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"Taking a different perspective: the differences between parents of CLIL and non-CLIL students regarding parental school involvement and parental stress"

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Declaration of Authenticity

„I hereby confirm that this paper was written by myself. I have clearly marked as a quote everything that was taken over verbatim from secondary literature. I have also indicated when I have taken over ideas from secondary sources.“

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1 Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a new and alternative approach to teaching in which up to 50% of the curriculum is taught in a foreign language (primarily English; Dalton-Puffer, 2011). CLIL, as an innovative and promising teaching method, is currently on the rise and a lot of research, coming from the linguistic and educational domain, has already been carried out. The following diploma thesis, however, approaches CLIL from a different, less explored angle. CLIL is being investigated from a psychological perspective.

Although it is the child who attends school, parents are the focus of this empirical study. Since CLIL students are taught in a foreign language in a few subjects, Marsh (n.d., p. 12) points out that with regards to parents' responsibility in CLIL, they *"need to be involved with the CLIL process, offering whatever support is possible and relevant"* and should *"take an active interest ... throughout the whole process"*. Thereby, the present thesis seeks to find out whether there is a difference between parents of CLIL and non-CLIL students with regards to their level of involvement in their child's school education as well as their perception of stress in their role as a parent, since a child's school experience may have repercussions on parental stress (Cronin et al., 2015).

Moreover, helicopter parenting, a relatively unexplored phenomenon, is examined as well. Parents who excessively hover over their child, ready to intervene and take over, are metaphorically referred to as helicopters (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). Hence, as a second aim, this thesis attempts to find out whether parents of CLIL students are more likely to be categorized as helicopter parents. In addition, since extremely hovering over one's child is assumed to be exhausting, helicopter parents are expected to experience a higher level of parental stress and to be rather unfavorably disposed towards life in general. Briefly, the present thesis attempts to reveal possible correlations between parental stress, helicopter parenting, parents' outlook on life and CLIL as well as the child's school type and school level.

Structure-wise, the thesis is divided into a theoretical and an empirical part. The theory part is, again, subdivided into four chapters, reviewing literature on CLIL, parental school involvement, helicopter parenting and parental stress. The first chapter outlines Content and Language Integrated Learning as a new approach to teaching content and language simultaneously. Its historical development, general characteristics and aims as well as challenges are discussed. Section Two is concerned with parents' involvement in their child's school trajectory and section Three provides an understanding of the helicopter parenting phenomenon. Parental stress is discussed in section Four. Subsequently, the research questions and theoretical assumptions leading to the proposed hypotheses are outlined and the method used for this empirical study is explained. Regarding data collection, a questionnaire is distributed to CLIL and non-CLIL parents, investigating into areas such as parental involvement, parental stress, helicopter parenting and parents' disposition towards life. Within this section, the compilation of the questionnaire is explained, including the reference to relevant literature used for the item construction.

Within the empirical part, the findings of the questionnaire are presented, followed by an interpretation of the results. As the questionnaires were distributed among parents of CLIL and non-CLIL students, attending either the first or fourth grade of a grammar school[1] (Gymnasium = Gym) or a new secondary school[2] (Neue Mittelschule = NMS), comparisons of results are, in addition to CLIL and non-CLIL, drawn between the respective school types and school levels. Finally, significant results obtained are discussed in chapter Five.

[1] grammar school = *"a state-maintained secondary school providing an education with an academic bias for children who are selected by the eleven-plus examination, teachers' reports, or other means"* (*Collins English Dictionary*, 2014)

[2] secondary school = *"offering a more technical or practical and less academic education than a grammar school"* (*Collins English Dictionary*, 2014)

2 Theory

The theoretical part of this thesis commences with a detailed overview on Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Thereby, characteristics, potential aims and challenges as well as the distribution of this new way of teaching in the Austrian school system are discussed.

2.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

The abbreviation CLIL stands for Content and Language Integrated Learning, which is an innovative pedagogical approach to education and challenges the more conventional way of teaching subject content. In contrast to regular education, non-language subjects, such as history, geography and others, are not taught through the learners' first[3], but through an additional language. Due to its two-fold aim of teaching content and language simultaneously, whilst attaching equal importance to both, CLIL is currently on the rise and referred to as a *"growth industry"*, since it is becoming increasingly embedded in mainstream education from preschool to higher education all across Europe (Marsh, 2002, p. 59).

2.1.1 The concept

Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 1) define CLIL as a *"dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language"*. Since an additional language can be either the learners' foreign or second language[4], as well as a regional or minority[5] language, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 1) refer to it as the *"vehicular language"* of instruction. Dalton-Puffer (2011, p. 183), however, stresses the prevalence of merely a small number of prestigious languages used in CLIL and, simultaneously, emphasizes the dominance of English as the language of instruction in CLIL settings *"outside the English speaking countries"*. Therefore, she maintains that CLIL frequently means CEIL (Content and

[3] First language: *"The language a speaker acquires first as a native language"* and/or *"a speaker's preferred language"* (Brown & Miller, 2013, p. 172).

[4] Foreign language learning: *"the language is not spoken in the immediate environment of the learner, although mass media may provide opportunities for practicing the receptive skills. The learner has little or no opportunity to use the language in natural communication situations"* (Ringbom & Akademi, n.d., p. 39).
Second language learning: *"the language is spoken in the immediate environment of the learner, who has good opportunities to use the language by participating in natural communication situations"* (Ringbom & Akademi, n.d., p. 38).

[5] Minority language: *"A language, typically of low status, spoken by a minority of people in a given country"* (Brown & Miller, 2013, p. 288).

English Integrated Learning). With the objective of teaching content and language simultaneously, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 1) assert that CLIL constitutes neither *"a new form of language education"*, nor *"a new form of subject education"*. Instead, the goal is *"an innovative fusion of both"*, since subject and language are closely interwoven and both are seen as integral components of the whole learning and teaching process (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 1).

Since CLIL, *"as a major educational innovation"* (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010, p. 3), shares many characteristics with existing bilingual education programs, controversies regarding their similarities and differences can be found within the existing pool of literature on bilingual education (Dalton-Puffer & Nikula, 2014). CLIL is often simply referred to as *"bilingual learning"* (Eurydice at NFER, 2004/05) or positioned within the broader field of bilingual education (Coyle, 2007). Ruiz de Zarobe (2011, p. 129), however, views CLIL as a *"generic term"*, encompassing other existing teaching approaches, such as content-based instruction (CBI)[6] and immersion teaching[7]. Whereas Lasagabaster & Sierra (2009) stress the difference between immersion and CLIL programs, Somers and Surmont (2012, p. 113) find the proposed distinction *"neither clear nor universally tenable"*. Cenoz's (2015, p. 8) paper deals with the difference between CLIL and content-based instruction (CBI), concluding that there are no *"essential differences between CBI and CLIL"*. Finally, Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2014) call for clarification of the term CLIL. Although there has not yet been developed a definite definition of CLIL, it is its dual focus on successful content and language acquisition as well as its flexibility which set it apart from other bilingual educational approaches (Georgiou, 2012).

Depending on the country as well as on the educational setting, nearly every CLIL provision has different goals and foci and its meaning attached to it is therefore *"multi-faceted"* (Marsh, 2002, p. 10). Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) describe the existence of several CLIL types, which can be found on the pre-school, primary, secondary and

[6] Several definitions of CBI exist, one of them stating that it is *"the integration of particular content with language teaching aims ... the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills"* (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989, p. 2).

[7] As opposed to CLIL, the target language used in immersion teaching programs is usually spoken locally, meaning that students are immersed by the language outside of the formal school context as well. Moreover, immersion teachers are usually native speakers and the goal is that students achieve a native like command of the language (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009).

tertiary educational level in Europe. In addition to Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 13), who stress the various *"faces of CLIL"*, Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit (2010, p. 2) emphasize its *"remarkable variety of practices that can be found under its umbrella"* since there has not yet been a *"specific CLIL-teaching methodology"* defined. Thus, CLIL methods differ from each other with regards to the amount of time devoted to teaching and learning in an additional language. Therefore, CLIL is very flexible since it can be implemented either as a short-term or long-term program, meaning that subject lessons conducted in a foreign language can range from the duration of a few weeks up to a whole school year (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010). Moreover, CLIL practices allow for high-intensity exposure, referring to "*an exclusive use of the target language"*[8](Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010, p. 2), as well as low-intensity exposure in which the foreign language is merely put to use for selected activities and found in certain material (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008).

2.1.2 Characteristics

Due to contextual variables, there is no one-size-fits-all CLIL-model; however, Dalton-Puffer (2011) defined several characteristics of a prototypical CLIL provision. These features help distinguishing CLIL from other forms of bilingual education, as those mentioned above, as well as creating a basic understanding of what can be expected in content and language integrated learning practices.

Firstly, the successful acquisition of literacy skills in learners' first language is usually a precondition for implementing CLIL in any school curriculum. That is, in CLIL lessons, learners will not develop reading and writing skills through the foreign language; on the contrary, they are supposed to transfer their already acquired skills to the target language. Therefore, CLIL is more often implemented at the secondary level rather than at the primary (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011).

Secondly, Dalton-Puffer (2011) remarks that a foreign language is used in CLIL, not a second language. That is, the use of the target language is mostly restricted to the classroom, provided that the learners do not encounter it *"in the wider society they live*

[8] target language: *"a language other than one's native language that is being learned"* (*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, 1995, p. 1206).

in" (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 183). Hence, learners are usually not immersed in the CLIL language outside of school.

Thirdly, since CLIL subjects are timetabled as content subjects, classroom content is not *"taken from everyday life"*, but from the respective content subject, professions or academic disciplines (Wolff, 2007, as cited in Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 184). Hence, CLIL subjects, which usually amount to less than 50% of the curriculum, are usually taught by subject-content specialists and not native speakers of the target language. However, the target language continues to be normally placed within the curriculum as a foreign language subject and is therefore taught by language experts. Again, Dalton-Puffer (2011, p. 183) stresses English as the dominant CLIL language, since holding a sufficient command of the language is regarded *"as a key literacy feature"* worldwide.

In conclusion, it can be said that defining CLIL is not a straightforward and easy matter, since it is a complex concept, which comprises a range of models developed to fit specific contexts under its umbrella. However, its *"content-driven approach distinguishes it from other language-driven approaches"*, meaning that CLIL *"necessarily caters to a content subject curriculum"* (Georgiou, 2012, p. 498). On the basis of Dalton-Puffer's (2011) proposed characteristics typical for European, Asian and South American CLIL programs, Content and Language Integrated Learning can be summarized as a *"foreign language enrichment measure packaged into content teaching"* (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 184).

2.1.3 Origins

Although CLIL emerged only in the 1990s and the term itself was coined in 1994 in Europe, teaching curricular subjects *"with and through a foreign language"* (Eurydice, 2006, p. 7) is nothing completely new and the first known CLIL-type program may have been put into practice some 5,000 years ago (Pérez-Canado, 2011). For a long time, Latin, for example, was used as a second language to impart content knowledge. That is, Latin was the medium of instruction in European universities and became the principal language used in various fields, such as theology, law and medicine (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008).

In the course of the last centuries, people realized the value of being able to communicate in more than one's native language[9]. However, it seemed that only wealthy people got to enjoy the privilege of bilingualism[10] and multilingualism[11], since they had enough money to either send their children abroad or hire a foreign tutor, in order to enable their children to learn another language (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008).

The impetus for the establishment of multilingual teaching programs worldwide resulted from a request by English-speaking parents, living in the Canadian province of Quebec where, however, the majority speaks French, towards local authorities to establish a language-immersion program in which all content subjects would be taught in French. The parents had been worried about their children's success in their future lives, since they believed that regular second language lessons would not suffice for their children to achieve fluent communication competences in French. Although stakeholders, such as the principal, teachers and pupils faced several challenges, the program was successful and lead to an outbreak of immersion teaching, not merely throughout Canada, but throughout the entire world (Eurydice, 2006; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008). From the 1970s onwards, it was increasingly understood that foreign language classes were not enough anymore and that *"content and language needed to be taught and learnt hand in hand"* (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 10). Although Canadian immersion experience is not one-to-one assignable to Europe, together with North American bilingual education, it can be regarded as its ancestor, stimulating research and experiments in teaching subjects through a foreign language in Europe (Pérez-Canado, 2011; Eurydice, 2006).

2.1.4 Driving forces

Due to the world and the markets becoming increasingly globalised and merged, having foreign languages at one's disposal has become more valued during the last decades. Multilingualism is sought after and the integration of CLIL in the national school curriculum is regarded as an effective tool and a practical solution towards reaching that goal. Driving forces behind the quick spread of CLIL within Europe are the European

[9] *"The first language acquired by a child"* (Brown & Miller, 2013, p. 302).
[10] *"The use of two or more languages by an individual or community"* (Brown & Miller, 2013, p. 51).
[11] *"The use of multiple languages by an individual speaker or by a community"* (Brown & Miller, 2013, p. 299).

Union language policy makers, individuals such as parents and teachers, as well as school-based attitudes towards globalization.

2.1.4.1 The European Union

Support coming from the European Union can be regarded as one of the main effectors for adopting CLIL worldwide (Georgiou, 2012). Multilingualism is promoted *"both for reasons of professional and personal mobility within its single market, and as a force for cross-cultural contacts and mutual understanding. ... It enables us to take advantage of the freedom to work or study in another member state"* (*European Commission*, 2008, chapter 14, as quoted in Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010, p. 4). It is important to mention that already in 1995, shortly after the term CLIL was coined, the 'Mother Tongue + 2' policy was proposed by the European Commission. In this manner, European citizens were encouraged to learn two languages, one of them being English, in addition to their mother language (Pérez-Vidal, 2009). Thereby, the European Union recognized the value of CLIL, which would soon be considered one of the most *"effective practices for helping all EU citizens to become proficient in three European languages"* (*Eurydice*, 2006, p. 8). Hence, the CLIL method got promoted in various policy documents and *"generous funding support"* was offered by the European Union (Georgiou, 2012, p. 496).

2.1.4.2 Parents

Secondly, and in addition to *"high-level policy"*, the growth of CLIL within the last 20 years can be attributed to parents and teachers, who *"ignited the CLIL engine and keep it going"* (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010, p. 4). Parents realized that foreign language knowledge is vital for their children to be successful and not disadvantaged in a job market which is becoming increasingly internationally intertwined as well as competitive. Hence, CLIL, providing additional foreign language exposure, seems to be a promising way for adequately preparing their children for the future. The fact that foreign language learning is embedded in the school curriculum and, consequently, does not call for an alternation or extension of students' time-tables, renders CLIL even more attractive to parents. Since parental support in the *"introduction, the establishment, and the implementation stages of CLIL programs is crucial"* (Georgiou, 2012, p. 496), parents are increasingly encouraged to promote CLIL since it provides *"an additional*

means by which to give our youngsters the opportunities to develop their capacity to use language and to reap the benefits in their present and future live" (Marsh, n.d., p. 10).

2.1.4.3 Educational practices

Finally, socio-economic changes lead to transformations throughout the entire world, which educational practices need to adapt to. Nowadays, learners are increasingly exposed to communication technologies from an early age, such as mobile phones and tablets, and entertainment devices, such as the Internet. An accompanying change of life style affects and alters "*learners' mindset"*, which educators need to respond to (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010, pp. 9-10). Whereas the old attitude *"learn now for use later"* has been abandoned, since it reflects a *"deferred purpose"*, *"learn as you use, use as you learn"* is in the center of effective education, reflecting the *"immediacy of purpose"*, and, thereby, being among the success factors of CLIL (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 11; Marsh, 2002, p. 66). Moreover, whereas traditional non-CLIL teaching education is now even referred to as *"drip-feed"* (Vez, 2009, p. 8) or often considered as *"second-rate"* education (Eurydice at NFER, 2004/05), CLIL, on the contrary, is labeled as *"modern, effective, efficient and forward-looking"* (Dalton-Puffer, Nikola & Smit, 2010, p. 3), adequately responding to the *"demands and expectations of the modern age"* (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 9).

2.1.5 Distribution

CLIL, as a European invention, has found strong approval, and, consequently, has been widely distributed in the educational system all across Europe. Following European foreign language policies, *"monolingual traditions of the Austrian education system"* too have been challenged by teaching through an additional language (Dalton-Puffer, Faistauer & Vetter, 2011, p. 194). Since English is the main language used in CLIL, followed by French and Italian, the Austrian equivalent for CLIL is EAA, which is the abbreviation for English as a working language (Englisch als Arbeitssprache) (Abuja, 2007). The following chapter provides information on the implementation and role of CLIL in Europe and Austria. Since the empirical part of this thesis is concerned with CLIL at the secondary level, the theory presented is, consequently, exclusively confined to it.

2.1.5.1 Europe

CLIL can be regarded as *"the European label for bilingual education*" (Pérez-Canado, 2011, p. 318), since it functions as a response to *"the linguistic needs of the EU*" (Munoz, 2007, as quoted in Pérez-Canado, 2011, p. 318). The Eurydice survey, which has been carried out in 2006, reveals that 30 European countries apply this teaching approach at least partly, whereas only six countries do not involve it at all. As already mentioned, there is no one CLIL method, since CLIL practices highly differ among those countries, depending on a particular program's *"intensity"*, mandatory status, *"age of onset"* and length of time (Pérez-Canado, 2011, p. 319). On the basis of these variables, the existence of 216 different types of CLIL provisions in Europe has been claimed (Pérez-Canado, 2011).

The Eurydice report (2006) sheds light on the CLIL provisions in every European country, concluding that they vary widely across Europe. However, some generalizations can be made. First, English is most commonly used as the language of instruction, followed by French and German. Second, and with regards to admission criteria, some countries have none for the establishment of CLIL (e.g. Austria and Germany), whereas others consider learners' subject knowledge (e.g. Czech Republic) or their target language competences (e.g. France), or both (e.g. Hungary). Lastly, history, geography and science are the most popular CLIL subjects taught at secondary level (Pérez Canado, 2011).

2.1.5.2 Austria

The foundation stones for CLIL at a secondary level in Austria were laid through setting up a national project group at the ZSE (Zentrum für Schulentwicklung in Graz). Following theoretical and practical reports, CLIL material was published, aimed at teachers as well as schools showing interest in CLIL. Since then, CLIL activities have been expanded throughout the Austrian educational system (Abuja, 2007).

The first statistical analyses of its distribution showed that 15% of all Austrian secondary schools offer at least some kind of CLIL activity. It is said that approximately 7% of all general secondary schools (Hauptschule), 27% of secondary academic schools (AHS) and 30% of all vocational schools (BHS) integrate CLIL at least to some degree. It needs to be mentioned, however, that those figures are based on a survey carried out

in 1997, when CLIL was merely at its onset (Abuja, 2007). Hence, it may be assumed that the percentage of CLIL provisions in Austrian secondary schools has increased considerably by now. However, an overall survey on CLIL dissemination in Austria has yet to be conducted, due to the individual education authorities (Landesschulräte) receiving narrower data about a specific school type or CLIL language (Nezbeda, 2005).

In Vienna, four types of CLIL provisions can be distinguished (Nezbeda, 2005). First, there is the Vienna Bilingual Schooling (VBS), which has been developed by the local school board in order to *"cater for different educational needs in the region"* (Abuja, 2007, p. 17). Its school population consists of 50% German speaking and 50% English speaking students, more than 50% of the subjects are taught in English and native speakers are employed if possible (Nezbeda, 2005; Abuja, 2007). Second, there are European Middle Schools (EMS) and Junior High Schools (JHS) for science, information, arts and technology. Those schools put an emphasis on teaching a few subjects through a foreign language. Third, the Dual Language Program (DLP) can be found in cooperative secondary schools. In contrast to JHS or EMS, the DLP functions as a *"phased-in-approach"* (Abuja, 2007, p. 17), meaning that it is a project undertaken for a limited period of time, e.g. for a couple of weeks (Nezbeda, 2005).

In order to reach a wide target group, a broad spectrum of CLIL provisions is offered in Austria. That is, school types get various opportunities to modify CLIL instruction according to *"the provision of teachers and materials"*, *"the target group"* and the *"schools individual setting"* (Abuja, 2007, p. 17). Therefore, depending on its organization, resources and availability, a school can implement CLIL any time at short notice. If a school decides on CLIL, composing a proposal for the school authority is all that is necessary. Moreover, and as already mentioned, no admission criteria exist in Austria. If a school decides to open up for CLIL, its learners do not have to fulfill specific entrance requirements (Eurydice, 2004/05).

Being a highly flexible approach and not a mandatory part of the Austrian school system, the introduction of CLIL is based on school autonomy. Firstly, there is no *"minimum allocation for CLIL"*, since, as already mentioned above, its establishment depends on a school's resources (Eurydice, 2004/05, p. 8). Since CLIL is voluntarily chosen to be implemented by particular schools themselves, they are free to intensify or

cancel the program, depending on whether this teaching approach feels appropriate for their school type. Furthermore, no specifications regarding the subjects taught or the minimum length of provision exist. The choice of subjects taught in a foreign language depends on the availability of teachers and teaching material (Abuja, 2007). The most popular CLIL subjects in secondary education in Austria are geography, biology and history (Abuja, 2007). With regards to assessment criteria, tests may be taken in the official or the CLIL language of instruction. If students decide on taking an exam in the target language, language proficiency is not part of the assessment. Furthermore, if subject content was taught in a foreign language, students receive a comment on their school certificate (Zeugnisvermerk), which functions as an indication for the CLIL subjects (Eurydice, 2004/05).

2.1.6 Aims & goals

It can be argued that overall gains of CLIL being integrated in mainstream education have already become more or less evident throughout the previous chapters. Nevertheless, its specific goals, objectives and benefits found on various dimensions are explained in greater detail in the following part of the thesis.

Although pursuing and achieving a wide range of outcomes, it is commonly believed that CLIL focuses exclusively on learners' foreign language development, whilst disregarding other domains. Thus, Beardsmore (1999, as cited in Marsh, 2002, p. 66) asserts that *"the major concern is about education, not about becoming bi- or multilingual ... the multiple language proficiency is the added value which can be obtained, at no cost to other skills and knowledge, if properly designed"*.

Indeed, the CLIL Compendium, which resulted out of a research-driven project, aims to convey the numerous potentials of CLIL. Being in accordance with Marsh (2002), a range of Content and Language Integrated Learning objectives relating to culture, content, language, environment and learning can be observed.

"Developing intercultural communication skills" as well as acquiring knowledge about *"specific neighboring countries"*, *"regions"* and/or *"minority groups"* belong to the cultural dimension (Marsh, 2002, p. 67). In addition, Pérez-Vidal (2009, p. 12) remarks that there is a *"social slant"* to CLIL, referring to its power to foster linguistic and

cultural diversity as well as *"enhancing a broad view of the world"*. The environmental dimension comprises, amongst others, the preparation for internationalization, which has already been discussed above (Marsh, 2002).

