THE EFFECT OF POSITIVE DISCIPLINE PARENTING PROGRAM ON PARENTAL DISCIPLINARY PRACTICES, PARENTING STRESS AND PARENTING SELF-EFFICACY

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF POSITIVE DISCIPLINE PARENTING PROGRAM ON PARENTAL DISCIPLINARY PRACTICES, PARENTING STRESS AND PARENTING SELF-EFFICACY

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This study aims to adapt Positive Discipline Parenting Program into Turkish culture and investigate the effects of the program on parental disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy. For this purpose, the program was adapted, pilot-tested, and implemented to the parents with children between the ages of 6 and 10. The study group consisted of 30 parents who were randomly assigned to two groups. The intervention group attended a 6-week parenting program while the control group did not receive any intervention. The Parenting Scale, Parenting Stress Index Short Form, and Perceived Parental Self-Efficacy Scale were administered to the intervention and the control groups before the intervention, after the intervention, and at the three-month follow-up. In addition to quantitative data, feedback of the intervention group was collected through an evaluation form. Regarding the findings,

dysfunctional discipline practices measured by Parenting Scale total scores and overreactivity sub-scores decreased after the intervention, and this change continued after three months. However, no significant difference was observed in the laxness and hostility sub-scores. Regarding parenting stress, after the intervention, a significant decrease was observed in the intervention group's total parenting stress scores, parent child difficult interaction, and difficult child sub-scores, and this change was maintained at the three-month follow-up. On the other hand, no significant change was observed in the parenting distress sub-scores. Finally, the Parenting Self-Efficacy scores of the intervention group parents did not differ significantly between the pre and post-test, post-test, and follow-up. The findings were discussed in light of the relevant literature.

Keywords: Positive Discipline, parent education, parental disciplinary practices, parenting stress, parenting self-efficacy.

ÖZ

POZİTİF DİSİPLİN EBEVEYNLİK PROGRAMININ EBEVEYN DİSİPLİN UYGULAMALARI, EBEVEYN STRESİ VE EBEVEYN ÖZYETERLİĞİNE ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışma, Pozitif Disiplin Ebeveynlik Programı'nı Türk kültürüne uyarlamayı ve programın ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları, ebeveyn stresi ve ebeveynlik öz-yeterliğine etkilerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaçla program uyarlanmış, pilot uygulaması yapılmış ve 6-10 yaş arası çocuğu olan ebeveynlere uygulanmıştır. Çalışma grubu iki gruba rastgele atanan 30 ebeveynden oluşmaktadır. Müdahale grubu 6 haftalık ebeveynlik programına katılırken, kontrol grubuna herhangi bir müdahale yapılmamıştır. Müdahale ve kontrol gruplarına müdahale öncesinde, müdahaleden sonra ve üç aylık izlemde Ebeveynlik Ölçeği, Ebeveynlik Stres İndeksi Kısa Formu ve Ebeveyn Yetkinlik Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Nicel verilere ek olarak, müdahale grubu ebeveynlerinin geribildirimleri bir değerlendirme formu aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Bulgulara göre, Ebeveynlik Ölçeği toplam puanları ve aşırı tepkisellik alt puanları ile ölçülen işlevsel olmayan disiplin uygulamaları müdahaleden sonra azalmış ve bu

değişim üç ay sonra da devam etmiştir. Ancak, gevşeklik ve düşmanlık alt boyutlarında anlamlı bir farklılık gözlenmemiştir. Ebeveynlik stresiyle ilgili olarak, müdahale sonrasında müdahale grubunun toplam ebeveynlik stresi puanlarında, başarısız ebeveyn-çocuk etkileşimi ve zor çocuk alt puanlarında anlamlı bir azalma gözlenmiş ve bu değişim üç aylık izlemde korunmuştur. Öte yandan, ebeveyn sıkıntısı alt puanlarında anlamlı bir değişiklik gözlenmemiştir. Son olarak, müdahale grubu ebeveynlerinin ebeveynlik öz-yeterlik puanları, ön ve son test, son test ve üç aylık izlemde anlamlı bir farklılık göstermemiştir. Bulgular ilgili literatür ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Pozitif Disiplin, ebeveyn eğitimi, ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları, ebeveynlik stresi, ebeveyn öz yeterliği.

to my beloved Ateş Giray and Seray

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PS	Parenting Scale
PPSE	Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy Scale
PSI-SF-4	Parenting Stress Index Short Form-4th Ed
LISREL	Linear Structural Relations Statistics Program
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
SPSS	SPSS Statistical Package for Social Sciences
EÖ	Ebeveynlik Ölçeği
EYÖ	Ebeveyn Özyeterlik Ölçeği

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

For most of human history, people grew up in extended families where parents modeled the experience and wisdom of other parents and received support from them in caring for their children (Gopnik, 2016; Stearns, 2019). The African proverb "It takes a village to raise a child" highlights the importance of parents having access to emotional and practical support provided by the community (Sanders & Turner, 2018). However, parenting, which was previously carried out with the support of the community, has become an individual task due to the changing family structure today (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018; Gopnik, 2016). Similarly, in Turkey, parents are moving away from the supportive relationships of the extended family type (Öztop & Telsiz, 1998). Family structure in Turkey has undergone significant changes in the last 50 years. According to the family structure research of the Ministry of Family and Social Services, the rate of the nuclear family was 59.1% and the extended family rate was 32.1% in Turkey, in 1968 (Ministry of Family and Social Services, 2014). Today, the rate of nuclear families is 65.2% and the rate of extended families is 14% (Turkish Statistical Institute [TUIK], 2020). In addition, the ratio of single-parent families has increased. Nowadays, 9.7% of households in Turkey consist of single parents and children (TUIK, 2020).

Due to changes in family structure from the extended family to nuclear families and single-parent families, parents who need guidance and assistance to develop their parenting skills are turning to other sources for guidance such as books, experts, or parenting classes (Rasmussen, 2014). Nevertheless, parents are bombarded by several

informational sources, such as social media, other parents, or parenting books based on different approaches which at times provide conflicting ideas and recommendations on parenting (Gopnik, 2016; Jonyniene et al.,2015). Moreover, even if some parents may get support from their parents or model their own parents' parental practices, these parenting skills may be inadequate to deal with the challenges of contemporary parenthood (Dembo et al., 1985).

Although parenting is one of the most important tasks in the world, often parents are not equipped with the skills and confidence to function effectively and contribute to their children's lives, and not prepared for the coping challenges of parenting (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015; Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018). Increased expectations and demands of contemporary parenting have complicated parental responsibilities and increased parenting stress when compared with the former generations (Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Crnic & Ross, 2017; Glatz & Buchanan, 2021; Nelsen, 2019; Stearns, 2019). Today, many parents experience high levels of stress with nearly one-third of parents reporting that they are under a great deal of stress in fulfilling their parenting roles (American Psychological Association [APA], 2010). Therefore, while the task of parenting always presents a significant challenge, parenting today has been more challenging because parents are rising their children under different psychological, social, cultural, technological, and economic conditions from those of their childhood (Mullis, 1999; Nelsen, 2019). For instance, technological developments have brought new day-to-day challenges in parent-child interactions including issues such as the time spent on the use of tablets, social media, computer games, and TV (Lott & Nelsen, 2017; Nelsen 2011; Şirin, 2019). As a result, all these social, economic, and technological changes have increased the need for parents to develop their knowledge and skills in the process of raising children. Although there are many sources including family members, friends, books, TV shows, websites, and professional sources such as counselors, psychologists, social workers, and teachers, research studies have shown that parenting programs are one of the most effective

ways in improving parenting knowledge and skills (Ateah, 2003; Jonyniene et al., 2015; Ramussen, 2014).

According to Hamamcı and Sevim (2004), the conditions that increase the need for parenting programs seem to be similar in Turkey. The publications and training programs about parenting have been increased recently as well as the number of parents who refer to experts to improve their child-rearing skills (Hamamcı & Sevim, 2004). Consequently, it can be stated that there has been a growing number of parents who need to be supported in Turkey, to keep up with the changes and improve parenting skills.

Since the 1980's parenting programs have been developed and implemented in Turkey through public institutions, such as the Ministry of Family and Social Services, the Ministry of National Education, and non-governmental organizations, such as the Mother-Child Education Foundation. In addition to these nationwide programs, several parenting programs were developed and implemented within the scope of master's or doctoral theses (Hamamcı & Sevim, 2004). Nevertheless, when the literature on parenting programs in Turkey investigated, it is observed that most of the programs are based on behavioral methods and social cognitive theory. Although not implemented in Turkey yet, studies are proving that parenting programs based on Adlerian child-rearing principles are directly related to positive parenting styles, behaviors, and parenting competence (Gfroerer et al., 2004; Holliday, 2014; Jonyniene et al., 2015; McVittie & Best, 2009). The current study is designed to contribute to the parenting field and understand the effectiveness of an Adlerian-based parenting program in Turkish culture.

1.1. Background to the Study

Parents are the most important figures for a child's healthy physical, cognitive, and socio-emotional development. According to Bronfenbrenner (1986), child development takes place within a series of contexts, called *microsystem, mesosystem,*

exosystem, *macrosystem*, and *chronosystem*. Amongst these contexts, the family is the primary and the most important context in the *microsystem* (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). The family in general, and the parenting and parent-child relationship in particular, have a wide and lasting effect on children's healthy development and well-being (Sanders, 1999). Parents have many tasks and responsibilities in child development, including nurturing and protecting, guiding, and educating children to prepare them for future life roles (Bornstein & Bornstein, 2007).

Parenting is seen as one of the central tasks of adulthood in all societies since parenting gives rise to a new generation and impacts not only the welfare of the child but also the welfare of the society (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018; Palut, 2009). Individuals begin their development as members of a society within a social context: family. In the Adlerian view, *social interest*, having a sense of belonging, and connecting with others in a respectful, cooperative, and responsible way, is fundamental for healthy development and adjustment (Bettner, 2020; Rasmussen, 2014; Rasmussen & Schuyler, 2020). Within this frame, assisting children to develop social interest is the task of parents (Bettner, 2020). By providing children love, trust, acceptance, which cultivates a sense of belonging and connectedness, and teaching children to contribute to the family which cultivates the feeling of significance, children can develop an identity and find a place in the world (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015). Having a sense of belonging, connection, and significance in the family leads to children’s developing social interest, that is, to care and concern for others, in a wider context (Bettner, 2020). As a result, according to the Adlerian philosophy of childrearing, guiding children and preparing them for the challenges and responsibilities of adulthood is crucial for the individual level, societal level, and ultimate and optimal evolution of humankind (Rasmussen, 2014).

Parenting tasks and responsibilities of taking care of the children, supporting them in developing important characteristics and skills, and preparing them for adulthood are elicited through parenting behaviors. All kinds of behaviors of parents in the process

of raising a child are defined as parenting behavior (APA, 2010). Parenting behaviors include a range of parental attitudes and behaviors such as parenting styles, monitoring, communication with the child, and parental discipline strategies (Baumrind, 2013; Darling & Steinberg, 1993, Lansford, 2019). Different parenting skills and practices are related to the different functions and responsibilities and result in different competencies in children (Smetana, 2017). One of the behaviors defined in a wide variety of parenting behaviors is parental disciplinary practices.

Parental disciplinary practices are parents' behaviors to guide and encourage their children to behave in desired ways and include parents' response to the child's misbehavior (Lansford, 2019). These practices can be functional (e.g., responsiveness, monitoring, guidance, and encouragement) or dysfunctional, (e.g., harsh, inadequate, or inconsistent discipline). Research findings have been indicated that functional discipline was found to be related to positive child outcomes (Grolnick, Caruso & Levitt, 2019; Sanders & Turner, 2018; Smetana, 2017; Smetana et al., 2019) whereas dysfunctional disciplinary practices were found to have negative effects on children's adjustment and development (Gershoff & Grogan-Kaylor 2016; Lansford, 2019; Smetana, 2017).

According to *the Process Model of the Determinants of Parenting* by Belsky (1984), parenting behaviors are impacted by individual factors including the parent's personality and the child's temperament, and social contextual factors including parents' social support and stress sources. In line with Belsky's (1984) theory, many studies in the literature have revealed that parenting self-efficacy, which is one of the individual factors specific to the parent; and social support and stress sources, which are contextual factors, are the most important factors affecting parenting (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006; Bornstein & Bornstein, 2007; Crnic & Ross, 2017; Jones & Prinz, 2005, Sanders & Woolley, 2005, Wittkowski et al., 2017).

Parenting self-efficacy, which is based on the self-efficacy concept in Bandura's (1977) *Social Cognitive Theory*, can be defined as parents' belief in fulfilling their parental duties successfully and their perceived ability to influence their child's development positively (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; deMontigny & Lacharite, 2005, Jones & Prinz, 2005). Efficacious parents feel that they can accomplish various tasks of parenting, they perceive parental duties as less taxing, and find parenting more satisfying (Coleman & Karraker, 2003). Conversely, parents with low self-efficacy tend to feel overwhelmed by parental duties. Parents who believe in their efficacy engage in positive parenting attitudes and behaviors; interacted more positively with their children and exert a positive impact on a child's development (Bloomfield & Kendall, 2012; Coleman & Karraker, 1998; 2000; 2003; Crnic & Ross, 2017). The existing literature has proven associations between parental self-efficacy and positive outcomes for both parents and their children (Albanese et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2021; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Wittkowski et al., 2017). Higher levels of parenting self-efficacy have been associated with less depression, anxiety, the stress in parents (Albanese et al., 2019; Jones & Prinz, 2005); linked with children's sense of self-efficacy, emotional well-being, academic development, and career development (Bandura et al., 1996; 2001); and related to positive parenting strategies and behaviors (Coleman & Karraker, 1998; Sanders & Woolley, 2005). Conversely, lower levels of parenting self-efficacy were found to be related to negative parenting behaviors and negative parent-child relationships (Albanese et al., 2019; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Wittkowski et al., 2017). Besides the positive impact of higher parental self-efficacy on parenting behaviors, parenting self-efficacy also serves as a protective factor by decreasing vulnerability to parental stress (Bandura et al., 2011).

Parenting stress, another determinant of parenting behaviors, is defined as aversive reactions that arise to adapting to the demands of the parenting role (Daeter-Deckard, 2008). Mostly, being a parent brings enjoyment, pride, and happiness to parents' lives, yet, at times, parenting can be challenging, overwhelming, and stressful (Sanders & Turner, 2018). Parents have continuous concerns about the lifelong well-being of their

children and sometimes have difficulties in coping with the insistent demands of parenting (Bornstein & Bornstein, 2007). Parenting stress has detrimental effects both on parents themselves and children. For instance, higher parenting stress was found to be associated with parental depression and fatigue (Dunning & Giallo, 2012; Sevigny, & Loutzenhiser, 2010), child's behavior problems (Neece et al., 2012; Sanner & Neece, 2018), externalizing and internalizing behaviors, social inhibition (Östberg & Hagekull, 2013), child's low social competence (Anthony et al., 2005), and low academic achievement (Rogers et al., 2009). In coping with stress, social support is seen as the fundamental coping resource (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006), and parenting programs are one of the sources of social support for parents (Bornstein, 2019).

Parenting is a learned skill rather than an innate skill, and parenting attitudes, knowledge, and skills can also be improved by learning (Bornstein, 2019). Piles of research findings demonstrated that parents' cognitions, emotions, knowledge, and behavior can be modified by parenting programs (Sanders & Mazzucchelli, 2018). Coleman and Karraker (1998) stated that to feel efficacious as a parent, one must have parenting knowledge, parenting self-efficacy, and a supportive social environment.

Parenting programs can be defined as; structured programs mostly delivered in a group format that aims to provide parents with the necessary knowledge, attitudes, and skills in a systematic way on issues such as the development of the child, family relations, and parental attitudes and behaviors (Dembo et al., 1985; Haslam et al., 2016). Parenting programs can provide parents with the opportunity to improve their parenting knowledge and skills with the encouragement of the group (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015). Through parenting programs, parents are provided with knowledge of how children develop, with the skills and alternative discipline methods in managing their children's behaviors, and activities to create learning and problem-solving opportunities (Bornstein, 2019). Numerous studies have demonstrated that parenting programs reduce parental stress, decrease parents' use of dysfunctional discipline methods, and increase parental self-efficacy (Albanese et al., 2019; Barlow & Coren,

2018; Barlow et al., 2011; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Lundahl et al., 2006; Sanders & Woolley, 2005; Wittkowski et al., 2016). Consequently, in line with the theoretical knowledge and relevant research results, it can be stated that through parenting programs, determinants of parenting behaviors including parenting self-efficacy and parenting stress can be altered and more positive end effective parenting behaviors can be improved.

Although numerous parenting programs based on various theories have been developed since the 1960s, it can be stated that Alfred Adler and his student and colleague, Rudolph Dreikurs are the pioneers to parent education with *Adlerian open forum family counseling*, and with their work in *Child Guidance Centers* (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018; Sweeney, 2009). Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs use Individual Psychology principles and concepts in parenting, such as mistaken goals, encouragement, natural and logical consequences, and positive discipline (Bitter & Main, 2011; Chang & Ritter, 2004; Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). Active Parenting (Popkin, 1993), Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (Dinkmeyer & Mckay, 1976), and Positive Discipline (Nelsen, 1981) are three main examples of Adlerian-based parenting programs. These programs emphasize understanding the needs and motivations behind children's misbehavior, birth order, improving communication, and fostering mutual respect (Bitter & Main, 2011; Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). The main aim of these programs is to provide parents with the knowledge to cope with the undesired behavior of their children and to gain democratic parental attitudes (Chang & Ritter, 2004).

1.2. Purpose of the Study

This study aims to adapt an Adlerian-Dreikursian based parenting program called Positive Discipline Parenting Program into Turkish culture and examine its effects on parenting disciplinary strategies, parental self-efficacy, and parenting stress of the parents with children between 6 to10. The rationale of this research is to examine the

Positive Discipline whether it will assist parents to employ more functional parenting practices, improve their parental self-efficacy and reduce parenting stress.

1.3. Research Question and Hypotheses

In the present study, the following research question was posed to test the associated hypotheses.

> *R.Q.* What is the effect of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on parental disciplinary practices as indicated by Parenting Scale (PS), parenting stress as indicated by Parenting Stress Index-Short Form (PSI-SF-4), and parenting self-efficacy as indicated by Perceived Parental Self-Efficacy Scale (PPSE)?

For this research question, the following hypotheses were investigated in this study:

Hypothesis 1 (H1). There will be a significant effect of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on the mean scores of the PS total and sub-scores.

> *H1a.* There will be a significant decrease in the PS total scores, and the laxness, overreactivity, and hostility sub-scores of the intervention group when compared to the control group, and this decrease will continue at the three-month follow-up.

> *H1b.* There will be a significant decrease in the intervention group's PS total scores and in the laxness, overreactivity, and hostility sub-scores from pre-test to post-test, and this decrease will be maintained at the three-month follow-up.

Hypothesis 2 (H2). There will be a significant effect of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on the mean scores of the PSI-SF-4 total and sub-scores.

H2a. There will be a significant decrease in the PSI-SF-4 total scores and parental distress, parent-child dysfunctional interaction, and difficult child sub-scores of the intervention group when compared to the control group, and this decrease will continue at the three-month follow-up.

H2b. There will be a significant decrease in the intervention group's PSI-SF-4 total scores and parental distress, parent-child dysfunctional interaction, and difficult child sub-scores from pre-test to post-test, and this decrease will be maintained at the three-month follow-up.

Hypothesis 3 (H3). There will be a significant effect of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on the mean scores of the PPSE.

H3a. There will be a significant increase in total scores of PPSE of the intervention group when compared to the control group, and this decrease will continue at the three-month follow-up.

H3b. There will be a significant increase in the intervention group's PSE total scores from pre-test to post-test, and this increase will be maintained at the three-month follow-up.

1.4. Significance of the Study

According to the parenting literature, parents can make a more meaningful contribution to the healthy development of their children by improving their knowledge and skills. Research has consistently shown that parenting skills can be improved through parenting programs. In addition, many studies emphasize that parenting programs not only improve existing parent-child interactions but also support parents for future problems and thus prevent future risks. Providing parents with effective programs such as Positive Discipline is important for improving functional parenting practices and skills, and parent-child interactions. Therefore, this

study, which aims to adapt the Positive Discipline parenting program and test its effectiveness, is expected to make a valuable contribution to the parenting and counseling field.

In this study, an Adlerian-based parenting program was chosen for various reasons. First, Adlerian parenting programs are based on a specific child-rearing philosophy and principles, beyond general information about child development, or behavior modification methods (Dembo et al., 1985; Nelsen, 2019). The Adlerian approach emphasizes responsibility, cooperation, contribution, and respect for the well-being of others, which are important for the well-being of the individual and the welfare of the society (Rasmussen, 2014). Adlerian-Dreikursian-based parenting programs involve components that are suited for parents to help their children acquire these qualities (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015). Another reason is that Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting emphasizes the encouragement that is crucial for the development of feelings of capability and sense of belonging, rejects rewards and punishments that harm the child's social-emotional development, instead uses natural and logical consequences and problem-solving skills (Nelsen, 2011). Adlerian principles suggest cooperation against submissiveness and adopt democratic parenting instead of autocratic control or permissiveness (Rasmussen, 2014). Thus, children develop a healthy personality and acquire the characteristics and life skills they need for their future life (Lott & Nelsen, 2017). All these principles and components help the child's healthy development, promote a healthy parent-child relationship, and contribute to the family as a system. In addition, the Adlerian approach focuses on the underlying beliefs of the behavior, not the child's apparent behavior, which is the primary component of Adlerian parenting programs. Through Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs, parents understand the mistaken goals of their children and how to effectively respond to children’s needs behind these mistaken goals (Chang & Ritter, 2004). In this way, parents respond to the child's need to feel belonging and significance. Finally, Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs include well-structured methods and

techniques that have been proven to be effective in previous studies (Dembo et al., 1985; Lindquist & Watkins, 2014).

According to Sanders and Woolley (2005), effective parenting programs must be evidence-based, responds to the need of parents with children of different ages, includes different training methods, and must be culturally applicable. In line with these suggestions, in the present study, the Positive Discipline parenting program was selected due to several reasons. First, the program emphasizes Adlerian tenets of belonging, contribution, and responsibility. It also includes necessary knowledge and skills for different ages and the long-term well-being of the children including the positive parent-child relationship with effective disciplinary strategies (Gfroerer et al., 2013). Second, beyond lecturing, the program has experiential activities, which provide active skills training for parents by modeling, rehearsal, and feedback. Third, the program is delivered through group format which is supposed to facilitate group dynamics and therapeutic factors which can be a support resource in dealing with parenting stress (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015). Moreover, it is expected that the Positive Discipline Parent Training Program will enhance parenting self-efficacy by providing the following sources of self-efficacy enhancement: (a) mastery attainment by practicing newly learned skills at the group sessions and weekly assignments; (b) vicarious learning through observing other parents' role plays followed by group discussion; and (c) verbal persuasion via mutual support and encouragement from other parents and the group leaders. Lastly, Positive Discipline is compatible with Turkish culture. As Akçabozan and Sümer (2016) stated, the educational nature of Adlerian parenting and the cooperative and instructive role of the trainer in the process could be effective in working with Turkish parents who expect to be trained and guided by the counselor. Moreover, the Adlerian approach is flexible and has eclectic techniques, like in Positive Discipline, and can facilitate the work of counselors with different families (Akçabozan & Sümer, 2016). All in all, in line with the theoretical knowledge and relevant research findings, it is considered that Positive Discipline is applicable in Turkish culture and can be effective on parental disciplinary strategies,

parenting self-efficacy, and parenting stress of Turkish parents. On the other hand, there is no study conducted in Turkish culture about Adlerian parenting programs; and empirical studies are required to investigate the applicability of Adlerian parent education into Turkish culture (Akçabozan & Sümer, 2016; Sümer & Rasmussen, 2012). Hence, to the author's knowledge, this study is considered as the first attempt to test the effectiveness of Adlerian-based approach parenting programs in Turkey, and it is considered to shed light on subsequent studies.

Another significance of the present study is related to the role and importance of parent education in the family counseling process. Adlerian approach states that the family is a social system in which each member influences the other members, and a healthy family is the most important ingredient of a healthy society (Carlson et al., 2006). Family systems that are democratic, contain healthy boundaries, and include mutual respect facilitate the growth of family members and support the development of belonging and social interest (Bitter et al., 2002). Adlerian family counseling focuses on the relationships of individuals within this system, including the parent-child relationships as a subsystem (Carlson & Robey, 2011). In the family counseling process, the attitudes of parents, ideas, and interrelationships among parents and children are common sources of problems (Carlson et al., 2006). The purpose of family counseling is reorientation, in which parent education is one of the most important components (Carlson & Robey, 2011). Reorientation in Adlerian family counseling includes parent education where parents learn how to encourage their children, how to apply natural and logical consequences, how to provide healthy boundaries, and engage in a democratic parenting process (Bitter et al., 2002; Carlson & Robey, 2011). As a result, it is believed that these research findings will also contribute to the field of family counseling through family education, which is an important component of the family counseling process.

Although much has been written about parenting programs, evidence for outcomes is still limited. In the literature, the studies about parenting were mostly descriptive,

while the small number of studies was experimental. Although there are some studies testing the effectiveness of Adlerian parenting programs in general and the Positive Discipline in particular, more evidence-based studies are needed (Gfroerer et al., 2013; McVittie & Best, 2009). Moreover, most of the Adlerian parenting studies were tested in Western cultures (Oryan & Ben-Asher, 2019). Since parents from different cultures have different childrearing values and parenting styles, they have different responses to parenting programs. Therefore, it is important to show the effectiveness of a parent training program across cultures (Breitenstein et al., 2012). Adlerian child-rearing principles put a great emphasis on the individual in a sociocultural context and emphasize the importance of worldviews, cooperation, social interest, and culture. Adlerian parenting programs which emphasize social context and culture are applicable in many cultures; nevertheless, it is needed to test these programs in different cultures (Chang & Ritter, 2004). As a result, it is believed that the findings of the current study will also contribute to the Adlerian parenting field by providing evidence for implementation in a different culture from Western culture.

This study is considered important due to the sample, which consists of parents of children in middle childhood. Supporting parents is viewed as a process that begins with pregnancy and continues at developmental stages until children leave home and become fully independent adults (Sanders, 1999). In this context, each developmental stage has its importance, nevertheless, childhood, in particular, is an important period due to its enduring impact on adolescence and adulthood (Hudson & Ripke, 2006). In middle childhood, children develop the basic academic and social competencies, such as self-regulation skills and social responsibility, and gain ideas about their capabilities (Coleman & Karraker, 2000; Collins & Madsen, 2019; Lemberger & Krauss, 2013). Findings in the literature indicated that parenting in middle childhood is correlated with current positive outcomes for children including peer acceptance, school success, competence, responsibility, and predicts successful adaptation in later life (Collins & Madsen, 2019). Therefore, in this stage, supporting parents who are encountered with new challenges, such as child's adaptation to school, academic challenges, new rules,

peer pressure, through parent education is regarded as crucial. Improving parenting in this stage is considered as not only remedying current parent-child problems but also is preventive for the problems that can arise in the adolescence period. However, when compared with the studies conducted with adolescents and university students, studies related to the childhood period including elementary school age are quite poor (Sümer et al., 2010). Moreover, in Turkey, parenting programs have mostly targeted the parents with children with special needs and parents with pre-school children. The present study was conducted with parents of elementary school children, and it is regarded that the results may contribute to the existing literature on parenting middle childhood.

The findings of the present study are believed to provide important implications for counseling practitioners who work with parents. Positive Discipline is a useful, structured, and well-designed program with extensive resources and materials for both practitioners and parents. Moreover, the program lasts six to eight group sessions, which is considered as helping to decrease the possibility of dropouts. Within the scope of the current study, these resources and materials were translated and adapted into Turkish culture. Positive Discipline Parenting program can be utilized easily in public education centers, guidance and research centers, psychological counseling and guidance services of primary education institutions, Provincial Directorates of Ministry of Family and Social Services, family counseling centers, and other institutions and organizations. Accordingly, the adaptation of the Positive Discipline parenting program and testing its effectiveness is considered to contribute to parent education practices.

1.5. Definition of the Terms

The terms used in the present study are defined as follows:

Parenting disciplinary practices: Parenting disciplinary practices refers to parents' efforts to teach their children how to behave in desired ways and parents' responses to the child's misbehavior (Lansford, 2019). Parenting disciplinary practices are classified as effective and ineffective (O'Leary, 1995). Effective parental discipline is characterized by setting clear rules, helping children understand the effects of their actions on other people, and avoiding corporal punishment (Lansford, 2019). Ineffective or dysfunctional parenting, which includes overreactive and lax parenting, is characterized by setting unclear rules, reinforcing inappropriate behaviors, using harsh physical punishment, and inconsistent discipline (Arnold et al., 1993).

Parenting stress: Parenting stress is defined as stress reactions that arise from the individual and environmental demands of parenting and response process to adapt to these demands (Daeter-Deckard, 2008).

Parenting self-efficacy: Parenting self-efficacy refers to parents' belief in fulfilling their parental duties successfully and their perceptions on their ability to influence their child's development positively (deMontigny & Lacharité, 2005; Jones & Prinz, 2005).

Parenting program: Parenting programs are defined as parenting interventions that aim to improve parenting knowledge, skills, and parenting competence through active skills training (Haslam et al., 2016).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the theoretical background and the literature review of the variables are presented in five sections. The first section includes a basic frame for the parenting concept and parenting in middle childhood. In the second section, parenting disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy are introduced. The third section comprises the parent training concept, Adlerian-Dreikursian view of parenting, Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs, and Positive Discipline Parenting Program. The fourth section addresses studies on Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs in general and the Positive Discipline Parenting Program in particular. Lastly, the fifth section includes studies on parenting programs in Turkey.

2.1. Theoretical Frame of the Parenting

This section provides a framework for the concept of parenting. In this section, parenting, parenting in middle childhood, determinants of parenting, and parenting styles and practices are discussed.

2.1.1. Parenting

As Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1986) stated in his “Ecological Systems Theory”, parents have the most significant impact on a child’s development. Indeed, there is nothing in the world so critical for a child’s survival as her or his parents (Bjorklund & Myers,

2019). Nevertheless, parenting today includes additional physical, emotional, and intellectual demands and, by so, represents the most demanding role in an adult's life (Coleman, & Karraker, 1998; Stearns, 2019). Being a parent is a long-term commitment to protecting, nurturing, and caring for children that no other role in a person's life requires so much time and energy (Bjorklund & Myers, 2019). Parenting duties involve not only meeting children's survival needs but also include responsibilities needed for a child's healthy physical, cognitive, social-emotional development and well-being (Bornstein & Bornstein, 2007; Sanders & Turner, 2018).

Adler (1927/1954) defined three basic life tasks that every individual must fulfill for a healthy and harmonious life: *love*, *friendship*, and *work* (as cited in, Sweeney, 2009). Also, Mosak and Dreikurs (1967) later defined two additional tasks as *spirituality* and s*elf*. All these life tasks are interconnected (Bettner, 2020). *Love* involves intimate relationships in which a person conveys warmth and affection to another and requires respect, appreciation, and caring (Sweeney, 2009). *Friendship*, as known as a social task, comprises getting along and living efficiently with others, which is a basic need for civilization. Friendship requires cooperation and respect (Rasmussen & Schuyler, 2020; Sweeney, 2009). *Work* is an important life task for sustaining the basic human needs of food, shelter, and safety and involves occupation-related behaviors. Work task requires responsibility, capability, contribution, and cooperation (Bettner & Lew, 2005; Lew, 2021; Rasmussen & Schuyler, 2020). *Spirituality* is described as the relationship between belief systems and God and is related to existential issues such as the purpose and the meaning of life (Mosak & Dreikurs, 1967; Sweeney, 2009). The fifth task *self* is defined as individuals' coping and accepting themselves unconditionally and is related to self-confidence and self-efficacy (Sweeney, 2009). From Adler's point of view, the main task of parents is to help the child develop a healthy personality and to encourage them to develop emotions, thoughts, behaviors, and skills to achieve the basic life tasks described above (Bettner, 2020; Rasmussen, 2014; Rasmussen & Schuyler, 2020).

More recently, Sanders and Turner (2018) defined responsibilities of parenting as follows: *Taking care of basic needs* comprises providing survival needs such as food, shelter, and safety. *Emotional care* includes creating an environment that children feel being loved and accepted. *Socialization* consists of the teaching of values, good habits, and self-regulation skills. *Providing guidance* involves monitoring and supervising children, teaching children the necessary skills for independence, and encouraging them to learn acceptable behaviors. *Providing boundaries* include setting age-appropriate boundaries to help children learn to manage their behavior. *Teaching life skills* involves teaching children the necessary skills for success in life (e.g., effective communication and conflict management, problem-solving skills, self-care, safe and respectful use of technology, skills for financial literacy, etc.) *Being a child advocate* involves advocating children's needs and rights. *Supporting children's education* includes parental involvement to promote children's academic and social success. *Moral and spiritual guidance* comprises helping children with issues related to spirituality, cultural traditions, and rituals as well as being a role model for ethical behavior (Sanders & Turner, 2018).

When the roles and responsibilities of parenting mentioned in current approaches are integrated with the Adlerian point of view, it is seen that the purpose of parenting is not only to ensure the child's current well-being but also to ensure the child's future well-being and social harmony. Hence, parents fulfill different responsibilities at different developmental stages throughout children's lives to help them improve necessary attitudes, values, behaviors, and skills. While parenting is of particular importance at each developmental stage, parenting in middle childhood is of distinctive importance as it involves adapting to transitions that affect both children's current well-being and later periods in life, such as adolescence and adulthood. Therefore, the following section addresses parenting and its specific challenges in middle childhood.

2.1.2. Parenting in Middle Childhood

Between the ages of 5 and 12, corresponding to the elementary school years, is defined as middle childhood (Santrock, 2020). This period of life is manifested by an increase in children's problem solving and information processing skills, and the capacity to act more independently in organizing tasks, plans, and goals (Collins & Madsen, 2019). With schooling, many socio-emotional changes occur in this period. For example, children's relationships with parents and peers change, their self-conceptions begin to form, moral reasoning develops, and the capacity of understanding of self and others increases (Santrock, 2020). This period is also important for the development of self-efficacy and self-regulation (Santrock, 2018). All these changes and developments experienced in this period mean new developmental tasks that need to be accomplished for both children and their families.

Although parents spend relatively less time with their children in middle childhood (Wei et al., 2019), they continue to provide guidance and supervision (Hudson & Ripke, 2006). On the other hand, besides regular challenges in parenting, such as doing chores, bedtime routines, sibling fights, and temper tantrums (Rasmussen, 2014); parents face additional responsibilities during middle childhood since children enter a wider social context: schools (Collins & Madsen, 2019). For example, parents need to monitor and supervise their children in an extended social context and different settings (e.g., schools, home, recreational settings) and communicate more with non-familial adults. In addition, parents may need to arrange extra activities after-school or in summer to facilitate peer relationships and social development (Collins & Madsen, 2019). Hence, parents are required to take a social initiator role in this stage of development (Santrock, 2020).

Parents have an important role in helping their children cope with challenges related to the school environment, such as academic success (Coleman & Karraker, 2000). Effective parental supervision and encouragement in a child's academic effort improve

the child's academic success (Lemberger & Krauss, 2013; Santrock, 2020). Indeed, various research studies demonstrated that greater parental encouragement is linked with student academic achievement (Steinberg et al.,1992). In this sense, parents need to provide guidance to children for connectedness and cooperation in school as well as provide encouragement and motivation for learning to achieve academic goals (Lemberger & Krauss, 2013). Parents during this developmental stage also need to undertake to take a management role for establishing routines (e.g., homework, chores, bedtime) which is important for enhancing the child's responsibility, self-regulation, and self-management skills (Rasmussen, 2014; Santrock, 2018). Since parental guidance has been found to be linked with less screen time and safe use of the internet (Santrock, 2020), parents also have additional responsibilities such as providing supervision for safe and responsible use of media (Collins & Madsen, 2019).

Moreover, according to Erikson's (1950) theory of human development, the crucial task in middle childhood is developing a sense of industry, that is, learning the basic skills needed for adult life. If children are allowed to explore, try new things, and solve problems without too much parental intervention, and encouraged in their efforts, their sense of industry improves (Bettner, 2020; Erikson & Erikson, 1997; Hudson & Ripke, 2006). However, if parents perceive their children's efforts to build things as "mischief", give negative feedback, and discourage the child, a feeling of inadequacy arises. The child feels a sense of inferiority which turns out feelings of despair in becoming an unproductive individual in adulthood (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964; Hudson & Ripke, 2006; Santrock, 2018). Erikson's developmental concept of "industry vs. inferiority" is parallel with Adlerian premises of "feelings of inferiority" and "striving for superiority" in compensation for inferiority. Thus, parents need to provide their children with environments where they can improve their productivity, and encourage them to gain feelings of industry, especially in middle childhood which is a critical stage for gaining feelings of competence. Similarly, Lew and Bettner (2005) suggested that children need to meet their *Crucial C's*. The Crucial C's include *connect* (relating with others and feelings of belonging), *capable* (feeling competent, self-sufficient, and

independent), *count* (feeling significant), and *courage* (feeling courageous to connect, capable and count, and having courage when facing with defeat and disappointment, that is, "imperfections") (Bettner, 2020; Lew, 2021; Rasmussen & Schuyler, 2020). In middle childhood, children need to feel being connected with their peers and teachers in the school, being counted as a significant and contributing member of school community, feeling capable through self-regulation, success, and independence, and lastly need to be encouraged to feel connected, capable, and count (Lemberger & Krauss, 2013; Lew 2021). As a result, considering the developmental needs in middle childhood and the role of parents, it is seen how these needs and parental functions are related with the basic premises of the Adlerian approach as social interest and connectedness, contribution, responsibility, striving for competence, self-regulation, and encouragement.

Parents fulfill the aforementioned responsibilities and facilitate their children's development through parenting styles and parenting behaviors that parents perform in the parent-child relationship. Positive parenting behaviors involving responsiveness, emotional support, clear communication, and encouraging a child's independence, have been shown to facilitate the healthy development of children. Conversely, negative parenting behaviors including punitive discipline, hostility, rejection, shaming, restrictiveness, or permissiveness have detrimental effects on child adjustment and hinder healthy development (Baumrind, 1966, 1996, 2013; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Lansford, 2019; Santrock, 2020). Hence, parenting styles and parenting practices will be discussed in the next section.

2.1.3. Parenting Styles and Parenting Practices

Parenting behaviors are the most important and direct effect on children's development and well-being (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Raising children in a warm, loving, nurturing environment contribute to the healthy development of current and future life success; on the other hand, raising children with coercive parenting may lead to

academic failure, abuse and neglect, and physical, emotional, and behavioral disorders (Santrock, 2018; Santrock, 2020). For decades, studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of parenting behavior on the development of children, and various models have been developed to describe parental attitudes and behaviors. Especially since the 1960s, when Baumrind conceptualized her influential model of parenting styles, research has been focused on conceptualizing the different strategies that parents performed to produce desired child behaviors (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Smetana, 2017).

Baumrind (1966, 1996, 2013) suggested three types of parenting styles as authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive in which each style is characterized by a combination of two dimensions as parental sensitivity and demandingness (Baumrind, 2013; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). In this conceptualization, each parenting style is categorized as one of these dimensions is high level and the other is low level. For instance, the authoritarian parenting style is considered as high control, high demandingness, and low engagement with the child. Authoritarian parenting includes intrusive parenting behaviors and involves firm rules that do not allow children to participate in their own decision-making processes. Authoritative parenting involves high control and high responsiveness and is characterized by consistent and non-punitive discipline practices, acceptance, and responsiveness to the child’s needs (Baumrind, 2013). Permissive parenting includes high responsiveness and low control. In permissive parenting warmth and acceptance are emphasized, yet low control or guidance is provided. In this approach, parents often have inconsistent expectations and responses to the children’s behavior (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Prior to Baumrind's conceptualization, in the Adlerian child-rearing model, parental warmth and love with non-punitive parental discipline and supervision were emphasized. Indeed, Alfred Adler, and one of his early students and colleagues, Rudolph Dreikurs were foremost advocates of democratic parenting (Peluso, 2018).

According to Adler, strict authoritarian parenting robs children's courage and leads children to see themselves as helpless or worthless (Kottmann & Heston, 2012). Also, in the Adlerian view, like today's *helicopter parenting*, pampered or over-protected children who are closely monitored, and problems are solved by the parent, also fail to develop courage (Kottman & Heston, 2012). With respect to Adler's view, Dreikurs (1964) emphasized the importance of warm, responsive, and cooperative parenting with setting clear boundaries (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018; Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964). He identified three parenting styles as democratic, authoritarian/disciplinarian, and permissive (Gfroerer, et al., 2004). Within this frame, his classification holds many similarities with Baumrind's parenting styles (Gfroerer et al., 2011; McVittie & Best, 2009). The democratic style reflects parenting that includes order and freedom and teaches the child mutual respect, responsibility, and cooperation (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018; Gfroerer, et al., 2013). In Adlerian parenting, the democratic approach is defined as more functional in contrast to autocratic parenting which involves order without freedom, and "laissez-faire" style permissive parenting involves freedom without order (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018). Therefore, Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting includes parenting styles and behaviors that emphasize love, acceptance, and warmth, as well as mutual respect, responsibility, and cooperation.

Although parenting styles describe certain parenting attitudes and beliefs, these models do not take into account specific parenting behaviors (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). In line with this frame, Darling and Steinberg (1993) made a distinction between parenting style and parental practices. They defined parenting style as a "constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and create an emotional climate in which the parent's behaviors are expressed." (p. 493). On the other hand, parenting practices were defined as "parenting behaviors defined by specific content and socialization goals" (p. 492). In this context, while parenting styles reflect broader behavior patterns and emotional climate, parenting practices reflect specific parenting behaviors, such as discipline strategies, connection methods, parental involvement, and monitoring (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Darling and

Steinberg (1993) argued that parenting practices have a direct influence on child developmental outcomes. In contrast, parenting style has an indirect effect on child developmental outcomes through moderating the relationship between parenting practices and developmental outcomes, and the child's openness to parental influence.

Parenting disciplinary practices are one of the dimensions of parental behaviors and are defined as the parental practices that are elicited to teach children the rules and appropriate behaviors. Since parenting disciplinary practices are one of the dependent variables in this study, they are discussed in the next section, the conceptualization of variables. Moreover, Adlerian parenting behaviors and parenting disciplinary practices are mentioned in detail in the third section, under the subheadings of Adlerian Parenting Concepts and Positive Discipline Parenting Program. At this point, understanding how parenting behaviors occur, which factors determine parental attitudes and behaviors can give clues about how these behaviors can be improved. Therefore, the next heading explains the theoretical framework regarding the determinants of parenting behaviors.

2.1.4. Determinants of Parenting Behaviors

According to Bornstein and Bornstein (2007), multiple factors construct and shape parenting behaviors. These factors involve evolution, history, biology, family configuration, social support, educational and governmental institutions, SES, and culture (Bornstein & Bornstein, 2007). Continuing interactions between biological factors and contextual and cultural factors determine parenting behaviors (Sanders & Turner, 2018). During the last decades, some theoretical models developed to understand these factors (Abidin, 1992). Within the scope of this study, Belsky's (1984) parenting model is introduced.

According to Belsky's (1984) Process Model of the Determinants of Parenting, parenting is influenced by several stresses or support resources. Belsky (1984)

proposed three domains that influence parenting: (1) the parents' personal characteristics and psychological resources, (2) the child's characteristics and, (3) contextual sources of stress and support. Each of these domain influences both parenting, and through parenting, the child's development (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006). Interaction between factors and process is displayed in Figure 2.1.

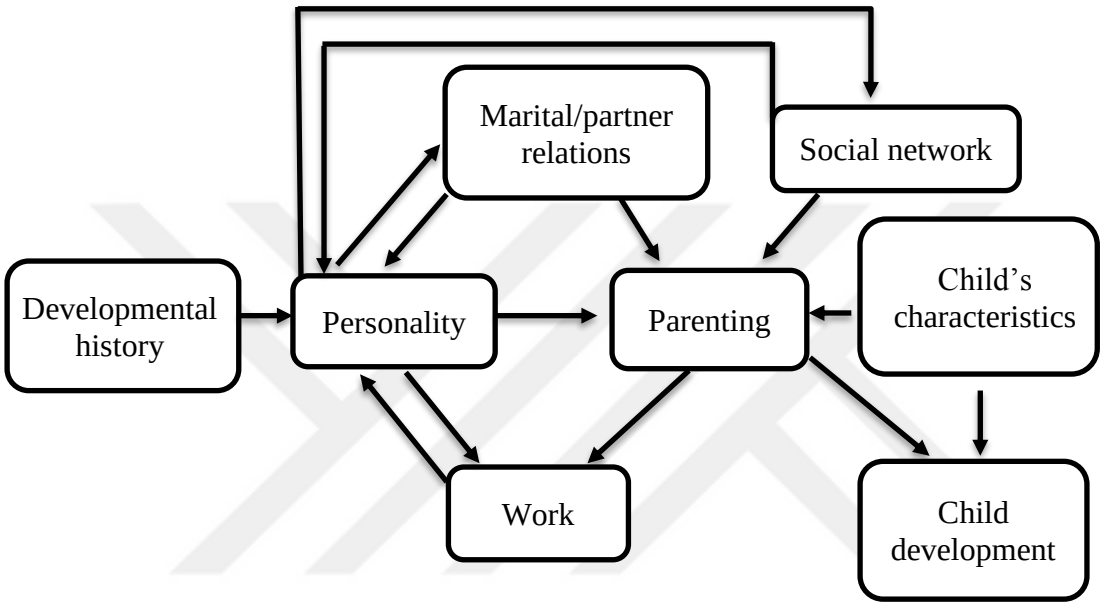

Figure 2.1. The process model of the determinants of parenting (Belsky, 1984).

As it can be seen in the figure, parental factors involve the developmental history of the parents (e.g., family of origin, attachment style), personality traits, and their psychological functioning. Child characteristics involve the child's temperament, behavior, and gender. Contextual factors represent contextual stress or support resources that include marital/partner relational quality, social networks, and occupational experiences of parents (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006). The interplay between these domains, the combination of the factors, and the processes shape parental functioning and behavior. For instance, parents' developmental history and social support impact their personality and psychological well-being, thereby, through their personality, parental functioning and behaviors are influenced and, in turn, impact the

child's development (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006). According to Belsky (1984), among the three domains, parents' personality factors is the most prominent factor in a child's development since personality affects parenting both directly and indirectly through social contextual factors such as marital relationships, friendships, etc. Belsky (1984) indicated that parents' current support and stress is the second most important domain in parenting.

Belsky's (1984) systemic model is quite compatible with Adlerian theory which emphasized the impact of systemic factors affecting parents' and the child's personality as, family constellation, culture, and gender on personality. In Adler's phenomenological approach, individuals are at the core of living systems in which they both affect and are affected by these systems (Bitter, 2012; Peluso, 2018). In addition, the Adlerian approach defines work, social, and love tasks in adult life and suggests that each task influences each other and parenting as well (Rasmussen, 2014; Sweeney, 2009).

In the present study, three factors from Belsky's model constitute the dependent variables of the research: parental self-efficacy (in the parent's domain), parental stress, and parent training programs (one of the sources of social support). Therefore, in the next section, each of these factors will be defined, the relationship among them will be examined and the relevant research findings will be mentioned.

2.2. Conceptualization of Variables of the Study

This section includes the definitions of parenting disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy, theoretical models regarding these variables, the associations between variables, and related studies.

2.2.1. Parenting Disciplinary Practices

Parenting disciplinary practices are one of the areas within a broader range of parenting behaviors. Parenting disciplinary practices can be defined as (1) parent's efforts to teach their children how to behave in desired ways and to effectively encourage appropriate child behavior and (2) parents' responses to the child's already occurred misbehavior, or efforts to prevent possible misbehavior (Lansford, 2019; O'Leary, 1995). Although parental discipline is defined in parenting practices, *parenting style,* the overall climate of the parent-child relationship, influences how children receive and react to particular forms of discipline (Rudolph et al., 2016). For instance, if the overall climate of the parent–child relationship is loving and accepting rather than hostile or neglectful, children will be more motivated to compliance their parents' discipline attempts (Lansford, 2019).

Parenting disciplinary practices are classified as effective and ineffective (O'Leary 1995). Effective parental discipline is characterized by being proactive rather than reactive, setting clear rules, helping children understand the effects of their actions on other people, and avoiding corporal punishment (Arnold et al., 1993; Lansford, 2019; Locke & Prinz, 2002; Rhoades & O'Leary, 2007). On the other hand, ineffective parenting disciplinary practices which are also defined as "dysfunctional", "maladaptive" or "inept", are characterized by setting unclear rules, reinforcing inappropriate behaviors, using harsh physical punishment, and inconsistent discipline (Locke & Prinz, 2002).

Arnold et al. (1993) defined three types of dysfunctional parental disciplinary practices called "overreactivity", "laxness" and "verbosity". Overreactive parenting, which is parallel to authoritarian parenting, includes power assertion, anger, and punitive disciplines such as scolding, yelling, threats, and spanking. Lax parenting, which is parallel to permissive parenting, involves inconsistent discipline, not applying rules, and giving in to a child's demands. Verbosity includes long verbal responses to

misbehavior even when talking is ineffective (Arnold et al., 1993; Rhoades & O'Leary, 2007). Dysfunctional practices result in cycles that worsen a child's misbehavior (Sanders & Woolley, 2005). Although parenting style and positive parenting behaviors are mostly stable concepts, dysfunctional parent discipline practices may vary according to the age and developmental stage of the child (Lansford, 2019; Santrock, 2020). For instance, parents use less physical discipline in elementary school children than in preschool children; instead, they tend to use negative expressions, punishment, or withdrawal of privileges in middle childhood (Santrock, 2020).

Numerous research in the literature indicated that parenting styles, parenting practices, and parental disciplinary strategies are related to better or worse child outcomes. Within the scope of the current study, associations between effective/ineffective parental disciplinary strategies and positive/negative child outcomes will be exemplified.

Studies indicated that effective disciplinary strategies involving responsiveness, monitoring, support, and supervision are positively related to a child's positive development. For instance, academic motivation, competence, and success (Pinquart, 2016; Pomerantz & Grolnick, 2017); prosocial behavior, empathy, and moral development (Eisenberg et al., 2019; Eisenberg, & Valiente, 2002; Smetana et al., 2019; Spinrad et al., 2019); self-regulation (Grolnick et al., 2019); positive peer relations (Castro-Schilo et al., 2013; Healy et al., 2015), and child's self-esteem (Pinquart, & Gerke, 2019). Conversely, overreactive, hostile, or lax disciplinary strategies are found to be associated with emotional, social, and behavioral problems. For example, children's disruptive behavior (Salari et al., 2014), internalizing behaviors (Lansford et al., 2014a, 2014b) externalizing behaviors (Gershoff & Grogan-Kaylor 2016; Gershoff et al., 2018; Lansford et al., 2014a, 2014b; Prinzie et al., 2010), adjustment problems (van den Akker et al., 2010), violence and antisocial behavior (Gershoff, 2013) bullying and being bullied at school (Healy et al.,2015; Lereya et al.,2013), and child abuse and neglect (Lee et al., 2014).

Considering all these research results indicating the long-term and short-term effects of parenting disciplinary practices on children's welfare, it is understood how important the implementation of appropriate disciplinary strategies by parents is in the healthy psycho-social development of children. On the other hand, As O'Leary stated (1995) many parents make discipline mistakes, and they need to learn effective discipline practices. Like most things, better parenting practices can be gained and modified through education (Bornstein & Bornstein, 2007). For instance, Morawska, Winter and Sanders (2009) conducted a study with 68 parents of children 2 to 5 years of age found that more knowledge of effective parenting discipline strategies was associated with less use of dysfunctional discipline strategies.

Parents receive parenting information from a variety of sources such as other parents, parenting books, parenting videos, media, their own experiences, and parenting programs (Bornstein & Bornstein, 2007). Among these resources, parenting programs are the most important source of information. A study conducted by Ateah (2003) showed that parenting programs, rather than other sources, are the most effective way to obtain information about effective parental discipline strategies. Consequently, it can be stated that parents can learn effective discipline strategies through structured parenting programs. As a matter of fact, since one of the main purposes of parenting programs is to teach parents the right discipline strategies, although their theoretical foundations, delivery methods, and contents differ, many studies show that parenting programs reduce negative discipline practices and improve positive discipline practices (Breitenstein et al., 2012; Durrant et al., 2014; Enebrink et al., 2015; Gross et al., 2009; Letarte et al., 2010; Pinquart, & Kauser, 2018; Sanders et al., 2012; Wittkowski et al., 2017; Yap et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2017). Examples of the research findings that parent education improves effective parenting discipline are given under the heading of the interrelationship among variables.

