Examining the Possible Relationship Between Helicopter Parenting, Academic Self Efficacy, and Perceived Academic Control in a University Context

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Abstract

Self-efficacy refers to how people feel about their ability to perform a task effectively (Shunk, 1991). A particular dimension of self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy, is an important predictor of a student's academic success, resilience, and ability to perform academic tasks with ease (Cassidy, 2015; Honicke & Broadbent, 2015; Telef & Ergün, 2013). Past research has demonstrated academic self-efficacy is influenced by parent-child relationships (Fan & Williams, 2010). However, research assessing the relationship between parenting and self-efficacy has been carried out with young children and adolescents and has assessed traditional parenting styles and not helicopter parenting – a style of parenting thought to be commonly seen in university students. In the present study, 170 undergraduate students (133 women and 36 men) completed a survey assessing academic self-efficacy, perceived academic self-control, and perceptions of their relationship with a primary caregiver. It was hypothesized students would experience helicopter parenting, and that this would be related to poorer academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control. Students at Grenfell Campus reported low levels of helicopter parenting and perhaps as a consequence, when helicopter parenting was assessed as a continuous variable, no relationship was found between helicopter parenting and academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control. However, when lower versus higher levels of helicopter parenting were assessed, several subscales interacted with who the primary caregiver was, showing differences in perceived academic control. Results suggest university students' relationships with their parents particularly their fathers, may impact how they perceive their ability to control their academic outcome.

Examining the Possible Relationship Between Helicopter Parenting, Academic Self Efficacy, and Perceived Academic Control in a University Context

Self-efficacy, or the way one feels about his or her ability to perform a task effectively, (Schunk, 1991) is an important predictor of a student's academic success. Related to this, research has shown self-efficacy is influenced by external factors such as parental involvement in a child's life (Fan & Williams, 2010; Honicke & Broadbent, 2015). Previous research on this topic though has assessed younger children and has included the influence of traditional parenting styles (authoritative, permissive, and authoritarian) on one's self-efficacy, finding that authoritative parenting (responsive, nurturing parenting) has the most positive influence on one's level of self-efficacy (Turner et al., 2009). However, with the present generation of university and college students showing what appears to be a lesser desire to separate from their parents upon completion of high school, attention is being directed towards a different type of parenting, known as helicopter parenting (Segrin, Woszidlo, Givertz, Bauer, & Murphy, 2012). Helicopter parenting refers to a parenting style that involves very close, open communication between teenagers/college-aged individuals and their parents, often including close contact with the child's school (Rainey, 2006). While past research has demonstrated that different types of parenting have different effects on children's self-efficacy, to date there is limited research assessing the effect of parental influence on college-aged students' self-efficacy, especially the influence of helicopter parenting.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is an adaptive trait that has the potential to reap many benefits, suggesting high self-efficacy is a goal that one should strive to maintain (Pajares, 1996).

High levels of self-efficacy for example, allow a person to be active in his or her life, to exercise control over his or her circumstances and experiences, and to have more positive experiences overall, than people with low levels of self-efficacy (Pajares, 1996). When the possible impacts on a person's future are considered, Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, and Pastorelli, (2001) demonstrated that children's perceived self-efficacy influences the types of professions they view themselves as capable of, and in turn, the types of careers that children seriously consider pursuing in their futures. Perhaps related to this, as children grow older, high levels of self-efficacy allow them to persevere and demonstrate resilience when they are faced with difficult situations (Cassidy, 2015). Those with high levels of self-efficacy approach tasks more readily, welcome challenges, and accomplish goals (Cassidy, 2015). Such characteristics are important of university students.

Previous research has consistently demonstrated that high levels of self-efficacy are important to one's positive experience; in particular, that high levels of self-efficacy are linked to academic performance and greater overall well-being (Honicke & Broadbent, 2015; Lane & Lane, 2001). Consistent findings demonstrating that self-efficacy is linked to academic performance have in fact lead to a specific area of study known as academic self-efficacy (ASE). Academic self-efficacy refers to the way in which a learner feels about his or her ability to learn and be academically successful. To date, only a limited amount of research has been conducted assessing academic self-efficacy, however, unsurprisingly such research has consistently shown that academic self-efficacy is a predictor of academic performance, (Honicke & Broadbent, 2015), overall well-being (Telef & Ergün, 2013), and academic resilience (Cassidy, 2015).

Given that self-efficacy, particularly academic self-efficacy, is such an important factor in one's overall well-being, as well as one's academic performance, it is important to investigate factors that can influence one's academic self-efficacy. Current literature suggests variables such as one's own performance, vicarious learning, and persuasive forms of communication (Shunk & Zimmerman, 2007) are influential. Research has shown people's own performance influences their self-efficacy in general in that if a student performs well, the student will experience an increase in self-efficacy. In contrast to this, if a student fails at a task, he or she may experience a decrease in self-efficacy. When vicarious learning, or learning from a modelled experience is considered, findings show if a child observes other children succeeding in performing a task, the child is likely to believe he/she too can succeed at this task. Lastly, persuasive forms of communication have been demonstrated as influencing self-efficacy. Students receive persuasive information from others such as teachers and parents, which can increase/decrease their sense of self-efficacy. For example, when students are encouraged by others that they respect, and they find themselves actually succeeding, they will experience increased self-efficacy (Shunk & Zimmerman, 2007). This demonstrates the importance of assessing the long-term effects of such persuasive information given by those who are important to students, in this case, their parents.

Parental Involvement

There is evidence to support that parental involvement in one's life is important and beneficial to both children's and high school students' academic self-efficacy (Fan & Williams, 2010). However, the extent and type of parental involvement that is beneficial to an adult child is questionable. Previous research on the topic of parental involvement

explores parenting styles as well as different dimensions of parenting. These studies suggest that parenting styles and dimensions do in fact affect a child's academic self-efficacy in different ways (Fan & Williams, 2010).

The majority of past research looking at the relationship between parenting style and self-efficacy has focused on the three main styles of parenting: authoritative, permissive, and authoritarian. Authoritative parents, who are known to demonstrate responsive qualities such as a high level of nurturance and sensitivity to their children, (Turner et al., 2009) are seen to foster the academic self-efficacy of both young children and college students. It seems that adult children who feel that their parents are supportive of them developing autonomy and communication skills, while maintaining boundaries, tend to have higher academic self-efficacy, as well as, higher GPAs. Permissive parents then, who are opposite in that they do not set clear guidelines or rules for their children, do not necessarily promote autonomy development. And, authoritarian parents who are very different in that they are highly restrictive in what their children are allowed to do, have been linked with low self-efficacy in adult children (Givertz & Segrin, 2012).

Previous literature equates responsiveness with acceptance, warmth, and support and demandingness with control and oftentimes, negative consequences (Hind, 2016). Therefore, it is no surprise that parental involvement in the form of aspirations for students' higher education has been shown to be a positive predictor of students' self-efficacy for core subjects such as math and English (Fan & Williams, 2010). In addition to this, school-initiated contact with parents has been shown to positively or negatively influence students' math and English self-efficacy, with the direction of the impact relating to whether students are doing well or poorly in school (Fan & Williams, 2010). If a student is doing poorly in

school and the parent contacts the teacher or vice versa, it is evident that the authority figures in the situation are acting to solve the problem.

Each of these parenting styles encompasses actions that can be separated into themes. In an attempt to categorize specific actions of parents and styles of parenting, previous research has grouped parental behaviour into dimensions of parenting rather than assessing the actions or parenting styles themselves (Hind, 2016; Skinner, Johnson, Snyder, 2005). These dimensions explain the influence that parents have on the socialization of their children and it has been consistently demonstrated that assessing parenting behaviours in terms of dimensions is effective (Hind, 2016). Therefore, when researching the influence that parents have on their adult child's academic self-efficacy and control, it is important to assess different dimensions of parenting.

