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Research Paper

Demographic Predictors of Parenting Self-Efficacy Public Elementary School

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Abstract

Parenting self-efficacy (PSE) refers to the idea and ability to progressively enhance a child's development and educational outcomes. It is crucial because it directly impacts a child's academic performance, behavior, and overall well-being. Thus, the main objective of this study was to explore parents' parenting self-efficacy in a selected public school in a province in the Philippines. The investigator employed a cross-sectional research design and collected data using a standardized instrument among 130 volunteer respondents. The collected data were analyzed by descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS 23. The result revealed that based on the demographics, most respondents have 2-3 children, were married, unemployed, high school graduates, and had a monthly household income of 5001–10,000 pesos. For parenting self-efficacy (PSE), four constructs garnered a response of "always." Conversely, when engaging in play and facilitating routines, respondents gave an "almost always" response. Inferential statistics also revealed that there was only a significant difference in engaging in play, facilitating routines, and establishing discipline strategies when the study grouped the respondents according to the number of children at home. Lastly, the monthly household income of the parents emerged as the only demographic predictor of parenting self-efficacy (PSE) based on the study results. In conclusion, the PSE of the respondents seemed high enough and was practiced by most of the parents. Only monthly household income generated sufficient results to predict PSE by parents.

Keywords: *Demographics, Parenting Self-Efficacy (PSE), Philippines, Public Elementary School, Predictors*

INTRODUCTION

When parents are confident in their ability to support their children's education, they are more likely to be actively involved in their academic journey. This immersion ranges from helping with assignments and monitoring school progress to engaging in school activities and nurturing an encouraging attitude toward learning. Strong parental support and involvement are consistently linked to improved academic performance, higher motivation levels, and better behavior among students. Parenting self-efficacy (PSE) refers to a parent's belief that in their capacity, they effectively support and nurture their child's educational journey, emotional well-being, and overall growth within the school environment. Within the context of public elementary schools in the Philippines, PSE is a crucial aspect that significantly influences children's development and academic success. According to Fang et al. (2021), they believe that there exists proof that parenting self-efficacy is associated with different factors like satisfaction, stress, depression, and even income and social support. A past study by Morelli et al. (2020) also argued that parental beliefs of competence in managing parental tasks are a protective factor for their children's emotions. Studies have revealed that parenting is a challenging task for couples. Additionally, another past research by Botha et al. (2020), showed that mother's parenting self-efficacy and satisfaction were quite high, especially during childbirth. However, it is also essential to note that parental self-efficacy increased substantially over time, and family functioning was the only significant factor associated with lower confidence over time (Vance et al., 2020). Interestingly, another paper claimed that parental self-efficacy might emerge as a reaction to children's behaviors (Glatz et al., 2024).

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Authors have linked parenting self-efficacy to different factors, which yielded interesting features. During the pandemic, parenting self-efficacy was lower, especially during the strict pandemic measures (Xue et al., 2020). Another study also showed the mediating role of parenting self-efficacy (Bates et al., 2020) and its effects on parenting stress (Hong & Liu, 2021). However, Kong and Yasmin (2022) and Yosef et al. (2020) revealed that high parental self-efficacy is related to adopting different parenting practices. In their experiment, Gilkerson et al. (2020) also showed substantial improvement in parenting self-efficacy among parents. Parenting classes improve the readiness of children to become parents, thus influencing parental self-efficacy. Parental self-efficacy also predicts anxiety, worry, attitudes, and avoidance (Brunton et al., 2020). Parental self-efficacy also plays a role in children's achievement (Liu & Leighton, 2021). Schaff et al. (2024) also demonstrated that high parental self-efficacy is related to fewer emotional-behavioral problems and greater competence among early adolescents. Additionally, Boekweg (2023) determined that parental self-efficacy during childhood predicted respondents' current parental self-efficacy. Parental self-efficacy is also associated with family protective factors and life satisfaction (Bapat & Mardhekar, 2021). In a systematic review, parenting self-efficacy was usually found to be a mediator between a stronger orientation toward mainstream culture and supportive parenting (Boruszak-Kiziukiewicz & Kmita, 2020).

In the Philippines, where public education is vital for shaping young minds, parenting self-efficacy becomes even more pertinent. There are unique challenges that surround the education system in the country. For instance, economic disparities, where family income comes into the picture, significantly affect parenting. Families who face financial challenges struggle to provide adequate resources for their children's education. Another unique challenge in the Philippine context is the traditional expectation of a strong emphasis on respect for authority and collectivism. The context of employment among parents. Being from a developing country, parents struggle for employment just to meet the demands. Finally, families with more children than usual. It is uncommon for a poor family to have only one or two children.

The local literature provided interesting contexts regarding parenting self-efficacy. For instance, Fang et al. (2021) reported inconsistent evidence on the association between educational level, parity, number of children, and parenting self-efficacy. Parents with a strong sense of self-efficacy are likely to engage with their children's schooling, communicate effectively with teachers, and create a supportive home environment that fosters learning and positive social development. Guillena et al. (2023) supported this concept when they found that parental self-efficacy was the most influential predictor of learning motivation among students. On the other hand, first-time mothers were more confident in taking care of their children, confirming the importance of maternal self-efficacy in the transition to motherhood. (Gado et al., 2024). An investigation by a group of researchers under the leadership of Maharani et al. (2021) also revealed that parents in the Philippines have sufficient self-efficacy.

From the literature reviews, the investigator established a literature gap because there is a dearth of recent studies describing the current parenting self-efficacy of couples in the country. At the same time, no recent study has examined the vital importance of determining which demographic profile predicts parenting self-efficacy in the country. Understanding demographic predictors is essential for guiding policymaking, school programs, and parenting interventions toward the promotion of equity, inclusivity, and effectiveness. By considering demographic factors in decision-making processes, stakeholders can develop targeted, evidence-based strategies that address the specific needs and challenges of diverse populations, ultimately leading to improved outcomes and well-being for individuals and communities. Most of the reviewed papers were from foreign countries. At the same time, varying results and findings were obtained regarding parenting self-efficacy among parents, with multiple factors playing a role. As observed, only a few articles

have determined demographic factors as predictors of parenting self-efficacy. Thus, the investigators considered this a knowledge gap. With this premise, the investigators became interested and decided to investigate the phenomenon in a local setting.

