

PARENT EFFECTIVENESS TRAINING:
A TEST OF ITS EFFECTIVENESS
WITH A TURKISH SAMPLE

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of Parental Effectiveness Training (PET) developed by Gordon (1970) in Turkish society. It was hypothesized that as mothers would learn the skills taught in the PET they would enhance their relationship with their children. Thus, they would evaluate themselves as more effective and they would feel less anxious. It was also claimed that these positive changes on the part of the mothers would slightly change negatively in the period after the training. To verify the hypotheses mothers were first pre-tested before the PET program; then post-tested just after the program; and finally retested eight weeks after the termination of the program. Parents' acquisition of PET skills were measured by skill stories based on the PET, changes on parenting by a parental attitude scale (PARI), parents' self evaluation by a self-rating scale and parents' anxiety level by an anxiety inventory (STAI).

The results indicate that mothers learned the PET skills, became less extreme in mothering and used less discipline, evaluated themselves as more effective, and anxiety became a less important trait of their personality. However, negatively oriented changes did not occur in the period after the program. It is concluded that the PET is effective in this sample of Turkish families enhancing the mother-child relationship but not in other intra-family relations.

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of the present study is to investigate the effectiveness of the "Parental Effectiveness Training" program (PET) developed by Thomas Gordon (1970), as it is applied to a Turkish sample. Although PET is widely used all over the world especially in the U.S.A., the use of this program is very limited in Turkish society. Further, because of lack of research, there is no evidence which shows its effectiveness within this culture. The present study aims to fill this gap by examining the effects of the PET program on a sample of Turkish parents and thus, to provide more opportunities for its use within this culture.

Parenting is a continuing series of interactions between parent and child. It is a process that changes both (Brodes, 1981). According to Brown (1978), the main task of parents can be described as establishing warm, nurturant, emotional relationships with children and providing opportunities for development of competence and individuality.

Parenting is a skill that is learned. A century ago, it was easy to learn this skill because the type of family structure then was of the extended family type and people always had the possibility of learning it by caring for a brother, a sister or a nephew or through observation (Brodes, 1981). This meant that new parents had older relatives nearby who took over in emergencies who taught them the needed skills

and basically the culturally accepted traditional methods of child rearing. Although this situation is not as valid in Turkey as it is in Western cultures, nowadays it is more difficult to learn about parenting. Today young parents may in many cases live far removed from relatives to rely on their expertise. In addition many young parents who see traditional attitudes towards child rearing as inadequate or inappropriate in today's life, will not look towards older relatives for guidance. Similarly people do not often have the opportunity of experiencing child care before having a child. The unique possibility is may be baby-sitting which provides limited information (Brodes, 1981).

PARENTAL ATTITUDES AND PRACTISES

Parental Attitudes and their Effects on Parental Practise

Before examining various parent training programs, it is important to examine parental attitudes towards child rearing and their effect on actual practices. Most of the research in the area focuses on various dimensions of parental attitudes. Stendler (1950) reviewed books, pamphlets and magazine articles that gave information about child rearing practices in the U.S. for 60 years, from 1890 to 1950. He found that three different schools of thought have been dominant with regard to children's rearing and development, during

this period. A highly sentimental approach was observed during the period of 1890's and the first decade of the twentieth century. Between 1910's and 1930's a rigid disciplinary approach was emphasized. And finally, through 1940's self-regulation and understanding were prevalent.

The relationship between parents and children is very important because it is this relationship which sets the pattern for the children's attitudes toward people, things and life in general. Furthermore, the child identifies with the family members he loves, imitates their behavior and learns to adjust to life as they adjust (Hurlock, 1972). The way the child acts towards his parents depends on the parents' attitudes toward him. Therefore it is parents' attitudes which in large part determine the child's behaviors. Cultural values about the ways to treat the child, satisfaction with the parental role, marital adjustment, parents' reason for having a child, values about holding together a faltering marriage or enjoying the child's companionship; all have a strong impact on the child's behaviors. Usually, successful people come from homes where parental attitudes were favorable (Hurlock, 1972).

Most studies of the parent-child relationship seem to place more emphasis on the mother's relation to the children, rather than the father's. Mead's (1934) theory of the genesis of the self claims that "the individual experiences himself as such not directly, but only indirectly, from the particular stand points of other individual members of the same social

group as from the generalized stand point of the same social group as a whole, to which he belongs. Since the most extensive and intensive social interactions of the child during the crucial developmental stages occur within the family and especially with the mother, the mother-child relationship would be of major importance." (p.138).

According to Bronfenbrenner (1953), "everybody has emotional cognitive and motivational need-dispositions and those dispositions of a woman's personality which are relevant to her role as a mother would permit prediction of her behavior with her child and the future personality adjustment of the child. An underlying attitude influences a great variety of parent behaviors." (p.157-182). Bettelheim (1952) has pointed out that "if parents who rigidly attempt to impose accelerated developmental goals upon children are told that early toilet training is undesirable, they may delay such training but may continue to push the child in talking, reading and other important areas of development." (p.76-78).

According to Kulaksızoğlu (1985), attitudes and behaviors of parents toward children determine the children's behavior and perceptions of the environment. He also says that those attitudes are the main determinants in children's acquisition of sexual identity. He finally claims that love and support is essential in child rearing but what is more important is the dosage of it.

Dimensions of Parental Attitudes

Most research on parental attitudes has come up with results indicating that the attitudes fall within a small number of underlying dimension. While different authors use different concepts to define these dimensions, there are some similarities.

Acceptance versus rejection is an important dimension of parental attitudes. According to Sullivan (1953), the child will have a feeling of well-being if he is praised and accepted; and he will feel anxious as a consequence of unpleasant experiences resulting from parental disapproval. Symonds (1939) emphasizes two major dimensions: rejection and dominance-submission. Children of submissive parents tend to be more aggressive, stubborn and disordered but also more self-confident than children of dominating parents. Dominating parents' children are more sensitive, submissive, polite, better socialized but also more dependent. Bell (1970) claims that strict, punitive and demanding parents encourage impulsiveness in the adolescent because they do not permit him/her to develop his inner controls. Warm and affectionate parents encourage the adolescent to be social. A child who is feeling like an outsider, who is not accepted by his parents, who feels he does not satisfy their expectations, who is continually compared unfavorably with other children and is subjected to sarcasm does not live in a healthy emotional home atmosphere (Sandström, 1979). Finally, Duvall (1965) says that popular and active adolescents in social affairs have

warm and friendly feelings towards their families.

According to their attributes, Schaefer (1959) identifies two main categories of child rearing attitudes. Warm or loving versus rejecting or hostile attitudes make the first category. The other category is restrictive or controlling versus permissive or encouraging autonomy.

As a result of her studies on parent-child interaction, Baumrind (1973) made the distinction of three kinds of attitudes. Authoritarian parents control their children by enforcing an absolute set of standards. Usually those standards are not justified to the children. Those parents use power and reject, give and take relations. Authoritative parents demand maturity and encourage independence and decision making. They provide a warm and supportive home environment. They listen to their childrens' opinions and offer reasons to justify their requests. Permissive parents are accepting and positive people. They allow their children to be free in regulating their activities and use little punishment. Baumrind claims that authoritative parents' children are friendly, happy, independent, self-reliant, self-controlling and socially responsible; authoritarian and permissive parents' children are less competent, less self-confident, dependent and immature.

Mussen at al. (1956) make a classification of four parental attitude categories. Permissiveness provides a social environment where the child learns independent behaviors. New

responses and exploration are rewarded and encouraged. Thus, self-confidence and spontaneity is encouraged. Rejection has two different types. One is early rejection which allows the child to learn an independent response early. The other is a frustrating rejection which increases when the child is manifesting more independence. Overprotection restricts independent behaviors because they are some kind of threat to the domination over the children. Thus, opportunities to learn new responses is minimized. Overmeticulousness results in the inhibition of children's spontaneous activities because the mother is overly concerned about order and neatness in the house. Fear of punishment will keep the child from practicing and perfecting his newly learned or developed skills.

Hurlock (1974) distinguishes three prevalent child rearing methods. Strict rules and regulations for the enforcement of the desired behavior characterize the authoritarian method. Explanations are not given for the imposed rules. The democratic method emphasizes the need for discussions, explanations and reasoning to help the young to understand the reasons of the parental expectations for a certain behavior. Punishment is rarely used and the aim is to control the deviant behavior. In the laissez-faire method, the young person learns more by trial and error than by guidance.