Skinner et al. (2005) for example, refer to three dimensions of parenting: warmth versus rejection, structure versus chaos, and autonomy support versus coercion. Within these dimensions, warmth refers to affection, love, and positive regard that parents express toward their child. When parents are emotionally available, and express support and genuineness they are classified in the dimension of warmth. In contrast to this, when parents demonstrate rejection, hostility, or harshness, they can be classified within the dimension of rejection. The dimension of structure encompasses behaviour that outlines clear expectations and expects children to act mature, and have limits. Chaos on the other hand, represents the opposite types of actions; actions that demonstrate inconsistency, and unpredictable behaviour. Lastly, autonomy support encompasses behaviours that allow children to express themselves and solve problems that they may be faced with, whereas coercion refers to actions of parents that tell children what to do and how to solve problems. These dimensions

demonstrated an effective way to classify the actions of parents and to measure parental involvement.

While it is evident that different parenting styles and dimensions have different effects on one's academic performance and academic self-efficacy, the potential effect of helicopter parenting on academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control is unknown. Previous generations of university students have been known to individuate from their parents at the age of 18 and no longer need to be parented (Hind, 2016). However, children born after 1982 are considered to be a part of the millennial generation and are often recognized for their close relationship with their parents, lack of desire to individuate, and reliance on authority figures (Much, Wagener, Breitkreutz, & Hellenbrand, 2014; Pizzolato & Hicklen, 2011). This often includes a wish to have their parents involved in their university experience (Cullaty, 2011). Parents practicing the helicopter parenting style engage in actions that are considered "controlling" as opposed to "responsive." These actions include, but are not limited to: contacting the adult child's university, constantly wondering about the adult child's whereabouts, and monitoring other aspects of the adult child's life such as his/her diet, exercise, or relationships. While over parenting is typically employed with good intentions – intentions to aid children in being successful, to remove any obstacles that the child may face, and to ensure happiness, it tends to yield very negative results overall for children. In fact, this type of parenting has been compared to authoritarian parenting, as neither of these types of parents seems to know when to let their children take control of a situation, and to make a decision for themselves. While this type of parenting is associated with many negative outcomes in the adult child's life, there is very limited literature on the topic of helicopter parenting and self-efficacy.

Hind (2016) used a four-factor model to assess four dimensions of parenting and to classify parents as helicopter parents: problem solving, precautionary actions, physical concerns, and whereabouts concerns. These four dimensions encompass various aspects of parental behaviour that are considered over-involvement in an adult child's life. Problem solving behaviours refer to behaviours such as parents investing more time into their adult child's problems and projects than the child him/herself does, whereabouts concerns refers to actions such as keeping track of their adult child's whereabouts or daily activities, precautionary actions refer to actions such as voicing opinions about their adult child's relationships, and physical concerns refer to actions such as monitoring an adult child's exercise schedule or diet. In his four-factor model Hind asks questions about actions from each of these four dimensions of parenting to determine whether a person is helicopter parented.

The literature that does exist looking at the relationship between helicopter parenting and self-efficacy has assessed general self-efficacy rather than academic self-efficacy. Some studies have demonstrated that helicopter parenting fosters dependence on parents and hinders university students' level of self-efficacy (van Ingen et al., 2015), and that high levels of parental control are related to lower levels of self-efficacy (Givertz & Segrin, 2012). There is evidence to support that perceptions of helicopter parenting are associated with low self-efficacy in general (van Ingen et al., 2015). This may be a result of overinvolved parents undermining their adult children's sense of independence and ability to perform on their own. Helicopter parents feel that they can abolish obstacles that their children may potentially face, even into adulthood (van Ingen et al., 2015). There is also an evident gap in the literature looking at each parent separately as a primary caregiver. Since the literature that

currently exists on the topic of parental involvement assesses both parents together, there is a need to assess parents separately to determine if there is a difference based on which parent an adult child considers as his/her primary caregiver.

The Present Study

While helicopter parenting is seen as a style of parenting that is growing in popularity with today's university students (Cullaty, 2011; Hind, 2016) it is unclear, what, if any, effect this parenting style may be having on students and their academic self-efficacy. It is evident that there are substantial gaps in the current literature on the topics of academic self-efficacy of university students, as well as, the influence that helicopter parenting may have on this form of self-efficacy. Academic self-efficacy is important to students' success in general; their sense of self, the way they view their ability to perform tasks, and their academic performance overall (Cassidy, 2015; Honicke & Broadbent, 2015; Telef & Ergün, 2013). Previous research conducted with children does not give a clear representation as to the importance of academic self-efficacy in university students or the influences upon it (Fan & Williams, 2010). Given that parenting style is a very important aspect of general self-efficacy and of the academic self-efficacy of children (Givertz & Segrin, 2012; Turner et al., 2009) one is led to believe that this may be the case with adults as well. It is evident that there is importance in investigating the academic self-efficacy of university students with regards to helicopter parenting.

The goal of the present study was to assess whether or not a relationship exists between helicopter parenting and academic self-efficacy, and whether this relationship was negatively or positively related to students' perceived level of academic control. Academic control is a similar construct to academic self-efficacy, and allows one to set and attain

academic goals, as well as to monitor his/her successes and failures (Perry, Hladkyi, Pekrun, & Pelletier, 2001). The present study was intended to measure how involved parents are with their university students at Grenfell Campus. The 22-item Parent Relationship Questionnaire included questions that fit the previously mentioned dimensions of parenting to assess whether parents were perceived as being overly involved in their adult children's lives. The parent each participant considered to be his/her primary caregiver was noted in order to assess the difference in the influence that a mother may have on her child's academic self-efficacy and perceived level of academic control versus the influence that a father may have. Students' perceived sense of academic self-efficacy and academic control in relation to their perceptions of their parents' level of involvement in their lives was also measured.

A number of hypotheses were developed to assess the prevalence and effect of helicopter parenting on academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control. Firstly, it was hypothesized that students at Grenfell Campus would experience helicopter parenting. The next hypothesis was that the level of helicopter parenting displayed would be negatively correlated with academic self-efficacy, and in turn, that the level of helicopter parenting displayed would be negatively correlated with perceived academic control. Hypotheses about the dimensions of parenting based on the previous research noted were also made.

Problem solving refers to parents investing more time into their adult child's problems and projects than the child him/herself does (Hind, 2016) which can be very closely compared to controlling aspects of the child's life. Control has been previously demonstrated in authoritarian parenting as having a negative influence on one's level of academic self-efficacy (Givertz & Segrin, 2012). Therefore, it was hypothesized that high levels of

problem solving behaviors would be related to lower levels of academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control.

Whereabouts concerns refer to parents monitoring their adult-child's daily activities (Hind, 2016). It is possible that if the parent was questioning the child for being at school or having expectations of the time the adult-child spends at school, it would affect the way that the child feels about his/her academic self-efficacy or perceived level of academic control, therefore, it was hypothesized that parents' demonstration of high levels of whereabouts concern would be negatively correlated with academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control.

Precautionary actions refer to actions such as voicing opinions about an adult child's relationships (Hind, 2016). This type of involvement could have an influence on the child's academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control, or it might not depending on the relationships for which the parent gave advice. If the parent voiced opinions about the child's relationship with professors or other university personnel, it is possible that it would have an influence, but for the most part this should not have any effect on a students' academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control. Therefore, no clear directional hypothesis was developed for this parenting dimension.