In this study, the main objective was to determine the parenting self-efficacy of parents from a public elementary school. At the same time, the study will also analyze any underlying differences in parenting self-efficacy among the participating respondents. Finally, the demographic factors will be determined to predict the parents' parenting self-efficacy. The results of this study will provide baseline information that is important to the school, teachers, and school administrators.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this study, parenting self-efficacy is exemplified by the fact that a parent can support and, at the same time, nurture the child's educational, emotional, and overall development within and outside the school premises. Ruiz-Zaldivar et al. (2021) and Harpaz et al. (2021) also emphasized the positive link between parental self-efficacy and the implementation of authoritative parenting practices. This connection is further reinforced by Kong and Yasmin (2022), who not only affirm the association between an authoritative parenting style and enhanced student learning outcomes but also highlight the mediating role of parenting self-efficacy in the relationship between authoritative parenting and academic success. The synthesis of these findings underscores the significance of understanding and fostering parenting self-efficacy among caregivers in public elementary schools as a key determinant of effective parenting practices and positive educational outcomes for students.

The discussion of the complex relationship between parental self-efficacy, parenting styles, and children's educational outcomes contributes significantly to the field by shedding light on the multifaceted dynamics that influence academic success. The insights provided by Glatz and Buchanan (2023) regarding the evolution of parental self-efficacy in response to changing parenting practices and societal shifts offer valuable perspectives on how parental beliefs and confidence impact educational outcomes. Sobrebiga and Medez (2021) focused on the influence of dominant parenting styles and further emphasized the crucial role that parental approaches play in shaping children's learning achievements. Additionally, Toring et al. (2024) findings on the impact of parental self-efficacy on students' learning motivation highlight the pivotal role of parental beliefs in shaping educational experiences. By exploring the interconnected aspects of parental self-efficacy, parenting styles, and academic achievement, this discussion enriches the field by providing a comprehensive understanding of the intricate interplay between these factors and their implications for children's educational success.

The additional insights provided by Liu et al. (2022) regarding the mediating role of parenting self-efficacy between parents' attitudes toward online learning and students' perceptions of online education further deepen the understanding of how parental beliefs influence educational outcomes. Their findings underscore the importance of parental involvement in shaping students' perspectives on online learning effectiveness. Moreover, emphasizing the collaborative role of schools in fostering a supportive community dedicated to student's well-being and success by empowering parents to actively engage in their children's education highlights the significance of parental involvement in the educational process. Eltanamly et al. (2022) observed that enhancing parental self-efficacy can boost parents' confidence and resilience in overcoming challenges reinforcing the idea that strengthening parental beliefs and capabilities positively impacts both parents and their children, ultimately contributing to improved educational experiences and outcomes. These combined insights contribute to a holistic understanding of the interconnected dynamics between parental self-efficacy, parental engagement, and student success in the educational context.

Recent studies by Lunetti et al. (2024), Matalon and Turliuc (2023), and Harpaz et al. (2021) have provided valuable insights into the multifaceted dynamics of parental involvement, parental self-efficacy, and their impact on various aspects of child development and family relationships. Lunetti et al. (2024) findings predicting a positive correlation between perceived parental self-efficacy in school-related performance and students' academic achievements highlight the crucial role parents play in supporting their children's educational success. Matalon and Turliuc's (2023) exploration of how a child's noncompliance can affect parents, leading to spillover effects on parent-child and marital relationships, underscores the interconnected nature of family dynamics and the importance of understanding the challenges parents face in their parenting roles. Additionally, Harpaz et al. (2021) emphasized the critical influence of parental self-efficacy on parents' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors toward effective parenting practices, further accentuating the significance of parental beliefs in shaping parenting approaches and family interactions. Together, these studies contribute to a comprehensive understanding of the complex interplay between parental self-efficacy, parental involvement, child behavior, and family relationships, highlighting the importance of supportive and informed parenting practices for positive child outcomes and family well-being.

The literature review revealed a gap in research concerning the current state of parenting self-efficacy among couples in the country, indicating a lack of recent studies on this topic. Furthermore, a scarcity of research focused on identifying demographic predictors of parenting self-efficacy within the country. Recognizing the importance of understanding demographic factors for informing policies, educational programs, and parenting interventions to promote equity and effectiveness, the investigators emphasized the need for evidence-based strategies tailored to diverse populations. Most reviewed studies originated from foreign countries and highlighted varying results and factors influencing parenting self-efficacy; however, only a few articles identified demographic variables as predictors. This identified knowledge gap prompted the investigators to explore this phenomenon within the local context, thus sparking their interest in conducting further research on the subject.

Overall, enhancing parental self-efficacy benefits children's academic outcomes and parental involvement in school activities and contributes to their holistic development and well-being. By recognizing the significance of parental self-efficacy and promoting effective parenting practices, educators and policymakers can create a supportive environment that nurtures successful educational experiences for all students. The research framework of the study is presented below, wherein the IV-DV model represents the context of this study (Figure 1). Under the independent variable (IV), the investigator listed five (5) demographic characteristics of the participants that can influence their parenting self-efficacy. On the other hand, the dependent variable (DV) contained parenting self-efficacy, which may be substantially affected when one of the independent variables intervenes during the process. This paper must establish even a minimal baseline result that can become a source of relevant and vital decision-making for parents, teachers, and even schools and communities.