Parental Attitudes and Practises in Turkish Society:

The aim of the study is to investigate the effectiveness of PET within the Turkish culture; it is therefore

necessary to examine the structure of the Turkish society. The Turkish family can be defined as "traditional". Most of the population is settled in rural areas, and although the family is of the nuclear type, ties to the relatives are still strong and the distribution of functions in the family is traditional. The family type is patriarchal and the oldest male is the head of the family. Respect for authority and for older people is a cultural value (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1972 b; Stirling, 1965). The Turkish family is also described as suppressing, conservative, inhibiting free and independent development of the child and leading to a passive and dependent personality (Köknel, 1970). Cansever (1965), Öztürk (1969), Geçtan (1973), Kağıtçıbaşı (1977) claim that the general characteristics of the typical, that is traditional Turkish family, is inhibitive, conservative, obedience-oriented and dependency nurturing in their children. The major part of young people living in rural areas are identified with norms taking their roots from the cultural group they live in. In those sections of society, religious and economic power is held by the father. The mother is usually indistinct and vague. The adolescents almost always accept these given values without arguments. Their thoughts are concrete and restricted and they are dependent people (Köknel, Özügürlü, 1980). The father is the absolute leader in the family and he is the unique decision-maker. Therefore it is very difficult for the mother who leads a dependent and suppressed life herself, to contribute to the positive development of the personalities of her children (Köknel, 1970). The father has also been described as being

authoritarian and the mother as over protective and repressive. Discipline is inconsistent and severe. The children are generally described as passive and dependent (Okman, 1980).

However, socio-economic and cultural changes are affecting both the family and the adolescent (Köknel, Özüğurlu, 1980). The rapid social change and modernization processes, the recent technological advancements, a good deal of western values and attitudes have penetrated this culture, especially with education. Equalitarianism and democracy have begun to be conceptualized as the ideal human interaction. The right of the individual to verbalize ideas and feelings is highly regarded by the educated middle class (Öner, 1983). Although the woman has still a dependent and traditional role, her quality in the family is showing some changes (Kandiyoti, 1978).

According to Fişek (1982), in this family context the children would grow up with a clear idea of their place, whether in their family or in the world. In all individuals, belongingness would take precedence over individuality. This would be functional and healthy, as long as the social context is compatible with this family system. However, with the dislocation engendered by social change, individuals would be subject to conflict and potential pathology.

On the other hand discipline which is maintained by inconsistent methods, depending on the mood of the adult at that moment and usually not involving much verbal explanations

(Helling, 1966), may lead to dependent children who cannot use self-control well (Le Compte et al. 1978).

When intra-family interactions are examined, there seems to be a loving and tolerant relationship between father and daughter, and mother and son. The father-son relationship, however, is somewhat harsh (Kandiyoti, 1977; Stirling, 1965). The mother-son relationship, on the other hand, is close, protective and can create dependence (Kıray, 1976; Öztürk, 1969). It has been, moreover, found that children perceive their father as more powerful and more capable in general than their mother (Fişek, 1980; Kandiyoti, 1978).

Research investigating the influence of authoritarian attitudes towards children has found that those attitudes create rigidity, intolerance, closeness in social interactions and aggression (Kıray, 1976).

Yörükoğlu investigated whether the father or the mother tends to use severe discipline to the youngster. If the father is authoritarian, he may either criticize the children or blame the mother in order not to lose his authority within the family. If the mother belongs to a traditional family, she usually tries to restrict her family. Yörükoğlu also adds that both methods result in child-parent conflict (1985).

Kuzgun studied the influence of parental attitudes on the self-actualization level of individuals. Parental love and control, being the determining factors, three parental attitudes (Democratic, laissez-faire and authoritarian) were

studied in relation to self-actualization (1973). Kağıtçıbaşı studied the correlations between authoritarianism, family control and family affection. In general we can say that there is a discrepancy between what the mothers claim to do and actually practice and this difference tends to be nondemocratic in our culture (1970).

Measurement of Parental Attitudes

Turning to empirical evidence, we find a number of studies which have studied the relationship between parental attitudes and their effects on children. Stogdill (1936) was among the first to attempt the objective measurement of parental control and attitudes toward social behavior of children. Read (1945) studied the relationship between these variables and she concluded that liberalism in views on parental control is related to children's behavior. However, those results were not found to be significant. Anderson (1946) reported a study completed by Miles (1945) in which it was found that parents' attitudes are related to the leadership status and social acceptance of the child by the school group. He reported that subscales measuring over-protection, dominance by the parent and encouragement of social development are related to the child's social adjustment. Shoben (1949) administered an inventory measuring maternal dominance, possessiveness and ignoring to mothers of children in mental hygiene clinics and juvenile courts. Significant correlations between three parental attitudes scales and

children's adjustment were shown.

Radke (1946) constructed scales of parental attitudes for the areas of autocratic or democratic control of the child, amount and area of restrictions on the child, amount of freedom, severity or mildness of punishment, rapport between parent and child, the relative responsibility of the parents for the child's discipline and sibling compatibility or incompatibility. Radke stated that relationships between these home atmosphere scales and child behavior ratings by preschool teachers suggested that unfavorable conduct of children is related to autocratic, restrictive and severe discipline.

Block (1955) in a study of restrictive attitudes toward child rearing found that restrictive fathers tend to be constricted, submissive, suggestible individuals with little self-assurance. Permissive fathers, on the other hand, were evaluated as self-reliant, ascendant and functioning effectively.

In a recent study, conducted by Miller (1983), comparing parental attitudes of mothers of nuclear families, step families and single-parent families, it was found that authoritarian control was relatively low for all three groups and democratic attitudes were high. Mothers of nuclear families expressed the highest level and mothers of step families expressed the lowest level of mutual understanding. Moreover, mothers of nuclear families expressed the highest level and single mothers the lowest level of confidence in the parental role.

This review of studies of parental attitudes toward child rearing reveals great interest in the hypothesis that objectively measured attitudes toward child rearing are significantly related to children's personality development. Becher (1964), Mark (1953), Shoben (1949), Schaefer and Bell (1958) may be quoted among those scintists. Schaeffer & Bell have pointed out that scales which were developed to measure parental attitudes concerned only a spesific area on this topic. They needed a more extended scale. They added the dimensions used in previously prepared scales to other dimen- sions that they developed themselves. The final instrument contains 23 subscales with 5 items each. Schaeffer and Bell called it Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI). Those studies which were based on the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) developed by Schaefer and Bell will be examined to some extent because this scale is also used in the present study.

Croty (1957) failed to find any significant correla- tion between measurement of achievement, motivation and the attitude questionnaire, Final Form IV of the PARI. Klebanoff (1957) also administred Form IV of PARI to mothers of schi- zophrenic, retarded, brain injured and normal children. Sig- nificant differences in scales related to an overpossessive- ness factor appeared between mothers of normals and mothers of retarded or brain injured children. No difference could be demonstrated between mothers of schizophrenics and mentally retarded or brain injured children on factor scores. Mann

(1957) also administered Final Form IV of PARI as well as questionnaires developed by Shoben (1949) and Mark (1953) to mothers of children with cerebral palsy and closely matched mothers of normal children. Mothers of normal children scored significantly higher on the Ignoring Scale from Shoben but differences on the Possessive and Dominant Scales were not significant. Mothers of children with cerebral palsy scored significantly higher on the PARI scales Seclusiveness, Strictness, Intrusiveness, Acceleration, Encouraging Verbalization, Equilitarianism and Comradeship and Sharing. Mothers of normal children scored significantly higher on Marital Conflict, Irritability, Rejection of the Homemaking Role and Avoidance of Communication.

The lack of such a measure of concepts concerning parental attitudes for Turkish culture led Le Compte et al. (1978) to make an adaptation of the PARI for this society. At the end of their analyses, they isolated five dimensions in the Turkish adaptation. Those dimensions are Extreme Mothering which is most characteristic of lower SES mothers; Democratic Attitudes which is most characteristic of middle and upper SES; Rejection of the Housewife role which is most characteristic of upper SES mothers; Disharmony and a general restraint dimension.

Kalaycıoğlu (1978) applied this form of the PARI to parents of children with and without psychological problems. According to the results of this research, fathers of children with problems prefer to work on their children with too

much attention and closeness, while fathers of children without problems prefer items which suggest that children should be well behaved. On this topic, mothers show no difference. Items which reflect equalitarian and democratic attitude were preferred by parents of children without problems. Problem children's parents preferred items of Rejection of Housewife role and items which reflected mistrust. About "Not getting along well", mostly mothers and fathers of children without problems accepted the idea that the mother should have certain privileges.