Lastly, physical concerns refer to actions such as monitoring the adult child's exercise schedule and diet, (Hind, 2016) which one would not expect to influence the way people feel about school. Therefore, it was hypothesized that parents expressing physical concerns should not have an influence on academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control.

Method

Participants

A convenience sample of 170 undergraduate students (133 women and 36 men) from Grenfell Campus, Memorial University of Newfoundland completed a questionnaire package. Participants were recruited from introductory Psychology classes as well as from Psychology research methods courses. The mean age of the women was 19.49 years (*SD* = 2.86) and the mean age of the men was 19.92 years (*SD* = 2.53). Only 157 participants were included in the study, 137 who reported their mother as their primary caregiver and 20 who reported their father as their primary caregiver. Participants who reported other individuals as their primary caregiver (e.g., a sibling) were excluded as the helicopter parenting measure was designed to assess parents.

Questionnaire

The survey was made up of three separate scales: the Perceived Academic Control Scale, the Self-Efficacy for Learning Form (SELF) – Abridged, and the Helicopter Parenting Control Items. At the end of the questionnaire package there was a demographics section (See Appendix A) that consisted of questions about participants' age, year of study, living arrangement, and their parents' level of education.

Self-efficacy for learning form (SELF) – Abridged. The Self-Efficacy for Learning Form (SELF) – Abridged (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005) was used to measure students' perceived academic self-efficacy (see Appendix B). This form is composed of 19 questions that students were asked to answer using the percentage scale as follows: 0 (*definitely cannot do it*), 30 (*probably cannot do it*), 50 (*maybe*), 70 (*probably can*), and 100 (*definitely can do it*) (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005). High scores on this form indicate positive academic

self-efficacy (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005). Previous research has indicated the suitability of this scale for measuring academic self-efficacy with an internal validity of .96 and a construct validity of .72 (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005).

Perceived academic control scale. The perceived academic control scale (Perry et al., 2001) was used to measure students perceived academic control (see Appendix C). This scale is composed of eight statements that measure academic control on a scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) (Perry et al., 2001). For example, participants are asked to agree or disagree with the statement "I see myself as largely responsible for my performance throughout my college career". The scale has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .78$ (Perry et al., 2001).

Helicopter parent controlling items. The helicopter parent controlling items scale included 22 questions that measure parental involvement in participants' lives (Hind, 2016) (See Appendix D). This scale is composed of questions such as "how often has [your primary caregiver] solved any crisis or problem you might have had in the past month?" Participants were asked to respond to the questions using a scale of 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). In the original study, the 22 questions measured four separate factors: problem solving, whereabouts concerns, precautionary actions, and physical concerns (Hind, 2016). Internal consistency measures calculated for each of the four factors showed consistency levels between $\Omega = .84$ and .90 (Hind, 2016).

Procedure

Permission was obtained to use the published scales (See Appendices E) and these questionnaires were combined with demographics questions. Students in Psychology 1001 classes, as well as, students in Psychology 2925 and 3950 were asked to participate in a

survey where they would be asked to answer questions about parental involvement and academic self-efficacy. The students were told that participation in the survey was voluntary and that their participation and responses would be kept confidential. Interested students were given a questionnaire package in an envelope that included an informed consent form to be signed and one for their own records (See Appendix F) and a questionnaire. Students were asked not to place any identifying marks on the questionnaire package. The signed informed consent forms were collected and sealed into one envelope and then upon completion of the questionnaires, students placed them in their original envelopes, which were then collected. Students were thanked for their participation in the questionnaire and were given contact information they could use to obtain results afterwards if they were interested.

Results

This study was conducted to assess whether or not a relationship exists between parents' involvement in their university-going children's lives and the students' level of academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control. Results are organized to first address what was found regarding helicopter parenting, students' level of perceived academic control, and students' level of academic self-efficacy. This is followed by an explanation of differences seen in parents' level of involvement (high versus low) for each specific dimension of parenting (i.e., problem solving actions, whereabouts concerns, precautionary actions, and physical concerns). The results are also broken down into the influence of helicopter parenting on academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control if one's mother versus one's father was listed as his/her primary caregiver.

The descriptive statistics can be found in Table 1. To determine whether there was a relationship between helicopter parenting, students' level of perceived academic control, and students' level of academic self-efficacy, a series of Pearson correlations were completed. The results indicated that overall perceived academic control was related to overall levels of academic self-efficacy, $r = .38$, $n = 154$, $p < .001$. As perceived academic control increased so did academic self-efficacy. Relationships were not found between academic self-efficacy and parental behavior directed towards problem solving actions, $r = .01$, $n = 154$, $p = .876$, whereabouts concerns, $r = .00$, $n = 154$, $p = .996$, precautionary actions, $r = .01$, $n = 154$, $p = .872$, or physical concerns, $r = -.01$, $n = 154$, $p = .918$. Relationships were also not evident between participants' level of perceived academic control and parental behavior directed towards problem solving actions, $r = .05$, $n = 152$, $p = .563$, whereabouts concerns, $r = .05$, n

= 152, p = .581, precautionary actions, r = -.06, n = 152, p = .455, or physical concerns, r = -.08, n =152, p = .357.

The failure to find a relationship between helicopter parenting and the students' perceived self-control and academic self-efficacy could be because of the low level of helicopter parenting reported by the students. Supporting this, male participants reported a mean of 9.11 (*SD* = 2.41) for their parents' problem solving actions while female participants reported a mean of 8.91 (*SD* = 2.46) for their parents' problem solving actions, when the maximum score is 18.85. Similarly, male participants reported a mean of 8.10 (*SD* = 2.51) for their parents' whereabouts concerns while female participants reported a mean of 8.09 (*SD* = 2.57) for their parents' whereabouts concerns, when the maximum score is 14.96. Male participants reported a mean of 17.19 (*SD* = 4.84) for their parents' precautionary actions while female participants reported a mean of 15.93 (*SD* = 4.27) for their parents' precautionary actions, when the maximum score on this measure is 38.14. Lastly, male participants reported a mean of 3.74 (*SD* = 1.46) for their parents' physical concerns while female participants reported a mean of 3.60 (*SD* = 1.56) for their parents' physical concerns, when the maximum score is 10.68. To assess whether a failure to find a relationship between helicopter parenting measures and both academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control was possibly due to the low numbers reported, median splits were carried out to divide each of the helicopter parenting measures into high levels of parenting versus low levels of parenting.

Keeping in mind that all levels of helicopter parenting were relatively low, a 2 (parents: mothers vs. fathers) x 2 (high vs. low problem solving actions) x 2 (high vs. low whereabouts concerns) x 2 (high vs. low precautionary actions) x 2 (high vs. low physical

concerns) MANOVA was then conducted. There was a main effect of which parent was chosen as the primary caregiver, $F(2, 127) = 3.37$, $p < .005$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .95$, $\eta_p^2 = .050$ which was evident in the level of perceived academic control of the participant, $F(1,128) = 5.22$, $p = .024$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. Pairwise comparisons showed that when participants reported their mother as their primary caregiver ($M = 34.23$, $SD = 3.38$), they demonstrated more perceived academic control than if they reported their father as their primary caregiver ($M = 31.54$, $SD = 4.90$, mean difference = 2.689, $p = .017$, 95% CI [0.80, 4.58]). This result should be viewed with caution as the parent chosen variable interacted with a number of the parenting dimension variables.