Since CLIL lessons are run supplementary to conventional foreign language lessons, students benefit from increased exposure to the foreign language. Therefore, it can be argued that enhancing target language skills is the main objective in CLIL programs; however, developing oral communication skills is highlighted in this process (Marsh, 2002). Using the foreign language for discussing subject content leads to more authentic, non-contrived and meaningful communication (Pérez-Vidal, 2009). Thereby, meaningful interaction is stimulated by a genuine purpose for using the language, which lies beyond learning the language itself (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007). Moreover, the integration of content and language learning saves time since *"two things can be learned in the slot otherwise taken up by only one"* (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007, p. 8).

Regarding the content dimension, students get the chance to encounter content knowledge from a different standpoint and to access *"subject-specific target language terminology"* (Marsh, 2002, p. 69). This might lead to a deeper understanding of the subject content. Furthermore, CLIL offers students an alternative way of approaching language learning and *"encourages them to become much greater risk-takers in terms of their linguistic self-confidence"* (Marsh, 2002, p. 69). CLIL programs, which focus on meaning rather than on form, they provide a comfortable and supportive atmosphere for students to engage in content and language learning, leading to an increase in learner motivation (Marsh, 2002; Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007).

2.1.7 Potential challenges

From the mid-1990s onwards, a great deal of research on of the potential successes or drawbacks attributed to CLIL has been carried out (Dalton-Puffer & Nikula, 2014). Most studies attest that CLIL leads to an improvement in learners' foreign language ability (Dalton-Puffer, 2011), confirming that CLIL students outperform their non-CLIL counterparts on various linguistic levels (Ruiz De Zarobe, 2011). Past research (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009; Pladevall-Ballester, 2014). has proven CLIL to be an effective method for enhancing students' interest in and motivation for learning a foreign language.

Although research on CLIL efficiency has shown that its proposed objectives and aims are, overall, successfully met, sufficiently acquiring the content of the subjects taught in a foreign language remains a primary concern of educators and parents as *"a CLIL program needs to provide the same level of education and achievement in content as would L1*[12] *instruction"* (Georgiou, 2012, p. 501). Therefore, in order to ensure a *"fair partnership"* and live up to its understanding of being a content-driven approach, CLIL must not have a harmful bearing on students' content acquisition (Georgiou, 2012, p. 502). Most studies provide evidence that whilst compensating for deficits encountered in conventional foreign language lessons, CLIL does not impede content attainment. Although *"research available is not extensive enough to allow for definite conclusions"*, CLIL and non-CLIL students generally achieve equal outcomes with regards to content learning (Georgiou, 2012, p. 501).

After having provided some vital information on CLIL, the next part of this thesis is concerned with parents' involvement in their child's school education.

2.2 Parental school involvement

It is commonly understood that the amount of time spent at school increases when children advance in age. Consequently, less time is spent at home or anywhere else (Eccles & Harold, 1993). Nevertheless, it is theoretically supported and increasingly recognized that children's education is not exclusively limited to school but takes place at home concurrently. Hence, home can be regarded as an equally important institution in which learning, through active parent involvement, takes place (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994). In fact, parents have increasingly become aware that their child's future is not merely dependent on the teacher's work, but relies a great deal on them serving as *"coworkers"* (Ule, Zivoder & Bois-Reymond, 2015, p. 329).

2.2.1 Importance of involvement

Indeed, within the literature on parental school involvement, a wide range of studies confirms that parents *"play a crucial role"* when it comes to children's *"academic"* as well as *"socio-emotional development"* (Eccles & Harold, 1993, p. 568). Studies conducted (Griffith, 1998; Jeynes, 2007; Fan & Chen, 1999) display a positive

[12] L1=first language

correlation between active parental involvement and children's school achievement, their grades, test scores, as well as teacher performance and school climate in general. Besides boosting educational outcomes, active parental engagement contributes to the child's *"personal sense of efficacy for succeeding in school"* (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, p. 328) and influences his/her *"beliefs about the importance of education"* (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005, p. 106). Therefore, several theories (e.g. Epstein, 1995; 2001) highlight the importance of a positive school-family cooperation, since it is claimed that *"the links between parents and schools does influence children's and adolescents' school success"* (Eccles & Harold, 1993, p. 568).

2.2.2 Types of involvement

Parental involvement refers to a *"set of behaviors and attitudes"* which involves both, *"direct child-parent interactions that take place at home"* as well as *"family school-community interactions that take place in the school"* (Strier & Katz, 2015, p. 2). Among others, common areas of parental school involvement include assisting with homework, enabling and setting up private tutoring, cooperating with teachers, encouraging and emotionally as well as financially supporting the child, offering assistance in decision making, providing educational equipment (e.g. laptop, tablets), and so on (Ule, Zivoder & Bois-Reymond, 2015).

2.2.2.1 Domains of involvement

Researchers have developed different frames in order to classify types of parental involvement. The two models described below use dimensions and physical space as a means of categorization.

The first model, proposed by Grolnick and Slowiaczek, (1994, p. 247) involves a *"tripartite conceptualization"* of parent involvement. In doing so, parent involvement is defined as *"the dedication of resources by the parent to the child within a given domain"*, stressing the educational domain within their framework (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994, p. 238). The model comprises three dimensions which correspond to possible manifestations of parents' involvement with their child's education. Parents can show involvement through overt behavior by participating in school activities. Parents may display personal involvement by monitoring the child's school process, thereby relating to the child's *"affective experience that the parent cares about school, and has*

and enjoys interactions with them around school" (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994, p. 239). Within the cognitive/intellectual domain, parents foster their child's cognitive development by providing cognitively stimulating materials and activities. Engaging children in intellectual activities, such encouraging extracurricular reading, plays a crucial part in minimizing the gap between school and home, since children practice skills at home that are useful for school (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994).

The second model of parental involvement, compiled by Epstein and Salinas (2004) is claimed to be the best known and most quoted (Strier & Katz, 2015, p. 3). Within this framework, three types of parent involvement are classified according to its space of activity. Communication between school and home, such as attending school events, cooperating and helping with decisions as well as voluntary assistance in school belong to the group of school-based involvement. Home-based involvement comprises being involved in the child's school matters at home, such as helping with homework. Collaboration with the community, which is the third category, involves a school's co-action with organizations it is being surrounded by (Epstein & Salinas, 2004, as cited in Strier & Katz, 2015).

2.2.2.2 Levels of involvement

Noy's (1990) and Goodall & Montgomery's (2014) frames categorize parental involvement according to how extensively parents are engaged in their child's school life.

Noy (1990) suggests five levels of involvement, ranging from passive to highly active parental school engagement. The first level is characterized by a *"lack of involvement"* in that parents are merely *"observers"* and *"passive bystanders"* when it comes to their children's school education (Noy, 1990, as cited in Strier & Katz, 2015, p. 4). On the second level, *"alleged involvement"*, parents function as *"service providers"*, meaning that they may accompany school trips or help with other small school projects (Noy, 1990, as cited in Strier & Katz, 2015, p. 4). *"Partial involvement"* can be found on the third level, when parents are regarded as learners, since they engage in activities that are *"designed to educate and promote parents"* (Noy, 1990, as cited in Strier & Katz, 2015, p. 4). *"Full involvement"* is achieved on the fourth level, when parents function as *"partners in the educational process"* (Noy, 1990, as cited in Strier & Katz, 2015, p. 4).

Specific examples are parents adopting the role of the teacher in teaching a particular subject they have a firm grasp on, giving presentations about their occupation or telling stories about their past. Being involved in *"school policymaking"* and functioning in various school committees belong to the final and likewise highest possible stage of school involvement (Noy 1990, as cited in Strier & Katz, 2015, p.4).

Goodall and Montgomery's (2014) suggested continuum involves a progression from parental involvement with the school to parental engagement with children's learning. The continuum displays a change in focus, namely from the relation between parents and the school through to the relation between parents and their children's learning. The *"concept of agency"*, which has been defined as *"the capacity of parents to act (in a beneficial manner) in relation to their children's learning"* (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014, p. 401), accompanies this *"shift in emphasis"*, since parental agency increases while school agency decreases as parents become more actively involved when moving along the continuum (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014, p. 399). The three points on the continuum are briefly explained below.

Parental engagement with the school constitutes the initial point on the continuum, when the agency as well a responsibility for the child's learning remains mainly with the school. That is, although parents are involved in school activities, those activities are solicited and controlled by the school itself and are carried out near school. Moreover, in this phase, information is merely presented to, but not required from the parents. An example of this point would be a *"parents' evening"*, being characterized by a *"one way flow of information ... from teacher to parents*" (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014, p. 403). That is, parents receive information on their child's school performance, behavior or attainment, without engaging in deeper conversation with the teacher. Goodall and Montgomery (2014, p. 403) state that the importance of this point in the continuum lays in *"the transfer of information"*, since *"there are things that parents need to know, such as calendar dates, curricular themes and topics"* (Goodall and Montgomery, 2014, p. 403).

The second level on the continuum is called *"parental involvement with schooling"* and is dominated by the *"processes which surround learning"* (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014, p. 404). In contrast to the first level, agency to assist children's learning is divided

between educators and parents. Information and knowledge is exchanged between parents, teachers and children and activities may either take place at school or at home. Moreover, parents choose to become more deeply involved in the child's learning process, although *"nature, direction and content of that learning is set by the school"* (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014, p. 404). Parental assistance with homework serves as an example in that parents decide to help of their own accord with tasks directed by the school.

The third level, *"parental engagement with the child's learning"*, is characterized by the highest level of parental agency (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014, p. 405). At this stage, parents become involved due to their perception of their role as parents and not because it is required by the school. Parents offer learning possibilities for their child, which are either related to school or function as extra school activities (e.g. acting classes). Either way, those activities are most likely to occur outside of school. Since it is the highest form of parental school engagement and deliberately chosen by the parents themselves, their *"attitude towards learning in the home"* is expressed on this level (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014, p. 406). Goodall (2013) stresses the goal of parental engagement since many parents, especially those from minority groups, might not show a strong involvement with school, due to economic challenges for example, but nevertheless desire to be involved in their child's learning and education (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014). This leads us to variables influencing parental involvement.

2.2.3 Variables for involvement

Although the benefits of parental involvement are widely acknowledged, not all parents are equally involved in their child's education. Especially parent and child variables strongly determine if and to what degree parents might become involved.

2.2.3.1 Parent variables

As opposed to status variables, such as income, marital status, education or ethnicity, which affect parental involvement as well, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997) suggest that dynamic variables, which are constructed by parents' beliefs, experiences, attitude, motivation and feeling as to how they position themselves *"in terms of their own answer to the question 'Should I, and will I, become involved in my child's education?'"*, are most crucial (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997, p. 9).

A psychological construct

The various types and levels of possible parental involvement discussed above are determined by the underlying reasons *why* parents decide to become involved in the first place. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) suggest three dynamic variables that most significantly influence parents' decisions to become engaged in their child's educational trajectory. Those are (1) their *"personal construction of the parental role"*, (2) their *"positive sense of efficacy for helping their children succeed in school"*, and (3) *"demands for involvement from children and the school"* (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, p. 310).

Parental role construction is defined as parents' *"beliefs and understandings about the requirements and expectations of the parental role"* with regards to their child's educational process (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997, p. 17). Generally, the parental role is constructed and guided by parents' attitudes and ideas towards child-rearing and child-development, and consequently affect their decision regarding their perceived responsibility for being involved in their child's education. Parental roles are socially constructed in that parents' choice for becoming involved is influenced by expectations of their role as parents, coming from individuals and social groups (e.g. the workplace or the child's school) they belong to. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997, p. 10) state that mothers, for example, *"experience stronger role expectations than fathers"* to assist children in their daily schooling processes, such as helping with homework, whereas fathers feel more responsible to be engaged in their athletic activities as well as when it comes to bigger and more severe decisions the child has to face. In accordance, research has shown that although fathers' involvement in their child's education has generally grown since the 1970s, a significant number of fathers still claims to have no daily interaction with their child, helps less with homework than mothers, and is more involved in *"out of school learning"*, such as hobbies, IT and building (*Department for children, school and families*, 2008, p. 4).

Feeling competent enough to help their child with school related work is the second major effector, which determines parents' choice for becoming involved. That is, parents who *"have a positive sense of efficacy for helping their child in school"* (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, p. 313), believe that they possess the necessary skills and knowledge to do so. Thereby, parents' *"self-perceptions of specific skills and*

knowledge" need to correspond to their type of involvement chosen (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, p. 317). For instance, a mother who believes to be good in foreign languages but rather untaught in Mathematics will choose to study with her child for English tests rather than Mathematics exams. As opposed to parents who are confident that their involvement serves as a positive contribution to their child's school career, parents with a low sense of efficacy tend to avoid engagement since they are afraid of being faced with their own inadequacies or do not expect to bring about beneficial educational outcomes for their child (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Moreover, parents who believe that a child's school success is entirely determined by his or her innate ability and fixed intelligence are less inclined to become involved, whereas parents who believe in the power of putting effort in school work are more likely to become involved (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

The third major construct that influences parents' decision about whether to become involved are invitations and opportunities for involvement coming from the school or the child. Implicit and explicit demands for involvement voiced by the child indicate his or her positive attitude towards parents' involvement. Also, if parents feel that the school values and requires their contribution, they are more likely to become involved (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995).

Further variables

In addition to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's suggested variables, age and sex, ethnicity, marital status, number of children and level of parents' education, among others, influence the degree to which parents show involvement in their child's education. Eccles & Harold (1993) state that research has shown that parents who have a higher level of education and less children are more involved, whereas family size and working status do not affect involvement. Nevertheless, Hornby & Lafaele (2011) point out that if both parents work, less time can be dedicated to school and home-based involvement. Moreover, *"demands of employment"*, such as parents' work schedule and distance between their workstation and their child's school, as well as *"family responsibility"*, having to look after another child for example, have a bearing on parents' psychological resources, such as time and energy (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, p. 318). According to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's model (1995), however, parents with a strong sense of efficacy for helping their child as well as those who

regard being integrated in their child's education as an essential part of their role as a parent, will nevertheless choose to become involved. On the contrary, parents who do not perceive being engaged in their child's education as being part of their parental responsibility and have a low sense of efficacy will not choose to become involved, *"regardless of time free from other employment or family-related demands"* (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995: 318). Parents' physical and mental well-being as well as their *"general coping strategies"* are further psychological resources which determine their level of involvement (Eccles & Harold, 1993, p. 570). Furthermore, Eccles & Harold (1993, p. 571) emphasize *"parents' perceptions of their child"* as a determining factor for involvement. Parents emphasis on their child's academic skills and competences, beliefs and expectations towards their child's education and future occupation, as well as parents' *"view of the options ... available for their child in the present and the future"* influence their degree of involvement (Eccles & Harold, 1993, p. 571).

2.2.3.2 Child variables

Parental involvement does not merely depend on parent variables, but is influenced by characteristics of the child, as well. Age, for example, is a strong variable that affects parental engagement in their child's education. That is, as the child progresses towards a higher level of education, parental involvement generally declines and touches the bottom when children reach secondary school (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). This decline in involvement can be attributed to parents' belief that their child strives for independence and autonomy. Although this might be partly the case, studies (Deslandes & Cloutier, 2002) have shown that adolescents attending secondary school still express desire and show willingness for their parents to be involved, especially with home-based activities. Feeling a decline in their sense of efficacy is more likely the reason why parents' involvement decreases as children move into secondary school. Since subject content becomes more specific and complicated, parents might feel overwhelmed and incapable of helping their child, due to a lack of knowledge and skills (Eccles & Harold, 1993). The child's personality is another variable. That is, parents are more inclined to help a child who struggles with school work than a child who does and always has performed well at school. Furthermore, parents are more likely to become actively engaged in their child's school process, if they have a close relationship with

their child and have already experienced success being involved in another child's education (Eccles & Harold, 1993).

2.3 The phenomenon of helicopter parents

Although parent and child variables, such as those mentioned above, influence the degree to which parents show involvement in their child's educational trajectory, Levine (2006: 138) claims that nowadays, *"overinvolvement"*, especially among upper-class parents, has increasingly become the case within the scope of parental involvement in general. Carney-Hall (2008, p. 3), too, points out that "*parental involvement has reportedly grown over the past few years"* and that today's parents have been characterized as *"child-focused"*, *"involved"* and *"overprotective"* (Howe & Strauss, 2000, as cited in Carney-Hall, 2008, p. 4). That is, in order to secure children's academic success and future career, parents are frequently putting immense pressure on their child's academic achievement (Warner, 2010) and are being intrusive in their child's education in order to prepare him or her for future competitiveness (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). Accordingly, parents who are overly involved and invasive in various areas of their child's life, primarily when it comes to their child's educational development, are labeled as helicopter parents, *"hovering around the adult student prepared to intervene"* (Carney-Hall, 2008, p. 3).

2.3.1 Definition

Overprotective and overinvolved parents can be, metaphorically speaking, regarded as helicopters, constantly watching over their child whilst waiting to interfere immediately as soon as the child experiences the slightest form of inconvenience. Hunt (2008, p. 9) states that *"[h]elicopter parents hover over and around their children interceding as soon as the child faces an unpleasant situation or uncertainty"*. In addition, Little (2014, p. 533) asserts that thereby *"appropriate parenting characteristics [are] taken to an inappropriate degree"*. This inappropriateness becomes apparent in that parents are not willing to let their child face life challenges independently (LeMoyne & Buchanan 2011). Helicopter parents are not asked by their children to be excessively involved, but hover on a voluntary basis, taking the view that they are being supportive of their child in this way. That is, helicopter parents are said to *"hover willingly"* and *"tirelessly"*, *"organizing many areas of the child's life"* (Hunt, 2008, p. 9). Although the phenomenon of helicopter parenting is said to concern various areas of a child's life,

LeMoyne and Buchanan (2011, p. 402) argue that helicopter parents are primarily intrusive in their child's *"education and future competitiveness"* and are convinced that their over involvement is advantageous for their child's future. Moreover, they (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011, p. 400) point out that parents who permanently check on their child's whereabouts, *"experience separation anxiety"* as soon as the child leaves home, and, consequently, do not seem to *"detach from their children at all"* are, in addition to helicopters, commonly referred to as *"hovercrafts", "hummingbirds", "black hawks"* and *"stealth fighters"* by the American media. Nevertheless, the term *"helicopter parent"* (shortly helopat), which has officially been coined by Forster Cline and Charles Fay (1990) is now most frequently used (Somers & Settle, 2010, p. 19).

While Little (2014, p. 533) equates helicopter parenting with the phenomenon of *"rescuing"*, which implies that in addition to protecting the child, parents intervene as soon as a problem occurs, LeMoyne and Buchanan (2011) embed the concept of helicopter parenting in the context of Baumrind's (1966) parenting styles. In 1966, Diana Baumrind developed three ideal parenting styles, namely the permissive, authoritative and authoritarian one. According to her classification, permissive parents do not mean to *"actively change or control their child's present or future behavior"*, whereas parents adopting an authoritative style are *"actively engaged in shaping the child's behavior"*, which is done *"through parental reason and power rather than negotiation"* (Baumrind, 1966, as cited in LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011, p. 401). Authoritarian parents, in comparison, aim towards specific parenting goals, convinced that those will be primarily reached by force. Those parents value obedience and traditional structure, while making use of authoritative commands. Moreover, they have precisely defined expectations of their child (Baumrind, 1966, as cited in LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011). Although parents might be assertive and *"may appear authoritative in most areas of the child's life"*, they tend to become pushy when it comes to their child's education (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011, p. 402). That is, those parents often act on behalf of their child, meaning that they literally undertake a task which would be the child's duty. Helicopter and authoritarian parents are thus comparable, since both types of parents feature *"similar concerns about their children"* and *"are actively engaged in helping their children to succeed and achieve in life"* (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011, p.

402). However, the helicopter parent can be regarded as an undesirable intensification of the authoritarian parent, preventing the child from becoming independent.

2.3.2 Typical helicopter behavior

LeMoyne and Buchanan (2011, p. 399) state that *"despite much anecdotal evidence, little is known about its existence ... from an empirical perspective"*. That is, although academic research conducted and articles published concerning the phenomenon of helicopter parenting are yet sparse, anecdotes and stories discussing behavioral practices as well as consequences of overinvolved and overprotective parents, mainly voiced by teachers and students, appear in numerous newspapers and magazines (Somers & Settle, 2010). However, those academic and non-academic articles on helicopter parents are mainly concerned with American college students, whose parents show excessive involvement in their college life. Thereby, practices of overinvolved parents of college students include, amongst others, phoning and texting the child several times a day, accepting a several hours car journey to the child's student hostel biweekly in order to clean, editing the child's seminar papers, compiling check-lists for the child, and even being in possession of the password to his/her college account in order to check grades and college schedules, consulting the school principal if necessary, and so on and so forth (Hunt, 2008).

As mentioned above, although the concept of helicopter parents is generally attributed to parents of *"college-aged young adults"* and *"associated with college students"*, LeMoyne and Buchanan (2011, pp. 400-405) emphasize that *"it is not a practice that begins in college"*. On the contrary, the foundation for helicopter parenting is already laid during a child's tender years, meaning that parental over-involvement starts when children are at a very young age and simply continues rather than decreases once they enter college or working life. Showing accordance when defining helicopter parents, Somers and Settle (2010, p. 19) refer to *"a mother, father, or even a grandparent who 'hovers' over a student of any age by being involved - sometimes overly so – in student/school, student/employer, or student/societal relationships"*.

As already mentioned, scholastic evidence on helicopter parents is scant, and behavioral practices of helicopter parents are mostly known through anecdotes. In their studies,

however, LeMoyne & Buchanan (2011), as well as Schiffrin et al. (2014) determine several behavioral criteria, typical for helicopter parents.

LeMoyne and Buchanan (2011) developed a helicopter parenting scale (HPS), consisting of ten items, whereof seven indicate helicopter parenting behaviors. The aim was to *"capture the extent to which the individual felt her or his parents were controlling in their overall treatment"* (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011, p. 405). Since LeMoyne & Buchanan (2011, p. 405) claim that helicopter parenting already starts when children are young, their proposed items of typical helicopter behaviors are *"related to experience while growing up."* Accordingly, LeMoyne and Buchanan's (2011) defined criteria for being labeled as a helicopter parent are that the mother or father supervises the child's every move growing up, worries about the child being able decide on his or her own, and doubts the child's ability to solves problems independently. Moreover, helicopter parents regard their child as their undertaking, perceive it as crucial for him or her not to fail, are afraid that their child makes a mistake and do not hesitate to intervene and deal with problems on their child's behalf (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011).