2.2.2. Parenting Stress

Stress refers to any environmental or internal demand which requires the individual to readjust (Thoits, 1995). Environmental changes or threats disrupt the inner balance of the organism and lead to stress responses (Baltaş & Baltaş, 2021). According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), stress is a universal condition that occurs when the physical and psychological boundaries of the organism are threatened, and defenses of the organism maintain the existing balance against any change from outside or inside. In the literature, the concept of stress is studied in different ways by focusing on different points and domains in life. Thoits (1995) stated that stress studied in three domains: (1) life events that require major adaptation (e.g., the birth of the first child), (2) chronic stress that requires readjustments over prolonged time (e.g., illness, poverty, or parenting problems), and (3) daily stress sources (e.g., traffic jam). In addition, the concept of stress has been studied in different domains in life, such as health, romantic or social relations, work-related issues, and parenting (Thoits, 2010). Parenting stress is related to the difficulties encountered in the parenting role (Dunning & Giallo, 2012). According to Lazarus (1966), stress is not originated solely from the individual or the environment, rather, stress is a product of the interaction between the individual and the environment (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In this sense, parenting stress arises from the demands that their children and the environment expect from parents (Abidin, 1992). Parenting stress is not exceptional, rather, a universal concept that to some degree all parents experience regardless of parents' and children's characteristics, socioeconomic conditions, and support networks (Daeter-Deckard, 1998).

Daeter-Deckard (2008) defined parenting stress as a "set of processes lead to aversive psychological and physiological reactions arising from attempts to adapt to the demands of parenthood (p. 6)". In this sense, parenting stress arises when parents' perceptions of the parenting role demands and accessibility and availability of resources for meeting these demands are not matched (Daeter-Deckard, 2008).

Parenting demands include meeting a child's needs (e.g., survival, emotional, social needs, etc.), while resources involve income, parental knowledge, parental competence, and support from other people or institutions (Deater-Deckard & Scarr, 1996). Deater-Deckard and Panneton (2017) grouped common sources of stress under three main headings: lack of contextual and social resources (e.g., lack of economic resources and social support), psychological dispositions (e.g., characteristics of the parents), and characteristics of the child (e.g., extra needs of a child with special needs).

In explaining parenting stress, there are some theories prominent in the literature. Daeter-Deckard (2008) was identified two predominant approaches in the conceptualization of parenting stress: "The Daily Hassles Theory" and "Parent- Child-Relationship (P-C-R) Theory". Daily hassles theory focuses on daily stressors of parenting and coping with the day-to-day stressors (e.g., child's minor misbehavior or work-family conflict). As Lazarus and Folkman indicated (1984), effective coping strategies cause positive long-term outcomes, whereas ineffective coping strategies produce negative long-term outcomes. Daily hassles usually do not produce significant levels of stress, however, the accumulation of these minor stressful events or increased number of daily difficulties may cause mental health and well-being problems in parents (Crnic & Low, 2002). As a result, in the daily hassles theory stress arises as to the consequence of the overwhelming environmental stressors and individual's ineffective coping strategies.

The P-C-R Theory of parenting stress, on the other hand, explains parenting stress within three domains and the interrelations among these domains. These domains are the "parent" domain (parenting stress arises from the parent such as parents' depression), the "child" domain (parenting stress arises from the child's behavior such as child's externalizing problems), and the "parent-child relationship" domain (parenting stress arises from the parent-child relationship such as parent-child conflict) (Daeter-Deckard, 2008). The P-C-R theory proposes that there is a bidirectional

relationship among the parent, the child, and the parent-child relationship domains. For example, the parent's mental health problem (e.g., depression) may lead to negative parenting and may increase parental stress. At the same time, children's behavioral and emotional problems may escalate parental stress and parental depression. Finally, in the parent-child relationship, a negative parent-child interaction may generate tension, which may further escalate parental stress and depression (Deater-Deckard, 2008).

Belsky's (1984) Process Model discussed earlier is one of the P-C-R models of parenting stress. Abidin (1992) developed Belsky's process model and provided an integrative model including developmental, behavioral, sociological, and environmental variables (Abidin, 1992). Since addressing the components of the complex systems of causes and consequences of parenting stress within a broader framework, in the current study, the conceptualization of parenting stress by Abidin (1992) was chosen as the theoretical framework.

According to Abidin (1992), parenting stress emerges as a result of a parent's assessment of his/her role as a parent in the current context (Abidin, 1992). Figure 2.2 displays the determinants of parenting.

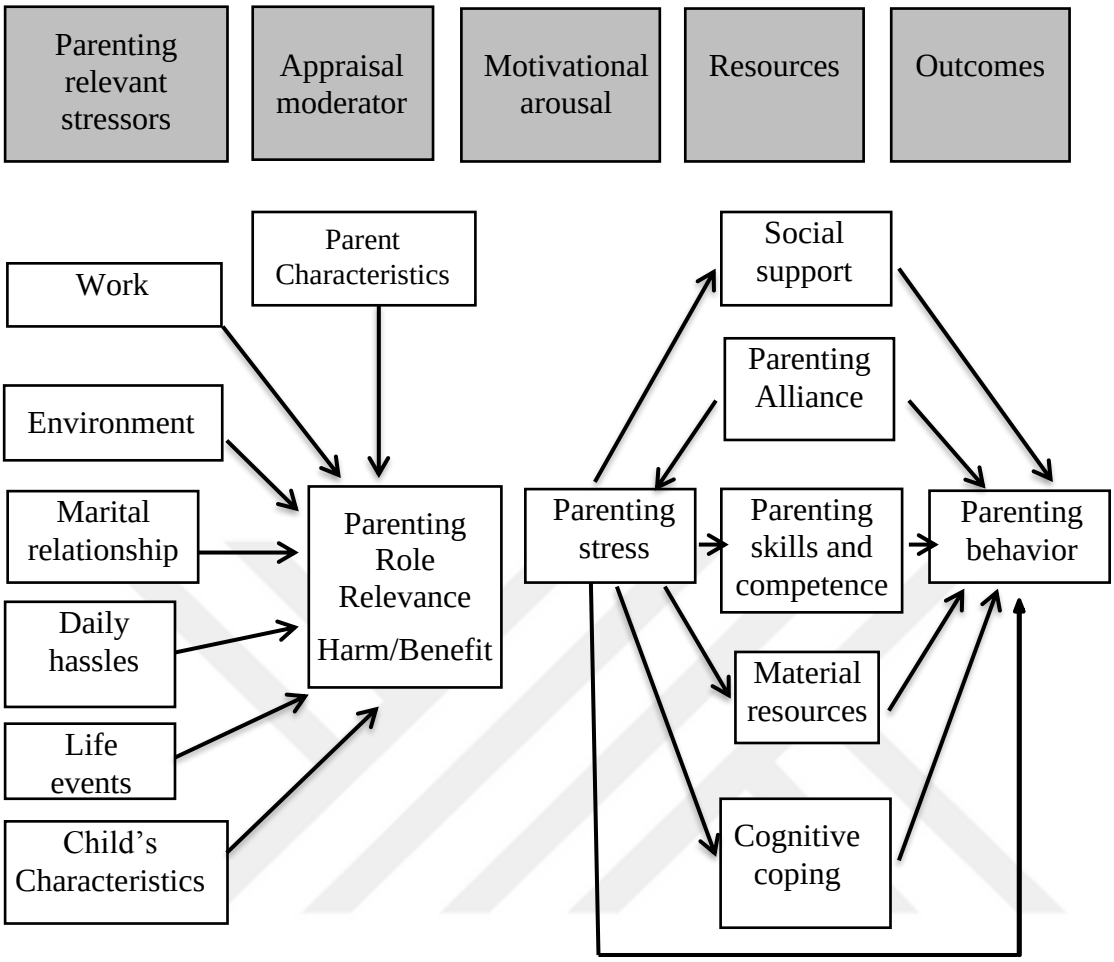

Figure 2.2. The determinants of parenting (Abidin, 1992).

As can be seen in the figure, besides the characteristics of parents and children; work, the environment, marital relationship, and general life events have an impact on parental stress. Parents evaluated the stressors and the stress level, and then interpret the harms or benefits they encounter. Parents' negative evaluation of the events causes higher stress (Abidin, 1992). Parents use social support, cooperation, parenting skills, material resources, and cognitive coping skills to cope with the stressors. At the end of this process, parenting behavior emerges as the outcome. Hence, the parenting behaviors are formed by the transactional relationship among parenting stressors, parents' appraisal about stress, parenting stress, and parenting resources to cope with the stress (Abidin, 1992).

In this model, parenting stress is also regarded as a motivational variable that encourages parents to apply the resources to support their parenting (Abidin, 1992). Depending on external resources and parents' skills, stress results in effective coping or difficulties in coping. In line with the theory, parents' resources and social support are two important resources in coping with stress. Having social support is a protective shield and a fundamental coping resource against stress (Curlette & Kern, 2010; Thoits, 1995).

Social support functions in parenting by providing emotional support, instrumental support, and by providing social expectation (Belsky, 1984; Belsky & Jaffee, 2006). Emotional support involves love and acceptance from others, instrumental support includes information, advice, and assistance provided by others, and finally, social expectations provide guidance about appropriate parenting behaviors (Belsky, 1984). Social support consists of both informal support systems (e.g., family, friends, neighbors, colleagues) and formal ones (e.g., professionals and parenting programs) (Bornstein & Bornstein, 2007). Within this frame, parent training programs may provide emotional support through encouragement; may give instrumental support through teaching parenting knowledge and skills; and may guide about social expectations about functional parental discipline and child-rearing strategies.

Many studies in the literature indicated that parenting programs support parents in coping with stress. For instance, Gross and her colleagues (1995) conducted a study with 46 parents to examine the effect of a 10-week parenting program on parenting self-efficacy, depression, parenting stress, and the parent-child relationship. Results showed that the program significantly decreased maternal stress. Similarly, Tucker et al. (1998) evaluated the long-term effectiveness of a parenting program on maternal stress and the quality of mother–toddler interactions. At 1-year post-intervention, improvements in maternal stress, and the quality of mother-child interactions were retained. In a study by Bloomfield and Kendall (2012) the effect of a six-week parenting program on parenting self-efficacy, parenting stress, and child behavior was

evaluated with a sample of 58 elementary school parents. The findings indicated that the parenting stress of the intervention group significantly decreased. Likewise, Yap et al. (2014) tested the effectiveness of a 5-week parent training program with 1,021 parents with children aged 1 to 12 years old in Singapore. Results suggested that parents who participated in the parenting program rated themselves as significantly less stressed, less depressed, less anxious, and more confident, and satisfied after attending the program. The findings were retained at 3-months follow up.

In addition to social support provided with parenting programs, another important dimension emphasized by both Abidin's and Belsky's models in coping with parental stress is parents' evaluation of their parenting role competencies, that is parental self-efficacy. Therefore, in the next section, the self-efficacy concept and parenting self-efficacy will be discussed.

2.2.3. Parenting Self-efficacy

The self-efficacy concept is grounded in Social Cognitive Theory, which posits a reciprocal interaction between the people, their behavior, and the environment (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as; ''beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments'' (p. 3).

Bandura proposed that (1977), people with a higher self-efficacy set higher goals, exert greater perseverance and effort, are worried less about failure, and show greater resilience in the face of failures and setbacks. In contrast, people with lower self-efficacy beliefs for a particular assignment tend to avoid the assignment or give up easily, show less effort and persistence, and lower resiliency in the face of obstacles and adversities (Bandura, 1997; 1982; Glatz & Trifan, 2019; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Kendall & Bloomfield, 2005). Consequently, it can be stated that self-efficacy belief is a powerful indicator of engaging in a particular behavior and a strong predictor of

success (Bandura, 1995). Through affecting cognition, emotion, and behavior, self-efficacy beliefs increase people's confidence in completing a task successfully and influence their aspiration, motivation, and achievement in diverse areas in their lives (Bandura, 1995; Jones, 2006; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Wittkowski et al., 2017).

Self-efficacy perceptions operate at a global and domain-specific level in individuals (Dumka et al., 2010). Global self-efficacy refers to individuals' general beliefs about being capable of completing any given task without reference to specific tasks (Dumka et al., 2010; Sanders & Woolley, 2005). Domain-specific self-efficacy refers to an individual's self-efficacy perceptions within a particular domain, such as physical ability, work competency, academic achievement, or health (Dumka et al., 2010). The self-efficacy construct was applied in the parenting domain as well, and many studies have been conducted on parenting self-efficacy (Coleman & Karraker, 1998).

Jones and Prinz (2005) defined parenting self-efficacy as "the expectation that caregivers hold about their ability to parent successfully" (p. 342). Parenting self-efficacy is an important cognitive construct, which determines parenting practices, and child and family functioning (Bandura, 1997; Bandura et al., 2011). Parents' belief in their ability to be successful in the parenting role is one of the most crucial components of the quality and sustainability of parenting behaviors (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006). Parents with greater self-efficacy tend to judge situations as less challenging and have more confidence that they can resolve difficulties (Bloomfield, & Kendall, 2012). Thus, parents with higher self-efficacy tend to persist in engaging in parental responsibilities until success is attained (Teti & Gelfand, 1991). On the other hand, parents with lower parenting self-efficacy feel overwhelmed by their parental responsibilities and tend to avoid the emotional and physical responsibilities of parenthood (Coleman, & Karraker, 1998).

Numerous findings in the literature have shown that parenting self-efficacy impacts the quality of parenting, children's well-being, healthy development, and parental

well-being. According to the research results, higher parenting self-efficacy is found to be associated with; authoritative parenting, positive parenting practices, and less use of coercive discipline and physical punishment (Aranda, 2013; Celada, 2010; Coleman & Karraker, 1998; Glatz & Buchanan, 2015; Glatz et al., 2017; Gross et al., 1995; Sanders & Mazzucchelli, 2013; Sanders & Woolley, 2005), and less overreactive, lax or hostile parental disciplinary practices (Gross et al., 1999; Sanders & Woolley, 2005).

Higher parenting self-efficacy is not only related to positive parents' behaviors but also, through parenting practices, related to positive child outcomes. Parents with higher parenting self-efficacy engage in promotive parenting strategies including encouragement, parental involvement, and proactive prevention; and as a result of these strategies, children's academic, and psycho-social development are affected positively (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; Glatz & Buchanan, 2021; Schungel & Oosterman, 2019). For instance, higher parenting self-efficacy is positively correlated with parental involvement in a child's school activities and child's academic success (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Shumow & Lomax, 2002), child's career aspiration (Bandura et al., 1996, 2001), less child behavior problems (Gross et al., 1995, 2003), and less externalizing behaviors (Mouton et al., 2018). A considerable amount of research evidence demonstrated that parenting self-efficacy also mediates the links between risk and protective factors and parents' mental health and well-being (Schuengel & Oosterman, 2019). For example, parenting self-efficacy was found to be linked with; greater parenting satisfaction (Coleman & Karraker, 2000), quality of family functioning and family life satisfaction (Bandura et al., 2011), less parental depression (Teti & Gelfand, 1991; Teti et al., 1996), and less parenting anxiety and stress (Dalumpines; 2005; Giallo et al., 2013; Kunseler et al., 2014).

2.2.3.1. Development of Parenting Self-efficacy Beliefs

According to Bandura (1977, 1982, 1997) self-efficacy beliefs is originated from three sources of information: (1) performance attainments, (2) vicarious experiences, (3) verbal persuasion and, (4) emotional arousal. The sources of self-efficacy can be applied to the parenting domain as follows:

Performance attainments: The primary source of parenting self-efficacy is the actual experiences of parents with their children (Pennell et al., 2012). In this sense, being more experienced as a parent and having more positive interactions with the child improve parenting self-efficacy. First, parenting experience improves with age, and having multiple children, since having more experiences in parenting may improve parenting self-efficacy (Vance, Pan, Malcolm & Brandon, 2020). Consistent with this assumption, research findings have revealed that parenting self-efficacy increased gradually after birth (Biehle & Mickelson, 2011; Porter & Hsu, 2003). Second, parents' age and the number of children they had been related to parenting self-efficacy, for instance, parents with more than one child were found to have higher parenting self-efficacy (Leahy-Warren & McCarthy, 2011; Vance et al., 2020).

In addition, the quality of the parent-child relationship impacts parenting self-efficacy. Parent-child relations and feedback obtained from these relations provide parents with information about their competency, and then these feedbacks impact parents' perceptions about their capability to manage the challenges of parenting (Coleman & Karrakker, 1998). As parents gain more positive parenting experiences, they are more likely to perceive themselves as more competent and develop higher levels of parenting self-efficacy (Kwok & Wong, 2000). For example, Sanders and Woolley (2005) conducted a study among mothers who were referred to parenting programs because of child's problematic behavior (e.g., disobedience, noncompliance) and mothers from the general population. The results indicated that the clinical group has lower self-efficacy than the general population group. Similarly, Demirtaş-Zorbaz (2018) examined the predictive role of the quality of the parent-child relationship

(conflict with children and positive relationship with children) on parental self-efficacy with a sample of 208 parents. The results of multiple regression analysis revealed that conflict with children and positive relationships with children predicted parental self-efficacy significantly and, positive relationships indicated higher self-efficacy.

Vicarious learning: In addition to mastery experiences, modeling other people's successful performances can also increase self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). The effect of vicarious learning on a person's self-efficacy depends on the characteristics of the person being modeled, so the more similar the features of the model to the observer, the more it contributes to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982). Consistent with the theory, modeling one's own parents' behaviors or other parents' behaviors is another major source of parenting self-efficacy (Coleman & Karrakker, 1998; Wittkowski et al., 2017).

Verbal persuasion consists of other peoples' positive feedback that the person will be successful in completing particular tasks (Schungel & Oosterman, 2019). However, verbal persuasion is viewed as a relatively weak source in changing parental self-efficacy, since other people's opinions are less convicting than one's own experiences (Cassé et al., 2015; Schungel & Oosterman, 2019). For instance, in a study conducted by Cassé et al. (2015) with 55 parents, in which random half of the participants were told that they are mastered interpreting their baby's crying and would be successful on the following task, while the other half were told that their skill was low. Results yielded that parent who received positive feedback reported higher parenting self-efficacy than those who had negative feedback. However, follow-up results indicated that positive persuasion heightened the parenting self-efficacy only in the short term, that verbal persuasion is not powerful enough to create long-lasting changes in parenting self-efficacy.

Physiological state and emotional arousal: Positive emotions, such as excitement while performing a particular task, lead to positive expectations about successful performances, whereas negative emotions, such as stress or anger, lead to lower performance expectancies (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (1982) indicated that stressful events may cause negative emotional arousal, which in turn influences a person's self-efficacy. In line with the theory, there are many studies indicated that negative events, daily hassles, and parenting stress are correlated with low parenting self-efficacy (deMaat et al., 2021; Dunning & Giallo, 2012; Sevigny & Loutzenhiser; 2010)

As Bandura stated, self-efficacy is not a fixed personality trait but a dynamic process (Bandura, 1997), that can be modified through external and internal factors (Sanders & Woolley, 2005). In this sense, as an external resource, parenting programs may help parents improve parenting self-efficacy beliefs (Wittkowski et al., 2017). Although there are some differences in their content and focus, in general, parenting programs are delivered in a group-based format, including parenting information, video vignettes or role-plays, modeling, and group discussion (Sanders & Woolley, 2005). These elements in a parenting program address all four sources of parental self-efficacy identified by Bandura (1977; 1995): mastery performance, vicarious learning, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal.

First of all, in addition to parenting information, parenting programs include active skill training that parent can experience mastery performance (Bloomfield & Kendall, 2007; Sanders & Mazzucchelli, 2013; Sanders & Wolley, 2005). Parents practice new behaviors and skills by rehearsing and receiving feedback from the facilitator and other group members. Moreover, not only in-session practices but also, parents may experience performance attainments between sessions through homework assignments (Wittkowski et al., 2016). Second, the group process provides parents with vicarious learning opportunities by watching video sketches or observing and modeling other parents' performances (Sanders & Woolley, 2005). Third, verbal persuasion may take place in the group setting since parents receive positive feedback and encouragement

for their strengths and successful performances (Wittkowski et al., 2017). Finally, group settings provide an environment in which positive expectations of parents about their successful performance increase, so that positive emotions arise as they perform a particular parenting task (Wittkowski et al., 2016).

Consequently, parenting programs provide parents with an opportunity to improve their parenting self-efficacy through all four sources of self-efficacy. Several studies in the literature have shown that parenting self-efficacy can be modified through parenting interventions (Albanese et al., 2019; Barlow et al., 2011; Bloomfield & Kendall, 2007; Glatz & Buchanan 2021; Sanders & Woolley, 2005; Wittkowski et al., 2017; Yap et al., 2019). In one of these studies, Bloomfield and Kendall (2007) collected data from 356 parents of children from 6 months to 10 years who have attended 53 parenting programs. Results suggested that after attending parenting programs, parents perceived themselves as more efficacious in their parenting role, and an increase in parenting self-efficacy was maintained at four-month follow-up.

Considering parenting models discussed in the previous sections and the studies in the literature, it can be stated that there are reciprocal relationships among parental disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy. Based on the findings in the literature, these variables influence each other or are influenced by each other directly or as mediators. Research findings on the interaction between parental disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy are included in the following heading.

2.2.4. Interaction among Parenting Practices, Parenting Stress, and Parenting Self-efficacy

The relations among parenting stress, parental self-efficacy, and parenting practices are linked in reciprocal and transactional ways (Crnic & Ross, 2017; Schungel & Oosterman, 2019).

First, in both parenting models proposed by Belsky (1984) and by Abidin (1992), parental self-efficacy provides parents with the ability to maintain quality parenting in challenges and adverse circumstances, that is, represents a source of coping. On the other hand, higher parenting stress generates negative emotions and doubt about one's parenting and decreases parenting self-efficacy (Crnic & Ross, 2017). Much research in the literature confirmed that while self-efficacy increases, levels of parenting stress decrease, and vice versa (Jones & Prinz, 2005; Sevigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010). For instance, Dunning and Giallo (2012) examined the link between fatigue, parenting stress, parenting self-efficacy, and parenting satisfaction with the sample of 1022 Australian mothers of preschool children. Path analysis revealed that parenting stress was negatively related to parenting efficacy, and parenting stress mediated the relationship between fatigue and parenting self-efficacy. Similarly, Dalumpines (2005) tested the mediating effect of parenting self-efficacy on parenting stressors and parenting outcomes with 104 parents of children 6-12 years of age. Results indicated that parenting self-efficacy played a mediating role in the perception of stressors and the utilization of resources of parenting. Moreover, parenting self-efficacy is an important resource, especially in stressful situations. As Coleman and Karraker (1998) stated, ''under duress, self-efficacy exerts a greater influence on parenting quality'' (p. 62). In stressful environmental conditions, the need for parental resources increases since the parental coping capacity reduces. At this point, parenting self-efficacy represents a protective role. Accordingly, the global pandemic caused by the Covid-19 virus (WHO, 2020) is generated great adversity for parents and increased parenting stress all around the world (Prime et al., 2020). Nevertheless, it was found that parents with higher self-efficacy coped better with stress during the pandemic. For instance, Moscardino et al. (2021), conducted a study with a sample of parents of first-grade children (n = 89) during the pandemic. The results of the study indicated that higher parental self-efficacy and family functioning predict lower parental stress.

Second, functioning as a parent includes parents' motivations, emotions, and beliefs associated with parenting (Vance & Brandon, 2017). As an important cognitive

construct, which affects the beliefs and motivations of parents, higher parental self-efficacy is linked with positive parenting practices (Sanders & Mazzucchelli, 2013). Parents with greater parenting self-efficacy were found to be used more authoritative style and positive parenting practices than those with lower parenting self-efficacy (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; Dumka et al., 2010; Glatz & Buchanan, 2015; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Sanders & Woolley, 2005; Slagt et al., 2012; Wittkowski et al., 2016). For example, Dumka et al. (2010) conducted a study to evaluate associations between parenting self-efficacy and positive parenting practices including parental monitoring, and consistent discipline. Data were collected from teachers, mothers, and adolescents from 189 families. Results indicated that parenting self-efficacy operated a causal role in parents' positive practices and predicted future positive practices. Moreover, Celada (2010) conducted an experimental study with 67 mothers to test the relationship between parenting self-efficacy and authoritative parenting. The results of hierarchical linear regression analysis indicated that parenting self-efficacy made a significant contribution to authoritarian parenting style and explained an additional 10.9% of the variance in authoritative parenting style, after controlling for income variable. Similarly, according to the results of the study conducted by Murdock (2013) with a sample of 49 mothers and 33 fathers, showed that parenting self-efficacy was negatively associated with hostile or coercive parenting behaviors and positively associated with supportive parenting behaviors.

Third, parenting stress impacts both the parental functioning and practices and the quality of parent-child relationships (Daeter-Deckard, 1998; Daeter-Deckard & Panneton, 2017). Greater parenting stress increases parents' negative emotions such as anxiety, anger, and hostility toward the children, decreases emotion regulation, warmth, and affection, which in turn, generates dysfunctional parenting practices (Abidin, 1992; Deater-Deckard, 2008). Therefore, negative emotional arousal, emotion dysregulation, and negative appraisals decrease parents' ability to discipline effectively and increase the use of the harsh and inconsistent discipline (Deater-Deckard, 2008; Lansford, 2019). Numerous research findings evidenced that lower

parenting stress is associated with authoritative parenting and effective parenting practices; in contrast, higher parenting stress is linked with authoritarian parenting, and dysfunctional and punitive parenting disciplinary practices (Bloomfield & Kendall, 2012; Crnic & Ross, 2017; Yap et al., 2019). For instance, according to the results of the study by Beckerman et al. (2017) with a sample of 53 mothers showed that higher parental stress is related to harsh parenting discipline. Similarly, in studies conducted with the samples of elementary school parents, higher parenting stress was found to be associated with greater psychological control (Putnick et al., 2008) and greater inconsistent discipline (Barry et al., 2009).

Correspondingly, a bulk of research findings evidenced the reciprocal associations between parenting practices, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy. For instance, Gross et al. (1999) conducted a study with 133 parents to discover the relationship between child behavior problems, parenting self-efficacy, parental discipline strategies, and parenting stress. According to the results, higher parenting self-efficacy was found to be negatively associated with lax and overreactive discipline strategies as well as parenting stress. Similarly, Sanders and Woolley (2005) indicated that parenting disciplinary practices of laxness and overreactivity were strongly linked with parental stress and parental self-efficacy. That is, parental self-efficacy significantly predicted both parental overreactivity and laxness after controlling for other variables. Moreover, maternal distress significantly predicted overreactive parental discipline.

Not only cross-sectional studies but also longitudinal studies supported the reciprocal relationship between parenting disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy. For example, Slagt et al. (2012) examined the associations between parents' sense of competence and dysfunctional disciplinary practices in a longitudinal study with a sample of 551 elementary school parents. Results indicated that higher parenting competence predicted lower levels of dysfunctional discipline, which in turn predicted a sense of competence. Similarly, Mackler et al. (2015) conducted a

longitudinal study with the parents and their children at 4, 5, 7, and 10 years old to examine transactions among parenting stress, punitive discipline, and child externalizing behaviors. Their model is revealed the longitudinal reciprocal effects between parenting stress, punitive discipline, and a child's externalizing behavior.

Although many studies have shown the link between parenting self-efficacy, parenting stress, and parenting practices, there are some exceptions. For instance, Brody et al. (1999) tested the associations among, maternal self-efficacy beliefs, developmental goals, parenting practices, and children's academic and psychosocial competency with a sample of 139 single-parent families with a 6- to 9-year-old child. The results indicated that maternal efficacy beliefs were not linked with parenting practices. Moreover, Grimes (2012) tested the role of parental knowledge and parenting self-efficacy in parenting behaviors with 169 parents of 6-12 months old infants. Contrary to previous studies, findings have shown that greater parenting self-efficacy predicted an increase in over-protective parenting behaviors, which is one of the dysfunctional parenting behaviors.

Research findings testing the effectiveness of parenting programs involving these three variables also support the fact that parental disciplinary practices and parental self-efficacy can be improved, while parental stress can be reduced. Parenting programs provide parents with knowledge and skills on effective parenting practices that may reduce overreactive, hostile, or lax parenting (Morawska et al., 2009; Sanders & Woolley, 2005); provide parents with an environment including four sources of self-efficacy that they can improve parenting self-efficacy (Witkowski et al., 2016), and also offer instrumental, social, and emotional support with parents in coping with challenging parenting tasks and parenting stress (Bloomfield & Kendall, 2007; Bornstein & Bornstein 2007; Coleman & Karraker, 2000; Mackler et al., 2015). Therefore, in the next section, parenting programs and the effects of the programs on parental behaviors, parental self-efficacy, and parental stress will be examined.

2.3. Parent Training Concept and Parenting Programs

Although many theorists such as Alfred Adler, Carl Rogers, Erik Erikson, and John Bowlby have asserted the importance of parenting and parent education, until the 1960s to address child's behavioral problems, individual interventions targeted the child was mostly used (Patterson et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2002). Since the 1960s, due to the improvement in the knowledge of child development and understanding the impact of parenting practices on child outcomes, programs that target parents have started to become widespread. Since then, many parenting programs with various theoretical orientations have been developed and widely used (Haslam et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2002).

Parenting programs can be defined as short-term interventions aiming to help parents improve parental functioning and parent-child relationship, prevent, or treat child emotional and behavioral problems through providing parents with the knowledge, skills, and understanding (Barlow et al. 2011). In general, parenting programs aim to better equip parents in their child-rearing role with effective disciplinary skills to manage current parenting challenges (Haslam et al., 2016; Sanders, 1999). Although parenting programs can vary in their philosophy and content, the general principle of them is helping parents to understand the effects of their behavior on their children's development, to become problem-solvers, and to feel empowered and confident in their parenting role (Kendall & Bloomfield, 2005). On the other hand, there are some classifications in the literature with regards to recipients of the program, delivery method and settings, the function, and the theoretical orientation of parenting programs.

The recipients of the training can be classified as; only parents, parents and child together, and multisystemic (e.g., including the whole family or teachers). In most parenting programs, only parents are included, whereas some programs offer additional interventions to the child or teachers (Gross et al., 2003; Lundahl et al.,

2006). Second, the delivery format may vary as an individual, group-based, or self-directed (e.g., reading parenting books), as well as face to face, TV-based, online, or telephone-based (Lundahl et al., 2006; Sanders & Turner, 2018). Third, parenting programs can be divided into three groups regarding their function: prevention programs, treatment programs, and blended programs. Prevention programs aim to prevent problems before they emerge, while treatment programs aim to reduce a problem. In mixed-model programs, it aims to serve both purposes (Haslam et al., 2016). Lastly, parenting programs may also be classified based on their theoretical or philosophical orientation.

In the literature, parenting programs regarding their theoretical orientation, focus, and content are classified into two groups; behavioral-based and relationship-based programs. Correspondingly, considering their theoretical orientation, parenting programs are grouped as Behavioral, Cognitive-Behavioral, Rogerian, and Adlerian (Barlow et al., 2011; Dembo et al., 1985; Haslam et al., 2016). Behavioral-based parenting programs are grounded in Behavioral, Cognitive-Behavioral, or Social-Cognitive Theories. These programs aim to improve the behavioral repertoire of parents by teaching behavioral and social learning principles and increasing parental self-efficacy and self-regulation to shape their child's behaviors. *Triple-P (Positive Parenting Program)*, and *Incredible Years*, are examples of behavioral-based programs (Barlow et al., 2011; Dembo et al., 1985; Sanders, 1999; Webster-Stratton, 2001).

Relationship-based parenting programs are based on Psychodynamic, Humanistic, and Family Systems Theories (Barlow et al., 2011; Dembo et al., 1985). Relationship-based programs emphasize the importance of healthy parent-child communication and democratic parenting. The content of the programs involves communication and problem-solving skills (Barlow & Coren, 2018; Barlow et al., 2011; Dembo et al., 1985; Goddard et al., 2004; Lundahl et al., 2006). *Effective Parent Training-PET*

(Rogerian-based) and Adlerian-based parenting programs are examples of relational-based parenting programs (Bunting, 2004; Dembo et al., 1985; Gordon, 1975).

Adlerian parenting programs are founded Adlerian-Dreikursian philosophy in child-rearing (Barlow et al., 2011). The programs aim to help parents understand the child's underlying feelings and thoughts that caused misbehavior and responding the child's needs concerning these thoughts and emotions. The content of the programs includes effective communication skills (active listening, using I-language, and conflict resolution), validating a child's feelings, providing positive feedback, and implementing effective parenting discipline through providing natural and logical consequences and clear and consistent rules. These programs also underline using encouragement instead of praise and punishment, and problem-solving skills (Dembo, et al., 1995; Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). *Systematic Training for Effective Parenting-STEP* (Dinkmeyer & Mckay, 1976), *Active Parenting* (Popkin, 1993) and *Positive Discipline* (Nelsen, 1981, Lott & Nelsen, 1988, 2017) are the examples of Adlerian-based parenting programs. Since it would be beneficial to introduce Adlerian parenting concepts that underpin all these programs, in the following section the concepts of parenting in the Adlerian approach are mentioned.

2.3.1. Adlerian-Dreikursian Parenting Concepts

Adlerian parenting concepts are based on the principles of Alfred Adler's Individual Psychology. Adler's ideas about parenting were elaborated and expanded by one of his early students and colleagues, Rudolph Dreikurs (Christiansen & Thomas, 1980; Gfroerer et al., 2004). For this reason, the understanding of parenting based on the principles of Individual Psychology is called the Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting approach (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018; Gfroerer et al., 2004; Lindquist & Watkins, 2014).

Adler (1930) emphasized the importance of parenting in a child's personality development and well-being (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964; Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). According to the Adlerian view, humans are socially embedded and have an innate need to belong and connectedness (Bettner, 2020). In his theory, Adler used the term *Gemeinschaftsgefühl* (social interest) for defining this basic need (Bettner, 2020). Social interest is defined as the sense of belonging and a desire to connect with others (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018; Rasmussen, 2014). Social interest is seen as not only the basic need of the individual but also was the key to healthy adjustment of the individual and sustaining a civilized society (Rasmussen, 2014).

The family is the child's first community in which children actualize their needs for belonging and connect and develop their social interests. Parents must provide a democratic family atmosphere that children learn to cooperate and connect with others respectfully and responsibly and contribute to the well-being of the others in the community (Bettner, 2020; Oryan & Ben-Asher 2019; Rasmussen, 2014). Hence, within the Adlerian parenting perspective, parents prepare their children for the basic life tasks mentioned in previous sections as; work, love, and social tasks, and support them acquire certain qualities needed for achieving these tasks. These qualities are: (1) helping them learn responsibility, which is the core of the work task, (2) helping them to gain cooperation, the core of social task, and (3) helping them to learn respectful of self and others, the core of love task (Rasmussen, 2014). In Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting, the goals of the child’s behavior, logical and natural consequences, democratic family atmosphere, and encouragement are emphasized. Accordingly, in the following section, these concepts are elaborated.

2.3.1.1. The Goals of Misbehavior

According to Individual Psychology, all behaviors are purposeful and elicited for the need for belonging (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 1984). If children experience a sense of belonging as an equal and contributing member of the family, they actualize their

"need to belong" (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2010). On the other hand, when a child feels less valuable than others in the family cannot make a significant contribution and cannot feel belonging, develops “mistaken goals” about belonging (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2010). Thus, regardless of how disruptive they are a child’s behaviors are purposive to fulfill their belonging and significance needs (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015). In Adlerian-Drekursian parenting, the child's behavior is seen as cues that include the child's interpretation of him/herself, other people, and his/her place in the world and their decisions of how to think, feel, and act based on these interpretations. Therefore, understanding the purposefulness of behavior is especially important in parenting since children whose need for belonging is not met and who do not feel being significant in socially useful ways develop mistaken ways to meet their basic needs (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015; Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2010). Children usually misbehave to achieve one of four goals: undue attention, misguided power, revenge, and assumed inadequacy (Nelsen, 2011).

Undue Attention reflects the children’s mistaken decision that they only belong as long as they can get attention or special service from others. So, because of this mistaken goal, they demand undue attention or service and try to keep others busy with them (Lott & Nelsen, 2017; Nelsen, 2011). A child's need for attention and search for a sense of belonging leads to attention-seeking behavior. Attention-seeking behaviors may be active-constructive (e.g., being a “perfect” child), passive-constructive (e.g., clinging), active-destructive (e.g., showing off), or passive-destructive (e.g., fears) (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015).

Misguided Power reflects children's mistaken conclusion that they only belong as long as they are in control or when they are “boss”. Consequently, they behave as they are in a power contest and display behaviors to prove that no one can boss them. These behaviors may include disobedience, defiant behavior, stubbornness, telling lies, or passive-aggressiveness (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964; Nelsen, 2011).

The children who have the mistaken goal of *revenge* feel hurt and think that they are not being loved, insignificant and they don't belong. Thus, they sought revenge and hurt others to get even (Bitter & Main, 2011). A child who has a goal of revenge often acts to hurt others so that others can understand how he/she was hurt (Sweeney, 2009). Revenge behaviors include violent and defiant behaviors and damaging properties (Allen et al., 2014).

Finally, children who have a mistaken goal of *assumed inadequacy* believe that they are inadequate and do not belong, so they give up and withdraw from social interaction, daily life tasks, or responsibilities. Pampered, over-protected children and children with over-demanding parents express assumed inadequacy. These children avoid trying, do not respond, or improve (Bitter & Main, 2011; Dinkmeyer et al., 2015; Nelsen, 2011). Inadequacy is defined as the most harmful reflection of discouragement and loss of social interest (Allen et al., 2014).

Any behavior can be the expression of one of four mistaken goals. For instance, not doing homework may be a good way to get a parent's attention, or it can be a message to the parents that the child has control and power. Sometimes children may not do their homework to get even. Especially, children who think that their family cares more about their school success than themselves and children who are compared to others, believe that they are not being loved and do not belong. In this case, by not doing their homework, they aim to hurt the parent and get even. At times, children do not do their homework because they feel inadequate and discouraged, and instead of trying, they give up.

In Adlerian-Dreikursian programs, parents understand the mistaken goals; learn how they may contribute to these goals; and how to use their feelings to determine the purpose of misbehavior (Chang & Ritter, 2004). The parent also learns how to modify their behavior patterns in responding to the misbehavior, and how can they

encourage their child to healthy and socially acceptable ways of achieving the goal (Bettner, 2020; Chang & Ritter, 2004).

2.3.1.2. Encouragement

Encouragement is a process to provide the child with a sense of achievement and self-confidence (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964). Encouragement is an important concept in Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting, as Dreikurs (1964) stated, "…discouragement is the basic cause for misbehavior. A misbehaving child is a discouraged child (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964, p. 36)." Encouragement fosters children's belief that whatever circumstances and whatever the outcome, they will be able to cope (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015). Children need encouragement to achieve a sense of belonging (Allen et al., 2014). Encouragement is different from praise in many aspects. For instance, praise focuses on the successful outcome, addresses the person who provided praise, includes external locus of control, and directs children to behave for getting approval from others. On the other hand, encouragement focuses on the child's effort rather than the outcome, addresses the child as the owner and responsible for the effort, includes internal locus of control and improves children's self-evaluation, self-regulation, and self-confidence (Nelsen, 2011), and thus, develop a sense of capability and positive sense of self (Gfroerer et al., 2013). Parents can use a statement for encouragement such as "You worked hard and deserved getting an A in the exam, you must be proud of yourself". This statement emphasizes the effort and recognizes the child as the owner and the responsibility for the success. It's quite different from saying "You get an A, I am proud of you" which emphasizes the outcome rather than effort and draws attention from the child to the person giving the praise (Allen et al., 2014; Lott & Nelsen, 2017). Through the encouraging statements, children feel connected and capable, and their contributions are unique and valuable (Carlson et al., 2006). Since encouragement is crucial for the development of feelings of capability and connectedness; learning how to provide encouragement instead of praise is an important component of the Adlerian parenting programs.

2.3.1.3. Natural and Logical Consequences

Dreikurs and Soltz (1964) distinguish between natural and logical consequences. Natural consequences involve allowing a child's decision without parent intervention and experiencing the consequence resulting from his/her decision. For example, if a child does not want to eat breakfast, the parents accept the child's decision, and the child experiences hunger until the next mealtime (Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). When a child experiences natural consequences, parents must show empathy and understanding, yet not rescue or fix. Because rescuing prevents the child from developing a sense of competence and learning through his own experiences that he can cope with difficulties in life. Moreover, parents should avoid saying “I told you so” or scolding which adds blaming, shame or pain to that experience, rather than the child learning through his or her own experience (Nelsen, 2011). Natural consequences are considered as one of the best ways in handling misbehavior. However, natural consequences may not be suitable for all situations, such as situations that may cause irreversible harm to the child's physical, emotional, or mental well-being. The other option is setting up logical consequences for the child's misbehavior (Chang & Ritter, 2004). Contrary to natural consequences, logical consequences involve parental intervention. For example, if children do not put their clothes in the laundry basket, the clothes will not be washed. This allows the child to decide whether he or she will follow the rules, and it prevents the child from achieving the goal of misbehavior (Sweeney, 2009). Instead of punishment, using natural or logical consequences provide a democratic family environment in which parents give their children an opportunity to make choices and take responsibility for their choices (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 1984). Logical consequences help children cultivate an internal locus of control (Chang & Ritter, 2004; Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964; Nelsen, 2011). On the other hand, logical consequences can be misinterpreted by parents and can be used as a threat or imposing of demands (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964). According to Nelsen (2011) a logical consequence must be logically related to the problem, reasonable, respectful, helpful in solving the problem, and effective in the long term. Effective use of logical

consequences may solve the problem, whereas ineffective use of logical consequences may turn it punishment easily (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964; Nelsen, 2011). Therefore, in Positive Discipline, rather than using consequences, problem-solving through family meetings is suggested (Nelsen, 2011).

2.3.1.4. The Family Council

A family council (or family meetings) is a place where family members discuss and find a common solution to a problem (Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). This practice allows parents and children to better understand each other's perspectives and provides a democratic way to negotiate and solve problems (Oryan & Ben-Asher, 2019). Nelsen (2011) suggests that family meetings provide valuable social and life skills for children, such as effective communication, problem-solving and conflict resolution skills, encouragement, cooperation, and social support. While brainstorming and sharing ideas improves creativity, a democratic manner enhances mutual respect and empathy between individuals (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2004; Gfroerer et al., 2013). In the long-term, family meetings teach children democratic participation and to make responsible and rational decisions (Allen et al., 2014). Moreover, coming together to solve problems helps family members both own the problem and embrace the solution found by working together. Consequently, working together to solve problems promotes cohesiveness and a sense of belonging (Gfroerer et al., 2013). Family meetings have some principles for implementation. First of all, the family meeting is held once a week and each family member has a right to add topics that they want to be included in the meeting agenda of the week (Nelsen, 2019). In the family meetings, each family member has an equal standing and an equal voice in the decision-making process. Parents and children solve problems in a consensus (Allen et al., 2014; Oryan, 2014). To foster democratic understanding, each family member chairs the family meetings, in turn, each week (Oryan 2014). It is important to end the meeting with a family fun activity, such as playing a card game or singing together, which is decided in consensus (Nelsen, 2011). Learning to solve problems in family meetings in

collaboration fosters democracy and equality in the family. In conclusion, the concepts defined above are the main concepts emphasized in Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs. These programs are examined in the next section.

2.3.2. Adlerian-Dreikursian Parenting Programs

Adlerian's have a long history in parent education, indeed, it can be said that Adler and Dreikurs are the pioneers to work with parents through the group format (Sweeney, 2009). Alfred Adler established child guidance clinics in Vienna in the 1920s and later, Rudolf Dreikurs run community child guidance centers in the USA and developed parent education programs based on Adler's model (McVittie & Best, 2009). The Adlerian-Dreikursian approach emphasizes the importance of the role of parenthood in the formation of a child's personality, and hence, the importance of educating parents on how to help their children cope with life's challenges and develop their children's social interests (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 1984; 2018).

Adlerian parenting programs underline the Adlerian assumption that misbehavior does not consider an illness, thus, these programs are educative and preventive implementations rather than a medical procedure. The purpose of parent education is to assist parents and children to discover more appropriate patterns of interaction based on an assumption of equality between adults and children (Christiansen & Thomas, 1980). The Adlerian-Dreikursian model of parent education is based on core principles of child-rearing. These core principles consist of; (a) emphasizing an encouragement instead of praise, (b) natural and logical consequences rather than reward and punishment; (c) fostering cooperation against submission; (d) democratic or authoritative philosophy of childcare rather than autocratic control, permissiveness, or indulgence; and (e) preparing children to meet the life tasks including the ability to develop healthy intimacy (Rasmussen, 2014).

Adlerian Parenting Study Groups (APSG) is one of the first examples of Adlerian-Dreikursian parent training. In these groups, the book discussion (Children: The Challenge) format was followed (Lindquist & Davis, 2014). Nevertheless, Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs include not the only didactic way of learning or solely the discussion but also include skills training. The delivery method of the most Adlerian parenting program is the group format, which is rooted in Adlerian open-forum counseling (Sweeney, 2009). Although Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs are based on the aforementioned principles, some programs combined these principles with other theories. For instance, Participatory Program Promoting Pleasurable Parenting (P5) by Hastings and Ludlow (2006) combined Adlerian-Dreikursian and Behavioral principles; and Partners in Parenting (PIP) combined Adlerian-Dreikursian, Behavioral, and Rogerian approaches (Knight et al., 2007). Within the scope of this study, three parenting programs are introduced: Active Parenting (Popkin, 1993), Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (Dinkmeyer & Mckay, 1976), and Positive Discipline (Lott & Nelsen, 1988).

2.3.2.1. Active Parenting

Active Parenting uses the video-based delivery format and has been applied since 1983 (Foley et al., 2019; Popkin, 2014). Active Parenting has a series of the program including *Active Parenting Now* for parents of children 5 to 12 years old, *Active Parenting of Teens* for parents of adolescents, and *Active Parenting of Teens: Families in Action* (Popkin, 2014). Active Parenting can be implemented in different formats such as online groups, webinars, and as self-study or with leaders (Popkin, 2014). The program has six sessions lasting two hours which include parenting information, watching video vignettes, group discussion on vignettes, and homework assignments (Foley et al., 2019). In addition to Adlerian principles, the program content involves basic communication skills such as active listening and using I-language, and emotional communication skills, such as responding to children's feelings (Foley et al., 2019; Lindquist & Watkins, 2014; Mullis, 1999).

The effectiveness of the Active Parenting program on parents' behavior was evaluated in an independent national study, which included 287 parents. Results suggested that parents perceive their children's behavior more positively after participation in these programs (Mullis, 1999). Moreover, the impact of Active Parenting on parenting stress, parenting behavior, and parenting satisfaction was tested with a sample of 39 mothers of school-age children. Results revealed that parenting stress decreased while positive parenting behavior and parenting satisfaction were significantly increased in the intervention group. However, negative parenting behavior was not found to differ between the two groups (Park & Oh, 2012). According to the result of a recent study by Foley et al. (2019) with a sample of 170 elementary school parents, the parenting behaviors, skills and attitudes, and the perception of the child behaviors of the participants improved.

2.3.2.2. Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP)

The Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) program was developed by Dinkmeyer and McKay in 1976. The program has nine two-hour sessions, which blends Adlerian principles with communication skills (McKay & Hillman, 1979). STEP program focuses on understanding child's misbehavior and dealing effectively with misbehavior, using natural and logical consequences instead of reward or punishment and as well, improving effective communication skills (Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). The STEP program aims to develop a democratic parenting style through improving encouragement and empathetic listening, setting healthy limits, and offering choices (Burnett, 1988; Gfroerer, et al., 2004; Jonyniene et al., 2015; Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). McKay and Hill (1979) described the topics for the nine sessions as "(1) Understanding behavior and misbehavior, (2) Emotions and Appropriate and inappropriate parent beliefs and behaviors, (3) Encouragement, (4) Listening, (5) Exploring alternatives; Expressing ideas and feelings, (6) Developing responsibility, (7) Decision-making, (8) The family meeting, and (9) Developing confidence in oneself as a parent" (p, 30). STEP has three philosophically identical

programs for different age groups: from birth to age six (Early Childhood STEP); six to 12 (STEP); and adolescence (STEP/Teen) (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015).

Research on the efficacy of the STEP model is mixed (Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). Some studies supported the effectiveness of the program, whereas some studies indicated only limited support. For example, Fennell and Fishel (1998) examined the effects of the STEP program on parental perceptions of the child's behaviors. The sample (n = 18) constituted parents who had abusive or neglectful behaviors. Results indicated that the program improved positive perceptions of parents on their children and parents were found to be less physically abusive than those who did not participate. Similarly, Larson (2000) conducted a study with 56 parents and adolescents to examine the impact of a 10-week STEP program on parenting style, child misbehavior, and the parent-child relationship. The results implied a significant decrease in authoritarian parenting and adolescents' externalizing behavior and an improvement in parent-child relationships. Moreover, findings are indicating that STEP increased parents' childrearing knowledge and attitudes (Dembo et al., 1985), and encouraged parents to employ authoritative/democratic parenting methods (Jonyniene et al., 2015). On the other hand, Robinson et al. (2003), in their review, found only limited support for the STEP in improving parental attitudes and change in behaviors.

2.3.2.3. Positive Discipline

Positive Discipline Parenting Program was developed by Nelsen and Lott (Lott & Nelsen, 2017). Nelsen published her book *Positive Discipline* in 1981, and Lott and Nelsen developed the first Positive Discipline Parenting Program Manual in 1988 (Lott & Nelsen, 2017). Positive Discipline parenting programs are designed as 6-to-8-week classes or workshops lasting about two hours. Teaching Parenting the Positive Discipline Way Manual, Positive Discipline Workbook, and Positive Discipline Parenting Tool Cards are used as program materials. Since the information about the

content and the weekly program is given in detail in the method chapter, in this section, program principles and components are elaborated.

According to Rasmussen (2014), the aim of raising children is to help parents to develop three core concepts like responsibility, cooperation, and respect. These concepts are necessary for children to fulfill work, love, and social task in their future life. Children need to fulfill their responsibilities to be successful at work so that they will be able to sustain themselves, their family, and their environment. They must be willing to act in cooperation to maintain their relationships in the social context. To nurture intimacy, they need to treat themselves and others with respect (Rasmussen, 2014). Moreover, these three traits are associated with the crucial needs of children defined by Lew and Bettner (2005) as; connect, capable, count, and courage. The trait of being responsible is related to feeling capable, cooperating with others is linked with feeling connected, being respectful is related to feeling that one counts, and lastly, courage is associated with having the courage to be "imperfect" (Rasmussen & Schuyler, 2020). In this sense, Positive Parenting Program is built on to foster responsibility, cooperation, and respect. The program focuses on long-term goals, kind and firm parenting, understanding misbehavior, encouragement, responsibility, and joint problem solving which aim to improve responsibility, cooperation, and respect in children (Gfroerer et al., 2013; Lindquist & Watkins, 2014; Nelsen, 2011).

The first principle of positive parenting is to focus on long-term goals and use current challenges as an opportunity to achieve the long-term goals of parenting, namely, to teach valuable social and life skills that prepare the child to be a well-functioning member of the society (Lott & Nelsen, 2017; Nelsen, 2011; Rasmussen, 2014). Dysfunctional parenting practices such as punishment or rewards may stop the misbehavior temporarily, yet they cannot help children in the long run and cannot teach life and social skills. A current challenge, for example not helping family chores, can be used to teach the child valuable social and life skills of responsibility, desire to cooperate and contribute, respect for self and others, and so on (Lott & Nelsen, 2017;

Nelsen, 2011). In this context, positive discipline tools which emphasize the long-term benefits can be used.

As Nelsen (2011) stated, "positive discipline helps children feel a sense of connection, belonging and significance" (p.16), hence, the second principle of Positive Parenting is being a kind and firm parent. Kind and firm parenting is based on positive parent-child communication, parental responsiveness, and providing healthy boundaries. Kind and firm parenting is parallel with Baumrind's authoritative parenting which has high responsiveness and high control dimensions (Baumrind, 1996). Authoritarian parenting is characterized by firmness (order without freedom), while permissive parenting is characterized by kindness (freedom without order) (Christiansen & Thomas, 1980). Nevertheless, Positive Parenting emphasized kind and firm parenting at the same time which is characterized by freedom with order (Gfroerer et al., 2013; Lott & Nelsen, 2017). Kind and firm parenting help children develop respect for self and others since kindness reflects respect for the child, while firmness reflects respect for the others including parents (Christiansen & Thomas, 1980).

Kindness also premises the sense of connection and belonging between the parents and children. Listening child, validating the child's feelings, showing understanding and respect, and conveying love are the elements of kindness. Nelsen emphasizes that when they feel better, children do better (Nelsen, 2011). Thus, "connection before correction" is another important theme in positive discipline. In this regard, Positive Discipline is different from simply modifying a child's behavior. Indeed, behavior change is a secondary aim in the positive discipline in which improving self-esteem, self-competence, responsibility, cooperation, and social interest are the major goals. Correspondingly, *Positive Timeout* is an important parenting tool for implementing connection before correction principle (Gfroerer et al., 2013). The positive timeout aims to help both parents and children calm down in times of conflict. When utilizing a positive timeout, the children are encouraged to find and name a special positive time-out place and equip it with things that will help them relax (Nelsen, 2011).

