies. Zimmerman (1989) defined SRL strategies as "actions and processes directed at acquiring information or skill that involve agency, purpose, and instrumentality perceptions by learners" (p. 329). According to Zimmerman, "students' learning must involve the use of specified strategies to achieve academic goals on the basis of self-efficacy perceptions" (p. 329). Consistent with Zimmerman's conceptualization, previous studies established that highly efficacious students tend to use various SRL strategies (e.g., Anam & Stracke, 2016; Wong, 2005). Furthermore, self-regulated students are "metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own learning process" (Zimmerman, 1986, p. 308). Indeed, prior research has highlighted that SRL strategy use in L2 mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement or proactive engagement in tasks (e.g., Golparvar & Khafi, 2021; Zhou et al., 2022). However, few studies have investigated these relationships among Japanese EFL YLs. How children's self-efficacy is influenced by environmental factors and how their SRL strategy use mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement have not been investigated and remain unclear. Therefore, whether Zimmerman's conceptualization is appropriate for the Japanese EFL YLs' context is doubtful.

Moreover, the frequency and variety of YLs' SRL strategy use may be limited by their cognitive development and familiarity with strategies. Evidence from large-scale surveys can provide crucial insights into actual strategy use in the classroom to understand SRL strategy use in the Japanese YLs' educational context. The Benesse Educational Research & Development Institute's (2014) survey of 3,450 fourth to sixth

graders found that elementary students used 16 types of strategies in the classroom, both metacognitive and cognitive. These strategies include help-seeking, rehearsal, and resource management under cognitive and monitoring strategies, and regulation and planning under metacognitive strategies. Although this institutional report was not peer-reviewed, it is the only comprehensive investigation of SRL strategy use among Japanese elementary students, offering essential baseline data for understanding strategy use patterns in this population. The research context is not limited to L2 classrooms but covers the whole academic learning context at school. Thus, examining YLs' SRL strategy use and its relationships with other affective variables in the L2 classroom setting in Japan is meaningful.

Research Questions

This study aimed to understand YLs' L2 learning attitudes and behaviors, and clarify aspects influenced by parental behaviors. Its primary objective was to explore the relationships between parental involvement at home and YLs' beliefs about L2 learning, behaviors, and attitudes in the L2 classroom and how these factors impact their L2 achievement. On the basis of relevant literature and the non-linear causal model of SCT (Bandura, 1997), we hypothesized that three major elements (environment, person, and behavior) influence each other. Consequently, three pathways must be examined: the pathways from parental involvement to personal aspects, personal aspects to classroom behaviors, and classroom behaviors to L2 achievement. The following research questions were proposed:

RQ1: What are the relationships between parental involvement and YLs' affective factors, such as self-efficacy for English classroom learning and performance and goal orientations?

RQ2: What are the relationships between YLs' affective factors and behaviors in L2 classrooms, such as L2 classroom engagement and SRL strategies?

RQ3: What are the relationships between YLs' behaviors in L2 classrooms and their self-reported L2 achievement?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethical Considerations

After obtaining ethical approval from the authors' institute (Approval Number 23–49), data were collected from a marketing company's survey panel from December 28, 2023, to January 5, 2024. This data collection method was used due to the challenges faced in conducting research within public elementary schools, primarily due to institutional access restrictions. The current study examines the relationship between parental home activities that support children's English learning and the children's personal factors, including their perceptions of academic achievement. Although several public elementary schools were approached for participation, only one school granted permission, but the sample size was too small for statistical analysis. Consequently, data collection through a marketing company's survey panel was adopted as an alternative to ensure access to the target population while maintaining ethical research standards.

The marketing company manages registered participant groups called panels, which are recruited through a nationwide network across Japan. Individuals voluntarily sign up as survey monitors with the marketing company. Anyone aged 15 or older can become a survey monitor. They complete questionnaires and earn reward points in return, which can be exchanged for gift cards or other items. Among the 540,000 panel members throughout Japan, parents (aged 30s–50s) with fifth- and sixth-grade children in public elementary schools were selected. Ethical procedures were carefully verified with the staff of the marketing company. Participants were clearly informed through an on-screen explanation that their participation was voluntary and they could withdraw at any time. They received detailed information on the screen about the study's purpose, the participation process, how the results would be used, and how

their data would be handled. Anonymity was guaranteed, and informed consent was obtained before participation. Since all respondents were registered survey monitors who had voluntarily signed up with the marketing company, their ability to give consent was considered valid. All data were collected and managed using the company's secure platform, which was accessible only to the researcher. Uploaded data were scheduled to be deleted one year after the end of the survey.

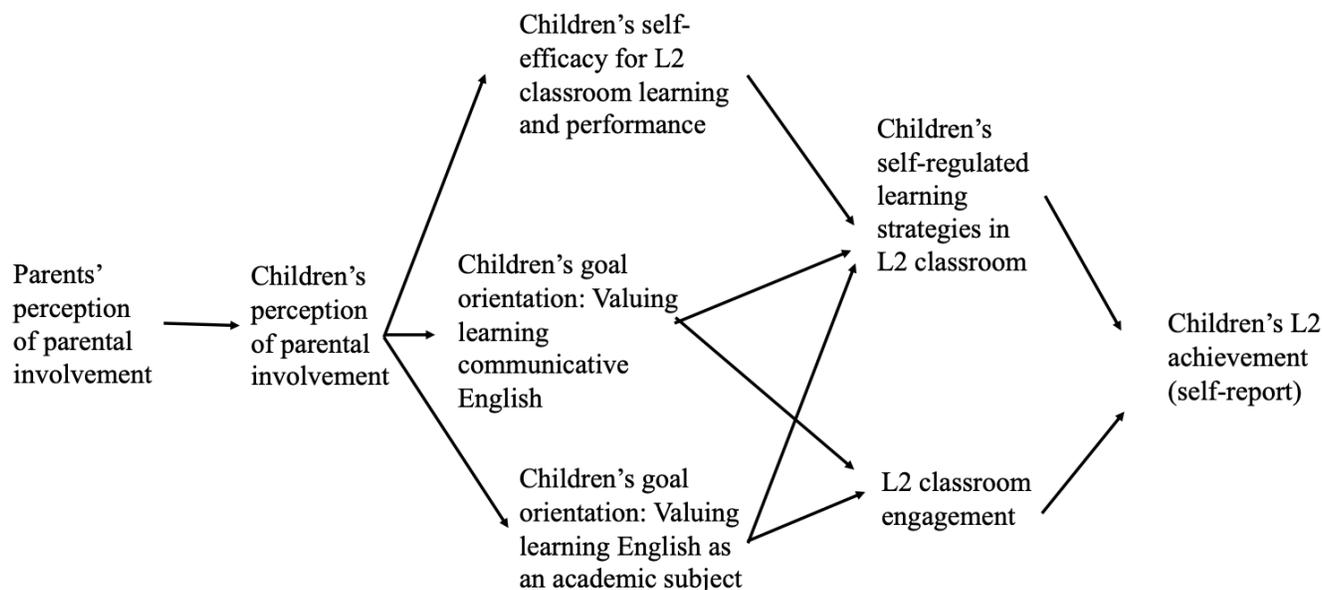
The researchers' positionality can influence many parts of quantitative research, from the initial design to the final interpretation of data, rendering it important to clarify potential researcher bias (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Peoples, 2020). The first author, a Ph.D. student experienced in teaching English to young children, was responsible for designing the research framework, conducting data analysis, and interpreting results. The second author, an expert on individual differences in L2 research, provided ongoing supervision and guidance throughout all stages of the research process. He also worked with the first author on developing the questionnaire, creating items, analyzing data, and interpreting results. We acknowledge that our experience and perspectives might have influenced the research design and how the results were interpreted. However, to reduce such influence as much as possible, we conducted a two-stage pilot study and implemented a thorough peer verification process (see the Procedures and Instrument subsection).

Hypothetical Model

Following Bandura (1997) and other relevant literature, we hypothesized the SEM model (Figure 1). Based on SCT's triadic causation involving environmental, personal, and behavioral factors, we proposed links from parental involvement to personal elements (self-efficacy, goal orientations) and from personal elements to behaviors (SRL strategy use, engagement). Subsequently, children's self-assessment of L2 achievement was an expected outcome of the behavioral factors facet.

Initially, we assumed a correlation between parents' and children's perceptions of parental involvement. A path was drawn from parents' perceptions to children's perceptions and subsequently to their beliefs, such as self-efficacy and goal orientation. This assumption is based on children internalizing their parents' attitudes into their internal values (Tanaka & Takeuchi, 2023, 2024). Next, we depicted pathways from children's affective (self-efficacy and goal orientation) to cognitive facets (SRL strategy use and engagement). Based on the SCT perspective, we hypothesized a singular path from self-efficacy to learners' use of SRL strategies. We do not assume an additional path from self-efficacy to engagement, as this variable includes multidimensional aspects beyond the behavioral facet. Finally, children's self-assessment of L2 achievement was established as the overall outcome of the model.