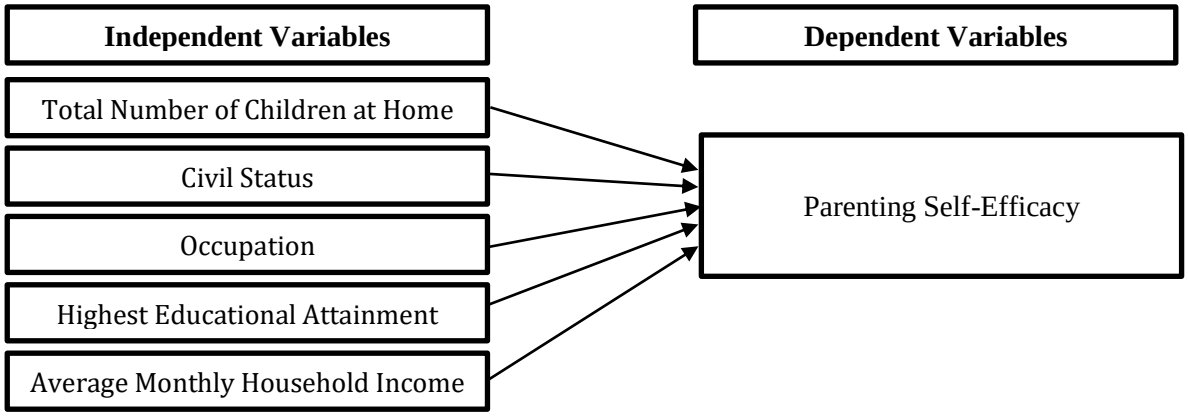

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework of the Study

METHODOLOGY

Study Design

In this paper, the investigator used a cross-sectional research design with the survey as the main data-gathering tool. A cross-sectional design suited this paper because it provides a snapshot of the current status of parents' beliefs and behaviors regarding their ability to support their children. This design also allows the researcher to gather data from a diverse group of individuals within a specific timeframe, offering insights into the variability and patterns of parenting self-efficacy. Since this study aimed to determine the degree of parenting self-efficacy among parents of a public elementary school, the cross-sectional research design meets the requirements of the research. Additionally, this study attempts to discover any demographic factors influencing the parenting self-efficacy of the participants.

Participants

The subjects of this paper were the parents of a primary school in Rizal Province, Philippines. The school comprised 138 parents who participated voluntarily in Grades 4, 5, and 6 sections. The investigator selected these participants because their parents directly involved themselves in their child's academic progress and development. Their child is also in the process of transitioning toward more advanced learning concepts, and lastly, it allows for a targeted and specific examination of PSE within a particular educational setting only. The investigator collected data between March and April 2023. The study employed a purposive sampling technique when selecting participants. Specifically, to be part of the study, one should be a parent or guardian or a family relative with a child or children studying in the public elementary school where the investigator decided to conduct the study. A brother, sister, or cousin not old enough to care for and send a child to school will be disqualified from participating in the survey.

Before gathering data, the investigator sought parental or guardian consent before conducting the survey and data-gathering process. The investigator will also ask permission to conduct the study with the school principal.

Instrument of the Study

To assess parental self-efficacy among respondents, the study utilized an instrument developed by Harty (2009). The instrument has two major parts: the parents' demographic characteristics and the parenting self-efficacy scale. The parenting self-efficacy scale has six latent variables that the study comprehensively discusses in the next section of this paper. These latent

variables include: (1) Showing Affection and Empathy; (2) Engaging in Play; (3) Facilitating Routines; (4) Establishing Discipline Strategies; (5) Providing Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development; and (6) Promoting Communication Interaction. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranged from 0.80 to 0.910, indicating a highly reliable tool for the study. The parents' responses were based on a six (6) point Likert scale with the following descriptive interpretations: 6-Never, 5-Seldom, 4-Sometimes, 3-Often, 2-Almost Always, and 1-Always.

Statistical Treatment

After gathering enough data for the study, the investigator decided to apply statistical analysis to the study's research objectives. The data were subjected to descriptive analysis, including frequency, percentage, and mean distribution computation. On the other hand, to determine the variance and influence of the demographic characteristics of the parents on parenting self-efficacy, the study employed inferential analysis like the Kruskal–Wallis H test and Linear Regression Analysis. The investigation used the Kruskal–Wallis H test because, before calculating the inferential statistics, the data first underwent a normality test employing the Shapiro–Wilk test and yielded a non-normal data distribution. As for the use of linear regression, the study used such statistics because it aimed to determine which demographic data primarily influence parenting self-efficacy, as stated in the earlier section of the paper. The investigator also employed the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 software to aid in the statistical computations of the study.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to analyze the parenting self-efficacy (PSE)of the parents from a selected public elementary school in a province in the Philippines. This study also intended to discover variance in parents' perceptions of PSE and to determine which demographic factors may influence their PSE. The following tables summarize the results.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Total Number of Children at Home		
Only one offspring	19	13.8
2-3 offsprings	75	54.3
4-5 offsprings	34	24.6
6 offspring or more	10	7.2
Civil Status		
Solo	52	37.7
Wedded	81	58.7
Separated	5	3.6
Occupation		
Government Worker	6	4.3
Private Worker	20	14.5
Self-Employed	31	22.5
Other Employment	28	20.3
None	53	38.4
Highest Educational Attainment		
Elementary Level	5	3.6
Elementary Graduate	5	3.6
High School Level	26	18.8

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
High School Graduate	43	31.2
College Level	38	27.5
College Graduate	21	15.2
Average Monthly Household Income		
Php 5,000	39	28.3
Php 5,001-10,000	40	29.0
Php 10,001-15,000	31	22.5
Php 15,001-20,000	15	10.9
Php 20,001-25,000	8	5.8
Php 25,001above	5	3.6
Total	**138**	**100.0**

Table 1 presents the frequency and percentage distribution of the demographic characteristics of the parents. The majority of participants had 2-3 children at home (54.3%), were married (58.7%), were self-employed (22.5%), or had no employment (38.4%). In terms of educational attainment, a significant proportion had reached at least a high school graduate level (31.2%). Regarding average monthly household income, the most common bracket was 5,001-10,000 pesos (29.0%).