In assessing problem solving actions, there was an interaction between the use of these actions and which parent the participants chose as their primary caregiver, $F(2, 127) = 5.09$, $p = .008$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .93$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. Follow-up analysis indicated effects were evident for participants' level of academic self-efficacy, $F(1,128) = 7.23$, $p = .008$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Participants' academic self-efficacy was different when their mothers versus their fathers demonstrated low problem solving actions, $F(1, 79) = 5.42$, $p = .022$, $\eta_p^2 = .064$. Specifically, academic self-efficacy was higher when fathers ($M = 76.05$, $SD = 12.92$) used low levels of problem solving actions than when mothers ($M = 65.35$, $SD = 12.30$) used low levels of problem solving actions. Participants' academic self-efficacy was also different for those who reported their father engaging in low versus high problem solving actions, $F(1, 18) = 5.63$, $p = .029$, $\eta_p^2 = .24$. Participants who reported their father as their primary caregiver possessed more academic self-efficacy when he demonstrated low levels of problem solving actions ($M = 76.05$, $SD = 12.92$) than when he demonstrated high levels of problem solving

actions (*M* = 60.04, *SD* = 15.85, mean difference = 16.01, *p* = .029, 95%CI [1.84, 30.18]. These differences are seen in Figure 1.

The interaction between problem solving actions and which parent participants indicated was their primary caregiver was also evident for participants' perceived academic control, $F(1,128) = 6.28$, $p = .013$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Post hoc analysis showed that there was no difference in participants' perceived academic control when they experienced low levels of problem solving behaviour from their parents, but there was a difference in perceived academic control when they experienced high problem solving behaviours from their parents, $F(1, 70) = 7.87$, $p = .007$, $\eta_p^2 = .10$. Participants possessed more perceived academic control when they experienced high problem solving behaviour from their mother (*M* = 34.75, *SD* = 2.78) than when they experienced high problem solving behaviour from their father (*M* = 31.83, *SD* = 5.22, mean difference = 2.92, *p* = .007, 95%CI [0.84, 4.99]. This can be seen in Figure 2.

When whereabouts concerns were assessed, there was an interaction between use of these concerns and which parent the participants chose as their primary caregiver, $F(2, 127) = 3.80$, $p = .025$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .43$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. Follow up ANOVAs showed that the difference could be seen for participants' perceived level of academic control, $F(1,128) = 7.33$, $p = .008$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. Pairwise comparisons revealed that there was no difference in perceived academic control for those who indicated mothers who had high versus low levels of whereabouts concerns actions or fathers who had high versus low levels of whereabouts concerns actions. There was also no difference in perceived academic control for those with mothers versus fathers who used low levels of whereabouts concerns actions or mothers versus fathers who used high levels of whereabouts concerns actions. As seen in Figure 3,

the interaction could be explained by the difference in participants' perceived academic control when their mothers demonstrated low whereabouts concerns as opposed to when their fathers demonstrated low whereabouts concerns. This showed that participants demonstrated more perceived academic control when their mother was their primary caregiver, and less when their father was their primary caregiver.

When precautionary actions were considered, there was a main effect of high versus low levels, $F(2, 127) = 4.64$, $p = .011$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .93$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. Follow up ANOVAS showed there were differences in the perceived academic control of the participant, $F(1,128) = 9.30$, $p = .003$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. Pairwise comparisons showed that participants had higher perceived academic control if their parents engaged in low levels of precautionary actions ($M = 34.24$, $SD = 3.38$) than if their parents engaged in high levels of precautionary actions ($M = 32.36$, $SD = 3.85$, mean difference = 1.88, $p = .022$, 95% CI [0.28, 3.48]). This should be viewed with caution as there was an interaction between parents' precautionary actions and which parent the participants chose as their primary caregiver, $F(2, 127) = 4.68$, $p = .011$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .93$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$.

Follow up ANOVAs revealed that in terms of the interaction, the difference was also seen for participants' level of perceived academic control, $F(1,128) = 9.39$, $p = .003$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. Post-hoc analyses showed that there was no difference in perceived academic control when participants indicated mothers with high versus low levels of precautionary actions or fathers with high versus low levels of precautionary actions and no difference when participants indicated mothers and fathers who showed low precautionary actions or mothers and fathers who showed high precautionary actions. As seen in Figure 4, the interaction could be explained by the fact that the difference in perceived academic control with mothers

who use high versus low precautionary actions is not great, however, the difference in perceived academic control with fathers who use high versus low precautionary actions is much more pronounced. The interaction could also potentially be explained by the fact that there appears to be little difference in perceived academic control when mothers versus fathers use a low level of precautionary actions, but there is a more evident difference with mothers' versus fathers' high use of precautionary actions. Specifically, those reporting a high level of precautionary actions indicated a greater sense of perceived academic control when their mothers and not their fathers were the primary caregiver.

In assessing physical concerns, there was no main effect of the use of high versus low use of physical concerns. Similarly, there was no interaction of this variable with the parent participants indicated was their primary caregiver.

To summarize, when the influence of helicopter parenting on academic self-efficacy was considered, it was higher when fathers as compared to mothers used low levels of problem solving actions. Participants who reported their father as their primary caregiver also possessed more academic self-efficacy when fathers demonstrated low levels of problem solving actions than when they demonstrated high levels of problem solving actions. There were no other effects of the parent chosen or of the specific dimensions of helicopter parenting on academic self-efficacy.

When the influence of helicopter parenting on perceived academic control was considered, participants who reported their mother as their primary caregiver demonstrated more perceived academic control than participants who reported their father as their primary caregiver. However, the parent chosen variable interacted with a number of the parenting dimension variables. There was no difference in participants' perceived academic control

when they experienced low levels of problem solving behaviour from their parents, but for those who experienced high problem solving behaviours, participants possessed more perceived academic control if they chose their mother in comparison to their father as their primary caregiver. When mothers demonstrated low whereabouts concerns as opposed to when their fathers demonstrated low whereabouts concerns participants demonstrated more perceived academic control. Finally, the difference in perceived academic control with fathers who use high versus low precautionary actions was much more pronounced than the difference with mothers who use high versus low precautionary actions. Those reporting a high level of precautionary actions also indicated a greater sense of perceived academic control when their mothers and not their fathers were the primary caregiver.

Discussion

This study was conducted to assess whether or not a relationship exists between parents' involvement in their university-aged children's lives and the students' level of academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control. This was done by measuring the level of helicopter parenting reported by participants across four different dimensions and determining whether this was related to their level of academic self-efficacy and their perceived level of academic control.

Helicopter Parenting

Firstly, it was hypothesized that helicopter parenting would be prominent amongst students at Grenfell Campus, however this was not the case. The current study included use of a 22-item questionnaire to determine the level of the four factors of helicopter parenting that occurs at Grenfell Campus; the use of problem solving actions, whereabouts concerns, precautionary actions, and physical concerns that the parents engage in. The scores reported by students were substantially lower than the maximum scores on the helicopter parenting scale. This means at least from the perspective of the students, the parents of these individuals do not engage in the over parenting behaviors assessed, such as constantly monitoring their whereabouts, monitoring their exercise schedule and diet, or intercepting and helping solve problems that their adult children face.

It is possible that these parents do engage in helicopter parenting behaviors, but given that the current generation of students' desire to have their parents very involved in their personal lives and their school lives (Cullaty, 2011), they may believe that the actions their parents engage in are normal and do not report these actions as being over parenting. It is also possible that these students reported lower levels of parental involvement as a result of

social desirability bias. Social desirability bias refers to participants responding in a way that conforms to social norms, meaning that participants may feel pressured to respond in a particular way (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987). This could have been the case in the present study if participants felt that other students were reporting lower levels of helicopter parenting and higher levels of perceived academic control. These students may have responded in a manner that suggested their parents' behaviour is more fitting with what one might expect from the parents of a university student.