Figure 1. *Hypothetical Model for SEM*



Participants

Inclusion criteria for this study were: (1) fifth and sixth graders at the public elementary schools, (2) availability of parent–child pairs for data collection, and (3) primary guardians willing to participate. We focused on fifth and sixth graders who are required to learn English at school as an academic subject in the newly introduced National Curriculum Standards (see Ikeda et al., 2019 for details). The initial sample size was set at 400 parent–child pairs with 360 mothers and 40 fathers because the ratio of the

main parenting roles by gender was 9:1 (mothers: fathers) in a previous study (Tanaka & Takeuchi, 2024). The questionnaire asked about the family's primary guardian. Data were excluded if respondents were not the primary guardians. Additionally, trapping items (e.g., "Please respond *very often* to this question") were included in both parent and child questionnaires to identify participants who did not provide thoughtful answers. Responses violating any trapping questions were excluded. The final sample included 287 children (143 boys, 143 girls, and one unknown; 142 fifth graders aged 10 to 11 and 145 sixth graders aged 11 to 12) and their guardians (258 mothers and 29 fathers; 50 in their 30s, 201 in their 40s, and 36 in their 50s). Appendices B–F present detailed study data and comparisons with national data in Japan (based on socioeconomic status and demographics).

The average annual income for families with children in Japan is 7,850,000 yen, as reported by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW; 2022). A comparison of this study's data and national data from MHLW (2022) in Appendix B shows a similar distribution, except for approximately 18% missing values in the current study. Appendix C compares parents' educational backgrounds, revealing higher levels among parents in this study—41% of parents graduated from college, compared to 34% of fathers and 22% of mothers in the national data. Moreover, 90% of parents were mothers, reflecting higher education levels even when considering only mothers. Regarding family size, Appendix D shows larger families, with fewer having one child and more with two or three, in contrast to national data.

A summary of the parents' occupations is shown in Appendix E. The largest group consisted of part-time workers (34.5%), succeeded by homemakers (26.1%). Approximately 61% of parents do not work full-time, indicating they have more time for child-rearing. Appendix F illustrates the regions of residence for the participants, indicating data collection from across Japan. In summary, participants lived in various areas of Japan, earned an average family income for families with children, exhibited higher educational levels than average family groups with children, tended to have

larger family sizes, and possibly had more time and resources to engage with their children.

Procedure and Instrument

Data were collected using a web-based questionnaire after three pilot studies with Japanese EFL YLs. The first pilot (March 2023) included five children aged 11–12 (three boys and two girls) to assess scale validity and refine self-efficacy, goal orientation, SRL strategies, and engagement items. To ensure content validity (Kline, 2015), the first and the second author reviewed each questionnaire item. Two experts in assessment and statistics, in addition to the two authors, reviewed the items during the peer validation process. The second pilot (September 2023) included two children aged 9 and 10 (one boy and one girl) to assess the validity of answering the questionnaire at home. The final pilot (October 2023) involved 12 parent–child dyads to finalize the questionnaire before implementing the full survey.

A web-based questionnaire with two forms was distributed to registered web monitor panels of a marketing company: one for parents and one for their children. The company's registration policy requires web monitors to be at least 15 years old, meaning elementary school children could not access or complete the questionnaire independently; they needed parental consent. Parents were instructed to assist their children by reading questions aloud and providing answers on their behalf. They were further instructed to refrain from expressing any particular wishes or aspirations for their children.

The parent questionnaire includes basic attributes (age, gender, location, occupation) and assesses parental involvement in children's L2 learning at home. The children's questionnaire evaluates parental involvement, self-efficacy in L2 classroom learning and performance, goal orientations, SRL strategies, classroom engagement, and children's self-assessment in L2 learning (Appendix G).

Data Analysis

Before SEM, we conducted factor analyses on parents' and children's perceptions of parental involvement. Validating parental involvement scales was necessary because the authors modified these variables from Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994), differing from the current EFL learning context at home. We then examined the descriptive statistics for all variables. Reliability coefficients were calculated using Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency. Finally, we performed Pearson's correlation analysis to explore relationships among all variables, followed by SEM. R version 4.2.0 was used for all analyses.

RESULTS

Factor Analyses for Parental Involvement Scales

Parental involvement scales for both parents' and children's perceptions were based on Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994), according to which parental involvement encompasses three dimensions: school, cognitive/intellectual, and personal. This study adopted personal involvement items PPPI-1, PPPI-2, and PPPI-3 for parents and CPPI-1, CPPI-2, and CPPI-3 for children (3 items each, 5-point Likert scale). PPPI refers to parents' perception of parental involvement, while CPPI refers to children's perception of parental involvement. We included cognitive/intellectual involvement items PPPI-4 to PPPI-9 for parents and CPPI-4 to CPPI-9 for children (6 items each, 5-point Likert scale). The school involvement scale was excluded because the current study specifically focused on parental influence within the home setting, emphasizing shared experiences related to children's English learning activities at home. The items related to parental involvement were not directly translated from the English version used in Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994); instead, they were adapted to suit the Japanese context. These items were used in the authors' previous study (Tanaka & Takeuchi, 2024) and revised as needed. In that study, the adapted questionnaire items showed reliability exceeding the threshold. Furthermore, expert reviews and pilot studies confirmed that the items were interpreted as intended, supporting their

semantic equivalence. The data were divided into two groups (groups 1 and 2) using a random seed. Exploratory factor analyses (EFAs) were conducted in Group 1 ($n = 146$), followed by confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in Group 2 ($n = 141$). Descriptive statistics for the PPPI scale were assessed before EFA. The skewness (between -0.11 and 0.67) and kurtosis (between -1.38 and -0.98) indices indicated that the data were normally distributed within the satisfactory ranges of ± 2 (Takeuchi & Mizumoto, 2023).

Table 1. Standardized Loadings of PPPI Items Based on Correlation Matrix for EFA

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Communality
PPPI-1	0.08	0.72	0.60
PPPI-2	-0.04	0.86	0.70
PPPI-3	0.02	0.42	0.19
PPPI-4	0.37	0.21	0.28
PPPI-5	0.45	0.31	0.47
PPPI-6	0.48	0.31	0.50
PPPI-7	0.76	0.08	0.67
PPPI-8	0.91	-0.10	0.74
PPPI-9	0.29	0.31	0.29

Note. $n = 146$. PPPI = parents' perception of parental involvement; proportions of variance explained are 53% for Factor 1 and 47% for Factor 2.

We then performed the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) factor adequacy test and Bartlett's test of sphericity to assess data suitability for factor analysis. The results revealed that the overall mean of sampling adequacy (MSA) was 0.85; each PPPI item showed appropriate ranges from 0.81 to 0.95; and Bartlett's score indicated a significant deviation from sphericity ($\chi^2 = 518.64$, $df = 36$, $p < .001$), indicating that the correlation matrix was not spherical. These findings suggested that factor analysis was appropriate. Examination of the scree plot of the eigenvalues for the variable showed

that the plot turned right following Factor 2, indicating two factors in the PPPI variable. EFA was then conducted to reveal the factor structure of the PPPI scale using the oblimin rotation method and maximum likelihood estimation. The standardized loadings (pattern matrix) are listed in Table 1.

The findings demonstrate that PPPI-4 (“Do you take part in some events related to English learning?”) and PPPI-9 (“Do you encourage your child to take lessons at an English school outside the classroom?”) did not meet the cut-off criteria, with factor loadings less than 0.40 (Hair et al., 2018), and were thus excluded. Additionally, the communality of PPPI-3 is low (0.19), indicating insufficient shared variance with the underlying factor (Hair et al., 2018). Therefore, we removed PPPI-3 from the factor structure. We determined the number of factors as two; factor one comprised PPPI-1 and PPPI-2, while factor two comprised PPPI-5, PPPI-6, PPPI-7, and PPPI-8. Finally, we performed CFA to examine the EFA results. The two-factor model of PPPI demonstrated acceptable fit indices: Chi-square (χ^2) = 17.34, df = 8, p < .05, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.97, Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) = 0.95, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.09 (90% CI:0.03, 0.15), and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) = 0.03. Results of a significant χ^2 value show that the model fit is inadequate. However, this index is known to be sensitive to sample size. Simultaneously considering other fit indices is also recommended (Alamer, 2025; Byrne, 2016; In’nami & Koizumi, 2011). According to Byrne (2016), the cut-off criteria for these indices are as follows: CFI close to 0.95, TLI close to 0.95, RMSEA ranging from 0.05 to 0.08, and SRMR 0.05 or less. Based on these criteria, the model demonstrated an acceptable overall fit except for RMSEA. The RMSEA value can also be influenced by small sample sizes (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Brown, 2006; Byrne, 2016). A sample size of at least 200 is generally recommended for SEM analysis (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2015; Toyoda, 2013). Hu and Bentler (1999) advised reporting a combination of fit indices with CFI and SRMR when the sample size is 250 or less. Therefore, we accepted the model and decided to proceed to the next step.

