The Relationship of Perfectionism and Emotion Regulation towards Academic Stress with the Moderator External Locus of Control

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ABSTRACT: This study aims to examine perfectionism, emotional regulation with academic stress moderated by external locus of control. The participants of this study were 122 students using quota sampling techniques. The research instrument used the academic stress scale, perfectionist scale, emotional regulation scale and external locus of control scale. Data were analyzed using multiple linear regression. The results of the analysis showed that there was no simultaneous relationship between perfectionism and emotional regulation with academic stress. Partially. There was also no relationship between perfectionism and academic stress as well as emotional regulation with academic stress. Furthermore, the results of moderated regression analysis found that external locus of control played a role as a moderator in emotional regulation against academic stress. However, it was not found among perfectionists against academic stress.

KEYWORDS: external locus of control; academic stress; perfectionist; emotional regulation.

I. INTRODUCTION

Entering college is a challenging transition for most students as it requires independent learning and resilience in navigating various academic activities (Putra & Ardi, 2024). Additionally, students must establish new relationships, live away from their close ones, develop different study habits, cope with the academic workload, and engage in organizations (Teixeira et al., 2022). Moreover, students face high standards, which often lead to academic stress (Leha et al., 2022). Continuous academic pressure can negatively impact students, such as procrastination in completing assignments (Anandari et al., 2024; Wardani et al., 2024), substance abuse (Fairleigh & Howard, 2024), psychosomatic disorders (Ibrahim et al., 2024; Teixeira et al., 2022), and even depression (Koppenborg et al., 2024).

Academic stress is a common phenomenon in higher education. According to Ibrahim et al. (2024), out of 350 students, 15% experienced high stress, while 71.2% faced moderate levels of stress. Similarly, Irvan et al. (2024)found that 11.8% of 720 first-year students across Indonesian universities exhibited academic stress tendencies. Furthermore, Andiarna & Kusumawati (2020) reported that almost 95% of the 285 students studied in various universities in Java experienced high stress. Kerr (2023) also revealed that out of 2,400 students in the United States, approximately 60% suffered from severe stress, leading some to drop out. More alarmingly, academic stress is strongly linked to depression and even suicidal tendencies (Dwi & Chairunnisa, 2023).

Interviews conducted by researchers indicated that students face multiple stressors during their academic journey. Factors such as challenging coursework, heavy assignments, and financial burdens are among the primary sources of stress. Seven students reported that the academic standards in some courses were mentally exhausting, while two admitted to overworking themselves to achieve their desired grades. Additionally, some students struggled with emotional regulation, often feeling overwhelmed, anxious, or frustrated when handling demanding coursework. Consequently, they became more prone to unhealthy behaviors, such as procrastination or giving up.

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that academic pressure can be detrimental if not properly managed. Gadzella & Masten (2005) define academic stress as a response to physical and emotional imbalance caused by academic demands. High personal standards can contribute to academic stress (Finley, 2020; Kahn et al., 2023; Leha et al., 2022; Marta et al., 2024). Additionally, poor time and emotion management can further aggravate academic stress, leading to decreased academic performance (Aryansah & Sari, 2021; Barus et al., 2024; Irvan et al., 2024; Podder & Mukherjee, 2016; Rashid, 2013; Sari et al., 2020) and may also be influenced by locus of control (Abdrbo et al., 2024; Boyraz et al., 2019; Karaman et al., 2018; Karaman & Watson, 2017; Saputra et al., 2021; Thomas & Sabu, 2024).

Several studies indicate that academic stress is prevalent among individuals with perfectionist tendencies (Finley, 2020; Kahn et al., 2023; Leha et al., 2022; Marta et al., 2024). Students set excessively high standards for themselves and feel anxious when

they fail to meet them (Leha et al., 2022). Perfectionism is closely linked to the fear of failure and excessive concern about others' judgments, further exacerbating academic stress (Finley, 2020). Perfectionist students tend to reject criticism and push themselves to achieve excellence to meet their goals (Mateus et al., 2021).