Children and parents use the place when they feel angry or frustrated. Positive time out is unique to Positive Discipline and different from behavioral time-out; that is, positive time out is not used as a punishment (Nelsen, 2011). Rather, parent and child spend time together and stay connected in this place, which in turn fosters a child's sense of belonging (Gfroerer et al., 2013). Positive time out provides the groundwork for cooperation to conflict resolution. With the help of positive time out, children can learn valuable skills of emotional awareness and regulation, feeling management and coping with stress (Carroll & Hamilton, 2016). As a result, the program emphasizes that parents should establish a warm and supportive bond with the child to assist children to learn more cooperative and contributing attitudes and behaviors (Nelsen, 2011).

Another basic tenet of Positive Discipline is encouragement. Encouragement is the major tool for helping the child to develop an internal sense of control and value his/her unique contribution. Through encouragement, children feel connected and capable and develop a sense of self-worth (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 1984; Gfroerer et al., 2013). In Positive Discipline, using encouragement and empowerment are emphasized instead of using rewards and/or praise. In addition to encouragement, avoiding perfectionism and accepting mistakes as opportunities for learning are highlighted in Positive discipline. The premise of having the courage to not be a “perfect parent” or a “perfect child” emphasized in Positive Discipline compatible with the Adlerian premise of “courage to be imperfect”. Courage is necessary to feel capable, count and connect, and cope with difficulties, defeats, and disappointments while performing life tasks (Rasmussen & Schuyler, 2020). Positive Discipline fosters courage in both children and parents.

Positive Discipline Parenting also aims to teach children to become responsible and resourceful (Gfroerer et al., 2013; McVittie & Best, 2009). Responsibility includes understanding what is necessary for one's well-being and applying the most adaptive methods to overcome challenges in life (Rasmussen, 2014). Responsibility entails

understanding and accepting impulse control, delaying gratification, and engaging in activities that are beneficial in the long run, for example, doing homework (Rasmussen & Schuyler, 2020). Responsibility is the ability to sustain itself and the ability to contribute to society. Responsibility is therefore central to the Adlerian work-life task (Rasmussen, 2014). In Positive Discipline, children are encouraged to create their *Routine Charts* that include their daily tasks to gain responsibility. Enabling them to take on their responsibility for planning and scheduling their daily tasks increases their sense of belonging and significance, and self-management skills, and also reduces power struggles with parents (Nelsen, 2011). Responsibility can also be improved through performing age-appropriate jobs. Assigning household duties and responsibilities, especially for 8-9-year-olds, enhance children's self-reliance and self-efficacy, as well as highlight the importance of interdependence in society (Collins & Madsen, 2019). Involving children in chores, where each person's contribution is expected and valued, provides children with an opportunity to develop their skills and contribute to their family. Thus, through their contributions, they feel significant, belong, and resourceful (Gfroerer et al., 2013). In Positive Discipline, it is important to devote time to training to teach how to do a job and to hold family meetings to democratically determine who should take on what responsibilities (Nelsen, 2011). For instance, based on the joint decisions from the family meetings, parents may create a *Wheel of Choice* with children, which is a tool that may be used in choosing one of the family chores to do weekly.

A collaborative relationship between parents and children is created while they are working together to solve problems in the family meetings. This collaborative relationship helps the child understand that they can make choices and maintains a positive relationship with their parents (Gfroerer et al., 2013). Collaborative parent-child communication helps children learn the reciprocal nature of relationships. While working together with their parents and solving the problems in a democratic atmosphere, children can feel that they are valuable members of their families. This democratic discipline strategy nurtures a child's sense of belonging and significance

since it develops the child's private logic as "I am valued and my ideas are important in solving conflicts at home" (Gfroerer et al., 2013). Moreover, when children feel a mutual contribution to their family, their social interest and connectedness improve. Due to positive relationships with a parent, a child can transfer this experience to their relationships with others, and life tasks. Therefore, family meeting is an important element in contributing to all four needs: connect, capable, count, and courage.

According to Haslam et al. (2016), effective parenting programs should include some key elements such as providing strategies for increasing positive parent-child interactions, teaching the appropriate use of consequences, teaching problem solving, increasing parental sensitivity, warmth, and emotional communication skills, modeling positive behaviors, providing opportunities to practice strategies and skills in the session via role play. Therefore, Positive Discipline is considered an effective program in increasing effective parenting skills. There are many studies in the literature showing the positive effects of positive discipline on parental behavior and attitudes. In the next section, research results examining the effectiveness of Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs in general and Positive Discipline parenting program in particular on parent and child behaviors are mentioned.

2.4. Research on Adlerian Parenting Programs and Positive Discipline

In the literature, there is numerous research indicated that Adlerian parenting programs increase authoritative parenting and decrease authoritarian parenting, as well as promote positive child behaviors. For instance, in his review on twenty-one Adlerian-based parenting programs, Burnett (1988) concluded that Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs provided improvements on parenting attitude and behavior, parent-child relationship, and children's behavior and self-concept. Moreover, some reviews which compared Adlerian-Dreikursian Parenting Programs with other approaches indicated that Adlerian-Dreikursian programs were found to be more effective than other approaches regarding parent and child outcomes. For example,

Krebs (1986) compared the research results of the studies of behavioral approach, Parent Effectiveness Training, and Adlerian groups. His findings indicated that Adlerian programs are superior to both behavioral-based and communication-based programs. Similarly, Dembo et al. (1985) compared the impact of Adlerian, Parent Effectiveness Training (PET), and behavioral parent training programs. They found significant positive changes in parental attitudes in Adlerian-based programs. Within the frame of numerous studies in the literature, it can be stated that Adlerian-Dreikursian Parenting programs affect positively not only parental outcomes but also child's outcomes and parent-child relational outcomes.

Moore and Dean-Zubritsky (1979) conducted research to test the effectiveness of an eight-week Adlerian parent study group with the sample of elementary and pre-primary school parents. The group was led by a counselor, using the book Children: The Challenge (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964). Results suggested that parents in the experimental group expressed more democratic attitudes and were less restrictive than those in the control group. Moreover, according to behavioral observation results, parents in the experimental group showed more cooperation and engagement and used encouragement more when compared with the control group. Similarly, Smalls (2010) tested the effect of the Active Parenting of Teens program with low-income, single Afro-American parents. Results indicated that participation in the program led to a significant increase in parental acceptance, a decrease in parental stress, and an increase in adolescent motivation of achievement.

Studies in the literature displayed that these programs not only affect parental behaviors positively but also positively change the perceptions of parents of their children. For instance, Mullis (1999) examined the effects of Active Parenting Today and Active Parenting of Teens programs with a sample of 385 parents. Results indicated that parents who attended the program perceived their child's behavior as more responsible and helpful. Moreover, results suggested that there was no interaction effect found between parents' educational level and family structure (intact, blended, or single-parent families). This finding yielded that the program effectively

addresses child-rearing problems regardless of parental educational level or family structure. Similarly, Mckay and Hillman (1979) investigated the effectiveness of the STEP program on parents' perception and children's behaviors with a sample of 20 mothers who have a child between the ages of 4 and 13. Results indicated that participation in the STEP created positive changes in mothers' perceptions of their child's target behaviors, such as being more responsible and solving their problems.

In another study, Jonyniene et al. (2015) tested the effectiveness of the nine-week STEP program with 348 elementary school parents who participated in 44 different parenting groups and 299 parents in the control group in Lithuania. The results yielded that the STEP program improved parental knowledge, decreased authoritarian and permissive parenting and negative perceptions of the parents on child's behavior. The changes were maintained in the 3-to 4 months follow-up.

The results of the studies also provided evidence that Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs improve the parent-child relationship (Nelsen, 1979; Williamson, 2014). Williamson (2014) conducted a study with 50 mother and their 1 to 10 years of children to examine the influence of Positive Discipline on the duration of mother-child conflicts. He used a naturalistic observation method in which mothers' home audio recordings were used. Results indicated that, although punitive discipline (e.g., yelling) was found to be associated with shorter conflict duration, Positive Discipline was found to be related to longer non-conflict periods and to be more effective than punishment in producing cooperation in solving conflicts.

On the other hand, in the literature, some research findings did not support or only partly supported the effectiveness of Adlerian Parenting programs. Especially in studies conducted with families with children with special needs or disadvantaged groups, it is seen that the effectiveness of the programs decreases. For example, Gordon-Rosen and Rosen (1984) conducted a study with 30 inner city Afro-American parents with children at junior high school. They evaluated the effects of a nine-session

Adlerian study group on parents' perception of a child's behavior and child's school attendance. According to the results, no significant difference was found in parents' perceptions of child's behavior and child's school attendance as compared with the control group. Latson (1986) tested the effect of Active Parenting on parental stress and the perception of a child's behavior with a sample of 40 parents who have children with learning disabilities. Results showed that there were no significant differences in parental stress between the intervention and control groups. The results also indicated that perceived parental stress and child behavior were correlated positively and parents of children with learning disabilities experienced greater parenting stress than parents of children with normal developmental characteristics. Similarly, Saflarski (2015) tested the effect of the Positive Discipline Program on parenting stress and parenting self-efficacy of parents who have a child with autism spectrum disorder (ASD). Results indicated no significant change in parenting stress and parenting self-efficacy. Regarding the Positive Discipline Parenting Program, many studies have shown the positive effects of Positive Discipline on parents' and child's behavior, and the parent-child relationship. For instance, Nelsen (1979), in her dissertation, conducted parenting and teacher training programs with the parents and teachers of 6th grade students and evidenced the positive impact of the 12-week program on children's maladaptive behaviors (Nelsen, 1979). Significant results of the study led Nelsen to her later project which was the foundation of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program called ACCEPT (Adlerian Counseling Concepts for Encouraging Parents and Teachers) (Nelsen, 2011).

McVittie and Best (2009), conducted a study with a sample of 1,772 parents from 110 different parenting classes. The repeated measures ANOVA results revealed that parents who participated in the Positive Discipline parenting program used more effective limit-setting behaviors. They also found an increase in parental sense of parent-child connection and a decrease in punitive parenting discipline strategies (e.g., yelling, and spanking). Overall, parents reported that they use more authoritative parenting after attending the program.

Holliday (2014) conducted experimental research to examine the impact of the Positive Discipline parenting program on parenting style and perceived parenting competence. The sample included 101 parents who attended one of 26 distinct Positive Discipline parenting groups. Results confirmed that Positive Discipline increased authoritative parenting and parents' sense of competence while reducing authoritarian and permissive parenting. In addition, the level of authoritative parenting increased at the three-month follow-up.

More recently, Carroll and Brown (2020) examined the effectiveness of a 7-week Positive Discipline parenting workshop. Participants of the study comprised 112 mostly low-income Latino parents. The researchers used Positive Discipline Parenting Scale (PDPS) to evaluate parents' attitudes and behaviors related to Positive Discipline. Results indicated that Positive Discipline related attitudes and behaviors and the authoritative parenting style of the participants increased following the workshops. Follow-up results yielded that most of the effects were maintained three months after the program.

When the literature is investigated, it is observed that the studies on the effectiveness of Adlerian parental education in different cultures and diverse populations are quite limited (Chang & Ritter, 2004). Examples of the findings of the studies conducted in different cultures are presented below.

Farooq et al. (2005) examined the effectiveness of the Active Parenting program on parents' perceptions of their children's behavior and parenting styles with a sample of 40 African American parents. In the study, the training group joined six weekly video-based sessions and received printed materials, while the control group received written materials only. Results indicated that the intervention group perceived their children's behavior more empathetic when compared to controls. Moreover, the training promoted authoritative parenting.

Prinz et al. (2008) evaluated a school-based Adlerian Parenting Program called "Hadarim" which was developed and implemented by the Ministry of Education of Israel. They researched with 96 teachers and 269 Jewish and Arab elementary school parents who attended an eight-session parenting program. Results indicated that the parenting and teaching skills were improved. Despite the cultural differences between the groups (Jewish and Arab), both groups reported positive changes in their parenting practices and increases in their parenting skills. Teachers also reported that the program improved their understanding of how to motivate children and how to teach parents to motivate them. On the other hand, there is a study that indicated the program was found to be partly effective. Gold (2013) evaluated the effect of five Adlerian parenting programs on parenting styles with a sample of 43 parents in Israel. The results indicated that half of the participants' parenting style changed from an authoritarian to a democratic style. However, the other half of the participants' style changed from autocratic to permissive, or vice versa (as cited in, Oryan & Ben-Asher, 2019).

In conclusion, the studies mentioned above showed an increase in parental outcomes; for example, parenting knowledge, parental acceptance and responsiveness, and parenting competence; and reduction in parental stress, dysfunctional parental discipline strategies, and authoritarian parenting. The results also show that Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs provide improvements in the child's behavior and the parent-child relationship. However, the number of studies on Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs in different cultures is quite limited.

2.5. Parenting Programs and Related Research in Turkey

Parenting programs in Turkey are mostly preventive-based and implemented through public institutions such as schools, adult education centers, and non-governmental organizations on a national or regional scale. The most widely used programs in Turkey are implemented by "Anne Çocuk Eğitim Vakfı" (Mother Child Education

Foundation [AÇEV]), the Ministry of Family Work and Social Services (ASHB), and the Ministry of National Education (MoNE). In addition to these nationwide programs, several parenting programs were developed and implemented within the scope of master's or doctoral theses (Hamamcı & Sevim, 2004).

Parent education programs developed and implemented by AÇEV is rooted "Early Support Project" conducted in Boğaziçi University in 1982 (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1998) to educate pre-school mothers with low socioeconomic status. This program was later developed by the AÇEV and began to be implemented in 1993 under the name of the "Mother and Child Education Program" (AÇEP) (Hamamcı & Sevim, 2004). The Mother Support Program includes modules for mothers of 3-6 years old and 7-11 years old. Since 2004, the Mother Support Program has been carried out through school counselors at schools, in cooperation with the Ministry of National Education (AÇEV, 2021). The Mother Support Program includes topics such as the development of the child, communication with the child, behavior management, sexual education, and cooperation with the school. Moreover, Father Support Program (BADEP) has been started in 1996 for fathers with children between 2 and 10 years of age (Kılıç, 2010). This 13-week program involves topics such as the role and importance of the father, parenting attitudes, active listening, positive discipline methods, and child development (AÇEV, 2021). Study results conducted on AÇEP and BADEP indicated that these programs are effective in gaining positive parenting attitudes, using effective parenting practices and positive discipline strategies, and supporting the development of children, whereas reducing negative parenting behaviors and negative perception of child's behaviors (Alibeyoğlu, 2009; Atmaca-Koçak, 2004; Wise-Metindoğan, 2012).

The General Directorate of Family and Community Services of the Ministry of Family and Social Services (ASHB) prepared family training modules that have been implemented since 2013 (Aile Eğitim Programı [AEP], 2021). The aim of the Family Education Program (AEP) is to provide families with the knowledge, skills, and knowledge on child development, parenting and family life skills. The program

involves the following modules: “First Quarter of Life: 0-18 Age Development”, “Marriage and Family Life”, “Family Life Skills”, “School and Family”, “Gifted Children and Their Families”, “The Role of the Family in Acquiring Values” (AEP, 2021).

The Ministry of National Education (MoNE) has also been implementing different parenting programs through Guidance and Counselling Centers, Public Education Centers, and schools. Various family education programs have been used since 1993 in cooperation with various departments of the MoNE and different institutions (e.g., AÇEV, UNICEF) (MoNE, 2014). As of 2012, programs were revised and different programs such as "3-6 Age Mother Support Education Program" and "7-19 Age Family Guidance Program" combined with a single name as “Family Education Program (AEP)”. AEP consists of seven different modules for families that have children from birth to 18 years of age (MoNE, 2014). These modules are as follows: “0-3 Years AEP”, “3-6 Years AEP”, “7-11 Years AEP”, and, “12-18 Years AEP”. Also, AEP involves sub-groups for special groups as “3-6 Age Father Support Program”, “7-11 Age Father Support Program”, “3-6 Age Family Development Program”, and “3-6 Age Support Program for Illiterate Mother”. AEP programs last for an average of 14 weeks and aim to provide families with knowledge, skills, and positive attitudes about childcare, child development, and child education. For this purpose, the content of the programs involves topics like child development, communication with the child, providing academic support, parenting attitudes, effective discipline methods, and child neglect and abuse (MoNE, 2014).

Studies that tested the effectiveness of AEP with different age groups indicated that the program was effective on mothers' competence and parenting attitudes, and effective in improving communication skills (Çokamay-Yılmaz, 2018; Demircioğlu, 2012; Yalman, 2014). In a recent study, Çokamay-Yılmaz (2018) investigated the effect of 7-11 years AEP on parents’ psychological symptoms, parenting stress, parenting competence, child’s coping with negative emotions, and child’s behaviors

with a sample of 75 parents (n = 34 experimental; n = 39 control) and their children. According to the results, intervention group parents' psychological symptoms and parenting stress significantly decreased, while parenting self-esteem, expressive encouragement, and problem-focused reactions significantly increased. In addition, children's negative emotions significantly decreased, and emotion regulation skills significantly increased, yet the program was not found to be effective on child's aggression. The program's effects on parents and children were maintained at a one-year follow-up.

Within the scope of this research, studies conducted with parents whose children are between the ages of 5-11 were examined. According to the results of experimental studies on parent training in Turkey, programs were found to have positive effects on children, parents, and the parent-child relationship. Results yielded that training programs improved the school success, general ability, achievement of the children (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1998; Yıldırım, 2012; Yıldırım, 2018), reduced aggressive, dependent behaviors (Akcan, 2012; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1998), behavioral problems (Arkan, 2012; Koyuncu-Şahin, 2021; Yıldırım, 2018), improved children's social skills (Şahin, 2006), and emotion regulation skills (Çokamay-Yılmaz, 2018). Similarly, findings indicated that training programs improved parenting competence and self-efficacy (Bağatarhan, 2012; Ekşisu, 2017; Işık, 2020; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1998; Sener & Cimete, 2016), increased the use of functional discipline strategies (Yılmaz-Bolat, 2011) and the use of authoritative style (Demircioğlu, 2012; Yalman, 2014); and decreased parenting stress (Çekiç, 2015; Ekşisu, 2017), the use of dysfunctional discipline strategies (Koyuncu-Şahin, 2021; Yılmaz-Bolat, 2011) and depression (Özmen, 2013; Yalçın, 2013). Parent training programs were found to be positively affected parent-child communication and relationship as well (Özel & Zelyurt, 2016; Şen-Karadağ, 2021; Uçar-Çabuk, 2017; Yalman, 2014).

In addition to the nationwide programs developed and implemented by the above-mentioned institutions, there are studies in the literature that include the adaptation of

the programs applied in the world, and programs developed by researchers. When the literature was examined, it was noticed that the programs developed by the researchers have mostly been applied in empirical studies. These programs are based on different theoretical foundations such as Cognitive-Behavioral, Social-Cognitive, Mindfulness, etc. For instance, Çekiç (2015) developed a parenting program based on Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy and tested the effectiveness of the program on parents' irrational beliefs and parenting stress. The sample of the study involved 26 elementary school parents as 13 parents in the experimental group and 13 parents in the control group. The results indicated that participation in a 7-session Rational Emotive Parent Education Program decreased parental stress levels, perfectionistic beliefs about parenting roles, and unrealistic expectations of their children of the parents in the experimental group. Additionally, the changes were maintained at the three moths follow–up.

Işık (2020) tested the effect of an 11-week Mindfulness-based Parent Training program on parents' mindfulness, parental self-efficacy, communication levels, and behavioral problems of children. The sample consisted of 19 parents in experimental and 19 parents in the control group, whose children were at pre-primary school. The program was applied to 19 mothers once a week for 11 weeks. The results of the research suggested that the training program has a positive impact on the parents' mindfulness, parental self-efficacy, communication levels, and children's behavioral problems.

In some studies, researchers adapted programs developed in different cultures and implemented them in Turkish culture. For example, Coşkun (2008) adapted the Incredible Years Parenting Program and applied it to Turkish families who have children aged 5 to 9. This quasi-experimental research was carried out to examine the effect of the program on a child's behavioral problems, prosocial behaviors, and parenting behaviors with 26 parents in the experimental group and 50 parents in the control group. According to the results, the program was found to be effective in

reducing child's externalizing problems and increasing positive social behaviors. However, the program was not found effective in parenting behaviors.

Likewise, Arkan (2012) adapted the Triple P parenting program, which is based on Social-Cognitive Theory, with a sample of 76 parents of adolescents. The study group comprised 38 parents in intervention and 38 parents in control groups. Quantitative analysis of data revealed no significant changes in the intervention group. On the other hand, qualitative results of the research revealed improvements in parents' mental health. It was stated that the program helped to reduce behavior problems and enabled parents to experience relatively fewer conflicts with their adolescent children.

Recently, Koyuncu-Şahin (2021) investigated the Triple P Parenting Program with a sample of parents with 48–72-month-old children who showed behavior problems. In the study, the effects of the program on parents' discipline strategies and parent-child relationship were investigated. According to the results, intervention group parents' (n = 23) dysfunctional discipline strategies decreased, and relationship with their child improved when compared to waiting list group (n = 24). Moreover, results indicated improvements in parenting skills, parental efficiency, positive parental perception, coping with behavior problems, setting and applying rules, and co-parenting communication. These effects were maintained the two-month follow-up.

Özmen (2013) translated and adapted a Cognitive-Behavioral based parenting program developed by Lauth and Heubeck (2010) for parents of children with behavioral problems. The researcher tested the effectiveness of the program on mothers' depression levels and children's behavioral problems with the sample of 16 (n = 8 in intervention and, n = 8 in the control group) mothers with children aged 6 to 11. Results indicated that the program significantly decreased the behavioral problems of the children and the mothers' depression levels.

Sener and Cimete (2016) adapted a program based on Social Cognitive Theory and Smith's Model of Health and Illness and test the effects of the program on parenting self-efficacy, parental self-esteem, attitudes of mothers, and the child's emotional and behavioral problems. The sample consisted of 77 mothers (intervention group, n = 39; control group, n = 38). Results indicated that participation in the 10-week program increased the self-efficacy, self-esteem, and democratic attitudes of the mothers and the competency scores of their children. In addition, a statistically significant difference was found in child's behavior problems in favor of the intervention group. These changes were maintained at three months follow-up.

As a result of the literature review, the researcher could not reach an Adlerian-based parent education study in Turkey. The only study available in the literature is an experimental study conducted by Akdoğan (2014), which tested the effect of an Adlerian-based group counseling program on university students' feelings of inferiority and psychological symptoms. Thus, the current study is one of the first attempts to test an Adlerian-Dreikursian Parenting program in Turkish culture. It is considered that the Positive Discipline Parenting Program adapted and implemented to test the effectiveness within the scope of the present study would be useful in reducing the dysfunctional parental practices, in gaining effective parental attitudes, increasing parenting self-efficacy, and decreasing parental stress.

2.6. Summary of the Literature Review

Parenting is one of the most important roles in an adult's life. Parenting determines not only the child's current well-being but also the child's future well-being and social cohesion. Parents facilitate their children's development through parenting behaviors that parents perform in the parent-child relationship. Parenting disciplinary practices are one of the areas within a broader range of parenting behaviors. Parenting disciplinary practices involves parents' efforts to encourage their children to behave

in desired ways and parents' responses to the child's misbehavior (Lansford, 2019; O'Leary, 1995).

A pile of research in the literature indicated that parental disciplinary strategies are related to better or worse child outcomes. It has been well evidenced in the literature that effective disciplinary strategies involving responsiveness, monitoring, support, and supervision are related to positive child outcomes. For instance, academic motivation, success (Pinquart, 2016; Pomerantz & Grolnick, 2017), self-esteem (Pinquart & Gerke, 2019), self-regulation (Grolnick et al., 2019), empathy, moral development (Eisenberg et al., 2019; Smetana et al., 2019), and positive peer relations (Healy et al., 2015). On the contrary, overreactive, hostile, or lax disciplinary strategies are found to be related to emotional, social, and behavioral problems. For example, internalizing behaviors (Lansford et al., 2014a, 2014b) externalizing behaviors (Gershoff & Grogan-Kaylor 2016; Gershoff et al., 2018; Prinzie et al., 2010), adjustment problems (van den Akker et al., 2010), violence, antisocial behavior (Gershoff, 2013), bullying, being bullied at school (Healy et al., 2015; Lereya et al., 2013), and child abuse and neglect (Lee et al., 2014).

Hence, many studies have been carried out over the years on the factors affecting parenting behaviors. Two models developed by Belsky (1984) and Abidin (1992) are the most prominent theoretical models indicating determinants of parenting. According to these models, parenting behaviors are impacted by several variables including the personality of the parent and the child, and social-contextual factors such as the parents' social support and sources of stress. Numerous studies have shown that parenting self-efficacy, which is one of the individual factors, and parental stress, one of the contextual factors, are important factors affecting parenting (Belsky & Jaffee, 2006; Crnic & Ross, 2017; Jonas & Prinz, 2005, Wittkowski et al., 2017).

Parenting stress is defined as the stress response to the demands of the parenting role (Daeter-Deckard, 2008). Parenting stress has detrimental effects on parents and

children. To illustrate, high parenting stress was related to parental depression and burnout, and children's internalizing and externalizing behaviors, low social competence, and low academic achievement (Anthony et al., 2005; Dunning & Giallo, 2012; Neece et al., 2012; Östberg & Hagekull, 2013; Sevigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010).

Another important determinant of parenting emphasized by Abidin's (1992) and Belsky's (1984) models is parental self-efficacy. Numerous findings in the literature have revealed that parenting self-efficacy is related to positive child and parental outcomes. According to the research results, higher parenting self-efficacy is associated with positive parenting practices, and less use of overreactive, lax, or hostile parental disciplinary practices (Gross et al., 1999; Sanders & Mazzucchelli, 2013; Sanders & Woolley, 2005). Higher parenting self-efficacy is also related to positive child outcomes. Higher parenting self-efficacy is positively correlated with the child's academic success (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Shumow & Lomax, 2002), career aspiration (Bandura et al., 1996, 2001), and fewer behavior problems (Gross et al., 1995, 2003; Mouton et al., 2018). A considerable amount of research evidenced that parenting self-efficacy is linked with greater parenting satisfaction (Coleman & Karraker, 2000), quality of family functioning and satisfaction (Bandura et al., 2011), less parental depression (Teti & Gelfand, 1991; Teti et al., 1996), and less parenting anxiety and stress (Dalumpines; 2005; Giallo et al., 2013; Kunseler et al., 2014).

Much research in the literature confirmed a reciprocal relationship between parenting practices, parental self-efficacy, and parenting stress. First, results indicated that parenting self-efficacy is an important resource in dealing with stress. Thus, while self-efficacy increases, levels of parenting stress decrease, and vice versa (Jones & Prinz, 2005; Sevigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010). Second, higher parental self-efficacy is linked with positive parenting practices (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; Dumka et al., 2010; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Glatz & Buchanan, 2015; Sanders & Woolley, 2005; Slagt, et al., 2012; Wittkowski et al., 2016). Third, parenting stress impacts both the parental functioning

and practices and the quality of parent-child relationships (Daeter-Deckard, 1998; Daeter-Deckard & Panneton, 2017). Greater parenting stress increases parents' negative emotions, decreases emotion regulation, warmth, and affection, which in turn, generates dysfunctional parenting practices (Abidin, 1992; Deater-Deckard, 2008). It is well evidenced in the literature that lower parenting stress is associated with authoritative parenting and effective parenting practices; in contrast, higher parenting stress is linked with dysfunctional parenting practices (Bloomfield & Kendall, 2012; Crnic & Ross, 2017; Yap et al., 2019).

Parenting skills are learned skills and parenting attitudes, knowledge and behaviors can be developed through parenting programs (Bornstein, 2019). Research findings support the fact that parental disciplinary practices and parental self-efficacy can be improved, while parental stress can be reduced through parenting programs. Parenting programs provide parents with knowledge and skills on effective parenting practices, which in turn, reduce overreactive, hostile, or lax parenting (Barlow et al. 2011; Morawska et al., 2009; Sanders & Woolley, 2005); and provide parents with an environment in which they can improve parenting self-efficacy (Witkowski et al., 2016); and also offer instrumental, social, and emotional support with parents in coping with parenting stress (Bloomfield & Kendall, 2007; Bornstein & Bornstein 2007; Coleman & Karraker, 2000; Mackler et al., 2015). Many studies have shown that parenting programs reduce parental stress and dysfunctional discipline practices, and increase parental self-efficacy (Albanese et al., 2019; Barlow & Coren, 2018; Barlow et al., 2011; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Lundahl et al., 2006).

Adlerian Parenting programs are based on the concepts of Individual Psychology and the child-rearing principles of Adler and Dreikurs (Lindquist & Watkins, 2014). Positive Discipline (Lott & Nelsen, 1988), the intervention program of the current study, is one of the parenting programs based on the Adler-Dreikurs approach. Numerous studies in the literature have shown that Adlerian parenting programs including Positive Discipline, increase the use of positive parenting practices and

decrease the negative practices (Carroll & Brown, 2020; Dean-Zubritsky, 1979; Holliday, 2014; Jonyniene et al., 2015; McVittie & Best, 2009; Prinz et al., 2008; Smalls, 2010); decrease parental stress (Smalls, 2010); increase parenting competence (Holliday, 2014); increase the parents' positive perception on child's behavior (Farooq et al., 2005; Mckay & Hillman, 1979; Mullis, 1999); and improve the parent-child relationship (McVittie & Best, 2009; Nelsen, 1979; Williamson, 2014).

In conclusion, Adlerian parenting programs are effective in increasing parenting knowledge, parental responsiveness, and parenting competence, and in reducing parental stress, dysfunctional discipline strategies, and authoritarian parenting. Thus, the current study aims to adapt an Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting program, Positive Discipline, in Turkish culture and test its effectiveness in reducing dysfunctional parenting practices and parenting stress and increasing parenting self-efficacy.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In this chapter, the methodological procedures followed in the current study are presented. In the first and the second section, the overall design of the study, the sampling procedure, and the participants' characteristics are described. The third section presents the data collection instruments. The fourth section includes the Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) which was carried out to confirm the psychometric properties of the scales. In the fifth section, the translation and adaptation process, and implementation of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program are mentioned. The sixth section addresses the descriptions of variables, and the seventh section involves data analyses. Finally, the eighth section includes the limitations of the study.

3.1. Overall Design of the Study

This study aims to investigate the effects of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on parental disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parental self-efficacy of the parents whose children attend elementary school. The research design of the study is a 2x3 factorial design with a pretest-posttest-follow-up comparison of the intervention group, which received the 6-session parenting program, and the control group, which did not receive an intervention. In this design, the first factor presents independent treatment groups (intervention and control), the second factor shows the repeated measures (pretest, posttest, and follow-up test) related to the dependent variables in different conditions (Büyüköztürk, 2016).

3.2. Sampling Procedure and the Participants

The participants of the study group were recruited through purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is a sampling method that participants are selected regarding predetermined criteria based on the specific purpose of the study (Fraenkel et al., 2012). In the present study, elementary school parents were targeted, and the following criteria were decided for inclusion: (1) being an elementary school parent, (2) being a parent whose eldest child is 6-11 years old, (3) being a parent of a child with normal developmental characteristics, and (4) not having participated in any parenting program before. To reach the applicants, a flyer (*see* Appendix B) including information about the purpose and the content of the study, dates and venue, weekly schedule, and contact details of the researcher was prepared. After receiving necessary permissions from the Rectorate of Akdeniz University an announcement including the flyer was sent to the academic and administrative staff via the e-mail delivery system of the university (*see* Appendix C). In addition, through school counselors, an announcement was shared among WhatsApp groups of parents in the elementary schools in the university district.

After a 15-day announcement process, 14 academic and 11 administrative staff from the university and 19 parents from neighborhood schools contacted the researcher for the program registration. The researcher informed the applicants about the aim of the study, eligibility criteria, weekly schedule, rules, and requirements of the training (e.g., regular attendance to the meetings and completing assignments/homework) and answered their questions. In this process, five parents were excluded from the study group since they did not meet the eligibility criteria (such as not being an elementary school parent or being attended a parenting program before). Moreover, seven parents were excluded since they declared that they cannot participate in meetings regularly. Parents who are eligible and agree to participate in the program regularly were enrolled in the participant list and comprised the study group. After the enrollment, the parents were assigned randomly to the intervention group (n = 16) and the control group (n =

16) with concerning their gender. The intervention group started with 16 participants (13 mothers, 3 fathers); however, one participant was excluded from the posttest assessment since she was absent more than 50% of the sessions. A mother in a control group was randomly selected and excluded from the data set, as well. Among those who completed the program (n = 15), 12 (80%) parents are mothers and 3 (20%) are fathers. Table 3.1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the study group.

Table 3.1

Demographic Characteristics of the Study Group (N = 30)

Variables	*Intervention (N =15)*	*Control (N = 15)*	*Total (N = 30)*
	f	*f*	*f*
Mother	12	12	24
Father	3	3	6
Marital status			
Married	14	11	25
Single	1	3	4
Other	-	1	1
Number of children			
1	7	3	10
2	7	12	19
3	1	-	1
Gender of the Child			
Girl	3	4	7
Boy	5	3	8
Girl &Boy	7	8	15
Level of Education			
High School	1	2	3
Associate's degree	2	1	3
Undergraduate	6	6	12
Graduate	6	6	12
Working status			
Full-time job	11	11	22
Part-time job	2	1	3
Not working	2	2	4
Retired	-	1	1
Child’s grade level			
1	4	2	6
2	4	5	9
3	4	4	8
4	3	4	7

Table 3.1 *(continued)*

Responsible person of child's education and care			
Mother and father	8	9	17
Only mother	6	5	11
Only father	-	-	-
Grandparents	1	1	2

For the intervention group, the ages of the participants ranged from 32 to 49 with an average of 41 (*SD* = 4.91). The majority of the parents (*n* = 11) are working at a full-time job, have an undergraduate and graduate degree (*n* = 12). For occupation, five parents are an academic staff from different faculties, and three parents are administrative staff from different departments of Akdeniz University. Five parents are working at different jobs (a landscape architect, a business administrator, a manager, and two teachers) while two parents are not working. Considering marital status, the majority of the parents are married (*n* = 14). Most of the parents reported that mother and father are jointly responsible for the education and care of the child (*n* = 8). The ages of the children ranged from six to ten with an average of 7.6 (*SD* = 1.30).

The control group comprised 12 mothers and 3 fathers (*n* = 15). The ages of the parents in the control group ranged from 36 to 50 with an average of 40 (*SD* = 4.9). Most of the parents in the control group are working at a full-time job (*n* = 15). Regarding the level of education, the majority of the parents have an undergraduate, and graduate degree (*n* = 12). For occupation, five parents are an academic staff from different faculties, and three parents are administrative staff from different departments of Akdeniz University. Four parents are working at different jobs (a nurse, self-employment, and two teachers) while two parents are not working. One parent is a retired lieutenant. The majority of the parents are married (n = 11). Regarding the person primarily responsible for the education and care of the child, most of the parents (n = 9) reported that mother and father are jointly responsible for the education and care of the child. The ages of the children ranged from six to ten with an average of 8.2 (*SD* = 1.1).

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

A survey package including three self-report instruments and a demographic information form was administered to the study group. The Parenting Scale (PS; Rhoades & O'Leary, 2007) (*see* Appendix D for sample items), Parenting Stress Index Short Form (PSI-SF-4; Abidin, 2012) (*see* Appendix E for sample items), and Perceived Parental Self-Efficacy Scale (PPSE; Caprara et al., 2004) (*see* Appendix F for sample items), were employed as data collection instruments. A demographic information form developed by the researcher was also administered to the study group, (*see* Appendix G). In addition to the quantitative data, subjective evaluations of the intervention group members about the group process were collected through a semi-structured evaluation form including open-ended questions.

3.3.1. The Parenting Scale (PS)

In this study, the Turkish version of the Parenting Scale (PS) was used to measure parental disciplinary practices. The PS was selected to collect data since it has been one of the most widely used scales in measuring parenting practices in general, and in evaluating parenting programs in particular (Salari et al., 2012).

The PS was first developed by Arnold et al. (1993) to measure parenting practices of mothers of children aged 18 to 48 months. The psychometric properties of the scale were investigated with various samples of parents such as preschool, elementary, and middle school parents (Collett et al., 2001; Harvey et al., 2001; Irvine et al., 1999; Karazsia et al., 2008; Prinzie et al., 2007). In the literature, several studies have revealed different psychometric properties from the original scale. In the present study, Rhoades and O'Leary's (2007) version of the scale was used.

The PS is a self-report scale that measures non-functional parental disciplinary practices. The scale consists of 30 items with three factors called, laxness (five items), overreactivity (five items), and hostility (three items). The remaining17 items in the

scale did not load under any factor, yet they are used in calculating the total score. Laxness dimension is parallel with Baumrind's (1968) permissive parenting while the overreactivity dimension is parallel with authoritarian parenting. The hostility dimension represents more forceful disciplinary practices, such as hitting children or name-calling (Rhoades & O'Leary, 2007). In each item, a child's behavior (or a situation) is given. Parents are asked to rate how they react to this behavior on the 7-point continuum considering their last two months' experiences. Ratings close to the left side of the continuum indicate effective parenting disciplinary practices while ratings close to the right side of the continuum indicate non-effective parenting disciplinary practices. There are 14 reverse items in the scale, and ratings are evaluated as inversely with other items (i.e., the left side represents non-effective while the right side represents effective parenting practices). The total score and the scores of three factors can be calculated. The total score of the scale and the score of each subscale are calculated by taking the average of the responses given to all items and the responses given to the relevant subscale items, respectively. Hence, the total score can be obtained from PS ranges from 1 to 7. While lower scores indicate effective parenting discipline practices, higher scores indicate non-effective parenting discipline practices. Clinical cut-offs recommended as: 3.2 (for mothers and fathers for the total score); 3.6 (for mothers) and 3.4 (for fathers) for the laxness; 4 (for mothers) and 3.9 (for fathers) for the overreactivity; and 2.4 (for mothers) and 3.5 (for fathers) for the hostility (Arnold et al., 1993; Rhoades & O'Leary, 2007). Rhoades and O'Leary (2007) conducted a CFA study with a sample of 453 parents who have children between 3-8 years old. The results of the CFA yielded a three-factor structure. Goodness of fit statistics revealed an acceptable fit for fathers ($\chi 2$/df-ratio = 1.75; RMSA = .04; TLI = .91 CFI = .93), and for mothers ($\chi 2$/df-ratio = 1.29; RMSA = .03; TLI = .97 CFI = .98). According to the results of test-retest of two weeks intervals, reliability scores were found as .85 for mothers and .82 for fathers; .80 for mothers and fathers; and .78 for mothers and .83 for fathers for the laxness, overreactivity, and hostility factors, respectively.

Rhoades and O'Leary's (2007) version of the scale was adapted to Turkish by two different groups of researchers. Tüfekçi and Deniz (2014) conducted their study with mothers of 48-72 months-old children (n = 568). The results confirmed the three-factor structure with acceptable goodness of fit statistics ($\chi 2$/df-ratio = 1.98, AGFI = .95, CFI = .93, TLI = .91, GFI = .96, RMSA = .04). Cronbach's alpha value was found as .74 for the overall scale, and .58, .65, and .64, for the laxness, overreactivity, and hostility factors, respectively. Arkan et al. (2019) adapted the scale into Turkish with the parents of children between 0 and 12 years old (n = 270). In their study, the result of the confirmatory factor analysis supported the three- factor structure ($\chi 2$/df-ratio = 2.19, GFI = .93, CFI = .98, IFI = .98, NFI = .96, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .07); and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated as .94 for the overall scale, and 92, .77, and .83 for the laxness, overreactivity, and hostility factors, respectively.

3.3.2. Parenting Stress Index-Short Form (PSI-SF-4)

The Parenting Stress Index-Short Form (PSI-SF-4th edition) was developed by Abidin as an abbreviated version of the full-length Parenting Stress Index-4th edition (Abidin, 2012). This scale was selected for the experimental study since its validity and reliability have been tested in many studies for different cultures and its application manual provides norms at the domain and subscale level and t- scores to enhance interpretation (Abidin, 2012). The PSI-SF-4 is a self-report measure containing 36 items in which parents respond on a 5-point Likert scale (from strongly agree to strongly disagree). The PSI-SF-4 has three subscales: Parental distress (PD), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), and difficult child (DC). The PD subscale reflects the stress level experienced by parents related to the parenting role. The PD subscale surveys parenting competence, social support, and stresses associated with the restrictions on other life roles. The PCDI subscale measures the parents' perceptions that whether their child meets their expectations, and whether their child provides them with reinforcements as parents. The DC subscale assesses the parent's perceptions of the child's behavioral characteristics such as temperament, defiance,

disobedience, and demandingness that make it difficult to manage them. Each subscale consists of 12 items and the scores vary between 12 and 60 for each item. The overall score can also be calculated for Total Stress. The total stress score ranges from 36 to 180. Higher scores on the subscales and the total score indicate a greater level of stress.

The Parenting Stress Index-Short Form (PSI-SF-4) was adapted to Turkish by Çekiç and Hamamcı (2018) with a sample of 323 parents (179 mothers, 143 fathers) of elementary school children. A CFA was conducted to test the construct validity of the scale. CFA results confirmed the three-factor structure of the PSI-SF-4 with good fit indices (RMSEA = 0.06, NFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.98, and GFI = 0.95). Moreover, the PSI-SF-4 was administered to a clinical group (parents who applied to psychiatry services, counseling and research centers, and school psychological guidance and counseling services due to various psychological problems of their children), and a non-clinical group (parents who did not apply to any of these services for their children). T-test results showed that there is a significant difference between the scores of the parents of the clinical group and the parents of the non-clinical group. According to the scores of the sub-dimensions, the parents in the clinical group were found to have higher stress than those in the non-clinical group. The Cronbach alpha coefficients and test-retest reliability scores were calculated to determine the reliability of the scale. Internal consistency coefficients were calculated as .84 for the PS sub-dimension, .76 for the PCDI sub-dimension, .83 for the DC sub-dimension, and .91 for the total score of the PSI-SF-4. The test-retest reliability analyzes were performed with 49 parents with a one-month interval and found as .58 for parental stress (PS), .69 for parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), .60 for difficult child (DC), and .91 for the overall scale. As a result, PSI-SF-4 is considered a valid and reliable measure to use in the experimental study.

3.3.3. Perceived Parental Self-Efficacy Scale (PPSE)

Caprara et al. (2004) developed a set of scales including Filial, Parental, Marital, and Collective Family Efficacy to assess family members' efficacy beliefs about their different roles in the family (i.e., a spouse, parent, child, and about the functioning of the family) with the sample of 600 parents and 1000 adolescents. These scales consist of four independent forms that it is possible to use one of the forms separately. The PPSE measures parents' beliefs about their abilities: (a) to maintain open communication with their children, (b) to assist their children to develop self-reliance, (c) to accomplish agreement regarding personal responsibilities, (d) to deal with violations of rules, (e) to prevent disagreements from extending to conflicts, and (f) to create enjoyable activities with their children (Caprara et al., 2004). The PPSE has 12 items with a 7-point Likert scale in which responses range from 1 (not well at all) to 7 (very well). The scores range between 12 and 84. Higher scores indicate greater parental self-efficacy belief. The validity of the scale was confirmed through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). The EFA results yielded a-single factor structure which accounted for 61% of the variance for fathers and 58% of the variance for mothers. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was .87 for parents combined (.85 for mothers, .90 for fathers) in the original scale (Caprara et al., 2004)

The scale was adapted to Turkish by Demir and Gündüz (2014) with a sample of 510 secondary and high school parents (339 mothers, and 171 fathers). An EFA study was performed to confirm the validity of the Turkish version of the scale. According to the EFA results, 11 items with a single-factor structure (item 7 was excluded) was confirmed. The scale accounted for 55% of the variance in parental self-efficacy. Moreover, a criterion-related validity study was conducted with a sample of 60 mothers and 55 fathers by using General Self Efficacy Scale (GSE). The total score correlation between the GSE and the PPSE was found to be .78. To provide evidence for reliability, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for internal consistency was calculated and found to be .92. Also, the scale was implemented with two-week intervals with a

sample of 60 mothers and 44 fathers. According to the results, test–retest reliability was found to be .94 (Demir & Gündüz, 2014).

3.3.4. Demographic Information Form

A demographic information form was developed by the researcher to obtain information about the demographic characteristics of the participants of the pilot study and the main study. Participants were asked to respond to demographic questions such as gender, age, number of children, marital status, education level, and working status. Participants were also asked to answer the question about the person primarily responsible for the education and care of the child and whether they had previously participated in a parent education program. Questions including the gender, age, and the grade level of their child studying at elementary school were also asked in the demographic information form. The demographic information form is provided in Appendix G.

3.3.5. Program Evaluation Form

To assess the overall functioning of the parenting program, an evaluation form has been developed and administered to the intervention group. For assessing the qualitative feedback, participants were asked to fill out this form at the end of the last session and the follow-up session. Program Evaluation Form was developed by the researcher and reviewed by five academicians (three academicians from the Psychological Counseling Department, one academician from Curriculum and Instruction Department, one academician from the Turkish Language Teaching Department), and the dissertation supervisor of the researcher. Arrangements and changes suggested by the academicians were made, and the evaluation form was finalized for implementation.

The Program Evaluation Form consists of a checklist including 31 items with 5 Likert-type responses ranging from “totally disagree” to “totally agree”. This part of the form includes four subtitles as “Evaluation of the trainer”, “Evaluation of the training plan and training materials”, “Evaluation of the training process” and “Evaluation of the training Results”. The Program Evaluation form also consists of six open-ended questions to evaluate strengths and weaknesses of the training program such as *“What was the information and practices you benefited from the most and contributed to you in the training?”, “What aspects did you dislike the most?” and “Which parenting tools you learned in the training and how often do you use it?”.* For the follow-up evaluation, the open-ended part of the program evaluation form was utilized with the intervention group at the three months-follow-up session. The participants were asked to answer the questions considering the post-training process since the last session of the training. Sample items of the program evaluation form are provided in Appendix H.

3.4. Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA)

Prior to the experimental study, to confirm the psychometric properties of the scales for the target population of the current study, Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) were carried out for the Turkish version of the Parenting Scale (PS) and Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy Scale (PPSE). Since the Parenting Stress Index-Short Form (PSI-SF-4) is a standardized scale with manual and norm values, and the Turkish adaptation of the scale was performed with the target population of the current study, (i.e., with the sample of elementary school parents), PSI-SF-4 was not included in the CFA study.

The CFA study was conducted with 618 elementary school parents. Data of the CFA study was not merged with the data of the main study since a different study group was employed for the experimental study. The demographic characteristics of the

participants in the CFA study are given in the related section below. The data collection procedure of the CFA study was provided in the data collection part.

Before conducting the CFA, assumptions of the accuracy of data, sample size, missing values, outliers, univariate and multivariate normality, linearity, and multicollinearity were examined to confirm the appropriateness of the current data set for the CFA (Brown, 2015; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014; Ullman, 2006). For each instrument, the same procedure was followed to test the assumptions. The criteria for the validation of assumptions were mentioned in detail for the Parenting Scale (PS) and the same criteria are utilized for the Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy Scale (PPSE). Assumptions were examined through SPSS Version 22 (IBM Corp., 2013).

Subsequent to the assumption check, two separate CFAs were performed for the PS and PPSE via LISREL 8.7 (Joreskog & Sörbom, 1993). To test the factor structure of the instruments, several fit indices suggested in the literature were utilized. In line with the suggestions of several researchers, the following goodness of fit statistics were selected and reported in the present study: Model Chi-Square ($\chi 2$) and $\chi 2/(df)$ ratio, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR); Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI); Goodness-of-Fit Statistic (GFI); Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), (Brown, 2015; Hair et al., 2014; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011).

The results of the CFA were evaluated based on following threshold levels of related fit indices: chi- square $p > .05$ (Hooper et al., 2008); chi-square/df ratio 5 or lower (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004); SRMR .08 or lower (Brown, 2015; Hu & Bentler, 1999); NNFI .90 or higher (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; MacCallum et al., 1996), CFI .90 or higher (Hu & Bentler, 1999); AGFI .95 or higher (Hu & Bentler, 1999); RMSEA < .05, close fit; .05 < RMSEA < .10, mediocre fit; RMSEA > .10, poor fit) (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; MacCallum et al., 1996).

In the following sections, the demographic characteristics of the participants of the CFA Study, CFA assumptions, CFA results, and reliability findings were presented for both scales, respectively.

3.4.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants of the CFA Study

Participants of the CFA study included 417 mothers (67.5%), 197 fathers (31.9%), and 1 other (0.2 %). Three parents did not specify their parental status. Parents' ages were between 24 and 58 (*M* = 39, 7 *SD* = 5, 65). The child's grade level of participants was: 53 students at the 1st grade (8.6%), 112 students at the 2nd grade (18.1%), 112 students at the 3rd grade (18.1%), and 339 students at the 4th grade (54.9%). Two parents did not specify their child's grade level. Children's ages were reported between 6 and 11 (*M* = 8, 8 *SD* = 1, 20). 328 (53.1%) parents reported their child's gender as a girl, and 284 (46%) parents reported as a boy. Six parents did not answer this question. Participants were asked about the number of children that they have. Among 618 participants, 131 (21.2%) parents reported that they have one child, 483 (81.9%) parents reported having more than one child. Four parents did not identify the number of children they have. Of 483 participants, 372 parents reported to have 2 children (60.2%), 100 parents reported to have three children (16.2 %), ten parents reported to have four children (1.6%), and one parent reported to have five children (0.2%). 569 parents (92.1%) reported their marital status as married, whereas 21 (3.4%) parents reported as single, and 25 (4%) parents reported their marital status as other. Three parents did not specify their marital status. Among 618 participants, 419 individuals were currently working at a full-time or a part-time job, whereas 181 parents were not working (29.3%). 15 parents were retired (2.4%). Three parents did not answer this question. Participants' level of education was varied as; 31 elementary school (5%), 52 secondary school (8.4 %), 162 high-school (26.2 %), 65 associate's degrees (10.5 %), 266 undergraduate (43%), and 40 graduate degree (6.5%).12 parents did not specify their education level. The person primarily responsible for the education and care of the child was asked to the participants. Most of the participants (n = 448;

72.5%) reported that mother and father are jointly responsible for the education and care of the child. Among 618 participants, 145 (23.5%) parents reported that only mother is responsible for, while 11 (1.8%) parents reported that only father is responsible for. 12 (2%) participants reported as grandparents or other persons are primarily responsible for the education and care of the child. In addition, the participants were asked whether they had previously participated in a parent education program. The majority of the participants (n = 451; 73%) stated that they did not attend any parent education program previously, while 156 (25.2%) parents stated they attended a parenting program before. 11 parents did not specify whether they have attended a parent education program previously or not.

3.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Parenting Scale (PS)

Before conducting CFA, assumptions were controlled. At first, the accuracy of the data was evaluated in terms of possible mistakes in data entry. For this purpose, maximum and minimum values and the means and standard deviations were inspected, and no inaccurate data was detected. After the accuracy of the data entry was confirmed, sample size adequacy for the CFA was checked. There are several suggestions regarding the minimum sample size for the CFA. One of the suggestions is using the cases-to-variables ratio (Field, 2018). Hair et al. (2014) recommended that although the desired level is between 15 and 20 observations per variable, the minimum ratio of observations to independent variables should be 5: 1. The current study includes 29 parameters (13 for observed variables, 13 for error variances, and 3 for the correlations between latent variables), and satisfies the desired level of observations per variable (535/29). Another suggestion for the minimum sample size for the CFA is N> 200 (Kline (2011). The number of participants in the present study (n = 535) exceeded the minimum number of 200 participants. Consequently, according to the criteria given above, the sample size of the present study was appropriate for the analyses.

Afterward, data were screened for missing values and some cases were detected with missing values. Missing values were found to be less than 10% for each case. According to Hair et al. (2014), if the amount of missing data is less than 10 percent and the sample size is more than 250, any technique can be used to deal with the missing data (listwise deletion or data imputation). Thus, rather than listwise deletion, data imputation was preferred to handle missing data. Although there are several data imputation methods, Mertler and Reinhart (2016) recommended that using mean values to replace the missing values is the best estimate for the value on a given variable unless there are numerous missing values. Consequently, data imputation was done by mean value replacement since only a few data were missing.

Following missing value analyses, data were checked for univariate and multivariate outliers. At first, univariate outliers were examined using z-scores, and 83 cases above ± 3.29 were detected as outliers (Field, 2018). Secondly, Mahalanobis distances were examined to check the multivariate outliers (Hair et al., 2014). According to the Mahalanobis distance scores, 21 cases exceeding the threshold level of $\chi 2$ (30) = 59,703 ($p < .001$) were identified as multivariate outliers. To test whether the existence of outliers changed the results of the study, the researcher created two data sets: one with outliers and one without outliers. Then, two separate CFAs were performed with these data sets. Since the results of these two analyses changed significantly, 83 data were excluded from the data set, and for further analyses; the dataset without univariate outliers was used. Consequently, 535 participants comprised the sample of the pilot study for the PS.