Table 2. Standardized Loadings of CPPI Items Based on Correlation Matrix

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Communality
CPPI-1	-0.02	0.88	0.75
CPPI-2	0.05	0.71	0.56
CPPI-3	0.12	0.41	0.24
CPPI-4	0.61	-0.03	0.34
CPPI-5	0.67	0.07	0.52
CPPI-6	0.75	0.07	0.63
CPPI-7	0.92	-0.01	0.82
CPPI-8	0.85	-0.06	0.65
CPPI-9	0.49	0.15	0.37

Note. $n = 146$. CPPI = children's perception of parental involvement; proportions of variance explained are 68% for Factor 1 and 32% for Factor 2.

Another EFA was conducted using the CPPI scale items, following the same procedure used for the PPPI scale. Skewness (between -0.27 and 0.71) and kurtosis (between -1.40 and -0.78) were within the satisfactory ranges of ± 2 , confirming normal distribution. The KMO factor adequacy test and Bartlett's test of sphericity demonstrated that showed the data were appropriate with an MSA of 0.88; each CPPI item ranged from 0.84 to 0.95, and Bartlett's score revealed significant results ($\chi^2 = 518.64$, $df = 36$, $p < .001$). These findings indicate a non-spherical correlation matrix, making factor analysis suitable. The scree plot's sharp elbow after Factor 2 suggests two factors in the CPPI variable. The standardized loadings in the pattern matrix are outlined in Table 2. The communality of CPPI-3 is low (0.24), indicating weak representation of the underlying factor (Hair et al., 2018). Therefore, we removed CPPI-3 from the factor structure. Factor 1 includes CPPI-1 and CPPI-2; factor 2 includes CPPI-4 through CPPI-9. This structure differs from PPPI. Finally, we conducted a CFA to examine the EFA results. The overall goodness-of-fit indices (Chi-square (χ^2) = 56.43, $df = 19$, $p < .001$, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.86, RMSEA = 0.12 (90% CI: 0.08, 0.15), and SRMR = 0.06). TLI and RMSEA values are not satisfactory. However,

as mentioned earlier, RMSEA is especially sensitive to small sample sizes, and reporting the combination of CFI and SRMR for samples under 250 is advisable. CFI and SRMR values indicate that the model approaches acceptable fit criteria. Therefore, we proceeded with SEM analysis. SEM is a confirmatory method for testing a theory (Hair et al., 2018) and examines the model's overall fit with other variables, revealing the connections between parents' and children's variables in this study.

Factor Analyses for SRL Strategy Use Scales

Following the factor analysis of the parental involvement scales, a correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between all variables. A strong and significant correlation was observed between the subscales of SRL strategy use: cognitive and metacognitive strategy use ($r = 0.92, p < .001$). These findings indicate a need for a comprehensive reevaluation of SRL strategies through factor analyses. We explored the SRL-strategy-use variable using all 15 items, including seven cognitive and eight metacognitive items (5-point Likert scale). Tests for skewness (between -0.34 and 0.34) and kurtosis (between -1.16 and -0.78) demonstrated that the data were normally distributed within acceptable ranges of ± 2 . The KMO factor adequacy test and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated data appropriateness with an MSA of 0.93; each CPPI item ranged from 0.90 to 0.95, and Bartlett's score revealed significant results ($\chi^2 = 1911.22, df = 105, p < .001$). These findings indicate that the correlation matrix was not spherical, rendering factor analysis appropriate. The scree plot showed a sharp elbow after Factor 2, indicating two factors in the SRL-strategy-use variable. The standardized loadings in the pattern matrix are listed in Table 3. A subsequent CFA was conducted; the model demonstrated acceptable fit indices besides RMSEA: Chi-square (χ^2) = 275.26, $df = 89, p < .001$, CFI = 0.90, TLI = 0.88, RMSEA = 0.12 (90% CI: 0.10, 0.13), and SRMR = 0.07. Similar to the CFA results of PPPI and CPPI, the RMSEA values indicated a slightly poor fit. However, the CFI and SRMR values were within acceptable ranges for the model. We therefore moved on to the next step with a two-factor structure. Factor 1 was labeled "metacognitive

preparation for performance” because it reflects strategies related to behaviors triggered by the awareness of not understanding or the unclear aspects of the learning materials and the subsequent efforts to plan and regulate the learning process, especially for the tests. Factor 2 was labeled “cognitive organization of knowledge” because it reflects behaviors aimed at organizing and elaborating learned information for better memorization, such as taking notes and analyzing one’s learning.

Table 3. *Standardized Loadings of SRL Strategy Use Items Based on Correlation Matrix*

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Communality
COG1	0.88	-0.13	0.62
COG2	0.80	0.00	0.64
COG3	0.63	0.28	0.74
COG4	0.57	0.21	0.55
COG5	0.26	0.50	0.51
COG6	-0.07	0.86	0.65
COG7	0.10	0.67	0.56
MetaCOG1	0.84	-0.02	0.67
MetaCOG2	0.93	-0.06	0.78
MetaCOG3	0.68	0.24	0.76
MetaCOG4	0.74	0.14	0.73
MetaCOG5	-0.03	0.87	0.71
MetaCOG6	0.06	0.84	0.80
MetaCOG7	0.29	0.51	0.58
MetaCOG8	0.42	0.44	0.65

Note. $n = 146$. COG = L2 cognitive strategy use; MetaCOG = L2 metacognitive strategy use; proportions of variance explained are 57% for Factor 1 and 43% for Factor 2.

Table 4 (see Appendix A) presents descriptive statistics, while Table 5 (see Appendix A) provides correlation coefficients for samples with new variables (SRL1 and SRL2). The strong correlation between SRL1 and SRL2 is noted ($r = .82$). The variance inflation factor (VIF) statistic indicated multicollinearity was acceptable (VIF = 3.09)

(Hair et al., 2018), making it reasonable to proceed with SEM analysis of SRL1 and SRL2 as distinct variables within a single latent construct. Kurtosis values (1.95 to 3.33) indicated data non-normality (Table 4; see Appendix A), indicating potential multivariate non-normality in further analyses; thus, a suitable estimation method (e.g., Satorra–Bentler robust maximum likelihood estimation) should be applied in SEM. The internal consistency of all factors was assessed using Cronbach’s alpha, confirming that satisfaction exceeded the 0.60 threshold as suggested by Dörnyei (2007).

Structural Equation Modeling

Model Testing and Fit Indices

A multivariate normality test using the Henze–Zirkler coefficients showed that the data were not multivariate normally distributed. We then tested the hypothetical model (Figure 1) through SEM with the Satorra–Bentler robust maximum likelihood estimation method for non-normal distributions. We assessed overall model fit using CFI, TLI, RMSEA, and SRMR. The cut-off criteria indicate CFI and TLI should be close to 0.95, RMSEA should range from 0.05 to 0.08, and SRMR should be 0.05 or less (Byrne, 2016). The hypothesized model was initially tested (Model 1 in Table 6; see Appendix A). In this base model involving 287 parent–child dyads, scaled chi-square (χ^2) = 2995.86, df = 1411, p < .001, a robust CFI was 0.86, a robust TLI was 0.85, a robust RMSEA was 0.07 (90% CI: 0.07, 0.08), and SRMR was 0.16. The fit indices indicated a poor fit. Additionally, a path coefficient from PPPI to CPPI is 1.00, and a path from CPPI-2 to CPPI_Cognitive/intellectual is 1.03, which can be considered an error. Therefore, the PPPI variable was excluded from the model.