Schiffrin et al. (2014) also determined behaviors, typical for parents of college students though. In order to *"contrast controlling behaviors"*, statements were intermixed with additional statements that are associated with *"autonomy supportive parenting"* (Schiffrin et al., 2014, p. 550). For instance, encouraging the child to manage his or her own money affairs relates to autonomy supportive parenting, whereas deciding on the child's bed time can definitely be regarded as a helicopter parenting behavior. According to their study, helicopter parents feature the following set of behaviors: setting a time when the child has to be at home, checking on the child's school work and his or her grades, supervising whom the kid spends time with, as well as monitoring and controlling his or her exercise schedule and diet, deciding on a major on behalf of the child, expecting the child to call several times a day in order keep track of his or her whereabouts, getting in touch with the teacher as soon as the child feels to be treated unfairly, and intervening if the child has a problem with his or her school- or roommates (Schiffrin et al., 2014).

2.3.3 Reasons for the emergence of helicopter parents

The term helicopter parent is primarily attributed to *"Baby Boomers"*, namely to those parents that were born between 1946 and 1964, whereas their offspring, children born between 1982 and 2002 are referred to as *"the Millennials"* (Hunt, 2008, p. 9). In fact, children of the Millennial age are claimed to be *"the most protected generation of children in our nation's history"* (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011, p. 399). Some of the potential reasons contributing to this extreme increase in parental over-involvement and overprotection, particularly common among those parents born within the time span mentioned above, are briefly described in this chapter.

Advances in technology lead to an irreversible change in society and, amongst others, paved the way for constant communication even over considerable distances. Whereas in former times, children would spend their afternoons outside, thereby being *"completely out of reach of their parents"*, today's parents use cell phones to keep track of their children's whereabouts (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011, p. 400). As opposed to former generations, the Millennials grew up with cell phones, therefore, *"constant communication is normal"* for them (Hunt, 2008, p. 9). In fact, LeMoyne and Buchanan (2011, p. 400) regard the mobile phone as the major cause for the increase in the number of highly controlling parents, since being *"coupled with e-mail, instant messaging, and social networking sites"*, this device enables the parent to hover over their child even from afar.

Since helicopter parents primarily intervene in their child's school affairs and are entirely convinced to give their child a cutting edge by doing so, *"helicopter parenting may be a sign of economic insecurity"* (Hunt, 2008, p. 9). Due to a steady rise in the rate of unemployment, parents might fear that without ensuring that their child completes a good education, he or she might suffer from unemployment in the future. Hunt (2008, p. 10) states that helicopter parenting may have arisen out of a change "*in lifestyle"*. Indeed, most of the *"boomers"* have been raised *"during the turbulent times of the 1960s"* and have experienced *"major social changes"* (Hunt, 2008, p. 10). That is, during the last 40 or 50 years, our society has considerably altered, leading to the evolvement of new lifestyles, which helicopter parents attempt to adapt to. Thereby, they switched from the *"authoritarian"* style of parenting, by which they had been raised themselves, to a more *"co-operative"* one, involving a greater sense of

responsibility for their child's life, which again manifests itself in taking over children's decisions, for example (Hunt, 2008, p. 10).

Furthermore, Hunt (2008) mentions that the change in family size contributes as well to the fact that parents are becoming increasingly controlling. Since nowadays parents have fewer children, compared to former generations, more time and money can be dedicated to each child. As a consequence, the Millennials turned out to be a *"protected and programmed group"* (Hunt, 2008, p. 10). Lastly, Hunt (2008) refers to a study in which the vast majority of parents admits that their self-esteem highly depends on their child's performance at school and success in life. Little (2014, p. 533) too states that especially those parents who base their self-worth on their child's success adopt the helicopter parenting style.

2.3.4 Helicopter parenting effects

Although there is evidence (Cicchetti & Toth, 1998; Fan & Chen, 2001) that an appropriate level of parental involvement, properly adjusted to the children's stage of development, affects children's academic, emotional and social outcomes positively, concerns have been voiced that age-inappropriate, excessive intervention and control have adverse repercussions on the child's overall well-being.

Indeed, Somers and Settle (2010, p. 19) argue that one needs to distinguish between *"positive parental engagement"* and the *"helicopter parenting"* behavior. That is, parental engagement in many settings of the child's life has, without doubt, positive effects. In order to achieve those effects however, the level of parental engagement has to match the child's age and his or her personal needs for support. Moreover, parents and students need to *"engage in a dialog"*, which implies that the child is *"empowered to act"*, and parents should only intervene in case further support is required (Somers & Settle, 2010, p. 19). As already mentioned above, Schiffrin et al. (2014) differentiate in their study between autonomy supportive behavior and helicopter parenting behavior. Whereas helicopter practices prevent children from achieving independence, due to exaggerated supervision, parents who are involved to a lesser degree foster a sense of autonomy, which in turn highly contributes to children's overall psychological well-being (Schiffrin et al., 2014).

Hence, it is *"during the process of allowing children to become independent that helicopter parenting becomes potentially problematic"* (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011, p. 402). Helicopter parents are constantly concerned about their children's ability to make proper decisions and to attain success; hence, instead of simply providing useful advice and letting them face *"task-oriented challenges"* themselves, parents act on their concerns and do not allow their children to take an active role in solving their own problems (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011, p. 402). For this reason, Schiffrin et al. (2014, p. 555) describe it as a *"hands-on method of parenting"*. LeMoyne and Buchanan (2011, p. 402) remark that parents *"stunt independence by performing transactions for their children rather than nurturing the ability to handle tasks generally"*. Since helicopter parents tend to act on behalf of their child as soon as difficulties arise, children will not learn to watch out or take on responsibility for themselves, and therefore will be increasingly dependent on others throughout their lives (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011).

Moreover, studies reveal a positive correlation between a lower sense of autonomy and a higher level of depression. Indeed, controlling and intensively involved parents hamper students' autonomy, competence and perseverance, which in turn leads to higher levels of depression and decreased satisfaction with life. Students whose parents constantly step in, feel less confident to be able to master their life affairs on their own. Due to this lack of self-control and volition, they are more likely to get depressed and be dissatisfied with their lives (Schiffrin et al., 2014). In addition, Schiffrin et al. (2014, p. 554) report that children who are helicoptered, become more *"psychologically distant from their parents*". Schiffrin et al.'s (2014) study broadened results already presented by LeMoyne & Buchanan (2011), namely that children of helicopter parents are more likely to take medicine and pain killers, even without possessing a medical prescription, in order to ease anxiety and depression. Briefly, results of the two studies provide evidence that students who reported intense parental control showed lower levels of their overall well-being (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011; Schiffrin et al., 2014). In addition to investigating students' well being, Fingerman et al.'s study (2012) was concerned with the effects of over involvement on parent's well-being as well. Evidently, intense parental support negatively impacts parents' well-being too. In their study, parents who viewed their support to their grown children as extensive and

overdone, reported diminished well-being and lower life-satisfaction (Fingerman et al., 2012).

2.4 Parental Stress

As Fingerman et al.'s (2012) study confirms, overinvolvement in their child's life affaires seemingly impairs parents' well-being. Moreover, it has already been argued that the degree to which parents become engaged in their child's school trajectory depends, amongst others, on their perceived demands of their role as a parent (Hover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). Although their study presents contradictory results, Greenberger & O'Neil (1993, p. 182) state that *"stronger commitment to a role would be expected to increase vulnerability to stressors in the area of the commitment"*. In that sense, parents who take their parenting role and its accompanying responsibilities fairly seriously, would be expected to be more prone to stress. Although the parental role brings along both demands and joys, research has shown that for the most part, parenthood impacts parents' psychological well-being negatively (Berry & Jones, 1995). In their study, Barnett & Baruch (1985, p. 143) even determine the parental role as the *"major source of stress"* in women's lives.

2.4.1 Definition

In an attempt to define the concept of stress, Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p. 18) refer to it as *"a particular kind of relationship between person and environment"*. Accordingly, stress is generated by those factors which join the person and his or her surrounding environment. Although extreme cases which are out of anyone's control, namely environmental catastrophes as well as personal calamities, such as the unexpected death of a family member, cause stress and disturbance for nearly every human being, it is the *"daily hassles"* and the *"more ordinary ... life stressors"* that call for *"great variations in human response"* (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 19). That is, what might be highly stressful for one person, may not even slightly disturb and disconcert another person. Hence, the concept of stress cannot be objectively defined since it is constantly dependent on a person's individual characteristics. Finally, Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p. 19) conclude that *"[p]sychological stress is a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being"*. Drawing on this definition, one could argue that showing a high degree of parental involvement might be among

those stressors, exploiting parents' available resources, and thereby negatively impacting their overall well-being.

After having decided on Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) definition of stress, since it suits the purpose of the present thesis best, it is also important to distinguish between two similar, often interchangeably used terms, namely 'parenting stress' and 'parental stress'. Whereas parenting stress is defined as *"stress that is felt in response to the demands of being a parent"*, parental stress refers to *"stress that parents experience not only because of child-rearing, but also due to their social and environmental circumstances, responsibilities and everyday life"* (Cronin et al., 2015, p. 3). Hence, parenting stress is exclusively triggered by demands voiced by the child (e.g. demands for attention or food), to which the parent, unfortunately, is not able to respond satisfactorily. Moreover, the parent usually feels overwhelmed balancing the child's desires with his or her own needs, and, therefore, experiences stress (Cronin et al., 2015). Parental stress, in contrast, occurs within a wider context, meaning that in addition to stressors that both, parents and non-parents experience alike, *"child characteristics"* as well as *"responsibilities"* (Cronin et. al., 2015, pp. 3-4) display an additional source of stress for parents, affecting their *"well-being in general, and ... mental health in particular"* (Belsky, 1984, as quoted in Cronin et al., 2015, p. 4). Following this proposed distinction, the present thesis is rather concerned with parental stress, as opposed to parenting stress.

2.4.2 The parental stress scale

Research on parent-child interaction is primarily concerned with the influences of parents on their child, rather than the other way around (Berry & Jones, 1995). If parental stress is measured, however, it is mostly parents of children with special needs, clinical problems or developmental disabilities that are recruited for a particular study (Dyson, 1993; Hastings, 2002; Compas et al,. 1989). Hence, Berry and Jones (1995, p. 464) justifiably point out that *"we know little about the stress of being a parent of children generally"*. Research with regards to stress of parents with typically developing children is as yet scant. Therefore, Berry and Jones (1995, p. 464) developed the parental stress scale as a measure *"with which to assess the stress associated with the role of the parent in ordinary families"*.

The Parental Stress Scale (PSS), which is composed of 18 items, has been developed as a general measure for the construct of parental stress, and can be regarded as a reduced and more appropriate version of the Parenting Stress Index (PSI). Before that, however, the Parenting Stress Index, which was developed by Abiding in 1986, had been the only measure *"specifically related to stress caused by the fact of being a parent"* (Berry & Jones, 1995, p. 464). The PSI, nonetheless, was primarily utilized with parents of children with clinical problems and therefore highly questioned as a suitable measure for stress of parents of typically developing children. After having developed the Parental Stress Scale and having collected data from several studies, Berry and Jones (1995) conclude the parental stress scale to be an advantageous, reliable, valid and easily applicable measure for both mothers and fathers of children with and without behavioral or clinical problems.

In order to determine the level of stress, Berry and Jones (1995, p. 465) developed the parental stress scale through generating items which address the *"dichotomy of parenthood - that it is a source of both pleasure and a strain"*. Thus, those items include both positive elements, which relate to parents' *"emotional benefits"* (joy, love, fun), their *"sense of self-enrichment"* and *"personal development"*, as well as negative elements referring to parents' "*demands on resources such as time, energy, money, and opportunity cost and restrictions"* (Berry & Jones, 1995, p. 465). Examples of items containing positive components are: *"I am happy in my role as a parent"*, *"I enjoy spending time with my child(ren)"* and *"I am satisfied as a parent"*, whereas items involving negative themes are, for example, *"[c]aring for my child(ren) sometimes takes more time and energy than I have to give"*, *"[h]aving children leaves little time and flexibility in my life"*, or *"[t]he major source of stress in my life is my child(ren)"* (Berry & Jones, 1995, p. 466).

The parental stress scale, which was initially completed by a wide range of participants, namely fathers and mothers who have at least one child aged below 18 at home, presented interesting results. Although higher stress scores for parents of children under six years had been expected, since younger children are assumed to call for greater responsibilities, the results obtained displayed merely minor differences between parents of younger and older children. Furthermore, although parents with more children had been expected to report higher levels of stress, since more children are

assumed to put increasing demands on resources available, parents with only one child showed slightly higher stress scores. Results presented approximately the same level of stress for mothers and fathers, consequently supporting the nowadays common assumption that fathers are becoming increasingly involved with their children. Berry and Jones' (1995) studies conducted provided additional evidence that parents of children with clinical and behavioral problems generally encounter higher levels of stress, compared to parents of children showing no physical or psychical impairment whatsoever (Berry & Jones, 1995).

2.4.3 Stress between family and work

It is common knowledge that over the last decades, a change in family structure has occurred within our society. In comparison to former times, women are nowadays increasingly taking part in the world of employment, whereas men tend to become more greatly involved in family responsibilities. Hence, today's men and women occupy multiple roles, those of being a parent, spouse and a worker, for example (Greenberg & O'Neil, 1993). Being committed to multiple roles, all of them bringing along various obligations one needs to fulfill, may lead to role strains, which in turn might cause psychological distress (Barnett & Baruch, 1985).

2.4.3.1 Role strains

According to the scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1960, as cited in Barnett & Baruch, 1985), individuals have a restricted amount of resources, such as energy and time at their disposal. However, those supplies will be exhausted at some point, making it impossible for individuals to appropriately fulfill particular role obligations any longer. Hence, and according to the scarcity hypothesis, psychological distress can be associated with and is even claimed to result from role conflict and role overload. Thereby, role overload occurs when one is confronted with *"so many demands related to one's role(s) that satisfactory performance is improbable"*, whereas role conflict *"arises when the demands from two or more roles are such that adequate performance of one role jeopardizes adequate performance of the other(s)"* (Barnett & Baruch, 1985, p. 136). Moreover, Wheaton (1990) claims that such role strains, namely role overload and role conflict, are the result of ongoing stressors, rather than event stressors. Thereby, ongoing stressors are defined as *"open-ended role problems [that] conform to the notion of social stress in the sense of environmental demand on responses capacities"*

(Wheaton, 1990, p. 156). Being more precise, long-term stress-evoking factors such as continuous family, marital or parent-child conflicts, including parents' permanent responsibility for their child as well, are examples of those ongoing stressors (Wheaton, 1990, p. 156).

Although there is empirical support that employment affects women's psychological well-being positively and even *"appears to be a source of self-esteem [and] purposefulness"*, it had been assumed that adopting the rather modern role of being a paid worker, in addition to one's traditional role as a mother, would constitute a supplementary stressor for women (Barnett & Baruch, 1985, p. 137). However, Barnett & Baruch's study (1985) showed contradictory results in that due to parents' high responsibilities and demands, it is primarily the parental role and not the role as a wife or paid worker that significantly contributes to women's experience of role overload. Indeed, more recent studies show accordance, confirming that *"being a parent diminishes the otherwise positive effects of employment on women's mood"* (Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993, p. 181). In addition, Greenberger and O'Neil (1993, p. 138) point out that lately research has increasingly focused on role-quality, showing that greater role-satisfaction *"is generally predictive of greater well-being"*. Hence, role satisfaction is claimed to be a crucial condition for well-being (Greenberg & O'Neil, 1993).

2.4.3.2 Parental after-school stress

Stress may also arise out of the difficulty to adequately reconcile one's role as a parent with one's role as an employee, leading to the aforementioned role conflict. That is, juggling the responsibilities of both roles is demanding and may result in discrepancies. Hence, employed parents of school-aged children are said to be faced with *"special demands"* (Barnett & Gareis, 2006, p. 101). Those additional demands might give rise to fathers' and mothers' experience of stress and negative feelings regarding their overall well-being.

In fact, Barnett & Gareis' study (2006, p. 101) investigated into a new stressor, namely parental after-school stress, which results out of a *"mismatch between employed parents' work schedules and their children's school schedules"*. That is, employed parents are often forced to leave their school-aged children *"in less-than adequate care*

or even in self-care" as soon as school is over (Barnett & Gareis, 2006, p. 101). Those children are said to be in danger of easily falling victim to somebody or something and are more vulnerable to crime, pregnancy, or potential engagement in risky behavior. Therefore, Barnett and Gareis (2006) hypothesized that employed parents of not adequately supervised children, regardless of the respective child's age and gender, worry about their child, and are more prone to stress.

In their study, parental after-school stress is defined as the *"degree to which parents are concerned about the welfare of their children during the after-school hours"* (Barnett & Gareis, 2006, p. 101). It was assumed that employed men and women may experience stress due to the difficulty of reconciling their working schedule with their child's school schedule. That is, parents often have a full-time job, work all day long, and are therefore not able to supervise their child's after school activities. Hence, being bothered about what might happen during the child's after school hours might be a supplementary stressor, affecting parents' welfare negatively. Indeed, having examined the relation between parental after-school stress and psychological well-being, results suggested that *"parental after-school stress is an important stressor that affects the well-being"* (Barnett & Gareis, 2006, p. 101).

With regards to the study's method, 243 parents of different age and occupation had to complete a questionnaire regarding their concerns towards their child's after-school activities. Those activities involved after-school arrangements as well as time spent unsupervised, and the items included parents' concerns *"in a variety of domains [such as] safety, travel, productive use of time, and reliability"* (Barnett & Gareis, 2006, p. 103). Specific examples of the questionnaire's items addressed at parents were, for example, *"[h]ow difficult is it for your target school-aged child to contact you after school while you are still at work?", "[h]ow much do you worry that your target school-aged child might get into trouble during the after-school hours"* or *"[h]ow much do you worry that your target school-aged child's after-school arrangements aren't meeting (his/her) needs?"* (Barnett & Gareis, 2006, p. 108).

Indeed, Barnett and Gareis (2006) concluded that parental after-school stress is a predictor for parents' well-being. Parents' psychological well-being was lower with a higher score obtained on parental after-school stress. Although Barnett's and Gareis'

(2006) hypothesis was verified in general, overall, parents reported to be merely *"somewhat stressed"*, whereas only a small proportion experienced *"quite a bit of stress"* (Barnett & Gareis, 2006, p. 104). Furthermore, the relation between parents' well being and their after-school stress did not differ by gender, meaning that fathers' and mothers' obtained equal scores with regards to parental after-school stress. The child's age was not predictive either. That is, parental after-school stress and an accompanying reduced sense of parents' welfare was reported to be equally strong for parents of younger and older children (Barnett & Gareis, 2006).

After having briefly reviewed literature on parental stress, which is considered to be highly relevant for the empirical part of this thesis, the next chapter deals with one's approach to life and its effect on coping with stress.

2.4.4 Life attitude and coping with stress

Generally, there are two different ways of approaching the world and facing its challenges and obstacles, namely either as a pessimist or as an optimist. Whereas optimistic people usually expect the best and are confident that everything will work out their way, pessimistic people follow an *"opposite set of beliefs"* in that their outlook is characterized by unfavorable expectations (Scheier & Carver, 1985, p. 219). Briefly, the main difference between those individual personality differences, which are said to be *"stable across time and context"*, is that optimistic people expect the best outcomes, whereas pessimistic people anticipate the worst (Scheier & Carver, 1992, p. 202).

The concept of optimism and pessimism can be related to other constructs, which are said to appear in the literature more frequently. Amongst those are the concept of life satisfaction and psychological well-being, for example. However, and this might have already become obvious throughout this paper, those concepts are primarily treated as *"outcome variables - effects rather than causes"* within the literature (Scheier & Carver, 1985, p. 220). Optimism and pessimism, on the contrary, are proven to have an impact on the way people react to particular daily and often stress evoking incidents, and are therefore regarded as cause variables (Scheier & Carver, 1985).

Scheier and Carver (1985, p. 220) assert that *"optimism has important behavioral consequences"* and, being *"construed as a stable personality characteristic, has important implications for the manner in which people regulate their actions"*. Indeed,

several studies report beneficial effects of optimism on physical and mental well-being, and research suggests that optimistic people opt for more efficient strategies when coping with stress (Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 1994). Whereas pessimistic people decide upon overt denial, distancing as well as mentally and behaviorally disengaging themselves from the source that triggers the stressful feelings, optimists opt for *"problem-focused coping"*, such as taking action and making a plan, as well as seek social support and focus on *"positive aspects of the stressful situation"* (Scheier, Weintraub & Carver, 1986, p. 1257). As opposed to problem-focused coping, which is characterized by an attempt to remove the source of stress, *"wishful thinking, self-blame, tension reduction, and self-isolation ... represent emotion-focused coping*", which is primarily used by pessimistic people (Lazarus, 1985, as quoted in Scheier, Weintraub & Carver, 1986, p. 1263). However, emotion-focused coping strategies are not exclusively limited to pessimistic people, since as soon as optimistic people realize that problem-focused strategies are not an option anymore, they *"turn to more adaptive emotion-focused coping strategies such as acceptance, use of humor, and positive reframing of the situation"* (Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 1994, p. 1063).

Since optimism is regarded as a personality characteristic, which affects, amongst others, the way one responds to daily life stresses, Scheier and Carver (1985) developed the Life Orientation Scale (LOS) in order to measure dispositional optimism. Thereby, dispositional optimism has been defined as *"the tendency to believe that one will generally experience good vs. bad"* (Scheier & Carver, 1992, p. 203). The Life Orientation Scale (LOT) was developed in 1985 as the first *"measure of optimism that focused exclusively on the assessment of generalized outcome expectancies"* (Scheier & Carver, 1985, p. 224). Scheier and Carver's (1985) approach, namely that outcome expectancies strongly impact one's behavior, derived from the general model of behavioral self-regulation. This model suggests that people are engaged in efforts to overcome adversity to reach goals as long as their expectancies of eventual success are sufficiently favorable. When their doubts are too severe, people are more likely to give up on the threatened goals (Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 1994). That is, one's personal outcome expectancies either give rise to continued effort or cause surrender. Moreover, and most importantly, *"dispositional optimism is a mediator of how well people respond to stress"* (Scheier, Weintraub & Carver, 1986, p. 1257). The Life Orientation Scale

(LOT), which measures these general life expectancies, contains eight items, whereof four are positively and four are negatively worded. Examples of items implying an optimistic approach to life are *"[i]n uncertain times I usually expect the best"* or *"I always look on the bright side of things"*, whereas items indicating a rather pessimistic worldview are, for example, *"[t]hings never work out the way I want them to"* or *"I hardly expect things to go my way"* (Scheier & Carver, 1985, p. 225). Although the LOT test had been criticized for various reasons, reevaluation of the test showed that *"the LOT is a viable instrument for assessing people's generalized sense of optimism"* (Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 1994, p. 1071).