Erer (1983) used the PARI to investigate the dependency of Turkish pre-school children. The results revealed that mothers who were high on Extreme Mothering, Rejection of the Housewife Role, Control and Discipline, Equalitarianism, Friendship and Sharing factors have more dependent children.

Peker (1985) used again Le Compte et al.'s PARI adaptation to explain the dependency of children. She found that mothers scoring high on the PARI were found to have more dependent children and to be more anxious than mothers scoring low. Similarly Odabaş (1985) found that those children whose mothers scored high on the total PARI had lower self-concept scores. That is Extreme Mothering and Control Discipline scores were significantly and negatively correlated with children's self-concept index, while Maternal Equalitarianism scores were positively correlated with it.

Recently, Öner (1986) concluded that equality, verbali-

zation, encouragement for autonomy, acceptance of mothers role in home making and marital harmony are more characteristic of highly educated and strict discipline, overprotection, inequality of sexes and children, rejection of homemaking role are more characteristic of undereducated parents.

PARENTAL TRAINING

Theoretical Background:

Today, parenting experts are trying to provide the advice and support that used to come from grandparents and other relatives in the forms of books, lectures, films etc. Clarke-Stewart (1978) has written of an increasing tendency in recent years for parents from all social class backgrounds to seek expert guidance from books, with regard to child rearing. Survey data indicate that parents were requesting information about children's overall development and how it might be facilitated by parents. The increasing quest for information about parenting can be attributed in part to the lack of guidance, traditionally offered by family members due to the increased mobility and age stratification in our society. But parents may also be seeking professional help, out of a belief that they need to improve their parenting competence. However, experts often disagree with each other and they do not provide feedback for parents on how well they are dealing with problems. Thus, this kind of teaching and learning

is helpful but does not always tell parents what to do and rarely helps parents in evaluating their own effectiveness. Many parents do not know until their children are adults, whether their parenting has been successful. Therefore, there is need for some other form of help. Today, this need of guidance is met in many cases by parent training programs which have become a popular approach for educating parents in child rearing practices. These programs contain information about different aspects of parenting and childhood and about how children and parents change and enrich each other. They help parents understand what their children are experiencing at different ages and in different living situations, and how to contribute to their development. They provide parents with ways of interacting with their children, to promote effective functioning and to stimulate optimal growth (Brodes, 1981).

During the past two decades, parents of behaviorally disordered children have become the targets of therapeutic interventions. Several empirical reviews have appeared in recent years attesting to the popularity of parental training as an intervention strategy. The use of parents as primary agents of change has led to the development of parent training in groups. Today, there is a large number of strategies which are developed for handling a variety of situations in parenting (Brodes, 1981).

The five most important and widely used strategies include a variety of techniques for establishing a relationship and setting limits. Ginott (1969), Gordon (1970) and Briggs

(1970) focus on communication of feelings which, they assert, fosters a strong emotional relationship. They focus less attention on limit setting, although all three recognize its importance and provide helpful techniques. Dreikurs (1964) and the behaviorists, on the other hand, focus on establishing structure and limits on teaching children how to behave. They believe that feelings are very important and discuss them, but their emphasis is on shaping children's behaviors (Brodes, 1981).

Research has shown that each of the different strategies can be effective in reducing problems. But no studies have been done to compare the effectiveness of the various approaches, and so, it is hard to say that one method is better than another (Brodes, 1981).

All but Dreikurs (1964) suggest a form of praise that tells a child specifically what he has done well and why his behavior is valued. Dreikurs recommends encouragement because it expresses a positive attitude, whether a child is succeeding or is having difficulty, instead of pointing to a specific act and describing its usefulness and value (Brodes, 1981).

All but Gordon (1970) emphasize an impersonal statement of rules, to avoid power struggles and resentment. Accordingly, by phrasing rules as general statements, parents do not make the child feel personally singled out (Brodes, 1981).

All but Gordon (1970) agree on the importance of consistency. Gordon thinks that parents may be inconsistent because they do not always feel the same things. And if they do not behave sincerely in order to be consistent, the child will understand it. The others agree with him on that point but stress again the consistency in the application of major rules (Brodes, 1981).

All but the behaviorists have a positive view of the child as a constructive, helpful individual, if the environment supports these traits. The behaviorists do not take a stand on the positive or negative nature of the child (Brodes, 1981).

The Contributions of Alfred Adler:

After having examined the guidelines for meeting the basic tasks of parenting, it is now possible to connect Adler's views to the above strategies. Alfred Adler is among the earliest who have initiated this kind of training programs. Although Adler accepts the importance of heredity and constitutional factors for the development of the child's personality, he emphasizes the family atmosphere as the major contributor to personality development. According to Adler, personality is established in the first four years of life. Change is possible in later years; however, it is not a total or a major change but only a modification of the patterns and themes established in early life.

A great deal of attention is given to family processes in Adler's system. The family has an especially important influence on the development of personality during the childhood years. The composite of family forces and the climate of the family is termed the "Family Atmosphere". It helps the child develop a sense of reality. Parental examples are crucial to the transmission of parental values which might include conformity, creativity, cooperation or equality in relationships. The learning associated with parental modeling may have a profound impact on the development of personality (Lynn and Garske, 1985).

Adlerians traditionally worked with a full range of clients, especially with delinquents, criminal groups, married couples and families. "The recent resurgence of Adlerian activity in these problem areas reflects a concern with social relationships that are in danger or disintegrating because of excessive self interest." (Prochaska, p.171, 1984). As part of an educational approach to solving or preventing mental health problems, Adlerian workshops have become a popular technique for teaching parents how to raise children.

Adlerians have been flexible in the formal aspects of therapy. Their techniques vary from traditional individual therapy to a multiple therapist approach with two therapists working together with one client, to group approaches with multiple therapists as well as clients. The reason for using multiple therapists is to reduce the effect of transference (Prochaska, 1984). Park (1983) examined the effects of Adlerian

parent education programs conducted in group and individual milieus. No significant differences was found between subjects in the group and individual milieus. However, recommendations were discussed regarding future research on group effects on parent groups.

The Contributions of Carl Rogers:

In addition to Adlerian programs which are more therapeutic in their aim, parental training programs have become a popular educational approach for educating parents in child rearing practices. These programs are based upon the teachings of Carl Rogers and show parents ways of interacting with children, to promote effective functioning and to stimulate optimal growth.

Rogers' central hypothesis is that the growth potential of any individual tends to be released in a relationship in which the helping person "experiences and communicates realness, caring and a deeply sensitive, non-judgemental understanding" (Meador and Rogers, 1977, p.142).

In recent years, Rogers has concentrated on the methods that enhance the growth and human relations abilities of normal individuals in a variety of settings. He suggests that intensive small group or encounter group experiences facilitate individual and institutional change. Sometimes, participants have their work field in common, such as groups for teachers, business executives or ministers. Other groups are formed for

married couples, families, women or students, groups whose members have a common interest. Tension-reduction groups have been formed for labor management disputes, black-white and other ethnic relations, students-faculty concerns, and other polarized situations (Meador and Rogers, 1977).

Parental Effectiveness Training (PET)

Since it is the approach investigated in this study, the Parent Effectiveness Training program, developed by Gordon (1970) and based upon Rogers' teaching will be described in some length. It is a technique for improving parents' child rearing practices. The Parental Effectiveness Training program of Gordon (PET) uses a laboratory or workshop experience designed to facilitate change in parental attitudes and to equip parents with skills consistent with these newly acquired attitudes.

Initially, in 1962, in Pasedena, California, Gordon designed a course with the idea of training parents who were already encountering problems with their children and begin to work with a few parents. "Improved relationships rather than any specific behavioral or attitudinal changes that are likely to occur were stressed as goals for the program" (Rinn & Markle, 1977, p.95). He implies that as a result of parental acquisition of PET skills, children should learn to accept responsibility for finding their own solutions to their own problems and to be more willing to listen to the parents' thoughts and ideas among others. PET is no longer a training

program solely for parents whose children have already developed problems but also attracts many parents of very young children and even couples who have not yet started having children. For these young parents, PET seems to serve a preventive function.

The program assumes that a better relationship between parents and children occurs if parents can acquire and use skills employed by professional psychotherapists. The most important of these include "Active Listening", "I-Messages", and the "No Lose Method" of conflict resolution.