The second hypothesis of the present study was that helicopter parenting would be negatively correlated with perceived academic control and academic self-efficacy. However, since the first hypothesis was not supported, it was not surprising that helicopter parenting, when measured as a continuous variable, was not related to academic self-efficacy or to perceived academic control. As noted in the results section, the levels of helicopter parenting reported were quite low and there was little variability. As a consequence of this, the results of the study were broken down so that it was possible to assess high versus low levels of each action mentioned (problem solving actions, whereabouts concern actions, precautionary actions, and physical concern actions). Differences were then assessed in academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control as a function of whether participants reported their mother as being their primary caregiver or reported their father as being their primary caregiver.

Academic Self-Efficacy and Perceived Academic Control

If students had reported high levels of helicopter parenting, it was hypothesized that that would be negatively correlated with students' academic self-efficacy. Given that academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control are parallel constructs, it can be

argued that it is fair to assess them together. Further supporting this, as seen in the results, as academic self-efficacy increased so too did perceived academic control. However, the results of the current study suggest that parenting behaviors differentially affected academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control. Previous research has demonstrated that it is actually beneficial to one's academic self-efficacy when parents demonstrate behaviors that are considered by the student to be responsive or accepting or that suggest the parents have high aspirations for the adult child (Fan & Williams, 2010). This seems to indicate that if students invite overinvolved parenting behavior, they may not consider it as over parenting. If this is the case, and the adult-children feel that their parents' behaviours are appropriate, it is possible that the behaviour would not affect them in as negative a manner as one might expect.

The next set of hypotheses was aimed at assessing the separate dimensions of helicopter parenting. It was firstly hypothesized that if parents demonstrated high levels of problem solving behaviors, their adult-children would be more likely to demonstrate lower levels of academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control. In partial support of this hypothesis, when participants reported their father as their primary caregiver, and indicated that he demonstrated high levels of problem solving actions, they reported having less academic self-efficacy and less perceived academic control. In contrast to this, Jaffee and D'Zurilla (2003) reported that there is no correlation between fathers' problem solving actions and their adolescents' problem solving abilities but they noted much more of a relationship between mothers' problem solving abilities and their adolescents' actions. Jaffee and D'Zurilla's study differed from the present study in that they compared adolescents' problem solving actions to their parents' problem solving actions with respect to delinquency

whereas the current study focused on older individuals and looked at the relationship between parents' problem solving actions with respect to their adult children's academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control. Jaffee and D'Zurilla (2003) also focused on the importance of teaching children how to develop and employ problem solving skills themselves as opposed to having parents solve their problems for them.

Despite the discrepancy in the results of the two studies, in line with the current findings, Jaffee and D'Zurilla (2003) reported that parents were not teaching effective problem solving skills to their children, which may be related to parents solving too many of their children's problems and not allowing their children to make decisions for themselves. This suggests that when parents, particularly fathers (at least in the current study), over parent and solve problems or make decisions for their adult-children, the adult-children feel that they have less control over what happens to them in general, and that this can affect their school lives as well. If this is the case, parents, particularly fathers, should solve less of their children's problems, and instead teach them the skills necessary to solve their own problems. This should make these adult children feel that they have more control over their academic outcomes.

With regards to whereabouts concerns, it was hypothesized that parents demonstrating high levels of whereabouts concerns should not affect their adult-children's academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control unless the parent was demonstrating concern about the adult-child spending time on campus or with university personnel. This hypothesis was supported; participants' perceived level of academic control did not seem to change when participants reported their mothers versus their fathers as their primary caregiver. There was also no difference in perceived academic control for those with

mothers versus fathers who used high levels of whereabouts concerns or low levels of whereabouts concerns. While the questionnaire did not ask questions specific to parents demonstrating concern about the adult-child spending time at school, these results were as expected. This result suggests that while parents demonstrating concern about their adult-child's whereabouts may not be part of a healthy relationship between adult-children and their parents, it does not affect the way the adult-child views his/her ability to perform academically or have control over his/her academic outcomes.

It was hypothesized that parents' demonstration of high levels of precautionary actions would not necessarily mean that the adult child would experience lower levels of academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control. In somewhat of a contrast to this hypothesis, there was a main effect of high versus low levels of precautionary actions, as well as an interaction between which parent was chosen as the primary caregiver (mother versus father), and the amount of precautionary actions the parent demonstrated (high versus low). This showed that participants had higher levels of perceived academic control when participants' parents demonstrated low levels of precautionary actions than when participants' parents demonstrated high levels of precautionary actions. The difference in perceived academic control was higher when fathers reported high versus low levels of precautionary actions than when mothers reported high versus low levels of precautionary actions. As well, the difference in perceived academic control across those who reported mothers versus fathers as their primary caregiver was greater when participants reported their parents engaging in high levels of precautionary actions than when participants reported their parents engaging in low levels of precautionary actions.

It was hypothesized that parents' precautionary actions should not affect their adult-children's academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control unless parents were directly aiming their precautionary actions at their adult-child's school related behaviour. In the present study questions about parents' behaviour were general questions such as monitoring who the adult-child spends time with and questions were not specifically directed toward school related behaviour or time spent with professors/university personnel. It is possible that parents directly monitoring students' school related behaviour can explain the results. For example, if the question asked "in the past month, how often has your [primary caregiver] monitored who you spent time with?", the participant may have considered their professors and other people at school when responding to this question. In this case, it is not surprising that the parents' behaviour would have an effect on the participants' perceived level of academic control. Given that the increased level of parents' precautionary actions (high versus low) demonstrated a negative effect on their adult-children's perceived academic control, particularly in the case of fathers, it is evident that parents should engage in less precautionary actions and allow their adult-children to have the freedom necessary to be able to obtain these skills themselves.

Lastly, it was hypothesized that participants who reported having parents who demonstrate high levels of physical concerns would not feel any less academically self-efficacious or have any less perceived academic control than participants who reported having parents who demonstrate low level of physical concerns. This hypothesis was supported. It did not matter which parent was indicated as the participants' primary caregiver, or if the caregiver demonstrated high or low levels of physical concerns, there was no difference in participants' level of academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control.

As hypothesized, parents engaging in behaviours concerning their adult-child's weight, diet, or exercise schedule should not and did not affect their academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The current study demonstrated some of the ways parental behavior affects students' level of perceived academic control and academic self-efficacy. It was shown that one's perceived academic control depends on which parent he/she considers his/her primary caregiver and the level of the behaviour that the parent demonstrates. Participants demonstrated more perceived academic control when their parents engaged in low levels of precautionary actions, and when their mother was reported as their primary caregiver. This trend held true for problem solving actions as well, given both academic self-efficacy and perceived academic control seemed to be affected by parents' problem solving behaviours. When participants indicated their father as their primary caregiver they demonstrated less academic self-efficacy if the father demonstrated high levels of problem solving behaviours as opposed to low levels of problem solving behaviours, the same was true for their perceived level of academic control. These results demonstrate the crucial role that fathers play in their adult-children's lives in today's society. A limitation of the present study was the number of participants who reported their father as their primary caregiver. Given that the number was quite low, the results of the current study may be skewed. This is a flaw that could not be avoided given the time constraints in collecting data for the current project. Future research should include more participants reporting their father as their primary caregiver and determine whether the differences found in the present study hold with a more representative sample.

Another limitation of the current study was, that students at Grenfell Campus did not report high levels of helicopter parenting. In completing a study of this nature, it would be best to have students report a variety of levels of parental involvement to determine the relationship between this type of parenting and variables such as their perceived level of academic control and academic self-efficacy.