3 The current study

3.1 Research questions

Resulting out of the literature reviewed above, the following research questions have been developed and will be answered in the course of the present diploma thesis:

- Are parents of CLIL students more involved in their child's school activities than non-CLIL parents?
- Are parents of CLIL students more stressed than parents of non-CLIL students?
- Are parents of CLIL students more likely to be helicopter parents than parents of non-CLIL students?
- Are helicopter parents more stressed than non-helicopter parents?

3.2 Hypotheses

Although there is empirical evidence that being taught in a foreign or second language does not impair content acquisition, lay people as well as researchers within the CLIL domain voice their doubts.

"The intriguing question regarding content outcomes is really this: How it is possible that learners can produce equally good results even if they studied the content in an imperfectly known language?" (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 189). The question raised by Dalton-Puffer has not been answered yet, however, one can assume that parents of CLIL students probably have to be more intensively engaged and increasingly supportive in their children's learning process, since being taught through a foreign language is *"as if studying the content takes place in misty rather than clear water"* (Smith, 2005) and, therefore, might present a greater challenge for the students.

Although there is evidence that many pupils whose parents show no active involvement in their educational process at all succeed in school, due to reasons of good teaching or personal resilience for example, research has shown that parents' direct school involvement influences children's educational outcomes positively (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995); hence, in order to ensure satisfying content results, parents of CLIL students might be required to, or already naturally do, study more extensively with their child and are generally more engaged in his or her learning process, as opposed to parents of non-CLIL students.

Furthermore, parents who put their child in a school which offers some form of CLIL provision are assumed to highly value its concept as well as its various aims and benefits. Since education is nowadays often regarded as a *"key to survival and thriving in a competitive world"* and, likewise, school as *"an opportunity to climb up the social ladder"* (Ule, Zivoder & Bois-Reymond, 2015, pp. 334-335), parents might perceive CLIL as a stepping stone for their children to become successful in their future lives. In fact, within their research, Ule, Zivoder & Bois-Reymond (2015, p. 346) state that since parents are becoming increasingly aware *"of the all-encompassing importance of good education"*, they are, regardless of their level of education and social background, *"very much concerned with the 'right' transition choices for their children"*. Having deliberately decided on a school for their child which offers some form of CLIL provision, it can be assumed that parents of CLIL students might in general show a higher tendency of being interested, involved and integrated in the educational as well as learning processes of their child, compared to parents of pupils who receive regular education.

Since the present thesis supposes that parents of CLIL students are more greatly involved and interested in their child's school trajectory, they are likewise assumed to exercise more control over their child's life in general. That is why those parents are expected to be more likely categorized as helicopter parents. As it has already been mentioned in the theory part, being intensively involved affects parents' well-being. Hence, the present thesis hypothesizes that CLIL parents, as well as helicopter parents, exhibit a higher parental stress level, and are not as optimistic regarding life expectancies, compared to non-CLIL parents. Since questionnaires are distributed to parents of students attending different school types (grammar school or new secondary school) and different school levels (first grade and fourth grade), those parents constitute an additional test group in this survey.

Hence, out of the research questions posed, the following hypotheses arose:

H1 Parents of CLIL students display greater helicopter parenting behavior than parents of non-CLIL students

H2 Parents of first graders display greater helicopter parenting behavior than parents of fourth graders

H3 Parents of grammar school children display greater helicopter parenting behavior than parents of new secondary school children

H4 Parents of non-CLIL students display greater autonomy supportive behavior than parents of CLIL students

H5 Parents of fourth graders display greater autonomy supportive behavior than parents of first graders

H6 Parents of new secondary school children display greater autonomy supportive behavior than parents of grammar school children

H7 Parents of CLIL students are more stressed than parents of non-CLIL students

H8 Parents of first graders are more stressed than parents of fourth graders

H9 Parents of grammar school children are more stressed than parents of new secondary school children

H10 Parents of CLIL students experience greater parental after-school stress than parents of non-CLIL students

H11 Parents of first graders experience greater parental after-school stress than parents of fourth graders

H12 Parents of grammar school children experience greater parental after-school stress than parents of new secondary school children

H13 Parents of non-CLIL students have a more optimistic attitude towards life than parents of CLIL students

H14 Parents of fourth graders have a more optimistic attitude towards life than parents of first graders

H15 Parents of new secondary school children have a more optimistic attitude towards life than parents of grammar school children

H16 Parents of CLIL students are more involved in their child's school life than parents of non-CLIL students

H17 Parents of first graders are more involved in their child's school life than parents of fourth graders

H18 Helicopter parents are more stressed than non-helicopter parents

3.3 Research method

For the present diploma thesis, a quantitative research method is used in order to reach a wide range of parents. For the research questions to be answered and the hypotheses to be tested, a 13-page questionnaire was compiled, including self-generated items as well as pre-fabricated questionnaires taken from the literature.

The questionnaire is composed of five parts. The first section consists of classification questions, asking about participants' sex, age, education, occupation, marital status and family size.

Since the survey takes place in Austria, the entire questionnaire is composed in German language. Hence, an analogous translation of the items taken from pre-fabricated questionnaires was carried out. In order to scale respondents' attitudes, the Likert procedure is utilized. For each statement in the questionnaire, participants have to indicate their extent of agreement, ranging from 'strongly agree' (4) to 'agree' (3), 'uncertain' (2), 'disagree' (1), 'strongly disagree' (0).

Moreover, in case parents have more than one child, each section briefly indicates that the items refer to that particular child they got the questionnaire from. Hence, parents are reminded to think of the child who gave them the questionnaire when answering the questions. Otherwise, results would be falsified.

Although all of the questionnaires used for the present survey have already been briefly discussed in the theory part of this thesis, the following section provides the whole range of items and a description of each scoring process in greater detail.

3.3.1 Item generation for parental school involvement

The second part of the questionnaire, investigating into parental school involvement, is split into section A and B. Whereas parents of non-CLIL students are asked to fill in section A only, parents of CLIL students are directed to complete both parts. The reason for this is that section A investigates into parents' school involvement with respect to subjects that are entirely taught in German, whereas section B, including the same items, refers to parents' involvement with regards to CLIL subjects. Hence, parents of CLIL students are reminded to differentiate between CLIL and non-CLIL subjects when indicating their degree of involvement.

In order to compare CLIL and non-CLIL parents' extent of being involved in their children's education, items based on the models on parental school involvement were generated. Thus, items relate to school-based involvement, such as 'I am involved in my child's school activities' as well as to home-based involvement, such as 'I check my child's homework'.

Moreover, items reflecting the intensity of parental involvement were based on the two models developed by Noy (1990) and Goodall & Montgomery (2014). Since being informed about what goes on in one's child's school life belongs to the lowest level of involvement, items reflecting that level were generated. 'I am informed about my child's grades' and 'I know what topics are currently dealt with at school' belong to that group, for example. These items should also display parents' interest in their child's school education. Items accounting for a higher intensity (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014) of school involvement are, for example, 'I study with my child' or 'I am in contact with the teacher'. Moreover, the questionnaire includes a table in which parents have to indicate the number of hours they study with their child each day.

In addition, items investigating the importance of school education for parents as well as examining how strict they are when it comes to school matters are integrated as well. It could be argued that those items are already headed toward helicopter parenting behavior. Examples are 'I determine when my child needs to do his/her homework' or 'I forbid my child to do leisure activities if he/she did not study enough or has not yet completed his/her homework'. Items showing that parents take school very seriously and tend to intervene are 'I dispute negative grades' or 'If my child receives an unsatisfactory grade I contact the teacher'.

Briefly, the generated pool of items is derived from the literature available on parental school involvement as well as helicopter parenting. Below, all of the items are listed in English and German language. They are scored on a scale ranging from 'strongly agree' (4) to 'strongly disagree' (0).

I determine when my child needs to do his/her homework.
I know what topics are currently dealt with at school.
I know what my child is currently learning in school.
My child tells me what he/she learned in school.
I ask my child what he/she learned in school.
I am familiar with my child's school timetable.
I inform myself about what my child will be tested on in a variety of subjects.
I am informed about my child's testing dates.
I know about what my child will be tested on.
I immediately contact my child (call or write a text message) after a test and ask how it was.
I am informed about my child's grades.
My child's grades are important to me.
If my child receives an unsatisfactory grade, I contact the teacher.
I dispute negative grades.
I know the phone number of my child's teacher.
I forbid my child to do leisure activities if he/she did not study enough or has not yet. completed his/her homework.
I forbid my child to do leisure activities if he/she receives a negative/insufficient grade.
I know when my child returns from school during the weekdays.
I motivate my child for school.
I am involved in my child's school activities (e.g. school excursions or projects).
I help my child with his/her homework.
I check my child's homework.
I am in contact with my child's teacher.
I study with my child.
How many hours a day do you study with your child?

	0 hours	1/2 hour	1 hour	2 hours	3 hours +
Monday					
Tuesday					
Wednesday					
Thursday					
Friday					
Saturday					
Sunday					

Regarding the scoring process, the hours indicated are given weights of 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively.

Ich bestimme, wann mein Kind die Hausübung machen muss.
Ich weiß, welche Themen in der Schule derzeit behandelt werden.
ich weiß, was mein Kind derzeit in der Schule lernt.
Mein Kind erzählt mir, was in der Schule gelernt wurde.
Ich frage mein Kind, was in der Schule gelernt wurde.
Ich kenne den Stundenplan meines Kindes.
Ich informiere mich, wozu mein Kind in den jeweiligen Gegenständen getestet wird.
Ich bin über die Test- und Schularbeitstermine meines Kindes informiert.
Ich kenn den Teststoff/Schularbeitsstoff meines Kindes.
Ich frage mein Kind nach einem Test/einer Schularbeit sofort (per Sms, Anruf), wie es ihm/ihr dabei ergangen ist.
Ich bin über die Noten meines Kindes informiert.
Die Noten meines Kindes sind für mich wichtig.
Ich kontaktiere bei nicht zufriedenstellender Note meines Kindes die jeweilige Lehrperson.
Ich fechte negative Noten an.
Ich habe die Telefonnummer der Lehrpersonen meines Kindes.
Ich verbiete meinem Kind Freizeitaktivitäten auszuüben, wenn noch nicht genug gelernt wurde/wenn die Hausübung noch nicht fertig ist.

Ich verbiete meinem Kind Freizeitaktivitäten auszuüben, wenn eine schlechte/unzureichende Note erbracht wurde.
Ich weiß, wann mein Kind an den jeweiligen Wochentagen von der Schule nach Hause kommt.
Ich motiviere mein Kind für die Schule.
Ich bin in Schulaktivitäten meines Kindes (Ausflüge, Projekte,...) involviert.
Ich helfe meinem Kind bei der Hausübung.
Ich kontrolliere die Hausübung meines Kindes.
Ich bin mit den Lehrpersonen meines Kindes in Kontakt.
Ich lerne mit meinem Kind.
Wie viele Stunden am Tag wenden Sie mit Ihrem Kind für die Schule auf?

	0 hours	1/2 hour	1 hour	2 hours	3 hours +
Monday					
Tuesday					
Wednesday					
Thursday					
Friday					
Saturday					
Sunday					

3.3.2 Helicopter parenting scale (HPS)

Empirical literature on helicopter parenting is yet scarce, most academic articles are concerning with parents' of college students, and tangible criteria to determine helicopter parents have not been defined yet. For this study, Schiffrin et al.'s (2014) questionnaire, which measures helicopter parenting behavior, is used. However, since the questionnaire was compiled for college students, asking them to reflect and evaluate on their mothers' behavior, items were modified in order to address parents and not children in the current study. All in all, the questionnaire contains 15 items. Concerning scale coding, items 1, 3, 4, 7, 9, 10, 11, 13 and 14 measure helicopter parenting behavior, whereas items 2, 5, 6, 8, 12 and 15 measure autonomy supporting behavior. The original items of Schiffrin et al.'s study (2014), as well as the items translated and modified for the present survey are listed below.

1. My mother had/will have a say in what major I chose/will choose.
2. My mother encourages me to discuss any academic problems I am having with my professor.
3. My mother monitors my exercise schedule.
4. When I am home with my mother, I have a curfew (a certain time that I must be home by every night).
5. My mother has given me tips on how to shop for groceries economically.
6. My mother encourages me to make my own decisions and take the responsibility for the choices I have made.
7. My mother regularly wants me to call or text her to let her know where I am.
8. My mother encourages me to deal with any interpersonal problems between myself and my roommate or my friends on my own.
9. If I were to receive a low grade that I felt was unfair, my mother would call the professor.
10. My mother monitors my diet.
11. My mother encourages me to keep a budget and manage my own finances.
13. My mother calls me to track my schoolwork (i.e., how I'm doing in school, what my grades are like, etc.)
14. If I am having an issue with my roommate, my mother would try to intervene.

15. My mother encourages me to choose my own classes

1. Wenn mein Kind die Möglichkeit bekommt, Gegenstände in der Schule frei zu wählen, nehme ich meinem Kind diese Entscheidung ab.
2. Ich ermutige mein Kind, schulische Probleme mit der jeweiligen Lehrperson zu besprechen.
3. Ich kontrolliere, wie viel Sport und Bewegung mein Kind macht.
4. Ich setze Zeiten fest, zu denen mein Kind am Abend spätestens zu Hause sein muss.
5. Ich erkläre meinem Kind, wie man am Besten sparsam und ökonomisch einkauft.
6. Ich ermutige mein Kind, eigene Entscheidungen zu treffen und Verantwortung zu übernehmen.
7. Ich fordere mein Kind auf, mich laufend über seinen Aufenthaltsort zu informieren.
8. Ich ermutige mein Kind, zwischenmenschliche Probleme mit SchulkamaradInnen und FreundInnen selbstständig zu lösen.
9. Wenn mein Kind ungerecht benotet wurde, kontaktiere ich die Lehrperson.
10. Ich überwache und beobachte das Ernährungsverhalten meines Kindes.
11. Ich überwache und beobachte, mit wem mein Kind Zeit verbringt.
12. Ich ermutige mein Kind, eigenständig mit seinen Geldangelegenheiten umzugehen.
13. Ich frage mein Kind, wie es ihm in der Schule geht.
14. Wenn mein Kind ein Problem mit einem/einer KlassenkamaradIn hat, greife ich ein.
15. Wenn mein Kind die Möglichkeit hat, Gegenstände in der Schule frei zu wählen, ermutige ich mein Kind, diese für sich selbst zu entscheiden.

3.3.3 Parental Stress Scale (PSS)

In order to measure parents' stress level, the parental stress scale, developed by Berry & Jones in 1995, has been utilized. The PPS measures the degree of satisfaction and happiness brought along by the parental role, and reflects the absence or presence of expected gains from the role as a parent (e.g. closeness, affection and happiness). The final version of the parental stress scale contains 18 items. Again, participants have to respond on a continuum running from 'strongly agree' (4) to 'strongly disagree' (0). Whereas a low score indicates a low level of stress, a high score is indicative of a high stress level. Reversed scoring is utilized for items 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 17, and 18. Again, the items of the original scale, as well as the translated items are listed below.

1. I am happy in my role as a parent.
2. There is little or nothing I wouldn't do for my child(ren) if it were necessary.
3. Caring for my child(ren) sometimes takes more time and energy than I can give.
4. I sometimes worry whether I am doing enough for my child(ren).
5. I feel close to my child(ren).
6. I enjoy spending time with my child(ren).
7. My child(ren) is (are) an important source of affection for me.
8. Having children gives me a more certain and optimistic view for the future.
9. The major source of stress in my life is my child(ren).
10. Having children leaves little time and flexibility in my life.
11. Having children has been a financial burden.
12. It is difficult to balance different responsibilities because of my child(ren).
13. The behavior of my child(ren) is often embarrassing or stressful to me.
14. If I had it to do over again, I might decide not to have children.
15. I feel overwhelmed by the responsibility of being a parent.
16. Having children has meant having too few choices and too little control over my life.
17. I am satisfied as a parent.
18. I find my child(ren) enjoyable.

1. Ich bin glücklich in meiner Rolle als Mutter/Vater
2. Es gibt nichts, oder fast nichts, das ich nicht unterstützend für mein Kind/meine Kinder tun würde.
3. Für mein Kind/meine Kinder zu sorgen, nimmt mehr Zeit und Energie in Anspruch als ich zur Verfügung habe.
4. Ich mache mir manchmal Gedanken, ob ich mich genug um mein/e Kind/er kümmere.
5. Ich stehe meinem Kind/meinen Kindern nahe.
6. Ich genieße es, Zeit mit meinem Kind/meinen Kindern zu verbringen.
7. Mein Kind/meine Kinder stellen eine Quelle der Zuneigung und Liebe für mich dar.
8. Kinder zu haben verschafft mir eine zuversichtliche und positive Zukunftsperspektive.
9. Mein/e Kind/er ist/sind die Hauptursache für meinen Stress im Alltag.
10. Durch mein/e Kind/er fühle ich mich in meiner zeitlichen Flexibilität und meiner persönlichen Entfaltung eingeschränkt.
11. Kind/er zu haben ist eine finanzielle Belastung für mich.
12. Wegen meines Kindes/meiner Kinder ist es schwierig für mich, verschiedene Verantwortungsbereiche zu balancieren.
13. Das Verhalten meines Kindes/meiner Kinder empfinde ich häufig als stressig und unangenehm/peinlich.
14. Wenn ich nochmals die Wahl hätte, würde ich mich eventuell dazu entscheiden, keine Kinder zu bekommen.
15. ich fühle mich mit der Verantwortung, eine Mutter/ein Vater zu sein überfordert.
16. Ein Kind/Kinder zu haben bringt verminderte Wahlmöglichkeit und Kontrolle über mein Leben mit sich.
17. Ich bin als Mutter/Vater zufrieden.
18. Ich empfinde meine Kinder als Bereicherung.

3.3.4 Parental After-School Stress Scale (PASS)

The original items and the translated ones for measuring parental after-school stress are listed below. The original scale contains 10 items. However, the fourth item of the original PASS has not been included in this questionnaire, since it was not perceived as extremely important for the purpose of this survey. Again, a five scale scoring format is used, ranging from 'strongly agree' (4) to 'strongly disagree' (0). Thereby, a greater score is indicative of a higher level of after-school stress, whereas a lower score means that parents are less stressed.

During your workday, on average:

1. How difficult is it for you to contact your target school-aged child after school while you are at school?
2. How difficult is it for your target school-aged child to contact you after school while you are still at work?
3. How much do you worry about your target school-aged child's travel to and from (his/her) after-school arrangements?
4. How much do you worry about your target school-aged child's safety getting to and from (his/her) after-school arrangements?
5. How much do you worry about your target school-aged child's overall safety during the after-school hours?
6. How much do you worry that your target school-aged child's overall safety during the after-school hours?
7. How much do you worry that your target school-aged child might get into trouble during the after-school hours?
8. How much do you worry about whether your target school-aged child is spending (his/her) after-school time productively?
9. How much do you worry about whether your target school-aged child is unhappy with (his/her) after-school arrangements?

10. How much do you worry that your target school-aged child's after-school arrangements are not meeting (his/her) needs?

1. Es ist schwierig für mich, mein Kind nach der Schule, während meiner Arbeitszeit zu kontaktieren.
2. Es ist schwierig für mein Kind, mich nach der Schule, während meiner Arbeitszeit zu kontaktieren.
3. Ich mache mir oft Gedanken über die Sicherheit meines Kindes auf dem Weg zur Nachmittagsbetreuung.
4. Omitted
5. Ich mache mir oft Gedanken über die Sicherheit meines Kindes in der Nachmittagsbetreuung.
6. Ich mache mir oft Gedanken darüber, ob ein eventueller Ausfall der Nachmittagsbetreuung mit meiner beruflichen Tätigkeit vereinbar ist.
7. Ich mache mir oft Gedanken darüber, ob mein Kind während der Nachmittagsbetreuung in Schwierigkeiten gerät.
8. Ich mache mir oft Gedanken darüber, ob mein Kind die Zeit in der Nachmittagsbetreuung produktiv nützt.
9. Ich mache mir oft Gedanken darüber, ob mein Kind mit seiner Nachmittagsbetreuung unglücklich ist.
10. Ich mache mir oft Gedanken darüber, ob die Nachmittagsbetreuung meines Kindes seinen Bedarf deckt.

3.3.5 Revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R)

For this study, the revised version of the life orientation test was used (Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 1994). It contains 10 items, whereof 2, 5, 6, and 8 are only filler items and are therefore not rated. In order to obtain an overall score, items 1, 3, 4, 7, 9, and 10 are added up, whereas 3, 7, and 9 are reverse code items. Again, items are rated on a five point scale, running from 'strongly agree' (4) to 'strongly disagree' (0).

1. In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.
2. It's easy for me to relax.
3. If something can go wrong for me, it will.
4. I am always optimistic about my future.
5. I enjoy my friends a lot.
6. It is important for me to keep busy.
7. I hardly ever expect things to go my way.
8. I do not get upset too easily.
9. I rarely count on good things happening to me.
10. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.

1. In ungewissen Zeiten bin ich zuversichtlich.
2. Mich zu entspannen fällt mir leicht.
3. Wenn etwas für mich schief gehen kann, geht es auch schief.
4. Im Bezug auf meine Zukunft bin ich immer positiv eingestellt.
5. Ich genieße es, Freunde zu haben.
6. Es ist wichtig für mich, stets beschäftigt zu sein.
7. Ich erwarte mir selten, dass etwas so funktioniert, wie ich mir das vorstelle.
8. Mich verärgert so schnell nichts.
9. Ich erwarte eigentlich nicht, dass mir etwas Gutes widerfährt.
10. Im Generellen erwarte ich, dass mir mehr Gutes als Schlechtes widerfährt.

3.4 Procedure

In order to compare CLIL and non-CLIL parents, an equal number of questionnaires was distributed to CLIL as well as non-CLIL pupils, attending either the first or fourth grade of a grammar school or a new secondary school. All in all, two schools in Vienna and two schools in Lower Austria were selected. After having briefly explained the purpose of the study, students were asked to hand the questionnaire over to either their mother, father or legal guardian and return the filled-in version within a given deadline. The questionnaire included a brief letter addressed to the parents, in which it is explicitly mentioned that participation is voluntary and anonymous, and that their replies will remain confidential and will be used for internal analysis only.

4 Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics

Although approximately 300 questionnaires had been distributed, the response rate was significantly lower. Overall, 106 persons (35.3%), namely 68 parents of CLIL students and 38 parents of non-CLIL students, consented to participate in the survey by completing the questionnaire.

Out of the 106 questionnaires which had been returned, 90 were filled in by women, whereas only 16 were completed by men. The mean age of those who agreed to participate in the survey is 42 *(SD=5.77),* with the youngest participant being 30 and the oldest being 57 years old. Regarding the participants' personal life situation, the vast majority of those polled, namely 76.4 percent, indicated being either married or in a relationship whilst maintaining a joint household. Merely 8.5 percent reported to be single.