On the other hand, perfectionism can also serve as a motivational factor, as students perceive academic challenges as opportunities to build resilience and reduce stress levels (Stoeber & Otto, 2006). Kahn et al. (2023) found that perfectionism affects academic stress depending on locus of control. Specifically, an internal locus of control can heighten stress levels, as students believe they have full control over their academic burdens. Conversely, students with an external locus of control attribute academic challenges to external factors, which can lower their stress levels.

Besides perfectionism, emotional regulation is another factor correlated with academic stress (Aryansah & Sari, 2021; Barus et al., 2024; Irvan et al., 2024; Podder & Mukherjee, 2016; Rashid, 2013). Students who struggle with emotional regulation tend to feel more overwhelmed when facing academic demands (Anggraini & Widyastuti, 2022). Studies by Barus et al. (2024) and Sari et al. (2020) suggest that emotional regulation can either mitigate or exacerbate academic stress. Excessive emotional suppression drains mental energy, making students feel burdened by academic demands, ultimately increasing stress levels.

Negative emotional regulation, such as self-blame and focusing on negative experiences, fosters an internal locus of control. Ng et al. (2014) explained that an internal locus of control could impact mental health, as individuals feel solely responsible for their failures, making stress management difficult. In contrast, those with an external locus of control tend to blame others and deny personal accountability (Podder & Mukherjee, 2016). Rashid (2013) stated that locus of control moderates stress-coping strategies, with individuals who have an internal locus of control being more prone to stress due to their sense of responsibility and ineffective coping mechanisms. Meanwhile, an external locus of control may also increase stress when students adopt defensive coping strategies, such as blaming others or external circumstances.

A. *Main Problem*

Attending college is a source of pride for individuals, as it allows students to enhance their abilities through their chosen pursuits. However, this academic journey is not always smooth, as many students encounter various challenges that contribute to academic stress. These challenges include striving for high academic achievements, balancing studies with personal life, and meeting the expectations of parents and society, all of which can be overwhelming.

One of the primary triggers of academic stress is the heavy burden of assignments. Students often struggle with multiple tasks and tight deadlines, which can lead to increased stress levels (Mustikawati & Putri, 2018). In school, students generally have more flexibility in completing assignments, as deadlines are often more lenient compared to those in college (Ma et al., 2024). However, in higher education, students face greater expectations, stricter deadlines, and more complex academic demands (Teixeira et al., 2022).

Additionally, the pressure to attain high grades further contributes to stress (Leha et al., 2022). Many students find themselves competing with peers, leading to anxiety about failing to meet academic expectations. This pressure is particularly intense for perfectionist students, who set exceptionally high standards for themselves and experience stress when they fall (Flett et al., 2016). As a result, persistent anxiety regarding academic performance can negatively impact psychological well-being and heighten stress levels (Ibrahim et al., 2024).

Locus of control also plays a role in shaping students' responses to academic demands (Abdrbo et al., 2024). From a perfectionist standpoint, a dominant internal locus of control can increase stress levels, as students believe that their academic performance is entirely within their control. They feel personally responsible for their successes and failures, often setting excessively high standards, which can lead to stress and anxiety, particularly when they struggle to meet these expectations (Kahn et al., 2023).

Conversely, students with a dominant external locus of control perceive academic success as being influenced by external factors, which can lead to lower stress levels (Kahn et al., 2023). Since they attribute academic outcomes to outside influences rather than personal effort, they are more likely to accept failure as a result of uncontrollable external circumstances (Boysan & Kiral, 2017). This perception can help alleviate stress and anxiety in academic settings.

Chronic stress can significantly impact psychological well-being, and research suggests that emotional regulation is a key factor in how students manage academic stress (Alkharj et al., 2024). Students with strong emotional regulation skills tend to remain calm and focused under pressure, reducing their stress levels. In contrast, those who struggle with emotional regulation often feel overwhelmed, which exacerbates stress (Valencia & Christian, 2022). The inability to manage emotions effectively can interfere with task completion, creating a recurring cycle of stress that becomes difficult to break.