Active Listening is defined as "the ability to listen to another's problem in a non-judgemental and accepting manner". In a communication process between two people, something may go wrong. This is a misunderstanding of the sender's message by the receiver. Neither is aware that the misunderstanding exists. A child especially cannot communicate what is actually going on inside him. He selects some signal which he thinks represents his feelings. When the receiver has this coded message, he must decode it to understand what the sender really means or is feeling. Then, to verify whether he understands or not, he feeds back the message in his own words. He does not feed back an evaluation, an opinion, an advice, an analysis or question but feeds back only what he feels the senders' message means. "Active Listening" obviously requires the receiver to suspend his own thoughts and feelings." (Rinn & Markle, 1977, p.96). Thus, the listener attends exclusively to the message of the child.

Parents in PET programs are also taught to send I-Messages to their children instead of You-Messages. Everyone has reactions to other people's behaviors and these reactions can be positive (Happiness, appreciation) or negative (anger, disturbance). In order to communicate effectively, reactions should be described to other people as follows: First the behavior that disturbs or pleases should be stated. Then, the person should explain concretely the effect of the behavior on him. And finally, he should state his feelings about this situation. Used by parents, such "I-Messages tell the child what the person is responding to, without shaming or blaming the child and without attributing any motives to him" (Gordon, 1970, p.117).

The No Lose Method of conflict resolution is "the democratic approach to conflict resolution in which power is not utilized and both parents and children engage in a search for mutually acceptable solutions to problems" (Rinn & Markle, 1977, p.96). Conflicts between the needs of two people, especially two members of a family occur frequently. These problems are not owned solely by one of the family's members, but they concern the relationship between two members. The needs of both parties are not satisfied. Under these circumstances, classical methods of conflict resolution involve one part winning and the other losing. In the problem-solving method, the power of both parties is almost equal. Therefore, none can impose his own way or use his power to resolve the conflict. It enables the parties to define the real problem.

Thus, the chance of solving the real problem and not the superficial one increases. The problem-solving or the No Lose Method is a method by which "each unique part of a relationship can solve his conflicts by finding a solution which is acceptable to both" (Gordon, 1970, p.196).

The approach has generated very little research since 1970. Indeed, only one of the 14 studies available has been published. Despite the widespread use of PET, the research literature is not accessible to researchers and practitioners (Rinn and Markle, 1977).

These studies may be classified as either single-group outcome studies or control group outcome studies. A single group outcome study involves an examination of treatment effects on a single group of subjects using the pre-posttest model. A control group outcome study consists of a treatment group and one or more no treatment and/or other treatment groups, usually employing pre and post test measures (Rinn and Markle, 1977).

1- Single group outcome studies

In the Garcia (1971) study, increased confidence in parenting roles, greater child-parent understanding and increased child-parent trust is found as a result of training among middle class parents. In a study conducted by Kilburn, Gerard and Ray (1971), psychiatric technicians were examined. The authors noted that participants liked the training, were more aware of others' feelings and acquired the PET skills.

Peterson (1971) evaluated the effects of PET on parental attitudes and children's reports of their parents' behaviors. The Parent Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) was administered to 39 participants before and after training. The results showed that these highly educated parents reported significantly positive changes in the reduction of authoritarian control, willingness to hear problems and complaints from their children, the use of mutual problem solving procedures with their children and the acceptance of open conflicts as natural.

Piercy and Bush (1971), in their study on reactions to situations found improvement in both; empathy and self-disclosure. Willenson and Bisgaard (1971) showed that staff members of a residential building for the mentally retarded in a state hospital decreased significantly their use of commands after PET.

2- Control group outcome studies

Lillibridge (1971) compared a PET group to a waiting list control group and a control group which had no interest in the training. Significant positive increases on some scores of Hereford Survey and of Children's Report of Parent Behavior Inventory for the PET group were noted.

Haynes (1972) used a four group design which included a PET group, a Lecture group, a waiting listed control group and an additional control group which was directly solicited.

He found that the PET group's scores on the Hereford survey were significantly greater than those of the remaining three groups which did not differ from one another significantly (1972).

In Larson's (1972) research, a PET group was compared to an Achievement Motivation Program group and a Discussion-Encounter group. The PET and Achievement Motivation groups showed slightly greater pre to post test improvements on some Subscales of Hereford survey than the Discussion-Encounter group, but these were not supported by any inferential statistics. Hanley (1973) employed a three group pre-test post-test design: A PET group, a Family Enrichment program group and a non-treatment control group. The PET group was significantly superior to the Family Enrichment Program Group and the no-treatment control groups on the Acceptance and Understanding scales, of the Hereford Survey.

Andelin (1975) employed a pre-posttest design with two groups. One group received PET while their children received a similar course. The second group also received PET but their children did not. The children had learning disabilities and/or emotional disturbances. Parents whose children received the course showed significant improvement on their own problems, whereas the other group showed significant decrease on hostile-detachment.

Schmitz (1975) compared a group of parents receiving a standard PET program and a group of parents receiving no

treatment. According to the results, the PET group changed significantly more than the no treatment control group, showing less dogmatism after training.

Stearn (1971) employed a three group design. A PET group, a non treatment control group of parents indicating interest after hearing an introductory lecture and a second non treatment control group of parents, indicating no interest after lecture. The PET and the interested control groups become significantly more democratic than the other control group.

Knight (1974) compared the parents of enuretic children who received a PET program and those who were wait-listed for a PET course. Mothers in the PET group represented themselves and their husbands as being significantly closer than did the control group mothers. Boys in the no-treatment control group and girls in the PET group perceived the members of their families as being significantly closer together than no treated girls and PET boys. Parents in the PET group were significantly more anxious than those in the no treatment control group.

Miles (1974) examined the effects of PET on potential high-school dropouts and their parents. Three experimental groups and one control group were used. A PET group, a Verbal Reinforcement group, a PET-Verbal Reinforcement group and a non treatment control group. Parents receiving PET instructions were not significantly different from those not receiving PET.

Rinn & Markle (1977) wrote a review of research on PET and concluded that those researchs have been limited and inadequate. According to them, none of the studies possessed the necessary methodological rigor for judgements regarding the effectiveness of the technique as a parent-training strategy. Therefore, they suggest a systematic program of research and evaluation for PET.

THE ROLE OF ANXIETY

Parent-child relationship in the early years of a child's life are considered crucial for later child development. Yet, as Davis (1979) comments, parents have not been provided with a proven set of procedures for child rearing. There is evidence that stress accompanying parenting may be keenly felt by young adults. In a study by Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) designed to assess self perceived well-being and life satisfaction, data revealed that young parents constitute a "hidden pocket of discontent". The authors were impressed by the high levels of stress encountered by young parents establishing a family and attributed it, in part, to a lack of definitive information with regard to parenting.

Several scientists have examined the effect of the stress and anxiety felt as a concomitment of parenting. Beba (1979), using the Turkish version of the STAI, measured the anxiety level of Turkish women. According to the results of this study, women with low income as compared to those with

higher income; old women as compared to younger ones; women who are satisfied with house keeping as compared to those who are not; women who ask for help from their husband as compared to those who do not, showed higher anxiety levels.

In another study, the same version of the STAI was used also to assess the child-parent relationship in Turkish families living in the Netherlands. It was found that the adaptation of these families' children to another culture is related to the children's anxiety level and the parents' view regarding the democratic parent-child relationship. Similarly, children's self-esteem is also found to be related to the anxiety level and the parents' view toward creating democratic relationships (Le Compte, 1981).

HYPOTHESES

Research done in some of the Western countries indicates that the PET program developed by Gordon (1970) is an effective approach, helping parents enhance their relationships with their children. On the other hand, different aspects of the family structure within a society may result in different consequences for such a program. Therefore, it is necessary to examine its effectiveness on a society in transition from more traditional to more modern values, like the Turkish society. In the present research, first of all, parents' attitudes toward parent-child relationship are measured. Then, those parents are exposed to the PET of

Gordon. In order to understand the effects of the program, they are retested after the training. Finally, they are again retested eight weeks after the termination of PET, this time to probe the lasting effects of the program.

In light of the above considerations, it is generally hypothesized that mothers who have undergone a PET program will have more positive child rearing attitudes and feel less anxious. More specifically, it is hypothesized that:

I- The PARI Subscores of mothers who have undergone a PET program will change in the following ways:

- a) Extreme Mothering will decrease significantly during the training. However, there will be a slight improvement in the period after the training.
- b) Democratic Attitude will increase significantly during the training. However, there will be a slight decrease in the period after the training.
- c) Rejection of the Housewife role will decrease significantly during the training. However, there will be a slight increase in the period after the training.
- d) Parental Conflict will decrease significantly during the training. However, there will be a slight increase in the period after the training.

e) Discipline and Control will decrease significantly during the training. However, there will be a slight increase in the period after the training.

