

# Students' Perception of the Parental Responsiveness and Control towards their Academic Performance

Faith Ann Amihan<sup>1</sup>, Alfie M. Ardillo<sup>2</sup>, Loi P. Canino<sup>1</sup>, Josefa Jean C. Ciocon<sup>1</sup>, Jimylyn C. Nable<sup>1</sup>, and Junlee R. Oga<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> University of the Visayas

<sup>2</sup> Independent Researcher

\*[amihanfaith4@gmail.com](mailto:amihanfaith4@gmail.com), [alfiemardillo@gmail.com](mailto:alfiemardillo@gmail.com), [lcainino68@gmail.com](mailto:lcainino68@gmail.com), [cioconjean@gmail.com](mailto:cioconjean@gmail.com), [cabusajimylyn6@gmail.com](mailto:cabusajimylyn6@gmail.com), [junleeroga@gmail.com](mailto:junleeroga@gmail.com)

Date Submitted:

**April 21, 2026**

Date Accepted:

**May 14, 2026**

Date Published:

**June 11, 2026**

DOI:

**10.5281/zenodo.20644323**

## ABSTRACT

This study examined senior high school students' perceptions of maternal and paternal responsiveness and control and analyzed their association with academic performance. An ex post facto quantitative design was used among 245 senior high school students from a public high school in Cebu Province, Philippines. Participants answered a modified version of the Scale of Parenting Style developed by Gafoor and Kurukkan (2014), while academic performance was represented by the students' reported grade point averages. Frequency counts, percentages, paired-samples t-tests, and multiple linear regression were used. The students had an average grade of 88.00 (SD = 4.35). Maternal control (M = 72.23, SD = 12.52) was significantly higher than paternal control (M = 68.96, SD = 14.45),  $t(244) = 3.904, p < .001$ . Maternal responsiveness (M = 68.40, SD = 12.14) was also significantly higher than paternal responsiveness (M = 64.82, SD = 13.80),  $t(244) = 4.294, p < .001$ . In the reported regression model, parental control positively predicted academic performance ( $B = .055, \beta = .300, p = .012$ ), whereas paternal responsiveness was not a significant predictor ( $B = -.023, \beta = -.118, p = .321$ ). The findings underscore the importance of balanced parental guidance, supportive communication, and age-appropriate monitoring during adolescence. Schools may strengthen family engagement initiatives while future studies examine a broader range of family and contextual variables.

**Keywords:** *academic performance, parental control, parental responsiveness, parenting style, senior high school students, family engagement*

## INTRODUCTION

The implementation of the senior high school program in the Philippines created a distinct educational stage in which adolescents prepare for tertiary education, employment, or further technical training. Senior high school students navigate academic requirements while also experiencing the developmental transitions associated with adolescence. These transitions include biological, cognitive, social, and emotional changes that may shape learning behavior, motivation, and adjustment (Akelaitis, 2015; Sawyer et al., 2018). Within this context, families remain important sources of guidance and support.

Parenting style provides a useful framework for understanding how parents guide adolescents. Baumrind (1971) described patterns of parental authority that were later organized by Maccoby and Martin (1983) around two major dimensions: responsiveness and control or demandingness. Responsiveness refers to nurturance, affection, involvement, and support, whereas control refers to monitoring, discipline, behavioral expectations, and

maturity demands (Baumrind, 1978, 1989). These dimensions may be experienced differently in relationships with mothers and fathers and may influence how adolescents respond to academic responsibilities.

Although studies have linked parental involvement and behavioral control with academic outcomes, relationships may vary according to family context and the balance between guidance and autonomy. This study therefore examined senior high school students' perceptions of maternal and paternal responsiveness and control and assessed their association with academic performance in a public high school in Cebu Province. The study sought to describe the perceived levels of parental responsiveness and control, compare maternal and paternal scores, and determine whether the reported parenting dimensions predicted students' grade point averages.

## **Literature Review**

### ***Parenting Styles and Adolescent Development***

Parenting style refers to the emotional climate created by parents' attitudes and practices toward their children. Darling and Steinberg (1993) distinguished parenting style from specific parenting practices, while Maccoby and Martin (1983) organized parenting along the dimensions of responsiveness and demandingness. A high or low combination of these dimensions yields commonly discussed parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent or permissive, and neglectful. These patterns help explain how adolescents experience structure, support, discipline, and autonomy within the family.

Adolescence is a period of increasing independence, but it does not eliminate the need for parental guidance. Sawyer et al. (2018) described adolescence as a developmental stage situated between childhood and adulthood, while Akelaitis (2015) emphasized the social-emotional competencies needed for healthy adjustment. During this period, parental practices may influence how students regulate behavior, respond to challenges, and manage academic demands.