Even though more than one third of the respondents was not born in Austria, roughly 85 percent hold Austrian citizenship. Regarding their educational background, nearly half of the participants either graduated from a general secondary grammar school (AHS) or acquired an apprenticeship diploma (Lehrabschluss). Whereas 15.1 percent attended university, merely one person indicated the completion of compulsory education as his or her highest educational attainment. None of the respondents ticked the option on the questionnaire saying "no compulsory education completed".

According to the responses provided by parents of CLIL students, results of the current study determined biology, geography and history as the subjects most frequently taught in English.

Tab. 1. Distribution of subjects in grammar schools and new secondary schools

Test group	**School type**		
	Grammar school (Gymnasium)	New secondary school (NMS)	Total
CLIL	22	46	68
Non-CLIL	17	21	38
Total	39	67	106

On the whole, table 1 shows an equal distribution of questionnaires among parents whose child either attends a grammar or a new secondary school which involves CLIL to some degree, as well as among those parents whose child attends one of the two school types, in which all content subjects are taught in German. Hence, with regards to questionnaire

distribution, the p value confirms that there is no significant difference between the two test groups and the types of school *($\chi^2(df=1)=1.61; p= .21$).*

Tab. 2. Distribution of subjects in first grades and fourth grades

Test group	School level		
	First grade	Fourth grade	Total
CLIL	47	21	68
Non-CLIL	18	20	38
Total	65	41	106

The p value of table 2 displays a significant difference regarding the distribution of questionnaires between the test groups and the school levels *($\chi^2(df=1)=4.86; p=.03$).* It is shown that there is hardly a difference between the number of questionnaires returned by parents of non-CLIL first and fourth graders, as well as between parents of CLIL and non-CLIL fourth graders. Taking merely the first grade into consideration, however, 47 parents of CLIL students (49.8%) returned the questionnaire, whereas only 18 forms (19.0%) were filled in by parents of non-CLIL first graders.

Tab. 3. Distribution of subjects in Vienna and lower Austria

Test group	Federal province		
	Vienna	Lower Austria	Total
CLIL	44	24	68
Non-CLIL	17	21	38
Total	61	45	106

Table 3 shows a significant difference concerning the questionnaire distribution between the test groups and the federal provinces *($\chi^2(df=1)=3,98; p= .05$).* Whereas an almost equal number of parents of CLIL and non-CLIL pupils studying in Lower Austria completed the questionnaire, the table displays that in Vienna, twice as many CLIL parents as non-CLIL parents took part in the survey.

Tab. 4. Comparison of subjects' personal life situation

Test group	Personal life situation				
	Marriage/live-in partner with a joint household	Single/not living with a companion	Living in partnership but without a joint household	Other	Total
CLIL	49	8	2	6	65
Non-CLIL	32	1	2	3	38
Total	81	9	4	9	103

As can be seen in table 4, a comparison of the two test groups shows no significant difference regarding their personal life situation *($\chi^2(df=3)=3.15; p= .37$).* That is, irrespective of whether their child is taught in English in a few curricula subjects or not, the majority of the participants (76.4%) is either married or shares a household with his/her partner.

Tab. 5. Comparison of subjects' sex

Test group	Gender		
	Female	Male	Total
CLIL	54	14	68
Non-CLIL	36	2	38
Total	90	16	106

As noted in table 5, there is a significant difference between the test groups and the sex of the participants *($\chi^2(df=1)=4.48; p=.04$).* Generally, only a small proportion of men completed the questionnaire. That is, within both test groups, clearly more mothers (84.9%) than fathers took part in the survey.

Tab. 6. Comparison of subjects' English level

Test group	CEFR Level								
	No English	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	English as native language	Total
CLIL	0	20	5	20	9	5	5	2	66
Non-CLIL	1	7	9	12	5	2	1	0	37
Total	1	27	14	32	14	7	6	2	103

Table 6 shows no significant difference between CLIL and non-CLIL parents and their English language level, which they had been asked to evaluate for themselves on the basis of the CEFR description provided in the questionnaire *($\chi^2(df=7)=10.14; p=.18$).*

Interpretation

Since questionnaires could be filled in on a voluntary basis, and due to the fact that the majority of participants are parents of CLIL students, one could already claim that, by taking part in the survey, those parents show greater involvement and interest in their child's school life. Furthermore, as the majority of respondents are parents of CLIL first graders, not only CLIL but the child's school level as well can be taken to be a factors enhancing parents' degree of involvement. Hence, through merely considering the response rate of the present survey, it could already be reasoned that parents of CLIL students show greater school engagement compared to non-CLIL parents.

Moreover, it was either the child's mother or father (or legal guardian), who was asked to fill in the questionnaire. Hence, from the fact that most of the participants are mothers one could deduce that, although family structure has clearly changed during the last decades and fathers are said to become increasingly involved in their child's life, taking care of their child's daily school demands apparently remains to be amongst motherly duties (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Thus, one could argue that the traditional role distribution in the modern family households apparently has remained the same as several decades ago. Whereas men

are responsible to ensure financial safety, it is the mothers who are primarily responsible for the upbringing and the affairs of the child. Indeed, a study conducted in the UK shows that within the last 40 years, patterns of housework have changed only slightly. Whereas men are the breadwinners, it is still the women who are doing most of the household tasks, including child raising (McVeigh, 2012).

4.2 Hypotheses 1-3

H1: Parents of CLIL students display greater helicopter parenting behavior than parents of non-CLIL students

H2: Parents of first graders display greater helicopter parenting behavior than parents of fourth graders

H3: Parents of grammar school children display greater helicopter parenting behavior than parents of new secondary school children

Tab. 7. Helicopter parenting depending on test group, school type and school level

Helicopter parenting	Test group	School type	School level	Mean value	Standard deviation	N
	CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	2.66	.52	18
			4th grade	2.17	.80	4
			Total	2.57	.59	22
		New secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	2.64	.56	29
			4th grade	2.48	.36	17
			Total	2.58	.50	46
		Total	1st grade	2.65	.54	47
			4th grade	2.42	.46	21
			Total	2.58	.52	68
	Non-CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	2.07	.17	3
			4th grade	2.28	.61	14
			Total	2.24	.56	17
		New Secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	2.19	.45	15
			4th grade	2.54	.66	6
			Total	2.29	.58	21
		Total	1st grade	2.17	.42	18
			4th grade	2.36	.62	20
			Total	2.27	.54	38
	Total	Grammar School (Gym)	1st grade	2.58	.53	21
			4th grade	2.25	.64	18
			Total	2.43	.59	39
		New Secondary School	1st grade	2.48	.56	44
			4th grade	2.49	.44	23
			Total	2.49	.52	67
		Total	1st grade	2.51	.55	65
			4th grade	2.39	.54	41
			Total	2.47	.55	106

Looking at table 7, the mean values indicate that parents of CLIL students *(M= 2.58; SD=.52)* display slightly greater helicopter parenting behavior than parents of non-CLIL students *(M= 2.27; SD= .54)*, although there is no significant difference between the two test groups *(F(df=1)=2.55; p=.11)*. Moreover, no significant difference with respect to helicopter parenting could be assessed between the two school types *(F(df=1)=1.52; p=.22)*. Although

there is no significant difference between the two school levels either *(F(df=1)=.71; p=.40)*, average scores indicate that parents of first graders *(M=2.51; SD=.55)* show a slightly higher degree of helicopter parenting behavior than parents of fourth graders *(M=2.39; SD=.54).*

Moreover, results show a significant difference between parents of CLIL and non-CLIL first graders with regards to helicopter parenting behavior *(F (df=1)=4.98; p=.03)*. Thereby, results reveal that parents of CLIL first graders *(M=2.65; SD=.54)* show a significantly higher degree of helicopter parental behavior compared to parents of non-CLIL first graders *(M=2.17; SD=.42).*

Interpretation

As hypothesized, parents of CLIL students show greater helicopter parenting behavior than non-CLIL parents, although not to a significant degree. Findings of the current study can be related to Bayless' (2013, para. 3) statement in that "*[w]orries about the economy, the job market, and the world in general can push parents toward taking more control over their child's life in an attempt to protect them*". That is, CLIL parents may be aware of the benefits of CLIL and, thus, in order to ensure success in their child's future life, have most likely consciously chosen to place him or her in a school in which some subjects are taught in English. Since helicopter parenting occurs mainly within the educational domain (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011), CLIL parents might be generally more interested and involved in their child's life and are, consequently, more likely to display controlling, supervising and interfering parenting behavior. Acting on behalf of their child when it comes to decisions concerning school, one could assume that parents' school involvement may be extended to their child's entire life, since those parents might believe that by stepping in and taking over for their child, they fulfill their parental duties. With regards to the results showing differences between school levels, one could claim that the main reason why parents of first graders display a slightly higher degree of helicopter parenting behavior is their child's age. Although *"helicopter parenting can apply at any age"* (Bayless, 2013, para. 2), first graders are still very young and have only recently experienced a transition from primary school to secondary school, which they need to adapt to. Whereas parents of fourth graders might think that their child has already reached an advanced age, in which high parental support and intensive involvement is not called for anymore, parents of younger children might still experience greater role responsibility (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). It may be for these reasons

that those parents are more involved, observing and controlling concerning their child's (school) life.

4.3 Hypotheses 4-6

H4: Parents of non-CLIL students display greater autonomy supportive behavior than parents of CLIL students

H5: Parents of fourth graders display greater autonomy supportive behavior than parents of first graders

H6: Parents of new secondary school children display greater autonomy supportive behavior than parents of grammar school children

Tab. 8. Autonomy supportive parenting depending on test group, school type and school level

Autonomy support	Test group	School type	Grade	Mean value	Standard deviation	N
	CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	3.08	.71	18
			4th grade	3.21	.64	4
			Total	3.11	.69	22
		New secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	3.15	.51	29
			4th grade	3.36	.52	17
			Total	3.23	.52	46
		Total	1st grade	3.12	.59	47
			4th grade	3.33	.53	21
			Total	3.19	.58	68
	Non-CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	2.72	.10	3
			4th grade	3.06	.55	14
			Total	3.00	.52	17
		New Secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	3.32	.48	15
			4th grade	3.44	.47	6
			Total	3.36	.47	21
		Total	1st grade	3.22	.49	18
			4th grade	3.18	.55	20
			Total	3.20	.52	38
	Total	Grammar School (Gym)	1st grade	3.03	.67	21
			4th grade	3.09	.56	18
			Total	3.06	.61	39
		New Secondary School	1st grade	3.21	.50	44
			4th grade	3.38	.50	23
			Total	3.27	.50	67
		Total	1st grade	3.15	.56	65
			4th grade	3.26	.54	41
			Total	3.19	.55	106

Table 8 shows that with regards to autonomy supporting behavior, CLIL parents' scores do not differ significantly from non-CLIL parents' scores *(F(df=1)=.21; p=.65).* Nevertheless, the non-CLIL test group *(M=3.20; SD=.52)* shows a slightly higher degree of autonomy supporting behavior, compared to the CLIL test group *(M=3.19; SD=.58).*

However, results obtained display a significant difference between the school types *(F(df=1)=4.62; p=.03).* Thereby, parents of children who attend a new secondary modern school display a higher degree of autonomy supporting behavior *(M=3.27; SD=.50)* than parents whose children attend a grammar school *(M=3.06; SD=.61).*

However, when comparing scores of the two school levels, no significant difference could be determined *(F(df=1)=2.02; p=.16).* Nevertheless, although the difference is merely marginal, parents of fourth graders *(M=3.26; SD=.54)* exhibit slightly more autonomy supporting behavior than parents of first graders *(M=3.15; SD=.56).*

Interpretation

It can be said that the results regarding parents' autonomy supporting behavior complement the results on helicopter parenting behavior fairly well. Whereas the CLIL test group shows a higher level of helicopter parenting behavior, the non-CLIL test group displays slightly greater autonomy supporting behavior. Thereby, the non-CLIL parents are still involved in their child's life. However, they do not yet exceed the limit, which would categorize them as helicopter parents. The results obtained, demonstrating that parents of grammar school children feature less autonomy supporting behavior, could be attributed to the fact that those parents might have already had a greater say regarding their child's school type decision when transiting from primary to secondary school. That is, parents are assumed to have consciously chosen for their child to attend a grammar school instead of a new secondary school, probably holding the opinion that this school type would offer their child a chance for better education. Indeed, an article recently published by 'Die Presse' on January 12th in 2016 states that most parents, especially middle class parents, want their child to get a place in a grammar school (Gym), since grammar schools are associated with a higher level of education, whereas parents lack confidence in the quality of new secondary schools (Schmidt-Vierthaler, 2016). In fact, in the school year 2015, even 47% of Viennese pupils attended a grammar school, a number which, according to the article, will continue to rise due to increased demands voiced by parents (Schmidt-Vierthaler, 2016). Hence, the assumption which can be deduced from the results obtained by the current survey is that parents of grammar school children are generally more likely to act as decision-makers for their children, and thereby might prevent their children from becoming independent. In contrast, it can be assumed that parents of new secondary school children may have left the decision concerning which school type to choose in their child's hands. This assumption can be generalized for the whole parenting process, in that parents of new secondary school children, who might not have relentlessly tried to get their child into a grammar school (Gym), let their child face decisions more independently in general. Furthermore, whereas parents of first graders were found to display greater helicopter parenting behavior, parents of fourth graders evidently opt for more autonomous supporting

behavior. Again, the child's age, and thus the parents' perceived role expectations might would appear to explain this difference in parenting behavior (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011).

4.4 Hypotheses 7-9

H7: Parents of CLIL students are more stressed than parents of non-CLIL students

H8: Parents of first graders are more stressed than parents of fourth graders

H9: Parents of grammar school children are more stressed than parents of new secondary school children

Tab. 9. Parental stress depending on test group, school type and school level

Parental stress	Test group	School type	Grade	Mean value	Standard deviation	N
	CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	.79	.65	18
			4th grade	.43	.11	4
			Total	.72	.60	22
		New secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	.58	.45	29
			4th grade	.42	.29	17
			Total	.52	.40	46
		Total	1st grade	.66	.54	47
			4th grade	.42	.26	21
			Total	.59	.48	68
	Non-CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	1.20	.55	3
			4th grade	.73	.41	14
			Total	.81	.45	17
		New Secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	.56	.26	15
			4th grade	.62	.26	6
			Total	.58	.26	21
		Total	1st grade	.67	.39	18
			4th grade	.70	.37	20
			Total	.68	.37	38
	Total	Grammar School (Gym)	1st grade	.85	.64	21
			4th grade	.66	.38	18
			Total	.76	.54	39
		New Secondary School	1st grade	.58	.39	44
			4th grade	.47	.29	23
			Total	.54	.36	67
		Total	1st grade	.66	.50	65
			4th grade	.56	.34	41
			Total	.62	.45	106

Looking at table 9, a significant difference between the two test groups and their experienced level of stress could be established *(F(df=1)=4.19; p=.04).* The results obtained for determining parents' level of stress indicate that, contrary to initial expectations, non-CLIL parents *(M=.68; SD= .37)* are more stressed than parents whose children attend a school with some kind of CLIL provision involved *(M= .59; SD= .48).*

Additionally, statistical analysis shows a significant difference between the two school types *(F(df=1)=4.85; p=.03).* That is, parents of children who attend a grammar school *(M=.76; SD=.54)* are significantly more stressed than parents of children who attend a new secondary school *(M=54; SD=.36).*

Moreover, there is a significant difference between the two school levels regarding parental stress as well *(F(df=1)=4.55; p=.04)*. The result reveal that parents of first graders experience a higher level of stress *(M=.88; SD=.50)* than parents of fourth graders *(M=.56; SD=.34).*

Interpretation

Cronin et al. (2015, p. 10) state that *"[i]t seems likely that when an educator reports a child's difficulty at school, this becomes an additional agent of stress for parents"*. Although it was assumed that CLIL parents would report a significantly higher level of stress than their non-CLIL counterparts, due to the fact that their child faces an additional challenge by being taught in a foreign language, the results obtained disprove this hypothesis. A possible reason for this outcome could be that since teachers are aware that CLIL students are faced with the additional challenge of being taught in English, they are more considerate towards students' school level and might provide additional explanation and practice during the lessons. Hence, CLIL students might not need their parents that much to assist them with school work, since teachers are more lenient with them. Indeed, Marsh (n.d.,) confirms that CLIL parents should not worry about having to study more with their child, since CLIL teachers will ensure that pupils understand homework tasks, as well as subject content sufficiently. In traditional schools, however, teachers might presuppose a particular amount of knowledge already gained in primary school, without considering pupils' individual levels (since apart from regular foreign language learning lessons, no subject is taught in another language). Therefore, it could be possible that parents of non-CLIL students are more stressed since they either have to study more with their child, or are stressed due to their child receiving bad grades. Hence, keeping Cronin et al.'s (2015) quote in mind, making sure that one's child does not fall behind in school, could indeed be an additional stressor for parents.

However, the hypotheses that parents of first graders and parents of children who attend a grammar school are more stressed, are verified by the results obtained by the survey. Parents of first graders might feel more stressed in their parental role because they still have to care a lot about their child, again possibly due to his/her young age and recent school transition. Since *"the transition from primary to secondary school is regarded as one of the most difficult in pupils' education"*, a study, investigating into pupils' and parents' transition concerns was carried out in the UK (Zeedyk et al., 2003, p. 67). It was found that parents primarily worry about their child making friends and feeling comfortable in his or her new school surrounding. Moreover, they expressed concerns regarding their own academic abilities and fears about

their child being bullied or getting lost (Zeedyk et al., 2003). In addition, parents of first graders might feel strongly obligated to help the child with schoolwork as well as to be approachable as soon as the child returns from school. As a result, these parents might feel more limited by the general necessity of being an appropriate parent for their child. The fact that parents of grammar school children obtained a greater stress score could be associated with them showing a higher degree of helicopter parenting behavior, as well as a lower level of autonomy supporting behavior within the current study.

4.5 Hypotheses 10-12

H10: Parents of CLIL students experience greater parental after-school stress than parents of non-CLIL students

H11: Parents of first graders experience greater parental after-school stress than parents of fourth graders

H12: Parents of grammar school children experience greater parental after-school stress than parents of new secondary modern school children

Tab. 10. Parental after-school stress depending on test group, school type and school level

Parental after-school stress	Test group	School type	Grade	Mean value	Standard deviation	N
	CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	.81	1.03	18
			4th grade	.81	.89	4
			Total	.81	.99	22
		New secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	.87	.89	29
			4th grade	.84	1.05	17
			Total	.86	.94	46
		Total	1st grade	.84	.94	47
			4th grade	.83	1.00	21
			Total	.84	.95	68
	Non-CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	.93	.45	3
			4th grade	1.12	1.00	14
			Total	1.09	0.92	17
		New Secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	.19	.34	15
			4th grade	.74	1.08	6
			Total	.35	.66	21
		Total	1st grade	.31	.44	18
			4th grade	1.01	1.01	20
			Total	.68	.86	38
	Total	Grammar School (Gym)	1st grade	.83	.96	21
			4th grade	1.05	.96	18
			Total	.93	.96	39
		New Secondary School	1st grade	.64	.81	44
			4th grade	.81	1.04	23
			Total	.70	.89	67
		Total	1st grade	.70	.86	65
			4th grade	.92	1.00	41
			Total	.78	.92	106

Table 10 shows that with regard to parents' after-school stress, parents of CLIL students *(M=.84; SD=.95)* obtained a higher stress score than parents of non-CLIL students *(M=.68; SD=.86).* However, the difference between the two test groups is not significant *(F(df=1)=.13; p=.71).*

Although the mean values indicate that parents of grammar school children *(M=.93; SD=.96)* experience a higher level of after-school stress than parents of new secondary school children *(M=.70; SD=.89),* the difference between the two school types is not significant either *(F(df=1)=1.22; p=.27).*

In addition, no significant difference between the school levels could be determined *(F(df=1)=.58; p=.45).*

Interpretation

The results obtained support the proposed hypotheses, although not significantly. Drawing on the aforementioned results on helicopter parenting and autonomy support, a potential reason for parents of CLIL students as well as parents of grammar school children reporting to experience more parental after-school stress could be that they do not feel comfortable as soon as they are prevented from supervising their child's activities. Again, parents of first graders might experience more after-school stress due to the child's young age and his or her parental needs. In general, however, parental-after-school stress is not easily measurable, since results are dependent on a child's individual type of after-school arrangement as well as on the parents' jobs. That is, depending on the guardian of their child's after-school activities, or on the type of the after-school arrangement, an employed mother or a father would be, accordingly expected to worry more or less about his or her child during the after-school hours.

However, concerning the present study, it can be assumed that participants' indications of parental after-school stress were to a certain degree dependent on their occupational situation. That is, farmers' or self-employed participants' scores on parental after-school stress can be assumed to be certainly lower, due to flexible working hours that the job brings along, whereas parents who work full time may experience a higher level of parental after-school stress. Nevertheless, Barnett & Gareis (2006: 107) emphasize that *"at-home parents may also be at risk for parental after-school stress"*, since unemployed parents will certainly not be able to spend all the after-school hours with their child.

4.6 Hypotheses 13-15

H13: Parents of non-CLIL students have a more optimistic attitude towards life than parents of CLIL students

H14: Parents of fourth graders have a more optimistic attitude towards life than parents of first graders

H15: Parents of new secondary school children have a more optimistic attitude towards life than parents of grammar school children

Tab. 11. Life orientation depending on test group, school type and school level

Life orientation	Test group	School type	Grade	Mean value	Standard deviation	N
	CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	2.34	.92	18
			4th grade	2.79	.48	4
			Total	2.42	.87	22
		New secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	2.48	.76	29
			4th grade	3.03	.74	17
			Total	2.68	.79	46
		Total	1st grade	2.43	.82	47
			4th grade	2.98	.69	21
			Total	2.60	.82	68
	Non-CLIL	Grammar school (Gym)	1st grade	2.61	1.08	3
			4th grade	3.18	.53	14
			Total	3.08	.65	17
		New Secondary school (NMS)	1st grade	3.13	.41	15
			4th grade	2.89	.42	6
			Total	3.06	.42	21
		Total	1st grade	3.05	.57	18
			4th grade	3.09	.51	20
			Total	3.07	.53	38
	Total	Grammar School (Gym)	1st grade	2.38	.92	21
			4th grade	3.09	.53	18
			Total	2.71	.84	39
		New Secondary School	1st grade	2.70	.73	44
			4th grade	2.99	.66	23
			Total	2.80	.72	67
		Total	1st grade	2.60	.80	65
			4th grade	3.04	.60	41
			Total	2.77	.76	106

Table 11 shows that parents whose children receive regular education *(M=3.07; SD=.53)*, meaning that they are not taught through English in particular content subjects, display a more positive life attitude as opposed to parents of CLIL students *(M=2.60; SD=.82)*. That is, parents of non-CLIL students are more positively disposed to life and, therefore, more optimistic regarding overall outcome expectancies than parents of CLIL students. Nevertheless, the difference between the two test groups is not significant *(F(df=1)=2.60; p=.11)*.