II- The PET Skills scores of mothers who have undergone a PET program will improve significantly during the training. However, there will be a slight decrease in the period after the training.

III- The Self-evaluation scores of mothers who have undergone a PET program will improve significantly during the training. However, there will be a slight decrease in the period after the training.

IV- The STAI subscores of mothers who have undergone a PET program will change in the following ways:

a) Their Trait-Anxiety scores will decrease significantly during the training. However, there will be a slight increase in the period after the training.

b) Their State-Anxiety scores will decrease significantly during the training. However, there will be a slight increase in the period after the training.

METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

The Parent Effectiveness Training program is a program for parents whose children have already developed problems, parents of very young children, and or couples who have not yet started having their children (Gordon, 1970). The present research is limited to the examination of the mothers and not to both parents because the importance of maternal attitudes to the development of the child has been generally accepted. According to Bronfenbrenner "the measurement of emotional, cognitive and motivational elements, of a woman's personality, which are relevant to her role as a mother would permit prediction of her behavior with her child and the future personality adjustment of the child" (1953, p.123). The use of this program within the research population is also restricted. The present research is oriented towards Turkish society and the PET of Gordon is applied, for the present, to a small number of mothers in this society. Therefore, the sample is specified as mothers following the PET program. Only four organizations (Adil Çocuk Yuvası; Yordam Uygulamalı Psikoloji Hizmetleri; Robert College, Türk-Amerikan Derneği) offer this opportunity to mothers. Since the number of participants are limited, it was decided to include in the study all the women who have participated in the programs offered by those organizations during a period of six months.

Having applied to such a program, it was assumed that these groups of mothers have some sort of trouble in dealing with the problems they confront with their children. For the most part, these women were young mothers, with one or two children. However, there was also a group composed of older mothers with adolescent children, adult children and even married children. Thus, the age range of the sample is quite wide (from 30 to 68).

The sample is composed of upper-middle class and upper class women, since following the program requires a certain amount of free time and money and the institutions offering these services tend to serve the middle and upper classes. Furthermore, this training program is new in this society and its effectiveness is not proven yet. Thus, only people who have enough time and money and people who can afford to try out an unproven service are willing to be exposed to such a program. Of the participants, 75% were high school and 25% were university graduates.

The sample was composed from 31 mothers. Among those 31, 28 participated in the pre-test measurement. On the post-test measurement, there were 31 and on the follow-up, only 18 showed up. Therefore, the results were analyzed with different numbers of subjects.

MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

Four kinds of scales were used in this research. A self-rating scale was used to measure mothers' self evaluation. Maternal attitude was measured by means of the PARI (Parental Attitude Research Instrument). Acquisition of skills taught in the program was measured by a scale constructed especially for this research; and anxiety by the STAI (State-Trait Anxiety Inventory).

1- Measurement Instrument for Parental Attitudes:

The Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) was developed by Bell and Schaefer (1958). In its original form, the PARI had 23 subscales of 5 items each, making a total of 115 items. The items require that the respondent indicate his agreement or disagreement with statements bearing upon attitudes and practices relating to child rearing. The PARI items were translated into Turkish and then back translated by Le Compte et al. (1978). The authors' formulation along with a Turkish version of some items were submitted to a jury to take its final form. Ambiguous items (34, 39, 40, 61) were eliminated. It was then tested with five middle and five lower class mothers. Four of the lower class mothers had difficulties in understanding some of the items. Additional explanation for these items (1, 2, 4, 6, 19, 22, 25) were worded, studied by the jury, and put on a separate sheet, to be read only to mothers who had difficulty comprehending the items.

A short form of the PARI was also prepared by Le Compte (1978). It contains 60 items containing five factors describing attitudes and behaviors of parents.

Factor 1: Extreme Mothering and Overprotection of the Children.

Factor 2: Democratic Attitude and Equality.

Factor 3: Rejection of the Housewife role.

Factor 4: Parental Conflict

Factor 5: Discipline and Control.

2- Measurement Instrument for the acquisition of PET skills: PET skills stories (PET-SS)

The PET of Gordon (1970) and the skills taught in this program were explained in detail previously. This instrument was designed to test how much of these skills was acquired by the mothers. The scale was composed of 12 stories: four stories for each of the three skills (Active listening, I-Messages, No Lose Method). This scale was constructed rationally with the situations being developed around PET instructions. Mothers were provided with situations followed by several answers which are classified into numerous categories and which are described as ineffective ways of communication and one answer which is described as an effective and constructive way of communication by Gordon (1970). Then, the stories were given to three judges. The stories which the judges agreed on as to what skills were represented were chosen. Finally, the mothers were asked to state their preference.

3- Mothers' self-evaluation scale (MSES):

A self-rating scale was constructed to measure the mothers' self-evaluation of certain child rearing attitudes. It was assumed that as the program goes on, mothers would learn the new skills and their interaction would be more effective. Thus, their self-evaluation of their child rearing attitudes would improve. Eight adjectives were chosen from the PET program of Gordon (1970). Those adjectives were thought to be representative of parents' general attitudes regarding child rearing practices. In order to prevent a halo effect, the adjectives were balanced for being negative or positive in evaluation. The mothers were asked to evaluate themselves on a bipolar, 5 points scale which ranged from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". I strongly agree; I agree; I neither agree, nor disagree; I disagree; I strongly disagree.

4- The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI):

The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) was developed by Spielberger (1966) and translated into Turkish by Öner and Le Compte (1976). It consists of 40 items yielding two subscale scores of State Anxiety and Trait Anxiety. Both Trait Anxiety and State Anxiety subscales were used. The items require that the respondent indicate the degree to which each statement applies to him/her in general on the following scale: "Never", "sometimes", "Most of the time", "Always".

PROCEDURE

As described above, participants of the present study were, mothers who had applied to the institutions which offer this parental training program. Those organizations have several services for mothers or both parents, for children or for the entire family. The PET of Gordon is one of those services. Every year, those programs begin in autumn with the beginning of the school year. The reason for such timing is that these activities tend to go in parallel with the children's education and some of the stated organizations also give educational services for children. Therefore, after the announcement of this program, parents apply to these institutions. Thus, four groups were composed in these institutions, of people who have applied.

The training program (PET) is given by a professional guidance counselor who has the necessary qualifications for conducting such an activity. The employment of the same person as the trainer for all the groups was dictated by availability but also controlled for differences in style and level of skill which would be insuitable with multiple leaders.

In the first session of the program, the aim was to create an intimate milieu and an interaction between group members. Furthermore, the groups members were asked whether they would accept being part of the present study. All the members accepted this and thus they were pretested. Two of the participants were eliminated afterwards by the researcher,

because they do not fit the limits of this study (1 male participant, an overly anxious participant because of reasons not concerning the aim of the study, such as terminal cancer). The group milieu was created in the first session for all the research groups. In the second session, the application of the standard PET program began. In the second, third and fourth sessions, skills concerning Active-Listening were taught, and Active Listening exercises were done. In the fifth, sixth and seventh sessions, skills involving I-Messages; and in the eight, ninth and tenth sessions, skills concerning problem solving were taught and exercises were done. In the final, eleventh session, an evaluation of the program took place and the subjects' were posttested. Participants were also asked to return after eight weeks, to take a follow up evaluation of the permanence of the skills. The majority (18) returned.

In the measurement process, sheets containing all the scales were given to the subjects as a whole, in the following order: PARI; PET-SS; STAI State; STAI Trait; MSES. People were asked to fill them out according to the instructions given above each scale. The distribution and picking up of these were always made by the trainer.

At the end, letters which explained the relative position of each mother within her group context and the changes that occurred in her as a result of the training, were sent by the researcher, to each group member.

RESULTS

In the present study, the effectiveness of PET program of Gordon (1970) was investigated. The results of the Pre-test, post-test and follow-up measurements are given below.

Hypothesis I claimed that the PARI subscores of mothers who have undergone a PET program would change as follows:

a) Extreme Mothering and Overprotection would decrease significantly during the training and increase slightly in the period after the training.

b) Democratic Attitude would increase significantly during the training and decrease slightly in the period after the training.

c) Rejection of the Housewife Role would decrease significantly during the training and increase slightly in the period after the training.

d) Parental Conflict would decrease significantly during the training and increase slightly in the period after the training.

e) Discipline and Control would decrease significantly during the training and increase slightly in the period after the training.