Moreover, locus of control influences emotional regulation. Students with an internal locus of control are generally more confident in handling academic situations and tend to use more effective emotional regulation strategies to cope with challenges (Khonya et al., 2022). However, an internal locus of control can also lead to heightened academic stress if students adopt ineffective coping mechanisms and become overly self-critical (Podder & Mukherjee, 2016).

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In contrast, students with an external locus of control may find it easier to navigate academic challenges by attributing difficulties to external factors. This perspective can sometimes help reduce stress, as students feel less personally responsible for negative outcomes (Podder & Mukherjee, 2016). However, it can also lead to emotional regulation difficulties, as students may believe that their efforts are futile. This mindset can increase vulnerability to feelings of hopelessness or dissatisfaction when academic situations do not go as expected, ultimately contributing to academic stress (Rashid, 2013).

B. *Hypothesis*

Based on the formulation of the problem and theoretical basis that has been explained above, the hypothesis proposed by the researcher is as follows:

1. There is a relationship between perfectionism and emotional regulation with academic stress
2. There is a positive relationship between perfectionism and academic stress
3. There is a negative relationship between emotional regulation and academic stress
4. There is a relationship between external locus of control as a moderator between perfectionism and academic stress
5. There is a relationship between external locus of control as a moderator between emotional regulation and academic stress

II. THEORITICAL REVIEW

A. *Academic Stress*

Selye (1956) first introduced the concept of stress, defining it as a physiological response to threats. He described stress as a non-specific bodily reaction to any demand, consisting of three stages: the alarm reaction (marked by increased adrenaline and nervous system activation), the resistance stage (where the body attempts to adapt to stress), and the exhaustion stage (when prolonged stress depletes the body's ability to cope, leading to fatigue and increased health risks). In contrast, Lazarus (1966) emphasized the psychological aspects of stress, introducing appraisal (how individuals perceive a situation as threatening) and coping (the strategies used to manage threats). The application of stress theory in education was explored by Gadzella (1994) who defined academic stress as the emotional, physical, and behavioral responses to academic demands. Gadzella & Masten (2005) further explained that stress arises when there is an imbalance between academic demands and an individual's coping abilities, leading to symptoms such as anxiety, fatigue, concentration difficulties, and reduced motivation. Gadzella et al. (2012) noted that academic stress is influenced not only by workload but also by external factors like parental expectations and career concerns.

However, Agolla & Ongori (2009) argued that stress is not always negative, as it can enhance motivation and productivity in education. Folkman (2008) introduced the concept of benefit finding (identifying positive aspects of stress), benefit reminding (recalling personal goals to stay motivated), and reordering priorities (adjusting goals when necessary). Well-managed stress can foster creativity, innovation, and critical thinking, enabling students to develop effective problem-solving skills (Liu et al., 2024). Beiter et al. (2015) described academic stress as mental and emotional pressure arising from high academic demands, which peaks during exams (Bedewy & Gabriel, 2015). Understanding academic stress from both individual and environmental perspectives is crucial for effective stress management (Divaris et al., 2008).

B. *Perfectionistic*

Horney (2013) was the initial initiator in the study of perfectionism, identifying it as a symptom of pathology and a personality disorder that traps individuals in a cycle of dissatisfaction, anti-criticism, and fear of failure, potentially leading to psychological illness. Branfman & Edmund (1955) further classified perfectionism as part of obsessive-compulsive tendencies due to its repetitive behaviors aimed at reducing anxiety related to failure or criticism. Hollender (1965) built on Horney's description, defining perfectionism as a psychological condition where individuals feel compelled to achieve perfection. Beck (1976) added that perfectionism can be natural but often becomes unreasonable due to unrealistic standards, leading to dissatisfaction and increased stress. Hamachek (1978) distinguished between normal perfectionism, which fosters motivation and acceptance of failure, and neurotic perfectionism, which is driven by compulsive, unrealistic goals and excessive self-criticism.