Table 2. Affection and Empathy

Items	Mean	Interpretation
Affection and Empathy 1	1.65	Always
Affection and Empathy 2	1.48	Always
Affection and Empathy 3	1.69	Always
Affection and Empathy 4	1.63	Always
Affection and Empathy 5	1.59	Always
Affection and Empathy 6	1.55	Always
Affection and Empathy 7	1.58	Always
Composite Mean	**1.60**	**Always**

Legend: 1.00-1.82=Always; 1.83-2.66=Almost Always; 2.67-3.50=Often; 3.51-4.32=Sometimes; 4.33-5.16=Seldom; 5.17-6.00=Never

Table 2 presents the mean distribution of affection and empathy among the parents of their children. As seen from the table, most of the parents' responses were generally uniform, and they "always" showed affection and empathy to their children. Specifically, item 2 demonstrated the lowest mean. On the other hand, item 3 achieved the highest mean score. The mean scores correspond to an " always " interpretation in the Likert scale. In addition, the composite Mean for the display of affection and empathy among parents revealed the same interpretation. This finding coincides with the previous study by Badriyah and Mahanani (2022), in which the PSE of their respondents was also high.

Table 3. Engaging in Play

Items	Mean	Interpretation
Engaging in Play 1	2.34	Almost Always
Engaging in Play 2	2.22	Almost Always
Engaging in Play 3	2.02	Almost Always
Engaging in Play 4	1.95	Almost Always

Items	Mean	Interpretation
Engaging in Play 5	2.17	Almost Always
Engaging in Play 6	2.08	Almost Always
Engaging in Play 7	2.18	Almost Always
Composite Mean	**2.14**	**Almost Always**

Legend: 1.00-1.82=Always; 1.83-2.66=Almost Always; 2.67-3.50=Often; 3.51-4.32=Sometimes; 4.33-5.16=Seldom; 5.17-6.00=Never

Table 3 illustrates the mean distribution of parental engagement in play. In general, similar to the previous table, the parents responded similarly to all seven items, which points to parents engaging in play with their children. In particular, item 1 generated the highest mean score, and item 4 generated the lowest mean score. Both items fell under the interpretation of "almost always" on the Likert scale. The composite mean for the study yielded the same descriptive interpretation as the other studies. Badriyah and Mahanani (2022) supported the current findings of the study on parents' engagement in play.

Table 4. Facilitating Routines

Items	Mean	Interpretation
Facilitating Routines 1	2.05	Almost Always
Facilitating Routines 2	1.58	Always
Facilitating Routines 3	1.71	Always
Facilitating Routines 4	2.07	Almost Always
Facilitating Routines 5	1.86	Almost Always
Facilitating Routines 6	1.78	Always
Facilitating Routines 7	2.08	Almost Always
Composite Mean	**1.88**	**Almost Always**

Legend: 1.00-1.82=Always; 1.83-2.66=Almost Always; 2.67-3.50=Often; 3.51-4.32=Sometimes; 4.33-5.16=Seldom; 5.17-6.00=Never

Table 4 shows the mean distribution of facilitating routines among the parents. As seen from the table, varied responses were from the parents. Nevertheless, they still manage to facilitate different routines with their children. Specifically, the highest mean was for item seven (7), which the table interpreted as "almost always" on the Likert scale. The lowest mean was on item two (2), corresponding to an interpretation of "always." On the other hand, the composite mean for the facilitating routine variable of the study has a similar notion of "almost always" based on the Likert scale. In a previous paper by Badriyah and Mahanani (2022), they found a high level of parenting self-efficacy in terms of facilitating routines, which coincides with the current study.

Table 5. Establish Discipline Strategies

Items	Mean	Interpretation
Establish Discipline Strategies 1	1.48	Always
Establish Discipline Strategies 2	1.65	Always
Establish Discipline Strategies 3	1.62	Always
Establish Discipline Strategies 4	1.60	Always
Establish Discipline Strategies 5	1.67	Always
Establish Discipline Strategies6	1.66	Always
Establish Discipline Strategies 7	2.08	Almost Always
Establish Discipline Strategies 8	2.26	Almost Always

Items	Mean	Interpretation
Composite Mean	**1.75**	**Always**

Legend: 1.00-1.82=Always; 1.83-2.66=Almost Always; 2.67-3.50=Often; 3.51-4.32=Sometimes; 4.33-5.16=Seldom; 5.17-6.00=Never

Table 5 shows the mean distribution of discipline strategies for parents. There were varied responses from the parents when it came to the issue of establishing discipline strategies. Two items (seven and eight) generated the highest mean scores, with a descriptive interpretation of "almost always" in the scale. However, item 1 produced the lowest mean score, translating to an "always" interpretation from the scale. In summary, the composite mean also falls under the same descriptive interpretation of "always," which means that parents still intend to establish strategies for providing discipline for their children. The past paper by Badriyah and Mahanani (2022) supported the current findings on the establishment of discipline strategies among parents, which resulted in a high response rate

Table 6. Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development

Item	Mean	Interpretation
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development 1	1.51	Always
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development 2	1.66	Always
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development 3	1.85	Almost Always
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development 4	2.00	Almost Always
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development 5	1.69	Always
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development 6	1.59	Always
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development 7	1.68	Always
Composite Mean	**1.71**	**Always**

Legend: 1.00-1.82=Always; 1.83-2.66=Almost Always; 2.67-3.50=Often; 3.51-4.32=Sometimes; 4.33-5.16=Seldom; 5.17-6.00=Never

Table 6 displays the mean distribution of the parental provision of appropriate activities for learning and development. As seen from the table, there were different responses for the items. In particular, items three and four produced the highest mean scores corresponding to a Likert-type scale interpretation of "almost always." On the other hand, the rest of the items received a Likert-type scale interpretation of "always" with item one obtaining the lowest mean score for the table. The composite mean also falls under the same descriptive interpretation of "always." The result further implies that despite a busy schedule, parents still find time to encourage and assist their children's learning and development. In terms of parents' provision for appropriate activities for learning and development, a previous study obtained a high score on this section of their study (Badriyah & Mahanani, 2022), which has a similar interpretation to the current finding of this study.