Participants of the CFA study of the PS comprised 366 mothers (68.4%), 166 fathers (31%), and 1 other (02%) who aged between 24 and 58 (*M* = 39, 8 *SD* = 5.69). Two parents did not specify their parental status. The child's grade level of participants was reported as 48 students at the 1st grade (9%), 94 students at the 2nd grade (17.6%), 95 students at the 3rd grade (17.8%), and 296 students at the 4th grade (55.3%). Two parents did not specify their child's grade level. Children's ages reported between 6

and 11 (*M* = 8.8 *SD* = 1.21). Participants were asked about the gender of their child studying at an elementary school. 287 (53.6%) parents reported the child's gender as a girl while 242 (45.2%) parents reported as a boy. Six parents did not specify their child's gender. Participants were asked about the number of children that they have. Among 535 participants, 116 (21.7%) parents reported that they have one child, 419 (78.3%) parents reported having more than one child. Of the 419 participants, 321 parents reported having 2 children (60%), 85 parents reported having three children (15.9%), eight parents reported having four children (1.5%), and one parent reported having five children (0.2%). Two parents did not indicate the number of children. The majority of the participants (*n* = 495; 92.5%) reported their marital status as married, whereas 17 (3.2%) parents reported as single, and 20 (3.7%) parents reported their marital status as other. Three parents did not indicate their marital status. Among 535 participants, 362 individuals were currently working at a full-time or a part-time job, whereas 157 parents were not working (29.3%). 13 parents were retired (2%). Four parents did not identify their working status. Participants' level of education was varied as; 28 elementary school (5.2%), 40 secondary school (7.5 %), 140 high-school (26.2 %), 55 college graduates (10.3 %), 234 undergraduate (43.7%), and 36 graduate degree (6.8%). Two parents did not specify their education level. The person primarily responsible for the education and care of the child was asked to the participants. The majority of the participants (*n* = 393; 73.5%) reported that mother and father are jointly responsible for the education and care of the child. Among 535 participants, 125 (23.4%) parents reported that only mother is responsible for, while 6 (1.1%) reported that only father is responsible for. 9 (1.6%) participants reported as grandparents or other persons are primarily responsible for the education and care of the child. Two parents did not indicate the person who was responsible primarily for children. In addition, the participants were asked if they had previously participated in a parent education program. The majority of the participants (*n* = 389; 72.7%) stated that they did not attend a parent education program previously, 136 (25.4%) parents stated they attended. Ten parents did not answer this question.

Linearity assumption was assessed by examining the scatterplots to detect any nonlinear patterns in the data. Bivariate relations between pairs of items presented that the linearity assumption was met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

Afterward, univariate, and multivariate normality assumptions were examined. Univariate normality does not guarantee multivariate normality; however, univariate non-normality indicates multivariate non-normality (Brown, 2015). For this reason, univariate normality was examined first by using Skewness and Kurtosis values, histograms, and Q-Q plots. Skewness values ranged between .311 and 1.237, and kurtosis values ranged between -.385 and .930 in the current data. These indices provided evidence for univariate normality (Brown, 2015). In addition, histograms and Q-Q plots were visually inspected and any serious deviance from normal distribution was not observed (Field, 2018). Subsequently, multivariate normality was assessed by using Mardia's (1970) coefficient. Coefficients greater than 3 refer to multivariate non-normality (Ullman, 2006). The result of Mardia's test indicated a severe departure from normality (Mardia's coefficient = 1478.23, p = .000). Since Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation assumes multivariate normality of the data (Brown, 2015), alternative estimation methods to ML are suggested for data with non-normal distribution (Browne, 1984). One of these alternatives is Asymptotically Distribution Free (ADF) estimation (Foss et al., 2011; Yang & Liang, 2013). Due to multivariate normality was not ensured in the current data, ADF was used as an estimation method for the CFA analysis.

Finally, multicollinearity assumption was assessed through examining bivariate correlation coefficients, tolerance value, and the Variance Inflation Factor Value (VIF). Univariate multicollinearity was tested by screening inter-correlations among the variables. The correlation matrix of the current data set showed that the multicollinearity assumption was met since there was not any correlation higher than .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Multivariate multicollinearity was examined by inspecting tolerance and VIF values. VIF values greater than 10 and tolerance values

lower than .20 indicate multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2014; Kline, 2011). In the current dataset, the highest value for VIF was 1.308, and tolerance values ranged between .98 and .76. Since all the VIF values were less than 10, and the tolerance values higher than .20, multicollinearity assumption was granted.

Subsequently, the assumption checks were completed, CFA was performed with Asymptotic Distribution-Free (ADF) estimation method. To validate the proposed factor structure of the PS in the present study, the researcher employed the aforementioned fit indices and their suggested cut-off values.

CFA results indicated a significant Chi-square statistic, $\chi 2$ (62) = 266,87, p = .000. However, since the Chi-Square statistic is sensitive to sample size that Chi-Square statistic nearly always rejects the model when the sample size is large (Hooper et al., 2008; Joreskog and Sörbom, 1993). Due to the restrictiveness of the Model Chi-Square, the normed chi-square ($\chi 2$/df ratio) was recommended to test the model fit (Hooper et al., 2008). The normed chi-square value ($\chi 2$/df-ratio = 4, 30) was found within the range of the suggested criteria of a good fit, which is 5 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). SRMR was found as .07, which is lower than the suggested cut-off value for good fit (Brown, 2015; Hu & Bentler, 1999). TLI had a value of .76 and CFI had a value of .81, which were lower than recommended cut-off values (Hu & Bentler, 1999). GFI value of .93 was representing a good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The RMSEA value was found as .07 (90% CI= .07–.09) which indicates mediocre fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). When all these values were evaluated together, the goodness of fit indices of GFI, RMSEA, and SRMR indicated moderate to a good fit. Therefore, the results of CFA yielded an acceptable goodness of fit statistics and confirmed a three-factor model of the PS in current study ($\chi 2$ / df =4.30; RMSEA = .07; GFI = .93; SRMR = .07; CFI = .81 and TLI = .76). The goodness of fit indices for the three-factor model of the PS was presented in Table 3.2, and the CFA result for the Parenting Scale (PS) was presented in Figure 3.1.

Table 3.2

Goodness of Fit Indices for Three- Factor Model of Parenting Scale

	χ^2 (sd)	χ^2/sd	RMSEA	GFI	SRMR	CFI	TLI
Parenting Scale	266,87 (62)	4,30	0.07	0.93	0.07	0.81	0.76

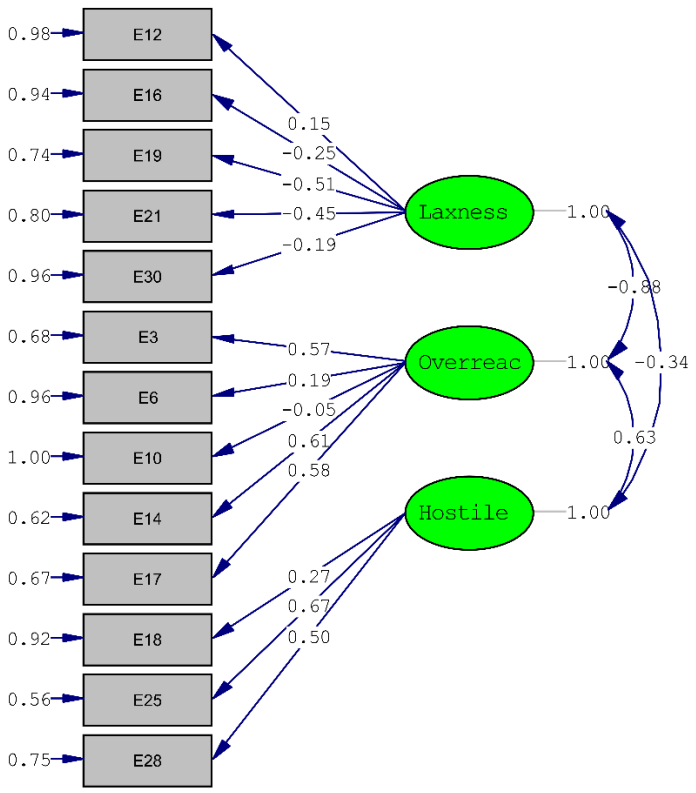

Figure 3.1. Confirmatory factor analysis for Parenting Scale (PS)

As it can be seen in Figure 3.1, standardized factor loadings vary between .15 and .51 for laxness; .05 and .61 for overreactivity; .27 and .67 for hostility.

3.4.2.1. Reliability Analyses of the Parenting Scale

In the current study, the reliability of the parenting scale was assessed by calculating the Cronbach's alpha and the Omega coefficients. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated as, .66 for the overall scale, .48 for the Laxness, .64 for the Overreactive, and .53 for Hostile factors. According to Peters (2014), Cronbach's alpha coefficient includes some fundamental problems, such as Cronbach's approach assumes that the scale items are repeated measurements, and these problems can be easily solved by computing the Omega coefficient (Peters, 2014). Therefore, the reliability of the Parenting Scale was measured with McDonald's Omega (w) coefficient, as well. According to the results, Omega (w) coefficient was found as .73 for the overall scale, .54 for the laxness, .66 for the overreactivity, and .56 for the hostility. In the literature, the alpha coefficient between .60 and .70 is accepted as minimum cutoff values (Aiken, 2000; Hair et al., 2014; Nunnaly & Bernstein, 1994). On the other hand, coefficient alpha is affected by the number of items and alpha value decreases as the number of items decreases (Field, 2018; Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007). According to Robinson et al. (1999), many measures in psychology have subscales that include 4 to 20 items. In this review, the internal consistency value of measurements in psychology was recommended as .80 as exemplary, .70-.79 as extensive, .60-.69 as moderate, and < .60 as minimal (Robinson et al., 1999). Thus, the reliability scores of the total scale and the subscales of the PS can be considered acceptable, yet the results related to Laxness and Hostility subscales should be interpreted cautiously.

3.4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the PPSE

Before conducting CFA, the assumptions were investigated based on the same criteria described for the Parenting Scale (PS).

To begin with, the accuracy of the data entry was examined by checking minimum and maximum values and the means and standard deviations, and no mis-entry was

detected. After confirming the accuracy of the data entry, sample size adequacy for the CFA was checked. The current study includes 23 parameters (11 for observed variables, 11 for error variances, and 1 for the correlations between latent variables) that satisfied the ratio of 20:1 (618/23) suggested by Hair et al. (2014). Next, data were checked for missing values. After performing missing value analysis for each case, some missing values were detected. Since missing values were found to be less than 10% for each case, data imputation by mean values was done (Hair et al., 2014; Mertler & Reinhart, 2016).

Afterward, data were inspected to detect univariate and multivariate outliers respectively. In the current dataset, 9 items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, and 11) exceeded the cut-off value of ± 3.29, and 28 cases were detected as univariate outliers. According to the Mahalanobis distance scores, 26 cases exceeding the critical value of $\chi 2$ (11) = 31, 2064, (p < .001) were identified as multivariate outliers. Thus, assumptions of univariate and multivariate outliers were not met for these cases. To test whether the existence of outliers interfered with the results of the study, two data sets were created as one with outliers and one without outliers. Then, two separate CFAs were performed with these data sets. Since the results of the analyses did not show a better fit for the dataset without outliers, data set including outliers was used for the CFA.

Then, the linearity assumption was investigated and, it is decided that the linearity assumption was met since visual examination of bivariate scatterplots showed no violation (Field, 2018). Afterward, univariate normality was examined. For the current data, skewness values varied between .33 and 1.10, and kurtosis values varied between .01 and 1.15, that is, univariate normality was provided (Brown, 2015). Histograms and Q-Q plots were inspected visually and serious deviance from a normal distribution was not observed (Field, 2018). According to the result of Mardia's test in the current data set, the multivariate normality assumption was violated (Mardia's χ^2 = 465.792, p = .000). Thus, due to multivariate non-normality in the current data, Asymptotic Distribution-Free (ADF) estimation method was used for the CFA analysis.

Lastly, multicollinearity assumption was evaluated through examining bivariate correlation coefficients, tolerance, and VIF (variance inflation factor) values. Since there was not any correlation higher than .90, a multicollinearity assumption was provided (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). In the current dataset, the highest value for VIF was 2.458, and tolerance values ranged between .41 and .79. Since all the VIF values were less than 10, and the tolerance values were higher than .20, multicollinearity assumption was ensured.

Subsequently, the assumption checks were completed, a CFA was conducted by using the ADF estimation method to confirm the single-factor structure of the PPSE in the current study. Since the results did not show a better fit with the dataset without outliers, CFA results with the dataset with outliers (N = 618) were presented.

Results indicated a significant Chi-square statistic, $\chi 2$ (44) = 258.49, p = .000, and the normed chi-square value ($\chi 2/df$-ratio = 5, 87) was found to be higher than the recommended cut-off value of 5 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). SRMR was found .05, which is lower than the suggested cutoff value and indicated a good fit (Brown, 2015; Hu & Bentler, 1999). TLI was .97 and CFI was .97 were higher than recommended cut of values indicating a perfect fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). GFI was .93 representing a good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The RMSEA value was found to be .07 (90% CI= .06–.08) indicating mediocre fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). When goodness of fit indices of TLI, CFI, GFI, and SRMR evaluated together, the results of the CFA yielded a mediocre to perfect goodness of fit statistics for the single-factor model of the PPSE ($\chi 2 / df$ =5.87; RMSEA = .07; GFI = .93; SRMR = .05; CFI = .97 and TLI = .97). The goodness of fit indices for a single-factor model of the PPSE was presented in Table 3.3 and the CFA result for the Perceived Parental Self-Efficacy Scale (PPSE) was provided in Figure 3.2.

Table 3.3

Goodness of Fit Indices for Single- Factor Model of Parental Self-Efficacy Scale

	χ^2 (sd)	χ^2/sd	RMSEA	GFI	SRMR	CFI	TLI
PPSE	258,49 (44)	5,87	0.07	0.93	0.05	0.97	0.97

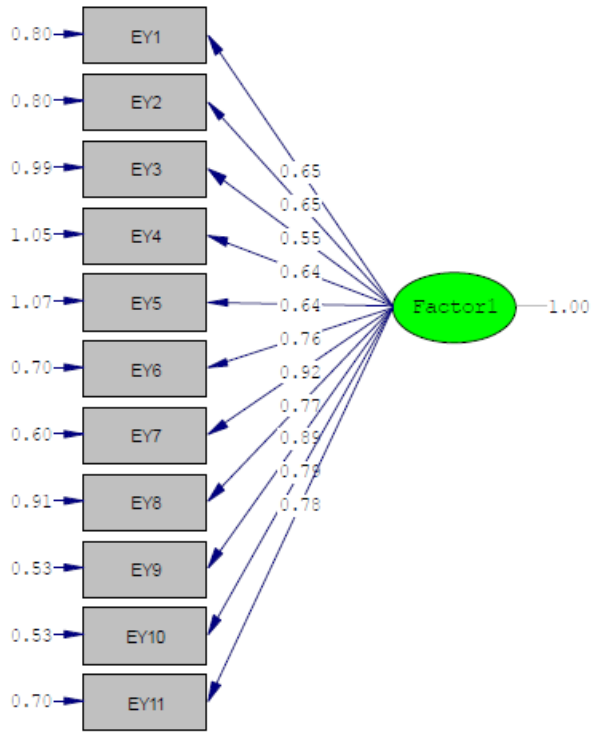

Figure 3.2. Confirmatory factor analysis for the Perceived Parental Self-Efficacy Scale (PPSE).

As seen in Figure 3.2, standardized factor loadings varied between .55 and .92 for the perceived parental self-efficacy. Statistical significance of parameter significance test showed that the t values were significant ($p < .05$).

3.4.3.1. Reliability Analyses of the PPSE

In the present study, the internal consistency of the PPSE was evaluated by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the Omega coefficient. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated as .88 and the Omega coefficient was found as .88. These values exceeded to suggested cut-off value of .70 (Nunnaly & Bernstein, 1994) and indicated good reliability (Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007). To sum up, the PPSE is considered a valid and reliable measure to use in the experimental study.

3.5. Positive Discipline Parenting Program

In the present study, the 7th edition of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program Manual (Nelsen and Lott, 2017) was used for the intervention. The Positive Discipline Parenting model was originally developed by Nelsen (1979), and revised and manualized by Lott and Nelsen (1988). The Positive Discipline aims to teach Adlerian parenting approach and strategies based on the concepts of Alfred Adler and Rudolph Dreikurs. The program was designed as a group format consisting of experiential activities (Gfroerer et al., 2013).

The program can be delivered in different formats, such as a two-day workshop or 6-8 weekly group sessions lasting 90 minutes to two hours. Outlines for alternative formats are provided in the Teaching Parenting the Positive Discipline Way Manual. All formats follow a similar structure and concepts. Program component includes: (1) Adlerian parenting concepts, (2) The aim of misbehavior and the belief behind the misbehavior, (3) Encouragement, (4) Family meetings, (5) Problem solving, and (6) Connection before correction (Lott & Nelsen, 2017). In the current study, the 6-session weekly format, each lasting 2 hours was used. Each session is designed as a warm-up activity (10 minutes), parenting information and chapter discussion (30 minutes), experiential activities (20 minutes), break (15 min), Parents Helping Parents Problem Solving Steps (35 min), and appreciations (5 min). *Teaching Parenting the Positive*

Discipline Way Manual, Positive Discipline Workbook, and Positive Discipline Tool Cards were used as training materials in program delivery. Positive Discipline book (Nelsen, 2019) was also used for reading assignments and group discussions. Detailed information about each session was presented under the Training Procedure and Overview of the Sessions section (3.5.3).

3.5.1. Translation and Adaptation Process of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program

To adapt the Positive Discipline Parenting Program into Turkish culture, several steps (*see* Figure 3.3) were followed. First, as a program requirement, the researcher attended an online training led by Dr. Nelsen to become a Certified Positive Discipline Parenting Educator (CPDPE). In the certification program, the fundamentals of Adlerian theory were taught, Positive Discipline experiential activities were demonstrated, and necessary skills including facilitating the group were shown. Subsequently completing the training, the certification exam was taken. The researcher successfully completed the exam and qualified to receive Positive Discipline Parenting Educator Certificate (*see* Appendix I).

Afterward, necessary permission for adaptation of the program was obtained from the company named Empowering People, Inc. (Positive Discipline), and a mutual agreement was signed between the researcher and the company (*see* Appendix J). After getting the official permission, program materials including, Positive Discipline Training Manual (for trainers), Positive Discipline Workbook (for parents), and Positive Discipline Tool Cards (for parents) were translated into Turkish by the researcher. In the translation process, Turkish equivalents of the basic concepts of Adlerian parenting were decided considering the literature review and in line with the suggestions of the thesis supervisor who is an Adlerian counselor. After completing the translation, program materials were reviewed by two English Language specialists (one academician and one qualified translator), one bilingual speaker (English and

Turkish), and two academicians from the Turkish Language Teaching Department. Academicians evaluated the materials on cultural fit, content, wording, and layout. Afterwards, in line with the feedback of the academicians, necessary changes in the Turkish equivalents of the abbreviations, the Turkish equivalents of the idioms, the page layout, and format were made, and the materials were decided and prepared for the pilot implementation.

3.5.2. Pilot Implementation of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program

To understand how the program works in terms of group dynamics, content, and time to gain experience as a group facilitator and to test the cultural suitability and the language comprehensibility, a pilot implementation was conducted with a group of parents from a public elementary school in Konyaaltı District of Antalya Province. Participants were reached by purposive sampling. An introductory meeting was held in the school in collaboration with the school counselor and parents were informed about the aim of the study, time, and content of the training program. In addition, the participants were informed about the recording of the sessions. After the meeting, volunteer parents enrolled in the pilot implementation.

The pilot implementation was conducted in the Spring Semester of 2019-2020 Academic Year. Group counseling rooms of the Guidance and Psychological Counseling Department of Akdeniz University were used as the group setting. Participant's approval about the recording of the sessions and informed consent was obtained. All sessions were recorded and supervised by the thesis supervisor. The pilot implementation has been planned as five sessions lasting 100 minutes each. However, four sessions have been completed because of the curfew measures due to the global pandemic. In these sessions, 14 activities that would be used in the experimental study were implemented. Since the last session could not be carried out, four activities that would be used in the experimental study were not applied in the pilot implementation.

The pilot implementation of the program was started with eight mothers; however, since all participants did not attend all sessions, the pilot study was evaluated with five mothers who participated in the entire sessions. Participants' ages of the pilot implementation were between 36 and 49. The child's grade levels of the participants were: two students at the 4th grade, three students at the 2nd grade. Children's ages were reported between eight and ten. Children's gender reported as three girls, and two boys. Two participants have one child, three participants have two children. All participants in the pilot implementation were married. Two parents were currently working at a full-time job, whereas two parents were not working, and one parent was retired. Participants' level of education was varied as; two high-school, two undergraduate, and one graduate degree. The person primarily responsible for the education and care of the child was asked to the participants. Four participants reported that mother and father are jointly responsible for the education and care of the child, while one parent reported that only the mother is responsible for the education and care of the child. In addition, the participants were asked whether they had previously participated in a parent education program. Four participants stated that did not attend a parent education program previously. On the other hand, one of the participants had a graduate degree from the Guidance and Counselling Department and has been working as a school counselor. This participant is a trainer of a parent training program called *7-19 Yaş Aile Eğitimi Programı*.

To assess the cultural suitability and the language comprehensibility, an activity evaluation form consists of a nine-item checklist including "yes, no, and no idea" response formats and five open-ended questions were utilized to evaluate the pilot training and the materials. The Activity Evaluation form was developed by the researcher and reviewed by the academicians from Psychological Counseling Department, from Curriculum and Instruction Department, the Turkish Language Teaching Department, and the dissertation supervisor. The Activity Evaluation form was revised and finalized for the pilot implementation with the line of suggestions of these academicians (*see* Appendix K). In the first part of the evaluation form,

participants were asked to evaluate the comprehensibility of the purpose and the content of the activity, the instructions, written materials (i.e., workbook and handouts) given to the participants, appropriateness of the examples provided for the activity, the time allocated to the activity, and the physical conditions for the activity by using the 9-item checklist. In the second part of the form, participants were asked to evaluate the training by responding to five open-ended questions including "*What were your favorite aspects of the activity?", "What aspects did you dislike the most?", "What were the aspects you thought were missing in the activity?", "Was the activity useful and understandable, what can be done to make the activity more understandable and useful?" and "Are there any topics and suggestions you want to specify?"*.

At the end of each activity, the evaluation form was utilized. According to the participants' feedback, training materials, activities, and the training, in general, were evaluated as comprehensible and culturally suitable. Feedback also showed that participants liked the experiential activities and the Adlerian concepts of parenting. The most tempting topics in the program were *"What we want"*, *"Connection before correction"*, *"Focusing the solutions,"* and *"Natural and logical consequences"*. On the other hand, three participants stated that the time allocated for the activities called *"Draw a Child", "Two Lists", "I Need a Hug," and "Too Kind and Too Firm"* should be increased. According to their feedback, it was decided to increase the time allocated for these activities, and increase the time allocated for each session to 2 hours for the main study. Consequently, necessary arrangements and changes were made in line with the feedback of parents of the pilot implementation and the thesis supervisor, the final form of the program materials was finalized. The translation and adaptation process of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program was presented in Figure 3.3.

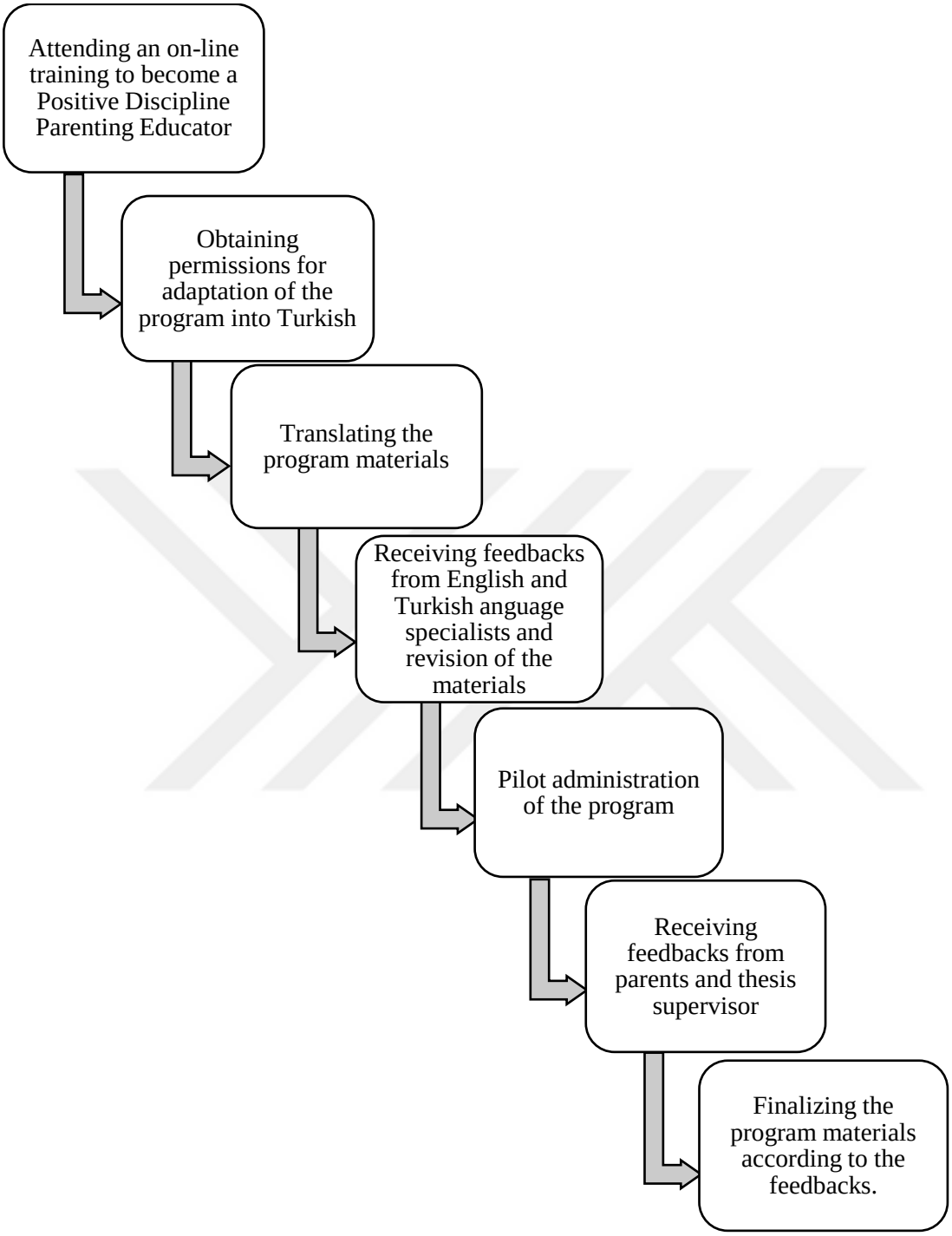

Figure 3.3. Translation and Adaptation Process of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program

3.5.3 Training Procedure and Overview of the Sessions

The intervention group was a six-week structured group that started in July 2020 and finished at the end of August 2020. Implementation was conducted in group counseling rooms of the Guidance and Psychological Counseling Department in Akdeniz University. The group was organized in a closed group format. The group was facilitated by the researcher who is an experienced counselor and works as a lecturer at the Guidance and Psychological Counseling Department at a public university. The researcher has experience in psychoeducational groups and is also a certified trainer of parent training programs (i.e., *7-19 Yaş Aile Eğitimi Programı* and *Positive Discipline Parenting* program).

The intervention group started with 16 participants (13 mothers, 3 fathers); however, 1 female participant was excluded from the posttest assessment since this participant was absent more than 50% of the sessions. Among those who completed the program (n = 15), 11 parents attended all sessions, 2 missed one session, and 2 missed two sessions. The reading and practice homework were shared with the absent parents immediately after the missed session, and a summary of the previous session and the activities carried out were explained to the absent parents by the researcher through a half an hour meeting before the next session. Three months after the completion of the last session of the program, a follow-up session was held to utilize a follow-up assessment.

A six-week structured Positive Discipline Parenting program outline including experiential activities, handouts, and regular homework assignments was administered by the researcher as suggested in *Teaching Parenting the Positive Discipline Way Manual* (Lott & Nelsen, 2017). The program outline is provided in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

*Six Week Positive Discipline Parenting Class Outline**

Week	Topic	Activities from Teaching Parenting Manual	Chapter	Weekly Practice
1	• What Do You Want? • Curiosity Questions • Hugs for Connection • Positive Discipline Tool Cards	• Two Lists • Asking vs. Telling • Hugs • Parents Helping Parents Problem Solving Steps	1 & 2	• Remember what you want for your children. • Go a whole day (or more) of asking not telling. • Try a hug. • Choose a PD Tool Card for inspiration.
2	• What is Positive Discipline? • Kind and Firm • 4 R's of Punishment • Five Criteria & PD NO NO NOs • Understanding the Brain • Positive Time Out	• Competent Giant • Kind AND Firm • Brain in the Palm of the Hand • Piaget Demo • Positive Time Out • PHPPSS	3 & 4	• Practice being kind AND firm. • Treat your children the way you would like to be treated. • Create a positive time-out area WITH your child.
3	• Not so Perfect Parenting • Birth Order and Sibling Rivalry • Belief Behind the Behavior • Not your Job to Make your Children Happy	• Four R's of Recovery from Mistakes • Mistaken Goal Chart Introduction • Fighting & the 3 Bs • PHPPSS	5 & 6	• Practice using the Mistaken Goal Chart. • Avoid taking sides when children fight—treat them the same.

4	• Why Children Misbehave • Natural and Logical Consequences • Solutions • Family Meetings • Routine Charts	• Mr./Mrs. Punishment • Family Meetings • Routine Charts • PHPPSS	7, 9	• Be aware of how you might contribute to misbehavior. • Start family meetings. • Create a routine chart WITH your child.
5	• Not Perfect Review • Connection before Correction • Encouragement vs. Praise • Wheel of Choice	• Thermometer Demo • Encouragement vs. Praise • Wheel of Choice • Don't Back Talk Back • PHPPSS	10,11,12	• Remember to make a Connection before Correction. • Create a wheel of choice with your child. • Model what you want from your children.
6	• What is My Part? • Lifestyle Priorities • Mistakes as Opportunities to Learn • Empowering vs. Enabling	• Top Card • Empowering vs. Discouraging • PHPPSS • Ball of Yarn		• Notice your part in conflicts. • Use empowering statements • Practice mistakes as opportunities to learn.

*Note. * 6 Week Positive Discipline Parenting Class Outline* (Lott & Nelsen, 2017, p. 34)

Each session was started with a warm-up activity, a summary of the last session, checking and discussing homework assignments, and a review of the content of the current session. Then, several experiential activities including, role-plays, group work, brainstorming, and group discussion were utilized. Sessions ended with a summary of the current session, and homework assignments of the next week. The aim of the homework assignments between the sessions was threefold: (1) to encourage parents to apply newly acquired parenting strategies, (2) to become familiar with Adlerian/Dreikursian parenting concepts, and (3) to acquire parenting information. In addition, parents shared their practice assignments during the week with the group, asked questions, and encouraged each other through WhatsApp messages between the sessions. In terms of the training materials, the researcher used *Teaching Parenting*

the Positive Discipline Way Manual (Lott and Nelsen, 2017) to plan and facilitate the sessions. For the book chapter homework assignments, the *Positive Discipline* book (Nelsen, 2019) was given to each participant. *Positive Discipline Workbook and Positive Discipline Tool Cards* (Lott & Nelsen, 2017) were delivered to the participants to pursue activities in the session and utilize activities and homework assignments between the sessions. In addition, several handouts from *Teaching Parenting the Positive Discipline Way Manual* were shared with the participants, and three *Positive discipline AZ: 1001 solutions to everyday parenting problems* (Nelsen et al., 2007) books were kept in the group room. Parents who wanted to read this book could borrow it weekly. The content and summary of the sessions are presented below:

Session 1

In the first session, the participants were invited 30 minutes earlier before the session to fill out the pretest questionnaires. After completing the pretest forms, the aim of the study, the weekly schedule of the program, themes that will be covered in the program, rules, and requirements of the training (i.e., regular attendance and doing homework assignments) were explained, and questions answered by the researcher. Then, informed consent of the participants was obtained. In this session, a program outline was presented, and materials were given to the participants. Group rules such as confidentiality, respect for each other, not interrupting while sharing, etc., and precautions specific to the pandemic (i.e., wearing masks and visors, paying attention to physical distance, etc.) were determined with the participation of all members. A warmup activity called “Create your own t-shirt” was done to let members introduce themselves and meet with each other. This activity also helps participants become aware of differences and similarities among them, and goals and expectations from the group process. Afterward, experiential activities of the first session called “Two Lists”, “Asking vs. Telling”, and “Hugs” were implemented to parents become aware of long-term goals as parents, to help them learn how to communicate effectively, and how to help their children feel a sense of connection. After each activity, participants made

group discussions and talked about what they have learned from the activity and shared their feelings and thoughts. After the experiential activity part, the “Parents Helping Parents Problem Solving Steps” (PHPPSS) part of the session was utilized with a volunteer mother for her trouble that her daughter does not want to share negative events that occurred at school with her mother. At the end of the session, the facilitator summarizes the session and assigns reading and practice homework for the week. At the end of this session, job sharing such as, organizing snacks, putting up chairs, and organizing handouts and posters/charts were done to model the Adlerian concept of contributing to society and increasing social interest.

Session 2

The second session started with a warmup activity called “Do as I Say”. Afterward, the researcher summarized the last session and checked the homework assignments. Then, the participants shared their experiences over the last week regarding their practices of "asking instead of telling" and "hugging". Followed by the review of the content of the current session, the 1st and the 2nd chapters of the Positive Discipline book were discussed and basic concepts of the Positive Discipline approach and Adlerian/Dreikursian parenting such as kind and firm parenting, connection before correction, long term effects of different parenting styles, social interest, and encouragement were explained. Experiential activities of the second session called “Competent Giant”, “Kind AND Firm”, “Brain in the Palm of the Hand” and “Positive Time Out” were administered to help parents understand the long-term effects of punishment, how to deal with anger effectively, how to avoid being too firm or too kind, and how to apply positive time-out. After each activity, participants shared their feelings, thoughts, and what awareness they have acquired. After the experiential activity part, the last session’s volunteer mother shared her experience of the “Parents Helping Parents Problem Solving Steps” (PHPPS) and the results discussed. Then, the PHPPS part of the session was utilized with a volunteer mother for her problem of her

son not getting up on time in the mornings. At the end of the session, the facilitator summarizes the session and assigns reading and practice homework for the week.

Session 3

Session three started with a warmup question as asking parents name three feelings they have had during the week and this question were associated with the homework assignments "Positive Time-out", and "Kind and Firm at the same time". In that way, the participants shared their experiences over the last week in line with their practices. Afterward, the 3rd and 4th chapters of Positive Discipline were discussed, and information was provided about the birth order, misbehavior, and mistaken goals. Experiential activities of the third session called “Four R’s of Recovery from Mistakes”, “Mistaken Goal Chart” and “Fighting & the 3 B’s” were administered to illustrate to parents how mistakes can be used as learning opportunities, introduce the belief behind the misbehavior, and provide alternative tools to use when siblings fight. When each activity was completed, feelings, thoughts, and awareness they have acquired were discussed. After the last session’s volunteer mother shared her experience of the “Parents Helping Parents Problem Solving Steps” (PHPPS) and the results were discussed, PHPPS part of the current session was implemented with a volunteer mother for her problem about her son hitting his friends. At the end of the session, the facilitator asked a volunteer member to summarize the session. The third session was terminated with assigning reading and practice homework for the week.

Session 4

The fourth session started with a warmup activity “Make a Fist” to energize the group and to discuss the effect of power struggles on the parent-child relationship. Afterward, the facilitator asked a volunteer member to summarize the last session. Following the summary of the last session, the participants shared their experiences over the last week regarding their practices of homework assignments. Then, chapter discussions

were made, and information about the natural and logical consequences, and focusing on solutions were reviewed in line with the Positive Discipline book. In this session, “Mr. /Mrs. Punishment”, “Family Meetings” and “Routine Charts” activities were administered. Through these activities, parents become aware of the long-term results of different discipline methods, learn how to apply family meetings, and how family meetings can help their children to gain a sense of belonging and the belief that they are capable and learn how to make routine charts with their children. All these activities are experiential activities including role-plays, group work, and demonstrations, and group discussions help members to process what they feel, think, and learn. Then, in the last session’s volunteer mother shared her experience of the “Parents Helping Parents Problem Solving Steps” (PHPPS), and the results were discussed. The PHPPS part of the current session was implemented with a father who volunteered for his problem about his son's choosy eating. At the end of the session, a volunteer member summarized the session. The session was terminated by giving reading and practice assignments of the week.

Session 5

The fifth session started with a warmup question: What have the parents learned since the last week? This question was linked with the summary of the last session and parents' awareness of how they might contribute to misbehavior. Then, participants shared their experiences about making routine charts and family meetings. The 7th and 9th chapters of the Positive Discipline book, using encouragement effectively, and planning family meetings were discussed. Experiential activities of this session called “Thermometer”, “Encouragement vs. Praise”, “Wheel of Choice” and “Don’t Back Talk Back” were administered. Through these activities, parents become aware of the results of discouragement and the importance of connection before correction, realize the difference between encouragement and praise, learn how to model their children by controlling their behavior, and learn how to create a Wheel of Choice that provides problem-solving ideas with their children. After each activity, participants shared their

feelings, thoughts, and awareness they have acquired. Then, the last session's volunteer shared his experience of "Parents Helping Parents Problem Solving Steps" (PHPPS), and the results were discussed. PHPPS part of the current session was implemented with a mother who volunteered for her problem about her son who constantly complains of boredom. At the end of the session, a volunteer member summarized the session. The facilitator reminded members that the next week would be the last session of the training, and this session would end 30 minutes later to fill out the posttest questionnaires. The session was terminated by giving reading and practice assignments of the week.

Session 6

The final session starts with the "Animal Kingdom" activity. This experiential activity was used as a warmup activity and this activity was later associated with the top card activity in the session. Then, the participants shared their experiences regarding their practice assignments. Afterward, the "Top Card" activity was implemented. Parents' feelings, thoughts, and awareness they have acquired by this activity were processed and how parents' lifestyle priorities affect their relationships with their children was discussed in line with the 10th chapter. The "Empowering vs. Discouraging" activity was administered to help parents understand the difference between discouraging statements that keep children from feeling capable and empowering statements that help children feel capable. After the last session's volunteer mother shared her experience of the "Parents Helping Parents Problem Solving Steps" (PHPPS) and the results discussed, the PHPPS part of the current session was implemented with a mother who volunteered for her problem about his son's not doing his homework. Then, in line with the 11th and 12th chapters of the book, positive parenting tools that parents learned throughout the training were reviewed. The researcher summarized all the sessions and reminded them to use all these tools that they've learned when appropriate. The "Ball of Yarn" activity was administered as a closure activity. Through this activity, members had an opportunity to reflect on what they have learned

from this six-week group experience, summarize their progress during the sessions, and share the insights that they have gained from the group experience. Also, participants share what they would do differently how they would use the experience they have gained to enhance further chances, what steps they could take, what would be their short-term and long-term goals after this training. Before the termination, the members expressed their feelings about the group process, conveyed their appreciation and wishes to each other. The facilitator was also shared her experience and appreciation. The group was ended with reminding the follow-up session and saying goodbye. The posttest questionnaires were administered in the last 30 minutes of the extended session.

Follow-up Session

According to Bennett et al. (2013), the timing of outcome assessment can be varied as immediately after post-intervention (up to one month following the delivery of the intervention), two to six months after post-intervention (short-term follow-up assessment), and more than six months after post-intervention (long-term follow-up assessment). In this study, curfew measures of the pandemic were taken into consideration while deciding the time of the follow-up session. Therefore, a short-term follow-up assessment (3 months after the last session) was preferred to control mortality threat (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

In November 2020, three months after the last session, a follow-up session was held to apply the follow-up tests and to let participants share their post-group experiences. Ten mothers attended the session while five parents did not participate for various reasons. At the beginning of the session, follow-up questionnaires were filled out (Absent parents and participants of the control group were reached in the same week by the researcher, and they completed the questionnaires individually). After completing the follow-up tests, the “Positive Discipline Tools Bingo” activity was implemented to review core ideas and tools of Positive Discipline training and provide

parents with an opportunity for strategies that they did not practice and wanted to try in the next week. After this activity, “Strengths Activity” was implemented to help parents recognize and focus on their children's strengths and learn how to help their children develop their ability to feel good about themselves without needing external approval. After each activity, participants shared their feelings, thoughts, and awareness they have acquired. Then, in line with the follow-up evaluation form, parents shared their experiences, the tools they were used frequently, and the benefits of the training from the last session to the current day and asked their questions. This session was ended with appreciation.

3.6. Definitions of the Variables

In this section, the variables investigated in the study were described and operationally defined. The independent variable of the current study was the condition of participating in the Positive Discipline Parenting Program. The current study has two groups as a categorical variable: (1) intervention and (2) control

Intervention group: The intervention group consists of 15 parents who participated in the 6-week Positive Discipline Parenting Program.

Control group: The control group consists of 15 parents who did not receive any intervention until follow-up tests were completed. After the follow-up period, a 6-week training program was given online to the control group.

Parental disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy are the dependent variables defined below:

Parental disciplinary practices: Parenting disciplinary practices referred to different child discipline strategies that parents use (Rhoades & O’Leary, 2007). In this study, parental disciplinary practices were measured by the total score and the sub-scores

obtained from the Parenting Scale. Total scores ranged from 1 to 7; lower scores indicate effective parenting discipline practices, whereas higher scores indicate non-effective parenting discipline practices.

Parental Self-Efficacy: Parental self-efficacy is defined as parents' perceived capability to support their children in managing school activities, firmly handle violations of rules and duties, prevent their children from risky activities, and take time for enjoyable activities with them (Steca et al., 2011). In the present study, the total score of the Perceived Parental Self-Efficacy Scale was used to measure parental self-efficacy. Scores in the Turkish form ranged from 11 to 77. The higher the scores, the higher the self-efficacy is.

Parenting Stress: Parenting stress is the distress that arises from the demands of the parenting role (Daeter-Deckard, 1998). In this study, parenting stress was measured by the total score and sub-scores obtained from the Parenting Stress Index-Short Form (PSI-SF-4). The scores range from 36 to 180. Higher scores indicate higher parenting stress.

3.7. Data Analyses

Prior to the main analyses, the data were checked for missing values and inaccurate entries by examining the frequencies and minimum and maximum values for each column. Univariate outliers were checked, and no outliers were identified (Büyüköztürk, 2020). Visual inspection of histograms for each variable, and skewness and kurtosis and Shapiro Wilks' values were indicated that normality assumption was met for the total scores of PS, PSI-SF, and PSE (Field, 2018). On the other hand, since the normality assumption was violated in the sub-scores of PS and PSI-SF, and the sample size of the current study was not met the sample size criteria of parametric tests, nonparametric tests were decided to perform (Büyüköztürk, 2020; Field, 2018). Mann Whitney U test was conducted to compare the differences between subjects

(pretest and posttest of intervention and control groups), and the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was performed to compare the differences within-subjects (pretest vs posttest of the intervention group). Friedman test was also used for the repeated measures within-subjects (pre-test-posttest and post-test-follow-up tests of intervention group). The alpha level of the current study was set as .05 (Field, 2018). The data were analyzed with the Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPPS) Version 22. In addition to quantitative data analysis, qualitative data obtained from the evaluation forms were analyzed with content analysis.

3.8. Limitations of the Study

The current study has some limitations related to measurement and sample characteristics. Thus, these limitations should be considered while interpreting the findings.

One of the limitations of the study is related to measurement. Although the reliability scores of the total and the overreactivity subscale of the Parenting Scale are acceptable, reliability coefficients of the Laxness and Hostility were lower than the cut-off scores recommended in the literature. Thus, the results related to Laxness and Hostility subscales should be interpreted cautiously.

Another limitation of the study is related to the sample characteristics. In the present study, the sample comprised of elementary school parents who have children with normal development. All parents in this study were from middle-high socioeconomic status. Additionally, the number of fathers and single parents in this study was small. Thus, the generalization of the results is limited to the parents with similar characteristics.

In addition, this study did not examine the effect of the intervention program on child behaviors. Even though the focus of this program was to promote positive parental

behaviors, any improvement in parenting behaviors may lead to positive results in children. In the long-term, the Positive Discipline Parenting program is intended to help children feel a sense of connection, learn important social and life skills, and feel encouraged and capable through their parents who use positive discipline strategies. However, the findings of the present study are limited to the change in parental behaviors.

A short-time follow-up assessment was preferred in the current study due to practical reasons; however, a 3-month period after the last session might not be sufficient to assess the lasting effects of the intervention.

Lastly, this study was carried out under COVID-19 pandemic conditions that might affect the outcomes in the context of "historical effect". As emphasized in the discussion part, parental behaviors, stress levels, or self-efficacy, which are the variables of the research, may have been different from normal times due to pandemic conditions. Hence, it should not be forgotten that the unique conditions that emerged due to the pandemic may affect the variables examined in the study and the findings should be interpreted accordingly.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In this chapter, the findings of the experimental study are presented. The first section of this chapter contains the results of the preliminary analyses performed to compare the initial group differences between the intervention and control group. In the second section, results regarding the effect of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on parenting disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parental self-efficacy are presented. This section consists of between-group and within-group comparisons of the pretest, posttest, and follow-up scores. The third section consists of descriptive statistics and qualitative findings obtained from the program evaluation form.

4.1. Preliminary Analyses

Prior to the main statistical analyses, preliminary analyses were conducted to investigate whether random assignment successfully prevented initial group differences. For this purpose, to compare demographic variables, a Chi-Square Test, and t-tests, and to compare the pretest scores of the intervention and control groups a Mann Whitney U test were performed.

Chi-Square Test is used to investigate whether categorical variables obtained from one population are different from another population (Gravetter & Walnau, 2017). Chi-square test results revealed that there was no significant difference between two groups in terms of the child's gender [$\chi 2$ (1) = .159, p = .690], the number of children in the family [$\chi 2$ (2) = 3.92, p > .141], and child's grade level [$\chi 2$ (3) = .921, p = .820]. Also,

there was no difference in terms of the parents' gender between two groups consisting of three fathers (20%) and 12 mothers (80%). With regards to marital status, there was no significant difference between the two groups [$\chi 2$ (2) = 2.36, $p > .307$]. A similar distribution was observed in terms of marital status between the intervention group in which 14 (93%) participants are married while 1 (7%) participant is single, and in the control group where 11 (73%) participants are married, and 4 (20%) participants are single. One participant in the control group reported her marital status as other (6.7%). Regarding working status, the results indicated no significant difference between the intervention and the control group [$\chi 2$ (3) = 1.33, $p > .721$]. Both in the control (73%) and the intervention group (73%), the majority of the participants have full-time jobs. In both groups, two parents are not working (13.3%) whereas two parents in the intervention group (13.3%) and one parent in the control group (6.7%) have a part-time job. Only one parent in the control group reported his working status as retired (6.7%). There was no significant difference with regards to graduation level between the intervention and the control group where the majority of the parents (80%) in both groups had an undergraduate or graduate degree, $\chi 2$ (3) = .667, $p > .881$. According to the independent t-test results, there was no significant difference between the intervention (M = 7.6, SD = 1.30) and the control group (M = 8.2, SD = 1.1) with regards to child's age, t (28) = -1.342, p = .602. Regarding participants' age, the results indicated no significant difference between the intervention (M = 41, SD = 4.91) and the control group (M = 40, SD = 4.9), t (28) = -185, p = 1.00. Considering the findings, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the groups in terms of the participants' characteristics.

In addition to the comparison of the demographic variables, pretest scores of the intervention and the control group were compared. Mann Whitney U test is a nonparametric test evaluating the difference between the scores of two independent groups (Gravetter & Walnau, 2017). Correspondingly, a Mann-Whitney U test was utilized for the total and the sub-scores of the Parenting Scale (PS), the Parenting Stress Index Short Form (PSI-SF-4), and the total scores of the Perceived Parental Self-

Efficacy Scale (PPSE) to investigate whether there is a baseline difference between pretest scores of the intervention and the control group.

According to the Mann Whitney U test results, total scores of the PS of the intervention group (*Mdn* = 97) and the control group (*Mdn* = 105) were not significantly different (U_{ps} = 91; z_{ps} = -.893, p = .372). Considering the dimensions of the PS, there were no significant differences on the laxness (U_{lax} = 87, z = −1.07, p = .287), on the overreactivity (U_{over} = 112, z = −.021, p = .983), and on the hostility sub-scores (U_{host} = 110.5, z = −.088, p = .930) between the intervention and the control group. These results confirmed that the intervention and the control group did not differ significantly before the intervention in terms of the total and the sub-scores of the PS.

Similarly, the results revealed that there was no significant difference between the pretest scores of the intervention (*Mdn* = 83) and the control group (*Mdn* = 85) regarding parenting stress indicated by the total score of the PSI-SF-4 ($U_{psi\text{-}sf\text{-}4}$ = 106.50; $z_{psi\text{-}sf\text{-}4}$ = -.249, p = .803). In addition, the results showed that there was no significant difference between the intervention and the control group in terms of the parenting distress dimension (U_{ps} = 97.50; z_{ps} = -.623, p = .533), the parent-child dysfunctional interaction dimension (U_{pcdi} = 97; z_{pcdi} = -.644, p = .520) as well as the difficult child dimension (U_{dc}= 86.5; z_{dc} = -1.082, p = .279). Consequently, these results indicated that there was no pre-intervention difference between the intervention and the control group regarding parenting stress.

Before the intervention, the Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy (PPSE) scores of the intervention and the control group were compared as well. According to the results, both the intervention and the control group had 55 median values on the PPSE, and Mann Whitney U test result indicated that the PPSE scores of the intervention and the control group did not differ significantly (U_{ppse} = 111.50, z_{ppse} = -.042, p = .967).

As a conclusion, these results indicated that there were no significant differences between the pretest scores of the intervention (n = 15) and the control group (n = 15) regarding the total and the sub-scores of the PS, the PSI-SF-4, and the total scores of the PPSE. These findings confirmed that random assignment prevented group differences that might exist at the baseline between the intervention and the control group.

4.2 Primary Analyses

In this section, the results concerning the effects of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on parenting disciplinary practices indicated by the PS, parenting stress indicated by the PSI-SF-4, and parenting self-efficacy indicated by the PPSE are presented. To examine the effects of the training program on dependent variables of the study, separate Mann Whitney U tests were performed to assess differences between-subjects; Friedman's and Wilcoxon Rank Signed tests were performed to identify the within-subject differences among repeated measures for the intervention group. In addition, the effect size of the intervention was calculated by using Rosenthal's (1991) effect size estimation formula in which r was calculated by dividing z-scores to root square of N (Field, 2018). Moreover, the effect size of the intervention was evaluated by considering the effect size classification of Cohen (1992) where .1 indicated a small, .3 indicated a moderate, and .5 and above indicated a large effect size. The effects of the training program on parenting disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy are provided with the following subsections, respectively.

4.2.1. The Effect of The Training Program on Parental Disciplinary Practices

One of the purposes of the current study was to investigate the effectiveness of the training program on parental disciplinary practices. Hence, as indicated in the first

hypothesis, it was expected that the intervention would have a significant effect on the non-functional disciplinary practices and this change would maintain at the three-month follow-up measurement. The hypothesis of the research regarding parental disciplinary behaviors (H1) was investigated and the findings are presented below.

4.2.1.1. Results Regarding the Differences in Parental Disciplinary Practices Between the Intervention and the Control Group

The first hypothesis of the research (H1a) on the between-subject factor was tested by comparing the posttest differences between the intervention and the control group. For this purpose, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to assess the differences between the posttest scores of the Parenting Scale (PS) of the intervention and the control group. The results of the posttest comparison of the PS scores are summarized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

The Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Posttest PS Scores

Scale	Group	*N*	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*U*	*Z*	*p*
PS Total	Intervention	15	10.37	155.5	35.50	-3.195	.001*
	Control	15	20.63	309.5			
Lax	Intervention	15	11.87	178	58	-2.270	.023*
	Control	15	19.13	287			
Over	Intervention	15	11.90	178.5	58.5	-2.246	.025*
	Control	15	19.10	286.5			
Host	Intervention	15	12.50	187.5	67.5	-2.017	.044*
	Control	15	18.50	277.5			
	Total	30					

Note. Parenting Scale (PS Total), laxness (Lax), overreactivity (Over), hostility (Host); p < .05*

According to the results, there was a significant difference on the PS total scores between the intervention (*Mdn* = 86) and the control (*Mdn* = 107) group, $U_{ps} = 35.5$; $z_{ps} = -3.195$, $p = .001$. Considering the subscales of the PS, two groups were significantly different on the posttest scores of laxness, overreactivity, and hostility dimensions. Accordingly, the results indicated that the intervention group (*Mdn* = 12) had significantly lower scores than the control group (*Mdn* = 17) on laxness dimension, $U_{lax} = 58$; $z_{pslax} = -2.270$, $p = .023$. Similarly, the intervention group (*Mdn* = 13) had significantly lower overreactivity scores than those in control group (*Mdn* = 17), $U_{over} = 58.5$; $z_{over} = -2.246$, $p = .025$. Regarding hostility sub-scores, intervention group (*Mdn* = 3) had significantly lower scores than the control group (*Mdn* = 4), $U_{pshost} = 67.5$; $z_{pshost} = -2.017$, $p = .044$.