### ***Parental Responsiveness and Academic Performance***

Parental responsiveness includes affection, involvement, emotional availability, and support for the child's individual needs (Baumrind, 1978). Repeated and meaningful exchanges between parents and children create opportunities for guidance and reinforcement (Lohaus et al., 2001). During adolescence, emotional connectedness remains important because students seek autonomy while still relying on stable family relationships. Youniss and Smollar (1985) emphasized that connectedness with parents continues to guide adolescent behavior even as direct supervision decreases.

Responsive parenting has been associated with academic adjustment and self-confidence. Bean et al. (2003) linked parental support and behavioral control with adolescent academic achievement and self-esteem, while Ahuja and Goyal (2005) and Rogers et al. (2009) emphasized the value of parental involvement in school achievement. Jeynes (2010) likewise highlighted the role of parental expectations and involvement in supporting educational outcomes. These findings suggest that responsiveness may shape students' willingness to engage with learning tasks and cope with academic demands.

### ***Parental Control, Monitoring, and Academic Performance***

Parental control refers to monitoring, firm and consistent discipline, household rules, and maturity expectations (Baumrind, 1989). Behavioral control may help adolescents regulate impulses and meet responsibilities when it is applied consistently and respectfully. However, excessive or coercive control may limit autonomy and contribute to adjustment difficulties. For this reason, the quality and degree of control are important considerations when examining academic outcomes.

Previous research has reported associations between behavioral control and academic achievement (Gray & Steinberg, 1999; Steinberg et al., 1989). Fernández et al. (2017) emphasized that parental involvement may be more constructive when it includes communication rather than excessive control. Grolnick et al. (2002) and Grolnick and Gurland (2005) also showed that pressure and perceived threats may influence controlling parental practices. Taken together, the literature indicates that parental control must be interpreted alongside responsiveness and the adolescent's developmental need for autonomy.

### Conceptual Framework

The study treated parental responsiveness and parental control as dimensions of parenting behavior perceived by senior high school students. Maternal and paternal responsiveness and control were examined in relation to academic performance, represented by the students' grade point averages. Figure 1 summarizes this relationship.

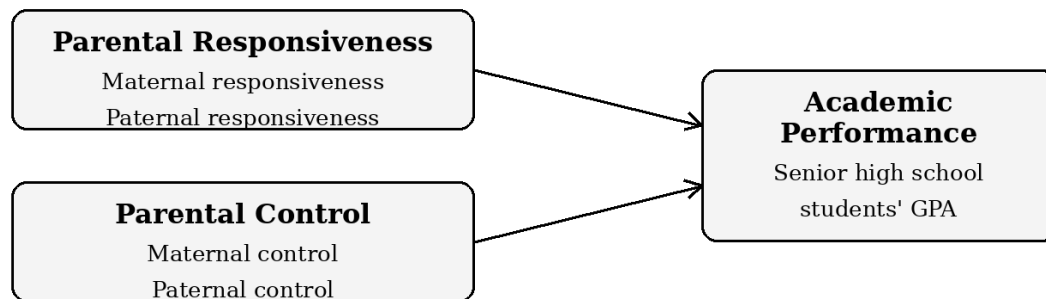


Figure 1. *Conceptual Framework of the Study*

## METHODS

### Research Design

The study used an ex post facto quantitative research design. As described by Cohen et al. (2000), this design was appropriate because the researchers examined naturally occurring parenting perceptions and previously obtained academic grades without manipulating the variables. The study used a survey questionnaire to describe parental responsiveness and control and multiple linear regression to assess the reported relationships between parenting dimensions and academic performance.

### Research Locale

The study was conducted in a public high school in Toledo City, Cebu Province, Philippines. The school offered senior high school strands under the Academic and Technical-Vocational-Livelihood tracks. Data collection was conducted through online platforms to reduce physical contact during the COVID-19 period.

### Participants and Sampling Technique

The target population consisted of 670 senior high school students. Using a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error, the required sample was 245 students. The source manuscript identified convenience sampling as the method used to recruit available students who voluntarily participated in the online survey.

Table 1. *Population and Sample Size*

Population	Sampling Frame	Sample Size
Senior high school students	670	245

### Research Instrument

The study used a modified version of the Scale of Parenting Style developed by Gafoor and Kurukkan (2014). Permission to modify and use the instrument was secured from the original authors, as reported in the source manuscript. The questionnaire was based on Baumrind's (1971) parenting typology and the dimensions proposed by Maccoby and Martin (1983). Responses were recorded on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (all the time). The instrument generated separate scores for maternal responsiveness, paternal responsiveness, maternal control, paternal control, overall parental responsiveness, and overall parental control.

### Data Gathering Procedure

The researchers prepared the modified questionnaire, secured the required institutional permissions, obtained authorization from the school principal, and distributed the online survey link through group chats with

the assistance of class advisers. Participants received information about the study and were informed that participation was voluntary. The responses were collected electronically and organized for statistical analysis.