Table 7. Promoting communication interactions

Item	Mean	Interpretation
Promoting Communication Interaction 1	1.71	Always
Promoting Communication Interaction 2	1.52	Always
Promoting Communication Interaction 3	1.87	Almost Always
Promoting Communication Interaction 4	1.77	Always
Promoting Communication Interaction 5	1.78	Always
Promoting Communication Interactions 6	1.69	Always
Composite Mean	**1.72**	**Always**

Legend: 1.00-1.82=Always; 1.83-2.66=Almost Always; 2.67-3.50=Often; 3.51-4.32=Sometimes; 4.33-5.16=Seldom; 5.17-6.00=Never

Table 7 presents the promotion of communication interaction among parents' mean distribution results. It can be seen that most items expressed a similar response of "always" with item two being the lowest mean score bearer. However, only item three generated a response of "almost always" which is also the highest mean score generated by the mean calculation of the study. In general, the composite mean still falls under the descriptive interpretation of "always, " implying that parents still promote communication interactions with children regardless of circumstances and opportunities. A past study also found a similar finding to the current study where the promotion of communication interaction among parents was high among the participants of their study (Badriyah & Mahanani, 2022).

Table 8. Difference in Parenting Self-Efficacy between Groups
Total number of children at home

Variables	Children At Home	N	Mean Rank	H-Value	Asymp. Sig.
Affection and Empathy	Only 1 child	19	54.29	4.626	.201
	2-3 Children	75	68.79		
	4-5 Children	34	76.62		
	> 6 children	10	79.50		
Engaging in Play	Only 1 child	19	49.76	8.722*	.033
	2-3 Children	75	74.01		
	4-5 Children	34	76.04		
	> 6 children	10	50.90		
Facilitating Routines	Only 1 child	19	52.42	7.968*	.047
	2-3 Children	75	73.37		
	4-5 Children	34	76.56		
	> 6 children	10	48.95		
Establish Discipline Strategies	Only 1 child	19	59.13	12.824*	.005
	2-3 Children	75	71.29		
	4-5 Children	34	81.79		
	> 6 children	10	34.00		
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development	Only 1 child	19	60.42	5.773	.123
	2-3 Children	75	70.05		
	4-5 Children	34	79.32		
	> 6 children	10	49.20		
Promoting communication interactions	Only 1 child	19	58.00	1.957	.581
	2-3 Children	75	71.91		
	4-5 Children	34	70.12		
	> 6 children	10	71.20		

*Note: df = 3; *p < .05*

Presented in Table 8 is the result of the Kruskal–Wallis H test for the differences in parenting self-efficacy of parents when grouped according to the number of children at home. As observed, engagement in play, facilitation of routines, and establishment of discipline strategies generated significant variations for the study. The statistical computation found the following results for engaging in play, H(3)= 8.722, *p*= .033; for facilitating routines, H(3)= 7.968, *p*= .047; and for establishing discipline strategies, H(3)= 12.824, *p*= .005. All obtained p-values were significant

at the 0.05 significance level. On the other hand, showing affection and empathy [H(3)= 4.626, *p*= .201]; providing appropriate activities for learning and development [H(3)= 5.773, *p*= .123]; and promoting communication interaction [H(3)= 1.957, *p*= .581] did not yield enough result to attain differences in the responses of the parents when the study grouped them according to the number of children at home. The result implies that the number of children at home is vital for an efficient parent. Hong and Liu (2021) reported that a two-child family reported lower parenting self-efficacy than a one-child family. Fidan and Olur (2023) also concurred that they observed variance in the number of children at home about PSE. These studies corroborate the current findings of this paper.

Table 9. Difference in Parenting Self-Efficacy between groups According to Civil Status

Variables	Civil Status	N	Mean Rank	H-Value	Asymp. Sig.
Affection and Empathy	Single	52	66.00	1.582	.453
	Married	81	70.60		
	Separated	5	88.00		
Engaging in Play	Single	52	65.78	1.388	.500
	Married	81	70.88		
	Separated	5	85.80		
Facilitating Routines	Single	52	69.37	0.201	.904
	Married	81	69.10		
	Separated	5	77.30		
Establish Discipline Strategies	Single	52	70.43	0.152	.927
	Married	81	68.59		
	Separated	5	74.50		
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development	Single	52	65.98	0.886	.642
	Married	81	71.13		
	Separated	5	79.70		
Promoting communication interactions	Single	52	66.96	0.376	.829
	Married	81	71.20		
	Separated	5	68.40		

Note: df = 2; p > 0.05.

Table 9 displays the results of the Kruskal–Wallis H test for the difference in the parenting self-efficacy of parents when grouped according to their civil status. All of the variables in the study did not generate a substantial result that would elicit variance in the parents' perspectives regarding parenting self-efficacy. Notably, the computation obtained the following: for a show of affection and empathy, H(2)= 1.582, *p*= .453; for engaging in play H(2)= 1.388, *p*= .500; for facilitating routines, H(2)= 0.201, *p*= .904; in the case of establishing discipline strategies, H(2)= 0.152, *p*= .927; in terms of providing appropriate activities for learning and development, H(2)= 0.886,*p*= .641; and for promoting communication interaction, H(2)=0.376, *p*= .829. Based on the obtained probability values, it is safe to assume that they were all greater than the alpha significance level.05; thus, there were no significant variances in the parenting self-efficacy of parents when grouped according to their civil status. The current finding coincides with the previous papers by Xue et al. (2020) and Sobrebiga and Medez (2021), who claimed no significant difference in parenting self-efficacy variables when grouped by demographic profiles.