The difference regarding parents' attitude to life is not significant between the two school types either *(F(df=1)=.71; p=.40)*. Although no significant difference between the school levels could be determined *(F(df=1)=3.32; p=.07)*, parents of fourth graders *(M=3.04; SD=*

.60) are, nevertheless, more positively disposed towards life compared to parents of first graders *(M=2.60; SD= .80).*

Interpretation

The results obtained confirm the proposed hypotheses. It could be reasoned that CLIL parents are not as optimistic as non-CLIL parents because they might take life generally more seriously, put a high degree of demand on themselves and might believe that they have to take charge of everything in general. From the results obtained it could be deduced that acting on behalf of their child and being eager for their child to achieve the best in life might either lead to a reduced optimistic outlook on life or results from a lack of optimism. That is, parents might lack faith, and therefore believe that they constantly have to take over control of their own as well as their child's destiny. Hence, since those persons usually do not expect good outcomes, they might be highly ambitious and rely mainly on their own force in order to make their dreams come true. Furthermore, it is possible that parents of fourth graders are more favorably disposed towards life since their child has now reached an age where he/she starts taking over responsibility for him/herself and his/her actions and where, at least parents might believe, the main upbringing of the child has already been completed.

4.7 Correlations between helicopter behavior, stress and life orientation

Tab. 12: Intercorrelations among measures (N=106)

	Helicopter parenting	Autonomy support	Parental stress	Parental after-school stress	Life orientation
Helicopter parenting	1				
Autonomy support	.24*	1			
Parental stress	-.04	-.33**	1		
Parental after-school stress	.15	-.20*	.40**	1	
Life orientation	-.15	.21*	-.22*	-.27*	1

*p < .05; **p < .01.

Table 12 displays the correlations among the variables measured. Thereby, autonomy support was positively correlated with helicopter parenting *(r = .24; p = .01)*. In addition, showing favorable life expectancies was positively correlated with displaying autonomy supporting behavior *(r = .21; p = .03)*. Whereas parental stress was negatively correlated with autonomy support *(r= -.33; p = .00)* and positively correlated with parental after-school stress *(r = .40; p = .00)*, no significant correlation between parental stress and helicopter parenting could be assessed. However, a positive outlook on life was negatively correlated with parental stress *(r = -.22; p = .02)*. Furthermore, parental after-school stress was negatively correlated with autonomy supportive behavior *(r = -.20; p = .04)* as well as with having a positive outlook on life *(r = -.27; p = .01)*. Results show that helicopter parenting was neither significantly correlated with parental stress, nor with parental after-school stress or an optimistic life orientation.

Interpretation

Although a study conducted by Padilla-Walker and Nelson (2012) revealed a negative correlation between helicopter parenting and parental autonomy granting, findings of the current study contradict their results. Helicopter parenting behavior was positively correlated with autonomy supportive behavior. Being more precise, the more autonomy support participants indicated providing their child with, the more helicopter parenting behavior they show, and vice versa. One possible explanation could be that since parents imperatively want their child to become independent and autonomous, whilst holding the opinion that they adopt autonomy supportive behavior, they show in fact helicopter behavior patterns. In other words, through being too eager for their child to gain independence, parents might achieve the opposite effect. Hence, they are probably unaware that by attempting to support their child's

process to become independent, they actually rather keep their child therefrom. Hence, whilst constantly intervening with the purpose of fostering the child's independence, it might easily happen that those parents, although unintentionally, cross the line and display helicopter parenting behavior instead.

Moreover, an optimistic life attitude was positively correlated with autonomy supportive behavior. That is, parents might be more optimistic as well as less stressed when they feel that they do not have to follow their child's every step, but, on the contrary, feel confident that they can increasingly let go of their child, since he or she is in the process of becoming an independent human being. Furthermore, drawing on Scheier and Carver (1985, p. 220), who state that *"optimism has important behavioral consequences"*, one could argue that parents who display a more positive life attitude also have confidence that their child makes the right decisions, and consequently avoid excessive interferences. Hence, autonomy supportive behavior might be a behavioral consequence of an optimistic attitude towards life.

Furthermore, results show that parents who are more optimistic experience less parental as well as after-school stress, and vice versa. Indeed, it is empirically proven that life is perceived less stressful by optimists (Mahoney, 2014) and various studies *"involving optimism support the ability of an optimistic orientation to minimize disabling perceptions of stress"* (Tuten & Neidermeyer, 2004, p. 29). That is, people who are rather confident that everything will turn out for the best, do not become agitated so easily, while parents who feel composed and calm rather than stressed out and restless, are more likely to be well disposed towards unforeseeable life occurrences. Moreover, optimists might also cope better with stress. Since a positive attitude affects one's behavior, Scheier, Carver and Bridges (1994) claim that optimistic people display more efficient stress coping strategies. Furthermore, the fact that measures of parental stress and parental after-school stress showed a high correlation with each other demonstrate that participants who feel generally stressed in their role as a parent, experience a high degree of after-school stress as well. Indeed, Coverman (1989, p. 966) points out that *"many studies conclude that work-family overload does, in fact, lead to psychological distress"*.

However, the fact that helicopter parenting was not correlated with parental stress disproves the given hypothesis. Nevertheless, it could be argued that, with respect to the present survey, especially helicopter parents might not have admitted to being overwhelmed with and unhappy in their role as a parent. Since helicopter parents take their parental role highly seriously and perceive good parenting and intensive involvement as vitally important for their

child's future life (LeMoyne and Buchanan, 2011), one could claim that especially those parents would not have indicated to be dissatisfied and overburdened with their parental role, although they might in reality be.

4.8 Helicopter parents and stress

In order to determine as well as compare non-helicopter parents with helicopter parents, two extreme groups were calculated. The median for helicopter parents is 2.55 (percentile 50%). 25% of the participants who obtained the lowest scores on helicopter parenting behavior are thus labeled as non-helicopter parents and are compared with those 25% of the respondents who obtained the highest scores on helicopter parenting behavior. Thus, helicopter parents are those parents who display a helicopter parenting behavior with a mean value of above 2.77 (percentile 75%). Thereby, around one third of the participants were identified to be helicopters. Hence, the following evaluation relates to those two extreme groups.

The comparison of helicopter parents and non-helicopter parents shows no significant differences between the two groups with regards to their experience of stress as well as their outlook on life. Being more precise, no significant difference between helicopter and non-helicopter parents and their level of stress could be assessed *(t(df=68)=.24; p=.15)*. That is, regardless of being labeled as a helicopter parent or not, participants of the present survey indicated to be equally stressed. In addition, no significant difference with regards to parents' after-school stress could be determined between the two groups *(t(df=58)=-1.46; p=.15)*. Moreover, helicopter and non-helicopter parents do not hold significantly differing views of life. Thus, both groups display an equally favorable disposition towards life *(t(df=58)=1.60; p=.11).*

However, helicopter and non-helicopter parents differ significantly in their degree of fostering their child's autonomy *(t(df=58)=-.2.67; p=.01)*. That is, helicopter parents show more autonomy supportive behavior and, therefore, display greater support for their child in gaining independence as opposed to non-helicopter parents. This group of parents shows a lower score on autonomy supportive behavior.

Tab. 13: t-Test: Differences between helicopter and non-helicopter parents on variables measured

	Type of parental behavior	N	Mean value	Standard deviation
Autonomy support	Non-helicopter parents	25	2.95	.71
	Helicopter parents	32	3.37	.50
Parental stress	Non-helicopter parents	25	.68	.51
	Helicopter parents	35	.64	.47
Parental after-school stress	Non-helicopter parents	25	.61	.82
	Helicopter parents	35	.97	1.05
Life orientation	Non-helicopter parents	25	2.89	.69
	Helicopter parents	35	2.58	.80

Table 13 displays the average scores on autonomy support, stress, and life orientation obtained by helicopter parents and non-helicopter parents. Focusing on autonomy support, helicopter parents scored considerably higher than non-helicopter parents. However, taking parental stress, parental after-school stress and life orientation into consideration, the average scores of the two test groups do not differ significantly.

Interpretation

Whereas research (Padilla-Walker & Nelson, 2012) displayed a negative correlation between helicopter parenting and parental autonomy granting, helicopter parenting and autonomy supporting behavior were positively associated within the current study. That is, by restlessly urging the child to reach independence and by constantly attempting to foster this process, the parent might already unintentionally display helicopter parenting behavior rather than actually support the child in becoming autonomous. Thereby, the parent achieves the exact opposite. Moreover, it might also be possible that helicopter parents ticked the items reflecting autonomy supporting behavior, since they unconsciously know that that is how they are expected to behave with regards to their child's upbringing. However, participants might in reality not even carry out what they indicated doing in the questionnaire. With regards to parental stress, the hypothesis that helicopters are more stressed was refuted as well. It can be reasoned that especially helicopter parents might not have admitted in the questionnaire to be overtaxed with their parental role, although they might be in reality.

4.8.1 Helicopter parents and school involvement

When comparing helicopter parents and non-helicopter parents and the amount of time each target group invests into studying with their child, the following results were obtained in the present survey.

Table 14 shows that during the week, helicopter and non-helicopter parents do not differ significantly from each other regarding the amount of time they spend on assisting with their child's school work (including homework and studying for exams). That is, irrespective of whether parents are being labeled as helicopters or not, an almost equal amount of hours per day is invested into studying for school with their child from Monday to Friday.

However, the results obtained display a difference between the target groups regarding the time spent on school work on Sundays ($\chi^2(df=4)=7{,}95;\ p=.09$). Although the difference is only marginally significant, helicopter parents clearly spend more hours on assisting their children with school work on Sundays than non-helicopter parents do.

Tab. 14: A comparison of helicopter and non-helicopter parents and the hours they spend each day on school work with their child

	Test group	0 hours	1/2 hours	1 hour	2 hours	3 hours +	χ2Pearson
Monday	Helicopter parents	5	11	5	2	0	χ2(df=4)=4.32; p=.36
	Non-helicopter parents	5	4	3	0	1	
Tuesday	Helicopter parents	4	10	7	0	0	χ2(df=4)=4.86; p=.30
	Non-helicopter parents	3	3	3	1	1	
Wednesday	Helicopter parents	3	11	5	1	0	χ2(df=4)=3.60; p=.46
	non-helicopter parents	3	4	4	0	1	
Thursday	Helicopter parents	5	10	4	1	0	χ2(df=4)=4.00; p=.41
	Non-helicopter parents	3	3	3	2	1	
Friday	Helicopter parents	7	7	5	1	0	χ2(df=4)=2.37; p=.67
	Non-helicopter parents	5	3	2	1	1	
Saturday	Helicopter parents	7	7	2	1	1	χ2(df=4)=4.97; p=.29
	Non-helicopter parents	4	1	3	2	0	
Sunday	**Helicopter parents**	**5**	**7**	**3**	**1**	**2**	**χ2(df=4)=7,95; p=.09**
	Non-helicopter parents	**4**	**0**	**4**	**2**	**0**	

Interpretation

Although helicopter parents are characterized by being deeply, even intrusively involved in their child's school education, that does not necessarily mean that they actively study more extensively with their child than non-helicopter parents do. Indeed, findings of a study conducted by Padilla-Walker and Nelson (2012) are in line with the results obtained by the current study in that helicopter parenting was negatively associated with parental school engagement. That is, whereas helicopter parents might in fact request and demand (maybe even force) their child to study and focus on school matters, they, however, quite possibly stay out of their child's actual learning process. Indeed, most of the items of the helicopter parenting scale developed by Schiffrin et al. (2014) are concerned with parents primarily *monitoring* aspects of their child's life [emphasis added]. Hence, from the results obtained by the current survey, one could argue that helicopter parenting does not necessarily equate to literally sitting down and studying excessively with one's child. Moreover, although helicopter parents clearly want their child to be successful in school, they might, nevertheless, lack competence in assisting with school-work. Hence, parents' self-efficacy certainly plays an important role in whether or not they become engaged in their child's learning process (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995).

Regarding Sundays, however, the number of hours helicopter parents spend on studying with their child exceeds the number of hours non-helicopters. Whereas 'normal' parents might perceive Sundays as a day for the child to rest and recharge his/her batteries in order to be well recovered for the upcoming week of school, helicopter parents might not grant their child this break.

4.9 A model of stress

Figure 1, representing the developed stress model, shows the potential factors empirically investigated in this study that could cause parents to feel stressed. Thereby, parental stress functions as the dependent variable, whereas CLIL, helicopter parenting, the child's school level and school type are the independent variables, possibly triggering stress. Although it was assumed that CLIL and helicopter parenting are the major sources of stress, results obtained refute this hypothesis. That is, contrary to expectation, CLIL as well as helicopter parenting apparently do not figure into parents' experience of stress. On the contrary, it appears that stress is significantly determined by the type of school one's child attends, and, although not as significantly, by the child's school level *(.13 test group (CLIL - non-CLIL) + (-.25) school type*** *(gym - NMS) +(-.17) school level + .07 helicopter parents)*[13]. Furthermore, it is shown that grammar schools generate more stress than new secondary schools, and that a lower school level produces more stress than a higher level *(r2=.097; p=.03).*

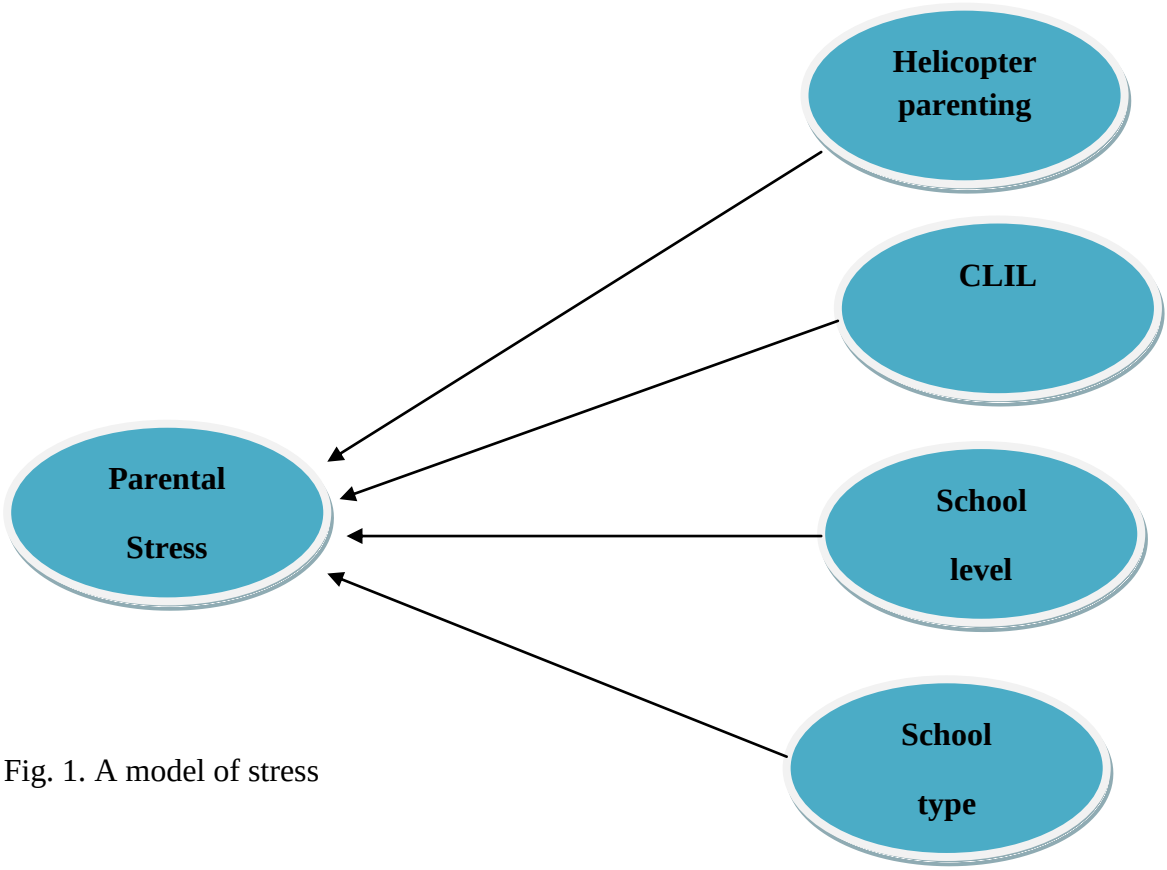

Fig. 1. A model of stress

[13] **p= .01

Applying the model to parental after-school stress, no significant outcomes could be established. That is, results obtained did not determine crucial factors that significantly cause parental after-school stress. Thereby, it is shown that neither CLIL, helicopter parenting, the school level nor the school type are to be determining factors of parental after-school stress *(-.11 test group (CLIL - non-CLIL) + (-.13) school type (gym - NMS) +.13 school level +.11 helicopter parenting).*

Interpretation

The findings that neither CLIL nor helicopter parenting are causes of stress contradicts expectations, since it was initially assumed that CLIL would constitute an additional burden for parents. However, it is possible that CLIL students might indeed receive additional support from their teachers and, therefore, do not require their parents' assistance more than non-CLIL students (Marsh, n.d.). Furthermore, it might also be the case that CLIL students learn more easily in general, struggle less with school matters, and therefore parents decide not to become greatly involved. Hence, numerous child variables certainly determine whether parents become involved (Eccles & Harold, 1993). Moreover, helicopter parenting has, apparently, nothing to do with parents' experience of stress. As opposed to Fingerman et al.'s study (2012), in which over-parenting was found to affect parents' well-being negatively, the current study found that hovering over one's child does not lead to a higher stress level. Thereby, helicopter parents might be more stress resistant in general. That is, parents who make the effort and can afford the time to overly intervene in their child's life, may be more stress resistant by nature, whereas parents who get stressed easily and have rather weak nerves, might not become helicopter parents in the first place. Furthermore, one should keep the possibility in mind that within this survey, helicopter parents simply might not have admitted to be stressed in their parental role, since it would shed a bad light on them. However, one's child school type as well as school level was found to be indicative for parental stress. Although Berry & Jones' (1995) study shows contradictive results in that parents of younger and older children obtained equal stress scores, parents of first graders were found to feel significantly more stressed than parents of fourth graders within the current study.

4.10 Analysis of the parental involvement questionnaire

Contrary to expectations, results obtained on the items generated to find out about CLIL and non-CLIL parents' involvement in their child's school life do not vary significantly between the two test groups (see table 15 in the appendix). That is, on average and contradictory to my hypothesis, CLIL and non-CLIL parents are apparently involved in their child's school education to a similar degree. Within the following chapter, results are presented in greater detail.

Comparing results obtained from CLIL and non-CLIL parents, the majority of the items investigating parents' degree of school involvement were found to have received equal scores by both test groups. That is, the mean values of most items show no significant differences between parents of CLIL and non-CLIL students. In fact, merely the item 'I ask my child what he/she learned in school' displays a significant difference between the two target groups *(F(df=1)=4.31; p=.04).* Thereby, CLIL parents *(M=3,43; SD= .13)* obtained a higher score than non-CLIL parents *(M=3.00; SD=.16).* Looking at participants' general responses on all of the items, the item 'I am informed about my child's grades' obtained the highest average score from both test groups *(CLIL: M=3.91; SD=.04; non-CLIL: M=3.91; SD=.06)*, whereas 'I dispute negative grades' received the lowest average score from CLIL *(M=.84; SD=.19)* as well as non-CLIL parents *(M=.71; SD=.24).*

Among the whole pool of items evaluated, only one item, namely 'I know the phone number of my child's teacher' displays a significant difference between the two school types *(F(df=1)=15.52; p=.00).* More precisely, parents whose child attends a new secondary school obtained a significantly higher score on this item *(M=2.68; SD=.19)* as opposed to parents whose child attends a grammar school *(M=1.35; SD=.28).*

However, results on four items display a significant difference between parents of first and fourth graders. Firstly, the item 'I determine when my child needs to do his/her homework' shows a significant difference between the two test groups *(F(df=1)=7.59; p=.01)* in that parents of first graders obtained a higher score *(M= 2.06; SD=.22)* compared to parents of fourth graders *(M=1.17; SD=.23).* Secondly, 'my child tells me what he/she learned in school' shows a significant difference *(F(df=1)=4.61; p=.04)* since the average score is higher for parents of first graders *(M=3.02; SD=.16)* than for parents of fourth graders *(M=2.51; SD=.17).* Thirdly, average scores on the items 'I check my child's homework'

(F(df=1)=10.43; p=.00) and 'I study with my child' *(F(df=1)=9.01; p=.00)* were found to differ significantly from each other as well. That is, average scores on both items are significantly higher for parents of first graders *(M=2.82/M=1.80; M=3.07/M=2.20).*

5 Discussion

The following chapter provides a summary of the significant results obtained by the empirical study conducted. Thereby, the most important findings are summarized and discussed once again.

Since 76.4% of the respondents indicated being married or living in a joint household, it could have been either the father or the mother (male/female legal guardian) who agreed to voluntarily fill in the questionnaire handed over by the child. Hence, it is interesting that mainly females, accounting for even 84.9%, took part in the survey. Thus, findings of the present survey are in line with results on that matter obtained in the UK, stating that although fathers' involvement has shown an increase since the 1970s, it is still the mothers who primarily take care of the child's school matters (*Department for children, school and families*, 2008). Moreover, the large percentage of mothers who took part in this empirical study supports Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (1997) statement that mothers feel stronger role obligations than fathers, and therefore feel more responsible for assisting their child with school-work.

Since one of the hypotheses was that parents of CLIL students have to study more with their child and probably chose a CLIL school for their child due to being aware of the importance of English as a global language, those parents were expected to exhibit a better command of English compared to their non-CLIL counterparts. The results obtained reveal no significant difference between the two test groups, though. In fact, Marsh (n.d.) asserts that CLIL parents do not even have to be able to speak the CLIL language, and that their child may even act as a language teacher for them.