### Data Analysis

Frequency counts and percentages were used to summarize the respondents' profile. Means and standard deviations described parenting scores and academic performance. Paired-samples t-tests compared maternal and paternal control scores and maternal and paternal responsiveness scores. Multiple linear regression was used to examine the reported predictors of grade point average. Statistical significance was assessed at the .05 level.

### Ethical Consideration

The source manuscript states that institutional ethics approval was obtained and that the study followed the Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association, 2013). Participants received information about the study's purpose, procedures, confidentiality safeguards, and voluntary nature before answering the questionnaire. No financial incentive was provided. Because the reported age range includes learners younger than 18 years, the researchers should confirm the documented assent and parental or guardian consent procedures and insert the verified ethics clearance reference before final journal submission.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Respondent Profile and Academic Performance

The study involved 245 senior high school students. The source manuscript reported that the respondents ranged from 16 to 25 years old and that 18-year-old students formed the largest group, accounting for 53.47% of the sample. The students' grade point averages ranged from 75 to 98, with an average of 88.00 (SD = 4.35). These values provide the academic-performance context for interpreting the parenting dimensions.

Table 2. *Summary of Respondent Profile and Academic Performance*

Indicator	Reported Value
Number of respondents	245
Largest age group	18 years old (53.47%)
Lowest reported GPA	75
Highest reported GPA	98
Mean GPA	88.00
Standard deviation of GPA	4.35

### Maternal and Paternal Control

Maternal control obtained a higher mean score ( $M = 72.23$ ,  $SD = 12.52$ ) than paternal control ( $M = 68.96$ ,  $SD = 14.45$ ). The paired-samples t-test showed that this difference was statistically significant,  $t(244) = 3.904$ ,  $p < .001$ . The finding indicates that students perceived stronger monitoring, discipline, or behavioral expectations from mothers than from fathers. This pattern is consistent with literature noting that mothers are often more directly involved in students' school routines and daily responsibilities (Pleck, 1997).

Table 3. *Comparison of Maternal and Paternal Control Scores*

Parenting Dimension	M	SD	t	df	p
Maternal control	72.23	12.52			
Paternal control	68.96	14.45	3.904	244	< .001

### Maternal and Paternal Responsiveness

Maternal responsiveness was also higher ( $M = 68.40$ ,  $SD = 12.14$ ) than paternal responsiveness ( $M = 64.82$ ,  $SD = 13.80$ ). The difference was statistically significant,  $t(244) = 4.294$ ,  $p < .001$ . This result suggests that students perceived mothers as more consistently responsive through support, affection, and involvement. The

finding aligns with research showing that supportive parent-child relationships remain relevant to adolescent confidence, adjustment, and academic engagement (Bean et al., 2003; Branje et al., 2013).

*Table 4. Comparison of Maternal and Paternal Responsiveness Scores*

Parenting Dimension	M	SD	t	df	p
Maternal responsiveness	68.40	12.14			
Paternal responsiveness	64.82	13.80	4.294	244	< .001

### Reported Predictors of Academic Performance

The regression output reported in the source manuscript identified parental control as a significant positive predictor of academic performance ( $B = .055$ ,  $\beta = .300$ ,  $t = 2.537$ ,  $p = .012$ ). This suggests that, within the reported model, greater perceived parental monitoring and responsibility were associated with a modest increase in students' grade point averages. Paternal responsiveness was not a statistically significant predictor ( $B = -.023$ ,  $\beta = -.118$ ,  $t = -.995$ ,  $p = .321$ ).

The regression findings should be interpreted as associations rather than causal effects. Parenting practices may influence academic behavior, but students' grades may also affect how parents monitor and support their children. Other factors, including socioeconomic conditions, household structure, school engagement, and the student's learning environment, may also shape academic performance. The findings therefore support balanced parental involvement rather than excessive control.

*Table 5. Reported Regression Coefficients for Academic Performance*

Predictor	B	$\beta$	t	p	Interpretation
Parental control	.055	.300	2.537	.012	Significant positive predictor
Paternal responsiveness	-.023	-.118	-.995	.321	Not statistically significant

### CONCLUSION

The study examined how senior high school students perceived parental responsiveness and control and how the reported parenting dimensions related to academic performance. Students perceived maternal control and maternal responsiveness more strongly than their paternal counterparts. The reported regression model showed that parental control was positively associated with academic performance, while paternal responsiveness did not emerge as a statistically significant predictor. These findings suggest that students may benefit from parental guidance that combines clear expectations, monitoring, communication, and emotional support. The findings should not be interpreted as evidence that stricter control automatically produces higher grades. Rather, they support a balanced and developmentally appropriate form of family engagement that recognizes adolescents' increasing need for autonomy.