A t-test analysis was made to compare the scores obtained in three different times: before training (Pre-test); just after the training (Post-test); and eight weeks after the training (Follow-up). The results of the analysis for the 5 subfactors of the PARI are presented on Table 1.

The results given on Table 1 for the PARI subscores will be taken one by one. For Extreme Mothering and Overprotection, there is a significant reduction between pre test post test and pre test-follow up ($t= 6.02$ and $t= 4.81$ respectively, both $p<.001$). However, the post test-follow up reduction is not significant. Thus, hypothesis 1 is partially supported with regards to Extreme Mothering.

For Democratic Attitude, for Rejection of the House-Wife Role and for Parental Conflict, none of the differences between pretest-posttest, pretest-follow up and posttest - follow up are significant. Thus, hypothesis 1 is not supported for these PARI subfactors.

For Discipline and Control, there is a significant reduction between pretest-posttest ($t= 2.64$, $p<.01$). However, the pretest-follow up and posttest-follow up reductions are not significant. Thus, hypothesis I is partially supported with regards to Discipline.

It appears that hypothesis I is supported only with respect to Extreme Mothering, the reduction in which is seen after the 11 weeks program and is maintained over 8 weeks.

TABLE 1- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PARI SUB-FACTORS

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
E.M. Pre E.M. Post	28	37.36 30.96	8.57 8.31	6.02	27	.00
E.M. Pre E.M. F	15	35.00 26.93	6.44 5.48	4.81	14	.00
E.M. Post. E.M. F	18	28.22 26.56	6.00 5.31	1.25	17	.23
E.Q. Pre. E.Q. Post	28	28.79 29.75	3.20 2.37	-1.46	27	.16
E.Q. Pre E.Q. F	15	29.20 29.73	3.19 2.12	- .62	14	.55
E.Q. Post E.Q. F	18	29.83 29.72	2.07 2.22	.18	17	.86
R.H. Pre R.H. Post	28	29.36 28.82	5.11 7.11	.53	27	.60
R.H. Pre R.H. F	15	29.07 28.47	5.46 7.00	.52	14	.61
R.H. Post R.H. F	18	29.22 27.33	6.39 7.07	1.22	17	.24
P.C. Pre P.C. Post	28	14.11 14.46	4.17 3.71	- .83	27	.41
P.C. Pre P.C. F	15	14.53 14.93	3.96 3.52	- .39	14	.70
P.C. Post P.C. F	18	15.11 14.17	3.80 3.65	1.34	17	.20
D.S. Pre D.S. Post	28	27.75 25.29	7.05 7.50	2.64	27	.01
D.S. Pre D.S. F	15	26.40 23.80	5.95 5.16	1.65	14	.12
D.S. Post D.S. F	18	23.22 23.33	5.91 4.89	- .11	17	.91

E.M.: Extreme Mothering, E.Q.: Equality & Dem.Att., R.H.: Rejection of Housewife role, P.C.: Parental Conflict, D.S.: Discipline, Pre: Pre-test measurement, Post: Post-test measurement, F: Follow-up measurement.

The reduction seen in Discipline is not maintained over the follow up period. Thus, hypothesis I can only be said to be partially confirmed.

Hypothesis II claimed that the PET-SS of mothers who have undergone a PET program would improve significantly during the training and decrease slightly in the period after the training. A t-test analysis was made to compare the scores obtained in the pretest posttest and follow up measurements. The results of the analysis for PET-SS are presented in Table 2.

There is a significant improvement between pretest-posttest and posttest-follow up ($t= 12.15$ and $t= 7.57$ respectively, both $p<.001$). There is also a reduction trend between posttest-follow up ($t= 2.06$, $p<.06$). Thus, it appears that hypothesis II is confirmed.

Hypothesis III claimed that MSES of mothers who have undergone a PET program would improve significantly during the training and decrease slightly in the period after the training. A t-test analysis was made to compare the scores obtained in the pretest, posttest and follow up measurements. The results of the analysis for MSES are presented in Table 3.

There is a significant improvement between pretest and posttest ($t= 2.60$, $p<.02$). However the pretest-follow up improvement and the posttest-follow up reduction is not sig-

TABLE 2- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PET SKILL STORIES

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
S.S. Pre S.S. Post	28	4.75 10.18	2.12 2.11	-12.15	27	.00
S.S.Pre S.S. F	15	5.00 9.80	1.93 2.65	-7.57	14	.00
S.S. Post S.S. F	18	10.72 10.06	1.90 2.51	2.06	17	.06

S.S.: Short Stories About PET, Pre: Pre-Test, Post: Post-Test, F: Follow up

TABLE 3- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF MOTHERS, SELF EVALUATION SCALE

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
S.R. Pre S.R. Post	28	27.50 29.29	3.61 3.75	-2.60	27	.02
S.R. Pre S.R. F	15	27.93 28.67	2.79 2.85	-.82	14	.43
S.R. Post S.R. F	18	29.56 28.94	3.26 3.15	.98	17	.34

S.R.: Self Rating, Pre: Pre-Test, Post: Post-Test, F: Follow up

nificant. Thus, hypothesis III can only be said to be partially confirmed.

Hypothesis IV claimed that the STAI subscores of mothers who have undergone a PET program would change as follows:

a) Their Trait - Anxiety scores would decrease significantly during the training and increase slightly in the period after the training.

b) Their State-Anxiety scores would decrease significantly during the training and increase slightly in the period after the training.

A t-test analysis was made to compare the scores obtained in pretest, posttest and follow up. The results of this analysis for Trait - Anxiety and State-Anxiety are presented in Table 4.

The results given on Table 4 for STAI scores will be taken separately. For Trait-Anxiety, there is a significant reduction between pretest-posttest, pretest-follow up and posttest-follow up ($t= 3.28$, $t= 5.15$ and $t= 2.63$ at $p<.001$; $p<.001$ and $p<.02$ respectively). Thus hypothesis IV is supported with regard to Trait Anxiety.

For State-Anxiety, there is a significant reduction between posttest-follow up ($t= 2.25$, $p<.05$) and a trend of reduction between pretest-follow up ($t= 1.89$, $p= .08$). The reduction between pretest-posttest is not found significant at all. Thus, hypothesis IV is not supported with regard to State-Anxiety.

It appears that hypothesis IV is supported only with respect to Trait-Anxiety, the reduction in which is seen after the 11 weeks program and is maintained over 8 weeks. It is not supported for State-Anxiety.

In summary, it is possible to conclude that while PET-SS supports hypothesis II, PARI subfactor Extreme Mothering and Trait Anxiety support hypothesis I and hypothesis IV partially. The other PARI subfactors and State-Anxiety do not support these two hypotheses. Finally MSES also supports hypothesis II partially.

TABLE 4- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
S.A. Pre S.A. Post	28	34.64 31.68	8.12 8.39	1.51	27	.14
S.A. Pre S.A. F	15	34.00 29.40	8.42 7.68	1.89	14	.08
S.A. Post S.A. F	18	34.00 29.61	9.25 7.52	2.25	17	.04
T.A. Pre T.A. Post	28	41.96 38.18	7.55 6.17	3.28	27	.00
T.A. Pre T.A. F	15	41.47 33.33	7.96 7.15	5.15	14	.00
T.A. Post T.A. F	18	36.67 33.33	8.29 7.05	2.63	17	.02

S.A.: State Anxiety, T.A.: Trait Anxiety, Pre: Pre-Test, Post: Post-Test, F: Follow up

Additional analysis were made of the relationship of the PARI scores to the anxiety levels of the mothers. The aim of this was to understand whether the anxiety level is related to the PARI attitudes and any differences in the changes over the course of the program. It was felt that parents who are competent in their relationships with their children would feel less anxious than those parents who are not so able in dealing with problems they confront while they are rearing their children.

To make this analysis possible, parents were divided into two groups, according to their Trait and State Anxiety Scores obtained before the training program, that is to say while pretesting. For the first analysis, subjects were

divided according to their State Anxiety Scores higher or lower than the mean score. For the second analysis subjects were divided according to their Trait Anxiety Scores, higher or lower than the mean score. The mean scores and the standard deviations of the high and low state and trait anxiety groups are given in Table 5.

After the division, t-test analyses were made for each of the groups: High State Anxiety Group (HSAG); Low State Anxiety Group (LSAG); High Trait Anxiety Group (HTAG); Low Trait Anxiety Group (LTAG). The aim of this analysis was to understand whether the high and low anxiety groups followed the same course from pretesting to posttesting, to follow up. Tables 6a-b and 7a-b present the results of the differences between the pretest, the posttest, and follow up scores of the HSAG versus LSAG and HTAG versus LTAG.