Burns (1980) reinforced the negative impact of perfectionism, linking it to psychological issues like depression and anxiety, describing it as an endless pursuit of impossible goals where self-worth is solely based on achievement. Pacht (1984) highlighted perfectionism as maladaptive, emphasizing that it is often rooted in fear of failure and negative judgment, leading to insecurity and emotional distress. Frost et al. (1990) introduced a multidimensional perspective, identifying adaptive aspects like high personal standards and maladaptive elements such as excessive concern over mistakes and parental criticism. Other scholars also categorized perfectionism differently, such as Adkins & Parker (1996) with active and passive perfectionism, Rhéaume et al. (2000) with functional and dysfunctional, and Stumpf & Parker (2000) with healthy and unhealthy perfectionism.

Expanding on this, Flett & Hewitt (2020) proposed a broader multidimensional model, dividing perfectionism into self-oriented perfectionism (setting high standards for oneself), other-oriented perfectionism (expecting perfection from others), and socially prescribed perfectionism (perceiving external expectations to be perfect). While perfectionism is often associated with negative outcomes, Stoeber & Otto (2006) suggested that it can have a positive side, distinguishing between perfectionistic

strivings (the motivation to achieve high standards) and perfectionistic concerns (the fear of failing to meet those standards, leading to psychological distress). Gaudreau et al. (2024) further explained that perfectionism can be positive when focused on self-improvement without pressure (Excellencism) but becomes harmful when driven by fear of failure (Perfectionism).

C. *Emotion Regulation*

Initially Freud (1923), in psychoanalytic theory, first recognized the significance of emotional regulation, particularly in the context of defense mechanisms, where individuals manage unpleasant or unacceptable emotions through repression and sublimation (Freud, 1966). Lazarus (1966) later expanded on this by introducing the appraisal theory, suggesting that emotions arise from how individuals evaluate situations, which can be regulated by altering their perspective. Emotional regulation, as defined by Lazarus (1991), is an active process involving changes in how individuals interpret events that trigger emotions, ultimately modifying their emotional responses. Poor emotional regulation, or emotional dysregulation, has been linked to various psychological issues, including borderline personality disorder (Gratz & Roemer, 2008) and self-harming behaviors (Spitzen et al., 2022). Additionally, it is associated with impulsivity, interpersonal conflicts, and reduced quality of life (McLaughlin et al., 2011).

Cognitive emotion regulation plays a crucial role in helping individuals re-evaluate negative experiences, enabling them to manage emotions more effectively. Garnefski & Kraaij (2007) emphasized that this involves awareness of emotional responses and the ability to reframe negative experiences positively. Shields & Cicchetti (1997) described emotional regulation as the capacity to maintain or enhance emotional drives, which is fundamental to social and emotional development. Aldao (2013) highlighted the importance of being conscious of past emotional experiences, while Gross (1998) introduced a theoretical framework outlining emotion regulation strategies at different stages—from antecedent-focused strategies that regulate emotions before they fully emerge to response-focused strategies applied after emotions are experienced. Thompson (1994) defined emotional regulation as an internal and external process responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions based on their intensity and duration, illustrating how students, for instance, may regulate emotions by recalling past achievements to cope with academic stress.

Saarni & Camras (2022) further explained that emotional regulation is shaped by early life experiences, where interactions with caregivers play a critical role in developing emotional management skills that continue evolving into adulthood. Social influences, such as parental guidance and cultural norms, contribute to emotional regulation, which later involves seeking emotional support or using humor in challenging situations. Lantrip et al. (2016) noted that the intensity and duration of emotions significantly impact an individual's ability to regulate them, with stronger emotions being harder to manage. Eldesouky & English (2018) added that emotional regulation involves not only controlling emotions but also adjusting their intensity and duration to remain within manageable limits. Lastly, Phillips & Power (2007) argued that focusing solely on emotion-based coping can lead to worse outcomes compared to problem-focused strategies, emphasizing the importance of adaptive regulation techniques.