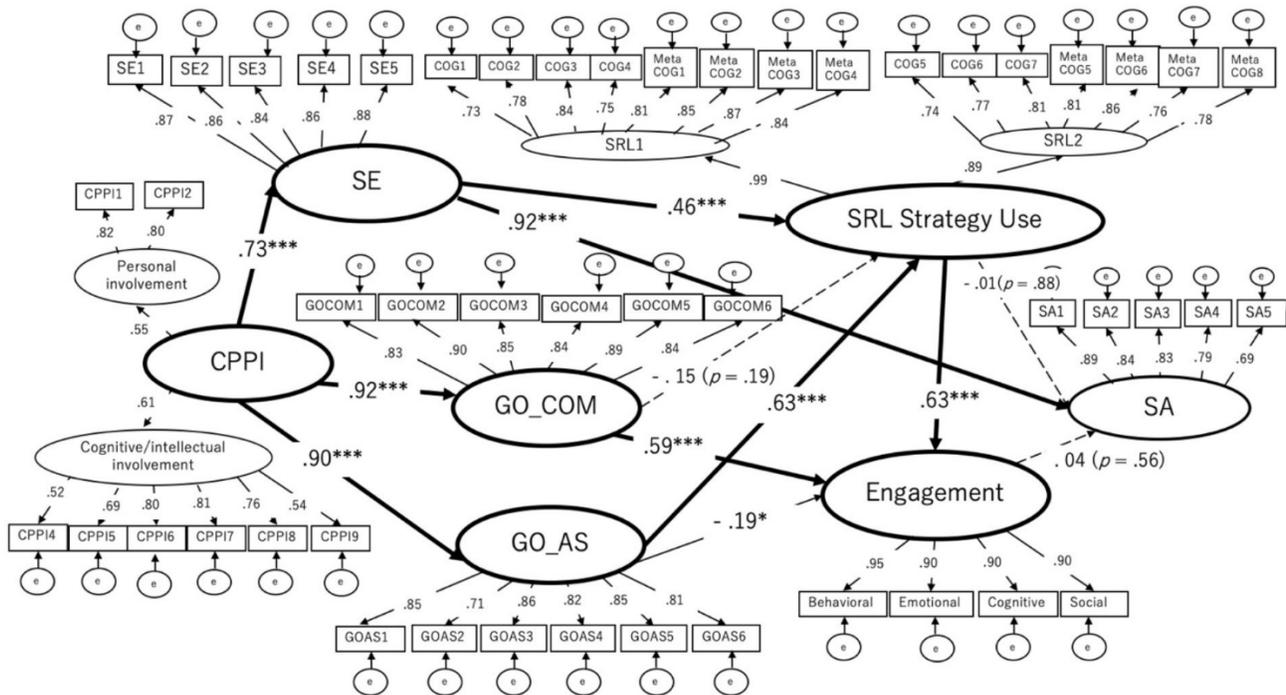
The subsequent model (Model 2 in Table 6; see Appendix A) was tested after excluding the variable of PPPI. In this model involving 287 children, scaled chi-square (χ^2) = 1945.00, df = 1111, p < .001, a robust CFI was 0.91, a robust TLI was 0.90, a robust RMSEA was 0.06 (90% CI: 0.06, 0.07), and SRMR was 0.06. These fit indices show that the model has an acceptable fit.

Comparison Between Models

When comparing the Akaike's information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC), and sample-size adjusted BIC (SABIC) information criteria of Model 1, those of Model 2 showed smaller values, indicating that Model 2 is a better fit (Byrne, 2016). Our final model, Model 2, shown in Figure 2, revealed a significant path from children's perception of parental involvement to their affective factors representing self-efficacy and goal orientations (CPPI→SE: path coefficient = 0.73, CPPI→GO_COM: path coefficient = 0.92, CPPI→GO_AS: path coefficient = 0.90). In response to RQ1, the results indicated that parental involvement in YLs' L2 learning at home affects children's self-efficacy in L2 classrooms relatively highly and their goal orientations for both communicative English learning and learning English as an academic subject. The explanatory rates of the three paths (CPPI→SE, CPPI→GO_COM, and CPPI→GO_AS) were 53%, 85%, and 81%, respectively.

Furthermore, concerning RQ2, significant connections were discovered between YLs' affective factors and behaviors, representing their SRL strategies in the L2 classroom and L2 classroom engagement. YLs' self-efficacy boosts their SRL strategy use in the L2 classroom (SE→SRL Strategy Use: path coefficient = 0.46). With respect to the two types of YLs' goal orientations, their goal orientation for values of learning English as an academic subject (GO_AS) influences both their SRL strategy use and L2 classroom engagement (GO_AS→SRL Strategy Use: path coefficient = 0.63, GO_AS→Engagement: path coefficient = -0.19). Conversely, another goal orientation for values of communicative English learning has a significant impact only on L2 classroom engagement (GO_COM→Engagement: path coefficient = 0.59). Finally, in addressing RQ3, no significant connection was found between YLs' behaviors in L2 classrooms and their self-assessment in L2 learning, as indicated by the path coefficients between SRL strategy use, engagement, and self-assessment in the SEM model. Meanwhile, a data-driven path from self-efficacy to self-assessment (SE→SA: path coefficient = 0.92) was obtained, demonstrating high and strong values.

Figure 2. Final Model of the Structural Relationship between Parental Involvement and Children's L2 Learning ($N = 287$)



Final Model Interpretation

The SEM model results demonstrate a structural relationship between children's perception of parental involvement and classroom behaviors, mediated by personal aspects such as self-efficacy and goal orientations, aligning with Bandura's (1977) SCT. This theory features a triadic reciprocal causation system involving behavioral, personal, and environmental factors. However, the link between YLs' classroom behaviors and their L2 learning self-assessments is unsupported, contradicting previous studies (Cai & Xing, 2023; Golparvar & Khafi, 2021; Khajavy, 2021; Liu et al., 2023; Someya & Obermeier, 2023; Zhou et al., 2022). A significant correlation was found only between self-efficacy and self-assessment. This is consistent with findings from Goetze and Driver (2022) and Golparvar and Khafi (2021). Additionally, data show a strong path from SRL strategy to L2 classroom engagement (SRL Strategy Use → Engagement: path coefficient = 0.63), explaining 40% variance.

DISCUSSION

This study revealed key structural relationships between parental influence and YLs' affective and cognitive factors within the SEM model, revealing how YLs' views of parental involvement affect their classroom behaviors. YLs' affective factors, including self-efficacy and goal orientation, mediated the link between parental involvement and behaviors. In particular, the strong coefficients for the paths from parental involvement to children's goal orientations (CPPI→GO_COM: path coefficient = 0.92, CPPI→GO_AS: path coefficient = 0.90) show that parents' behaviors and attitudes significantly influence Japanese fifth- and sixth-grade children's beliefs and actions related to L2 learning. These results indicate that when parents participate in English-related activities with their children at home, it can shape children's learning goals and encourage positive attitudes toward L2 learning. The parental involvement scale used in this study encompasses activities where children study English, sing or listen to English songs with parents, and parents' engagement in children's English lessons, such as buying learning materials or apps. These activities represent two parental involvement types: personal and cognitive/intellectual. When children are exposed to such activities with parents, their self-efficacy in learning and performing English improves (CPPI→SE: path coefficient = 0.73). This aligns with SCT (Bandura, 1977), highlighting parents' role in providing children with a supportive environment and mastery experiences. However, children's positive view of parents' active involvement should be considered when interpreting these results, as Choi et al. (2019) discovered a negative link between perceived parental pressure and children's self-efficacy. If children feel pressured by their parents during English-related activities, their self-efficacy for L2 learning can be weakened.

Additionally, a positive relationship between learners' self-efficacy and academic achievement has been reported (Goetze & Driver, 2022; Golparvar & Khafi, 2021). We also found a direct link between self-efficacy and self-assessment of L2 achievement, not based on external evaluations such as teacher assessments or proficiency tests. Although this is a new finding, it is not surprising. The questionnaire asked participants

to evaluate their abilities in four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Thus, a strong association between self-efficacy and self-assessment emerged, possibly reflecting children's perceptions of their L2 learning capabilities. If we had used actual grades or past exam scores, the relationship between self-efficacy and self-assessment of L2 achievement may have been different.

Additionally, self-efficacy beliefs and the self-assessment of L2 achievement measured here were highly correlated ($r = .89$) (Table 5), and the path coefficient from self-efficacy to self-assessment was 0.92 (Figure 2), indicating a strong link between these. These results suggest that self-assessment of L2 achievement measured in this present study is a construct similar to self-efficacy, which could be one potential reason for the non-significant relationships between self-assessment, SRL strategy use, and L2 classroom engagement in the SEM model. The self-efficacy scales used in this study included items primarily asking about students' beliefs in their capabilities or confidence in performing tasks in the classroom, for example, "I believe that I can master and have a good command of the skills being taught in the English classroom at school." Similarly, the self-assessment items asked about students' perceived abilities in four language skills, for example, "I can understand someone speaking English if spoken slowly and clearly". Within the framework of SCT, self-efficacy can be boosted when learners experience success, known as *mastery experience* (Bandura, 1997). The self-assessment in this study seems to reflect students' beliefs shaped through their past mastery experiences. Therefore, the strong conceptual overlap between self-efficacy and self-assessment may have arisen because of the similarities in the items used to measure both constructs.

Examining the positive influence of self-efficacy on academic achievement from another perspective, based on previous research and SCT, we can assume that the shared experience of learning English with parents at home enhances children's self-efficacy and their perception of positive English academic grading. This process has the potential to positively impact external L2 outcomes, as measured by grading or proficiency tests. However, if self-report outcomes were based on actual test scores

or grades, stronger evidence of direct relationships among self-efficacy, SRL strategy use, engagement, and language achievement can be outlined. Future research may treat these as separate constructs, differentiating between learners' self-perceptions and their actual performance based on external assessments.