These findings showed that being in the intervention or control group had different effects on the non-functional parenting disciplinary practices. The intervention group's total scores of the PS and the sub-scores of laxness, overreactivity, and hostility were significantly lower than those in the control group after the intervention. Thus, it can be stated that the training was effective on intervention group parents' non-functional disciplinary practices and the use of more favorable disciplinary methods as compared to those in the control group. Also, the effect size was calculated for the total score of the PS, and the results revealed a large effect size ($r = .58$). In other words, the posttest differences indicated that the training program had a significant and large effect on the disciplinary practices of the parents in the intervention group.

For the comparison of the PS follow-up scores of the intervention and control groups, a Mann-Whitney U test was performed. Table 4.2 displays the comparison of the follow-up scores of the intervention and the control group.

Table 4.2

The Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Follow-up PS Scores

Scale	Group	*N*	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*U*	*Z*	*P*
PS Total	Intervention	15	9.43	141.5	21.50	-3.777	.000*
	Control	15	21.57	323.5			
Lax	Intervention	15	11.27	169	49	-2.645	.008*
	Control	15	19.73	296			
Over	Intervention	15	11.17	167.5	47.5	-2.705	.007*
	Control	15	19.83	297.5			
Host	Intervention	15	11.87	178	58	-2.460	.014*
	Control	15	19.13	287			
	Total	30					

Note. Parenting Scale (PS Total), laxness (Lax), overreactivity (Over), hostility (Host); p < .05*

The results of the follow-up measurements revealed that intervention group (*Mdn* = 78) had significantly lower scores than the control group (*Mdn* = 105) in the total PS scores ($U_{ps} = 21.5$; $z_{ps} = -3.777$, $p = .000$). There was a significant difference between the intervention (*Mdn* = 12) and the control group (*Mdn* = 17) in terms of laxness scores ($U_{pslax} = 49$; $z_{pslax} = -2.645$, $p = .008$). Similarly, the intervention group (*Mdn* = 12) had significantly lower scores on overreactivity dimension when compared to the control group (*Mdn* = 18), $U_{psover} = 47.5$; $z_{ps} = -2.705$, $p = .007$. Also, parents in the intervention group (*Mdn* = 3) had significantly lower scores than those in control group (*Mdn* = 4), in terms of hostility scores ($U_{pshost} = 58$; $z_{pshost} = -2.460$, $p = .014$).

These results indicated that the difference between the intervention and control group regarding PS total scores and laxness, overreactivity, and hostility sub-scores have continued in the follow-up measurement.

4.2.1.2 Results Regarding the Differences among Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up PS Scores of the Intervention Group

To test hypothesis H1b, which indicates the differences among repeated measures of the intervention group on the pretest, posttest, and follow-up PS scores, a Friedman's Test was conducted. As Field stated (2018), Friedman's ANOVA examines the differences between three or more related conditions for non-parametric data. To this end, a Friedman's Test was performed to assess whether any differences existed in the pretest, posttest, and follow-up scores obtained from the PS for the intervention group. Table 4.3 summarizes the changes in the intervention group parents' PS scores from pretest to follow-up measures.

Table 4.3

Comparison of the Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-up Scores of PS for the Intervention Group

Scale	Measures	*N*	*Mean*	*Sd*	*Mean Rank*	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
PS Total	pretest	15	99.93	16.57	2.8	17.40	2	.000*
	posttest	15	86.87	17.23	1.9			
	follow-up	15	80.53	14.26	1.3			
Lax	pretest	15	13.73	4.71	2.2	4.80	2	.091
	posttest	15	13.47	4.82	2.2			
	follow-up	15	11.93	3.8	1.6			

Table 4.3 *(continued)*

Over	pretest	15	17.07	5.02	2.57	7.90	2	.019*
	posttest	15	12.53	4.24	1.83			
	follow-up	15	12.53	3.37	1.6			
Host	pretest	15	4.6	2.41	2.4	8.31	2	.016*
	posttest	15	3.46	.74	1.8			
	follow-up	15	3.46	.83	1.8			
	Total	15						

Note. Parenting Scale (PS Total), laxness (Lax), overreactivity (Over), hostility (Host); p < .05*

As seen in Table 4.3, Friedman test results yielded a significant difference among pretest, posttest, and follow-up PS total scores [$\chi 2$ (2) = 17.39, p = .000], overreactivity [$\chi 2$ (2) = 7.9, p = .02], and hostility dimensions [$\chi 2$ (2) = 8.31, p = .02]. On the other hand, laxness sub-scores of the intervention group did not change significantly from pretest to follow-up test, $\chi 2$ (2) = 4.79, p = .091.

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, which is a non-parametric counterpart of the paired samples t-test, shows the direction and the magnitude of the difference of the scores between two different times or conditions (Kraska-Miller, 2014). Therefore, to determine which measure was different among the pretest, posttest, and follow-up measures of the intervention group, the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was utilized as a post-hoc test for the total scores, overreactivity, and hostility sub-scores of the PS. Since the results of Friedman's test revealed that there was no significant difference among repeated measures, post hoc procedure was not utilized for the laxness sub-scores. To prevent type I error, Bonferroni correction was used (Field, 2018). To this end, the p-value was calculated by dividing .05 to 2 and set as .025 for the post-hoc

analyses. The results of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for the pretest and the posttest scores of the PS are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

The Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for Pretest and Posttest Comparison for PS Scores of the Intervention Group

Scale	Posttest - Pretest	N	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*z*	*p*
PS Total	Negative Rank	13	8.35	108.50	-2.757	.006*
	Positive Rank	2	5.75	11.50		
	Ties	0				
Over	Negative Rank	12	8.63	103.50	-2.478	.013*
	Positive Rank	3	5.50	16.50		
	Ties	0				
Host	Negative Rank	6	3.50	21	-2.214	.027
	Positive Rank	0	00	00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	15				

Note. Parenting Scale (PS Total), overreactivity (Over), hostility (Host); p < .025*

As shown in Table 4.4, Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test results showed that there was a significant difference between the pretest (*Mdn* = 97) and the posttest total scores of the PS (*Mdn* = 86), z = -2.757, *p* = .006, *r* = 0.5. Similarly, pretest (*Mdn* = 18) and posttest scores (*Mdn* = 13) of overreactivity sub-scale were significantly different (z = - 2.478, *p* = .013, *r* = 0.45). On the other hand, pretest (*Mdn* = 4) and posttest scores (*Mdn* = 3) of hostility subscale did not differ significantly, z = -2.757, *p* = .027.

Regarding the PS total scores, the Positive Discipline Parenting program significantly decreased the intervention group parents' non-functional parenting disciplinary practices in general, and overreactive disciplinary practices in particular with a large (r = .50), and a moderate (r = .45) effect size, respectively. However, although there was a significant difference between the pretest and the posttest scores of the hostility dimension of the PS scores of the parents in the intervention group at α = .05 level, the results did not indicate a significant difference at α = .025 after Bonferroni correction. Besides, as Friedman's Test results indicated that the intervention program did not significantly affect intervention parents' lax disciplinary practices as well. In other words, the training program did not have a significant effect on the lax disciplinary practices, and although there was a significant change at the .05 alpha level, there was no significant change at the .25 alpha level on intervention group parents' hostile disciplinary practices.

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test was run to detect the post-test-follow-up differences of PS scores of the intervention group. The results are summarized in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

The Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for Posttest and Follow-up Comparison for the PS Scores of the Intervention Group

Scale	Follow-up - Posttest	N	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*z*	*p*
PS Total	Negative Rank	11	7.50	82.50	-1.884	.060
	Positive Rank	3	7.50	22.50		
	Ties	1				
Over	Negative Rank	9	6.67	60	-472	.637
	Positive Rank	5	9	45		
	Ties	1				

Table 4.5 *(continued)*

Host	Negative Rank	2	2.50	5	000	1.00
	Positive Rank	2	2.50	5		
	Ties	11				
	Total	15				

Note. Parenting Scale (PS Total), overreactivity (Over), hostility (Host); p < .025*

When posttest and follow-up test differences were considered, intervention group parents' PS total scores did not change significantly from posttest (*Mdn* = 86) to follow-up test (*Mdn* = 78), z = -1.884, *p* = .06. Likewise, overreactivity sub-scores did not differ significantly from posttest (*Mdn* = 13) to follow-up test (*Mdn* = 12), z = -472, *p* = .637 as well as the hostility sub-scores (*Mdn* = 3), z = 000, *p* = 1.

Considering all the results, it can be stated that parents' non-functional parenting disciplinary practices in general, and overreactive disciplinary practices in particular, were significantly changed from pretest to posttest, and these changes were maintained after three months period. In other words, the training decreased parents' non-functional parenting disciplinary practices, and the use of more favorable disciplinary practices was maintained after the training.

4.2.1.3. Results Regarding the Differences among Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up PS Scores of the Control Group

For the control group, a Friedman test was conducted to evaluate the differences among pre-test, post-test, and follow-up PS scores. The control group parents' PS scores from pre-test to follow-up measurements are summarized in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Comparison of the Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-up Scores of the PS for the Control Group

Scale	Measures	*N*	*Mean*	*Sd*	*Mean Rank*	*χ2*	*df*	*p*
PS Total	pretest	15	104.29	13.54	1.6	7.18	2	.280
	posttest	15	106.69	12.59	2.5			
	follow-up	15	106.93	12.49	1.8			
Lax	pretest	15	15.26	4.11	1.8	2.48	2	.289
	posttest	15	16.66	3.84	2.3			
	follow-up	15	16.26	3.63	1.9			
Over	pretest	15	16.73	4.35	2.03	.326	2	.850
	posttest	15	16.40	4.22	1.90			
	follow-up	15	18.20	5.90	2.07			
Host	pretest	15	4.57	2.04	1.7	3.59	2	.166
	posttest	15	5.27	2.71	2.1			
	follow-up	15	6.67	4.51	2.2			
	Total	15						

Note. Parenting Scale (PS), Laxness (Lax), overreactivity (Over), hostility (Host); p < .05*

As seen in Table 4.6, Friedman test results did not show a significant difference among pretest (*Mdn* = 105), posttest (*Mdn* = 107), and follow-up test scores (*Mdn* = 105) for the PS total scores, χ2 (2) = 7.18, *p* = .280. Regarding laxness dimension, there was no significant differences among pretest (*Mdn* = 16), posttest (*Mdn* = 17), and the follow-up test scores (*Mdn* = 17) of the parents in the control group, *χ2* (2) =

2.48, p = .289. Overreactivity sub-scores of the control group did not significantly change from pretest (*Mdn* = 18) to post-test (*Mdn* = 18) and follow-up test (*Mdn* = 18), $\chi 2$ (2) = .326, p = .850. Similarly, the results did not yield any significant change among pretest (*Mdn* = 3.5), posttest (*Mdn* = 4), and follow-up test scores (*Mdn* = 4) for the hostility scores, $\chi 2$ (2) = 3.59, p = .166. These results showed that there was no significant difference between repeated measurements of the PS in the control group. Considering non-significant results of the Friedman's test, post hoc analyses were not utilized for the control group.

Overall, the results supported that the Positive Discipline Parenting Program had a significant and a large effect on decreasing non-functional parenting disciplinary practices of parents in the intervention group, as compared to the control group. In other words, it can be stated that the decrease in non-functional disciplinary practices of the parents resulted from participating in the training program and this decrease continued in the follow-up measurements.

4.2.2. The effect of the training program on parenting stress

Another purpose of the current study was to investigate the effect of the training program on parenting stress. Accordingly, the hypothesis of the current study regarding parenting stress (H2), which was stated as "There will be a significant effect of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on the mean scores of the PSI-SF-4 total and sub-scores", was examined. The findings of the research on this hypothesis are presented below.

4.2.2.1 Results Regarding the Posttest Differences in Parenting Stress Between the Intervention and The Control Group

To evaluate hypothesis 2a, which was stated as "There will be a significant decrease in the PSI-SF-4 total scores and parental distress, parent-child dysfunctional interaction, and difficult child sub-scores of the intervention group when compared to

the control group, and this decrease will continue at the three-month follow-up", a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted for the PSI-SF-4 post-test scores. Intervention and control group post-test comparison of the PSI-SF-4 scores are provided with Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

The Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Posttest PSI-SF-4 Scores

Scale	Group	*N*	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*U*	*Z*	*p*
PSI-SF-4 Total	Intervention	15	10.43	156.5	36.50	-3.154	.002*
	Control	15	20.57	308.5			
PD	Intervention	15	10.70	160.5	40.5	-2.996	.003*
	Control	15	20.30	304.5			
PCDI	Intervention	15	11.83	177.5	57.5	-2.289	.022*
	Control	15	19.17	287.5			
DC	Intervention	15	11.07	166	46	-2.766	.006*
	Control	15	19.93	299			
	Total	15					

*Note. Parenting Stress (PSI-SF-4 Total), parenting distress (PD), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), difficult child (DC); p < .05**

According to the results, there was a significant difference between the total PSI-SF-4 post-test scores of the intervention group (*Mdn* = 70) and the control group (*Mdn* = 89), $U_{\text{psı-sf-4}} = 36.5$; $z_{psı\text{-}sf\text{-}4} = -3.154$, $p = .002$. In terms of parenting distress (PD) sub-scores, intervention group (*Mdn* = 25) had significantly lower scores than the control group (*Mdn* = 29), $U_{\text{ps}} = 40.5$; $z_{\text{ps}} = -2.996$, $p = .003$. Similarly, there was a significant

difference between the intervention and the control group with regards to the posttest scores of the parent child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI) sub-scores, U_{pcdi}= 57.5; z_{pcdi} = -2.289, p = .022. These results indicated that intervention parents had lower scores (*Mdn* = 24) than those in control group (*Mdn* = 31). Likewise, the intervention group (*Mdn* = 24) had significantly lower scores than the control group (*Mdn* = 30) considering the difficult child (DC) sub-score, U_{dc} = 46; z_{dc}= -2.776, p = .006. The effect size was calculated for the PSI-SF-4 total scores, and the results indicated a large effect size (r = .58). Hence, posttest differences of two groups yielded that the training program had a significant and large effect on reducing intervention group parents' parenting stress level.

After the three-month follow-up period, another Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to investigate whether the post-test differences were maintained. Table 4.8 summarizes the follow-up comparison of the scores obtained from the PSI-SF-4.

Table 4.8

The Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Follow-up PSI-SF-4 Scores

Scale	Group	*N*	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*U*	*Z*	*p*
PSI-SF-4 Total	Intervention	15	9.57	143.5	23.50	-3.694	.000*
	Control	15	21.43	321.5			
PD	Intervention	15	11.63	174.5	54.5	-2.412	.016*
	Control	15	19.37	290.5			
PCDI	Intervention	15	11.33	170	50	-2.597	.009*
	Control	15	19.67	295			
DC	Intervention	15	10.5	157.5	37.5	-3.115	.002*
	Control	15	20.5	307.5			
	Total	30					

*Note. Parenting Stress (PSI-SF-4 Total), parenting distress (PD), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), difficult child (DC); p < .05**

As seen in Table 4.8, the PSI-SF-4 follow-up scores of the intervention (*Mdn* = 68) and the control group (*Mdn* = 85) were significantly different, $U_{\text{psı-sf-4}} = 23.5$; $z_{psı\text{-}sf\text{-}4} = -3.964$, $p = .002$. Considering the parenting distress (PD) sub-scores, intervention group (*Mdn* = 23) had significantly lower scores than the control group (*Mdn* = 27), $U_{\text{ps}} = 54.5$; $z_{\text{ps}} = -2.412$, $p = .016$. Similarly, in terms of the Parent Child Dysfunctional Interaction (PCDI) sub-scores, parents of the intervention group had significantly lower scores (*Mdn* = 22) than those in the control group (*Mdn* = 29), $U_{\text{pcdi}} = 50$; $z_{\text{pcdi}} = -2.597$, $p = .009$. The results also indicated that parents in the intervention group (*Mdn* = 23) had significantly lower scores than the control group (*Mdn* = 30) with regards to the difficult child (DC) sub-score as well, $U_{\text{dc}} = 37.5$; $z_{\text{dc}} = -3.115$, $p = .002$. Taken together, it can be inferred that being in the intervention or control group had different effects in reducing the stress levels of parents. In other words, the stress levels

of the parents who participated in the training decreased and this decrease continued in the follow-up measurements as compared to the control group. Thus, it can be said that these findings confirmed the related hypothesis of the research.

4.2.2.2. Results Regarding the Differences among Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up PSI-SF-4 Scores of the Intervention Group

To test hypothesis 2b, which was stated as "There will be a significant decrease in the intervention group's PSI-SF-4 total scores and parental distress, parent-child dysfunctional interaction, and difficult child sub-scores from pre-test to post-test, and this decrease will be maintained at the three-month follow-up", a Friedman's ANOVA was conducted. The changes of the intervention group parents' PSI-SF-4 scores from pretest to follow-up measures are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Comparison of the Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-up Scores of the PSI-SF-4 for the Intervention Group

Scale	Measures	*N*	*Mean*	*Sd*	*Mean rank*	*χ2*	*df*	*p*
PSI-SF-4 Total	pretest	15	86.13	19.33	2.80	16.305	2	.000*
	posttest	15	70.53	13.44	1.83			
	follow-up	15	67.73	11.26	1.37			
PD	pretest	15	26.8	5.87	2.40	5.143	2	.076
	posttest	15	24	4.82	2.00			
	follow-up	15	23.26	5.4	1.60			
PCDI	pretest	15	27.86	8.26	2.57	8.259	2	.016*
	posttest	15	23.20	5.55	1.80			
	follow-up	15	22.33	4.30	1.63			

Table 4.9 *(continued)*

DC	pretest	15	29	6.82	2.90	20.25	2	.000*
	posttest	15	24	4.79	1.70			
	follow-up	15	23	4.24	1.40			
	Total	15						

*Note. Parenting Stress (PSI-SF-4 Total), parenting distress (PD), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), difficult child (DC); p < .05**

According to the results, intervention group parents' PSI-SF-4 total scores [$\chi 2$ (2) = 16.31, p = .000], PCDI [$\chi 2$ (2) = 8.26, p = .016], and DC [$\chi 2$ (2) = 20.25, p = .000] sub-scores differ significantly among pretest, posttest, and follow-up measurements. Conversely, Friedman test results revealed that there was no significant change for the PD sub-score of the intervention group from pretest to follow-up measurements.

To determine the difference originated from which group, the scores of the pre-test with the post-test, and posttest with the follow-up test were compared with the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks tests. To prevent Type I error, Bonferroni correction was done, and the alpha value was set as .025 by dividing .05 by 2 because the scores of two separate measurements were compared. Due to the non-significant results of Friedman's test, a post hoc procedure was not conducted for the PS sub-scores. The results of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for the pretest and the posttest scores of the PSI-SF-4 are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10

The Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for Pretest and Posttest Comparison for the PSI-SF-4 Scores of the Intervention Group

Scale	Posttest - Pretest	N	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*z*	*p*
PSI-SF-4 Total	Negative Rank	13	9	117	-3.238	.001*
	Positive Rank	2	1.5	3		
	Ties	0				
PCDI	Negative Rank	11	8.59	94.5	-2.643	.008*
	Positive Rank	3	3.5	10.5		
	Ties	1				
DC	Negative Rank	14	8.5	119	-3.352	.001*
	Positive Rank	1	1	1		
	Ties	0				
	Total	15				

*Note. Parenting Stress (PSI-SF-4Total), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), difficult child (DC); p < .025**

Regarding the PSI-SF-4 total scores, there was a significant difference between the pretest and the posttest, z = -3.238, p = .001, r = 0.6. Similarly, the PCDI subscale (z = - 2.643, p = .008, r = 0.48), and DC subscale differed significantly (z = -3.352, p = .001, r = 61). According to the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test results, intervention group had significantly lower posttest scores (*Mdn* = 83) as compared to the pretest (*Mdn* = 71) of the PSI-SF-4. The intervention group got lower PCDI scores in the posttest (*Mdn* = 23) than the pretest (*Mdn* = 28), as well as in the DC sub-scores where the posttest scores (*Mdn* = 24) were lower than the pretest scores (*Mdn* = 29).

According to the results, it can be stated that the Positive Discipline Parenting Program significantly reduced the parenting stress in general and parenting stress regarding the

parent-child dysfunctional interaction, and the difficult child in particular. The intervention effect indicated a large to moderate effect size. However, Friedman's Test results indicated that the intervention program did not significantly affect the parenting stress in terms of the parenting distress dimension.

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test results were also investigated to identify the post-test-follow-up differences of PSI-SF-4 scores of the intervention group. The results are summarized in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

The Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for Posttest and Follow-up Comparison for the PSI-SF-4 Scores of the Intervention Group

Scale	Follow-up - Posttest	N	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*z*	*p*
PSI-SF-4 Total	Negative Rank	10	8.18	77.5	-1.579	.114
	Positive Rank	4	5.5	27.5		
	Ties	1				
PCDI	Negative Rank	7	7.21	50.5	-.905	.365
	Positive Rank	5	5.5	27.5		
	Ties	3				
DC	Negative Rank	8	7.13	57	-1.429	.153
	Positive Rank	4	5.25	21		
	Ties	3				
	Total	15				

Note. Parenting Stress (PSI-SF-4 Total), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), difficult child (DC); p < .025*

When the posttest and follow-up test differences were considered, intervention group parents' PSI-SF-4 total scores did not significantly change from posttest (*Mdn* = 70) to follow-up test (*Mdn* = 68), *z* = -1.579, *p* = .114. Consistently, the PCDI sub-scores did not differ significantly from posttest (*Mdn* = 24) to follow-up test (*Mdn* = 22), *z* =

-.905, p = .365. Likewise, the DC posttest scores with a median of 24 and follow-up scores with a median of 23 did not differ significantly, z = -1.429, p = 153.

Overall, it can be stated that the Positive Discipline Parenting Program had a significant and a large effect in reducing parenting stress, and this decrease was maintained in the follow-up measurements.

4.2.2.3. Results Regarding the Differences among Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up PSI-SF-4 Scores of The Control Group

To investigate the pretest-post-test and post-test follow-up differences of the control group's PSI-SF-4 scores, a Friedman test was run. Friedman test results revealed a significant difference among repeated measurements of the control group for the PSI-SF-4. Table 4.12 summarizes the control group parents' PSI-SF-4 scores from pretest to follow-up measurements.

Table 4.12

Comparison of the Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-up Scores of PSI-SF-4 for the Control Group

Scale	Measures	*N*	*Mean*	*Sd*	*Mean rank*	$\chi 2$	*df*	*p*
PSI-SF-4 Total	pretest	15	82.01	12.69	1.47	14.136	2	.001*
	posttest	15	88.62	12.10	2.77			
	follow-up	15	87.33	13.10	1.77			
PD	pretest	15	28.15	6.55	1.67	13.236	2	.001*
	posttest	15	30.5	6.44	2.73			
	follow-up	15	28.5	6	1.6			

Table 4.12 *(continued)*

PCDI	pretest	15	25.67	4.98	1.57	7.236	2	.027*
	posttest	15	28.4	5.38	2.5			
	follow-up	15	29	7.32	1.93			
DC	pretest	15	28.27	6.37	1.77	4.36	2	.113
	posttest	15	29.73	6.47	2.40			
	follow-up	15	29.8	6.43	1.83			
	Total	15						

*Note. Parenting Stress (PSI-SF-4 Total), parenting distress (PD), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), difficult child (DC); p < .05**

According to Friedman's test results, there was a significant difference among repeated measures of the PSI-SF-4 in the control group. The results indicated that the PSI-SF-4 total scores [$\chi2$ (2) = 14.14, p = .001], the PD [$\chi2$ (2) = 13.24, p = .011], and the PCDI [$\chi2$ (2) = 7.24, p = .027] sub-scores differed significantly among pretest, posttest, and follow-up measurements. On the other hand, the results yielded that there was no significant change for the DC sub-score of the control group from pretest to post-test and post-test to follow-up.

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was performed for the PSI-SF-4 total and the PD and PCDI sub-scores to identify which groups were different. Bonferroni correction was done, and the alpha value was set as .025 by dividing .05 by 2 to prevent Type I error. Since the results of Friedman's test indicated that there was no significant difference, post hoc procedure was not used for the DC sub-scores. The results of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test pretest and posttest comparison of the PSI-SF-4 for control are displayed in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13

The Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for Pretest and Posttest Comparison for the PSI-SF-4 Scores of the Control Group

Scale	Posttest - Pretest	N	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*z*	*p*
PSI-SF-4 Total	Negative Rank	1	1.5	1.5	-3.327	.001*
	Positive Rank	14	8.46	118.5		
	Ties	0				
PD	Negative Rank	1	6	6	-2.594	.009*
	Positive Rank	11	6.55	72		
	Ties	3				
PCDI	Negative Rank	2	4.25	8.5	-2.772	.006*
	Positive Rank	12	8.04	96.5		
	Ties	1				
	Total	15				

*Note. Parenting Stress (PSI-SF-4 Total), parenting distress (PD), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI); $p < .025$**

According to the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test results for the PSI-SF-4 total scores, there was a significant difference in the pretest (*Mdn* = 85) and the posttest scores (*Mdn* = 89), $z = -3.227$, $p = .001$. Likewise, the pretest (*Mdn* = 28) and the posttest scores (*Mdn* = 29) of the PD subscale ($z = -2.594$, $p = .009$), and pretest (*Mdn* = 26) and posttest scores (*Mdn* = 31) of the PCDI subscale changed significantly ($z = -2.772$, $p = .006$).

These results yielded that the parents in the control group had significantly higher scores in the posttest measurement than in the pretest. In other words, the control group's parental stress, indicated by the total parenting stress scores, parenting distress, and parent-child dysfunctional interaction scores, increased between the pretest and the posttest measurements.

Regarding post-test and follow-up differences, Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test results indicated a significant change of the control group's PSI-SF-4 total scores and PD sub-scores. The results of the posttest and follow-up test comparison are presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14

The Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test of Control Group for the Posttest and Follow-up Test Comparison for the PSI-SF-4

Scale	Follow-up - Posttest	N	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*z*	*p*
PSI-SF-4 Total	Negative Rank	12	7.5	90	-2.359	.018*
	Positive Rank	2	7.5	15		
	Ties	1				
PD	Negative Rank	13	7.77	101	-3.089	.002*
	Positive Rank	1	4	4		
	Ties	1				
PCDI	Negative Rank	9	6.94	62.5	-1.196	.232
	Positive Rank	4	7.13	28.5		
	Ties	2				
	Total	15				

*Note. Parenting Stress (PSI-SF-4), parenting distress (PD), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI); p < .025**

Regarding the posttest and follow-up test differences, there was a significant difference on the PSI-SF-4 total score (z = -2.359, p = .018), and on the PD sub-scores (z = -3.09, p = .002). On the contrary, the PCDI sub-scores did not change significantly from posttest to follow-up test (z = -1.196, p = .232).

Considering these results, parents in the control group had significantly lower scores in follow-up measurements of the PSI-SF-4 (*Mdn* = 85) than posttest (*Mdn* = 89).

Similarly, control group parents got lower PD scores in the follow-up test (*Mdn* = 27) than the posttest (*Mdn* = 29). On the other hand, their PCDI sub-scores did not change significantly from posttest to follow-up.

When all results were taken into consideration, it can be stated that the total parenting stress levels and the parental stress levels indicated by the PD dimension of the parents in the control group increased between the pretest and the posttest measurements; yet, decreased between the posttest and the follow-up period.

4.2.3. The Effect of the Training Program on Parenting Self-Efficacy

One of the main aims of the current study was to investigate the effect of the training program on parenting self-efficacy. Hence, it was stated in Hypothesis 3 that the intervention would promote parenting self-efficacy of the parents who participated in the training and this change would be maintained at the three-month follow-up measurement. The results regarding this hypothesis are presented below.

4.2.3.1. Results Regarding the Posttest Differences in Parenting Self-Efficacy Between the Intervention and the Control Group

To test hypothesis 3a, which was stated as "There will be a significant increase in total scores of PPSE of the intervention group when compared to the control group, and this increase will continue at the three-month follow-up", a Mann Whitney U test was conducted. The results are provided in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15

The Results of the Mann-Whitney U Test for the Posttest PPSE Scores

Scale	Group	*N*	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*U*	*Z*	*p*
PPSE	Intervention	15	19.17	287.5	57.5	-2.287	.022*
	Control	15	11.83	177.5			
	Total	30					

Note. Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy (PPSE); $p < .05$*

These results indicated that intervention group's PPSE scores (*Mdn* = 61) were significantly higher than those in control group (*Mdn* = 53) after the intervention (U_{ppse} = 57.5; z_{ppse} = -2.287, p = .022). These findings showed that being in the intervention or control group had different effects in promoting parenting self-efficacy. Thus, it can be stated that the training was effective on intervention group parents' parental self-efficacy when compared to parents in the control group. In addition, the effect size of the intervention was calculated, and the results revealed a moderate effect size (r = .42). In other words, the training program had a significant and a moderate effect on intervention group parents' parental self-efficacy.

After the three-month follow-up process, a Mann-Whitney U test was performed for the comparison of the intervention and control group parents' scores obtained from the PPSE as well. The results are summarized in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16

The Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for the Follow-up PPSE Scores

Scale	Group	*N*	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*U*	*Z*	*p*
PPSE	Intervention	15	20.10	301.5	43.5	-2.872	.004*
	Control	15	10.9	163.5			
	Total	30					

Note. Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy (PPSE); $p < .05$*

As seen in Table 4. 16, PPSE follow-up scores of the intervention (*Mdn* = 62) and the control group (*Mdn* = 53) were significantly different, $U_{\text{ppse}} = 43.5$; $z_{ppse} = -2.872$, $p = .004$. The results revealed that the intervention group had significantly higher scores than the control group in terms of the PPSE scores in the follow-up test.

When all these findings are combined, it can be stated that being in the intervention or control group had different effects in improving the self-efficacy levels of the parents. In other words, the perceived parental self-efficacy of the parents who participated in the training increased, and this increase was maintained in the follow-up measurements as compared to the control group. Thus, it can be said that the findings supported the related hypothesis of the research.

4.2.3.2 Results Regarding the Differences among Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up PPSE Scores of the Intervention Group

To test hypothesis 3b, which was stated as “There will be a significant increase in the intervention group’s PPSE total scores from pre-test to post-test, and this increase will be maintained at the three-month follow-up.”, a Friedman’s ANOVA was conducted. The changes in the PPSE scores of the intervention group from pretest to follow-up test are displayed in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17

Comparison of the Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-up Scores of the PPSE for the Intervention Group

Scale	Measures	*N*	*Mean*	*Sd*	*Mean rank*	*χ2*	*df*	*p*
PPSE	pretest	15	56.06	6.77	1.43	8.94	2	.011*
	posttest	15	59.93	6.43	2.13			
	follow-up	15	61.53	4.76	2.43			
	Total	15						

Note. Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy (PPSE); $p < .05$*

These results yielded that intervention group parents' PPSE scores differed significantly among pretest, posttest, and follow-up measurements, $\chi2$ (2) = 8.94, p = .011. To determine this difference originated from which group, the scores of the pretest with the post-test and the posttest with the follow-up test and the pretest with the follow-up test were compared with the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test. To prevent Type I error, Bonferroni correction was done, and the alpha value was set as .025 by dividing .05 by 2 because the scores of two separate measurements were compared. The results of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Tests of PPSE are presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18

The Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test of Intervention Group Pretest-Posttest and Posttest-Follow-up Test Comparison for the PPSE

PPSE Measurement		N	*Mean Rank*	*Sum of Ranks*	*z*	*p*
Pretest-posttest	Negative Rank	3	7.17	21.5	-1.951	.051
	Positive Rank	11	7.59	83.5		
	Ties	1				
Posttest-Follow-up	Negative Rank	4	5.63	22.5	-1.297	.195
	Positive Rank	8	6.94	55.5		
	Ties	3				
	Total	15				

Note. Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy (PPSE); $p < .025$*

As seen in Table 4.18, no significant difference was found between the pretest (*Mdn* = 55) and the posttest (*Mdn* = 61) PPSE scores of the intervention group, $z = -1.95$, $p = .051$. Similarly, the PPSE scores did not change significantly from the posttest (*Mdn* = 61) to the follow-up test (Mdn = 62), $z = -1.297$, $p = .195$. The significant difference in Friedman's test was due to the difference between the pretest and the follow-up test. In other words, it can be said that there was no significant change in the self-efficacy of the parents at the end of the program; yet there was a significant increase in the self-efficacy scores when compared to the baseline scores with the scores obtained three months after the training.

4.2.3.3. Results Regarding the Differences among Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-up PPSE Scores in the Control Group

To identify the differences among repeated measures of the control group parents' PPSE scores, a Friedman's ANOVA was conducted. The changes in the PPSE scores of the control group from pretest to follow-up measures are provided in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19

Comparison of the Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-up Scores of PSI-SF-4 for the Control Group

Scale	Measures	*N*	*Mean*	*Sd*	*Mean rank*	*χ2*	*df*	*p*
PPSE	pretest	15	56.45	6.25	2.23	2.792	2	.248
	posttest	15	53.87	6.20	1.7			
	follow-up	15	54	6.6	2.07			
	Total	15						

Note. Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy (PPSE); $p < .05$*

These results yielded that control group parents' PPSE scores did not differ significantly among the pretest (*Mdn* = 55), posttest (*Mdn* = 53), and follow-up (*Mdn* = 53) measurements, $\chi2$ (2) = 2.792, p = .248. Since Friedman's test indicated non-significant results, post hoc analysis was not utilized for the control group.

To sum up, to investigate whether intervention resulted in changes in the parenting disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parental self-efficacy of the parents involved in the training program, the Mann Whitney U test, Friedman's ANOVA, and as a post-hoc procedure Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks tests were performed. When the results of all the analyses performed were combined, the posttest and the follow-up comparisons of the intervention and the control groups revealed that the parents who

participated in the training differed significantly in terms of parental discipline practices. To be precise, the use of non-functional disciplinary practices decreased in the intervention group but not in the control group. The same trend was also observed in the parenting stress that the intervention group's parenting stress reduced in comparison to the control group after the intervention. Additionally, the self-efficacy level of the parents who attended the training improved whereas the self-efficacy level did not change in the control group. Concerning changes within-group, the non-functional disciplinary practices measured via the PS total scores, overreactivity, and hostility sub-dimensions decreased in the intervention group after the training, and this change was maintained after the three months. However, the laxness dimension of the PS did not decrease as a result of the intervention. Considering parenting stress, parents in the intervention group showed less parenting stress in total and in the PCDI and the DC dimensions after the training program than before. However, their stress levels in the PD dimension did not change. Finally, the parenting self-efficacy of the intervention group parents did not change significantly between the pre-test and post-test measures and post-test and follow-up measures.

4.3. Results Regarding the Qualitative Data Obtained from the Evaluation Form

To explore participants' perceptions about the training, the parents of the intervention group were asked to respond to an evaluation form developed by the researcher at the end of the last session and in the follow-up session. Thus, the training was also evaluated according to the participants' qualitative feedback obtained from the Program Evaluation Form.

The first part of the Evaluation Form consists of 31 items under four subheadings "Evaluation of the trainer", "Evaluation of the training plan and training materials", "Evaluation of the training process," and "Evaluation of training results". In this part, participants were asked to rate the quality of the training program on a 5-point scale

ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. In Table 4.20, the results of the descriptive statistics of the participants’ responses to the first part of the program evaluation form are presented.

Table 4.20

Means and Standard Deviations of the Participants’ Responses to the Program Evaluation Form

Items	Total (n = 15)	
	M	*SD*
Evaluation of the trainer		
Had sufficient knowledge and expertise on the training subject	5.000	. 000
Had a positive communication with the participants	5.000	. 000
Narration was clear and understandable	5.000	. 000
Instructions were clear and sufficient	4.933	.258
Encouraged the participants for active participation	4.933	.258
Effectively solved the problems that arose in the sessions	4.933	.258
Used time effectively	4.000	. 000
Lead the group effectively	4.000	. 000
Evaluation of the training plan and training materials		
Training preparations (announcement, organization, information) were appropriate and sufficient	5.000	. 000
The length of the weekly sessions was appropriate	4.933	.258
The day and hours of the training were appropriate	4.933	.258
Schedule of the training was prepared and announced beforehand	5.000	. 000
The venue in which the training took place was appropriate	4.933	.258
The notes / workbook given in the training were sufficient	5.000	. 000
The language of the training materials was clear	5.000	. 000
Weekly practice and reading tasks were appropriate	4.933	.258
The content of the training was well prepared	5.000	. 000
Evaluation of the training process		
An effective communication environment was created	5.000	. 000
The sessions were enriched with concrete and comprehensible examples from daily life	5.000	. 000
The sessions were lively and engaging	4.800	.414
The sessions were active and productive	5.000	. 000
Participants were encouraging and supportive of each other	4.800	.414
The group leader was encouraging and supportive	5.000	. 000

Table 4.20 *(continued)*

Evaluation of Training Results		
The training met my needs and expectations	4.800	.414
Helped me to develop relationships with my children	4.733	.457
Helped me learn new things and/or refresh my existing knowledge	5.000	. 000
Provided useful information and applications that I could use in daily life	4.866	.351
The training included information and activities appropriate to the age and developmental characteristics of my children	4.866	.351
Helped me deal with the problems with my children more effectively	4.866	.351
In the future, I would like to participate in the Positive Discipline Parent Training Program again	5.000	. 000
I would recommend the Positive Discipline Parent Training Program to other parents	5.000	. 000

As seen in Table 4.20, ratings of the parents about the trainer, the training plan, the materials, the training process, and the results of the training were varied between "strongly agree" to "agree". Considering the ratings about the trainer, all participants evaluated the trainer as knowledgeable and expert, communicating positively with the participants. Almost all the participants rated the trainer as encouraging, effective in problem-solving, and efficient in the use of time and leading the group. Hence, it can be said that the participants found the trainer sufficient and competent. In terms of the training plan and the materials, all parents rated the training preparations, training content, materials and handouts, session time, and duration, and homework as "strongly agree" and "agree". In other words, it can be said that the participants evaluated the training plan and materials as quite positive. Regarding the evaluation of the training process, the table shows that most of the participants rated the sessions as enriched with examples, active and productive. Furthermore, the majority of the participants evaluated the sessions as lively and engaging and rated the other group members as supportive and encouraging. When we consider the results of the training, all participants stated that the training helped them learn new things and/or refresh their existing knowledge; they would like to re-participate in the training in the future and would recommend this training to other parents. The majority of the participants evaluated the training as containing useful and age-appropriate information, helping to deal with the problems and improve relationships with their children. Thus, it can be concluded that overall, the participants found the training satisfactory.

In the second part of the evaluation form, six open-ended questions aiming to obtain participants' feelings and thoughts, the knowledge, skills, and practices that they have gained, use of parenting tools and frequency of use, benefits, and contributions that they have gained, and suggestions for the future training were asked to the participants. In the follow-up session, the same form was used by adding a question: "What are the topics or practices you want to be repeated in the training? The data obtained from these two sessions (i.e., after the training and in the follow-up) were combined and interpreted together. The open-ended questions were provided below:

1. *What were the information and practices that you thought benefit/contribute to you the most in the training program?*
2. *What were the topics or practices that you thought did not benefit/contribute to you in the training program?*
3. *Were there any missing points in the training? If so, what were they?*
4. *Could you please explain your feelings and thoughts about the training process?*
5. *Which parenting tools you did you learn in the training process and how often do you use them?*
6. *Please write the issues, problems, and suggestions you would like to mention if any.*

The data provided by the forms were analyzed by using the content analysis. Content analysis can be defined as a systematic, objective, quantitative analysis of the messages created by the participants, such as open-ended questionnaire responses in surveys and experiments (Neuendorf, 2018). The main purpose of content analysis is to define and interpret the data to reveal latent content (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). The content analysis includes theme and descriptive analysis since content analysis is a deeper, more comprehensive, and complex form of theme, and descriptive analysis (Günbayı, 2019). Therefore, categories and themes created were summarized by the descriptive analysis then interpreted with the content analysis (Günbayı, 2019; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018).

The following steps were utilized for the content analysis of the data:

1.) The researcher organized the data and familiarized it with the data by reading the answers of the participants several times.
2.) Initial codes were created and named.
3.) To identify common patterns, categories, and themes were created through examining the codes.
4.) Themes and codes were organized, revised, and named.
5.) Results were tabulated, interpreted, and reported.

To ensure inter-rater reliability, two researchers from the Psychological Counseling and Guidance department followed the same procedure given above. The researcher was compared the codes and themes which were created by three researchers, and based on these commonalities, grouped the themes, and interpreted the content. Descriptive analysis of the codes, categories, and themes are provided in Appendix K.

4.3.1. Contributions of the Training

According to the feedback obtained from the evaluation form, all the participants reported that the training assisted them in improving their parent-child relationship. Consistent with the aim of the study, improvement of effective communication, increased awareness of parenting, and the effect of using positive discipline strategies and principles on parent-child relationships emerged as dominant themes. Hence, the theme "contributions of the training" was mentioned under the three categories as *effective communication and relationship skills*, *awareness of the self and the child's behavior*, and *effects of the training on other relationships.*

One of the sub-categories related to the contribution of the training was *effective communication and relationship skills*. Most of the parents mentioned that through the training they improved and/or refreshed their knowledge about effective

communication skills and apply the knowledge and skills in their daily relationships with their children. Parents stated that all these knowledge and practices they acquired support them to communicate more effectively with their children, facilitate their communication, and improve their relationships. The most prominent communication and relationship skills observed in participants' answers were problem-solving skills, using "Kind and Firm" language, connecting, quality time with children, active listening, empathy, cooperation, anger management, and conflict resolution. For example, one parent asserted that she uses connecting with the child and empathy in their communication. "I use "I need to hug you" very often and the arguments and tantrums end immediately….When I use phrases such as "I understand you, I felt that way," this makes it easier for my child to come out of frustration." Similarly, another parent stated that "The activities based on empathy have been very useful. In this way, we can communicate more and more easily." Likewise, one parent reported that the training helped him empathize with his child "….The training also helped me understand how children feel when we use imperative phrases."

Some of the parents stated that they express themselves more clearly and use more effective communication skills such as "Kind and Firm" language. For example, one parent mentioned that "The subject I benefited the most was learning to speak clearly with my child." Similarly, another parent expressed that "…... Actually, I realized that I was constantly giving orders to my child. Now, I stopped giving orders to my child, instead, I learned to offer limited choices. I'm asking thought-provoking questions to allow my son to solve problems." Likewise, one parent shared her experience on "kind and firm" as "I wouldn't have thought that we could create such great behavioral changes with small-expression differences. When I used "and" instead of "but" as a miracle happened. I could not believe that such a small change made such a big change in my child's behavior."

The majority of parents emphasized the positive effect of cooperation and problem-solving skills and focusing on solutions rather than problems on anger management

and conflict resolution. They also stated that this improves communication between family members and reduces conflict. Some of the parents' expressions related to this sub-theme were given below:

One parent stated that the training increased cooperation as "It has increased the cooperation with my children. It enabled us to solve family problems more easily with family meetings." Another parent expressed the contribution of the training on reduction of conflict as "Using problem-solving, especially for tablet use and homework time and leaving the decision to my daughter minimized our discussions."

Some parents pointed out the effect of spending special time with children on their relationships. One parent stated that "….spending special time with my children contributed a lot to our relationships." Another parent expressed that "…..It is very good for us to spend special times. We all love to turn off the lights, go under a blanket and watch movies with popcorn. We also pamper ourselves on Friday evenings, and we have created a routine of enjoying movies or playing games after mealtime, and they love every Friday. We liked these routines very much."

Regarding the contributions of the training, the most common theme in parents' responses was awareness. Many of the parents stated that the training helped them gain insight into their beliefs about parenting, their parenting behaviors, and their feelings. They reported that these insights in their feelings, beliefs, and behaviors supported them in changing their parental behavior. Moreover, some of the parents expressed that they gained insight into their children's behaviors. Therefore, another salient sub-category was stated as *awareness of self and the child's behaviors*. As an example, one parent stated the importance of recognizing her feelings as "I learned that "the more I am aware of my feelings, the better parent I can be for my child." Another parent expressed her insight about her feelings and the effect of feelings on children's emotional state and behaviors as "….. I was feeling anxious and stressed, thinking that

I cannot meet my children's needs. Now, I see that it is so helpful when I keep this stress level low that children feel calm and safe, they become more peaceful."

Some parents expressed the relationship between their characteristics and behaviors and the child's behaviors. For example, one parent stated that "I had the opportunity to get to know myself in all the activities, but especially in the activity we held in the last session, I understood my characteristics and realized how these characteristics affect my parenting style and my child's behavior." Similarly, another parent asserted that "……I realized that when we change, our child's attitude and behavior change easily." Likewise, one parent reported that "….I learned the cause and solution of the endless power struggle between us. When I change my tone and said, "I need you", great ideas and cooperation came from him..." One parent expressed that the self-awareness gained in education will change parenting behaviors and attitudes: "It was an education that increased the awareness of parents and most of all we will be able to develop our negative aspects and strengthen our positive aspects by recognizing our personality traits."

Another prominent expression regarding the contribution of the training was about understanding the underlying reasons for the child's behavior. As an example, one parent stated that "I learned the underlying reasons of what we call misbehavior." Another parent reported that "When my child says, "I can't do this", I understand much better his feelings and what he needs, and what he actually wants to do when he gets stubborn, and I immediately focus on this issue."

One parent stated that his awareness about the non-functional parenting disciplinary strategies (i.e., rewards and punishment) increased. "I was against the reward and punishment, but this training helped me better understand the rationale behind why we don't use reward and punishment in child education. I'm trying not to use the praise. I prefer using encouragement instead."

The content analysis revealed that the contributions of the training not only strengthen the parent-child relationship but also have a positive effect on other relationships in social life. Therefore, the third sub-category under the theme contributions of the training was stated as the *effects of the training on other relationships.* As an example, one parent stated that the training positively affected her relationships with her students "The positive discipline perspective impressed me a lot. I loved this philosophy, which aims to balance between being determined and understanding, and I even use it in my personal relationships. I think that this philosophy can be used in many fields, even as a thesis supervisor who is overly tolerant and afraid of hurting her students, I can now manage the thesis supervision process more decisively. In short, my students also benefited from this training." Similarly, another parent expressed that "I realized that punishment was not an appropriate method for discipline our students in the classroom setting. I have experienced in both my child and my students that being kind, firm, and encouraging at the same time work very well."

Another parent mentioned that awareness that she gained from the training helped the sibling relationships in the family "I think that learning about the problems and underlying causes, mistaken goals, and communicating with children by taking these beliefs into account was good for both me and the siblings' relations with each other. When I observed my children since I attended the training, I noticed that they got on better with each other." One parent mentioned that education contributes positively to family relations and family atmosphere in general "I think this training improves our relations in the family, via family meetings we communicate more and more easily."

4.3.2. Frequently Used Parenting Tools

Parents' evaluations in the last session and the follow-up session were combined, and the most frequently used parenting tools and their frequencies were classified as; Positive time-out (f = 16), Family meetings (f = 15), Routine chart (f = 10), Asking instead of telling (f = 10), Curiosity questions (f = 9), Joint Problem solving (f = 9),

Kind and Firm (*f* = 8) PD Parenting Tool Cards (*f* = 6), Hugs (*f* = 5), Wheel of Choice (*f* = 3), Sibling Fights and 3G (*f* = 1). On the other hand, some of the parents stated that they could not benefit from the PD parenting tool cards (*f* = 4), Wheel of Choice (*f* = 3), and Routine Charts (*f* = 2).

Based on the responses of the parents, it can be said that almost all parents applied the knowledge and skills that they learned both during the sessions and the three months after the sessions. In the content analysis, it was observed that in addition to specifying the parenting tools they use, parents also described their experiences (i.e., how they use these tools and their effect on the child's or their behavior when they use them). Some quotations from parents' experience with the tools were provided below.

According to the frequency distributions, a positive time-out was the most salient tool. Positive time-out is not a strategy that primarily aims at changing behavior. It is a method that allows parents and children to notice emotions and calm down before focusing on the problem and changing the behavior. For example, one parent stated the importance of allowing feelings as "I also allow my children to experience and express their emotions with a positive time-out." In fact, positive time-out is a method that prepares a healthy emotional basis for solving an existing problem. Parents use this strategy for calming down before focusing on solutions. One parent asserted that "I learned methods that make it easier for me to control my anger. After taking a break (positive time-out) and calming down, we can find a solution to the problem." Although it is not a problem-solving strategy itself, it is sufficient alone from time to time. As an example, one parent stated that "I use positive time-out very often. I get less angry when I use this. Also, my daughter has been less resentful and angry since we started using positive time-out." In this context, it can be said that parents usually used positive time-out before using the child discipline strategies, solving the problems or changing behaviors, and internalize the "connection before correction" principle that the positive discipline training stresses.

Another fundamental aspect of positive discipline is the principle of contributing to society and this principle is implemented through family meetings where all family members feel like part of the community, have the right to speak, and participate in decisions. The second most frequently used parenting tool was family meetings, and it can be said that as regularly using this tool, parents internalized this principle, and some behavioral problems were solved through family meetings with children's participation in solutions. For example, one parent stated her experience on family meetings as “The training has been completed, but I continue to apply what we have learned with both my eldest and middle son. I want to talk about a family meeting that we have held. My middle son is 5 years old, but I invited him to the meeting because I wanted him to be involved in the process. Since my husband was not with us (and he won't be for a long time), we held the meeting with my two sons. At the beginning of the meeting, I first conveyed my thanks to them and then stated that I was disturbed by their abusive speech and wanted to talk about what we would do about it. Although they tried to make fun of it at first, when they saw that I was determined, solutions started to come. As a solution, they offered that when they were going to speak a bad word, they wanted me to freeze them and count to 10, and then tell them "you were thawed". We ended the meeting by agreeing on this solution. Then, we utilize this solution for a few days and the bad words started to fade away. My older son has almost stopped using bad words....”

When children participate in decisions through family meetings, they can creatively solve problems, and they are more likely to implement it and get results because they find the solution themselves. As an example, one parent stated that “….my son was constantly complaining of being bored. We held a meeting where we focused on solutions to solve this problem. ……Together we decorated a box and named it "I am boring box." We wrote down on paper what he could do when he was bored. We generated a lot of ideas by brainstorming. Some of them were things we learned here, like a positive time-out. Now, when my son gets bored, he draws a paper out of the

box and does what is written there. In this way, he spends his time enjoyable and does not complain to me anymore."

One parent shared her experience about the use of routine charts decided in a family meeting as "I expect my daughter to stick to the plans in her routine chart that we decided at family meetings. In this way, we usually do not have a conflict. She learned to take responsibility." Another parent provided an example about the use of family meetings in solving eating problems "Instead of insisting on eating, we focused on solutions with family meetings and applied problem-solving rather than consequences."

In light of all the feedback, it can be stated that parents used the positive discipline strategies they have acquired in the training regularly, and more importantly, they have adopted the basic principles behind these strategies.

4.3.3. Group Experience

In the evaluation forms, another prominent theme was related to the parents' experience of being a part of a group. Some of the parents expressed their feelings and thoughts related to the therapeutic factors of the group process, such as having support from the other members, sharing problems and exchanging ideas, universality (i.e., not feeling alone), and learning through modeling. Some parents highlighted that they were not alone in their problems with their children. This feeling of universality brought to some parents an emotional relaxation and relief of their feelings of guilt for their parenting. As one parent stated "I realized in the group that I was not the only person having some problems with her children. In fact, I've seen almost everyone in the group experience the same things with their kids. I also stopped blaming myself as a parent on some issues." Likewise, another parent expressed that "I realized that I am not alone and all the emotions that I have experienced are common."

The Positive Discipline Parenting program includes the “Parents Helping Parents Problem Solving Steps” part, in which parents discuss a problem of a parent, and work collaboratively to provide alternative solutions to this problem. Some parents stressed the importance of exchanging ideas, group discussions, realizing different viewpoints, and eventually learning through modeling through this part of the group process. As an example, one parent expressed that “In the beginning, I was very nervous, I did not know what to face. But now I'm glad that I was with this group. Thanks to our group discussions, I learned the solutions to many problems we experience and information about parenting. At the end of the sessions, we exchanged our ideas, and learning the methods that other parents used helped me a lot.” Another stated that “It was productive for us to practice activities together. It was showing us clearly what actually happened. We talked and discussed and learned from each other.”

Cooperation (i.e., being in harmony with others and contributing to the welfare of others) is one of the core principles of Adlerian parenting. Thus, in Adlerian parent training programs, this principle is not only taught as theoretical knowledge but also implemented by all members in the group process. One parent stated the cooperation in the group process as “….and you started the training with an African proverb, "it takes a village to raise a child." In our lessons, I comprehend this sentence that I loved very much, which I believed I could put into practice. It was very valuable to talk about and share problems with other parents and you. In the group, all parents supported each other, and we created our own "village". Moreover, some parents stressed the positive group atmosphere, and another core principle of Adlerian parenting: being encouraging and respectful of self and others. As an example, one parent stated that “The group members were very positive, supportive, and enjoyable.” Likewise, another parent pointed out the sincerity of the group as “I found the group very friendly, respectful, encouraging, and guiding.”