Table 10. Difference in Parenting Self-Efficacy between Occupations

Variables	Occupation	N	Mean Rank	H-Value	Asymp. Sig.
Affection and Empathy	Government	6	72.58	2.291	.682
	Private	20	63.35		

	Self-Employed	31	63.58		
	Other	28	69.25		
	None	53	75.07		
Engaging in Play	Government	6	71.08	1.352	.853
	Private	20	74.70		
	Self-Employed	31	66.58		
	Other	28	74.77		
	None	53	66.28		
Facilitating Routines	Government	6	62.00	0.553	.968
	Private	20	74.35		
	Self-Employed	31	68.42		
	Other	28	68.52		
	None	53	69.67		
Establish Discipline Strategies	Government	6	85.42	3.317	.506
	Private	20	69.80		
	Self-Employed	31	60.69		
	Other	28	76.18		
	None	53	69.21		
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development	Government	6	69.33	1.521	.823
	Private	20	69.10		
	Self-Employed	31	64.98		
	Other	28	77.18		
	None	53	68.25		
Promoting communication interactions	Government	6	73.50	2.491	.646
	Private	20	71.95		
	Self-Employed	31	63.13		
	Other	28	78.11		
	None	53	67.30		

Note: df = 4; p > 0.05.

Shown in Table 10 is the result of parenting self-efficacy of parents using the Kruskal–Wallis H test to analyze differences in their responses. As in the previous table, the computation obtained no remarkable results based on grouping the parents by occupation. The computation generated the following findings for a show of affection and empathy, H(4)= 2.291, *p*= .682; as for engaging in play, H(4)= 1.352, *p*= .853; in terms of facilitating routines, H(4)= 0.533, *p*= .968; in the case of establishing discipline strategies, H(4)= 3.317, *p*= .506; then for providing appropriate activities for learning and development, H(4)= 1.521, *p*= .823; and for promoting communication interaction, H(4)= 2.491, *p*= .646. The generated *p*-values were not significant at the 05 significance level; therefore, there were no significant differences in the parenting self-efficacy of the parents when grouped according to their occupation. This finding also reflects previous results from the studies of Xue et al. (2020) and Sobrebiga and Medez (2021), who found no significant differences in parenting self-efficacy when grouped according to their respondents' demographic profiles.

Table 11. Difference in Parenting Self-Efficacy when grouped according to the Highest Educational Attainment

Variables	**Educational Attainment**	**N**	**Mean Rank**	**H-Value**	**Asymp. Sig.**
Affection and Empathy	Elem. Level	5	94.00	3.113	.683
	Elem. Grad.	5	66.20		

Variables	Educational Attainment	N	Mean Rank	H-Value	Asymp. Sig.
	HS Level	26	75.58		
	HS Grad	43	66.01		
	College Level	38	68.29		
	College Grad	21	66.26		
Engaging in Play	Elem. Level	5	77.80	0.635	.986
	Elem. Grad.	5	65.10		
	HS Level	26	67.08		
	HS Grad	43	71.65		
	College Level	38	69.95		
	College Grad	21	66.36		
Facilitating Routines	Elem. Level	5	85.90	2.189	.822
	Elem. Grad.	5	59.60		
	HS Level	26	65.02		
	HS Grad	43	72.30		
	College Level	38	71.51		
	College Grad	21	64.12		
Establish Discipline Strategies	Elem. Level	5	99.40	6.774	.238
	Elem. Grad.	5	43.00		
	HS Level	26	65.02		
	HS Grad	43	72.30		
	College Level	38	71.51		
	College Grad	21	64.12		
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development	Elem. Level	5	86.60	2.238	.815
	Elem. Grad.	5	67.00		
	HS Level	26	69.75		
	HS Grad	43	72.51		
	College Level	38	63.12		
	College Grad	21	71.10		
Promoting communication interactions	Elem. Level	5	83.70	1.288	.936
	Elem. Grad.	5	75.80		
	HS Level	26	70.02		
	HS Grad	43	70.94		
	College Level	38	65.39		
	College Grad	21	68.45		

Note: df = 5; p > 0.05.

Depicted in Table 11 is the Kruskal–Wallis H test result for the differences in the parenting self-efficacy of parents when grouped according to the highest educational attainment. In general, one can decipher that there was no substantial proof that parenting self-efficacy varies from one parent to another when grouped according to educational attainment. The study produced the following findings for show of affection and empathy, H(5)= 3.113, *p*= .683; and then for engaging in play, H(5)= 0.635, *p*= .986; as for facilitating routines, H(5)= 2.189, *p*= .822; in the case of establishing discipline strategies, H(5)= 6.774, *p*= .238; in terms of providing appropriate activities for learning and development H(5)= 2.238, *p*= .815; and finally for promoting communication interaction, H(5)= 1.288, *p*= .936. In particular, all of the *p*-values were greater than the significance level of.05. Hence, there were no significant differences in the parenting self-efficacy of the respondents when they were grouped according to their highest educational attainment. The current study contradicts the previous paper by Fidan and Olur (2023), which found a difference in

the educational status of their respondents.