Future studies should also ask whether participants are from a one-parent home or a two-parent home. Current literature suggests that fathers take on the role that they feel that they identify with the most (Minton & Pasley, 1996), therefore, in a family where the parents are divorced and the father is the primary caregiver, a father may assume the parenting role more so than if the parents are divorced and the mother is the primary caregiver. Maccoby et al. (1993) reported that while 40% of parents who do not have their child living with them after a divorce feel that they are as involved with their child as the parent the child lives with, many parents reported making all major and minor decisions themselves without consulting the other parent. This suggests that if parents are single parents after a divorce they may actually be involved in making more decisions and having more input in their adult-child's life than the other parent. Adolescents who live with their mothers after a divorce report feeling closer to their mother than adolescents who live with their fathers feel toward their fathers (Maccoby et al., 1993). It is possible then, that the results yielded in the current study may be a product of participants reporting their fathers as their primary caregiver as a result of a circumstance such as this one. It would be important to know if this were the case as in contrast to this, Maccoby et al. (1993) reported that fathers are less likely to monitor their daughters' activities after a divorce than mothers are.

It would also be useful to assess the difference in helicopter parenting and its influence on perceived academic control and academic self-efficacy based on the gender of the participant. In the present study many more females than males, completed the study making it impossible to assess gender differences.

Conclusion

The current study assessed the relationship between students' academic self-efficacy and perceived academic self-control and their relationship with a primary caregiver. Students reported low levels of helicopter parenting overall, and when this was assessed as a continuous variable, there was no relationship evident between helicopter parenting and academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control. However, when lower versus higher levels of helicopter parenting were assessed, several subscales interacted with whether the mother versus the father was being discussed showing differences in perceived academic control.

In the present study it was found when participants reported their father as their primary caregiver, and indicated that he demonstrated high levels of problem solving actions, they reported having less academic self-efficacy and less perceived academic control. Participants' perceived level of academic control did not seem to change as a function of the use of whereabouts concerns when participants reported their mothers versus their fathers as their primary caregiver or whether such concerns were used at high versus low levels. Students experienced higher levels of perceived academic control when their parents demonstrated low versus high levels of precautionary actions. The difference in perceived academic control was higher when fathers reported high versus low levels of precautionary actions than when mothers reported high versus low levels of precautionary actions.

Regardless of the parent that was indicated as the participants' primary caregiver, or if the caregiver demonstrated high or low levels of physical concerns, there was no difference in participants' level of academic self-efficacy or perceived academic control. Overall, results suggest university students' relationships with their parents in different dimensions of their lives may affect how they feel about their perceived academic control and overall academic outcome. This is particularly important, given how little helicopter parenting was seen in the present study and the small differences seen between those demonstrating high versus low levels of each type of concern.

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Figures

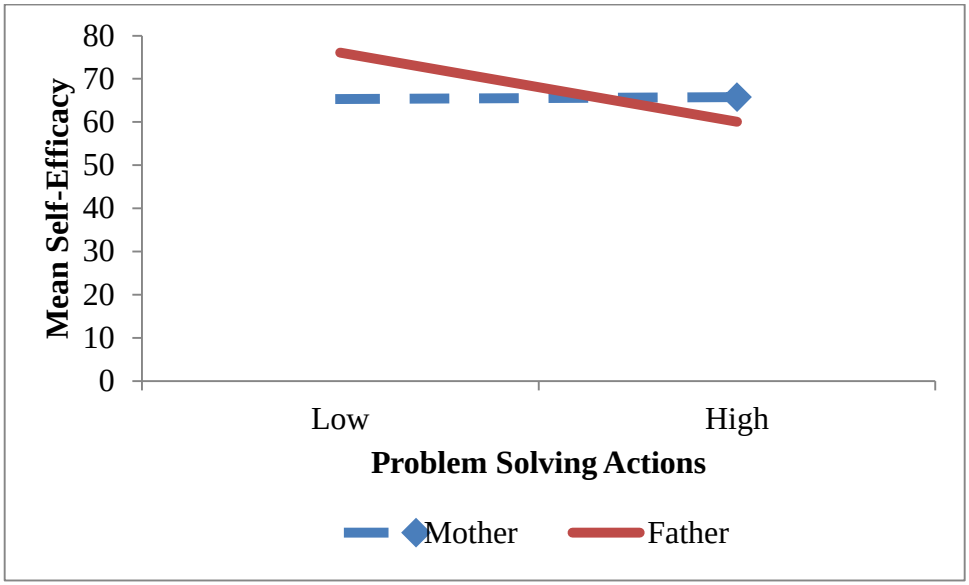

Figure 1. Mean levels of academic self-efficacy when participants report mothers' versus fathers' use of high versus low levels of problem solving actions.

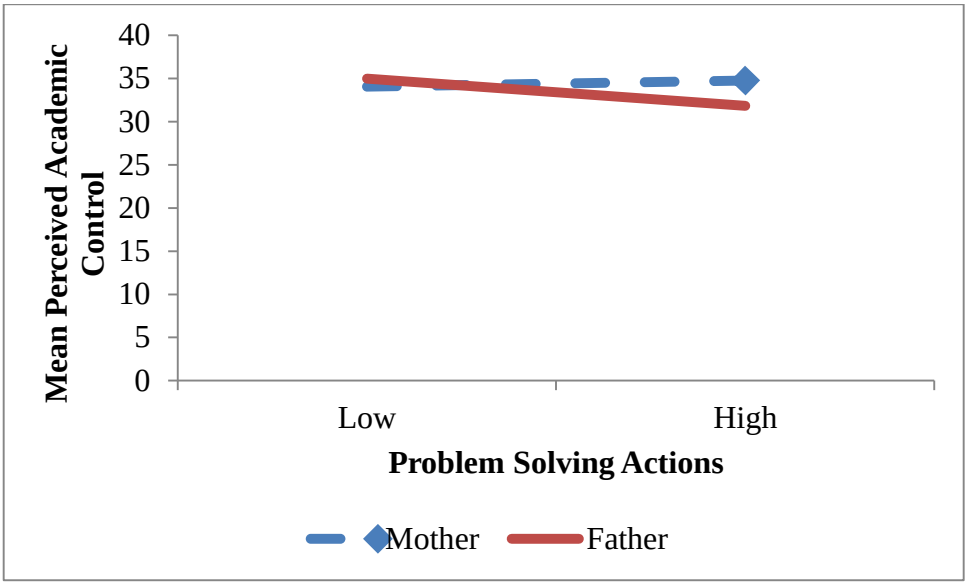

Figure 2. Mean levels of perceived academic control when participants report mothers' versus fathers' use of high versus low levels of problem solving actions.

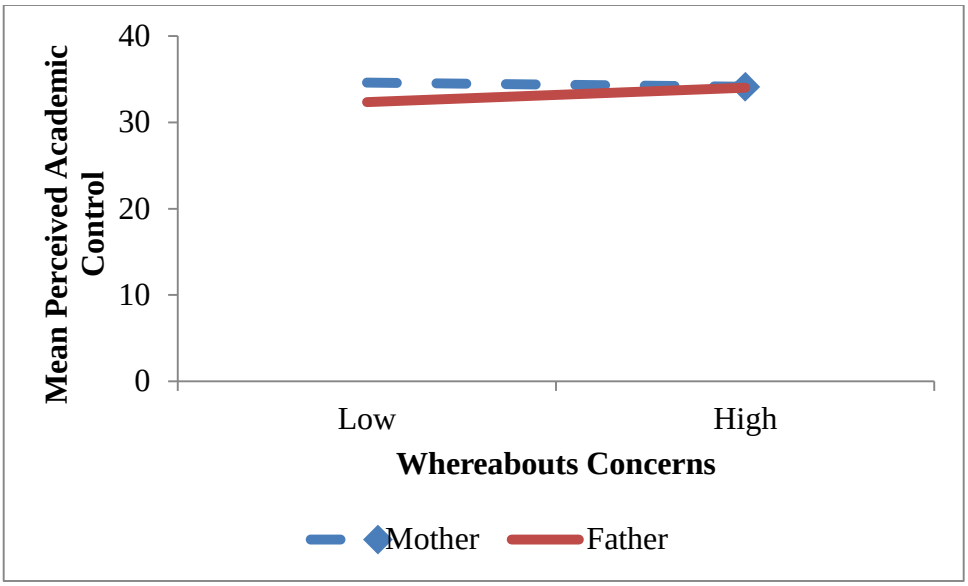

Figure 3. Mean levels of perceived academic control when participants report mothers' versus fathers' use of high versus low levels of whereabouts concerns.