Considering parents' feedback, it can be asserted that the group process fostered learning by modeling and exchanging different ideas in an environment where members felt that they are not alone and being encouraged.

4.3.4. Suggestions

The last theme that emerged from the answers of the parents was suggestions. In this context, the most prominent suggestions were about the content, time, and length of the program. Some of the participants pointed out that the training should take longer. One parent stated that "The only thing missing is that it took 6 weeks, it could have been longer." Similarly, another parent expressed that "It could be better if the training lasted longer. In this way, we could practice more."

Some parents have suggested that more parenting information and practices should be included in the content and that these practices spread over time. One parent asserted that "It could even be longer and more extensive. For example, it could contain more information about child development." Likewise, another parent stated that "I wish this training would extend over a longer period, maybe six months. Instead of learning several practices each week, I want to say that it would be better to learn and implement them one by one each week. It ended very quickly; I would prefer to learn by digesting it slowly. In this way, we would see the results we got from the training application in the long term."

Some parents offered regular meetings to refresh knowledge or practice some of the activities. One parent stated, "It would be better to hold regular meetings to reinforce the topics learned and to practice." Another parent stated that "Curiosity questions and conversational questions can be repeated." Similarly, one parent stated that "Activities that made us aware of our behavior and emotions can be repeated or reinforced with new activities." Likewise, one parent asserted that "Activities to find solutions to sibling relationships and technology addiction can be repeated."

Groups are microcosms, and this fact was observed in the responses of some parents regarding the Covid-19 pandemic. Two parents referred to the restrictions taken due to the Covid-19 while expressing their suggestions. One parent expressed that "Although it is not convenient due to the Covid-19 pandemic, it would be nice to continue training with regular meetings. I would like to repeat the 4R's of the punishment and the mistaken goals." Another parent stated that "I wish I could repeat the training without wearing masks or social distance rules."

Furthermore, most of the parents suggested that the training should be extended to more families and both parents should attend the training in the future training. Some quotations about this theme are as follows: "Spouses should take this training together." "I felt privileged for participating in positive discipline training. I would like all my acquaintances to attend, especially my husband." "I wish more families could benefit from positive discipline training."

"My recommendation is to provide the training in the evenings or on Sunday so that both parents can attend. Thus, we believe that the results of the training will be obtained faster."

"I think it would be more beneficial if both parents could attend the training. This will contribute to the use of parenting tools and will prevent the child from experiencing confusion due to two different attitudes of the parents."

One parent stated that this training should be provided with expectant parents "I think this education should be taken before having a child and it should be repeated periodically."

Some of the parents stated that the training should be given to the teachers and teacher candidates. As one parent stated that "I hope more people can benefit from this training. I think that especially elementary school teachers really need this training.

They still have the mentality that they should punish a child who tells a lie to attract attention. This is very sad, unfortunately." Similarly, another parent asserted that "….and even elementary and pre-school teachers should attend this training. I think this training should be added to the curriculum of the departments related to education and child development." Likewise, another parent stated that "This training should definitely be given to teachers in schools."

Taken together, parents suggested that the training should last longer and more parenting information about child development should be included. Parents also suggested that some topics and practices may be repeated through regular meetings. One of the most prominent suggestions was the training should be disseminated by including teachers and both parents in the training program.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter consists of three sections. In the first section, quantitative findings are discussed concerning the related literature. In the second section, the qualitative findings obtained from the evaluation forms are outlined and discussed. In the third section, the conclusion, implications for the practice, and recommendations for future studies are provided.

5.1. Discussion of the Quantitative Findings

The present study was designed to examine the effect of a parenting program on parental disciplinary practices, parenting stress, and parental self-efficacy among Turkish parents. The results of the present study revealed the positive effects of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on measured constructs. In this section, quantitative findings for each variable were discussed under separate sections. It should be noted that the findings were not discussed separately for mothers and fathers because the sample of fathers in the current research was too small to analyze and draw reliable and valid inferences.

5.1.1. The Effect of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on Parenting Disciplinary Practices

One of the main aims of the present study was to test the effectiveness of the parenting program on parental disciplinary practices. To accomplish this aim, the post-test and

follow-up test scores of the intervention and control group were compared; and also, the differences among pre-test, post-test, and follow-up test results of the intervention group were investigated.

First of all, the result supports the research hypothesis that the intervention would lead to a decrease in parents' dysfunctional parental disciplinary practices. Although there was not a significant pre-intervention difference between the intervention and control groups in terms of parental disciplinary practices, the Parenting Scale total scores, and the laxness, hostility, and overreactivity sub-scores of the intervention group decreased after the intervention when compared to the control group. In addition, follow-up assessment exhibited that these differences between groups were maintained three months later the intervention. About the Parenting Scale total and the sub-scores of the control group, no significant improvement was observed in their parental disciplinary practices from pretest to follow-up test.

Considering the total scores of the Parenting Scale at post-test, the intervention group parents produced a significant improvement in their parental disciplinary practices. Moreover, these changes remained stable at the follow-up test which was applied three months later. In other words, as consistent with the relevant research hypothesis, the parenting program decreased parents' non-functional parenting disciplinary practices and increase the use of more favorable disciplinary practices immediately after and three months later the intervention. These findings are in line with the findings of previous studies on parenting programs based on different theoretical foundations, such as behavioral, cognitive-behavioral, or relational based parenting programs conducted in different cultures (Barlow & Coren, 2018; Barlow et al., 2011; Bennett et al., 2013; Haslam et al., 2016; Lundahl et al., 2006; Tuncay & Gökkaya, 2020; van Mourik et al., 2017).

Furthermore, when the findings of the total parenting scale scores and overreactivity sub-scores are taken into account, the current study is consistent with the existent

literature on the impact of the Adlerian/Dreikursian parenting programs on parenting styles and parental disciplinary practices. To illustrate, Jonyniene (2015) evaluated the effectiveness of Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) and found that the program was effective in decreasing authoritarianism (i.e., overreactiveness). Likewise, findings of the study conducted by Holliday (2014) indicated that the Positive Discipline Parenting program reduced parents' overly strict parenting practices. In a recent study, Carroll (2021) tested the effectiveness of the Positive Discipline parenting workshops, and the results yielded that, parents who attended the workshops presented a decrease in harsh parenting practices. Another study, which evaluated the effectiveness of the Positive Discipline parenting program by Carroll and Brown (2020), reflected similar results in which intervention group parents displayed an increase in parental authoritativeness while a decrease in harsh discipline strategies. As a result, considering the total scores and the overreactivity sub-scores of the Parenting Scale, one could conclude that the results of the current study provided evidence for the effectiveness of the Positive Discipline parenting program on parental discipline strategies, with at least a three-month stability among Turkish parents.

Nevertheless, in the current study, no significant difference was observed in the laxness (parenting practices including setting unclear rules, reinforcing inappropriate behaviors and inconsistent and inconsistent discipline), and hostility sub-scores (parenting practices including using harsh physical punishment) from the pre-test to post-test and post-test to the follow-up test. Hence, it can be stated that unlike many studies in the literature, the parenting program is partly effective on parenting practices. On the other hand, there are some studies in the literature indicating that Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs are partly effective on parenting styles and practices, especially in different cultures. For instance, according to the results of the study conducted in Israel by Gold (2013), the Adlerian parenting program was partly effective, that is, half of the participants' authoritarianism and laxness did not change after the program. In a similar vein, Hashemi Malekshah (2017) indicated that although the Positive Discipline parenting program significantly improved

authoritative parenting style yet did not lead to a significant decrease in authoritarian and permissive parenting among Iranian parents. These findings suggest that the Positive Disciplined Parenting Program may yield different results in parenting practices in different cultures. The relationship between culture and parental behavior, which is thought to be one of the possible causes of these results, is discussed in more detail below. To conclude, although positive changes were observed in the intervention group's Parenting Scale total scores and overreactivity sub-scores from the pre-test to post-test and post-test to the follow-up, no significant difference was observed in the laxness and hostility sub-scores. Accordingly, the results of the current study indicated that the Positive Parenting program is partly effective on parenting practices.

There could be several possible reasons for these findings. First of all, as McVittie and Best (2009) stated, participation in parenting programs leads to significant changes towards more authoritative parenting yet may not completely change the parenting behaviors in a relatively short time. Therefore, the current study findings show that the parenting program leads to significant positive changes in dysfunctional parenting practices in general, but changes in certain parenting strategies, such as laxness, may not have been observed at the time of data collection. Hence, the follow-up measure that was conducted three months after the program may not be sufficient to observe the improvements in various parental behaviors. Given additional time to process the knowledge and practices learned in the program, parents can continue to incorporate the new perspectives and practices into their interactions with their children, which can lead to more positive changes in parental behavior over time. The qualitative findings also supported these findings. More specifically, intervention group parents indicated that they recognized their dysfunctional practices, encouraged to change them, and made some positive changes in their parental practices; still, they require more time and practice for complete behavior change.

Second, as Holliday (2014) stated, although authoritative parenting style and kind and firm parenting behaviors were emphasized, laxness and authoritarian behaviors were

not as much emphasized in the program. Specifically, only a few activities focus on lax parenting in the 6-week Positive Discipline program. The program content mostly focuses on experiential activities which improve the authoritative style and functional practices. In this sense, although the disadvantages of permissive parenting were mentioned in the program, relatively few activities on this subject may have led to the present results. Considering the cultural factors discussed below, it can be thought that there is a need for more activities on laxness while implementing Turkish culture.

Third, these results can be explained by the differentiation of parental attitudes and practices during the COVID-19 pandemic. Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1986) stated that a child's development takes place within five interconnected systems (i.e., microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem). The widespread impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on all these systems influenced parenting behaviors and parent-child relationships. During the pandemic, many parents experienced difficult life events and disruptions that changed their routines and daily lives, such as the loss of a loved one, a threat to the health of family members, job loss, economic distress, anxiety about uncertainty, social isolation, and so on (Brown et al., 2020; Cluver et al., 2020; Marchetti et al., 2020; Prime et al., 2020). Especially, due to the lockdowns, social isolation, and distant education, parents all over the world are faced with extra responsibilities such as teaching roles, extended household work, and prolonged childcare without external support resources (Lee et al., 2021; Moscardino et al., 2021; Prime et al., 2020; Roos et al., 2021). Consequently, all these changes affected parental well-being, children's well-being, parent-child relationship, and parenting behaviors (Brown et al., 2020; Cluver et al., 2020; Marchetti et al., 2020; Prime et al., 2020).

In line with Belsky's (1984) proposed model of parenting, in the time of COVID-19 parenting was negatively influenced due to the several stressors parents faced with and limited resources of support. Besides external stressors and demands, parental anxiety and stress negatively affected parents' internal sources of coping. Likewise, Abidin (1992) stated in his theoretical frame for parenting behaviors that as well as the

characteristics of parents and children, general life events have an impact on parental stress, social support, material resources, and coping skills, and thus, parenting behaviors. Hence, diminished external resources and social support because of the lockdowns and social isolation, and, increased external and internal stressors led to extra challenges in parenting.

As well as these theoretical frames, the relationship between parental stress and non-functional parenting practices (i.e., overreactive, harsh discipline, or inconsistent, lax discipline) has been well evidenced in the literature (Bloomfield & Kendall, 2012; Crnic & Ross, 2017; Daeter-Deckard & Panneton, 2017; Deater-Deckard & Scarr, 1996; Sanders & Wolley, 2005). For instance, Beckerman et al. (2017) found that higher parental stress is related to more punitive parenting practices. On the other hand, Guajardo, Snyder, and Petersen (2009) found that parent-related stress positively related to parental laxness. As a matter of fact, studies have shown that parental behaviors were affected, and dysfunctional parenting attitudes increased during the pandemic. In other words, parents adopt more lax or harsh discipline practices during the pandemic process.

To illustrate, a study conducted by Lee et al. (2021) revealed that, during the pandemic, increasing parental depression, childcare needs, parent-child conflict, and relationship distress were found to be associated with parental laxness and overreactivity (Lee et al., 2021). In a similar fashion, Fosco et al. (2021) investigated family cohesion, conflict and routines, and parental discipline practices before the pandemic and after the onset of the pandemic. The findings indicated that family cohesion significantly decreased, whereas family conflicts and parental strict and lax discipline strategies increased during the pandemic; each of these variables predicted the child's maladjustment. Similarly, Menter et al. (2020) investigated the changes in parenting behaviors of pre-school parents before and during the initial months of the pandemic. Results indicated that parental limit-setting and positive parenting practices moderately changed from the fall of 2019 to spring 2020 depending on the children’s

oppositional behaviors and anxiety. More clearly, parental limit-setting and positive parenting practices decreased in parents with children with higher oppositional and higher anxiety scores. They concluded that because of distance learning, parents are more exposed to their children's oppositional behaviors at home, and therefore, they reduced parental boundaries and adopt more lax discipline to reduce negative interactions and conflicts with their children (Menter et al., 2020). Consequently, changing situations require parents to develop new routines, rules, and boundaries more flexibly (Prime et al., 2020).

Parallel results have been observed in studies conducted in Turkey on parenting during the pandemic process. To illustrate, Eyimaya and Irmak (2020) examined the relations between parenting practices and the 6–13 years of children's screen time throughout the COVID-19 pandemic. They noted a significant increase in screen time and a correlation between screen time and inconsistent (i.e., lax) parenting practices. Similarly, in their qualitative research, Dikme and Gültekin (2021) examined the parent-child relationships during the pandemic. They found that majority of the parents have difficulties in setting limits, and they prioritize the fulfillment of the child's wishes, that is, they adopted more permissive, lax parenting during the pandemic. Likewise, a study conducted by İplikçi (2021) showed that parental behaviors changed during the pandemic. According to the results of her study, increased levels of psychological distress for mothers during the pandemic resulted in perceived maternal rejection and negative parenting practices.

Consequently, the results of the present study in parental laxness may be interpreted with the increasing parental stress, increasing demand for parental resources, and the decrease of external resources and support during the pandemic. Accordingly, although it was emphasized in the parenting program that the permissiveness is at least as damaging as the harsh discipline, due to the challenges that parents need to deal with, increased parental responsibilities, and parental stress may have impacted their parenting behaviors during the pandemic. More clearly, all these challenges may have

caused a more lax attitude toward the child's misbehavior to avoid or minimize internal and external conflicts and protect a positive parent-child relationship. Moreover, in addition to the bulk of studies in the current literature showing the relationship between parental stress and parental disciplinary practices, many studies displayed that parental stress increased during the pandemic. The existing literature on parental stress, parenting practices, and the impact of the pandemic is also related to the findings of the current study on parental stress, which is discussed in the next section.

The fourth possible explanation of the results related to the parenting practices may be the cross-cultural and inter-generational variation in parenting behaviors. Sümer et al. (2010) stated that in Turkey traditional and more "modern" parenting styles and behaviors can be observed and parenting practices may vary across generations, regions, subcultures, and according to the characteristic of the parents. The current study sample comprised of the parents who had undergraduate and graduate degrees, living in metropolitan, and from middle-high SES. These characteristics of the research group are consistent with the results of previous studies that found a relationship between a high parental education level, high SES, and permissive attitude. For instance, Nacak et al. (2011) compared the parental attitudes of low-educated mothers living in rural cities and high and low-educated mothers living in the metropole. According to the findings, highly educated mothers living in metropole had higher levels of permissive attitudes as compared to low-educated mothers in rural cities and metropole (Nacak et al., 2011). Similar results were obtained from research conducted by Eker and Türk (2021) that upper-income and highly educated groups received the highest scores from the permissive parenting sub-scale. The findings of the current study were in line with previous studies which supported that living in rural areas or urban areas, where parents adopt more modern family structures, and the education level of the parents has a great influence on parental behaviors and attitudes (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2012; Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2005, Sümer et al., 2010).

Another explanation for the lack of significant results might be related to what parents attributed to parental behaviors. Permissive (lax) parenting includes high interest and acceptance, yet low parental control (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Based on this definition, it is stated that acceptance and control can have different meanings in different cultures and subcultures (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005, 2007; Dinn & Sunar, 2017; Mayer et al. 2012; Tepe & Sayın, 2012). To illustrate, Dinn and Sunar (2017) conducted a study to compare the perceptions of parenting practices of young adults in Turkey. They collected data from different geographical regions (Istanbul, Western regions, and Central and Eastern Anatolia regions) in Turkey to compare parenting practices in terms of acceptance and control. According to the research findings, a high and negative relationship was found between the acceptance and control levels of parents, who are more individualistic, have higher education levels, and live in the western regions. Researchers stated that this result may be due to the social, economic, and demographic differences, different meanings attributed to parents' control behaviors, and the tendency to see high control as a lack of acceptance in parents with high education levels living in modern western regions. Similarly, considering the characteristics of the current study sample, it may be that the parents in the intervention group may have attributed the behaviors including parental discipline and control to an overly firm attitude; however, they may have perceived the permissive or lax practices as the parental warmth and interest. As a result of these perceptions, no significant change might have been observed in the laxness sub-dimension at the end of the program. In addition, the similarity of the results of the present study with the findings of Gold (2013) and Hashemi-Melaksah (2017) suggests that the Positive Discipline parenting program may yield different results in parenting practices in Middle Eastern countries including Turkey. However, there is a need for a large number of studies conducted in different cultures to support this explanation.

When the hostility sub-scores of the Parenting Scale are taken into account, there is no significant change observed from pretest to follow-up scores of the intervention group. The hostility sub-scores of the intervention group were below the clinical cut-off

points in all three measures, that is, it can be said that these subscale scores were already low; therefore, the parents in the intervention group did not show a significant change in this sub-score. These results may be explained by the aforementioned characteristics of the intervention group. As stated in many studies conducted in Turkey, parental practices including hostile behaviors, such as hitting, cursing, and spanking are negatively related to high education and SES level (Dinn & Sunar; 2017; Nacak et al., 2011; Sak et al., 2015; Sümer et al., 2010). Similar results obtained from Family Structure Research in Turkey conducted by the Ministry of Family and Social Services (ASHB, 2018), indicated that the rate of parents who use punitive practices including hitting, spanking, and yelling decreases as SES and education level increase.

These findings regarding hostility and laxness can also be explained by intergenerational changes in parenting. Some studies supported a change in parental practices over time, which showed a tendency toward more positive, flexible, and permissive parenting practices and less use of harsh and punitive practices (Garcia et al., 2020; Smetana, 2017; Trifan et.al., 2014). More specifically, some studies in recent years have found that authoritarian parenting behaviors are decreasing, and permissive parenting is increasing; accordingly, it can be stated that Y generation parents are seemed to adopt a more permissive attitude than previous generations (Bee, 2017; Garcia et al., 2020). Although there is no study found comparing generational differences in parenting practices in Turkey, when the findings of the Family Structure Research in Turkey in 2006 (ASHB, 2006) and 2016 (ASHB, 2016) is compared, it can be stated that the physical and psychological violence levels of the parents against their children decreased from 2006 (the rate of the parents who hit their child reported as 29%) to 2016 (the rate of the parents who hit their child reported as 20%). Although these statistics do not provide data on permissive practices of parents, they at least reveal that harsh parenting has decreased over the years and indicate an intergenerational variation in parenting behaviors. It should be noted that, in the current study, where the majority of the parents were members of the generation Y, the parenting style of the generation Y may have also been effective on the results. As

a consequence, one can be believed that there is a generational difference in parenting attitudes; that is, while strict disciplinary and punitive practices have decreased, and behaviors emphasizing parental acceptance, warmth, child's autonomy, and less parental control have increased in recent decades. Therefore, the findings of the current research regarding parenting practices can be related to the recent parenting trends. Nevertheless, more research findings are needed to support this argument.

Another possible explanation for these results may be related to the measurement. Foley et al. (2019) stated that when a parenting program does not show significant results in one dimension, the program may have made a positive change, but the questionnaires or instruments used may not be sensitive enough to measure them. As a matter of fact, in the scale used in the research, laxness is measured with 5 items, and hostility is measured with 3 items. This brings to mind that there may have been difficulties in measuring the behaviors mentioned. In addition, qualitative data collected from parents also supported this argument. Because, as will be discussed in more detail in the section for the qualitative data, it is seen that parents have internalized the concept of "kind and firm" parenting which emphasizes parental warmth and structure at the same time.

All in all, the Positive Discipline parenting program created a significant difference between the intervention and control groups in terms of the negative parenting practices. In other words, a significant decrease was observed in dysfunctional parental practices of the intervention group. This result is consistent with the relevant literature. On the other hand, when the changes of the parenting practices of the intervention group over time were evaluated, there was a significant decrease in negative parenting practices in general and overreactive behaviors in particular, yet there was no significant decrease in their lax and hostile behaviors. These results were considered as a result of factors affecting parenting behaviors and discussed in the light of the factors including parental stress, changing parenting behaviors during the pandemic,

culture, demographic characteristics of the parents, and changing parenting trends over generations.

5.1.2. The Effect of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on Parenting Stress

The second aim of the current research was to assess the effect of the Positive Discipline parenting program on parental stress. This goal was addressed by comparing post-test and follow-up test scores obtained from the Parenting Stress Index Short Form (PSI-SF-4) of the intervention and control groups and by evaluating the changes from pre-test to follow-up test scores of the intervention group.

To begin with, the results provided evidence for the research hypothesis that the intervention would reduce parental stress. Accordingly, although there was no significant difference between the groups before the intervention, the results revealed a significant difference in favor of the intervention group in terms of total parenting stress scores and three sub-scores: namely, Parental Distress (PD), parent-child dysfunctional interaction (PCDI), and difficult child (DC). Furthermore, follow-up assessment displayed that these differences between groups were preserved at the three-month follow-up. In contrast, for the control group's total and sub-scores, except the DC sub-score, there was a significant difference among pretest, posttest, and follow-up measurements. More specifically, parents in the control group had significantly higher scores in the posttest than in the pretest in terms of total parenting stress scores and, PD and PCDI sub-scores. Nevertheless, total stress scores and PD scores were reduced in the follow-up while PCDI sub-scores did not change significantly from posttest to follow-up. In other words, the control group's total parenting stress scores and parenting distress scores fluctuated over pre-test to follow-up test; that is, increased between the pretest and the posttest and slightly reduced at follow-up measurements. One could suggest that this fluctuation possibly happened because of the stressful events, that is, the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on

parental stress. Possible explanations for these findings were discussed in detail below, along with the findings of the intervention group.

As for the findings of the intervention group, Parenting Stress total scores and sub-scores, except Parental Distress, significantly reduced from pre-test to post-test. In addition, this difference was maintained at the three-month follow-up. Thus, one could propose that the Positive Discipline Parenting program significantly reduced parenting stress in general. Particularly, the program decreased parenting stress caused by the dysfunctional parent-child interaction and stress regarding parents' perception of the child's difficult behaviors and characteristics. The result of the current study regarding total parenting stress scores is consistent with the previous research findings which indicated that parenting programs with different theoretical basis have reduced parental stress (Bloomfield & Kendall, 2012; Gross et al., 1995; Tucker et al., 1998; Yap et al., 2014). Concerning the Adlerian/Dreikursian programs, Smalls (2010) tested the effect of the Active Parenting of Teens program, and the results yielded that the program decreased parental stress. As a result, the findings of the current research are consistent with the existent literature in total parenting stress and parenting stress caused by the parent-child relationship and/or arisen from the parental perception of a child's behavior and temperament. On the other hand, the program did not lead to a significant improvement in the parental distress dimension. The following possible explanations for these findings can be suggested.

Abidin (1992) suggested in his model of parenting stress that parenting stress arises from the parents' characteristics, the child's characteristics, the relationship between the child and the parent as well as the contextual and environmental supports and/or stressors. As Abidin (2012) defined in the theoretical model of PSI-SF-4, the Parental Distress sub-dimension reflects the stress level experienced by parents related to the parenting role. In this sense, the PD subscale indicates a lack of sense of parenting competence, lack of social support, and stresses associated with the restrictions on other life roles. The fact that no difference was found from pre-test to follow-up test

in parental distress sub-dimension is quite significant considering factors related to the pandemic and the impact of these factors on parental distress. Within this frame, COVID-19 led to acute stress to the parents (İplikçi, 2021; Wendel et al., 2020; Whittle et al., 2020). Besides exacerbated social, economic, and health-related anxiety and stress, parents confronted with restrictions on other life roles and increased parental responsibilities, such as providing full-time caregiving, taking a teaching role, and balancing work and the needs of family members who stay at home all day (Brown et al., 2020; Moscardino et al., 2021; Prime et al., 2020). Moreover, due to the restrictions, lockdowns, and social isolation, they also had difficulties in accessing social support resources and thus, they have to deal with numerous roles with fewer resources (Chung et al., 2020; Moscardino et al., 2021; Prime et al., 2020; Wendel et al., 2020). Indeed, studies conducted across the world have shown that parents' stress levels increased during pandemics since facing cumulative stressors, additional burdens, and challenges (Brown et al., 2020; Chung et al, 2020; Hiraoka & Tomoda, 2020; Keleşoğlu & Karduz, 2020; Moscardino et al., 2021; Prime et al., 2020; Thorell et al., 2021). For instance, Brown et al. (2020) examined risk and protective factors in parental stress and child abuse potential during the pandemic. Their findings indicated that higher anxiety, greater stress, depressive symptoms, and lack of external support are associated with higher parental stress. Similarly, Chung et al. (2020) tested the impact of COVID-19 on parenting stress and the mediating effect of parenting stress on parent-child relationships and parenting practices (i.e., harsh parenting). Results indicated that pandemic and stay-at-home orders increased parenting stress and in turn negatively affected the parent-child relationship and increased harsh discipline practices.

In addition to other sources of stress during the pandemic, especially school closures and distance education has increased parental distress since it brings additional burdens on the life roles and responsibilities of the parents. As a matter of fact, studies conducted during the pandemic period reveal a relationship between distance education and increased parental stress. To illustrate, Thorell et al. (2021) collected

data from 6720 parents from the UK, Sweden, Spain, Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, and Italy to determine the parental experiences and the impact of distance education on parents and children during the pandemic. Many parents indicated that homeschooling had negative effects for themselves and their children and reported a greater level of stress, worry, and family conflict. Similarly, Moscardino et al. (2021) found a positive association between parents' difficulty in managing a child's distance education and perceived parenting stress. Likewise, in their research, Hiroaka and Tomoda (2020) asked 353 parents to fill out the PSI-SF-4 considering what it like before and after the school closures was. According to the findings of their study, total parenting stress has increased due to the pandemic, and parental distress was found to be significantly higher than before school closures occurred.

Related findings also explain the fluctuation in the scores of the control group from PSI-SF-4, that is, the increase between the pretest and posttest. Considering the periods in which the scale was applied, the time of application of the post-test coincides with the period when the academic year started in the form of distance education in Turkey. It is thought that during this period, parental stress may have increased as explained above. Likewise, on the dates when the follow-up measurement was implemented, elementary schools in Turkey switched to face-to-face education in diluted classes, albeit partially. Moreover, it can be thought that parental stress scores tend to decrease slightly, as parents can partially adapt to this "new normal" in education in the intervening period. Considering all these changes, it is thought that parental distress increases or decreases according to the educational conditions. At this point, although there was no significant in-subject difference in parental distress sub-dimension, the parental stress of the intervention group was found to be lower than the control group in all measurements. Thus, it is possible to say that the training program played a protective role by preventing the parental distress of parents from increasing even if it did not reduce it compared to the beginning and provided a source of support against additional stressors brought by the pandemic.

In contrast, the significant improvements of the intervention group in the PCDI and DC subscales can be explained by the very nature and the content of the program. Adlerian/Dreikursian parenting programs, including the Positive Discipline parenting program, are classified as relationship-based parenting programs in the literature. Relationship-based programs emphasize the importance of healthy parent-child communication, and program contents comprise effective communication and conflict resolution skills (Barlow et al., 2011; Bennett et al., 2013; Dembo et al., 1985; Lundahl et al., 2006). The most important principle in Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting is to respond to the child's belonging needs. Through a democratic family atmosphere where children learn to cooperate and connect with others respectfully and responsibly and contribute to the well-being of the others in the community, i.e., social interest, the children develop a sense of belongingness (Rasmussen, 2014). Another important tenet of the Adlerian-Dreikursian programs is encouraging children instead of using praise and punishment, through validating the child's feelings and providing positive feedback (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015). Through encouragement, children can develop feelings of capability and connectedness (Carlson et al., 2006). In line with these principles, Positive Discipline emphasizes "connection before correction", that is, establishing bonds with the child based on love and healthy communication before changing a behavior (Nelsen, 2019). In fact, the primary goal of Positive Discipline is not to provide short-term changes in behavior, but to develop a kind and firm parenting which provides children with love and structure at the same time (Nelsen, 2019). Kind and firm parenting provides the child with the desired characteristics and life skills in the long term (Lott & Nelsen, 2017). In particular, the Positive Discipline program has activities, such as "Hugs", "Asking vs. Telling", "Competent Giant", "Thermometer" and "Encouraging vs Praise" and so on, which aim to teach healthy parent-child communication and improve parent-child connection (Lott & Nelsen, 2017). Thus, the Positive Discipline parenting program primarily underlines healthy communication and love between parent and child where the child can feel a sense of connection and belonging. In line with the principles and objectives of the Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs, some previous studies indicated that Positive

Discipline improves parent-child relationships (McVittie & Best, 2009; Nelsen, 1979; Williamson, 2014). PCDI subscale measures the parental stress derived from a dysfunctional interaction between parent and child, and insufficient parent-child bonds (Abidin, 2012). In this context, it can be said that the Positive Discipline program, which improves the communication with the child and strengthens the parent-child bonds, reduced the stress that arose from the parent-child relationship.

These results are very important because there are studies showing that parent-child relationships are negatively affected, and parent-child conflict increases during the pandemic (Chung et al., 2020; Thorell et al., 2021). As a matter of fact, when the data of the control group were examined, the stress caused by the parent-child relationship showed a continuous increase from the pretest to the follow-up test but did not follow a downward trend as in the other two sub-dimensions. In this sense, the program had protected intervention group parents from the negative impact of the pandemic on parent-child relationships and even reduced the probable stress caused by the parent-child relationship during COVID-19. These findings are also consistent with the existing literature showing the positive effect of parenting programs on parental stress during the pandemic period when parents need the most support (e.g., Fogler et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021).

By the same token, the improvement of parenting stress measured by the DC subscale can be explained by program content and objectives. The DC subscale assesses the parent's perceptions of the child's behavioral characteristics, such as temperament, defiance, and demandingness that make it difficult to manage them, and measure the stress that arises from these perceptions (Abidin, 2012). Adlerian-Dreikursian child-rearing principles highlighted that all behaviors are purposeful and produced to meet the need for belonging and significance (Ferguson- Dreikurs, 1984). Sometimes when a child does not meet these needs in socially acceptable ways, she/he develops mistaken goals and tries to meet them in faulty ways. Thus, regardless of how disruptive they are, a child's behaviors are purposive to fulfill their belonging and

significance needs (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015). For instance, a child's challenging behavior, such as defiance, may be based on the misbelief that he/she will belong only if he/she is in control (Nelsen, 2019). Therefore, all Adlerian-Drekursian parenting programs, including Positive Discipline, teach parents to understand the purposefulness of behavior, understand the mistaken goals, how they may contribute these goals, how to modify their behaviors in responding the misbehavior, and how can they encourage their child to healthy and socially acceptable ways of achieving the goal (Dinkmeyer et al., 2015; Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2010; Nelsen, 2011). The Positive Discipline program component includes activities to understand the belief behind the behavior and respond according to these beliefs and the child’s needs. Parents' perceptions of their children's behavior change and improve when they understand the basic needs underlying these mistaken goals that affect the child's behavior and character. Thus, in the literature, there are studies displaying that Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs have an impact on parents' negative perceptions of the child, that is, parents who participate in these programs perceive their children's behaviors and characteristics more positively (Farooq et al., 2005; Jonyniene, 2015; McKay & Hillman, 1979; Mullis, 1979). Therefore, one could suggest that the Positive Discipline parenting program had a positive impact on parents’ perception of their child’s behavior and temperament, and in turn, reduced parental stress that may arise from the parents’ negative perceptions of their child’s behaviors.

To summarize, the Positive Discipline parenting program reduced the parenting stress of the intervention group parents compared to the control group, and this difference was maintained at a three-month follow-up. Likewise, the total parenting stress of the intervention group, the stress caused by the parent-child relationship, and the stress caused by the parent's perceptions of the child's behavior decreased at the end of the program and this difference was maintained in the follow-up. However, there was no significant difference found in the parental distress dimension of the intervention group before and after the intervention. These results were discussed in light of the

relevant literature findings in the context of the impact of the pandemic on parental stress and the impact of the Positive Discipline parenting program on parent-child relationships and parents' perceptions of the child.

5.1.3. The Effect of the Positive Discipline Parenting Program on Parenting Self-Efficacy

The third aim of the current study was to investigate the effect of the Positive Discipline parenting program on parenting self-efficacy. This aim was addressed by comparing post-test and follow-up test scores obtained from the Perceived Parenting Self-Efficacy Scale (PPSE) of the intervention and control groups and by assessing the changes from pre-test to post-test and post-test to follow-up test scores of the intervention group.

First of all, the results regarding PPSE scores supported the related research hypothesis that perceived parental self-efficacy of the intervention group parents would increase as compared to the control group. Although there was no significant pre-intervention difference between the groups, the results showed a significant post-test difference in favor of the intervention group in terms of PPSE scores. In addition, these differences between groups were maintained at the three-month follow-up. In contrast, with respect to the control group's PPSE scores, there were no significant changes from pre-test to follow-up test.

Previous research findings indicated that parenting programs regardless of theoretical orientations have a significant positive effect on parental-self-efficacy (Albanese et al., 2019; Barlow & Coren, 2018; Barlow et al., 2011; Bloomfield & Kendall, 2007; Glatz & Buchanan 2021; Sanders & Woolley, 2005; Wittkowski et al., 2017; Yap et al., 2019). Similarly, concerning Adlerian-Dreikursian parenting programs, Holliday (2014) confirmed that the Positive Discipline parenting program increased the sense of parenting competence. Therefore, consistent with previous research findings, one

could conclude that the parental self-efficacy of the parents who participated in the Positive Discipline parenting program increased from the pretest to the follow-up test as compared to the parents who did not participate in the program.

On the other hand, when within-subject differences were examined, no significant change was observed in the parental self-efficacy scores of the parents of the intervention group from pre-test to post-test and from post-test to follow-up. This result can be explained by Bandura's theoretical model on the development of self-efficacy beliefs.

As Bandura (1977; 1982; 1997) stated, although there are four sources for the development of self-efficacy (i.e., performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal), the most important one is successful performances. Past experiences of success lead to an increase in parenting self-efficacy as well as in any particular task. Considering the background theory of the self-efficacy concept, there is an ongoing cyclical interaction which resulted in self-efficacy between the individual, his or her expectations, experiences, performances, how he or she perceives and interprets those experiences (Jones, 2006; Wittkowski et al., 2017). This interaction impacts the task performance feeds back self-efficacy sources and updates the individuals' self-efficacy level (Wittkowski et al., 2017).

Schuengel and Oosterman (2019) have summarized the main concepts and their interconnections in Bandura's self-efficacy theory. Accordingly, an individual's self-efficacy belief affects outcome expectations while these two sets of expectations impact one's goal setting and enactment of behavior. Regarding the performance exhibited, the individual receives feedback from the sources of self-efficacy. The cycle continues with the fed back of the self-efficacy belief from the sources of efficacy, and thus, impact and forms the future performances. In that case, it can be said that the individual needs to enter this performance-feedback cycle for his/her self-efficacy to

be formed or to increase. Based on the theoretical foundation of parenting self-efficacy, it can be stated that parents need time to utilize newly learned parenting principles and skills from the Positive Discipline parenting program (e.g., encouragement, determining the belief behind the misbehavior, problem-solving skills, family council, etc.). As Glatz and Buchanan (2015) stated parenting self-efficacy increases the positive parenting behaviors and these behaviors cause more positive child behaviors, and in turn, parental self-efficacy increases as parents evaluate their children's positive behaviors as an indicator of their parenting success. In this sense, parents need time not only to utilize the skills and practices but also to evaluate their performances in these skills, to get promotive feedback from their children, and to have positive feelings about their performance. Moreover, just as parents need time to adjust to more supportive parenting behaviors, children also need time to adjust to these new behaviors of the parents and the new way of interaction between them to provide positive feedback to their parents. As a result, establishing the feedback loop for increasing parenting self-efficacy may require a longer time from the posttest to the follow-up test.

Another possible explanation for the results of a decrease in self-efficacy could be due to the increased stress level of parents due to the pandemic. Existing literature well evidenced that parenting self-efficacy is linked with parenting stress (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001; de Haan et al., 2009; Dumka et al., 2010; Dunning & Giallo, 2012; Glatz & Buchanan, 2015; Jones & Prinz, 2005; Sanders & Mazzucchelli, 2013; Sanders & Woolley, 2005; Sevigny & Loutzenhiser, 2010; Slagt et al., 2012; Wittkowski et al., 2016). On one hand, self-efficacy decreases the negative effect of environmental conditions on the parent-child relationship quality (Coleman & Karraker, 1998); on the other hand, negative environmental conditions or stressful events may undermine or interfere with parenting self-efficacy (Jones & Prinz, 2005). As a matter of fact, research conducted during the pandemic supported these ideas. For instance, Xue et al. (2021) found that parents indicated lower parenting self-efficacy during the pandemic when compared before the pandemic. In this context, the contribution of the

parenting program to parenting self-efficacy may have been undermined due to increased parental stress during the pandemic period. On the other hand, although the parenting program did not increase the parental self-efficacy of the participants, it can be said that it helped parents maintain their current parental self-efficacy levels at a time when parenting stress increased and parent-child relationships were negatively affected. In consequence, the fact that the self-efficacy of the intervention group increased compared to the control group supports this argument.

To summarize the quantitative findings of the current study, it can be argued that attending the Positive Discipline parenting program led to a decline in dysfunctional parenting practices and parenting stress and although did not lead to an increase, helped parents to maintain their parenting self-efficacy. As for the stability of the outcomes, improvements in measured variables were maintained at three-month follow-up. Thus, the quantitative findings of the present study suggest that the Positive Discipline parenting program indicates promising results with Turkish parents. In this study, qualitative data were also collected to have the opinions of the parents who participated in the program. The results of qualitative data are discussed in the next section.

5.2. Discussion of the Qualitative Findings

The present study also aimed to provide a qualitative evaluation of the Positive Discipline Parenting program in the Turkish context. To accomplish this aim, an evaluation form that reflected the participants' feedback was utilized at the end of the last session and in the follow-up session to the intervention group. Thus, the program was evaluated based on the participants' qualitative feedback in the Program Evaluation Form. The first part of the evaluation form consists of items that provide a general evaluation of the program including the evaluation of the trainer, the training plan and materials, and the training process. In this part, participants were asked to rate the quality of the training program on a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly

agree" to "strongly disagree". The second part of the form included six questions that participants reflected their feelings and thoughts, the knowledge, skills, and practices that they have gained, and frequency of use, benefits, contributions, and suggestions for future training. The qualitative data obtained from both forms were discussed under two separate sections below.

5.2.1. General Evaluation of the Positive Discipline Program

According to Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006), the effectiveness of a training program can be evaluated at four levels: (1) reaction, (2) learning, (3) behavior, and (4) results. Reaction implies participants' positive feelings about the training experience. Learning can be defined as the degrees of participants' improvement on their knowledge, and/or their skill utilizing the program. Behavior implies the extent of participants' use of the knowledge gained from the training and behavior change because of the participation in the training. Results can be defined as the results or effect of the program on the environment and/or participants, such as improved quality of communication with their children.

When the feedback of the parents was examined in light of the model proposed by Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006), participants' feelings about the training experience (i.e., reactions) were positive. The majority of the participants found the sessions lively, engaging, and productive. Similarly, all the parents who participated in the Positive Discipline parenting program stated that they would like to participate in the program again in the future and would recommend the program to the people around them. The fact that all mothers and fathers recommend the program to the people around them and want to participate in the program again can be considered as an indicator of their belief that the program is effective and beneficial. When the effectiveness of the program is evaluated from the learning perspective, the majority of the participants strongly agreed that the training improves their knowledge, refreshes their existing knowledge, and provided useful information and practice.

Thus, it can be stated that the program can be considered effective as it contributes to learning.

As for the behavior dimension, parents stated that they reflected their learnings on their behaviors. For instance, the majority of the participants reported that they used useful information and applications they learned from the program in their relationships with their children, i.e., they reflected their learnings to their behaviors. How the newly acquired knowledge and skills are reflected in their behaviors was discussed in more detail in the second part of the form, in their feedback which is discussed under the following heading. In summary, it can be said that the participants use the knowledge and skills they learned from the program in their daily lives, that is, they reflect on their behaviors, so it can be said that the training was found to be effective.

Pertaining to the results of the training, the majority of the parents stated that the program helped them deal with the problems with children, improved the parent-child relationship, and led to satisfactory results for themselves, their children, and environment (e.g., siblings, spouse). Feedback on the positive results of the training is also seen in the responses to the second part of the form. Therefore, based on the qualitative evaluations of the program in four dimensions (reaction, learning, behavior, and results), it can be concluded that the training program was appreciated by the participants and was found to be effective and sufficient. In addition to Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick's (2006) suggestions, some other criteria are also suggested in the literature to evaluate the effectiveness of parenting programs. These criteria are discussed below along with the responses to the program evaluation form.

In the literature, another factor proposed that increases the effectiveness and efficiency of a program is the characteristics of the group leader (Demir & Koydemir, 2016; Dinkmeyer et al., 2015; Gross & Grady, 2002; Lott & Nelsen, 2017; Taylor & Biglan, 1998; Webster-Stratton & Herbert, 1994). Considering the ratings on evaluation of the trainer on the form, the majority of the participants strongly agreed that the trainer

used communication skills effectively, demonstrated competence and expertise on the subject, conveyed empathy, acceptance, and warmth, encouraged parents, collaborated with them, and structured the training effectively. In this sense, one could suggest that the trainer demonstrated the necessary leadership qualities proposed in the literature for improving the effectiveness of the training groups and parent training.

In line with the suggestions in the literature for the group programs and parent training groups, ratings on the evaluation of the general organization of the program indicated that announcements, dates, duration, venue and the length, delivery method, manuals/materials, and assignments were found to be sufficient (Demir & Koydemir, 2016; Dinkmeyer & Carlson 2015; Kumpfer & Alvarado, 1998). Therefore, it can be claimed that the program is appraised as appropriate, sufficient, and satisfactory for the training organization and materials.

As for the program content, according to Kumpfer and Alvarado (1998), a parenting program should have content, which covers different challenges of parenting. Multiple topics that address different problems of parents make the program more effective (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 1998). The majority of the participants stated that the program provided them with useful information and applications that they may use in daily life, the content of the program included various information and activities appropriate to the age and developmental characteristics of their children. Moreover, they indicated that the sessions were enriched with concrete and comprehensible examples from daily life. Overall, all the participants agreed that the Positive Discipline parenting program met their needs and expectations in dealing with the problems with children more effectively. Accordingly, it can be stated that the Positive Discipline parenting program provides parents with knowledge related to the child's developmental characteristics and effective parenting behaviors and skills in coping with different issues of parenting. In this sense, one could suggest that program content was found to be sufficient and effective.

Finally, another important factor when evaluating parenting programs is the factors related to the nature and healing power of the group. Although there are individual or self-directed programs, parenting programs are mostly delivered in group format (Lundahl et al., 2006; Sanders & Turner, 2018), which includes some therapeutic forces that make the program more effective. Dinkmeyer et al. (2015) identified some of these forces as group cohesion, the universality of the problems, opportunities for receiving and giving assistance, cooperation and encouragement, modeling, and feedback. All these forces positively affect the development and change process of parents in parent education programs and increase the effectiveness of the program. As a matter of fact, most of the parents who participated in the program gave positive answers to the questions evaluating the group process and therapeutic forces, and the majority of them stated that they strongly agreed with these statements. For instance, all the participants were found the group members as encouraging and supportive of each other. More detailed evaluations of the therapeutic powers are also seen in the feedback of the participants in the second part of the form. As a result, in light of all the feedback, one could believe that the program was effective in terms of the therapeutic forces of the group.

All in all, the answers given by the parents to the survey questions investigating the effectiveness of the program were evaluated in different dimensions suggested in the literature for groups and parent education groups; namely, reaction, learning, behavior, results, group leader, general organization, materials, content, and healing factors in the groups. According to the evaluations made in all these dimensions, the Positive Discipline parent training program was found to be sufficient and effective by all the parents participating in the program.

The second part of the general evaluation form consists of open-ended questions in which parents share their subjective experiences of the training process, the impact of the program on their parenting, skills that they have obtained and frequency of use,

and their suggestions for future training. Their answers to open-ended questions are also discussed below.

5.2.2. Participants' Reflective Evaluations for the Positive Discipline Parenting Program

In the present study, the program and the process of change were also evaluated based on parents' feedback for the program and the group process. Their feedback reflected four themes as contributions of the training, frequently used parenting tools, group experience, and suggestions.

The most prominent theme in participants' feedback is the contributions of training to the parent-child relationship, their awareness, and other relationships. In participants' feedback, kind and firm practices and awareness were described as agents of change to improve the parent-child relationship and reduce conflicts. Participants reflected that they applied the kind and firm practices that they learned both during and after the sessions and indicated the positive effect of these practices on their children and their behavior. These findings are in line with the previous studies indicating that parenting programs are effective in changing parental behaviors in a positive direction and improving parent-child relationships (Barlow & Coren, 2018; Barlow et al., 2011; Bennett et al., 2013; Lundahl et al., 2006). Similarly, the findings based on parents' feedback were parallel with the study by McVittie and Best (2009). Specifically, the activities in the Positive Discipline program component such as connection before correction, joint problem solving, encouraging the child instead of punishment or praise, asking instead of telling and curiosity questions resulted in a behavior change toward improving communication, relationships and increasing a sense of connection between parent and child as well as decreasing conflicts.

In this context, parents' emphasis on behavioral change beyond the development of parenting knowledge can be attributed to the program structure that focuses on

experiential activities. It was highlighted in the existing literature that rather than programs that provide only theoretical information about child development, parenting programs, which use experiential learning methods and provide skill development, facilitate more behavioral change and are more effective in building positive parent-child relationships (Lott & Nelsen, 2017; Sanders & Woolley, 2005). Therefore, based on parents' feedback, one could claim that the program is effective in changing parental behaviors and improving the parent-child relationship.

Furthermore, parents indicated that the program helped them to gain awareness of self and their child's feelings, thoughts, and behaviors. In Adlerian-Dreikursian programs, understanding the belief behind the misbehavior and the influence of parents' beliefs, feelings, and behaviors on child behavior are two main concepts (Bitter & Main, 2011; Dinkmeyer et al., 2015; McVittie & Best, 2009; Nelsen, 2019). Parents reflected that as they gain insight into their beliefs, feelings, and behaviors of parenting, they started to alter their perspectives. Also, as they are more aware of underlying reasons for misbehavior, their understanding and empathy improved. These processes of change in awareness promoted empathetic responses, which in turn, provided improvements in parent-child communication and relationships. Therefore, it can be argued that the program not only increases parenting knowledge and skills but also provides awareness and changes in their perspective. In fact, the Adlerian/Dreikursian programs emphasize parenting principles that provide the child with positive characteristics that will be beneficial in the long term, before behavior change in the short term (Lott & Nelsen, 2017; Nelsen, 2019). However, these findings regarding the feedback from the parents show that they both internalized these principles that lead to awareness-raising, and also provided the behavioral change in a positive direction. As a result, it can be claimed that the program leads to positive changes both in insight and behavior.

Another important finding from parents' evaluations is that almost all parents utilized the parenting tools and skills regularly through homework assignments during the sessions and three months after the sessions. In the content analysis, it was observed that parents frequently used most of the parenting tools and practiced and improved

their skills with these weekly assignments. Especially parents' feedbacks in the follow-up pointed out that these assignments ensure the stability of the positive change in their mindset and behaviors. Homework assignments, in which parents put their knowledge and experience gained from the sessions into practice is an important component in Adlerian-Dreikursian programs (Dinkmeyer & Carlson, 2015; Lott & Nelsen, 2017). Jonyniene (2015) found that parents who completed all homework assignments showed more improvement in their parenting behaviors. Moreover, doing homework assignments can also be considered as the indicator of parental motivation and investment for changing their parenting behaviors toward the positive direction. Hence, based on the participant' reflections it can be concluded that parents demonstrated their motivation, willingness, and investment in improving their parenting skills through frequently practicing most of the skills they learned and doing their homework, and this increased the positive outcomes of the program in their parenting behaviors and parent-child relationships.

Another theme that was emphasized in participants' feedback is the group process and healing factors of the group. Social learning experiences, exploring other group members' parenting experiences through group discussions, exchanging ideas, universality, encouragement, and collaboration were prominent themes in parents' reflections. In line with the Adlerian/Dreikursian parenting literature (e.g., Dinkmeyer & Carlson, 2015; Oryan & Ben-Asher, 2019), parents reflected that universality provides feelings of commonality which assisted parents to normalize their mistakes and decrease self-blaming. The emotional support and encouragement fostered the group cohesion, cooperation, and engagement in the group process which in turn, increased the positive outcomes. Modeling is another important element that impacts the effectiveness of parenting groups (Sanders & Mazhucelli, 2013). In the Positive Discipline Parenting program, Parents Helping Parents' Problem Solving (PHPPS), in which parents discuss a problem and work collaboratively to provide alternative solutions to this problem, is an important program component that played a critical role in outcomes. Through PHPPS, parents had an opportunity to practice a new

behavior in session before using the behavior at home, and they also had a chance to evaluate their experience in the next session with the group members. All these processes provided them with social learning principles of modeling behavior that is, attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, based on the feedback from the parents, it can be said that the program provides a change in the behavior and the mindset of the parents through the healing factors of the group and affects the results positively.

As for the suggestions, parents reflected that the training may last longer, more parenting information about child development may be included, regular meetings may be held, and the training should be disseminated by including teachers and both parents in the training program. All these suggestions of the parents were taken into consideration and discussed in detail under the title of suggestions for future implementations.

As a result, the qualitative evaluations of the parents for the Positive Discipline parenting program reflect the effectiveness of the program and the positive changes in their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors about raising children. The program not only provided parents with information but also led to changes in their behavior and mindset that would help them develop alternative strategies to solve and prevent the problems they face and may face in the future. Continuing to use the practices and skills after the program ensured the stability of the program outcomes, and the nature of the group and the therapeutic factors also increased the effectiveness of the program.

5.3 Implications for Practice

The current research has valuable implications for parents and the professionals who work with parents. First, the present study provided evidence that the Positive Discipline parenting program is effective in decreasing nonfunctional parental disciplinary practice and increasing the use of more favorable ones. The importance

of parents' functional discipline practices for both current and future positive outcomes and well-being of children has long been emphasized in the literature (Eisenberg et al., 2019; Healy et al., 2015; Pinquart & Gerke, 2019; Pomerantz & Grolnick, 2017 Smetana et al., 2019; Smetana & Rote, 2019). In this context, it is demonstrated in this study that the parenting practices based on the Adler-Dreikurs approach contribute to the functional discipline practices of the parents. Parents may benefit from these practices and principles in childrearing. Furthermore, counselors may benefit from these implications on functional disciplinary practices in their work with parents, such as individual interventions and parent training.

Second, the Positive Discipline parenting program is found to be effective for decreasing parenting stress levels especially the total parenting stress, the stress caused by the parent-child relationship, and the stress caused by the parent's perceptions of the child's behavior. As Bornstein and Bornstein (2007) noted, parenting programs provide support resources in dealing with parental stress through providing encouragement, teaching parenting knowledge and skills, and guiding about social expectations about functional parental discipline and child-rearing strategies. Being a relationship-based program, the objectives and the components of Positive Discipline improve the parent-child relationship, increase parental understanding and acceptance of their children’s behaviors and characteristics, thus, reducing parental stress that may arise from the parents’ negative perceptions. Hence, parents may gain from these implications in decreasing parental stress, and counselors may also support parents in decreasing parenting stress through this tested program.

Although the Positive Discipline parenting program was not found to be effective for increasing parenting self-efficacy, the program helped maintain self-efficacy in adverse circumstances. Self-efficacy is an important concept that impacts the quality of parenting as well as represents a source of coping in challenges and adverse circumstances (Abidin, 1992; Belsky, 1984; Coleman & Karraker, 2001; Sanders &

Woolley, 2005). Therefore, program components can be used to support parents' self-efficacy, thus increasing the quality of parenting.