To further understand the relationship between anxiety and parental attitudes and change in these as a result of training, further analyses were made. Specifically, t-tests were done on the differences between the pretest, posttest and follow up PARI subfactor scores of the HSAG, LSAG, HTAG and LTAG separately. This resulted in four sets of analyses: HSAG-PARI scores; LSAG-PARI scores; HTAG-PARI scores and LTAG-PARI Scores. The results of these analyses are given on Tables 8 through 11 respectively.

TABLE 5- MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE TWO SUB-GROUPS OBTAINED, DIVIDING THE SAMPLING

		Means	Standart Deviations
PRE-TEST	S+	42.08	5.19
	S-	28.20	2.88
POST-TEST	S+	33.69	9.03
	S-	30.33	2.13
FOLLOW UP	S+	31.50	8.53
	S-	28.00	7.23
PRE-TEST	T+	48.31	5.20
	T-	36.47	4.10
POST-TEST	T+	41.46	5.14
	T-	35.33	5.67
FOLLOW UP	T+	40.80	5.72
	T-	30.30	4.22

S+: High state anxiety level obtained in pre-test measur.
 S-: Low state anxiety level obtained in pre-test measur.
 T+: High trait anxiety level obtained in pre-test measur.
 T-: Low trait anxiety level obtained in pre-test measur.
 S+ (N= 13), S- (N= 15),
 T+ (N= 13), T- (N= 15).

TABLE 6a- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCES IN THE STATE ANXIETY SCORES FOR HIGH STATE ANXIETY GROUP

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
S.A. Pre S.A. Post	13	42.08 33.69	5.19 9.03	2.67	12	.02
S.A. Pre S.A. F	6	42.83 31.50	5.35 8.53	2.83	5	.04
S.A. Post S.A. F	6	36.67 31.50	10.95 8.52	2.07	5.	.09

S.A.: State Anxiety, Post: Post-test, Pre: Pre-test, F: Follow-up

TABLE 6b- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCES IN THE STATE ANXIETY SCORES FOR LOW STATE ANXIETY GROUP

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
S.A. Pre S.A. Post	15	28.20 29.93	2.88 7.67	-.96	14	.35
S.A. Pre S.A. F	9	28.11 28.00	2.93 7.23	.05	8	.96
S.A. Post S.A. F	9	32.11 28.00	9.08 7.23	1.13	8	.29

S.A.: State Anxiety, Post: Post-test, Pre: Pre-Test, F: Follow-up

TABLE 7a- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCES IN THE TRAIT ANXIETY SCORES FOR HIGH TRAIT ANXIETY GROUP

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
T.A. Pre T.A. Post	13	48.31 41.46	5.20 5.14	4.01	12	.00
T.A. Pre T.A. F	5	50.80 40.80	6.61 5.72	2.78	4	.05
T.A. Post T.A. F	5	45.00 40.80	4.64 5.72	2.04	4	.11

T.A.: Trait Anxiety, Post: post Test, Pre: Pre-test, F: Follow-up

TABLE 7b- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE DIFFERENCES IN THE TRAIT ANXIETY SCORES FOR LOW TRAIT ANXIETY GROUP

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
T.A. Pre T.A. Post	15	36.47 35.33	4.10 5.67	.91	14	.38
T.A. Pre T.A. F	10	36.80 30.30	2.57 4.22	6.03	9	.00
T.A. Post T.A. F	10	35.40 30.30	6.36 4.22	4.87	9	.00

T.A.: Trait Anxiety, Post: Post-test, Pre: Pre-test, F: Follow-up

The results given on Table 8 for the HSAG-PARI subscores will be taken one by one. For Extreme Mothering, there is a significant reduction between pretest-posttest ($t= 2.20$, $p= .05$) and a trend of significance between pretest-follow up ($t= 2.17$, $p= .08$). The posttest-follow up reduction is not significant. The relationship between extreme mothering and high state anxiety is partially supported.

For Democratic Attitude for the Rejection of the Housewife Role, for the Parental Conflict and for the Discipline and Control, none of the differences between pretest-posttest pretest-follow up and posttest-follow up are found significant. Thus, the relationship between high state anxiety and these factors are not supported.

The results given on Table 9 for the LSAG-PARI subscores will be taken one by one. For Extreme Mothering, there is a significant reduction between pretest-posttest and pretest-follow up ($t= 10.12$ and $t= 6.20$ respectively both, $p<.001$). However the posttest-follow up reduction is not significant. Thus, the relationship between low state anxiety and extreme mothering is supported.

For Democratic Attitude, for the Rejection of the Housewife Role, for the Parental Conflict and for the discipline and Control, none of the differences between pretest-posttest, pretest-follow up and posttest-follow up are found significant, except a trend toward significance between pretest-posttest for Discipline and Control ($t= 1.92$, $p= .08$).

TABLE 8- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PARI SUB-FACTORS FOR HIGH STATE ANXIETY GROUP

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
E.M. Pre E.M. Post	13	38.54 34.15	10.03 8.96	2.20	12	.05
E.M. Pre E.M. F	6	36.33 27.67	8.85 4.80	2.17	5	.08
E.M. Post E.M. F	6	32.50 27.67	7.66 4.80	1.68	5	.15
E.Q. Pre E.Q. Post	13	28.15 29.08	3.21 2.53	-.77	12	.46
E.Q. Pre E.Q. F	6	28.67 29.83	3.89 1.94	-.91	5	.40
E.Q. Post E.Q. F	6	29.33 29.83	3.14 1.94	-.37	5	.79
R.H. Pre R.H. Post	13	31.69 32.23	3.75 7.60	-.46	12	.65
R.H. Pre R.H. F	6	33.17 34.50	1.94 4.85	-.95	5	.39
R.H. Post R.H. F	6	35.17 34.50	3.97 4.85	.40	5	.71
P.C. Pre P.C. Post	13	14.54 15.54	4.52 3.78	-1.29	12	.22
P.C. Pre P.C. F	6	14.50 17.00	4.37 2.76	-1.54	5	.18
P.C. Post P.C. F	6	17.00 17.00	3.68 2.76	.00	5	1.00
D.S. Pre D.S. Post	13	30.23 28.08	7.14 6.25	1.78	12	.10
D.S. Pre D.S. F	6	30.33 27.17	4.63 2.86	1.53	5	.19
D.S. Post D.S. F	6	29.17 27.17	4.88 2.86	1.01	5	.36

E.M.: Extreme Mothering, E.Q.: Equality, R.H.: Rejection of Housewife role, P.C.: Parental Conflict, D.S.: Discipline, Pre: Pre-test, Post: Post-test, F: Follow up.

TABLE 9- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PARI SUB-FACTORS FOR LOW STATE ANXIETY GROUP

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
E.M. Pre E.M. Post	15	36.33 28.20	7.28 6.84	10.12	14	.00
E.M. Pre E.M. F	9	34.11 26.44	4.62 6.13	6.20	8	.00
E.M. Post E.M. F	9	25.89 26.44	4.17 6.13	-.35	8	.73
E.Q. Pre E.Q. Post	15	29.33 30.33	3.20 2.13	-1.42	14	.18
E.Q. Pre E.Q. F	9	29.56 29.67	2.83 2.35	-.09	8	.93
E.Q. Post E.Q. F	9	29.78 29.67	1.09 2.35	.13	8	.90
R.H. Pre R.H. Post	15	27.33 25.87	5.38 5.29	.91	14	.38
R.H. Pre R.H. F	9	26.33 24.44	5.36 5.05	1.19	8	.27
R.H. Post R.H. F	9	24.33 24.44	3.94 5.05	-.06	8	.95
P.C. Pre P.C. Post	15	13.73 13.53	3.96 3.50	.49	14	.63
P.C. Pre P.C. F	9	14.56 13.56	3.94 3.40	.88	8	.40
P.C. Post P.C. F	9	14.00 13.56	3.74 3.40	.50	8	.63
D.S. Pre D.S. Post	15	25.60 22.87	6.43 7.84	1.92	14	.08
D.S. Pre D.S. F	9	23.78 21.56	5.40 5.22	.96	8	.37
D.S. Post D.S. F	9	20.44 21.56	4.28 5.22	-.84	8	.43

E.M.: Extreme Mothering, E.Q.: Equality, R.H.: Rejection of Housewife Role, P.C.: Parental Conflict, D.S.: Discipline, Pre: Pre-test, Post: Post-test, F: Follow-up

Thus, the relationship between low state anxiety and these factors are not supported.