Table 12. Difference in Parenting Self-Efficacy between Groups
Average Monthly Income

Variables	Monthly Income	N	Mean Rank	H-Value	Asymp. Sig.
Affection and Empathy	< Php5,000	39	61.49	3.752	.586
	Php 5,001-10,000	40	70.78		
	Php 10,001-15,000	31	72.90		
	Php 15,001-20,000	15	71.63		
	Php 20,001-25,000	8	87.88		
	> Php 25,001	5	64.90		
Engaging in Play	< Php5,000	39	61.64	4.772	.444
	Php 5,001-10,000	40	68.15		
	Php 10,001-15,000	31	70.45		
	Php 15,001-20,000	15	75.37		
	Php 20,001-25,000	8	88.75		
	> Php 25,001	5	87.30		
Facilitating Routines	< Php5,000	39	59.00	7.847	.165
	Php 5,001-10,000	40	72.44		
	Php 10,001-15,000	31	71.89		
	Php 15,001-20,000	15	63.83		
	Php 20,001-25,000	8	93.88		
	> Php 25,001	5	91.10		
Establish Discipline Strategies	< Php5,000	39	57.40	8.813	.117
	Php 5,001-10,000	40	80.61		
	Php 10,001-15,000	31	67.06		
	Php 15,001-20,000	15	64.30		
	Php 20,001-25,000	8	83.38		
	> Php 25,001	5	83.50		
Appropriate Activities for Learning and Development	< Php5,000	39	64.72	4.961	.421
	Php 5,001-10,000	40	72.53		
	Php 10,001-15,000	31	69.16		
	Php 15,001-20,000	15	58.43		
	Php 20,001-25,000	8	85.69		
	> Php 25,001	5	92.00		
Promoting communication interactions	< Php5,000	39	63.63	5.037	.411
	Php 5,001-10,000	40	69.49		
	Php 10,001-15,000	31	78.08		
	Php 15,001-20,000	15	57.33		
	Php 20,001-25,000	8	83.88		
	> Php 25,001	5	75.70		

Note: df = 5; p > 0.05.

Table 12 illustrates the results of the Kruskal–Wallis H test of difference for the parenting self-efficacy of respondents when grouped according to monthly income. It can be deciphered from the table that there were no remarkable findings based on the computation. Specifically, the computation produced the following results for a show of affection and empathy, H(5)= 3.752, *p*= .586; as for engaging in play, H(5)= 4.772, *p*= .444; then for facilitating routines, H(5)= 7.847, *p*= .165; in terms of establishing discipline strategies, H(5)= 8.813, *p*= .117; in the case of providing appropriate activities for learning and development, H(5)= 4.961, *p*= .421; and finally for promoting

communication interaction, H(5)= 5.037, *p*= .411. All the probability values (*p*-values) generated were insignificant at the 0.05 significance level because they have higher values. Thus, there were no significant differences in the parenting self-efficacy of the respondents when they were grouped according to their monthly income. The current finding also reflects the previous results of the studies of Xue et al. (2020) and Sobrebiga and Medez (2021), who found no significant differences in parenting self-efficacy when grouped according to their respondents' demographic profiles.

Table 13. Linear Regression Analysis of Factors Affecting Parenting Self-Efficacy

Model	B	Bias	Std. Error	*p*-value	Lower CI	Upper CI
(Constant)	1.384	.002	.434	.003	.498	2.192
Number of Children	0.065	.003	.078	.394	- .087	.231
Civil Status	0.081	- .003	.109	.451	- .139	.279
Occupation	0.008	- .002	.060	.898	- .111	.137
Educ. Attainment	-0.038	- .002	.055	.499	- .142	.079
Monthly Income	0.106	- .002	.052	.040*	.008	.209

*Note: F (5, 132) = 1.149, p =.338; R^2= .042; *p < .05; Bootstrap results based on 1000 bootstrap samples*

Table 13 presents the linear regression analysis results for the factors affecting parenting self-efficacy with bootstrapping. The model revealed that monthly income alone had a significant positive relationship with parenting self-efficacy (β= .106), indicating that higher monthly income was associated with increased parenting self-efficacy. However, other variables such as number of children (β= .065), civil status (β= .081), occupation (β= .008), and educational attainment (β= -.038) did not show significant relationships with parenting self-efficacy. The overall model was not statistically significant, *F*(5, 132)= 1.149, *p* =.338, with an R^2 of .042, suggesting that the included variables collectively explained only a small proportion of the variance in parenting self-efficacy. These findings underscore the nuanced relationship between income and parenting self-efficacy within the context of this study. A previous study by Liu et al. (2020) reinforced this finding by elucidating that higher socioeconomic status was associated with higher parenting self-efficacy and greater involvement in their children's activities. Bates et al. (2020) also claimed that low-income homes are an early factor in shaping childrearing self-regulation.

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to determine the parental self-efficacy of selected parents from a public primary school. The analysis of the study revealed interesting findings worth sharing with the community. Based on the preliminary analysis of the parental self-efficacy of the respondents, their responses varied. For instance, when the parents show affection and empathy, engage in play, and facilitate routines, they "almost always" perform these particular activities and responsibilities. However, in terms of establishing discipline strategies, providing appropriate activities for learning and development, and promoting communication interaction, the parents "always" performed these tasks. In connection, Glatz et al. (2024) elaborated that many child, parent, and sociocultural factors play a role in parental self-efficacy, and these associations are similar across multiple countries and age groups. Fang et al. (2021) also argued that there was no proof of any association between child gender, age, marital status, and parental self-efficacy in both

mothers and fathers.

To add more relevance to this study, the data underwent statistical analysis to test the differences in the parents' perspectives when grouped according to their demographic characteristics. The statistical treatment revealed that only engaging in play, facilitating routines, and establishing discipline strategies established significant differences when grouped according to the number of children at home. This result is somehow related to the findings of Hong and Liu (2021), who mentioned that a two-child family reported lower parenting self-efficacy than a one-child family. The remaining demographic characteristics tested by the statistics did not yield significant differences in parenting self-efficacy. This finding also reflects previous results from the studies of Xue et al. (2020) and Sobrebiga and Mendez (2021), who found no significant differences in parenting self-efficacy when grouped according to their respondents' demographic profiles. In general, the study slightly deviated from previous works regarding the non-variance of parenting self-efficacy (difference found in one of the latent variables) in their demographic profiles. As mentioned earlier, no significant differences were observed by past studies based on their demographic profiles, meaning some aspects of the study still conform with the norm. Nevertheless, this current study posed yet another area of issue that future investigation can deal with.