This study also revealed the different processes of children's L2 learning behaviors in the classroom that arise from their different goal-oriented beliefs about learning English. Belief in values relating to learning communicative English positively affects L2 classroom engagement. For example, children who wish to learn to communicate in English, practice speaking and listening skills, or have more opportunities to interact with L2 speakers tend to engage in English lessons at school actively. They are behaviorally, emotionally, cognitively, and socially active during these lessons. However, this orientation did not lead the children to use SRL strategies in the classroom. Thus, students who wanted to learn to communicate in English tended to use fewer L2 cognitive and metacognitive strategies during the L2 lessons. An explanation for this may be that L2 cognitive and metacognitive strategies refer to behaviors or mental efforts for learning in a classroom instead of focusing specifically on practicing communication skills. For instance, behaviors such as checking new English vocabulary or phrases that students do not understand, memorizing new words, or reviewing English textbooks before tests may not necessarily be motivated by their beliefs regarding the value of learning communicative English.

On the contrary, orientation with valuing learning English as an academic subject positively influenced students' use of SRL strategies but negatively affected their L2 classroom engagement. Children with this orientation wish to study English for exams, practice English comprehension drills, learn English language rules for making sentences, and acquire writing and reading skills. The SRL strategy use scale employed here asked about aspects of studying techniques or methods, revealing that these children tend to use more SRL strategies in the classroom. Meanwhile, the negative pathway from values on learning English as an academic subject to L2 classroom engagement might be because of students' learning circumstances.

Studying English as an academic subject requires learners' independent internal processes or cognitive activities, while engaging in L2 classroom activities necessitates collaboration in the language classroom by working on tasks with their classmates. This indicates the discrepancy between the individual and collaborative forms of learning. Therefore, when students want to focus on the linguistic aspects of the English language or acquire more knowledge of linguistic abilities, they tend to be less active in participating in activities or collaborating on tasks with classmates, leading to a negative association between the variables in the SEM model.

Furthermore, according to a nationwide study of 3,489 fourth- to sixth-grade students in Japan conducted by the Benesse Educational Research & Development Institute (2024), 38.0% of sixth graders and 31.2% of fifth graders attend cram schools, which are private, specialized after-school institutions designed to supplement school-based academic studies or help students pass entrance exams for higher-level schools. Attending cram school is especially popular among junior high students (e.g., 60.4% of ninth graders). This pattern may reflect an educational culture in Japan where studying for exams or supplementing academic work is often seen as more important than practicing communication skills like speaking English. A misalignment between prevailing cultural attitudes and the school curriculum appears to exist, which increasingly emphasizes communicative English skills. The study approaches used at cram schools outside classrooms resemble SRL strategies, including comprehension drills and learning grammatical rules for constructing sentences in English. Therefore, the results may suggest that an orientation valuing learning English as an academic subject positively influences students' use of SRL strategies but negatively impacts their L2 classroom engagement.

Nevertheless, the findings revealed that SRL strategy use had a moderately strong positive impact on L2 classroom engagement, with a path coefficient of 0.63 (Figure 2). This indicates that SRL strategies can be tools for active student engagement in L2 classrooms. Therefore, students can actively engage in L2 classrooms by frequently employing these strategies. Regarding the learning process of students with

goal-oriented beliefs about learning English as an academic subject, their beliefs indirectly affect L2 classroom engagement through mediation via SRL strategy use instead of having a direct impact. However, this learning process, from SRL strategy use to L2 classroom engagement, should be approached with caution. How students attempt to actively engage in L2 classroom activities may require further investigation. It is possible that students perceive active engagement in L2 classrooms merely as participation that contributes to academic evaluation by teachers.

Moreover, significant paths from classroom behaviors (L2 classroom engagement and SRL strategy use) to self-assessment of L2 achievement were not identified in the final SEM model (Figure 2). However, correlation analyses between each subscale and self-assessment of L2 achievement showed strong and significant positive relationships ($r = 0.61$ to 0.73 ; Table 5; see Appendix A). The strongest correlation was between self-assessment and behavioral engagement ($r = 0.73$), followed by the correlation between self-assessment and SRL strategy use for metacognitive preparation for performance ($r = 0.69$). These findings suggest that self-assessment may influence classroom behaviors, rather than the other way around. Usually, classroom behaviors are thought to affect achievement. However, in this study, self-assessment reflected students' perceived evaluation of their abilities across the four language skills, which may not serve as actual learning outcomes and instead resemble self-efficacy beliefs. As previously discussed, using actual grades or past exam scores might reveal stronger relationships between classroom behaviors and achievement. Additionally, employing subscales such as behavioral, emotional, cognitive, and social engagement separately can help clarify more detailed links between each engagement subscale and other variables, such as SRL strategy use and self-assessment.

As previously demonstrated by Wang and Bai (2023), our findings indicate that parents' beliefs exert a considerable influence on their children's beliefs. Although we did not directly examine the relationship between parents' and children's goal orientations, the pathways through which children's different goal orientations (valuing

learning English as an academic subject and learning communicative English) affect their L2 classroom engagement are distinct. When parents become involved in their children's English learning and share experiences with them at home, children may further internalize parents' beliefs through their actions. This potential relationship may warrant further investigation.

Theoretical Implications

These insights yield substantial theoretical implications for parenting and L2 learning research. In particular, within the triadic reciprocal causation system of the SCT framework, the findings provide empirical evidence for SCT in the context of young EFL learners, with parental involvement functions serving as an environmental factor, self-efficacy and goal orientation representing personal factors, and SRL strategy use and engagement falling under behavioral factors. By including parental factors as an environmental factor, this research broadens the application of SCT to contexts beyond the classroom. This integration offers fresh perspectives on how family dynamics interact with internal affective and cognitive processes in EFL YLs. By addressing these elements within the SCT framework, this study fills a significant gap in the literature, as the role of family influence in L2 learning has often been overlooked.

Practical Implications in the Classroom and at Home

This study has educational implications in the school environment. According to Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994), school involvement, which refers to parents' participation in school events and communication with teachers, is a key component of parental involvement. Considering that both teachers and parents are busy in their daily lives, they may face difficulty in engaging collaboratively in children's learning. However, homework may provide a potential opportunity for such collaboration. For instance, conducting research on cultural or traditional holidays and events around the world with parents can be an enjoyable way for children to learn about other cultures. This type of homework activity may also encourage meaningful conversations

between parents and children about different cultures. Instead of simply assigning tasks or worksheets to be completed at home, teachers can use homework as a tool to create opportunities that expand students' interests in learning English.

Regarding practical implications at home, when parents get involved in their children's L2 learning at home, they are encouraged to adopt autonomy-supportive instead of controlling behaviors. Parental autonomy support, which involves considering children's perspectives and offering meaningful choices, can foster their autonomous motivation to learn English (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Moreover, parents can enhance their children's self-efficacy through simple activities at home. Activities like sharing experiences of learning English with children and expressing interest in their progress can enhance children's perceived competence in L2 learning. Furthermore, providing children with opportunities to experience diverse values through English activities can help them develop different goal orientations and discover their own values in L2 learning. Despite providing several suggestions, many families may find it challenging to implement them at home. Family environments differ, and some families may struggle with limited resources or time. Nonetheless, all families should prioritize creating opportunities for open conversations about how children feel and think about learning, and what they want to improve. Parents and children are encouraged to collaborate to find enjoyable ways to learn English.

CONCLUSION

Using the SCT framework, this study examined and clarified the relationships between parental involvement and Japanese YLs' affective factors and cognitive processes in the L2 classroom. Therefore, the findings show how parents, as influential environmental factors, shape young EFL learners' personal learning goal orientations and boost their self-efficacy for L2 performance. These goal orientations and increased self-efficacy, in turn, raise the frequency of learning strategy use and encourage active participation in the L2 classroom, aligning with SCT's concept of reciprocal causation. These results highlight the usefulness of applying the SCT

framework to the context of parental involvement in EFL YLs' learning and contribute to the empirical extension of the theory. Parental involvement is crucial in shaping Japanese YLs' L2 learning behaviors and attitudes in classroom settings. This study found that parental involvement in children's L2 learning at home considerably impacts children's personal aspects, particularly regarding self-efficacy and goal orientations in the Japanese context. Additionally, it revealed that affective factors in children, such as self-efficacy and goal orientations, can lead to behaviors or attitudes in the L2 classroom alongside their perception of L2 grading and performance. Another major finding was that two distinct pathways to L2 learning behaviors within classroom settings stem from different goal orientations. Japanese YLs with goal-oriented with values for learning communicative English engage in L2 classroom activities with their peers. By contrast, children with goal-oriented values for learning English as an academic subject tend to use more learning strategies, such as SRL strategies. Using cognitive and metacognitive strategies in L2 learning can be a tool for engaging in L2 classroom activities. These findings provide insight into how parents influence L2 learning in Japanese YLs' classroom settings.