Another valuable contribution of the study is that the current study is one of the first attempts to adapt and apply for an Adlerian-Drekursian parenting program in Turkish culture and has important implications in working with parents and families. Adlerian parenting programs have a long history based on the "family consultation" of Adler and Dreikurs, and the effectiveness of the programs has been proven in previous studies. Adlerian child-rearing philosophy and principles emphasize authoritative parenting and aim to improve children's feelings of capability and belongingness, problem-solving skills, and contribute to society. All these principles cultivate the development of a healthy personality and acquire necessary characteristics and life skills. As Aleksandrov et al. (2016) mentioned, although the number of multicultural studies is limited, available empirical evidence has shown that Adlerian programs can be applied in different cultures (Aleksandrov et al., 2016). Thus, considering the results of the study and parents' evaluative feedback, it is believed that the Positive Discipline parenting program is viable and effective in Turkish culture in counseling with parents.

Working on parental attitudes, the relationships between parents and children, and the development of parental knowledge and skills are among the most important components of the family counseling process. Adlerian child-rearing principles and Positive Discipline parenting program components promote a healthy parent-child relationship and contribute to the family as a system. Hence, another valuable implication of the present study is related to parent education in the family counseling process. Family counselors may benefit from the Positive Discipline parenting program to teach parents how to encourage their children, how to connect their children, how to apply natural and logical consequences, how to provide healthy boundaries, and how to increase their children's feelings of belongingness. As a result, it is believed that these research findings will also contribute to the field of family

counseling through family education, which is an important component of the family counseling process.

All in all, with the present study, the Positive Discipline parenting program is shown to be an effective program for improving parenting practices, supporting parental self-efficacy, and decreasing parental stress. As Lott and Nelsen (2017) suggested, Positive Discipline principles, skills, and parenting tools can be used on an individual or group basis. Especially, program implications can be used individually when working with disadvantaged families, since individual interventions can be individualized for the unique needs of these families (Lundahl et al., 2006). Thus, Positive Discipline program components can be used by counselors in both individual and group interventions. The promising results of this study indicate that the program can be widely used in Turkey. Since community-based programs have been shown that they are more cost-effective and accessible (Bunting, 2004), the Positive Discipline parenting program can be disseminated through schools, public education centers, and family counseling centers of the Provincial Directorates of Family and Social Policies, and/or municipalities.

5.4. Recommendations for Practice and Research

In addition to the above-mentioned implications, various suggestions drawn from the feedback of the participants are presented to guide future applications. Furthermore, recommendations for future research are made considering the limitations of the current study.

5.4.1. Recommendations for Practice

1. First of all, to utilize the Positive Discipline parenting program, the facilitators should be trained and get the trainer's certificate. Training the facilitators not only provides essential knowledge and skills but also improves

confidence as a group facilitator. It also supports them to establish a communication network that they can benefit from in further training. Therefore, for the dissemination of the program, it is recommended that individuals and/or institutions organize training for facilitators.

2. Within the scope of this study, the program materials were adapted to Turkish, their linguistic, and cultural suitability were tested in both the pilot and the main study. It was noticed that there is no need for any cultural adaptation in line with the feedback of the participants that the guide and workbook are supported by visuals and that the instructions are clear, understandable, and explanatory. However, it should be considered that linguistic-cultural adaptations may be needed for parents with different demographic characteristics since both pilot and main groups are from middle and upper SES.

3. The Positive Discipline program manual provides an example program outline for a six-week program, still, it includes many different activities and different program outlines. The content and duration of the program have been kept flexible so that it can be extended or shortened according to the needs of the parents and the characteristics of the group. Positive Discipline sessions have a short didactic part which includes the discussion of the topic of the book chapter for the week, and discussion about the effect of the topic mentioned in the chapter on parenting and parent-child relationships and/or how to apply the relevant topic to their parent-child relationships. Moreover, the program comprises handouts and books for parenting information. Nevertheless, according to the suggestions of the participants, the number of sessions can be increased and informative content on child development can be expanded in future practice. Although Lundahl et al. (2006) stated that the number of sessions is not significantly related to the results of parents or children; based on participants' feedback, it may be preferable to provide

longer periods of intervention, additional sessions, and more information on parenting and child development in future practices.

4. One of the prominent types of feedback related to suggestions for future practice is participating in the program as both parents together. Previous research on parenting programs underlines that the participation of both parents in the program increases the effectiveness. For instance, Lundahl et al. (2008) indicated that participation of both parents, particularly the father's participation increased the effectiveness of the parenting program. Similarly, Jonyniene (2015) indicated that parents who participated in the STEP program together had significantly more positive results than mothers who participated alone. For this reason, it can be suggested that the participation of both parents, especially fathers, may be supported in future implementations.

5.4.2 Recommendations for future research

1. The present study was conducted with a relatively small sample size which limited the generalizability of the results. The small sample size also restricted the use of more robust parametric statistics in the analysis. Therefore, it is recommended to replicate the study with larger samples, for example, with more than one group, in the future.

2. Another limitation of the study is related to the sample characteristics. In the present study, the sample comprised of elementary school parents who have children with normal development. The study group was a very homogeneous group with similar characteristics, i.e., mostly mothers, who are from middle-high socioeconomic status, highly educated, and living in a metropolitan. However, it was well evidenced that SES levels, geographical conditions, education level, marital status, occupational status, personality features, etc. impact the effectiveness of the parenting programs (Barlow et al., 2016;

Buchanan-Pascall, 2018; Dekkers et al, 2021; Leijten, et al., 2012). For instance, adverse conditions undermine the positive impact of the parenting programs (Lundahl et al., 2006). Although Brown (2018) indicated that parental demographics (i.e., age, marital status, SES level, level of education, and the number of children) did not moderate the positive outcomes of the Positive Discipline parenting program; due to the small sample size and a limited number of the demographic characteristics, the results of Brown's study may not be generalized. Moreover, Chang and Ritter (2004) indicated that Adlerian parenting programs aim to improve democratic parenting, yet, in some cultures, parental authority may be valued more, and a democratic family atmosphere may not be considered as an effective parenting style. Prior research highlighted that although Adlerian parenting programs are helpful for most families; cultural concerns should be taken into consideration (Chang & Ritter, 2004; Oryan, 2014; Oryan & Ben-Asher, 2019). Therefore, the results of the training for any study group may vary in different cultural groups. Consequently, further studies are needed to be carried out with different SES levels, different cultural backgrounds, and with more diverse/heterogeneous groups (i.e., parents from disadvantaged communities, single parents, having children with special needs, or parents with children having behavior problems). Similarly, the study group was included only elementary school parents. In the literature, there are studies showing that the child's age also affects the outcome of the parenting program, for example, younger children can benefit more from behavioral-based parent education programs and older children from relationship-based programs; however, there are also studies showing that the child's age does not change according to the theoretical basis of the program (Lundahl et al, 2006). However, the impact of a parenting program may differ in different age groups, since the needs of both parents and children may vary in different age groups. Therefore, it is recommended to test the effect of the Positive Discipline parenting program with parents whose

children are in different developmental stages, such as preschool and adolescence.

3. In the present study, the majority of the study group comprised of mothers. On the other hand, there are studies in the literature that indicated that father involvement increases the effectiveness of the parenting programs (e.g., Jonyniene, 2015; Lundahl et al., 2008). Therefore, it is recommended to conduct studies that will test the effectiveness of the program in the future, with more balanced samples in terms of gender representation, paying particular attention to the inclusion of fathers. Furthermore, due to the small number of fathers participating in the study, a gender comparison of the effectiveness of the program could not be made. Thus, in future studies with more gender-balanced samples, program outcomes for mothers and fathers can be compared.

4. Another suggestion provided by the participants was that teachers should receive this training as well. Considering Bronfenbrenner's (1986) ecological perspective, schools are one of the primary contexts in a child's development. Therefore, teacher training can be carried out in future practices to support the healthy development of the child and to support the aims of family education. There is also a version of the Positive Discipline for schools and teachers: Positive Discipline in the Classroom. In the future, institutions or individuals can use this version by carrying out adaptation studies.

5. In the current study, the effect of the program on parenting disciplinary behaviors, parenting stress, and parenting self-efficacy were chosen as the variables based on the theoretical models of parenting (Abidin, 1992; Belsky, 1984). Future studies can be conducted involving more dependent and/or independent variables which may affect parenting and the impact of the parenting program such as parents' personality, attachment style, parental

perception on child's behavior, marital satisfaction, or perceived social support.

6. Within the scope of the current study, the child's characteristics did not involve an independent variable. On the other hand, both theoretical models of parenting (e.g., Abidin, 1992; Belsky, 1984) and systematic reviews (Barlow et al., 2008; Barlow et al., 2016; Barlow & Coren, 2018; Dekkers et al., 2021; Leijten, et al., 2012; Lundahl et al., 2006; Stoltz et al., 2015) showed that children's gender, age, personality, etc. impact the parenting and the outcomes of the parenting programs. Similarly, this study was conducted with a sample of parents whose children showed normal developmental characteristics. The effectiveness of the program can be tested with parents who have children with special needs and parents with children who have clinically disruptive behaviors. Therefore, child characteristics are recommended to be included as independent variables in further studies. Likewise, the child's characteristics did not involve the study as an outcome variable. Although the focus of the present study was to examine the effect of the Positive Discipline parenting program in promoting positive parental behaviors, it is expected that improvement in parenting behaviors leads to positive results in children. Thus, development and changes in child behaviors are needed to be studied as well. As a result, it is recommended that program outcomes can be evaluated in terms of child's behaviors or perceptions in future studies.

7. In the current study, considering the practical reasons (e.g., mortality threat) a three-month follow-up period was preferred. Longer-term follow-up studies, e.g., a one-year or more, are needed to be conducted to understand the enduring effects of the intervention on parental outcomes. Thus, longitudinal studies are recommended to be conducted.

8. Since this study was carried out under COVID-19 pandemic conditions, it is thought that these conditions affect the outcomes in the context of historical effect. Therefore, it is recommended that the study should be replicated in the process where the impact of the pandemic is decreasing, the adaptation to the "new normal" is increasing, and normalization is gradually being started all over the world.

9. The effectiveness of the Positive Discipline parenting program, which is based on the Adlerian/Dreikursian approach, can be compared with the parenting programs based on other approaches in the Turkish sample.

10. COVID-19 pandemic has once again proven the importance of online programs in terms of accessibility. Although the program adaptation is conducted face to face in the current study, the Positive Discipline program can also be taught online. Therefore, it is recommended to conduct an adaptation study for the online version by a content arrangement. It is believed that online applications may also reduce the dropout rate in terms of accessibility and increase father participation.

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APPENDICES

A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

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Sayı: 28620816 / 426

21 KASIM 2019

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Zeynep HATİPOĞLU SÜMER

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız **Seval APAYDIN'ın "Pozitif Disiplin Aile Eğitimi Programının Ebeveynlik Stilleri Ebeveyn Öz Yeterliliği ve Ebeveynlik Stresi Üzerindeki Etkileri "** başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve **406 ODTU 2019** protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Prof. Dr. Tülin GENÇÖZ
Başkan

Prof. Dr. Tolga CAN
Üye

Doç.Dr. Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Şerife SEVİNÇ
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Müge GÜNDÜZ
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Süreyya Özcan KABASAKAL
Üye

B. TRAINING PROGRAM ANNOUNCEMENT FLYER

POZİTİF DİSİPLİN EBEVEYN EĞİTİMİ PROGRAMI

- **Çocuğunuzla daha az güç mücadelesi yaşamak**
- **Çocuğunuzla daha fazla bağ kurmak**
- **Ebeveyn olarak daha kendinden emin ve huzurlu hissetmek**
- **Saygılı, güçlü, işbirliği yapan mutlu çocuklar yetiştirmek ister misiniz?**

Bu eğlenceli ve bilgilendirici eğitimde bize katılabilirsiniz

Altı hafta sürecek olan "Pozitif Disiplin Yöntemiyle Ebeveyn Eğitimi Programı" olmayı arzu ettiğiniz ebeveynler olmanıza ve saygı ve işbirliğinin hakim olduğu bir ev ortamı yaratmanıza yardımcı olacaktır. Bu eğitimde uygulaması kolay ve somut ebeveynlik ipuçlarını yaşantısal öğrenme yöntemiyle edinebileceksiniz.

Eğitim programı, çocukları 6-10 yaşları arasında olan ebeveynler için tasarlanmıştır.

Eğitim tarihi: 22/07/2020-26/08/2020 (Eğitim Programı 6 hafta sürecektir)
Eğitim gün ve saatleri: Çarşamba 13:30-16:00
Eğitim Yeri: Akdeniz Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi B Blok 2. Kat RPD Grup Odası-B

Kayıt ve Bilgi için:
Seval APAYDIN
Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Ana Bilim Dalı Eğitim Fakültesi A blok ofis NO: 424
e-posta: sevalapaydin@akdeniz.edu.tr
tlf: 05057793721
dahili 4657

* Eğitime katılacak olan idari personelimiz eğitim saatlerinde izinli sayılacaklardır.

*Bu araştırma, ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Doktora programı öğrencisi Seval APAYDIN'ın Doç. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu SÜMER danışmanlığındaki doktora tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir.

C. PROGRAM ANOUNCEMENT OF AKDENİZ UNIVERSITY

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 09/07/2020-72628

T.C.
AKDENİZ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Yazı İşleri ve Evrak Şube Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 87671735-302.08.01-E.72628 09/07/2020
Konu : Ebeveyn Eğitim Programı

EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ DEKANLIĞINA

İlgi : Üniversitemiz Eğitim Fakültesi Dekanlığının 07.07.2020 tarihli ve 90425881-302.08.01-E.71330 sayılı yazısı.

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Fakültesi Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Anabilim Dalında görev yapan Öğr. Gör. Seval APAYDIN'ın, doktora tez çalışması kapsamında 22 Temmuz - 26 Ağustos 2020 tarihleri arasında gerçekleştirmeyi planladığı "Pozitif Disiplin" adlı ebeveyn eğitimi programına ilişkin takvim Ek'te gönderilmiş olup, söz konusu eğitimin ilgililere duyurulması hususunda;

Bilgilerini ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Mehmet ALTUNKAYA
Rektör Yardımcısı

Ek: İlgi yazı ve Ek'i (4 sayfa)

Dağıtım:
Akademik Birimlere
İdari Birimlere

Adres:Akdeniz Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü Kampus / Antalya
Telefon:0 242 227 59 90 Faks0 242 227 59 90
e-Posta:duyur@akdeniz.edu.tr Elektronik Ağ:www.akdeniz.edu.tr

Bilgi için: Ayten BEKDAŞ
Unvanı: Bilgisayar İşletmeni
Tel No: 0 242 310 15 79

Bu belge 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5. Maddesi gereğince güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

D. SAMPLE ITEMS OF THE PARENTING SCALE

1. Çocuğum yaramazlık yaptığında…

Derhal bir şey yaparım.	0---0---0---0---0---0---0	Daha sonra bir şey yaparım.

2. Bir sorunla ilgili bir şey yapmadan önce…

Çocuğuma birkaç defa hatırlatma ya da uyarıda bulunurum.	0---0---0---0---0---0---0	Sadece bir hatırlatma ya da uyarıda bulunurum.

12. Çocuğumun yaptığı bir şeyi bırakmasını istediğimde…

Çocuğuma kararlı bir şekilde durmasını söylerim.	0---0---0---0---0---0---0	Çocuğuma durması için dil dökerim ya da yalvarırım.

25. Çocuğum yaramazlık yaptığında…

Nadiren kötü söz ve küfür kullanırım.	0---0---0---0---0---0---0	Hemen her zaman kötü söz ve küfür kullanırım.

26. Çocuğuma bir şeyi yapamayacağını söylediğimde…

Onu yapmasına yine de izin veririm.	0---0---0---0---0---0---0	Söylediğime sadık kalırım.

1. When my child misbehaves...

I do something right away 0…0…0…0…0…0…0 I do something about it later

2. Before I do something about a problem...

I give my child several reminders or warnings 0…0…0…0…0…0…0 I use only one reminder or warning.

12. When I want my child to stop doing something...

I firmly tell my child to stop 0…0…0…0…0…0…0 I coax or beg my child to stop.

25. When my child misbehaves...

I rarely use bad language or curse 0…0…0…0…0…0…0 I almost always use bad language.

26. When I say my child can't do something...

I let my child do it anyway 0…0…0…0…0…0…0 I stick to what I said.

child is doing.

E. SAMPLE ITEMS OF THE PARENTING STRESS INDEX SHORT FORM

	Maddeler	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Emin Değilim	Katılmıyorum	Hiç Katılmıyorum
1	Çoğunlukla sorunlarla iyi baş edemediğimi düşünüyorum					
3	Bir anne-baba olarak kendimi sorumluluklarımdan dolayı kısıtlanmış ve mecbur hissediyorum					
14	Çocuğum için bir şeyler yaptığımda çabalarıma yeterince değer verilmediğini hissederim					
17	Çocuğum çok duygusaldır ve kolaylıkla üzülür					
27	Çocuğumun olumlu ve olumsuz duygu değişiklikleri yaşadığını ve kolayca üzüldüğünü hissediyorum					
34	Çocuğumun yaptığı bazı şeyler beni çok rahatsız ediyor					

1. I often think that I am not coping well with problems.

3. I feel constrained and compelled by my responsibilities as a parent.

14. When I do something for my child, I feel that my efforts are not valued enough.

17. My child is very emotional and gets upset easily

27. I feel my child is experiencing positive and negative mood changes and is easily upset

34. Some of the things my child does make me very uncomfortable.

F. SAMPLE ITEMS OF THE PARENTING SELF EFFICACY SCALE

	Aşağıda bazı ebeveynlik davranışları yer almaktadır. Çocuğunuzla ilişkilerinizde aşağıdaki davranışları ne kadar yeterli düzeyde sergileyebildiğinize ilişkin yanıtlar "Oldukça Yetersizim (1) ve Oldukça Yeterliyim (7)" arasında derecelendirilmiştir. 1-7 arasındaki size en uygun gelen sütunu işaretleyiniz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Oldukça Yetersizim		Yetersizim		Yeterliyim		Oldukça Yeterliyim
1	Başkalarıyla yaşadığı sorunlarla başa çıkmasında çocuğunuza yardım edebilme							
4	Kişisel, ailevi ya da işle ilgili sorunlarınıza rağmen çocuğunuzla ilgilenebilme							
11	Çocuğunuzun gerçekçi hedefler belirlemesine ve bunları başarabilmesine yardımcı olma							

1. Helping your child cope with problems with others

4. Taking care of your child despite personal, family, or work-related problems

11. Helping your child set realistic goals and achieve them

G. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Değerli Ebeveyn,

Bu form, genel ebeveynlik tutumları ve uygulamaları ile ilgili bilgi toplamak için hazırlanmıştır. Formda ebeveynlik davranışlarınızla ilgili bir dizi anket sorusu yer almaktadır. Farklı yaşlarda birden fazla çocuğunuz varsa, soruları yanıtlarken 6-10 yaşları arasındaki bir çocuğunuzu düşünerek yanıtlayınız. Lütfen her bir maddeyi okuduktan sonra, sizi en iyi yansıttığını düşündüğünüz ifadeyi maddelerin başında verilen açıklamalara uygun şekilde işaretleyiniz. Bu bir test olmadığından cevaplarınız doğru ve yanlış olarak değerlendirilmeyecektir. Vereceğiniz bilgiler bilimsel bir çalışma için veri sağlamak üzere kullanılacak olup, başka bir amaçla kullanılmayacaktır. Tüm formlar toplu olarak değerlendirilecektir. Sizden istenen, kendinizle ilgili en doğru ve gerçekçi bilgiyi uygun seçeneğe işaretlemenizdir. Lütfen soruları boş bırakmayınız. Vereceğiniz gerçekçi ve samimi cevaplar, araştırmaya olumlu katkılar sağlayacaktır.

Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederim.
Öğr. Gör. Seval APAYDIN Akdeniz Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi

---

1. Formu doldururken düşündüğüm 6-10 yaş arasındaki çocuğumun cinsiyeti: ____Kız ___Erkek

2. Çocuğumun yaşı:____

3. Devam etmekte olduğu sınıf düzeyi:
   ____1. Sınıf
   ____2. Sınıf
   ____3. Sınıf
   ____4. Sınıf

4. Formu dolduran ebeveyn:
   _____Anne
   _____Baba

5. Formu dolduran ebeveynin:
   Medeni durumu:
   ____Evli
   ____Bekar
   ____Diğer (Ayrı yaşıyor, Eşi vefat etmiş vb.)

6. Yaşı:_____

7. Çalışma Durumu:
   ____ Yarı zamanlı çalışıyorum
   ____ Tam zamanlı çalışıyorum
   ____ Çalışmıyorum
   ____ Emekliyim

8. Mesleği:_____

9. Eğitim durumu:
   ____İlkokul mezunu
   ____Ortaokul mezunu
   ____Lise mezunu
   ____Yüksekokul mezunu
   ____Üniversite mezunu
   ____Lisansüstü mezunu

10. Ailedeki toplam çocuk sayısı: _____

11. Çocuğun eğitimi ve bakımından çoğunlukla sorumlu olan kişi(ler):
    ____Ebeveynler ortaklaşa
    ____Anne
    ____Baba
    ____Büyükanne/Büyükbaba
    ____Diğer (Bakıcı/yardımcı, kardeş vb.)

12. Formu dolduran ebeveynin daha önce bir ebeveyn eğitimine katılıp katılmadığı:
    _____Evet ____Hayır

H. SAMPLE ITEMS OF THE PROGRAM EVALUATION FORM

Pozitif Disiplin Yöntemi ile Ebeveyn Eğitimi Değerlendirme Formu

Değerli katılımcılar,

Aşağıda Pozitif Disiplin Yöntemi ile Ebeveyn Eğitiminin değerlendirilmesine ilişkin ifadeler ve açık uçlu sorular yer almaktadır. İfadeleri okuyarak size en uygun seçeneği işaretlemeniz ve açık uçlu soruları yanıtlamanız istenmektedir. Sorulara vereceğiniz yanıtlar yalnızca araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Eğitimin etkililiğinin değerlendirilmesi açısından sorulara içtenlikle yanıt vermeniz çok önemlidir. Katılımınız için teşekkürler...

Eğitimcinin Değerlendirilmesi	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Konu ile ilgili yeterli bilgi ve uzmanlığa sahipti.					
Katılımcılarla olumlu bir iletişim kurdu.					
Oturumlarda ortaya çıkan sorunları etkili bir biçimde çözdü.					
Eğitim Planının ve Eğitim Materyallerinin Değerlendirilmesi	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Haftalık oturum süreleri uygundu.					
Eğitimde verilen notlar/çalışma kitabı yeterliydi.					
Eğitimin içeriği iyi hazırlanmıştı.					
Eğitim Sürecinin Değerlendirilmesi	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Eğitimde etkili bir iletişim ortamı oluşturuldu.					
Oturumlar günlük hayattan, somut ve anlaşılır örneklerle zenginleştirildi.					
Katılımcılar birbirlerini cesaretlendirici ve destekleyiciydi.					
Eğitim Sonuçlarının Değerlendirilmesi	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Eğitim, ihtiyaç ve beklentilerimi karşıladı.					
Eğitim çocuklarımla ilişkilerimi geliştirmemde yardımcı oldu.					
Pozitif Disiplin Yöntemi ile Ebeveyn Eğitimi'ni başka anne ve babalara öneririm					

Eğitimde en çok yararlandığınız ve size en çok katkı sağlayan bilgi ve uygulamalar nelerdi?

Eğitimde yararlanmadığınızı/size katkı sağlamadığını düşündüğünüz konular ya da uygulamalar hangileriydi?

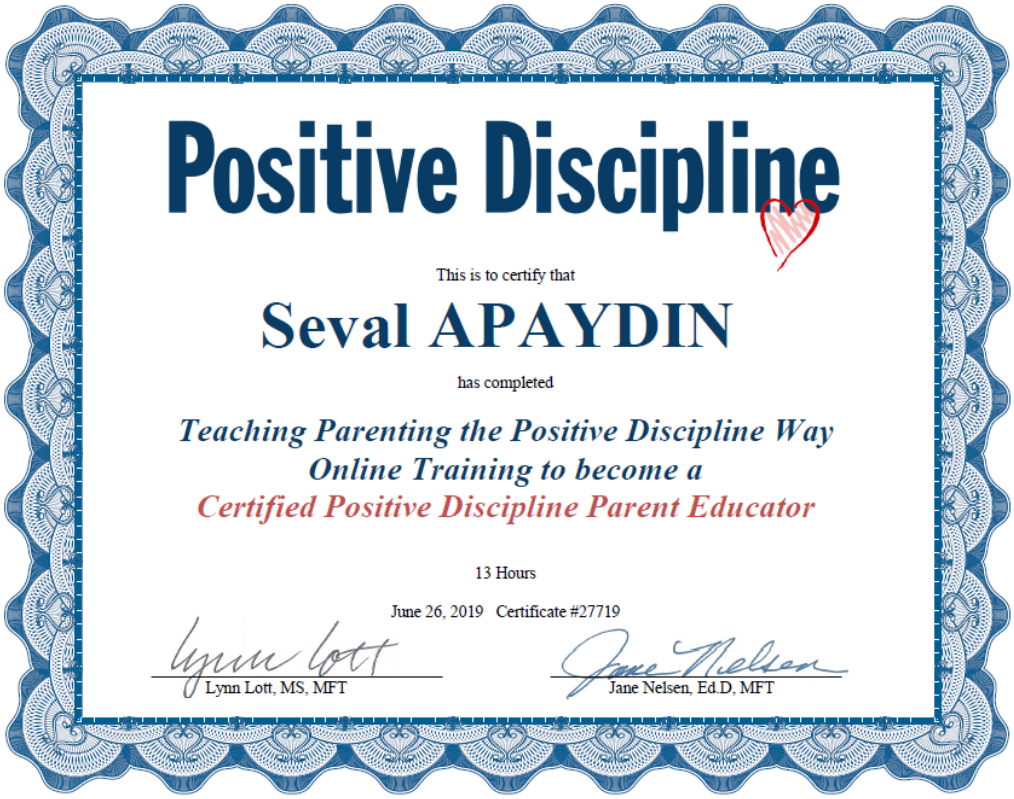
Eğitimin eksik kalan yönleri var mıydı? Varsa nelerdi?

Eğitim sürecine ilişkin duygu ve düşünceleriniz nelerdir?

Eğitim sürecinde öğrendiğiniz ebeveynlik araçlarından hangilerini ve ne sıklıkta kullanıyorsunuz?

Eğitime ilişkin belirtilmesinde yarar gördüğünüz konuları, varsa sorunları ve önerilerinizi lütfen yazınız.

I. POSITIVE DISCIPLINE PARENTING EDUCATOR CERTIFICATE



Positive Discipline

This is to certify that

Seval APAYDIN

has completed

Teaching Parenting the Positive Discipline Way
Online Training to become a
Certified Positive Discipline Parent Educator

13 Hours

June 26, 2019 Certificate #27719

Lynn Lott, MS, MFT

Jane Nelsen, Ed.D, MFT

J. AGREEMENT FOR THE TRANSLATION AND THE ADAPTATION OF POSITIVE DISCIPLINE PARENTING PROGRAM

Agreement For Sale of Translation Rights

AGREEMENT made by and between, a corporation, Empowering People, Inc. (DBA: Positive Discipline) with its principal offices in San Diego, CA, and authors Jane Nelsen and Lynn Lott (hereinafter referred to as "Proprietor"), its successors and assigns, and Seval Apaydın and its selected publishing company (hereinafter referred to as "Translator"). Concerning a Work presently titled: Teaching Parenting Manual, Positive Discipline Workbook, Parenting Tool Cards (hereinafter referred to as the "Work"), by which is published in American English by the Proprietor and which the translator wishes to issue in the language: Turkish

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Translator

Name: Seval APAYDIN

Title: Lecturer

(Signed): _____

Date: 30/09/2019

Proprietor

Name: Brad Ainge

Title: Vice President

(Signed): _____

K. ACTIVITY EVALUATION FORM

Pozitif Disiplin Yöntemi ile Ebeveyn Eğitimi Etkinlik Değerlendirme Formu

Etkinliğin adı:	Evet	Hayır	Fikrim Yok
1.Etkinliğin amacı açık ve anlaşılırdı.			
2.Etkinliğin uygulanmasına ilişkin etkinlik öncesinde yapılan açıklamalar yeterliydi.			
3.Etkinlikteki yönergeler açık ve anlaşılırdı.			
4.Etkinlikte verilen notlar/çalışma sayfalarında yer alan ifadeler açık ve anlaşılırdı.			
5.Etkinlik günlük hayattan örnekler verilerek zenginleştirilmişti.			
6.Etkinliğin uygulanması kolaydı.			
7.Etkinlik için ayrılan zaman yeterliydi.			
8.Fiziksel ortam etkinlik için uygundu.			
9.Etkinliğin içeriği programın amacına uygundu.			

Etkinliğin en beğendiğiniz yönleri nelerdi?

Etkinliğin beğenmediğiniz yönleri nelerdi?

Etkinlikte eksik kaldığını düşündüğünüz kısımlar var mıdır? Varsa neler?

Etkinlik yararlı ve anlaşılır mıydı? Sizce etkinliğin daha anlaşılır ve yararlı olabilmesi için neler yapılabilir?

Bu sorular dışında etkinlikle ilgili belirtilmesinde yarar gördüğünüz konuları, sorunları ve önerilerinizi lütfen yazınız.

L. THEMES AND CODE LIST OF THE QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

Contributions of the Training	
Code	***f***
Category 1: Effective communication and relationship skills	
Solving problems / focusing on solutions together	8
Using "Kind and Firm" language	7
Quality / special time with the child	6
Connection	6
Active listening	5
Empathy	5
Cooperation	4
Anger management	3
Reduction of conflict	3
Category 2: Awareness of self and the child's behavior	
Recognizing one's beliefs about parenting	16
Recognizing parenting behavior	12
Understanding the underlying reasons / needs of the child's behavior	9
Recognizing the relationship between parents' and the child's behavior	7
Recognizing feelings	6
Recognizing that reward and punishment are not appropriate	4

Category 3: The effect on other relationships	
Relationships of siblings	4
Family relationships	2
Relationship with students	2
Code	***f***
Frequently Used Tools	
Positive time-out	16
Family meeting	15
Routine chart	10
Asking instead of telling	10
Curiosity questions	9
Problem solving	9
Kind and Firm	8
PD Parenting Tool Cards	6
Bond with hugs	5
Wheel of Choice	3
Sibling fights and 3G	1
Group Experience	
Universality/feeling not alone	4
Learning by modeling	4
Cooperation	2

Getting support/encouragement from the group	2
Effective group discussions	2
Suggestions	
Repeating the training / practices in certain periods	9
Both Parents attending training together	6
Teacher / candidate teacher training	5
Longer training period	5
Code	***f***
Making more applications	4
Gaining more theoretical knowledge on child development	1
Training of parent candidates	1

M. CURRICULUM VITAE

Seval APAYDIN

EDUCATION:

M.S: Middle East Technical University, Faculty of Education, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, (2006). Thesis Title: The relationship between learned resourcefulness and conflict behaviors. Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Esin Tezer

B.A: Hacettepe University Faculty of Education, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, (1998-2002)

WORK EXPERIENCE:

Lecturer (Akdeniz University, 2014-)

School Counselor (Ministry of National Education 2003-2014)

FOREIGN LANGUAGES:

English (Advanced)

RESEARCH INTERESTS:

School Counseling, Career Counseling, Cognitive-Behavioral Therapies, Trauma & Crisis Counseling, Grief Counseling.

PUBLICATIONS:

Conference Presentations

Çakır S. G., Apaydın S., Taşdelen Karçkay A., Varlık Özsoy E. (2018). *The effect of supervised individual counseling practice on self-efficacy levels of psychological counselor candidates*. 5th International Eurasian Educational Research Congress, pp. 399-408 (Full Text Paper/Oral Presentation) (Publication No: 4782271)

Apaydın S. (2018). *The need for crisis and trauma intervention training in candidate psychological counselors in Turkey*. 5th International Eurasian Educational Research Congress, pp, 983-988. (Full Text Paper/Oral Presentation) (Publication No: 5445096)

Çakır S. G. Apaydın S. (2017). *The role of gender, empowerment, and sense of coherence in predicting resilience* 6th World Congress on Educational and Instructional Studies-WCEIS 2017, 1(1), 54-54. (Full Text Paper/Oral Presentation) (Publication No:3853775)

Çakır S. G. Apaydın S. (2017). *Effects of job shadowing on high school students' occupational knowledge and career decision making process.* 26th. International Conference of Educational Sciences/ICES-UEBK 2017, 1(1), 3212-3214., Doi: 10.14527/9786053188353 (Full Text Paper/Oral Presentation) (Publication No: :3853659)

Çakır S. G. Apaydın S. (2016). Examining the effects of high school students' job shadowing experience on self-awareness in the career selection process. IIIrd International Eurasian Educational Research Congress, 1(1), 1833-1834. (Full Text Paper/Oral Presentation) (Publication No:2819282)

Book Chapters

Apaydın S., Taşdelen Karçkay A (2021). The effect of online group counseling on cognitive flexibility, hope and well-Being In M. Uslu, E. Hamarta, C. Arslan, S. Çiftçi (Eds.) *Academic Research, 2021*, 1, pp 177-187. Ankara: Çizgi

Apaydın S., Taşdelen Karçkay A (2021). Stress, coping, and resilience in middle adulthood. In F. Savi-Çakar (Ed.), *Life Periods and Adaptation Problems*, 8th Ed., Sayfa Sayısı 368-398. Ankara: Pegem.

Apaydın S. (2021). How to conduct an intake interview. In E. Çetinkaya-Yıldız & G. Çakır (Eds.). *Counseling And Therapy Skills and Techniques*, 3rd Ed., pp. 86-95. Ankara: Nobel

Apaydın S. (2021). Advanced intervention techniques. In E. Çetinkaya-Yıldız & G. Çakır (Eds.). *Counseling And Therapy Skills and Techniques*, 3rd Ed., pp. 190-222. Ankara: Nobel

Apaydın S. (2020). Loss and grief. In O. Erdur-Baker & I. Aksoz-Efe (Eds.), *Grief Counseling*, 2nd ed., pp. 1-52. Ankara: Anı

Apaydın S. (2020). Death, loss and grief in children and adolescents. In O. Erdur-Baker & I. Aksoz-Efe (Eds.), *Grief Counseling*, 2nd ed., pp. 53-86. Ankara: Anı

Apaydın S. (2020). Counseling services by developmental areas. In Ş. Işık (Ed.) *Psychological Counseling and Guidance in Schools*, 80-104. Ankara: Pegem.

Apaydın S. (2020). Sample activities and cases for different grades. In Ş. Işık (Ed.) *Psychological Counseling and Guidance in Schools*, 148-180. Ankara: Pegem.

Apaydın S., Çakır, S.G. (2016). Examination of school administrators' perceptions on the necessity and effectiveness of counseling services. In Ö. Demirel & S. Dinçer (Eds.) *Search for Innovation and Quality in Educational Sciences*, pp. 655-667, Ankara: Pegem.

RESEARCH PROJECTS:

New Approaches for Inclusive Informal Learning Spaces (NIILS), Erasmus KA2 Project (2021-), Researcher.

Post-Disaster Psychosocial Support, Erasmus KA1 Project (2015-2017), Researcher.

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS:

Member, Turkish Psychological Counseling and Guidance Association

AWARDS:

2018-2019 METU Graduate Courses Performance Award

N. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

POZİTİF DİSİPLİN EBEVEYNLİK PROGRAMININ EBEVEYN DİSİPLİN UYGULAMALARI, EBEVEYN STRESİ VE EBEVEYN ÖZYETERLİĞİNE ETKİSİ

1. GİRİŞ

Ebeveynlik bir yetişkinin yaşamındaki en önemli, zaman zaman da zorlayıcı rollerden biridir (Stearns, 2019). Günümüzde ebeveynlik yalnızca çocukların hayatta kalma ihtiyaçlarını karşılamayı değil, onları gelecekteki yaşam rollerine hazırlamak için gereken birçok görev ve sorumluluğu barındıran, fiziksel, duygusal ve zihinsel talepler içeren, tam zamanlı ve uzun vadeli bir roldür (Bjorklund ve Myers, 2019). Ebeveynler, tüm bu görev ve sorumlulukları ebeveynlik uygulamaları aracılığıyla gerçekleştirmektedirler. Ebeveynlik uygulamaları; ebeveynlik stili, ebeveyn-çocuk iletişim yöntemi ve ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları gibi bir dizi ebeveyn tutum ve davranışını içermektedir (Baumrind, 2013; Darling ve Steinberg, 1993; Lansford, 2019).

Ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları, ebeveynlerin çocuklarını istenen davranışa teşvik etme ve yönlendirmeye yönelik davranışları ile çocuğun uygunsuz davranışına verdikleri tepkiler olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Lansford, 2019). Bu uygulamalar, ebeveyn izlemi, sınır koyma, rehberlik etme ve cesaretlendirme gibi işlevsel stratejileri; ya da katı, yetersiz veya tutarsız disiplin gibi işlevsel olmayan stratejileri içerebilir (Arnold ve ark., 1993; O'Leary, 1995). Araştırma bulguları, işlevsel disiplinin çocukların gelişim ve uyumunu olumlu etkilediğini (Grolnick ve ark., 2019; Sanders ve Wolley, 2018; Smetana ve ark., 2019); işlevsel olmayan disiplin uygulamalarının ise çocukların

uyumu ve gelişimi üzerinde olumsuz etkileri olduğunu göstermektedir (Gershoff ve Grogan-Kaylor 2016; Lansford, 2019; Smetana, 2017).

Alanyazında, ebeveyn disiplin uygulamalarını de içeren ebeveynlik davranışlarının nasıl ortaya çıktığını ve hangi faktörlerden etkilendiğini açıklayan birçok model önerilmiştir. Örneğin, Belsky'nin (1984) ebeveynlik modeline göre, ebeveynlik davranışları, ebeveynin kişiliği ve çocuğun mizacı gibi bireysel faktörlerden ve ebeveynlerin sosyal destek ve stres kaynakları gibi sosyal-bağlamsal faktörlerden etkilenmekte ve bu faktörlerin karşılıklı etkileşimi ile şekillenmektedir. Birçok çalışma, bireysel faktörlerden biri olan *ebeveynlik özyeterliği* ve bağlamsal faktörler arasında yer alan *ebeveyn stres kaynaklarının* ebeveynliği etkileyen önemli faktörlerden olduklarını ortaya koymuştur (Belsky ve Jaffe, 2006; Crnic ve Ross, 2017; Jonas ve Prinz, 2005, Wittkowski ve ark., 2017).

Bandura'nın (1977) Sosyal Bilişsel Kuramındaki özyeterlik kavramına dayanan *ebeveynlik özyeterliği*, bireylerin ebeveynlik görevlerini başarılı bir şekilde yerine getirebileceklerine ilişkin inançları olarak tanımlanabilir (Jonas ve Prinz, 2005). Ebeveynlik özyeterliği yüksek olan ebeveynler, olumlu ebeveynlik tutum ve davranışları sergilemekte, çocukları ile daha olumlu etkileşimde bulunmakta ve çocuğun gelişimi üzerinde olumlu bir etki yaratmaktadırlar (Bloomfield ve Kendall, 2012; Coleman ve Karraker, 1998). Tersine, düşük ebeveynlik özyeterliği olumsuz ebeveynlik davranışları ve olumsuz ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisi ile sonuçlanmakta, ebeveynler görevlerini daha zorlayıcı ve bunaltıcı olarak algılamaktadırlar (Albanese ve ark., 2019; Wittkowski ve ark., 2017). Daha yüksek ebeveyn öz yetkinliği aynı zamanda ebeveyn stresine karşı da koruyucu bir faktör rolü üstlenmektedir (Bandura ve ark., 2011).

Ebeveynlik stresi, ebeveyn rolünün taleplerine uyum sağlamak için ortaya konan stres tepkileri olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Daeter-Deckard, 2008). Ebeveynlik stresi hem ebeveynlerin kendileri hem de çocukları üzerinde zararlı etkilere sahiptir. Örneğin;

yüksek ebeveynlik stresi, ebeveyn depresyonu ve tükenmişliği ile ilişkili bulunurken, çocukta davranış sorunları, içselleştirme ve dışsallaştırma davranışları, düşük sosyal yeterlilik ve düşük akademik başarı ile ilişkili bulunmuştur (Anthony ve ark., 2005; Dunning ve Giallo, 2012; Neece ve ark., 2012; Östberg ve Hagekull, 2013; Sevigny ve Loutzenhiser, 2010).

Ebeveynlik becerileri öğrenilen becerilerdir ve ebeveynlik tutum, bilgi ve davranışları ebeveynlik programları aracılığı ile geliştirilebilir (Bornstein, 2019). *Ebeveynlik programları* çocuk gelişimi, aile ilişkileri, ebeveyn davranışları gibi konularda bilgi, tutum ve becerileri sistematik bir şekilde kazandırmayı amaçlayan, çoğunlukla grup formatında verilen yapılandırılmış programlar olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Haslam ve ark., 2016). Çok sayıda araştırma, ebeveynlik programlarının ebeveyn stresini ve işlevsel olmayan disiplin uygulamalarını azalttığını; ebeveyn özyeterliğini artırdığını göstermiştir (Albanese ve ark., 2019; Barlow ve ark., 2011; Jones ve Prinz, 2004; Lundahl ve ark., 2006).

1960'lı yıllardan itibaren farklı kuramlara dayalı ebeveynlik programları geliştirilmiş olsa da Alfred Adler ile öğrencisi ve meslektaşı Rudolph Dreikurs'un açık forum aile danışmanlığı çalışmalarıyla ebeveyn eğitimine öncülük ettikleri söylenebilir (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 2018). Adler yaklaşımına dayalı ebeveynlik programları, Bireysel Psikoloji kavramları ile Adler ve Dreikurs'un ortaya koymuş olduğu çocuk yetiştirme ilkelerine dayanmaktadır (Lindquist ve Watkins, 2014). Bu programların temel amacı demokratik bir aile ortamında çocukların kendilerine ve başkalarına saygı duymayı öğrenmelerine, sorumluluk ve iş birliği kazanmalarına kısacası "*sosyal ilgilerini*" geliştirmelerine yardımcı olmaktır (Rasmussen, 2014). Mevcut çalışmanın müdahale programı olan *Pozitif Disiplin* (Lott ve Nelsen 1988), Adler-Dreikurs yaklaşımına dayalı ebeveynlik programlarından biridir. Pozitif Disiplin, ebeveynlerin çocuğun hatalı davranışlarına neden olan temel duygu ve düşüncelerini yani "*hatalı amaçlarını*" anlamalarına böylelikle çocuğun hatalı amacının altında yatan ihtiyaçlarına yanıt vermelerine olanak tanımaktadır. Program, etkili iletişim becerileri,

çocuğun duygularını onaylama, olumlu geri bildirim verme, doğal ve mantıksal sonuçlar sağlama ve işlevsel disiplin uygulamalarını içermekte; övgü ve ceza yerine cesaretlendirme, problem çözme becerileri ve Aile Toplantılarının önemi vurgulamaktadır (Lindquist ve Watkins, 2014).

1.2 Araştırmanın Amacı

Bu çalışma, Pozitif Disiplin adlı ebeveynlik programını Türk kültürüne uyarlamayı ve 6-10 yaş arası çocuğu olan ebeveynlerin ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları, ebeveyn özyeterliği ve ebeveynlik stresi üzerindeki etkilerini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

1.3 Araştırma Sorusu

Bu çalışmada, aşağıda yer alan araştırma sorusu sorularak ilişkili denenceler test edilmiştir:

Araştırma Sorusu: Pozitif Disiplin ebeveynlik programının, Ebeveynlik Ölçeği (EÖ) ile belirlenen ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları, Ebeveyn Stres İndeksi-Kısa Formu (PSI-SF-4) ile belirlenen ebeveynlik stresi ve Ebeveyn Özyeterlik Ölçeği (EYÖ) ile belirlenen ebeveynlik özyeterliği üzerindeki etkisi nedir?

Denence 1. Programın, EÖ toplam ve alt puan ortalamaları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olacak ve bu fark üç aylık izlemde korunacaktır.

Denence 2. Programın, PSI-SF-4 toplam ve alt puan ortalamaları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olacak ve bu fark üç aylık izlemde korunacaktır.

Denence 3. Programın, EYÖ toplam puan ortalamaları üzerinde, anlamlı bir etkisi olacak ve bu fark üç aylık izlemde korunacaktır.

1.4 Araştırmanın Önemi

Ebeveynlik görevi her zaman önemli bir zorluk teşkil ederken, günümüzde yaşanan psikolojik, sosyal, kültürel, teknolojik ve ekonomik değişimler ebeveyn sorumluluklarını artırmakta, daha karmaşık hale getirmekte ve ebeveyn-çocuk etkileşimlerinde yeni günlük zorlukları beraberinde getirmektedir (Hamamcı ve Sevim, 2016; Nelsen, 2019; Şirin, 2019). Bu nedenle, ebeveynler çocuk yetiştirme sürecinde bilgi ve becerilerini geliştirmeye, aynı zamanda ebeveynlik rollerini yerine getirirken farklı destek kaynaklarına ulaşmaya ihtiyaç duymaktadır. Ebeveynlik programlarının bir diğer önemi de önleyici doğasından kaynaklanmaktadır. Bu programlar hem mevcut sorunları gidermekte hem de gelecekteki problemler için destek sağlayarak olası risk ve problemleri önlemektedir. Aile üyeleri, arkadaşlar, kitaplar, web siteleri, psikolojik danışmanlar, psikologlar ve öğretmenleri içeren birçok destek kaynağı olmakla beraber, araştırmalar ebeveynlik programlarının ebeveyn davranışlarını geliştirmede en etkili yollardan biri olduğunu göstermektedir (Ateah, 2003; Ramussen, 2014). Mevcut çalışmanın öncelikle ebeveyn eğitimlerine ilişkin çalışmalara katkı sağlaması açısından önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Bu çalışma örneklem kapsamı açısından da önemli görülmektedir. Ebeveynleri desteklemek, hamilelikle başlayan ve çocuklar evden ayrılıp tam bağımsız yetişkinler olana kadar devam eden bir süreçtir (Sanders, 1999). Tüm bu gelişim süreci içinde orta çocukluk dönemi, ergenlik ve yetişkinlik üzerindeki kalıcı etkileri nedeniyle ayrı bir öneme sahiptir (Hudson ve Ripke, 2006). Alanyazında yer alan bulgular, orta çocuklukta olumlu ebeveynliğin çocuklarda akran kabulü, okul başarısı, özyeterlik ve sorumluluk gibi olumlu sonuçlarla ilişkili olduğunu ve çocukların yaşamının daha sonraki dönemlerindeki uyumlarını yordadığını göstermiştir (Collins ve Madsen, 2019). Bu aşamada ebeveynliğin geliştirilmesi, sadece mevcut ebeveyn-çocuk sorunlarının giderilmesi olarak değil, aynı zamanda ergenlik döneminde ortaya çıkabilecek sorunların önlenmesi olarak da değerlendirilmektedir. Ancak, ergenler ve üniversite öğrencileri ile yapılan çalışmalarla karşılaştırıldığında, çocukluk dönemi ile

ilgili çalışmalar oldukça yetersizdir (Sümer ve ark., 2010). Ayrıca, Türkiye'de ebeveynlik programları alanında yapılmış tezler incelendiğinde, örneklem gruplarının çoğunlukla özel gereksinimli çocuğu olan ya da okul öncesi çocuğu olan ebeveynlerden oluştuğu gözlenmektedir. Bu nedenle, çocukları ilkokula devam eden ebeveynlerle yapılan bu çalışmanın orta çocukluk döneminde ebeveynlik ile ilgili alanyazına katkı sağlayabileceğine inanılmaktadır.

Araştırmanın bir diğer önemi, Türkiye'de Adler yaklaşımına dayalı ebeveynlik uygulamalarına ya da programlarına ilişkin bir çalışma bulunmamasıdır (Akçabozan ve Sümer, 2016; Sümer ve Rasmussen, 2012). Dolayısıyla bu çalışma, Türkiye'de Adler temelli ebeveynlik yaklaşımlarının etkililiğini test etmeye yönelik ilk girişim olarak değerlendirilmekte ve sonraki çalışmalara ışık tutacağı düşünülmektedir.

Çalışma bulgularının, farklı kurumlarda ebeveynlerle çalışan psikolojik danışmanlar için uygulamaya dönük katkılar sağlayacağına inanılmaktadır. Pozitif Disiplin hem uygulayıcılar hem de ebeveynler için kapsamlı kaynaklar ve materyaller içeren yapılandırılmış bir programdır. Bu araştırma kapsamında program materyalleri Türk kültürüne uyarlanmıştır. Dolayısıyla mevcut çalışma, ebeveynlik programları için materyal katkısı sağlaması açısından da önemli görülmektedir. Pozitif Disiplin programı, okul öncesi, ilk ve ortaöğretim kurumlarının psikolojik danışma ve rehberlik servislerinde, aile danışma merkezlerinde, halk eğitim merkezlerinde, rehberlik ve araştırma merkezlerinde ve diğer kurum ve kuruluşlarda rahatlıkla kullanılabilir. Sonuç olarak, çalışmanın sonuçlarının psikolojik danışma ve rehberlik alanyazınına hem kuramsal hem de uygulama açısından değerli bir katkı sağlayacağına inanılmaktadır.

2. YÖNTEM

2.1 Araştırmanın Deseni

Bu araştırma, Pozitif Disiplin ebeveynlik programının çocukları ilkokula devam eden anne babaların ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları, ebeveynlik stresi ve ebeveyn özyeterliklerine etkisini araştırmayı amaçlayan deneysel bir çalışmadır. Araştırmada, split-plot, 2x3 faktöriyel desen kullanılmıştır. Bu desende birinci faktör, bağımsız grupları (müdahale ve kontrol), ikinci faktör, bağımlı değişkenlere ilişkin farklı koşullarda tekrarlanan ölçümleri (ön test, son test ve izleme testi) göstermektedir (Büyüköztürk, 2016).

2.2 Örneklem

Çalışma grubunun katılımcıları amaçlı örnekleme yoluyla seçilmiştir. Çalışmada, araştırmaya uygunluk ölçütleri olarak şunlar belirlenmiştir: (1) ilkokul ebeveyni olmak, (2) en büyük çocuğu 6-10 yaşında olmak, (3) çocuğun normal gelişim özellikleri göstermesi ve (4) daha önce bir ebeveynlik programına katılmamış olmak. Çalışma grubuna ulaşmak için çalışmanın amacı ve içeriği, tarihi, yeri, haftalık program ve araştırmacının iletişim bilgilerinin yer aldığı bir broşür hazırlanarak Akdeniz Üniversitesi akademik ve idari personeline duyuru yapılmıştır. Duyuru aynı zamanda okul rehber öğretmenleri aracılığıyla ilkokullarda paylaşılmıştır. 15 günlük bir duyuru sürecinin ardından, üniversiteden 25, çevredeki ilkokullardan 19 ebeveyn programa kayıt için başvuruda bulunmuştur. Araştırmacı, başvuranları çalışmanın amacı, uygunluk ölçütleri, haftalık program, kurallar ve eğitimin gereklilikleri (oturumlara düzenli katılım ve ödevler gibi) hakkında bilgilendirmiş ve sorularını yanıtlamıştır. Programa düzenli olarak katılmayı kabul eden ve uygunluk ölçütlerini karşılayan ebeveynler katılımcı listesine kaydedilmiş ve çalışma grubunu oluşturmuştur. Kayıttan sonra ebeveynler cinsiyetlerine göre müdahale grubuna (n =16) ve kontrol grubuna (n = 16) seçkisiz olarak atanmıştır. Müdahale grubu 16 katılımcı (13 anne, 3 baba) ile

başlamıştır; ancak bir katılımcı oturumların %50'sinden fazlasına katılmadığı için değerlendirmeye dahil edilmemiştir. Kontrol grubundaki bir anne de rastgele seçilerek veri setinden çıkarılmıştır. Sonuç olarak deneysel çalışma 12 (%80) anne ve 3 (%20) babadan oluşan müdahale grubu (n =15) ve aynı şekilde 12 (%80) anne ve 3 (%20) babadan oluşan kontrol grubu (n =15) ile tamamlanmıştır.

2.3 Veri Toplama Araçları

Çalışma grubuna Ebeveynlik Ölçeği, Ebeveyn Özyeterlik Ölçeği, Ebeveyn Stres İndeksi Kısa Formu ve araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen demografik bilgi formunu içeren bir anket seti uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca, müdahale grubu üyelerinin grup sürecine ilişkin öznel değerlendirmeleri yarı yapılandırılmış bir değerlendirme formu aracılığıyla toplanmıştır.