D. *External Locus of Control*

The concept of locus of control was first introduced by Rotter (1966) within the framework of social learning theory, which highlights the role of interactions between individuals and their environment in shaping behavior (Verdhan, 2024). In this context, locus of control is seen as a dynamic construct that can change based on reinforcement from individual experiences (Kormanik & Rocco, 2009). It refers to individuals' beliefs about their ability to control life events (Rotter, 1966). Rotter (1975) categorized locus of control into two types: internal locus of control, where individuals believe their efforts determine outcomes, and external locus of control, where outcomes are attributed to external factors such as fate, luck, or powerful forces beyond personal control.

Expanding on this, Levenson (1973) proposed a multidimensional model, dividing locus of control into three types: internal locus of control, in which individuals rely on personal actions and decisions; external-powerful others, where outcomes are seen as influenced by authoritative figures such as teachers or doctors; and external-chance, which attributes outcomes to fate, luck, or coincidence. Spector (1988) applied a similar definition within organizational settings, emphasizing belief in one's ability to control life events. Virgana & Lapasau (2024) further described locus of control as encompassing self-control, teamwork awareness, initiative, responsibility, and diligence. Lefcourt (1991) emphasized that locus of control influences how individuals interpret situations and respond behaviorally. In the academic sphere, locus of control is linked to intelligence and effort internally, while externally, it is influenced by luck, exam regulations, and subjective assessments (Khalid & Hasan, 2014)

III.METHOD

A. *Participants*

The population in this study is according to the criteria active college students in Surabaya City. The total number of active college students in the Surabaya City area from 2022 to 2023 was 307.649 college students, consisting of 273.229 college students under the Ministry of Education and Culture, in Ministry of Religion and Culture 34.464 college students (BPS Provinsi Jawa Timur, 2024). The sample using quota sampling and sample size using G power 3.1.9.7 based on an effect size of 0,15 and an

alpha error probability of 0,05 with a power of 0,95 number of predictors as many as 3, the result is the minimum number of research samples is 119 people. Our sample comprised 122 active college students in Surabaya city. Most participants (53%) identified as women, 47% identified as men. The sample predominantly identified as a bachelor's degree 93% and a master's degree 7%.

B. *Instruments*

  1) Academic Stress

  The measuring instrument use based on theory of Rustam & Tentama (2020) reflect respons of physiologic, cognitive, behavior and emotion. Items are rated on a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The results of the items use scale test after conducting expert jugdement on 7 rater and then alpha was 0,92 with valid aitem 31.

  2) Perfectionistic

  The measuring instrument used based on the theory of Hewitt & Flett (1991) reflects self-oriented, socially prescribed, and other-oriented perfectionism. Items are rated on a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The results of the items used a scale test after conducting expert judgment on 7 raters and then alpha was 0,83 with valid item 22.

  3) Emotion Regulation

  The measuring instrument used based on the theory of Gratz & Roemer (2008) reflects acceptance, goal-directed behavior, impulse, awareness, strategies, and clarity. Items are rated on a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The results of the items used a scale test after conducting expert judgment on 7 raters and then alpha was 0,83 with valid item 24.

  4) External Locus of Control

  The measuring instrument used based on the theory of Levenson (1973) reflects external-powerful others and external-chance. Items are rated on a 5-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The results of the items used a scale test after conducting expert judgment on 7 raters and then alpha was 0,80 with valid item 21.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *Results*

 1) There is a relationship between perfectionism and emotional regulation with academic stress

Table 1 First Hypothesis

F	p	Result
0,608	0,515	Positive correlation is not significant

Source: Output JAMOVI Versi 2.5.3

 The first hypothesis in this study states that perfectionism and emotional regulation are jointly related to academic stress. The test results can be seen that the significance value is 0.515 and the F count value is 0.608 so it can be concluded that the first hypothesis is rejected which means there is no relationship between perfectionism and emotional regulation with academic stress.