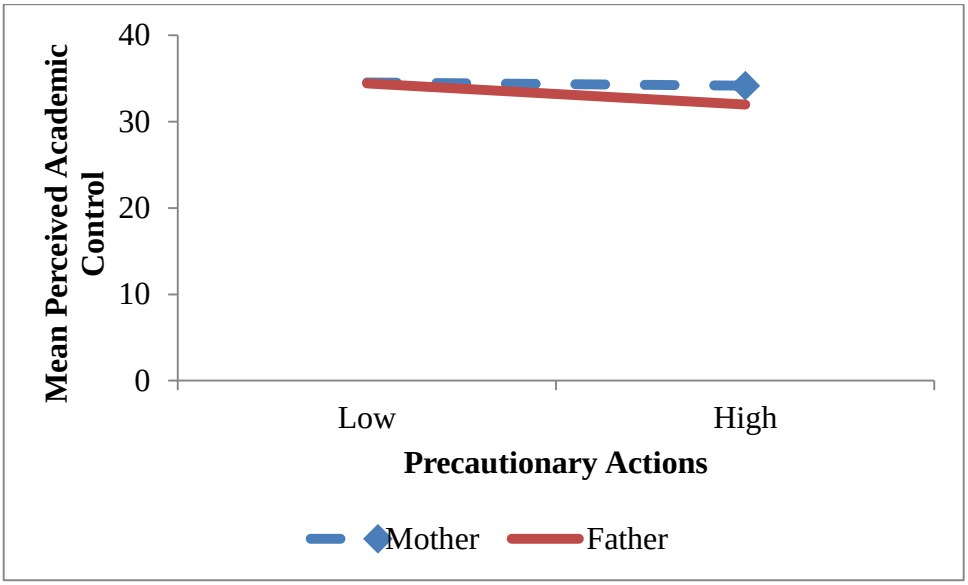

Figure 4. Mean levels of perceived academic control when participants report mothers' versus fathers' use of high versus low levels of precautionary actions.

Tables

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Grenfell Campus Students' Academic Self-Efficacy and Perceived Academic Control

	M	*SD*
Helicopter parenting		
Precautionary actions	15.94	4.39
Problem solving	8.77	2.44
Physical concerns	3.55	1.54
Whereabouts concerns	7.94	2.54
Academic self-efficacy	65.72	12.41
Perceived academic control	34.16	3.69

Appendix A

Demographic Questions

Please answer each of the following questions. For questions 4, 5 and 6, please place an X next to the most appropriate response.

1. **What is your age**? _____

2. **What is your gender**? _____

3. **Current year of Study? _____**

4. **What is your mother's current level of education?**
   - **_____ Less than high school**
   - **_____ High school**
   - **_____ Some post-secondary**
   - **_____ A college diploma**
   - **_____ A university degree**
   - **_____ Don't know**
   - **_____ Not applicable**

5. **What is your father's current level of education?**
   - **_____ Less than high school**
   - **_____ High school**
   - **_____ Some post-secondary**
   - **_____ A college diploma**
   - **_____ A university degree**
   - **_____ Don't know**
   - **_____ Not applicable**

6. **Where are you currently living?**
   - **_____ Residence/chalet**
   - **_____ An apartment/house with a roommate/roommates**
   - **_____ An apartment/house alone**
   - **_____ At home with my parent(s)**
   - **_____ Away from home with a family member (not a parent)**
   - **_____ Other**

Appendix B

SELF-EFFICACY FOR LEARNING FORM (SELF) - Abridged

(Zimmerman and Kitsantas, 2007)

Please answer the following questions by placing the percentage that most applies to you on the blank next to each question. [Added instructions for survey]

Definitely Cannot Do It			Probably Cannot		Maybe		Probably Can			Definitely Can Do It
0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

Percentage	Choose a percentage from the above scale to indicate your answer
_____	1. When you miss a class, can you find another student who can explain the lecture notes as clearly as your teacher did?
_____	2. When your teacher's lecture is very complex, can you write an effective summary of your original notes before the next class?
_____	3. When a lecture is especially boring, can you motivate yourself to keep good notes?
_____	4. When you had trouble understanding your instructor's lecture, can you clarify the confusion before the next class meeting by comparing notes with a classmate?
_____	5. When you have trouble studying your class notes because they are incomplete or confusing, can you revise and rewrite them clearly after every lecture?
_____	6. When you are taking a course covering a huge amount of material, can you condense your notes down to just the essential facts?
_____	7. When you are trying to understand a new topic, can you associate new concepts with old ones sufficiently well to remember them?
_____	8. When another student asks you to study together for a course in which you are experiencing difficulty, can you be an effective study partner?
_____	9. When problems with friends and peers conflict with schoolwork, can you keep up with your assignments?
_____	10. When you feel moody or restless during studying, can you focus your attention well enough to finish your assigned work?
_____	11. When you find yourself getting increasingly behind in a new course, can you increase your study time sufficiently to catch up?
_____	12. When you discover that your homework assignments for the semester are much longer than expected, can you change your other priorities to have enough time for studying?
_____	13. When you have trouble recalling an abstract concept, can you think of a good example that will help you remember it on the test?
_____	14. When you have to take a test in a school subject you dislike, can you find a way to motivate yourself to earn a good grade?

_____	15. When you are feeling depressed about a forthcoming test, can you find a way to motivate yourself to do well?
_____	16. When your last test results were poor, can you figure out potential questions before the next test that will improve your score greatly?
_____	17. When you are struggling to remember technical details of a concept for a test, can you find a way to associate them together that will ensure recall?
_____	18. When you think you did poorly on a test you just finished, can you go back to your notes and locate all the information you had forgotten?
_____	19. When you find that you had to cram at the last minute for a test, can you begin your test preparation much earlier so you won't need to cram the next time?

Appendix C

Perceived Academic Control Scale

(Stupnisky, Perry, et al, 2008)

Please respond to the following statements by placing an X in the box on the right that is most appropriate for you for each statement. [Added instructions for survey].

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5 Strongly agree
1. I have a great deal of control over my academic performance in my courses.					
2. The more effort I put into my courses, the better I do in them.					
3. No matter what I do, I can't seem to do well in my courses*					
4. I see myself as largely responsible for my performance throughout my college career.					
5. How well I do in my courses is often the "luck of the draw.'*					
6. There is little I can do about my performance in university.*					
7. When I do poorly in a course, it's usually because I haven't given it my best effort.					
8. My grades are basically determined by things beyond my control and there is little I can do to change that.*					

*these four items will be reverse coded so that 1=strongly agree and 5=strongly disagree.

Appendix D

Helicopter Parenting Scale

A primary caregiver is the person who provides the majority of care or guardianship, especially to a child or an infirm person (Oxford Dictionary). Please choose a person that you consider to be your primary caregiver and answer the following questions about that person. If you do not have a primary caregiver you may omit this section of the survey. Please respond to the following questions using the scale: (1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = most of the time, 5 = always). [Added instructions for survey].