Owing to ethical concerns, this study did not use any form of external assessment for the evaluations, such as teachers' grading reports or results of English exams. Thus, self-assessment of L2 achievement was used as a measure of students' learning achievement. However, objective assessments to measure learners' performance outcomes may be preferable and can offer new insights into our research questions. Therefore, future research should include external assessments to measure learners' performance outcomes. Another limitation of this study is that potential biases in data collected from parents and children through web panels cannot be entirely ruled out. In this panel survey, parents first accessed the survey and then encouraged their children to participate. To reduce potential biases stemming from parents' intentions or strong desires for specific responses from their children, future research can, if possible, conduct surveys with children in controlled settings (e.g., schools) with larger sample sizes instead of relying on parent-led web-based surveys conducted at home.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank the anonymous reviewers for their insightful feedback and valuable suggestions.

Authors' Contributions

ST contributed to the design of the study and conducted data collection. Data analysis was performed by ST with support from OT. ST and OT collaborated on drafting the manuscript and contributed to the interpretation of the results. Both authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

Ethics Approval & Consent to Participate

This study was approved by the Faculty Research Ethics Committee of Kansai University, with which the authors are affiliated. The registered panel in the marketing company read the written instructions, including the study's purpose and details regarding the ethical handling of data. Only those who provided informed consent electronically were able to participate in the study.

Declaration of GenAI and AI-Assisted Technologies

In the preparation of this manuscript, the authors used ChatGPT 5.2 solely to improve the clarity and consistency of the language. The tool was not used to generate research content, data, analyses, or interpretations. After using this tool, the authors reviewed and revised the manuscript as needed, and take full responsibility for the content of the publication.

Funding

This study was supported by JSPS KAKENHI, Grant Number JP24K22484, which was granted to ST.

Data Availability Statement

The questionnaires and R code are available in IRIS at the following ULRS:

<https://www.iris-database.org/details/sPmGw-kTcek>

<https://www.iris-database.org/details/Uh144-GdLNm>

REFERENCES

- Alamer, A. (2025). Structural equation modeling (SEM) in L2 writing research: Simple tutorial and useful recommendations. *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rmal.2025.100202>

- Anam, S., & Stracke, E. (2016). Language learning strategies of Indonesian primary school students: In relation to self-efficacy beliefs. *System*, 60, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.05.001>
- Ansong, D., Eisensmith, S. R., Okumu, M., & Chowa, G. A. (2019). The importance of self-efficacy and educational aspirations for academic achievement in resource-limited countries: Evidence from Ghana. *Journal of Adolescence*, 70, 13–23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2018.11.003>
- Arndt, H. L. (2023). Construction and validation of a questionnaire to study engagement in informal second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 45(5), 1456–1480. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263122000572>
- Assor, A. (2012). Allowing choice and nurturing an inner compass: Educational practices supporting students' need for autonomy. In S. L. Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 421–439). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-2018-7_20
- Bai, B., Chao, G. C. N., & Wang, C. (2018). The relationship between social support, self-efficacy, and English language learning achievement in Hong Kong. *TESOL Quarterly*, 53(1), 208–221. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.439>
- Bai, B., & Wang, J. (2023). The role of growth mindset, self-efficacy and intrinsic value in self-regulated learning and English language learning achievements. *Language Teaching Research*, 27(1), 207–228. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820933190>
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191–215. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0033-295x.84.2.191>
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. Worth Publishers.
- Benesse Educational Research & Development Institute. (2014). *Sho chu gakusei no manabi ni kansuru jittai chosa 2014* [Parent–child survey on elementary and

junior high school students' learning 2014].

<https://berd.benesse.jp/shotouchutou/research/detail1.php?id=4340>.

Benesse Educational Research & Development Institute. (2024). *Kodomo no seikatsu to manabi ni kansuru oyako chosa 2015-2023* [Parent–child survey on children's lives and learning 2015-2023].

<https://benesse.jp/berd/special/datachild/datashu07.html>

Butler, Y. G. (2015). Parental factors in children's motivation for learning English: A case in China. *Research Papers in Education*, 30(2), 164–191.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2014.891643>

Byrne, B. M. (2016). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

Cai, Y., & Xing, K. (2023). Examining the mediation of engagement between self-efficacy and language achievement. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 46(3), 893–905. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2023.2217801>

Cancino, M., & Mera, S. (2022). Assessing the impact of teacher L2 use on learner self-efficacy perceptions: The case of Chilean elementary EFL learners. *TEFLIN Journal*, 33(1), 27–46. <http://doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v33i1/27-46>

Chen, M., & Mok, I. A. C. (2023). Perceived parental involvement influences students' academic buoyancy and adaptability: The mediating roles of goal orientations. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 14, 1–11.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1248602>

Choi, N., No, B., Jung, S., & Lee, S. E. (2019). What affects middle school students' English anxiety in the EFL context? Evidence from South Korea. *Education Sciences*, 9(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci9010039>

Chow, B. W.-Y., Chui, B. H.-T., Lai, M. W.-C., & Kwok, S. Y. C. L. (2017). Differential influences of parental home literacy practices and anxiety in English as a foreign language on Chinese children's English development. *International*

Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 20(6), 625–637.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2015.1062468>

Diseth, Å. (2011). Self-efficacy, goal orientations and learning strategies as mediators between preceding and subsequent academic achievement. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 21(2), 191–195.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2011.01.003>

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2020). *Innovations and challenges in language learning motivation*. Routledge.

Duchesne, S., & Ratelle, C. (2010). Parental behaviors and adolescents' achievement goals at the beginning of middle school: Emotional problems as potential mediators. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102(2), 497–507.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019320>

Fredricks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Paris, A. H. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(1), 59–109. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543074001059>

Goetze, J., & Driver, M. (2022). Is learning really just believing? A meta-analysis of self-efficacy and achievement in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 12(2), 233–259. <https://doi.org/10.14746/sslit.2022.12.2.4>

Golparvar, S. E., & Khafi, A. (2021). The role of L2 writing self-efficacy in integrated writing strategy use and performance. *Assessing Writing*, 47, 1–15.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2020.100504>

Gonzalez, A. R., Doan Holbein, M. F. D., & Quilter, S. (2002). High school students' goal orientations and their relationship to perceived parenting styles. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 27(3), 450–470.

<https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.2001.1104>

- Gonzalez-DeHass, A. R., Willems, P. P., & Holbein, M. F. D. (2005). Examining the relationship between parental involvement and student motivation. *Educational Psychology Review*, 17(2), 99–123. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-005-3949-7>
- Grolnick, W. S. (2015). Mothers' motivation for involvement in their children's schooling: Mechanisms and outcomes. *Motivation and Emotion*, 39(1), 63–73. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-014-9423-4>
- Grolnick, W. S., Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (1991). Inner resources for school achievement: Motivational mediators of children's perceptions of their parents. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(4), 508–517. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.83.4.508>
- Grolnick, W. S., & Slowiaczek, M. L. (1994). Parents' involvement in children's schooling: A multidimensional conceptualization and motivational model. *Child Development*, 65(1), 237–252. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1994.tb00747.x>
- Hair, J. F., Babin, B. J., Black, W. C., & Anderson, R. E. (2018). *Multivariate data analysis* (8th ed.). Cengage.
- He, T., Gou, W. J., & Chang, S. (2015). Parental involvement and elementary school students' goals, maladaptive behaviors, and achievement in learning English as a foreign language. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 39, 205–210. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2015.03.011>
- Hiver, P. (2022). Engaging the learner: Linking teaching practice to learners' engagement and development. In A. H. Al-Hoorie & F. Szabó (Eds.), *Researching language learning motivation: A concise guide* (pp. 51–59). Bloomsbury Academic. <https://doi.org/10.5040/9781350166912.ch-5>
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 1–55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118>

- Ikeda, M., Imai, H., & Takeuchi, O. (2019). An innovative approach to in-service teacher training for teaching English at Japanese public elementary schools. In H. Reinders, S. Ryan, & S. Nakamura (Eds.), *Innovation in language teaching and learning: The case of Japan* (pp. 257–282). Palgrave Macmillan.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-12567-7_13
- In'nami, Y., & Koizumi, R. (2011). Structural equation modeling in language testing and learning research: A review. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 8(3), 250–276. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15434303.2011.582203>
- Keith, T. Z., Troutman, G. C., Trivette, P. S., Keith, P. B., Bickley, P. G., & Singh, K. (1993). Does parental involvement affect eighth-grade student achievement? Structural analysis of national data. *School Psychology Review*, 22(3), 474–496.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02796015.1993.12085668>
- Khajavy, G. H. (2021). Modeling the relations between foreign language engagement, emotions, grit and reading achievement. In P. Hiver, A. H. Al-Hoorie, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Student engagement in the language classroom* (pp. 241–259). Multilingual Matters.
- Kim, J.-T., & Barrett, R. (2018). The role of learners' attitudes toward parental involvement in L2 English learning. *English Language Teaching*, 12(1), 18–29.
<https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v12n1p18>
- Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (4th ed.). Guilford Publications.
- Lambert, C., Philp, J., & Nakamura, S. (2017). Learner-generated content and engagement in second language task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 21(6), 665–680. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816683559>
- Lara, L., & Saracostti, M. (2019). Effect of parental involvement on children's academic achievement in Chile. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, Article 1464.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01464>