Regarding parents' involvement in their child's school education, no significant differences could be assessed between the CLIL and non-CLIL test group. However, the act of voluntarily taking part in the current survey also constitutes a type of parental school involvement. With respect to the response rate of this study, results show a significant difference between the number of questionnaires returned by parents of first and fourth CLIL and non-CLIL graders. Thereby, almost 50% of the questionnaires were filled in by parents of CLIL first graders. Hence, one could argue that the children's age group and CLIL are interacting factors, since parents of non-CLIL first graders as well as parents of CLIL fourth graders showed a significantly lower participation rate in this survey. Hence, although no

significant differences could be found between CLIL and non-CLIL parents when evaluating the part of the questionnaire concerning parental school involvement, from the fact that more CLIL parents (64.4%) than non-CLIL parents (35.9%) voluntarily took part in this survey, it can be deduced that CLIL parents might take school matters more seriously and are indeed more interested and greater involved in their child's school life.

With regards to school involvement, it was found that the two test groups do not significantly differ from each other. CLIL and non-CLIL parents achieved the same average scores on the majority of items investigating into their level of involvement in their child's school matters. Although it is empirically evidenced that pupils' content attainment is not impaired by being taught through a foreign language (Georgiou, 2012), even researchers within the CLIL domain have questioned how this can be possible (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). In addition, in a study conducted in Germany, CLIL students reported that it is the English language they find difficult in CLIL lessons because they only understood fractions of what the teacher had said (Massler, 2012). Hence, it was hypothesized in the current study that CLIL parents would show a higher level of involvement, due to their child facing potential challenges by being taught in English and, consequently, requiring more parental support and assistance with school content. However, findings obtained by the current study refuted this hypothesis. Possible concerns voiced by parents regarding a potential higher degree of parental assistance required when their children attend a CLIL school are already addressed by Marsh (n.d., p. 13), who assures that *"the child should be able to do most of his/her homework without help being given by parents"* and that CLIL teachers *"guide pupils rather carefully in terms of homework"* and, thereby, identify and clarify problems quickly. Hence, one could argue that findings of the present survey are, indeed, in line with Marsh's assertion, namely that CLIL parents are not expected to be involved in their child's schoolwork to a greater extent than they would be required by regular schools (Marsh, n.d.). The fact that CLIL parents are not more greatly involved in their child's school education can also be attributed to child variables, such as the child's learning ability or motivation to study, for example. However, one needs to bear in mind that CLIL students did not undergo prior selection processes evaluating their language or subject knowledge, since Austrian CLIL schools do not have any admission criteria whatsoever (Eurydice, 2004/05).

However, the questionnaire on parental school involvement showed significant differences among four items between parents of first and fourth graders. Hence, it can be said that the

child's age was found to be a more crucial factor than CLIL or non-CLIL for determining differences between parents' degree of engaging with their child's school matters. Parents of first graders obtained higher scores than parents of fourth graders on items referring to correcting homework, determining the time for doing homework, studying with the child and knowing what the child learned at school. A study conducted by Cooper, Lindsay and Nye (2000, p. 464) obtained similar results in that *"parents with students in higher grade levels reported giving students more homework autonomy and less involvement of all other types"*. Results obtained by the current survey can be attributed to child variables, already described in the theory part of this paper. That is, the child's age seems to be indeed an important variable for determining the degree to which parents decide to become involved (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). With regards to studying with the child, parents of first graders might feel more competent to do so, whereas parents of fourth graders might lack the necessary skills and knowledge for assisting their child with school work. Hence, parents' perception of self-efficacy might be a decisive factor for school involvement as well (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). In a similar manner, Cotton and Wikelund (n.d.) remark that researchers have found out that parents become less involved as their child grows older and that most studies on parental school involvement are conducted at the pre-school or primary school level, since parental school involvement declines as children move up to higher levels.

Since it was hypothesized that CLIL parents are more involved in their child's school life, they were consequently expected to experience a higher degree of stress in their parental role as well. CLIL was assumed to be an additional burden for students, possibly resulting in struggles with regards to successful content attainment, and therefore, constituting an additional stressor for parents. Indeed, Cronin et al. (2015) state that a child's struggle at school might present an additional source of stress for parents. However, results obtained disprove this hypothesis, too. In actual fact, CLIL parents were found to be significantly less stressed than their non-CLIL counterparts. Hence, contrary to expectations, results evince that CLIL neither enhances parents' degree of school involvement, nor their level of stress. Referring back to Marsh (n.d.), who reassures that parents of CLIL students should not be expected to study more with their child, and keeping in mind that results of the current survey support his statement, the fact that CLIL parents did not obtain higher stress scores than their non-CLIL counterparts fits into this pattern.

Regarding the established model of stress, it can be concluded that although neither CLIL nor helicopter parenting apparently figure into parents' perceived stress level, the child's school type as well as the school level were identified to be the most decisive factors causing parental stress. Although Berry & Jones' (1995) study shows contradictive results, in that parents of younger and older children obtained equal stress scores, parents of first graders were found to feel significantly more stressed than parents of fourth graders in this study. Since a child's transition from primary to secondary school appears to be one of the most challenging times for children (Zeedyk et al., 2003), parents of first graders might feel more stressed due to being worried whether the child finds his/her way, experiences a smooth rather than an unpleasant school transition and eventually manages to settle in. In fact, after having conducted interviews with parents of children who transited from primary to secondary school, Zeedyk et al. (2003) determined several concerns voiced by parents. Amongst several others, fears of their child being bullied as well as worries concerning his or her peer relations were primary concerns voiced by parents. Parents of younger children might still feel greater role obligations due to their child's tender age (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995); hence, parents of first graders might feel more stressed due to constantly attempting to fully meet expectations regarding their parental role as opposed to parents of fourth graders who might already consider their child more or less grown-up.

The results demonstrating that parents of grammar school children are more stressed than parents of new secondary school children might result from the fact that those parents were found to display slightly greater helicopter parenting behavior and significantly less autonomy supportive behavior as well. Although, as already mentioned, helicopter parenting was neither positively nor negatively correlated with parental stress, autonomy supportive behavior was negatively associated with parental stress. Hence, a relation between parents of grammar school children's increased level of stress and their lower level of autonomy supportive behavior can be found in this study.

Although helicopter parents were expected to obtain a higher stress score, results showed that helicopter and non-helicopter parents primarily differ from each other with regards to providing autonomy support. Contradicting Padilla-Walker and Nelson's study (2012), which found a negative correlation between helicopter parenting and parental autonomy granting, helicopter parenting was positively correlated with autonomy supportive behavior within the current study. Although the main problematic issue of helicopter parenting is that it prevents

the child from becoming independent (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011), helicopter parents, obtained a higher score on autonomy supportive behavior within this study. It can be reasoned, however, that by overly pushing their child to become independent, helicopter parents might unintentionally display helicopter parenting behavior instead.

However, helicopter parenting did not show any correlations with parental stress or parents' disposition towards life whatsoever, contrary to initial expectations. Contradicting Fingerman et al.'s study (2012), which concluded that intense parental support affects parents' well-being negatively, the current study found no relation between helicopter parenting and parents' perception of stress. One could argue that helicopter parents might not have admitted to feeling stressed in their role as a parent, since they put high parental demands on themselves and regard their overprotective and over-involved parenting behavior as essentially important for their child's future. Since the majority of results obtained for helicopter parents were found to contradict the hypotheses, it is important to bear in mind that the helicopter parenting scale, which had been developed by Schiffrin et al. (2014) and modified for the purpose of the current survey, may not have been the most appropriate one to utilize, since it was originally used to investigate college students' attitudes towards their mothers' behavior. Hence, items on the scale reflected helicopter parenting behavior of parents with older children rather than with children aged between 10 and 14.

Furthermore, the present study showed that, although helicopter parents do not differ from non-helicopter parents with regards to the amount of time invested in their child's school matters (such as helping with homework, studying for exams) on weekdays, regarding Sundays, helicopter parents apparently spend more time on their child's school issues, as opposed to non-helicopter parents. Hence, whereas 'ordinary' parents were found to grant their children a break on Sundays, helicopter parents were found to study more extensively with their children on Sundays than non-helicopter parents do.

Moreover, within a study carried out in 2008/2009 in Germany, the majority of CLIL parents (95%) "*reported being convinced of the value of studying a content subject module through an additional language"* (Massler, 2012, p. 40). Hence, it was assumed that participants of this survey had deliberately placed their child in a CLIL school, assuming that increasing exposure to English would give their child a cutting edge with regards to his or her future professional life. Since helicopter parents are within the existing, yet limited pool of empirical

literature, characterized by being worried about their child's future job opportunities, they try to protect their child by interfering and making sure that he/she receives the best education (Bayless, 2013). Since helicopter parenting occurs mainly in the educational domain and CLIL parents are assumed to have a say regarding their child's school choice, CLIL parents were expected to display greater helicopter parenting behavior. However, CLIL parents obtained merely a slightly higher score on the helicopter parenting scale than non-CLIL parents.

Although the parental school involvement questionnaire also contained items which were headed towards helicopter parenting behavior, such as disputing negative grades or calling the teacher, scores obtained by CLIL and non-CLIL parents did not differ significantly from each other, either. Hence, it can be concluded that apart from participating in this survey, CLIL parents show no greater engagement in their child's school matters than non-CLIL parents.

Finally, it can be concluded that all of the four research questions developed and empirically examined in this diploma thesis have been negated. That is, parents of CLIL students were neither found to be more intensively engaged in their child's school life, nor more stressed than non-CLIL parents. Moreover, helicopter parents did not display a higher stress level than non-helicopter parents, and although CLIL parents showed a higher degree of helicopter parenting behavior indeed, the difference between the two test groups was, nevertheless, not significant.

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7 Appendix

Zusammenfassung

Die englische Abkürzung CLIL steht für Content and Language Integrated Learning und bezeichnet eine moderne Unterrichtsmethode, die im deutschsprachigen Raum unter Englisch als Arbeitssprache (EAA) bekannt ist. Dabei werden Fachinhalte einiger Unterrichtsgegenstände (z.B. Geschichte oder Geographie) nicht auf Deutsch, sondern in einer Fremdsprache, meist Englisch, unterrichtet. In Österreich wird CLIL bereits an vielen Schulen praktiziert, und dessen Wirksamkeit hauptsächlich im Bereich der angewandten Sprachwissenschaft erforscht. Im Gegenteil dazu wurde CLIL in der vorliegenden Diplomarbeit von einer psychologischen Perspektive ausgehend untersucht. Zudem wurde das Phänomen der Helikopter-Eltern behandelt, worunter übertriebenes Eingreifen in das Leben des Kindes verstanden wird.

Die empirische Studie befasste sich mit Unterschieden zwischen Eltern von CLIL SchülerInnen und nicht-CLIL SchülerInnen, die entweder die erste oder vierte Schulstufe eines Gymnasiums oder einer Neuen Mittelschule besuchen. Im Zuge der quantitativen Forschung wurde an insgesamt 106 Eltern ein Fragebogen ausgeteilt, welcher das Stresserleben, das Schul- und Lernengagement, das generelle Elternverhalten als auch die Lebenseinstellung der Eltern beinhaltete.

Die Ergebnisse zeigten, dass sich CLIL Eltern nicht mehr gestresst fühlen als nicht-CLIL Eltern, und dass sie sich auch nicht stärker an den schulischen Prozessen ihres Kindes beteiligen. Zudem wurde herausgefunden, dass die Tatsache ein 'helicopter parent' zu sein, keinen Einfluss auf das Stressempfinden der befragten Eltern hat. Jedoch zeigte sich, dass der Schultyp als auch das jeweilige Schullevel des Kindes signifikanten Einfluss auf den Stress der Eltern haben. Die Studie zeigte, dass CLIL Eltern, verglichen mit nicht-CLIL Eltern, kein erhöhtes 'helicopter parenting' Verhalten an den Tag legen. Darüber hinaus korrelierte der Helikopter Erziehungsstil positiv mit der der Autonomieförderung.

Die Tatsache, dass Eltern von Erstklässlern in ihrer Elternrolle mehr gestresst sind als Eltern von Kindern die die vierte Schulstufe besuchen, wurde dem Alter der Kinder zugeschrieben. Eltern von Kindern die ein Gymnasium besuchen könnten deshalb mehr

gestresst sein, weil diese auch weniger Autonomie förderndes Elternverhalten aufwiesen, welches wiederum in der vorliegenden Studie negativ mit Stress korrelierte. Zudem wurde angenommen, dass CLIL SchülerInnen von ihren LehrerInnen stärker unterstützt werden, ergo, sich Eltern deshalb nicht stärker in die Schulprozesse ihrer Kinder integrieren, folglich auch weniger gestresst sind.

Abstract

The abbreviation 'CLIL' stands for Content and Language Integrated Learning, which is a novel approach to teaching in which subject content is acquired in a foreign language. Instead of teaching non-language subjects in German, English is used as the medium of instruction. Since CLIL is being increasingly implemented in the Austrian school system, and research into CLIL stems primarily from the linguistic domain, the following thesis took a different perspective and approached CLIL from a psychological point of view. Moreover, the phenomenon of helicopter parents, referring to parents who show excessive involvement in their child's life, was examined as well.

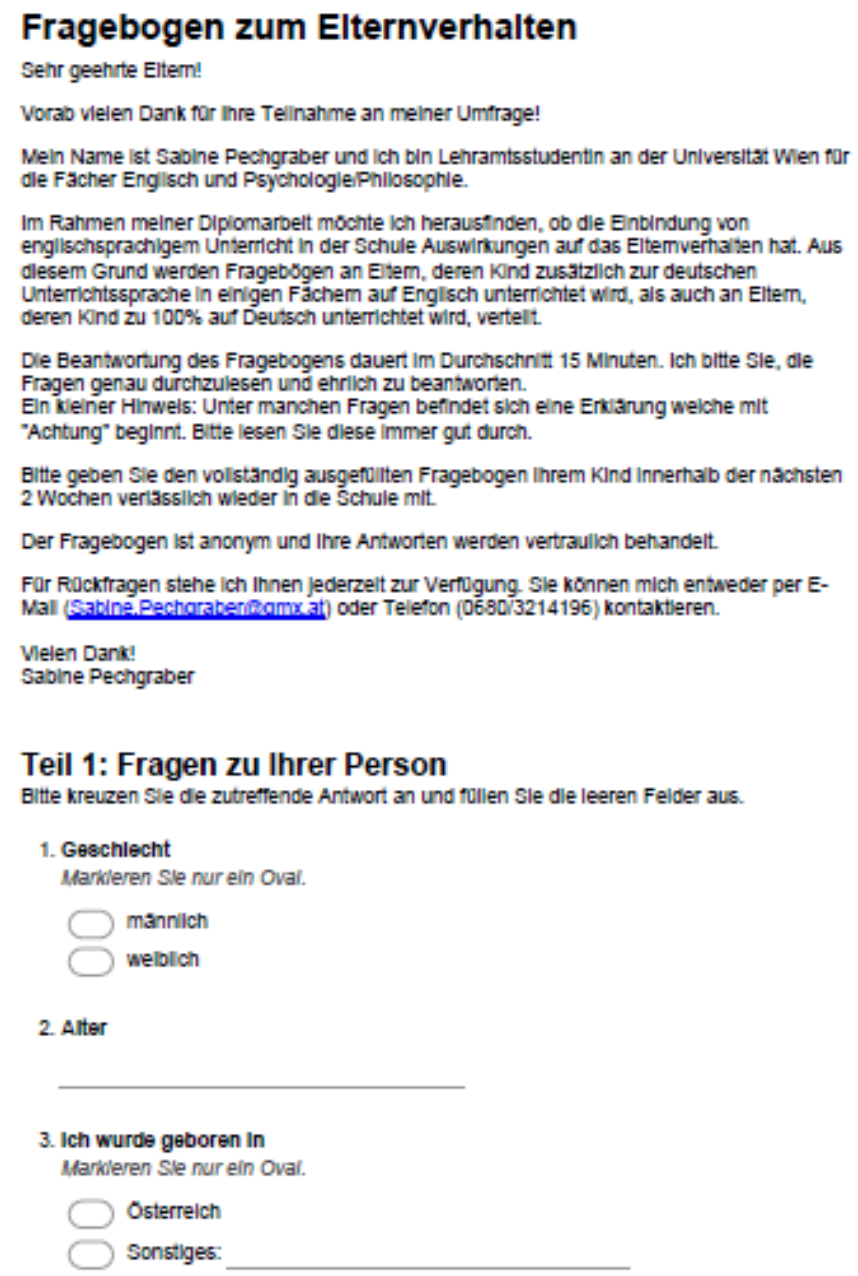
The study conducted sought to find out differences between parents of CLIL and parents of non-CLIL students, attending either first or fourth grade of a grammar or new secondary school, with regards to their general parenting behavior and perceived level of parental stress. Hence, parents of CLIL students and parents of non-CLIL students (N=106) completed questionnaires, thereby investigating various variables such as parental school involvement, parental stress, helicopter parenting behavior and parents' outlook on life.

The results obtained revealed that CLIL parents are neither more strongly involved in their child's education, nor do they experience more stress. Although it was hypothesized that helicopter parenting behavior displays an additional stressor, results showed that excessive intervention in the child's life does not influence parental stress negatively. However, it was revealed that the child's school level as well as school type impact parents' stress level. Moreover, CLIL parents were not found to display greater helicopter parenting behavior, and helicopter parents indicated to adopt more autonomy supportive behavior than non-helicopter parents.

Results showing that parents of first graders are more stressed were largely explained by the children's age. The increased level of stress which parents of grammar school children experience was attributed to the fact that those parents also adopt significantly less autonomy supportive behavior, which was positively correlated with parental stress within the current study. Moreover, helicopter parents might not have admitted to feel stressed in their parental role. Results showing that CLIL parents are not more involved than non-CLIL parents were explained by reasons of the teacher being more lenient with students who study content

through a foreign language. Since it was assumed that CLIL parents are more stressed primarily due to being more greatly involved in their child's school matters, results displaying that parents are not more stressed either were considered to fit into this pattern.

Questionnaire



Fragebogen zum Elternverhalten

Sehr geehrte Eltern!

Vorab vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme an meiner Umfrage!

Mein Name ist Sabine Pechgraber und ich bin Lehramtsstudentin an der Universität Wien für die Fächer Englisch und Psychologie/Philosophie.

Im Rahmen meiner Diplomarbeit möchte ich herausfinden, ob die Einbindung von englischsprachigem Unterricht in der Schule Auswirkungen auf das Elternverhalten hat. Aus diesem Grund werden Fragebögen an Eltern, deren Kind zusätzlich zur deutschen Unterrichtssprache in einigen Fächern auf Englisch unterrichtet wird, als auch an Eltern, deren Kind zu 100% auf Deutsch unterrichtet wird, verteilt.

Die Beantwortung des Fragebogens dauert im Durchschnitt 15 Minuten. Ich bitte Sie, die Fragen genau durchzulesen und ehrlich zu beantworten.
Ein kleiner Hinweis: Unter manchen Fragen befindet sich eine Erklärung welche mit "Achtung" beginnt. Bitte lesen Sie diese immer gut durch.

Bitte geben Sie den vollständig ausgefüllten Fragebogen Ihrem Kind innerhalb der nächsten 2 Wochen verlässlich wieder in die Schule mit.

Der Fragebogen ist anonym und Ihre Antworten werden vertraulich behandelt.

Für Rückfragen stehe ich Ihnen jederzeit zur Verfügung. Sie können mich entweder per E-Mail (Sabine.Pechgraber@gmx.at) oder Telefon (0680/3214196) kontaktieren.

Vielen Dank!
Sabine Pechgraber

Teil 1: Fragen zu Ihrer Person

Bitte kreuzen Sie die zutreffende Antwort an und füllen Sie die leeren Felder aus.

1. **Geschlecht**
   Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.
   - ◯ männlich
   - ◯ weiblich

2. **Alter**
   _____

3. **Ich wurde geboren in**
   Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.
   - ◯ Österreich
   - ◯ Sonstiges: _____

4. **Ihre Staatsbürgerschaft**
Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

- ◯ Österreich
- ◯ Sonstiges: _____

5. **Höchste abgeschlossene Ausbildung**
Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

- ◯ kein Pflichtschulabschluss
- ◯ Pflichtschulabschluss
- ◯ Lehrabschluss
- ◯ Berufsbildende mittlere Schule ohne Matura (z.B. Handelsschule)
- ◯ Allgemeinbildende oder berufsbildende höhere Schule mit Matura (z.B. Gymnasium, HAK, HTL)
- ◯ Universität
- ◯ Fachhochschule
- ◯ College, Pädagogische Hochschule
- ◯ Sonstiges: _____

6. **Beruf**

_____

7. **Aktuelle Lebenssituation**
Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

- ◯ Ehe/Lebensgemeinschaft mit gemeinsamem Haushalt
- ◯ ledig/ ohne Partner oder Partnerin lebend
- ◯ In Partnerschaft lebend ohne gemeinsamem Haushalt
- ◯ Sonstiges: _____

8. **Anzahl der Kinder**

_____

9. **Alter Ihres Kindes/Ihrer Kinder**

_____

10. **Wie viele Ihrer Kinder besuchen eine Schule, in welcher der Unterricht zum Teil auf Englisch stattfindet?**

_____

11. **In welchen Unterrichtsgegenständen wird Ihr Kind in englischer Sprache unterrichtet?**
Achtung: Die Frage bezieht sich auf das Kind, welches Ihnen den Fragebogen gegeben hat

_____

12. **Wie viele Unterrichtsstunden pro Woche sind das?**

_____

13. **Wie würden Sie Ihre eigenen Englischkenntnisse einschätzen?**
Achtung: Lesen Sie zuerst gründlich die Beschreibung der jeweiligen Level (A1 - C2) laut dem Common European Framework of Reference durch und kreuzen Sie das für Sie zutreffende Level an.
Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

- ◯ A1
- ◯ A2
- ◯ B1
- ◯ B2
- ◯ C1
- ◯ C2
- ◯ Englisch ist meine Muttersprache

Referenzniveau des Common European Frameworks - Englisch

A1
Kann vertraute, alltägliche Ausdrücke und ganz einfache Sätze verstehen und verwenden, die auf die Befriedigung konkreter Bedürfnisse zielen. Kann sich und andere vorstellen und anderen Leuten Fragen zu ihrer Person stellen - z.B. wo sie wohnen, was für Leute sie kennen oder was für Dinge sie haben - und kann auf Fragen dieser Art Antwort geben.
Kann sich auf einfache Art verständigen, wenn die Gesprächspartnerinnen oder Gesprächspartner langsam und deutlich sprechen und bereits sind zu helfen.

A2
Kann Sätze und häufig gebrauchte Ausdrücke verstehen, die mit Bereichen von ganz unmittelbarer Bedeutung zusammenhängen (z. B. Informationen zur Person und zur Familie, Einkaufen, Arbeit, nähere Umgebung).
Kann sich in einfachen, routinemäßigen Situationen verständigen, in denen es um einen einfachen und direkten Austausch von Informationen über vertraute und geläufige Dinge geht.
Kann mit einfachen Mitteln die eigene Herkunft und Ausbildung, die direkte Umgebung und Dinge im Zusammenhang mit unmittelbaren Bedürfnissen beschreiben.