### Recommendation

Schools may strengthen family-engagement programs that help parents provide consistent guidance while maintaining supportive communication and respect for adolescent autonomy. Parent orientations may discuss practical approaches to monitoring school responsibilities, encouraging effective study habits, and responding constructively to academic difficulties. Future studies should include household structure, single-parent families, socioeconomic conditions, learner sex or gender, strand, and school context as possible explanatory variables. Researchers may also recruit students from multiple schools and use longitudinal or mixed-method approaches to clarify how parenting practices and academic outcomes influence one another over time.

## References

- Ahuja, M., & Goyal, S. (2005). Study of achievement and aspirations of adolescents in relation to parental involvement. *Indian Journal of Applied Psychology*, 42, 19–26.
- Akelaitis, A. V. (2015). Social skills expression of senior high school age students in physical education classes. *European Journal of Contemporary Education*, 14(4), 232–238.
- Baumrind, D. (1971). Current patterns of parental authority. *Developmental Psychology Monographs*, 4(1, Pt. 2), 1–103.
- Baumrind, D. (1978). Parental disciplinary patterns and social competence in children. *Youth & Society*, 9(3), 239–276.
- Baumrind, D. (1989). Rearing competent children. In W. Damon (Ed.), *Child development today and tomorrow* (pp. 349–378). Jossey-Bass.
- Bean, R. A., Bush, K. R., McKenry, P. C., & Wilson, S. M. (2003). The impact of parental support, behavioral control, and psychological control on the academic achievement and self-esteem of African American and European American adolescents. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 18(5), 523–541.
- Branje, S., Laursen, B., & Collins, W. A. (2013). Parent-child communication during adolescence. In A. L. Vangelisti (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of family communication* (2nd ed., pp. 271–286). Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research methods in education* (5th ed.). RoutledgeFalmer.
- Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113(3), 487–496.
- Fernández-Alonso, R., Álvarez-Díaz, M., Woitschach, P., Suárez-Álvarez, J., & Cuesta, M. (2017). Parental involvement and academic performance: Less control and more communication. *Psicothema*, 29(4), 453–461. <https://doi.org/10.7334/psicothema2017.181>
- Gafoor, K. A., & Kurukkan, A. (2014). Construction and validation of Scale of Parenting Style. *Guru Journal of Behavioral and Social Sciences*, 2(4), 315–323.
- Gray, M. R., & Steinberg, L. (1999). Unpacking authoritative parenting: Reassessing a multidimensional construct. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 61(3), 574–587.
- Grolnick, W. S., Gurland, S. T., DeCoursey, W., & Jacob, K. (2002). Antecedents and consequences of mothers' autonomy support: An experimental investigation. *Developmental Psychology*, 38(1), 143–155. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.38.1.143>
- Grolnick, W. S., & Gurland, S. T. (2005). Perceived threat, controlling parenting, and children's achievement orientations. *Motivation and Emotion*, 29(2), 103–121. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-005-7956-2>
- Jeynes, W. H. (2010). Parental involvement and encouraging that involvement: Implications for school-based programs. *Teachers College Record*, 112(3), 747–774.
- Lohaus, A., Keller, H., Ball, J., Elben, C., & Voelker, S. (2001). Maternal sensitivity: Components and relations to warmth and contingency. *Parenting*, 1(4), 267–284.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. In P. H. Mussen & E. M. Hetherington (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 4. Socialization, personality, and social development* (4th ed., pp. 1–101). Wiley.
- Pleck, J. H. (1997). Paternal involvement: Levels, sources, and consequences. In M. E. Lamb (Ed.), *The role of the father in child development* (3rd ed., pp. 66–103). Wiley.
- Rogers, M. A., Theule, J., Ryan, B. A., Adams, G. R., & Keating, L. (2009). Parental involvement and children's school achievement: Evidence for mediating processes. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, 24(1), 34–57.
- Sarmiento, D. H., & Orale, R. L. (2016). Senior high school curriculum in the Philippines, USA, and Japan. *Journal of Academic Research*, 1, 12–23.
- Sawyer, S. M., Azzopardi, P. S., Wickremarathne, D., & Patton, G. C. (2018). The age of adolescence. *The Lancet Child & Adolescent Health*, 2(3), 223–228. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-4642\(18\)30022-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-4642(18)30022-1)
- Steinberg, L., Elmen, J. D., & Mounts, N. S. (1989). Authoritative parenting, psychosocial maturity, and academic success among adolescents. *Child Development*, 60(6), 1424–1436.
- World Medical Association. (2013). World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki: Ethical principles for medical research involving human subjects. *JAMA*, 310(20), 2191–2194. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2013.281053>
- Youniss, J., & Smollar, J. (1985). *Adolescent relations with mothers, fathers, and friends*. University of Chicago Press.