- Leeming, P., Vitta, J. P., Hiver, P., Hicks, D., & McLean, S. (2024). Willingness to communicate, speaking self-efficacy, and perceived communicative competence as predictors of second language spoken task production. *Language Learning*, 74(4), 917–949. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12640>
- Lin, X. (2019). Achievement goal orientations as predictors of self-regulated learning strategies of international ESL students. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 31(2), 214–223. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1224377.pdf>
- Liu, H. (2024). Demystifying the relationship between parental investment in learners' English learning and learners' L2 motivational self system in the Chinese context: A Bourdieusian capital perspective. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 104, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2023.102973>
- Liu, M., Noordin, N., Ismail, L., & Abdrahim, N. A. (2023). Relationship between student engagement and academic achievement in college English education for non-English majors in China. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 22(8), 203–232. <https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.22.8.12>
- McEown, K., & Sugita-McEown, M. (2019). Individual, parental, and teacher support factors of self-regulation in Japanese students. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 13(4), 389–401. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2018.1468761>
- Martins, L., Regueiro, B., Vieites, T., Rodríguez-Llorente, C., & Roldán, L. (2020). Perceived maternal behaviour and children's goal orientation. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 18(3), 523–548. <https://ojs.ual.es/ojs/index.php/EJREP/article/view/3315/3966>
- Mercer, S. (2022). Engagement: The active ingredient in language learning. In A. H. Al-Hoorie & F. Szabó (Eds.), *Researching language learning motivation: A*

concise guide (pp. 39–50). Bloomsbury Publishing.

<https://doi.org/10.5040/9781350166912.ch-4>

Mills, N. (2014). Self-efficacy in second language acquisition. In S. Mercer & M. Williams (Eds.), *Multiple perspectives on the self in SLA* (pp. 6–22). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783091362-003>

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT). (2017). *Shogakkou gakushu shidou youryo kaisetsu -Gaikokugo katsudou, gaikokugo hen* [National curriculum standard: Foreign language activities and foreign language]. Kairyukan.

Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW). (2022). *Kokumin seikatsu kiso chosa* [Comprehensive survey of living conditions]. <https://www.mhlw.go.jp/toukei/saikin/hw/k-tyosa/k-tyosa22/index.html>

National Institute for Educational Policy Research (NIER). (2021). *Reiwa 3nendo zenkoku gakuryoku gakushu jokyō chosa hogosya ni taisuru chosa kekka* [The results of the national survey of academic achievement in 2021]. https://www.nier.go.jp/21chousakekkahoukoku/kannren_chousa/pdf/21hogosha_summary.pdf

Noels, K. A. (2023). Self-determination theory and language learning. In R. M. Ryan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of self-determination theory* (pp. 619–637). Oxford University Press.

Oga-Baldwin, W. L. Q., & Fryer, L. K. (2021). Engagement growth in language learning classrooms: A latent growth analysis of engagement in Japanese elementary schools. In P. Hiver, A. H. Al-Hoorie, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Student engagement in the language classroom* (pp. 224–240). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788923613-015>

- Pintrich, P. R., Smith, D. A. F., Garcia, T., & McKeachie, W. J. (1991). *A manual for the use of the motivated strategies for learning questionnaire (MSLQ)*. University of Michigan.
- Pomerantz, E. M., Grolnick, W. S., & Price, C. E. (2005). The role of parents in how children approach achievement. In A. J. Elliot & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of competence and motivation* (pp. 259–278). The Guilford Press.
- Ramshe, M. H., Ghazanfari, M., & Ghonsooly, B. (2019). The role of personal best goals in EFL learners' behavioural, cognitive, and emotional engagement. *International Journal of Instruction*, 12(1), 1627–1638.
<https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2019.121103a>
- Reeve, J., & Jang, H. (2022). Agentic engagement. In A. L. Reschly & S. L. Christenson (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (2nd ed., pp. 95–107). Springer International Publishing.
- Reeve, J., & Tseng, C.-M. (2011). Agency as a fourth aspect of students' engagement during learning activities. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 36(4), 257–267. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2011.05.002>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2017). *Self-determination theory: Basic psychological needs in motivation, development, and wellness*. The Guilford Press.
- Skinner, E. A., & Belmont, M. J. (1993). Motivation in the classroom: Reciprocal effects of teacher behavior and student engagement across the school year. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 85(4), 571–581.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.85.4.571>
- Skinner, E., Furrer, C., Marchand, G., & Kindermann, T. (2008). Engagement and disaffection in the classroom: Part of a larger motivational dynamic? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100(4), 765–781. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012840>
- Someya, F., & Obermeier, A. (2023). Autonomy support, psychological needs satisfaction, academic engagement, and achievement in English learning. *LET*

Kansai Chapter Collected Papers, 21, 19–38.

https://doi.org/10.50924/letkansai.21.0_19

Svalberg, A. M.-L. (2009). Engagement with language: Interrogating a construct.

Language Awareness, 18(3–4), 242–258.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/09658410903197264>

Svalberg, A. M.-L. (2018). Researching language engagement; Current trends and future directions. *Language Awareness, 27*(1–2), 21–39.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2017.1406490>

Takeuchi, O., & Mizumoto, A. (2023). *Gaikokugo kyouiku kenkyu handbook* [The handbook of research in foreign language learning and teaching (3rd ed.)].

Shohakusha.

Tanaka, S. (2024). Role of parental involvement in EFL learners' academic outcomes: A meta-analytic review. *KGU Journal of Language and Literature, 31*(2), 55–82.

[https://kumagaku.repo.nii.ac.jp/record/2000338/files/bungaku31\(2\)-02.pdf](https://kumagaku.repo.nii.ac.jp/record/2000338/files/bungaku31(2)-02.pdf)

Tanaka, S., & Takeuchi, O. (2023). *Shogakkou jidou no eigo gakushu dokizuke ni oyobosu katei deno oya no kanyo no eikyo ni tsuite—Shitsuteki kenkyu kara no approach*. [Parental involvement and Japanese elementary school pupils' English learning motivation: A qualitative study]. *JES Journal, 23*, 4–19.

Tanaka, S., & Takeuchi, O. (2024). Sociocultural influences on young Japanese English learners: The impact of parents' beliefs on learning motivation. *Journal for the Psychology of Language Learning, 6*(1), 1–15.

<https://doi.org/10.52598/jpll/6/1/3>

Teng, M. F., & Wang, C. (2023). Assessing academic writing self-efficacy belief and writing performance in a foreign language context. *Foreign Language Annals, 56*(1), 144–169. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12638>

- Toyoda, H. (2003). *Kyobunsan kouzo bunseki gimon hen*. [Structural equation modeling: Questions]. Asakura Shoten.
- Wang, J., & Bai, B. (2023). Whose goal emphases play a more important role in ESL/EFL learners' motivation, self-regulated learning and achievement?: Teachers' or parents'. *Research Papers in Education*, 38(4), 520–542. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2022.2030395>
- Wang, X., Liu, Y., Ying, B., & Lin, J. (2023). The effect of learning adaptability on Chinese middle school students' English academic engagement: The chain mediating roles of foreign language anxiety and English learning self-efficacy. *Current Psychology*, 42(8), 6682–6692. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-02008-8>
- Wang, C., & Sun, T. (2020). Relationship between self-efficacy and language proficiency: A meta-analysis. *System*, 95, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102366>
- Wong, M. S.-L. (2005). Language learning strategies and language self-efficacy: Investigating the relationship in Malaysia. *RELC Journal*, 36(3), 245–269. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688205060050>
- Yang, K., Gan, Z., & Sun, M. (2024). EFL students' profiles of English reading self-efficacy: Relations with reading enjoyment, engagement, and performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688241268891>
- Yi, H., Tian, L., & Huebner, E. S. (2020). Mastery goal orientations and subjective well-being in school among elementary school students: The mediating role of school engagement. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 35(2), 429–450. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10212-019-00431-x>
- Zhang, Y., & Xu, J. (2024). An investigation into self-efficacy, anxiety, and L2 listening comprehension: The mediation of metacognitive awareness.