1. Who do you consider your primary caregiver?

Mother	Father	Sibling	Aunt	Other	N/A

2. How often has [your primary caregiver] made important decisions for you in the past month? (e.g., where you live, where you work, what classes you take)

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

3. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] intervened in settling disputes with your rommates or friends?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

4. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] intervened in solving problems with your professors or employees?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

5. How often has [your primary caregiver] solved any crisis or problem you might have had in the past month?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

6. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] looked for jobs for you or tried to find other opportunities for you? (e.g., internships, study abroad)

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

7. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] monitored who you spent time with?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

8. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] called you to track your schoolwork? (i.e., how you were doing in school, what your grades were like, etc.)

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

9. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] wanted you to call or text her/him to let her/him know where you are?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

10. How often has [your primary caregiver] monitored your exercise schedule in the past month?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

11. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] monitored your diet?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

12. In the past month, when you were home with [your primary caregiver], how often has she/he set a curfew? (a certain time that you must be home by every night)

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

13. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] discouraged you from making decisions that she/he disagrees with?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

14. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] intervened in your life even when you are not in physical or emotional distress?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

15. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] invested a lot of energy helping you troubleshoot and solve problems?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

16. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] voiced her/his opinion about your personal relationships?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

17. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] insisted that you keep her/him informed of your daily activities?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

18. In the past month, when you had to go somewhere (e.g., doctor appointments, academic meetings, and the bank, clothing stores), how often has your [your primary caregiver] accompanied you or asked that you check in with her/him?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

19. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] insisted that you keep her/him informed of your daily activities?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

20. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] tried to solve problems for you before you even experience them?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

21. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] told you how to plan out certain activities?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

22. In the past month, how often has [your primary caregiver] tried to keep you away from environments that might lead you into trouble?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

23. In the past month, how often has your [your primary caregiver] tried to stay one step ahead of what you were doing so that she/he could help you minimize any obstacles that could be encountered?

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always

Appendix E

Email Exchange

Self-Efficacy for Learning Form (SELF) - Abridged

Barry Zimmerman <bzimmerman@gc.cuny.edu>
Thu 01-12, 6:22 PM

Hi Bobbi:
You have my permission to use my scale SELF (abridged) in your Honors research.

Regards,
Barry J. Zimmerman
Distinguished Professor Emeritus
CUNY Graduate Center

Bartlett, Bobbi
Wed 01-11, 11:50 PM
bzimmerman@gc.cuny.edu

Reply all

Sent Items

Dear Dr. Zimmerman,

I am currently completing an honours thesis for my bachelors degree in psychology at Grenfell Campus, Memorial University of Newfoundland, Canada.

I am interested in helicopter parenting and academic self-efficacy. I have read your Self-Efficacy for Learning Form (SELF) - Abridged (Zimmerman and Kitsantas, 2007). I am seeking your permission to use this scale in my research.

Thank you for your time and consideration,

Bobbi Bartlett

Perceived Academic Control Scale

Ray Perry <Ray.Perry@umanitoba.ca>
Thu 01-12, 12:45 PM

Perry, Hladkyj, et al. (20... 399 KB
Perry, Hall & Ruthig (20... 376 KB

2 attachments (774 KB) Download all Save all to OneDrive - Memorial University of Newfoundland

Yes you have my permission to use the scale. You also may be interested in the related articles.

Raymond P. Perry, PhD
Distinguished Professor of Psychology
Co-Director of Emotion, Motivation, and
Control Research (EMCOR) Laboratory

Department of Psychology
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba, CANADA R3T 2N2
Phone: 204-474-7838; 204-474-9338 (General Office)
Fax: 204-474-7955
EMCOR Website: http://home.cc.umanitoba.ca/~maach/perryhome.html

Bartlett, Bobbi
Thu 01-12, 12:05 AM
rperry@cc.umanitoba.ca

Sent Items

Dear Dr. Perry,

I am currently completing an honours thesis for my bachelors degree in psychology at Grenfell Campus, Memorial University of Newfoundland, Canada.

I am interested in helicopter parenting and academic self-efficacy and control. I have read your Perceived Academic Control Scale (Perry et al., 2001). I am seeking your permission to use this scale in my research.

Thank you for your time and consideration,

Bobbi Bartlett

Helicopter Parenting Scales

Jojo Zhou <jojoic@gmail.com>
Mon 01-16, 11:14 AM

Hello Bobbi,

You're welcome to use the Helicopter Parent Controlling Scale. As for those original HP scales that I've asked for permissions for my dissertation, you may contact those authors for permissions.

Good luck with your thesis,
Dr. Baochun Hind

BB

Bartlett, Bobbi
Thu 01-12, 12:10 AM
jojoic@gmail.com

Reply all

Sent Items

Dear Dr. Hind,

I am currently completing an honours thesis for my bachelor degree in psychology at Grenfell Campus, Memorial University of Newfoundland, Canada.

I am interested in helicopter parenting and academic self efficacy. In completing my research I read your dissertation which included the Four Initial Helicopter Parenting Scales as well as your combinations of the scales. These questions would assist me in my own research, therefore, I am seeking permission to use these scales/questions in my study.

Thank you for your time and consideration,
Bobbi Bartlett

Appendix F

Informed Consent

The purpose of this Informed Consent Form is to ensure you understand the nature of this study and your involvement in it. This consent form will provide information about the study, giving you the opportunity to decide if you want to participate.

Researchers: This study is being conducted by Bobbi Bartlett as part of the course requirements for Psychology 4959. I am under the supervision of Dr. Kelly Warren.

Purpose: The study is designed to investigate the relationship between students' relationships with their parents and how they feel about school. The study will be used to write an honours thesis and may be published in the future.

Task Requirements: You will be asked to complete a questionnaire package that includes three scales and a request for demographic information. There are no right or wrong answers; we are only interested in your opinions. You may omit any questions you do not wish to answer.

Duration: The questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Risks and Benefits: There are no obvious risks or benefits involved with your participation in this study. While we do not anticipate any of these questions will make you feel uncomfortable, should this happen, please feel free to skip those questions.

Anonymity and Confidentiality: Your responses are anonymous and confidential. Please do not put any identifying marks on any of the pages. All information will be analyzed and reported on a group basis. Thus, individual responses cannot be identified.

Right to Withdraw: Your participation in this research is totally voluntary and you are free to stop participating at any time.

Contact Information: If you have any questions or concerns about the study, please feel free to contact me at bbartlett@grenfell.mun.ca, or my supervisor Dr. Kelly Warren, at kwarren@grenfell.mun.ca. As well, if you are interested in knowing the results of the study, please contact me or Dr. Warren after May 2017. Results will also be presented at the student undergraduate research conference later in the semester. If this study raises any personal issues for you, please contact the counselling center at Grenfell, specifically, Dr. Veronica Hutchings or Ms. Janis Campbell at (709) 637-7919 or counsellingservices@grenfell.mun.ca, the Newfoundland and Labrador Mental Health Crisis Line at 1-888-737-4668, or Kids Help Phone at 1-800-668-6868. If this study raises academic concerns you may contact Lorna Payne at the Learning Centre at (709) 637-6268 to discuss possible sources of academic help.

This study has been approved by an ethics review process in the psychology program at Grenfell Campus, Memorial University of Newfoundland and has been found to be in compliance with Memorial University's ethics policy.

I acknowledge that I have been informed of, and understand, the nature and purpose of the study, and I freely consent to participate. This Informed Consent Form will be placed in a separate envelope to ensure anonymity.

Signed _____ Date_____