B1
Kann die Hauptpunkte verstehen, wenn klare Standardsprache verwendet wird und wenn es um vertraute Dinge aus Arbeit, Schule, Freizeit, usw. geht.
Kann die meisten Situationen bewältigen, denen man auf Reisen im Sprachgebiet begegnet.
Kann sich einfach und zusammenhängend über vertraute Themen und persönliche Interessengebiete äußern.
Kann über Erfahrungen und Ereignisse berichten, Träume, Hoffnungen und Ziele beschreiben und zu Plänen und Ansichten kurze Begründungen oder Erklärungen geben.

B2
Kann die Hauptinhalte komplexer Texte zu konkreten und abstrakten Themen verstehen; versteht im eigenen Spezialgebiet auch Fachdiskussionen.
Kann sich so spontan und fließend verständigen, dass ein normales Gespräch mit Muttersprachlern ohne größere Anstrengung auf beiden Seiten gut möglich ist.
Kann sich zu einem breiten Themenspektrum klar und detailliert ausdrücken, einen Standpunkt zu einer aktuellen Frage erläutern und die Vor- und Nachteile verschiedener Möglichkeiten angeben.

C1
Kann ein breites Spektrum anspruchsvoller, längerer Texte verstehen und auch implizite Bedeutungen erfassen.
Kann sich spontan und fließend ausdrücken, ohne öfter deutlich erkennbar nach Worten suchen zu müssen.
Kann die Sprache im gesellschaftlichen und beruflichen Leben oder in Ausbildung und Studium wirksam und flexibel gebrauchen.
Kann sich klar, strukturiert und ausführlich zu komplexen Sachverhalten äußern und dabei verschiedene Mittel zur Textverknüpfung angemessen verwenden.

C2
Kann praktisch alles, was er/sie liest und hört, mühelos verstehen.
Kann Informationen aus verschiedenen schriftlichen und mündlichen Quellen zusammenfassen und dabei Begründungen und Erklärungen in einer zusammenhängenden Darstellung wiedergeben.
Kann sich spontan, sehr flüssig und genau ausdrücken und auch bei komplexeren Sachverhalten feinere Bedeutungsnuancen deutlich machen.

Teil 2: Fragen zur schulischen Beteiligung - Teil A

Achtung: Diese Fragen beziehen sich ausschließlich auf jene Unterrichtsgegenstände Ihres Kindes mit DEUTSCHER Unterrichtssprache.

14. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Ich bestimme, wann mein Kind die Hausübung machen muss	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich weiß, welche Themen in der Schule derzeit behandelt werden	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich weiß, was mein Kind derzeit in der Schule lernt	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Mein Kind erzählt mir, was in der Schule gelernt wurde	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich frage mein Kind, was in der Schule gelernt wurde	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich kenne den Stundenplan meines Kindes	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich informiere mich, wozu mein Kind in den jeweiligen Gegenständen getestet wird	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich bin über die Test- und Schularbeitstermine meines Kindes informiert	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich kenne den Teststoff/Schularbeitsstoff meines Kindes	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

15. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Ich frage mein Kind nach einem Test/einer Schularbeit sofort (per Sms, Anruf), wie es ihm/ihr dabei ergangen ist					
Ich bin über die Noten meines Kindes informiert					
Die Noten meines Kindes sind für mich wichtig					
Ich kontaktiere bei nicht zufriedenstellender Note meines Kindes die jeweilige Lehrperson					
Ich fechte negative Noten an					
Ich habe die Telefonnummer der Lehrpersonen meines Kindes					
Ich verbiete meinem Kind Freizeitaktivitäten auszuüben, wenn noch nicht genug gelernt wurde/wenn die Hausübung noch nicht fertig ist					
Ich verbiete meinem Kind Freizeitaktivitäten auszuüben, wenn eine schlechte/unzureichende Note erbracht wurde					
Ich weiß, wann mein Kind an den jeweiligen Wochentagen von der Schule nach Hause kommt					
Ich motiviere mein Kind für die Schule					
Ich bin in Schulaktivitäten meines Kindes (Ausflüge, Projekte,...) involviert					

16. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Ich helfe meinem Kind bei der Hausübung					
Ich kontrolliere die Hausübung meines Kindes					
Ich bin mit den Lehrpersonen meines Kindes in Kontakt					
Ich lerne mit meinem Kind					

17. **Ich schicke mein Kind zur Nachhilfe**

Achtung: Diese Frage bezieht sich ausschließlich auf jene Unterrichtsgegenstände Ihres Kindes mit DEUTSCHER Unterrichtssprache.
Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

- ◯ Ja
- ◯ Nein

18. **Wenn ja, für welche Unterrichtsgegenstände?**

Achtung: Diese Frage bezieht sich ausschließlich auf jene Unterrichtsgegenstände Ihres Kindes mit DEUTSCHER Unterrichtssprache.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

19. **Wie viele Stunden am Tag wenden Sie mit Ihrem Kind für die Schule auf? (Hausübung + lernen)**

Achtung: Diese Frage bezieht sich ausschließlich auf jene Unterrichtsgegenstände ihres Kindes mit DEUTSCHER Unterrichtssprache.
Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.

	0 Stunden	1/2 Stunde	1 Stunde	2 Stunden	3 Stunden oder mehr
Montag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Dienstag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Mittwoch	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Donnerstag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Freitag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Samstag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Sonntag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

20. **Würden Sie sagen, dass Sie viel Zeit für das Lernen mit Ihrem Kind aufwenden?**

Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

- ◯ Ja
- ◯ Nein

Teil 2: Fragen zur schulischen Beteiligung - Teil B

Achtung: Diese Fragen beziehen sich ausschließlich auf jene Unterrichtsgegenstände Ihres Kindes mit ENGLISCHER Unterrichtssprache. Dieser Teil muss nur von Eltern beantwortet werden, deren Kind auch Unterrichtsgegenstände mit englischer Unterrichtssprache hat.

21. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Ich bestimme, wann mein Kind die Hausübung machen muss					
Ich weiß, welche Themen in der Schule derzeit behandelt werden					
Ich weiß, was mein Kind derzeit in der Schule lernt					
Mein Kind erzählt mir, was in der Schule gelernt wurde					
Ich frage mein Kind, was in der Schule gelernt wurde					
Ich kenne den Stundenplan meines Kindes					
Ich informiere mich, wozu mein Kind in den jeweiligen Gegenständen getestet wird					
Ich bin über die Test- und Schularbeitstermine meines Kindes informiert					
Ich kenne den Teststoff/Schularbeitsstoff meines Kindes					
Ich frage mein Kind nach einem Test/einer Schularbeit sofort (per Sms, Anruf), wie es ihm/ihr dabei ergangen ist					
Ich bin über die Noten meines Kindes informiert					
Die Noten meines Kindes sind für mich wichtig					
Ich kontaktiere bei nicht zufriedenstellender Note meines Kindes die jeweilige Lehrperson					
Ich fechte negative Noten an					
Ich habe die Telefonnummer der Lehrpersonen meines Kindes					
Ich verbiete meinem Kind Freizeitaktivitäten auszuüben, wenn noch nicht genug gelernt wurde/wenn die Hausübung noch nicht fertig ist					
Ich verbiete meinem Kind Freizeitaktivitäten auszuüben, wenn eine schlechte/unzureichende Note erbracht wurde					

22. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Ich weiß, wann mein Kind an den jeweiligen Wochentagen von der Schule nach Hause kommt	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich motiviere mein Kind für die Schule	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich bin in Schulaktivitäten meines Kindes (Ausflüge, Projekte,...) involviert	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

23. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Ich helfe meinem Kind bei der Hausübung	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich kontrolliere die Hausübung meines Kindes	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich bin mit den Lehrpersonen meines Kindes in Kontakt	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich lerne mit meinem Kind	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

24. **Ich schicke mein Kind zur Nachhilfe**

Achtung: Diese Frage bezieht sich ausschließlich auf jene Unterrichtsgegenstände Ihres Kindes mit ENGLISCHER Unterrichtssprache.
Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

◯ Ja
◯ Nein

25. **Wenn ja, für welche Unterrichtsgegenstände?**

Achtung: Diese Frage bezieht sich ausschließlich auf jene Unterrichtsgegenstände Ihres Kindes mit ENGLISCHER Unterrichtssprache.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

26. **Wie viele Stunden am Tag wenden Sie mit Ihrem Kind für die Schule auf? (Hausübung + lernen)**
Achtung: Diese Frage bezieht sich ausschließlich auf jene Unterrichtsgegenstände ihres Kindes mit ENGLISCHER Unterrichtssprache.
Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.

	0 Stunden	1/2 Stunde	1 Stunde	2 Stunden	3 Stunden oder mehr
Montag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Dienstag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Mittwoch	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Donnerstag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Freitag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Samstag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Sonntag	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

27. **Würden Sie sagen, dass Sie viel Zeit für das Lernen mit Ihrem Kind aufwenden?**
Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

◯ Ja
◯ Nein

Teil 3: Generelles Elternverhalten

Achtung: diese Fragen beziehen sich nicht speziell auf bestimmte Unterrichtsgegenstände Ihres Kindes.

Wenn Sie mehrere Kinder haben, denken Sie beim Beantworten des Fragebogens bitte ausschließlich an das Kind, welches Ihnen den Fragebogen gegeben hat!

28. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Wenn mein Kind die Möglichkeit bekommt, Gegenstände in der Schule frei zu wählen, nehme ich meinem Kind diese Entscheidung ab	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich ermutige mein Kind, schulische Probleme mit der jeweiligen Lehrperson zu besprechen	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich kontrolliere, wie viel Sport und Bewegung mein Kind macht	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich setzte Zeiten fest, zu denen mein Kind am Abend spätestens zu Hause sein muss	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich erkläre meinem Kind, wie man am Besten sparsam und ökonomisch einkauft	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

29. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Ich ermutige mein Kind, eigene Entscheidungen zu treffen und Verantwortung zu übernehmen	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich fordere mein Kind auf, mich laufend über seinen Aufenthaltsort zu informieren	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich ermutige mein Kind, zwischenmenschliche Probleme mit SchulkamaradInnen und FreundInnen selbstständig zu lösen	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Wenn mein Kind ungerecht benotet wurde, kontaktiere ich die Lehrperson	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich überwache und beobachte das Ernährungsverhalten meines Kindes	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich überwache und beobachte, mit wem mein Kind Zeit verbringt	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich ermutige mein Kind, eigenständig mit seinen Geldangelegenheiten umzugehen	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Ich frage mein Kind, wie es ihm in der Schule geht	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Wenn mein Kind ein Problem mit einem/einer KlassenkamaradIn hat, greife ich ein	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Wenn mein Kind die Möglichkeit hat, Gegenstände in der Schule frei zu wählen, ermutige ich mein Kind, diese für sich selbst zu entscheiden	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

TEIL 4: Ihre Rolle als Mutter/Vater

Diese Fragen beziehen sich lediglich auf Sie als Elternteil. Bitte kreuzen Sie die zutreffende Antwort an.

30. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Ich bin glücklich in meiner Rolle als Mutter/Vater	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Es gibt nichts, oder fast nichts, das ich nicht unterstützend für mein Kind/meine Kinder tun	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

31. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Für mein Kind/meine Kinder zu sorgen, nimmt mehr Zeit und Energie in Anspruch als ich zur Verfügung habe					
Ich mache mir manchmal Gedanken, ob ich mich genug um mein/e Kind/er kümmere					
Ich stehe meinem Kind/meinen Kindern nahe					
Ich genieße es, Zeit mit meinem Kind/meinen Kindern zu verbringen					
Mein Kind/meine Kinder stellen eine Quelle der Zuneigung und Liebe für mich dar					
Kinder zu haben verschafft mir eine zuversichtliche und positive Zukunftsperspektive					
Mein/e Kind/er ist/sind die Hauptursache für meinen Stress im Alltag					
Durch mein/e Kind/er fühle ich mich in meiner zeitlichen Flexibilität und meiner persönlichen Entfaltung eingeschränkt					
Kind/er zu haben ist eine finanzielle Belastung für mich					
Wegen meines Kindes/meiner Kinder ist es schwierig für mich, verschiedene Verantwortungsbereiche zu balancieren					
Das Verhalten meines Kindes/meiner Kinder empfinde ich häufig als stressig und unangenehm/peinlich					
Wenn ich nochmals die Wahl hätte, würde ich mich eventuell dazu entscheiden, keine Kinder zu bekommen					

34. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Ich mache mir oft Gedanken darüber, ob mein Kind die Zeit in der Nachmittagsbetreuung produktiv nützt					
Ich mache mir oft Gedanken darüber, ob mein Kind mit seiner Nachmittagsbetreuung unglücklich ist					
Ich mache mir oft Gedanken darüber, ob die Nachmittagsbetreuung meines Kindes seinen Bedarf deckt					

35. *Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.*

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Teils-Teils	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
In ungewissen Zeiten bin ich zuversichtlich					
Mich zu entspannen fällt mir leicht					
Wenn etwas für mich schief gehen kann, geht es auch schief					
Im Bezug auf meine Zukunft bin ich immer positiv eingestellt					
Ich genieße es, Freunde zu haben					
Es ist wichtig für mich, stets beschäftigt zu sein					
Ich erwarte mir selten, dass etwas so funktioniert, wie ich mir das vorstelle					
Mich verärgert so schnell nichts					
Ich erwarte eigentlich nicht, dass mir etwas Gutes widerfährt					
Im Generellen erwarte ich, dass mir mehr Gutes als Schlechtes widerfährt					

Tab. 15 Tests on intermediate subjects

Item	Target group	School type	School level	TG*ST	TG*SL	ST*SL	TG*ST*SL
I determine when my child needs to do his/her homework.	F(df=1)=.33; p=.57	F(df=1)=1.60; p=.21	F(df=1)=7.59; p=.01	F(df=1)=1.95; p=.17	F(df=1)=.57; p=.45	F(df=1)=3.73; p=.06	F(df=1)=.00; p=.95
I know what topics are currently dealt with at school.	F(df=1)=.70; p=.41	F(df=1)=1.31; p=.26	F(df=1)=3.32; p=.07	F(df=1)=.28; p=.60	F(df=1)=.41; p=.52	F(df=1)=.08; p=.78	F(df=1)=2.45; p=.12
I know what my child is currently learning in school.	F(df=1)=1.04; p=.31	F(df=1)=.02; p=.88	F(df=1)=2.23; p=.14	F(df=1)=.10; p=.75	F(df=1)=3.36; p=.07	F(df=1)=.63; p=.43	F(df=1)=.40; p=.53
My child tells me what he/she learned in school.	F(df=1)=3.48; p=.07	F(df=1)=.28; p=.60	F(df=1)=4.61; p=.04	F(df=1)=.03; p=.86	F(df=1)=.45; p=.50	F(df=1)=.21; p=.65	F(df=1)=.36; p=.55
I ask my child what he/she learned in school.	F(df=1)=4.31; p=.04	F(df=1)=.14; p=.71	F(df=1)=.01; p=.91	F(df=1)=.59; p=.45	F(df=1)=.08; p=.77	F(df=1)=1.62; p=.21	F(df=1)=3.72; p=.06
I am familiar with my child's school timetable.	F(df=1)=.24; p=.63	F(df=1)=.01; p=.95	F(df=1)=1.19; p=.28	F(df=1)=.30; p=.59	F(df=1)=.09; p=.77	F(df=1)=.20; p=.66	F(df=1)=.08; p=.78
I inform myself about what my child will be tested on in a variety of subjects.	F(df=1)=3.16; p=.08	F(df=1)=.99; p=.32	F(df=1)=.28; p=.60	F(df=1)=.50; p=.48	F(df=1)=.06; p=.81	F(df=1)=.3.81; p=.05	F(df=1)=1.59; p=.21
I am informed of my child's testing dates.	F(df=1)=.68; p=.41	F(df=1)=.11; p=.74	F(df=1)=.52; p=.47	F(df=1)=.95; p=.33	F(df=1)=.01; p=.94	F(df=1)=6.89; p=.01	F(df=1)=3.52; p=.06
I know about what my child will be tested on.	F(df=1)=1.10; p=.30	F(df=1)=.00; p=1.00	F(df=1)=.03; p=.87	F(df=1)=.00; p=1.00	F(df=1)=.03; p=.87	F(df=1)=.65; p=.42	F(df=1)=1.47; p=.23
I immediately contact my child (call or write a text message) after a test and ask how it was.	F(df=1)=2.51; p=.12	F(df=1)=.14; p=.71	F(df=1)=2.99; p=.09	F(df=1)=.00; p=1.00	F(df=1)=.36; p=.55	F(df=1)=.09; p=.77	F(df=1)=.69; p=.41
I am informed about my child's grades.	F(df=1)=0.01; p=.93	F(df=1)=.15; p=.70	F(df=1)=1.08; p=.30	F(df=1)=3.85; p=.05	F(df=1)=1.79; p=.18	F(df=1)=3.29; p=.07	F(df=1)=.32; p=.58
My child's grades are important to me.	F(df=1)=.06; p=.81	F(df=1)=.44; p=.51	F(df=1)=.34; p=.56	F(df=1)=1.91; p=.17	F(df=1)=.42; p=.52	F(df=1)=2.19; p=.14	F(df=1)=.02; p=.88
If my child receives an unsatisfactory grade, I contact the teacher.	F(df=1)=.18; p=.67	F(df=1)=.96; p=.33	F(df=1)=1.43; p=.24	F(df=1)=.56; p=.46	F(df=1)=.92; p=.34	F(df=1)=.00; p=.99	F(df=1)=.05; p=.82
I dispute negative grades.	F(df=1)=.18; p=.68	F(df=1)=.02; p=.90	F(df=1)=.64; p=.43	F(df=1)=.02; p=.88	F(df=1)=2.71; p=.10	F(df=1)=1.15; p=.29	F(df=1)=.69; p=.41
I know the phone number of my child's teacher.	F(df=1)=2.96; p=.09	F(df=1)=15.52; p=.00	F(df=1)=.71; p=.40	F(df=1)=.01; p=.91	F(df=1)=.57; p=.45	F(df=1)=17.73; p=.00	F(df=1)=.36; p=.55
I forbid my child to do leisure activities if he/she did not study enough or has not yet. completed his/her homework.	F(df=1)=.35; p=.56	F(df=1)=.21; p=.65	F(df=1)=.01; p=.94	F(df=1)=.07; p=.79	F(df=1)=.44; p=.51	F(df=1)=2.46; p=.12	F(df=1)=.15; p=.70
I forbid my child to do leisure activities if he/she receives a negative/insufficient grade.	F(df=1)=.62; p=.44	F(df=1)=.12; p=.74	F(df=1)=.06; p=.81	F(df=1)=.62; p=.44	F(df=1)=.78; p=.38	F(df=1)=3.10; p=.08	F(df=1)=1.24; p=.27
I know when my child returns from school during the weekdays.	F(df=1)=3.28; p=.07	F(df=1)=.82; p=.37	F(df=1)=.02; p=.88	F(df=1)=.01; p=.93	F(df=1)=2.26; p=.14	F(df=1)=.06; p=.80	F(df=1)=.56; p=.46
I motivate my child for school.	F(df=1)=.07; p=.79	F(df=1)=.20; p=.66	F(df=1)=.12; p=.73	F(df=1)=.01; p=.93	F(df=1)=.00; p=1.00	F(df=1)=.04; p=.85	F(df=1)=.04; p=.85

I am involved in my child's school activities (e.g. school excursions or projects).	F(df=1)=.02; p= .90	F(df=1)=1.51; p=.22	F(df=1)=.61; p=.44	F(df=1)=3.28; p=.07	F(df=1)=.30; p=.59	F(df=1)=3.82; p=.05	F(df=1)=1.04; p=.31
I help my child with his/her homework.	F(df=1)=1.81; p=.18	F(df=1)=3.03; p=.09	F(df=1)=3.63; p=.06	F(df=1)=2.20; p=.14	F(df=1)=1.08; p=.30	F(df=1)=.13; p=.72	F(df=1)=1.13; p=.29
I check my child's homework.	F(df=1)=.59; p=.45	F(df=1)=.49; p=.48	F(df=1)=10.43; p=.00	F(df=1)=1.60; p=.21	F(df=1)=.33; p=.57	F(df=1)=1.57; p=.21	F(df=1)=.04; p=.85
I am in contact with my child's teacher.	F(df=1)=.49; p=.48	F(df=1)=1.09; p=.30	F(df=1)=1.47; p=.23	F(df=1)=.32; p=.57	F(df=1)=2.16; p=.15	F(df=1)=.28; p=.60	F(df=1)=.66; p=.42
I study with my child.	F(df=1)=1.92; p=.17	F(df=1)=2.60; p=.11	F(df=1)=9.01; p=.00	F(df=1)=1.27; p=.26	F(df=1)=1.39; p=.24	F(df=1)=..52; p=.47	F(df=1)=.00; p=1.00

Target group * School level	Helicopter parenting	F(df=1)=4.98; p=.03
	Autonomy support	F(df=1)=.05; p=.83
	Parental stress scale	F(df=1)=.06; p=.81
	Parental after-school stress scale	F(df=1)=.70; p=.41
	Life orientation test (lot-r)	F(df=1)=.87; p=.36
School type * school level	Helicopter parenting	F(df=1)=.78; p=.38
	Autonomy support	F(df=1)=.05; p=.82
	Parental stress scale	F(df=1)=2.71; p=.10
	Parental after-school stress scale	F(df=1)=.13; p=.72
	Life orientation	F(df=1)=.98; p=.33
Target group*School type*School level	Helicopter parenting	F(df=1)=.13; p=.72
	Autonomy support	F(df=1)=.29; p=.59
	Parental stress scale	F(df=1)=.59; p=.44
	Parental after-school stress	F(df=1)=.17; p=.68
	Life orientation (lot-r)	F(df=1)=1.58; p=.21

8 Curriculum Vitae

Personal information

Name:	Sabine Pechgraber
Date of birth	03.04.1992
Place of birth	Waidhofen/Ybbs
Parents	Karl Pechgraber & Renate Pechgraber
Citizenship	Austria

Education

1998-2002:	Primary school in Ybbsitz
2002-2006:	Secondary school in Ybbsitz
2006-2011:	Vocational school with higher entrance qualification in Weyer
2011-	Teacher Training at the university of Vienna (subjects studied: English, Psychology& Philosophy)

Work experience	Holiday work placement at Welser Profile in Austria and France
	Various summer jobs as a waitress
	Exchange semester at Manchester Metropolitan University (2014/2015)
Language skills	Excellent command of German and English (spoken and written)
	Good command of French (spoken and written)
Further skills	European Computer Driving License (ECDL)
	Certified fitness instructor
	Certified ski instructor

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