International Journal of Listening, 39(1), 83–97.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10904018.2024.2386290>

Zhou, J., Wang, S., & Wang, J. (2022). Investigating high schoolers' L2 writing anxiety, L2 writing self-efficacy, L2 writing self-regulated strategies, and L2 writing engagement: Relationships and mediator. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, Article 1012407. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1012407>

Zimmerman, B. J. (1986). Becoming a self-regulated learner: Which are the key subprocesses? *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 11(4), 307–313. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0361-476X\(86\)90027-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0361-476X(86)90027-5)

Zimmerman, B. J. (1989). A social cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81(3), 329–339. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.81.3.329>

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 82–91. <https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1016>

Zimmerman, B. J., Bandura, A., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1992). Self-motivation for academic attainment: The role of self-efficacy beliefs and personal goal setting. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29(3), 663–676. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312029003663>

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Table 4, Table 5, and Table 6

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Cronbach's α	95% CI lower	95% CI Upper	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. PPPI_Personal	2	2.90	0.96	.78	2.77	3.03	0.08	1.95
2. PPPI_Cognitive/intellectual	4	2.19	1.03	.84	2.07	2.31	0.48	2.17
3. CPPI_Personal	2	2.92	1.07	.79	2.80	3.05	-0.09	1.86
4. CPPI_Cognitive/intellectual	6	2.28	0.95	.84	2.17	2.39	0.32	2.16
5. Goal Orientation: Communication	6	3.42	1.03	.94	3.30	3.54	-0.63	2.78
6. Goal Orientation: Academic subject	6	3.11	0.99	.92	2.99	3.22	-0.26	2.54
7. Behavioral Engagement	5	3.18	0.97	.88	3.07	3.29	-0.44	2.82
8. Emotional Engagement	4	3.27	0.99	.88	3.16	3.39	-0.51	2.66
9. Cognitive Engagement	5	3.01	0.97	.90	2.90	3.12	-0.26	2.58
10. Social Engagement	5	3.28	0.91	.88	3.18	3.39	-0.62	3.33
11. SRL1: Metacognitive preparation for performance	8	3.01	0.99	.94	2.89	3.12	-0.16	2.57
12. SRL2: Cognitive organization of knowledge	7	2.64	1.00	.92	2.53	2.76	0.06	2.27
13. Self-efficacy	5	3.03	1.06	.93	2.91	3.16	-0.16	2.39
14. Self-assessment	5	3.19	1.02	.90	3.07	3.31	-0.25	2.48

Note. $N = 287$. PPPI = Parents' perception of parental involvement; CPPI = Children's perception of parental involvement. 95% CIs are for the mean.

Table 5. *Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Variables*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. PPPI_Personal	—													
2. PPPI_Cognitive/intellectual	.56	—												
3. CPPI_Personal	.75	.56	—											
4. CPPI_Cognitive/intellectual	.54	.86	.60	—										
5. Goal Orientation: Communication	.28	.37	.39	.49	—									
6. Goal Orientation: Academic subject	.33	.37	.41	.45	.79	—								
7. Behavioral Engagement	.30	.40	.37	.50	.81	.72	—							
8. Emotional Engagement	.32	.36	.40	.47	.79	.67	.87	—						
9. Cognitive Engagement	.34	.35	.40	.46	.72	.76	.84	.80	—					
10. Social Engagement	.29	.35	.41	.47	.75	.67	.86	.79	.82	—				
11. SRL1: Metacognitive preparation for performance	.33	.34	.42	.45	.67	.73	.79	.73	.85	.79	—			
12. SRL2: Cognitive organization of knowledge	.35	.40	.42	.46	.54	.64	.66	.61	.76	.65	.82	—		
13. Self-efficacy	.24	.34	.30	.43	.62	.59	.75	.70	.70	.68	.70	.61	—	
14. Self-assessment	.26	.39	.35	.46	.64	.60	.73	.65	.64	.66	.69	.61	.89	—

Note. $N = 287$. PPPI = Parents' perception of parental involvement; CPPI = Children's perception of parental involvement. All p -values of correlation coefficients are significant ($p < .001$).

Table 6. *Summary of Model Fit Indices of the Tested Models*

	Participants	Robust CFI	Robust TLI	Robust RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC	SABIC
Model 1 (Base model)	Parents and children	0.86	0.85	0.07 (90% CI: 0.07, 0.08)	0.16	37582.49	38054.56	37645.49
Model 2	Children	0.91	0.90	0.06 (90% CI: 0.06, 0.07)	0.06	32832.76	33249.94	32888.44

Note. AIC = Akaike's information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; SABIC = Sample-size adjusted BIC.

APPENDIX B. Comparison of data of the present study and national data in Japan based on family income

Household income for families with children (yen)	Present study (%)	National data by Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) (2022) (%)
Less than 2 million	1.7	4.6
2 million–less than 3 million	2.8	4.6
3 million–less than 4 million	6.6	6.7
4 million–less than 5 million	7.3	9.2
5 million–less than 6 million	11.8	11.5
6 million–less than 7 million	11.5	11.9
7 million–less than 8 million	11.2	11.3
8 million–less than 9 million	9.1	8.9
9 million–less than 10 million	6.6	7.5
10 million–less than 15 million	10.1	18.2
15 million–less than 20 million	2.8	3.6
20 million or more	0.6	2.1
Unknown	17.8	0.0

Note. Present study ($N = 287$), Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) (2022) 1,702 families with children under 18 years.

APPENDIX C. Comparison of data of the present study and national data in Japan based on parental educational background

Education	Present study	Data by National Institute for Educational Policy Research [NIER] (2021)	
		Fathers of elementary school pupils (%)	Mothers of elementary school pupils (%)
	%		
Junior high school	0.7	5.2	3.7
High school	15.3	30.1	28.7
Upper secondary specialized training school	0.0	0.8	0.8
National Institute of Technology	3.1	1.4	1.4
Professional training college	17.1	13.7	19.5
Junior college	20.9	1.8	20.2
College	40.8	34.3	21.8
Graduate school	2.0	5.8	1.6
Other	0.0	0.3	0.2
Missing	0.0	6.5	2.1

Note. Present study: $N = 287$; National Institute for Educational Policy Research (NIER) (2021): $N = 30,325$; of this, 90.2% are mothers, 8.1% are fathers, and 1.7% are others, including grandmothers (0.3%) and unknown (1.4%).

APPENDIX D. Comparison of data of the present study and national data in Japan based on number of children

Children	Present study (%)	National data by Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW, 2022) (%)
1 child	23.7	47.2
2 children	51.6	39.6
3 children or more	24.7	13.2

Note. Present study: $N = 287$; Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW; 2022): $N = 1,702$.

APPENDIX E. Occupations of parents in the present study

Occupation	(%)
Office worker	17.1
Office worker: Administrative position	2.4
Proprietor: CEO, executive	1.0
Government official (local), teacher, NPO	4.9
Temporary employee	4.2
Self-employed: Commerce and industry	3.1
Professional: Medical	5.6
Part-time worker	34.5
Homemaker	26.1
Unemployed	0.7
Other	0.3
Missing	0.0

Note. $N = 287$.

APPENDIX F. Summary of instruments used in present study

Region	(%)
Hokkaido · Tohoku	11.8
Kanto	31.7
Chubu	14.3
Kinki	24.7
Chugoku	5.9
Shikoku	2.8
Kyushu · Okinawa	8.7

Note. $N = 278$.

APPENDIX G. Summary of instruments used in the present study

	Variables (5-point Likert scale)	Sources	Sub-constructs
For parents (6 items)	Parents' perception of parental involvement (6 items)	Based on Grolnick & Slowiaczek (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal involvement (2 items) • Cognitive/intellectual involvement (4 items)
	Children's perception of parental involvement (8 items)	Based on Grolnick & Slowiaczek (1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal involvement (2 items) • Cognitive/intellectual involvement (6 items)
For children (65 items)	Children's self-efficacy for English classroom learning and performance (5 items)	Based on self-efficacy for learning and performance in MSLQ (Pintrich et al., 1991)	-
	Children's goal orientation: valued on learning communicative English (6 items)	Original	-
	Children's goal orientation: valued on learning English as an academic subject (6 items)	Original	-
	Children's self-regulated learning strategies in the English classroom (15 items)	Based on Benesse (2014), Pintrich et al. (1991) and original	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SRL1_metacognitive preparation for performance (8 items) • SRL2_cognitive organization of knowledge (7 items)
	L2 classroom engagement (19 items)	Based on Lambert et al. (2017), Reeve & Tseng (2011), Skinner & Belmont (1993), Skinner et al. (2008), Svalberg (2009), and original	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavioral engagement (5 items) • Emotional engagement (4 items) • Cognitive engagement (5 items) • Social Engagement (5 items)
	Children's self-assessment of their L2 achievement (5 items)	Original	-