Lastly, to determine if any factor influences the respondents' parenting self-efficacy, the study performed a linear regression for the demographic characteristics. The results revealed that parents' monthly income is a significant indicator of parenting self-efficacy. Higher income often leads to higher Parenting Self-Efficacy (PSE) due to the availability of resources, opportunities, and support systems that can positively influence parents' confidence in their ability to support their children's education and well-being. Higher-income families typically have greater access to resources, such as educational materials, tutoring services, extracurricular activities, and technology, that enhance their children's learning experiences. Liu et al. (2020) supported this finding because they explained that higher socioeconomic status was associated with higher parenting self-efficacy and greater involvement in their children's activities. Bates et al. (2020) also revealed that low-income homes are an early factor in shaping childrearing self-regulation, which is a target of parenting self-efficacy. On the other hand, some studies have shown evidence of the non-association of demographic characteristics like marital status, education, age, and number of children with parenting self-efficacy (Botha et al., 2020).

The results of this study provide the following practical implications. First, for educators, (a) enhancing parent's confidence and skills in supporting their child's education, (b) fostering open communication with parents to understand their needs and challenges, and (c) strengthening PSE and promoting effective strategies for assisting their child with learning at home through workshops and training. For parents, (a) PSE is a tool for self-reflection and identification of areas for strengths and improvement in supporting their child's education, (b) seek out resources and support within the school and community or other significant groups to enhance parenting skills, and (c) collaborate with educators to create a supportive environment at home and school. Lastly, for policymakers, (a) allocation of resources toward promoting parental involvement and enhancement of parenting skills, especially in the underserved areas, (b) development of policy supporting family engagement in education, and (c) evaluation of programs aimed at increasing PSE to identify effective strategies to broaden the scale of benefitting families across the educational system.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine the parenting self-efficacy of parents from a public primary school. From the preceding discussion, the study concluded that parents of public primary school children were quite adept at parenting. Some areas of parenting self-efficacy like

showing affection and empathy, engaging in play, and facilitating routines have shown low scores. This result can be associated with the parent's upbringing, personal experiences, or cultural background. Other factors may also influence the results, such as lack of exposure to effective parenting practices, stress or fatigue, parental stereotypes, and social or community pressure. The responses of the parents in the area of establishing discipline strategies, providing appropriate activities for learning and development, and promoting communication interaction received higher scores compared to the first three sub-variables of the study. A closer look into the statistical analysis of the study also revealed that engaging in play, facilitating routines, and establishing discipline strategies resulted in significant variance among the parents when grouped according to the number of children at home. Finally, the study also revealed that the parents' monthly income influences the parenting self-efficacy of the respondents. Financial stability provides families with the means to access a wide range of resources (e.g., healthcare and nutrition or access to learning materials) and opportunities that can positively impact parenting practices, child development, and overall family well-being.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper provides some relevant recommendations based on the findings presented earlier.

1) The school should organize some seminars or workshops focusing on areas where parents can enhance their display of affection and empathy, engagement in play, and routine facilitation for their children. These school activities can provide parents with essential knowledge and skills to improve their relationships and bond with their children.
2) It is important for teachers to recognize the cultural background of their parents and understand the parenting practices that they implement at home. In this way, teachers can tailor interventions that can impact parenting behaviors.
3) The school can provide resources and support services to address the parents' stress, fatigue, and other challenges that may impact their parenting self-efficacy.
4) The school may also establish a parenting support group where parents can share, learn, and receive guidance from each other's experiences together with professionals like the guidance counselor or teacher.
5) It is also vital to recognize the number of children in the household; therefore, tailoring appropriate interventions and strategies is important to address the challenges faced by parents with different family sizes.
6) The school may also refer parents to organizations or groups to address financial difficulties. By providing financial assistance programs, access to resources, and opportunities, families can nurture their children properly.
7) For teachers, a continuous monitoring and evaluation system of parenting self-efficacy is equally vital. This process will help assess their effectiveness and make necessary adjustments to better meet the needs of parents and children.

LIMITATION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

This study has several limitations. Moreover, based on these, future researchers can improve existing ones. The first was the study setting or locale; the study only employed one public elementary school; thus, this study suggests employing other public elementary schools around their district or province for wider coverage. Second, this study can be conducted at higher levels, such as junior and senior high schools. Parenting Self-Efficacy (PSE) may vary between elementary school and high school parents because of differences in developmental needs, parenting experience, academic expectations, communication dynamics, and social pressures. Third, future

research may also try to correlate parenting self-efficacy with other relevant behavioral or attitudinal factors, especially academic achievement and student motivation, through longitudinal, cross-cultural, or intervention studies. Lastly, a mixed-methods research design is also relevant since the current study only employed a quantitative type of research, wherein adding a qualitative aspect makes the results more reliable and credible, or an experimental type of research can also be employed.

Future research should expand upon the current study by broadening the geographical scope to include multiple public elementary schools across various districts or provinces to enhance the generalizability of findings related to parenting self-efficacy (PSE). Investigations at higher educational levels, such as junior and senior high schools, are warranted to understand how PSE varies across different developmental stages and educational contexts. Longitudinal, cross-cultural, and interventional studies are needed to explore the causal relationships between PSE, academic achievement, and student motivation. Employing mixed-methods research designs, incorporating qualitative data collection alongside quantitative approaches, will offer a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of PSE. Further examination of various demographic factors, including marital status, parental education level, and occupation, could provide deeper insights into the predictors of PSE. Finally, the development and evaluation of targeted interventions aimed at enhancing PSE among parents in public elementary schools are essential for informing policies and practices that support both parents and students.

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