2.3.1 Ebeveynlik Ölçeği (EÖ)

Bu çalışmada, ebeveyn disiplin uygulamalarını ölçmek için orijinali Arnold ve arkadaşları (1993) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan Ebeveynlik Ölçeği'nin Rhoades ve O'Leary (2007) tarafından geliştirilmiş versiyonu kullanılmıştır. 30 maddeden oluşan bu ölçeğin Gevşeklik (beş madde), Aşırı Tepkisellik (beş madde) ve Düşmanlık (üç madde) olarak adlandırılan üç boyutu bulunmaktadır. Gevşeklik boyutu, Baumrind'in (1968) izin verici ebeveynliği ile paralelken, aşırı tepkisellik boyutu otoriter ebeveynlik ile paraleldir. Düşmanlık boyutu çocuğa vurmak veya ad takmak gibi sert ve katı disiplin uygulamalarını temsil etmektedir (Rhoades ve O'Leary, 2007). Ölçekte hem toplam puan hem de üç faktörün puanları ayrı ayrı hesaplanabilmektedir. Ölçekten alınabilecek toplam puan 1 ve 7 arasında değişmekte, yüksek puanlar işlevsel olmayan disipline işaret etmektedir. Ölçeğin test-tekrar test güvenirlik puanları Gevşeklik, Aşırı Tepkisellik ve Düşmanlık faktörleri için sırasıyla anneler için .85, babalar için .82; anne ve babalar için .80; anneler için .78 ve babalar için .83 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Ölçek iki farklı araştırmacı grubu tarafından Türkçeye uyarlanmıştır. Tüfekçi ve Deniz (2014)

araştırmalarını 48-72 aylık (n = 568) çocuğu olan annelerle yapmışlardır. Sonuçlar, kabul edilebilir uyum iyiliği istatistikleriyle üç faktörlü yapıyı doğrulamış; Cronbach alpha değerleri ölçeğin tamamı için. 74, Gevşeklik, Aşırı Tepkisellik ve Düşmanlık faktörleri için sırasıyla .58, .65 ve. 64 olarak bulunmuştur. Bir başka çalışmada, Arkan ve arkadaşları (2019), ölçeğin uyarlamasını 0-12 yaş arası çocukları (n = 270) olan ebeveynlerle gerçekleştirmiştir. Arkan ve arkadaşlarının (2019) Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi (DFA) çalışması da üç faktörlü yapıyı desteklemiş; Cronbach alfa katsayıları ölçeğin tamamı için .94, Gevşeklik, Aşırı Tepkisellik ve Düşmanlık faktörleri için sırasıyla 92, .77 ve .83 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Mevcut çalışmada, ölçeğin psikometrik özelliklerini çalışmanın örneklemini oluşturan ilkokul ebeveynleri için doğrulamak amacıyla DFA çalışması yapılmıştır. DFA çalışması, 618 ilkokul velisini içeren, ana çalışmadan farklı bir çalışma grubu ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. DFA sonuçları üç faktörlü yapıyı kabul edilebilir uyum iyiliği istatistikleri ile doğrulamıştır ($\chi 2$ / df = 4,30; RMSEA = .07; GFI = .93; SRMR = .07; CFI = .81 ve TLI = .76). Cronbach alfa katsayıları ölçeğin tamamı için .66, Gevşeklik için .48, Aşırı Tepkisellik için .64 ve Düşmanlık için .53; McDonalds Omega katsayıları, ölçeğin tamamı için .73, Gevşeklik için .54, Aşırı Tepkisellik için .66 ve Düşmanlık için .56 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

2.3.2. Ebeveyn Özyeterlik Ölçeği (EYÖ)

Caprara ve arkadaşları (2004), tarafından geliştirilen ölçek, ebeveynlerin ebeveynlik rolündeki yeterliklerine ilişkin inançlarını ölçmektedir. 7'li Likert tipindeki ölçek, 12 madde içermektedir. Ölçekten alınabilecek puanlar 12 ile 84 arasında değişmekte, yüksek puanlar yüksek özyeterliği göstermektedir. Açımlayıcı Faktör Analizi (AFA) sonuçları, babalar için varyansın %61'ini ve anneler için varyansın %58'ini açıklayan tek faktörlü bir yapı ortaya koymuştur. Cronbach alfa katsayısı .87 olarak bulunmuştur (Caprara ve ark., 2004). Ölçek, Demir ve Gündüz (2014) tarafından 510 ortaokul ve lise velisini içeren bir örneklemle Türkçe' ye uyarlanmıştır. Demir ve Gündüz'ün (2014) AFA çalışması 11 madde (7. madde çıkarılmıştır) içeren tek faktörlü yapıyı doğrulamıştır. Ölçek, ebeveyn özyeterliğindeki varyansın %55'ini açıklamıştır. Türkçe

uyarlama çalışmasında Cronbach Alpha katsayısı .92; test-tekrar test güvenirliği .94 olarak bulunmuştur (Demir ve Gündüz, 2014). Mevcut çalışmada, ölçeğin psikometrik özelliklerini ilkokul ebeveynleri için doğrulamak amacıyla 618 ilkokul velisini içeren, ana çalışmadan ayrı bir örneklemle DFA yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar ölçeğin tek faktörlü modelini orta ve mükemmel arasında değişen uyum iyiliği istatistikleri ile doğrulamıştır ($\chi 2$ / df = 5.87; RMSEA = .07; GFI = .93; SRMR = .05; CFI = .97 ve TLI = .97). Cronbach alfa katsayısı .88; McDonalds Omega katsayısı .88 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

2.3.3. Ebeveynlik Stres İndeksi-Kısa Form (PSI-SF-4)

Ebeveynlik Stres İndeksi-Kısa Formu, Ebeveynlik Stres İndeksi-4. baskısının kısaltılmış versiyonu olarak geliştirilmiştir (Abidin, 2012). PSI-SF-4, ebeveynlerin 5'li Likert ölçeğinde yanıt verdiği 36 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Ölçek, ebeveyn sıkınısı (ES), başarısız ebeveyn-çocuk etkileşimi (BEÇE) ve zor çocuk (ZÇ) olarak adlandırılan üç alt boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Her bir alt ölçek 12 madde içermekte, her alt ölçek için puanlar 12 ile 60 arasında; toplam stres puanı ise 36 ile 180 arasında değişmektedir. Hem toplam puan hem de alt ölçeklerden alınan yüksek puanlar yüksek stres düzeyine işaret etmektedir. Ölçek, Çekiç ve Hamamcı (2018) tarafından 323 ilkokul velisini içeren bir örneklemle Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır. DFA sonuçları, ölçeğin üç faktörlü yapısını iyi uyum indeksleriyle doğrulamıştır (RMSEA=0.06, NFI=0.97, CFI=0.98 ve GFI=0.95). Cronbach alfa katsayıları ES alt boyutu için .84, BEÇE alt boyutu için .76, ZÇ alt boyutu için .83 ve toplam puan için .91 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Ölçek kılavuzu bulunan, farklı kültürlerde norm çalışmaları yapılmış ve Türkçe uyarlaması mevcut çalışmanın örneklem grubunu oluşturan ilkokul ebeveynleri ile yapıldığından, bu ölçek için DFA çalışması yapılmamıştır.

2.3.4 Program Değerlendirme Formu

Ebeveynlik programını değerlendirmek için araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen bir değerlendirme formu müdahale grubuna uygulanmıştır. Form, eğiticinin, eğitim planı ve materyallerinin, eğitim sürecinin ve sonuçlarının değerlendirilmesine yönelik 5'li Likert tipinde 31 maddelik bir kontrol listesinden ve programı genel olarak değerlendirmeye yönelik altı açık uçlu sorudan oluşmaktadır.

2.4. Veri Toplama Süreci

Bu araştırma kapsamında, biri DFA için gerçekleştirilen pilot çalışma, diğeri deneysel uygulamayı içeren ana çalışma olmak üzere iki ayrı veri toplama süreci yürütülmüştür. Her iki çalışma için öncelikle Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan (IAEK) gerekli izinler alınmış; ayrıca, DFA çalışmasında ilkokullardan veri toplanabilmesi için Antalya İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nden izin alınmıştır. Pilot çalışmanın verileri Aralık 2019, Ocak ve Şubat 2020'de Antalya ilinde yer alan 11 farklı ilkokuldan toplanmıştır. Veriler gönüllülük esasına göre toplanmış ve her katılımcıdan bilgilendirilmiş onam alınmıştır. Ana çalışmanın verileri Temmuz (ön-test), Ağustos (son-test) ve Kasım (izleme testi) 2020'de müdahale grubuna ve aynı hafta içinde kontrol grubuna ulaşılarak toplanmıştır. Ön-testler uygulanırken müdahale ve kontrol grubundan araştırmaya gönüllü katılım formu ile bilgilendirilmiş onamları alınmıştır.

2.5. Programın Uyarlanması

Bu çalışmada, müdahale programı olarak Pozitif Disiplin Ebeveynlik Programı El Kitabının 7. baskısı (Lott ve Nelsen, 2017) araştırmacı tarafından Türkçe' ye uyarlanarak kullanılmıştır. Programın uyarlanması için çeşitli adımlar izlenmiştir. İlk olarak, araştırmacı, Dr. Nelsen tarafından yönetilen çevrimiçi eğitime katılmış, sertifika sınavını başarıyla tamamlayarak Pozitif Disiplin Ebeveyn Eğitimcisi

Sertifikası almaya hak kazanmıştır. Ardından programın uyarlanması için gerekli izinler alınmış, program materyalleri araştırmacı tarafından Türkçe' ye çevrilmiştir. Çeviriler, iki İngiliz Dili Edebiyatı uzmanı, iki dilli bir uzman (İngilizce ve Türkçe) ve Türkçe Öğretmenliği Bölümü'nden iki akademisyen tarafından kültürel uygunluk, içerik, anlatım ve genel düzen açısından değerlendirilmiştir. Uzmanlardan gelen geri bildirimler doğrultusunda gerekli düzenlemeler yapılarak pilot uygulama için hazırlıklar yapılmıştır.

Programın grup dinamiği, içerik ve zaman açısından nasıl işlediğini anlamak, grup kolaylaştırıcısı olarak deneyim kazanmak, materyallerin kültürel uygunluğu ve dilin anlaşılırlığını test etmek amacıyla deney grubundan farklı bir grup ebeveyn ile pilot uygulama yapılmıştır. Pilot uygulama 2020 Mart ayında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Oturumlar katılımcıların onayı ile video kayıt altına alınmış ve tez danışmanı tarafından denetlenmiştir. Pilot uygulama 100'er dakikalık beş oturum olarak planlanmıştır. Ancak COVID-19 sürecindeki sokağa çıkma kısıtlamaları nedeniyle dört oturum tamamlanmıştır. Bu oturumlarda deneysel çalışmada kullanılacak 14 etkinlik uygulanırken, son oturum gerçekleştirilemediğinden dört etkinlik uygulanamamıştır. Pilot uygulamada, kültürel uygunluğu ve dilin anlaşılırlığını değerlendirmek için bir etkinlik değerlendirme formu her etkinliğin sonunda uygulanmıştır. Katılımcıların geri bildirimleri doğrultusunda bazı etkinliklere ayrılan sürenin artırılmasına, her oturum için ayrılan sürenin de 2 saate çıkarılmasına karar verilmiştir. Sonuç olarak, pilot uygulamanın ardından gerekli düzenlemeler yapılarak, program materyallerine son hali verilmiştir.

2.6. Grup Süreci ve Oturumlar

Deneysel çalışmada, her biri 2 saat süren 6 oturumluk program formatı kullanılmıştır. Her oturum bir ısınma etkinliği, kitap bölümü tartışması ve ebeveynlik bilgileri, yaşantısal etkinlikler, Ebeveynler Ebeveynlere Yardım Ediyor Problem Çözme Adımları (EEYEPÇA) ve değerlendirme bileşenlerini içermektedir. Pozitif Disiplin

kitabı, Pozitif Disiplin Ebeveynlik Programı El Kitabı, Pozitif Disiplin Çalışma Kitabı ve Pozitif Disiplin Araç Kartları eğitim materyali olarak kullanılmıştır. Grup oturumlarının özeti aşağıda sunulmuştur.

1. *Oturum*

İlk oturumda, çalışmanın amacı, haftalık program, işlenecek temalar, eğitimin kuralları açıklanmış, program taslağı ve materyaller katılımcılara dağıtılmıştır. Tüm üyelerin katılımıyla gizlilik, birbirine saygı, paylaşımları kesintiye uğratmama vb. gibi grup kuralları ve pandemiye özel önlemler (ör. maske ve siperlik takma, fiziksel mesafeye dikkat etme vb.) tüm üyelerin katılımıyla belirlenmiştir. Üyelerin kendilerini tanıtmaları ve birbirleriyle tanışmaları için bir ısınma etkinliği yapılmış, etkinlik aracılığıyla katılımcıların farklılıkları ve benzerlikleri ile grup sürecinden beklentilerini ortaya koymaları sağlanmıştır. Ardından, katılımcıların ebeveyn olarak uzun vadeli hedeflerinin farkına varmalarına, etkili iletişim yollarını öğrenmelerine ve çocuklarının aidiyet duygusu geliştirmelerine yönelik yaşantısal etkinlikler uygulanmıştır. Yaşantısal etkinlik bölümünden sonra, EEYEPÇA yapılmıştır. Oturumun sonunda, grup lideri oturumu özetlemiş, haftanın okuma ve uygulama ödevlerini vermiştir.

2. *Oturum*

İkinci oturum ısınma etkinliği ile başlatılmış, daha sonra araştırmacı önceki oturumu özetleyerek ödevleri kontrol etmiştir. Pozitif Disiplin yaklaşımının temel kavramlarından farklı ebeveynlik stilleri, sosyal ilgi ve cesaretlendirme kavramları açıklanmıştır. Ebeveynlerin cezanın uzun vadeli etkilerini anlamalarına, öfkeyle etkili bir şekilde nasıl başa çıkılabileceğini keşfetmelerine, fazla katı veya fazla izin verici olmaktan nasıl kaçınılacağına ve pozitif molaların nasıl uygulanacağına yönelik yaşantısal etkinlikler uygulanmıştır. EEYEPÇA uygulanmış, özetleme ve haftanın ödevleri ile oturum sonlandırılmıştır.

3. Oturum

Üçüncü oturum, ebeveynlere hafta boyunca hissettikleri üç duyguyu içeren bir ısınma sorusu ile başlamış ve soru geçen haftanın uygulama ödevleri ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Adler yaklaşımının temel kavramlarından olan doğum sırası, hatalı davranışlar ve hatalı amaçlar hakkında kitap bölümü tartışması yapılmış ve bu kavramlara ilişkin bilgi verilmiştir. Ebeveynlere hataların öğrenme fırsatları olarak nasıl kullanılabileceğini gösteren, hatalı davranışın ardındaki inancı tanıtan ve kardeşler kavga ederken kullanmak için alternatif araçlar sağlayan yaşantısal etkinlikler uygulanarak katılımcıların duygu, düşünce ve farkındalıkları tartışılmıştır. EEYEPÇA uygulanmış, oturumun sonunda, gönüllü bir üyeden oturumu özetlemesi istenmiştir. Üçüncü oturum, haftanın okuma ve uygulama ödevlerinin verilmesiyle sonlandırılmıştır.

4. Oturum

Dördüncü oturum, güç mücadelelerinin ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisine etkisini tartışmak için bir ısınma etkinliği ile başlamış, ev ödevi uygulamalarıyla ilgili deneyimlerin paylaşımı ile devam etmiştir. Doğal ve mantıksal sonuçlar ve problem çözmeye odaklanma konuları gözden geçirilmiştir. Bu oturumda farklı disiplin yöntemlerinin uzun vadeli sonuçlarını, aile toplantılarının nasıl uygulanacağını ve rutin çizelgelerinin hazırlanmasını içeren yaşantısal etkinlikler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ardından EEYEPÇA uygulanmış, oturumun sonunda, gönüllü bir üye oturumu özetlemiştir. Haftanın okuma ve uygulama ödevlerinin verilmesiyle oturum sonlandırılmıştır.

5. Oturum

"Ebeveynler geçen haftadan bu yana neler öğrendi?" ısınma sorusuyla oturum başlatılmıştır. Daha sonra katılımcılar rutin çizelgeleri ve aile toplantıları konusundaki deneyimlerini paylaşmışlardır. Cesaretlendirmenin etkin kullanımı ve aile toplantılarının planlanması konuları kitap bölümü tartışmaları aracılığı ile ele alınmıştır. Cesaret kırmanın sonuçları, davranışı düzeltmeden önce bağ kurma, övgü ve cesaretlendirmenin farkı, çocuklara nasıl model olunur ve seçim çarkı oluşturmayı

içeren yaşantısal etkinlikler uygulanmış, katılımcılar edindikleri farkındalıkları paylaşmışlardır. EEYEPÇA uygulanmış, oturumun sonunda gönüllü bir üye oturumu özetlemiştir. Kolaylaştırıcı, üyelere bir sonraki haftanın son oturum olacağını hatırlatmış, okuma ve uygulama ödevlerinin verilmesiyle oturum sonlandırılmıştır.

6. Oturum

Son oturum yaşam tarzı öncelikleri ile ilgili bir yaşantısal etkinlik ile başlatılmış, ardından uygulama ödevleriyle ilgili deneyim paylaşımı yapılmıştır. Cesaret kırıcı ifadeler ile güçlendirici ifadeler arasındaki farkı içeren bir etkinlik uygulanarak, etkinliğe ilişkin deneyimler paylaşılmıştır. EEYEPÇA uygulanmıştır. Ardından araştırmacı, tüm oturumları özetlemiş, katılımcıların eğitim boyunca öğrendikleri olumlu ebeveynlik araçları gözden geçirilmiştir. "Yün Yumağı" sonlandırma etkinliği ile üyeler altı haftalık grup deneyiminden öğrendiklerini yansıtma, oturumlar sırasında kaydettikleri ilerlemeyi özetleme ve grup deneyiminden edindikleri farkındalıkları paylaşma fırsatı bulmuşlardır. Ayrıca katılımcılar, eğitim sonrasında elde ettikleri deneyimleri nasıl uygulayacaklarını, hangi adımları atabileceklerini, kısa ve uzun vadeli hedeflerinin neler olacağını paylaşmışlardır. Üyelerin ve kolaylaştırıcının grup süreciyle ilgili duygularını dile getirmeleri, takdirlerini ve iyi dileklerini birbirlerine iletmelerinin ardından, izleme oturumunun hatırlatılması ve vedalaşma ile program sonlandırılmıştır. Oturumun sonunda son testler uygulanmıştır.

İzleme Oturumu:

Son oturumdan üç ay sonra, izleme testlerinin uygulanması ve katılımcıların grup sonrası deneyimlerini paylaşmalarına olanak sağlamak için bir izleme oturumu düzenlenmiştir. İzleme testleri tamamlandıktan sonra, programın temel ilke ve araçlarını gözden geçirmek ve ebeveynlere uygulamadıkları ve denemek istedikleri stratejiler için fırsat sağlamak için bir yaşantısal etkinlik uygulanmıştır. Ardından, ebeveynlerin çocuklarının güçlü yönlerini fark edip onlara odaklanmalarına ve çocuklarını bu yönde cesaretlendirmelerine yönelik bir etkinlik uygulanmıştır. Değerlendirme formu doğrultusunda veliler program sonrası deneyimlerini, sıklıkla

kullandıkları araçları ve eğitimin faydalarını paylaşmışlar ve sorularını yöneltmişlerdir. İzleme oturumu takdirler ve iyi dileklerle sonlandırılmıştır.

2.7. Verilerin Analizi

Bu çalışmada, veri toplama araçlarının alt ölçeklerinde normallik varsayımı ihlal edildiğinden ve örneklem büyüklüğü parametrik test kriterlerini karşılamadığından, parametrik olmayan testlerin yapılmasına karar verilmiştir (Büyüköztürk, 2020). Gruplar arasındaki farklılıkları karşılaştırmak için Mann Whitney U testi; tekrarlayan ölçümlerde grup-içi farklılıkları karşılaştırmak için Friedman testi; Friedman testi sonucunda çıkan farkı araştırmak için de Wilcoxon İşaretli Sıralar testi kullanılmıştır. Nicel veri analizine ek olarak, değerlendirme formlarından elde edilen nitel veriler içerik analizi ile değerlendirilmiştir.

2.8. Çalışmanın Sınırlılıkları

Mevcut çalışmanın örneklem özellikleri ve ölçmeyle ilgili bazı sınırlamaları vardır. Bu araştırmada örneklemi; çocukları normal gelişim gösteren, orta-üst sosyo-ekonomik düzeyden gelen çoğunlukla annelerden oluşan ilkokul ebeveynleri oluşturmaktadır. Bu nedenle sonuçların genellenmesi benzer özelliklere sahip ebeveynlerle sınırlıdır. Ayrıca, bu çalışma müdahale programının çocuk davranışları üzerindeki etkisini incelememiştir, dolayısıyla çalışmanın bulguları ebeveyn davranışlarındaki değişimle sınırlıdır. Son olarak, mevcut çalışmada pratik nedenlerden dolayı kısa süreli izleme değerlendirmesi tercih edilmiştir; ancak, üç aylık izleme süresi, müdahalenin kalıcı etkilerini değerlendirmek için yeterli olmayabilir.

3. BULGULAR

Ana istatistiksel analizlerden önce, seçkisiz atamanın müdahale öncesi grup farklılıklarını başarılı bir şekilde önleyip önlemediğini araştırmak için ön analizler

yapılmıştır. Bu amaçla, demografik değişkenleri karşılaştırmak için Ki-Kare Testi ve t-testi, müdahale ve kontrol gruplarının ön-test puanlarını karşılaştırmak için Mann Whitney U testi uygulanmıştır.

Ki-kare ve bağımsız t testi sonuçları müdahale ve kontrol grubu arasında, çocuğun cinsiyeti, ailedeki çocuk sayısı, çocuğun sınıf düzeyi, medeni durum, çalışma durumu, eğitim düzeyi çocuğun yaşı ve katılımcıların yaşı gibi demografik değişkenler açısından anlamlı bir fark olmadığını ortaya koymuştur. Bu bulgular dikkate alındığında, katılımcı özellikleri açısından gruplar arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olmadığı sonucuna varılmıştır. Demografik değişkenlerin karşılaştırılmasına ek olarak müdahale ve kontrol grubunun Ebeveynlik Ölçeği (EÖ), Ebeveyn Stres İndeksi Kısa Formu (PSI-SF-4) ve Ebeveyn Özyeterlik Ölçeği (EYÖ) ön-test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını araştırmak için Mann Whitney U testi uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar, EÖ toplam puanları ile ($U_{eö}$ = 91; z = -.893, p = .372), Gevşeklik (U_{lax} = 87, z = −1.07, p = .287), Aşırı Tepkisellik (U_{over} = 112, z = −.021, p = .983) ve Düşmanlık puanlarında (U_{host} = 110,5, z = −.088, p = .930) anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Benzer şekilde, müdahale ve kontrol grubu arasında PSI-SF-4 toplam puanı ($U_{psi\ -sf-4}$ = 106.50; z = -.249, p = .803) ile ebevyn sıkıntısı (U_{es} = 97.50; z = -.623, p = .533), başarısız ebeveyn çocuk etkileşimi (U_{bece} = 97; z = -.644, p = .520) ve zor çocuk (U_{zc}= 86.5; z = -1.082, p = .279) alt boyutlarında müdahale öncesi fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Ebeveyn Özyeterlik Ölçeği (EYÖ) ön-test puanları da müdahale ve kontrol grubunun anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaşmadığını göstermiştir ($U_{eyö}$ = 111.50, z = - .042, p = .967). Bu bulgular, seçkisiz atamanın, müdahale ve kontrol grubu arasında başlangıçta var olabilecek grup farklılıklarını önlediğini doğrulamaktadır.

Müdahale programının ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları, ebeveynlik stresi ve ebeveyn özyeterliği üzerindeki etkisine ilişkin denencelerini test etmek için öncelikle müdahale ve kontrol gruplarının son-test puanları Mann Whitney U testi ile karşılaştırılmıştır. Sonuçlara göre, müdahale ve kontrol grubu arasında EÖ toplam puanları ($U_{eö}$ = 35.5;

z = -3.195, p = .001), Gevşeklik (U_{lax} = 58; z = -2.270, p = .023), Aşırı Tepkisellik (U_{over} = 58.5; z = -2.246, p = .025) ve Düşmanlık (U_{host} = 67.5; z = -2.017, p = .044) boyutlarında müdahale grubu lehine anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir. Buna göre müdahale grubunun son-test EÖ toplam ve alt ölçek puanları, kontrol grubuna göre anlamlı ölçüde düşük çıkmıştır. Gruplar arası bu fark üç aylık izlemde de korunmuştur. Ebeveynlik stresine ilişkin son-test puanları karşılaştırıldığında; müdahale grubunun PSI-SF-4 toplam puanı ile ($U_{psı\text{-}sf\text{-}4}$ = 36,5; z =-3.154, p = .002), ebeveynlik stresi (U_{es} = 40.5; z = -2.996, p = .003), başarısız ebeveyn çocuk etkileşimi (U_{bece} = 57.5; z = -2.289, p = .022) ve zor çocuk (U_{zc} = 46; z = -2.776, p = .006) alt ölçek puanlarının kontrol grubuna göre anlamlı ölçüde düşük olduğu gözlenmiştir. İzleme testi sonuçları bu farkın müdahaleden üç ay sonrasında korunduğunu göstermiştir. Sonuçlar müdahale grubunun EYÖ son-test puanlarının kontrol grubuna göre anlamlı derecede yüksek olduğunu göstermiş ($U_{eyö}$ = 57.5; z =-2.287, p = .022); bu fark üç aylık izlemde korunmuştur.

Müdahale grubunun tekrarlanan ölçümleri arasındaki farklılıkları belirlemek amacıyla her bir ölçek için öncelikle Friedman Testi yapılmış, farkın hangi ölçümlerde olduğunu tespit etmek için Wilcoxon İşaretli Sıralar testi kullanılmıştır. Bu aşamada, Tip I hatayı önlemek için Bonferroni düzeltmesi yapılarak, post-hoc analizler için p = .025 olarak belirlenmiştir (Field, 2018).

Friedman testi sonuçları, müdahale grubunun EÖ toplam [$\chi 2\ (2)$ = 17.39, p = .000], Aşırı Tepkisellik [$\chi 2\ (2)$ = 7.9, p = .02] ve Düşmanlık boyutlarında ön-test, son-test ve izleme puanlarında anlamlı bir fark ortaya koymuş [$\chi 2\ (2)$ = 8.31, p = .02]; ancak, Gevşeklik puanlarının ön testten izleme testine anlamlı bir değişim göstermediği görülmüştür [$\chi 2\ (2)$ = 4.79, p = .091]. Wilcoxon İşaretli Sıralar testi sonuçları, EÖ toplam (z = -2.757, p = .006) ile Aşırı Tepkisellik (z = - 2.478, p = .013) ön-test ve son-test puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Sonuçlar, hem EÖ toplam (z =-1.884, p = .06), hem de aşırı tepkisellik alt boyutunda (z = -472, p = .637) son-test ve izleme testleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Öte

yandan, Düşmanlık alt boyutu için ön-test ve son-test puanları (z = -2.757, p = .027), ve son-test ve izleme testi puanları (z = 000, p = 1) arasında p = .025 düzeyinde anlamlı bir farklılık bulunmamıştır. Özetle, müdahalenin ardından Gevşeklik ve Düşmanlık alt boyutlarında anlamlı bir değişim gözlenmemekle beraber; müdahale grubunun EÖ toplam ve Aşırı Tepkisellik puanları ile ölçülen işlevsel olmayan disiplin uygulamalarında ön –testten son teste anlamlı bir düşüş gözlenmiş, bu fark izleme testinde korunmuştur.

Müdahale grubunun Friedman testi sonuçları PSI-SF-4 toplam puanı ile BEÇE ve ZÇ alt puanlarında tekrarlanan ölçümler arasında anlamlı bir farklılık olduğunu; ancak, ES alt ölçeği için ön testten izleme ölçümüne anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Wilcoxon İşaretli Sıralar testi sonuçları PSI-SF-4 toplam puanlarında göre ön-test ve son-test (z = -3.238, p = .001)ölçümleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu, son-test ve izleme ölçümleri arasında ise anlamlı bir fark olmadığını ortaya koymuştur (z = -1.579, p = .114). Benzer şekilde, BEÇE (z = - 2.643, p = .008) ve ZÇ (z = -3.352, p = .001) ön-test son-test puanları anlamlı bir farklılık göstermiştir. BEÇE (z = -.905, p = .365) ve ZÇ alt ölçeklerinde (z = -1.429, p = 153), son-testten izleme testine anlamlı bir farklılık gözlenmemiştir (z = -1.429, p = 153). Özetle, müdahalenin ardından PSI-SF-4 toplam, BEÇE ve ZÇ alt ölçekleri ile ölçülen ebeveyn stresinde anlamlı bir düşüş görülmüş, bu fark izleme testinde de korunmuştur. Bununla beraber; müdahale grubunun ES puanlarında anlamlı bir düşüş gözlenmemiştir.

Müdahale grubunun EYÖ puanlarına ilişkin Friedman testi sonuçları, ön test, son test ve izleme ölçümleri arasında anlamlı bir farklılık ortaya koymuştur ($\chi 2$ (2) = 8.94, p = .011). Wilcoxon İşaretli Sıralar testi sonuçlarına göre müdahale grubunun EYÖ ön-test ve son-test puanları (z = -1.95, p = .051) ile son-test ve izleme testi puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır (z = -1.297, p = .195). Friedman testindeki farkın, katılımcıların ön- ve izleme testi puanları arasındaki farktan kaynaklandığı görülmüştür. Özetle, müdahale grubunun EYÖ ile ölçülen ebeveyn özyeterliğinde ön testten son teste ve son testten izleme testine anlamlı bir değişim meydana gelmemiştir.

Katılımcıların Program Değerlendirme Formunun birinci kısmına verdikleri yanıtlar ortalama ve standart sapma ile değerlendirilmiş, grup lideri, eğitim planı, materyaller, eğitim süreci ve eğitim sonuçlarına ilişkin puanların "tamamen katılıyorum" ile "katılıyorum" arasında değiştiği görülmüştür. Katılımcıların açık uçlu sorulara verdikleri yanıtların içerik analizine dayalı olarak dört tema oluşturulmuş ve şu şekilde isimlendirilmiştir; (1) eğitimin katkıları, (2) sık kullanılan ebeveynlik araçları, (3) grup deneyimi ve (4) öneriler.

4. TARTIŞMA

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Pozitif Disiplin ebeveynlik programının ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları, ebeveynlik stresi ve ebeveyn özyeterliğine etkisini araştırmaktır. Bulgular genel olarak denenceleri destekler niteliktedir. Müdahale öncesinde ebeveyn disiplin uygulamaları ve ebeveyn stresi açısından gruplar arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamakla birlikte; müdahale sonrasında müdahale grubunun işlevsel olmayan disiplin uygulamaları ile ebeveynlik stres düzeyleri kontrol grubuna kıyasla azalmıştır. Benzer şekilde, müdahale öncesinde anlamlı bir fark bulunmamakla beraber, programa katılan ebeveynlerin özyeterlik düzeyleri artmış, kontrol grubunun özyeterlik düzeyi ise değişmemiştir. Ek olarak, gruplar arasındaki bu farklılıkların müdahaleden üç ay sonra da devam ettiği görülmüştür.

Araştırmanın ebeveyn disiplin uygulamalarına ilişkin gruplar arası sonuçları göz önüne alındığında, müdahale programının, ilgili denenceyle uyumlu olarak ebeveynlerin işlevsel olmayan disiplin uygulamalarını azalttığı gözlenmiştir. Bu bulgular, Adler-Dreikurs temelli ebeveynlik programlarının ebeveynlerin demokratik tutumları ile işlevsel disiplin uygulamalarında artma, sert ve izin verici ebeveynlik uygulamalarında ise azalma gösterdiğini ortaya koyan alanyazınla tutarlıdır (Carroll ve Brown, 2020; Carroll ve Hamilton, 2021; Holliday, 2014; Jonyniene, 2015).

Grup içi değişimlere ilişkin olarak, eğitim sonrasında müdahale grubunda Ebeveynlik Ölçeği toplam puanları ve aşırı tepkisellik alt boyutu ile ölçülen işlevsel olmayan disiplin uygulamaları azalmış ve bu değişim üç ay sonra da devam etmiştir. Ancak müdahale sonucunda gevşeklik ve düşmanlık alt boyutlarında anlamlı bir fark görülmemiştir. Bu sonuçların birkaç olası nedeni olabilir. Her şeyden önce, ebeveynlik programlarına katılım, ebeveynlikte olumlu değişikliklere yol açmakla beraber, ebeveynlik davranışlarını nispeten kısa sürede tamamen değiştirmeyebilir (McVittie ve Best, 2009). Dolayısıyla, mevcut çalışma bulguları, programın genel olarak işlevsel olmayan ebeveynlik uygulamalarında olumlu değişikliklere yol açtığını, ancak gevşeklik gibi belirli davranışlarda değişikliklerin veri toplama sırasında gözlemlenmemiş olabileceğini akla getirmektedir. Bulgular ayrıca, COVID-19 pandemisi sırasında ebeveyn tutum ve uygulamalarının farklılaşmasıyla da açıklanabilir. Farklı ülkelerde yürütülen çalışmalar, pandemide birçok rolü aynı anda yürütmek zorunda kalan ebeveynlerin stresinin artığını, sosyal izolasyon nedeniyle destek kaynaklarının azaldığını, bu süreçte ebeveyn tutum ve davranışlarının olumsuz etkilendiğini, sonuç olarak ebeveynlerin pandemi sürecinde daha gevşek veya sert disiplin uygulamalarını benimsediğini göstermektedir (Brown ve ark., 2020; Eyimaya ve Irmak; 2020; Fosco ve ark., 2021; İplikçi, 2021; Menter ve ark., 2020; Moscardino ve ark., 2021). Dolayısıyla, programın gevşek disiplin uygulamalarında bir değişim yaratmamış olması pandemi sürecinde işlevsel olmayan ebeveyn tutum ve davranışlarının artığını gösteren araştırma bulgularıyla tutarlılık göstermektedir.

Ebeveynlik uygulamalarıyla ilgili sonuçların bir diğer olası açıklaması, çalışma grubunun özellikleriyle ilgili olabilir. Mevcut araştırmanın çalışma grubunu büyükşehirde yaşayan ve orta-üst SED'ten gelen, lisans ve yüksek lisans derecesine sahip ebeveynler oluşturmaktadır. Bu özellikler dikkate alındığında, mevcut araştırmanın sonuçlarının yüksek eğitim düzeyi, yüksek SED ve izin verici tutum arasında ilişki bulan önceki çalışmalarla uyumlu olduğu görülmektedir (Nacak ve ark., 2011; Eker ve Türk, 2021; Kağıtçıbaşı ve Ataca, 2005). Bir başka neden, ebeveynlerin gerçekte ebeveyn davranışlarına ne atfettikleri ile ilgili olabilir. İzin verici (gevşek)

ebeveynlik, yüksek ilgi ve kabul, ancak düşük ebeveyn kontrolünü içerir (Darling ve Steinberg, 1991). Bu tanımdan hareketle kabul ve kontrolün farklı kültür ve alt kültürlerde farklı anlamlar taşıyabileceği belirtilmektedir (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005; Tepe ve Sayın, 2012). Örneğin, Sunar ve Dinn (2012) eğitim düzeyi yüksek, batı bölgelerinde yaşayan ebeveynlerin kabul ve kontrol düzeyleri arasında negatif yönlü yüksek bir ilişki bulmuştur. Mevcut çalışmada, müdahale grubundaki ebeveynler, ebeveyn disiplini ve kontrolünü içeren davranışları aşırı katı bir tutuma bağlamış; izin verici uygulamaları ebeveyn sıcaklığı ve ilgisi olarak algılamış olabilirler. Bu algı nedeniyle gevşeklik boyutunda anlamlı bir değişiklik gözlenmemiş olabilir. Benzer şekilde, düşmanlık puanları dikkate alındığında, müdahale grubunun puanlarının her üç ölçümde de klinik kesim noktalarının altında olduğu, dolayısıyla anlamlı bir değişim göstermediği söylenilebilir. Bu sonuçlar da müdahale grubunun özellikleri ile açıklanabilir. Türkiye'de yapılan birçok araştırmada belirtildiği gibi, vurma, küfretme, tokat atma gibi düşmanca davranışları içeren ebeveyn uygulamaları, yüksek eğitim ve SED ile olumsuz ilişkilidir (Dinn ve Sunar; 2017; Nacak ve ark., 2011; Sak ve ark., 2015).

Araştırmanın Ebeveynlik stresine ilişkin gruplar arası sonuçları, müdahalenin ebeveyn stresini azaltacağına ilişkin denencesini kanıtlar niteliktedir. Buna göre müdahale öncesi gruplar arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamakla birlikte, son testler ebeveynlik stresi toplam ve alt ölçek puanları açısından müdahale grubu lehine anlamlı bir farklılık ortaya koymuş, gruplar arasındaki bu farklılıklar üç aylık süreçte korunmuştur. Bu bulgular, Adler-Dreikurs temelli programları da içeren farklı teorik temellere sahip ebeveynlik programlarının ebeveyn stresini azalttığını gösteren önceki araştırma bulguları ile tutarlıdır (Bloomfield ve Kendall, 2012; Gross ve ark., 1995; Smalls, 2010; Tucker ve ark., 1998; Yap ve ark., 2014).

Araştırmanın grup-içi bulguları değerlendirildiğinde, programın toplam ebeveynlik stresi ile ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisinin neden olduğu ve ebeveynin çocuğun davranış ve mizacına ilişkin algısından kaynaklanan ebeveynlik stresini azalttığı görülmüştür. Öte

yandan program, ebeveyn sıkıntısı alt boyutunda önemli bir gelişme sağlamamıştır. Bu bulgular için aşağıdaki olası açıklamalar önerilebilir.

Ebeveyn sıkıntısı alt boyutunda ön test son-test ve son test izleme testlerinde anlamlı bir fark çıkmaması pandemi ile ilgili faktörlerin ebeveyn stres düzeylerine etkisi dikkate alındığında oldukça anlamlıdır. Abidin'in (2012) PSI-SF-4'ün teorik modelinde tanımladığı gibi, ebeveyn sıkıntısı (ES) alt boyutu, ebeveynlerin ebeveynlik rolüne ilişkin yaşadıkları stres düzeyini yansıtmakta, sosyal destek eksikliğini ve diğer yaşam rollerindeki kısıtlamalarla ilişkili stresi göstermektedir. COVID-19 sürecinde ebeveynler, artan ebeveyn sorumlulukları ve ek stres kaynaklarıyla karşı karşıya kalmışlar, yaşam rollerinde kısıtlanmalar yaşamışlar, destek kaynaklarına erişimde zorlanmışlar; dolayısıyla daha az kaynakla çok sayıda stres faktörü ile uğraşmak zorunda kalmışlardır (Chung ve ark., 2020). Yine de ebeveyn sıkıntısı alt boyutunda grup içi anlamlı farklılık olmamasına rağmen, müdahale grubunun ES alt ölçek puanlarının son test ve izlemede kontrol grubuna göre daha düşük olduğu görülmüştür. Bu sonuçlara dayanarak, müdahale programının ES alt ölçeği ile ölçülen stres düzeyini başlangıca göre azaltmasa da artmasını engelleyerek koruyucu bir rol oynadığını ve pandeminin getirdiği ek stresörlere karşı bir destek sağladığını söylemek mümkündür.

Müdahale grubunun başarısız ebeveyn çocuk etkileşimi ve zor çocuk alt ölçeklerindeki olumlu değişim, programın doğası ve içeriği ile açıklanabilir. Pozitif Disiplin, öncelikle ebeveyn ve çocuk arasında, çocuğun aidiyet duygusunu hissedebileceği sağlıklı bir iletişim ve sevginin altını çizer. (Nelsen, 2019). BECE alt ölçeği, ebeveyn ve çocuk arasındaki işlevsiz etkileşimden ve yetersiz ebeveyn-çocuk bağlarından kaynaklanan ebeveyn stresini ölçmektedir (Abidin, 2012). Bu bağlamda, çocukla iletişimi geliştiren ve ebeveyn-çocuk bağlarını güçlendiren Pozitif Disiplin programının ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisinden kaynaklı stresi azalttığı söylenebilir. Pandemi sırasında ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkilerinin olumsuz etkilendiğini ve ebeveyn-çocuk çatışmasının arttığını gösteren çalışmalar olduğu için bu sonuçlar oldukça önemlidir (Chung ve ark., 2020; Thorell ve ark., 2021). Bu anlamda program, pandeminin

ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkileri üzerindeki olumsuz etkisini ve ilişki kaynaklı stresi azaltmıştır denilebilir. Aynı şekilde, ZC alt ölçeği ile ölçülen ebeveynlik stresinin azalması program içeriği ve hedefleri ile açıklanabilir. ZC alt ölçeği, çocuğun mizacına ve meydan okuma ve talepkarlık gibi davranışsal özelliklerine ilişkin ebeveynin algılarından kaynaklanan stresi ölçer (Abidin, 2012). Adler tüm davranışların amaçlı olduğunu ve ait olma ve önemli olma ihtiyacını karşılamak için gerçekleştirildiğini vurgulamaktadır (Ferguson-Dreikurs, 1984). Bazen çocuklar ait ve önemli hissetmek için hatalı inançlar ve buna yönelik hatalı amaçlar geliştirebilirler. Örneğin, bir çocuğun meydan okuma davranışı, aslında ancak kontrol ondaysa ait olacağı hatalı inancına dayanabilir (Nelsen, 2019). Pozitif Disiplin davranışın ardındaki inancı anlamaya yönelik etkinlikleri içermekte ve ebeveynlere çocuklarını amaca ulaşmanın sağlıklı ve sosyal olarak kabul edilebilir yollarına nasıl cesaretlendireceklerini öğretmektedir (Nelsen, 2019). Ebeveynlerin çocuklarının davranışlarına ilişkin algıları, çocuğun davranışını ve kişiliğini etkileyen bu hatalı amaçların altında yatan temel ihtiyaçları anladıklarında değişmekte ve gelişmektedir. Adler-Dreikurs temelli ebeveynlik programlarına katılan ebeveynlerin çocuklarının davranış ve özelliklerini daha olumlu algıladıklarını gösteren çalışmalar bulunmaktadır (Farooq ve ark., 2005; Jonyniene, 2015; Mullis, 1979). Bu nedenle, Pozitif Disiplin programının, ebeveynlerin çocuklarının davranışlarına ve mizacına ilişkin algıları üzerinde olumlu bir etkisi olduğu ve olumsuz algılarından kaynaklanabilecek ebeveyn stresini azalttığı söylenebilir.

Bu çalışmanın üçüncü amacı, Pozitif Disiplin ebeveynlik programının ebeveyn özyeterliği üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaktır. Sonuçlar, gruplar arasında müdahale öncesi anlamlı bir fark olmamasına rağmen, son testte müdahale grubu lehine anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca gruplar arasındaki bu farklılıklar üç aylık takipte de korunmuştur. Buna karşılık, kontrol grubunun EYÖ puanlarına göre ön testten son teste ve son testten izleme testine anlamlı bir değişiklik olmamıştır. Bulgular, Pozitif Disiplin ebeveynlik programının, ebeveyn özyeterliği üzerinde

olumlu bir etkiye sahip olduğunu gösteren önceki araştırma bulguları ile uyumludur (Holliday, 2014).

Grup içi farklılıklar incelendiğinde, müdahale grubunun özyeterlik puanlarında ön testten son teste ve son testten izleme testine anlamlı bir değişim gözlenmemiştir. Bu sonuç, Bandura'nın özyeterlik inancının gelişimine ilişkin kuramsal modeli ile açıklanabilir (Bandura, 1997). Özyeterliğin gelişimi için dört kaynak (başarılı performanslar, dolaylı yaşantılar, sözel ikna ve duygusal uyarılma) olmasına rağmen en önemlisi başarılı performanslardır (Bandura, 1997). Buna göre, ebeveynlerin Pozitif Disiplin programında yeni öğrendikleri ebeveynlik ilke ve becerilerini kullanmak için zamana ihtiyaçları olduğu söylenebilir. Dahası, ebeveynlerin bu becerilerdeki performanslarını değerlendirmek, çocuklarından teşvik edici geri bildirimler almak ve performansları hakkında olumlu duygulara sahip olmak için de zamana ihtiyaçları vardır. Sonuç olarak, ebeveynlik özyeterliğini artırmak için performansların ortaya konması ve performanslara ilişkin geri bildirim döngüsünün oluşturulması, altı haftalık eğitim sürecinden daha uzun bir zaman gerektirebilir. Sonuçlar için bir başka olası açıklama, pandemi nedeniyle ebeveynlerin artan stres düzeyine bağlı olarak öz-yeterliğin azalması olabilir. Mevcut literatür, ebeveynlik öz yeterliliğinin ebeveynlik stresi ile bağlantılı olduğunu kanıtlamaktadır (Ardelt ve Eccles, 2001; de Haan ve diğerleri, 2009; Dumka ve diğerleri, 2010; Dunning ve Giallo, 2012; Glatz ve Buchanan, 2015; Jones ve Prinz, 2005; Sanders ve Mazzucchelli, 2013; Sanders ve Woolley, 2005; Sevigny ve Loutzenhiser, 2010; Slagt ve diğerleri, 2012; Wittkowski ve diğerleri, 2016). Olumsuz çevresel koşullar veya stresli olaylar ebeveynlik öz yeterliliğini azaltabilir ya da gelişimini engelleyebilir (Jones ve Prinz, 2005). Nitekim pandemi döneminde yapılan araştırmalar da bu fikirleri desteklemektedir. Örneğin, Xue ve diğerleri, (2021), ebeveynlerin pandemi sırasında pandemi öncesine kıyasla daha düşük ebeveynlik öz-yeterlik gösterdiğini bulmuştur. Bu bağlamda, pandemi döneminde artan ebeveyn stresi nedeniyle ebeveynlik programının ebeveynlik öz yeterliliğine katkısı azalmış olabilir. Öte yandan, ebeveynlik programının katılımcıların ebeveyn öz-yeterliklerini

artırmamasına rağmen, ebeveynlik stresinin arttığı ve ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkilerinin olumsuz etkilediği bir dönemde ebeveynlerin mevcut ebeveyn öz-yeterlik düzeylerini korumalarına yardımcı olduğu söylenebilir. Nitekim müdahale grubunun öz yeterliklerinin kontrol grubuna göre artmış olması bu argümanı desteklemektedir.

Bu çalışma aynı zamanda katılımcıların Program Değerlendirme Formundaki nitel geri bildirimlerine dayalı olarak da değerlendirilmiştir. Katılımcıların programın etkililiğini araştıran anket sorularına verdikleri yanıtlar, gruplar ve ebeveyn eğitimi grupları için alanyazında önerilen eğitime ilişkin memnuniyet düzeyi, öğrenme yaşantıları, davranışa yansıtma, ebeveyn davranışı ve çevre üzerindeki etkiler, grup liderinin özellikleri, programın organizasyonu ve materyalleri, program içeriği ve iyileştirici faktörler gibi farklı kriterler açısından değerlendirilmiştir. Tüm bu boyutlarda yapılan değerlendirmelere göre Pozitif Disiplin, katılımcılar tarafından yeterli ve etkili bulunmuştur. Açık uçlu sorulardan elde edilen geri bildirimlerde katılımcılar programın ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkilerini ve aile bireyleri arasındaki iletişimi geliştirdiğini, çatışmaları azalttığını bildirmiştir. Katılımcılar eğitimin ebeveynlik hakkındaki inançları, davranışları ve duyguları ile çocuklarının davranışları hakkında farkındalık kazanmalarına ve ebeveyn davranışlarını değiştirmelerine yardımcı olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Katılımcılar ayrıca, grup sürecinin, üyelerin yalnız olmadıklarını hissettikleri ve teşvik edildiği bir ortamda, model oluşturma ve farklı fikirlerin paylaşılması yoluyla öğrenmeyi teşvik ettiğini ifade etmişlerdir. Bu geribildirimler programın katkılarını ve güçlü yanlarını yansıtmaktadır. Bununla beraber, katılımcıların programın geliştirilmesine ilişkin önerileri de bulunmaktadır. Buna göre, katılımcılar eğitimin daha uzun sürmesini, çocuk gelişimi hakkında daha fazla ebeveynlik bilgisi içermesini, bazı konuların ve uygulamaların düzenli toplantılarla tekrarlanmasını, programa mümkünse her iki ebeveynin katılmasını ve programın öğretmenleri de içerecek şekilde yaygınlaştırılmasını önermişlerdir.

5. ARAŞTIRMA VE UYGULAMA ÖNERİLERİ

Mevcut çalışma, Adler-Dreikurs temelli bir ebeveynlik programını Türk kültürüne uyarlamak ve uygulamak için yapılan ilk girişimdir ve ebeveynler ve ailelerle çalışma konusunda önemli çıkarımları bulunmaktadır. Çalışmanın sonuçları ve katılımcıların geri bildirimleri, programın rehberlik ve araştırma merkezlerinde, okullarda, aile danışma merkezlerinde ve diğer kurum ve kuruluşlarda yaygın olarak kullanılabileceğini göstermektedir. Bununla beraber, gelecekteki uygulamalar için aşağıda yer alan öneriler dikkate alınabilir.

Pozitif Disiplin programından yararlanabilmek için öncelikle kolaylaştırıcıların eğitilmesi ve eğitici sertifikası almaları gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle programın yaygınlaştırılması için kişi veya kurumların kolaylaştırıcılara yönelik eğitimler düzenlemesi önerilmektedir. Pozitif Disiplin ebeveynlik programı kılavuzu, altı haftalık örnek bir program taslağı sağlamaktadır; ancak programın süresi, grubun özelliklerine ve ihtiyaçlarına göre uzatılıp kısaltılabilmekte ve içerikte ek konular işlenebilmektedir. Mevcut çalışmadaki katılımcıların geri bildirimlerine dayanarak, gelecekteki uygulamalarda programın daha uzun sürmesi ve ebeveynlik ve çocuk gelişimi hakkında daha fazla bilgi sunulması önerilebilir. Öne çıkan geri bildirimlerden biri de programa her iki ebeveynin birlikte katılımıdır. Ebeveynlik programları ile ilgili daha önce yapılan araştırmalar, her iki ebeveynin de programa katılımının programın etkililiğini artırdığını göstermektedir. Bu nedenle gelecekte yapılacak uygulamalarda her iki ebeveynin, özellikle babaların, katılımının uygulamanın etkililiğini artıracağı söylenilebilir. Katılımcıların sunduğu bir diğer öneri ise öğretmenlerin de bu eğitimi alması gerektiğidir. Çocuğun sağlıklı gelişimini ve eğitimin amaçlarını desteklemek için öğretmen eğitimleri yapılabilir. Nitekim Pozitif Disiplin'in okullar ve öğretmenler için bir versiyonu da bulunmaktadır. Gelecekte uyarlama çalışmaları yapılarak öğretmenlere yönelik Pozitif Disiplin programları gerçekleştirilebilir. COVID-19 pandemisi, çevrimiçi programların erişilebilirlik açısından önemini bir kez daha kanıtlamıştır. Mevcut çalışmada program

uyarlaması yüz yüze tamamlanmış olsa da Pozitif Disiplin programı çevrimiçi olarak da verilebilmektedir. İlerideki uygulamalarda programın içerik düzenlemesi yapılarak çevrimiçi uygulanması önerilmektedir.

Yukarıda belirtilen uygulamaya yönelik önerilerin yanı sıra, mevcut çalışmanın sınırlılıkları göz önünde bulundurularak gelecekteki araştırmalar için aşağıdaki öneriler getirilmiştir:

Araştırmanın sınırlılıklarından biri örneklem özellikleri ile ilgilidir. Çalışma grubu, çoğunluğu anne olan, orta-üst sosyoekonomik düzeyden gelen ve metropolde yaşayan ebeveynlerden oluşan oldukça homojen bir gruptur. Ancak, SED, coğrafi koşullar, eğitim düzeyi, medeni durum, mesleki durum, kişilik özellikleri ebeveynliği ve ebeveynlik programlarının etkinliğini etkilemektedir (Barlow ve ark., 2016; Dekkers ve ark., 2021). Dolayısıyla, farklı SED'ten, farklı eğitim düzeyi, farklı kültürel geçmişi olan ve daha çeşitli/heterojen gruplarla araştırmalar yapılması önerilmektedir. Ayrıca, gelecekte programın etkililiğini test edecek çalışmaların cinsiyet temsili açısından daha dengeli örneklemlerle, daha fazla babanın dahil edilmesine dikkat edilerek yapılması önerilmektedir. Benzer şekilde, çalışma grubuna sadece ilkokul velileri dahil edilmiştir. Ancak hem ebeveynlerin hem de çocukların ihtiyaçları farklı yaş gruplarında değişebileceğinden, programın etkinliğinin çocukları farklı gelişim evrelerinde olan ebeveynlerle test edilmesi önerilmektedir. Mevcut çalışmada, ebeveynliğin teorik modelleri temel alınarak ebeveyn disiplin davranışları, ebeveynlik stresi ve ebeveynlik özyeterliği bağımlı değişkenler olarak seçilmiştir. Gelecekte ebeveynliği etkileyen, dolaysıyla programın etkinliğini etkileyebilecek farklı bağımlı ve/veya bağımsız değişkenleri (örneğin; ebeveynin kişiliği, çocuğun özellikleri, bağlanma stili, çocuğun davranışına ilişkin ebeveyn algısı, evlilik doyumu, algılanan sosyal destek gibi) içeren araştırmalar yapılması önerilebilir.

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