 2) There is a positive relationship between perfectionism and academic stress

Table 2 Second Hypothesis

Estimate	p	Result
-0,076	0,574	Negative correlation is not significant

Source: Output JAMOVI Versi 2.5.3

 The test results show an estimate value of -0.076 with a p value of 0.579 (p> 0.05) so it can be concluded that the second hypothesis which states that there is a positive relationship between perfectionism and academic stress is rejected. This means that there is no relationship between perfectionism and academic stress and academic stress is not triggered by perfectionism.

 3) There is a negative relationship between emotional regulation and academic stress

Table 3 Third Hypothesis

Estimate	p	Result
0,090	0,417	Positive correlation is not significant

Source: Output JAMOVI Versi 2.5.3

 The third hypothesis in this study is that there is a negative relationship between emotional regulation and academic stress. The results of the hypothesis test show an estimate value between emotional regulation and academic stress of 0.090 and a p value of

0.417 (p <0.05) so that the third hypothesis is rejected. This means that there is no relationship between emotional regulation and academic stress and academic stress is not triggered by emotional regulation.

4) There is a relationship between external locus of control as a moderator between perfectionism and academic stress

Table 4 Fourth Hypothesis

Estimate	p	Result
-0,005	0,680	Negative correlation is not significant

Source: Output JAMOVI Versi 2.5.3

The fourth hypothesis in this study is that there is a relationship between external locus of control as a moderator in the relationship between perfectionism and academic stress. The results of the hypothesis test show a significant value between perfectionism and academic stress of 0.680 (p <0.05) with an estimate value of -0.005, which means that the fourth hypothesis is rejected, so it can be concluded that external locus of control cannot be a strengthener or weakener between perfectionism and academic stress.

5) There is a relationship between external locus of control as a moderator between emotional regulation and academic stress

Table 5 Fifth Hypothesis

Estimate	p	Result
-0,042	0,001	Negative correlation is significant

Source: Output JAMOVI Versi 2.5.3

The fifth hypothesis in this study is that there is a relationship between external locus of control as a moderator in the relationship between emotional regulation and academic stress. The results of the hypothesis test show a significant value between emotional regulation and academic stress of 0.001 (p <0.05) with an estimate value of -0.042, which means that the fourth hypothesis can be accepted, so it is concluded that external locus of control can be a moderator between emotional regulation and academic stress. Students who have good emotional regulation and tend to experience external locus of control are able to reduce the level of academic stress, conversely, if students who have poor emotional regulation and do not tend to experience external locus of control can increase the level of academic stress.

B. *Discussion of Research Results*

The research revealed perfectionist and emotional regulation inconsistency toward academic stress, this finding is different from the common view that perfectionistic often contributes to increased stress, especially in academic contexts (Finley, 2020; Kim et al., 2017; Leha et al., 2022; Rice et al., 2015). Stoeber & Otto (2006) explained that perfectionism can be manifested in the form of high expectations or standards for oneself, but this does not always mean that one feels excessive pressure. Stoeber & Otto (2006) continued that students who consider academic pressure to be a motivation or for self-achievement (perfectionistic strivings) such as good planning and focusing on long-term goals, may still be able to manage stress even though they have perfectionist tendencies.

Furtehmore in emotional regulation, research conducted by Barus et al. (2024); Sari et al. (2020) showed that emotional regulation can have a positive effect on academic stress. Students who focus too much on controlling their emotions will drain a lot of energy, so that individuals feel burdened by academic demands which actually increase their academic stress. which stated that individuals with good emotion regulation skills are better equipped to manage academic burdens and view them as motivation for self-improvement. Conversely, studies by Barus et al. (2024) and Sari et al. (2020) suggest that emotion regulation can have a paradoxical effect on academic stress. Students who focus excessively on controlling their emotions may deplete their mental energy, making them feel even more burdened by academic demands, ultimately exacerbating their academic stress.

The fourth hypothesis, which proposed that external locus of control moderates the relationship between perfectionism and academic stress, was rejected. This outcome is attributed to the fact that perfectionism is more strongly associated with internal factors, such as self-expectations and self-criticism, rather than perceptions of external control. Perfectionists tend to emphasize personal control over academic outcomes, making external locus of control an insignificant moderator. Students with an external locus of control tend to believe that their academic results are determined by external factors such as fate or the influence of others, making them more susceptible to academic pressure (Saputra et al., 2021). However, the locus of control variable was not found to moderate the relationship between perfectionism and academic stress. This result aligns with Kahn et al. (2023), who

stated that individuals with an external locus of control are generally more vulnerable to stress due to their limited perception of control over their circumstances.

The fifth hypothesis, which suggested that external locus of control moderates the relationship between emotion regulation and academic stress, was accepted. This finding indicates that the effect of emotion regulation on academic stress is influenced by external locus of control. Individuals with a high external locus of control tend to rely on external factors such as fate, luck, or authority figures. In this context, emotion regulation becomes less relevant in managing academic pressure, as students perceive the situation as beyond their control. This result supports theories suggesting that an external locus of control can heighten an individual's sensitivity to stress, particularly in situations they perceive as uncontrollable (Levenson, 1973). Furthermore, this finding aligns with previous research indicating that individuals with an external locus of control are more prone to psychological distress, as they often feel powerless to influence their circumstances (Rashid, 2013).

External locus of control, particularly external chance and external powerful, has a significant impact on emotion regulation and academic stress. In the case of external chance, students who believe that their academic outcomes depend on luck or fate often lose motivation to make an effort, as they assume that effort does not guarantee success. This mindset reduces the effectiveness of stress management strategies and disrupts goal-directed behavior (Gratz & Roemer, 2004). These students tend to be impulsive in completing tasks and disregard early signs of stress, such as anxiety and fatigue, thereby exacerbating academic pressure. In such situations, acceptance can help students manage frustration caused by external factors, preventing further stress accumulation.

Meanwhile, in the case of external powerful, students feel that their success is determined by influential authority figures such as professors or parents. The pressure to meet external expectations often diminishes emotional awareness and lowers self-confidence. Although students may have clarity about their academic responsibilities, their reliance on external validation leads them to prioritize strategies that align with others' expectations rather than those that suit their personal needs. This can result in excessive anxiety, feelings of helplessness, and disruptions in goal-directed behavior. In both contexts, effective emotion regulation strategies, such as self-acceptance and emotional awareness, can help students mitigate the negative impact of academic stress.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, this study emphasized that perfectionism and emotion regulation are closely intertwined with academic stress, manifesting as psychological and physiological reactions among students facing intense academic demands, whether routine pressures or unexpected challenges. To manage perfectionism more effectively, students are encouraged to prioritize the learning process and personal growth rather than fixating solely on achieving flawless outcomes, as this shift can alleviate undue pressure during academic pursuits. Enhancing emotional regulation skills through workshops or training programs to foster awareness, understanding, and effective management of emotions is also crucial.

For students with an external locus of control, cultivating the belief in personal agency and its impact on outcomes is recommended, which can be fostered through reflection on past successes. Universities are advised to offer counseling services focused on managing academic stress, improving emotional regulation, and addressing perfectionism, providing essential psychological support. Integrating workshops or training sessions on stress management and emotional regulation into student development initiatives can empower students to navigate academic challenges more adeptly. Additionally, universities should consider implementing more adaptive academic supervision strategies, such as flexible scheduling and intensified guidance, particularly for students exhibiting signs of heightened academic stress.

Future research should explore additional variables like coping strategies, social support, or self-efficacy that may influence the interplay between perfectionism, emotion regulation, and academic stress. Longitudinal studies are recommended to track how these relationships evolve, offering deeper insights, while involving diverse student populations across different academic programs and educational levels can enhance the generalizability of findings from this study.

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