It appears that the relationships between PARI factors and state anxiety level is supported only and partially for extreme mothering and both, high and low state anxiety level especially when differences with pretest are considered.

The results given on Table 10 for the HTAG-PARI Sub-scores will be taken one by one. For Extreme Mothering there is a significant reduction between pretest-posttest ($t= 5.89$, $p<.001$) and a trend toward significance between pretest-follow up ($t= 2.40$, $p= .08$). The posttest-follow up reduction is not significant. The relationship between extreme mothering and high trait anxiety is partially supported.

For Democratic Attitude, there is a significant improvement between pretest-posttest ($t= 3.13$, $p= .01$) and a significant reduction between posttest-follow up ($t= 4.00$, $p= .02$). However, the difference between pretest-follow up is not significant. Thus, the relationship between democratic attitude and high trait anxiety is mostly supported.

For the Rejection of the Housewife Role and for Parental Conflict, none of the differences are not significant which indicate that the relationship between high trait anxiety and these PARI subfactors are not supported.

For the Discipline factor, there is a significant reduction between pretest-posttest ($t= 2.17$, $p= .05$). The dif-

TABLE 10- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PARI SUB-FACTORS FOR HIGH TRAIT ANXIETY GROUP

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
E.M. Pre E.M. Post	13	30.08 31.69	9.44 9.96	5.89	12	.00
E.M. Pre E.M. F	5	34.40 24.80	6.95 5.81	2.40	4	.08
E.M. Post E.M. F	5	26.80 24.80	6.91 5.81	.68	4	.54
E.Q. Pre E.Q. Post	13	26.77 29.54	2.74 2.54	-3.13	12	.01
E.Q. Pre E.Q. F	5	26.80 28.60	2.28 1.34	-1.15	4	.31
E.Q. Post E.Q. F	5	30.20 28.60	1.79 1.34	4.00	4	.02
R.H. Pre R.H. Post	13	31.00 30.92	4.24 7.25	.05	12	.96
R.H. Pre R.H. F	5	29.80 31.20	4.55 7.19	-.76	4	.49
R.H. Post R.H. F	5	31.00 31.20	6.89 7.19	-.09	4	.94
P.C. Pre P.C. Post	13	14.77 14.46	4.66 3.73	.43	12	.67
P.C. Pre P.C. F	5	16.20 15.20	4.66 3.77	.33	4	.76
P.C. Post P.C. F	5	16.40 15.20	3.51 3.77	.64	4	.56
D.S. Pre D.S. Post	13	28.31 24.69	8.00 7.36	2.17	12	.05
D.S. Pre D.S. F	5	25.40 21.80	6.54 4.76	1.06	4	.35
D.S. Post D.S. F	5	21.80 21.80	6.22 4.76	.00	4	1.00

E.M.: Extreme Mothering, E.Q.: Equality, R.H.: Rejection of Housewife role, P.C.: Parental Conflict, D.S.: Discipline, Pre: Pre-test, Post: Post-Test, F: Follow up.

ferences between pretest-follow up and posttest-follow up are not significant. Thus this relationship is not so much supported.

The results given on Table 11 for the LTAG, PARI subscores will also be taken one by one. For Extreme Mothering there is a significant reduction between pretest-post and pretest-follow up ($t= 3.58$ and $t= 4.67$ respectively, both $p<.001$). The difference between posttest-follow up is not significant. The relationship between low trait anxiety and extreme mothering is mostly supported.

For Democratic Attitude, for the Rejection of the Housewife Role for Parental Conflict, and for Discipline none of the differences between pretest-posttest, pretest-follow up and posttest-follow up are found significant. Thus, the relationship between low trait anxiety and these PARI subfactors is not supported.

It appears that the relationship between PARI subfactors and Trait Anxiety level is supported mostly for Extreme Mothering and partially for Democratic Attitude and Discipline on HTAG (High Trait Anxiety Group).

From these additional analyses it may be concluded that it is possible to talk only from the relationship of anxiety levels and extreme mothering, especially when talking from differences from pretest to posttest.

TABLE 11- T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PART SUB-FACTORS FOR LOW TRAIT ANXIETY GROUP

Variables	No of Cases	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	df	p
E.M. Pre E.M. Post	15	36.73 30.33	8.02 6.87	3.58	14	.00
E.M. Pre E.M. F	10	35.30 27.50	6.53 5.62	4.67	9	.00
E.M. Post E.M. F	10	29.40 27.50	6.47 5.62	.98	9	.35
E.Q. Pre E.Q. Post	15	30.53 29.93	2.50 2.28	.77	14	.45
E.Q. Pre E.Q. F	10	30.40 29.70	2.95 1.95	.90	9	.39
E.Q. Post E.Q. F	10	29.30 29.70	2.21 1.95	-.47	9	.65
R.H. Pre R.H. Post	15	27.93 27.00	5.50 6.70	.67	14	.51
R.H. Pre R.H. F	10	28.70 27.70	6.01 6.41	.81	9	.44
R.H. Post R.H. F	10	27.50 27.70	6.62 6.41	-.15	9	.89
P.C. Pre P.C. Post	15	13.53 14.47	3.76 3.81	1.53	14	.15
P.C. Pre P.C. F	10	13.70 14.30	3.53 3.74	-.59	9	.57
P.C. Post P.C. F	10	14.60 14.30	4.12 3.74	.39	9	.71
D.S. Pre D.S. Post	15	27.27 25.80	6.35 7.83	1.53	14	.15
D.S. Pre D.S. F	10	26.90 25.20	5.93 4.66	1.26	9	.24
D.S. Post D.S. F	10	25.00 25.20	6.24 4.66	-.12	9	.91

E.M.: Extreme Mothering, E.Q.: Equality, R.H.: Rejection of Housewife role, P.C.: Parental Conflict, D.S.: Discipline, Pre: Pre-test, Post: Post-Test, F: Follow up.

DISCUSSION

The present study was designed to investigate the effectiveness of the PET of Gordon. It had been anticipated that this training program would improve the parenting of Turkish participants, as it is claimed to do in most Western Cultures. It was also assumed that as a result of being exposed to such a program, mothers would learn the PET skills, their self-evaluation would be higher and they would feel less anxious. Results show that some significant changes occurred though not as wide reaching as was hypothesized.

Considering the basic findings, it is possible to say that as a result of the PET program, mothers learned the skills taught; began to be less over protective and less extreme in their mothering style; to evaluate themselves as being more effective in child rearing; and to become less anxious. However, contrary to the hypotheses, those changes were not limited to the training period but they continued after the PET program had been terminated.

The Extreme Mothering and Overprotection factor of the PARI was found to be the factor most affected by PET. Significant changes occurred for this factor, both, when all the participants of the present research are considered together and when they are considered separately, according to

their State or Trait Anxiety level. However, none of the changes which occurred in the follow up period were found to be significant. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the PET program helps change parental attitudes concerning Extreme Mothering.

In Le Compte et al's (1978) PARI adaptation, the Extreme Mothering and Overprotection dimension is described as overcontrol, intervention; asking to be dependent, active of striving from the child; being very self-sacrificing and believing that the child should understand it. As the mean score on this dimension decreases it may be concluded that as mothers undergo the PET course, learn skills about Active Listening, I-Messages and the no-lose method, they practise less control on the child, intervene less, do not ask him or her to be dependent on them and are not as likely to be self-sacrificing.

Kağıtçıbaşı claims that with respect to relations between parents and children in Turkish society, the general atmosphere surrounding children is one of love and control, in contrast to Western families in which love goes with permissiveness and a preponderance of control usually implies an insufficiency of love (1972). It is moreover claimed that husband and wife are not allowed open expression of emotions. It is, then, natural for the wife to seek closeness with her children and this may lead to overinvolvement and overprotection. Besides, a good mother may be defined as a

protective mother (Fişek, 1982). As a result of undergoing the PET program, it is possible that these mothers change their attitudes towards the idea of mothering and feel less need to be protective. The fact that they continue this kind of relationship for a certain period after the training and that they seem to become less anxious implies that they are less overinvolved with their children.

Among other PARI subfactors, Discipline and Control was found to change only somewhat due to the PET. Significant changes occurred for this factor during the training process but not after that. It is possible that the support offered by the group milieu helped the mothers consider alternative disciplinary measures during training. However, once the training was over, they may have reverted back to old disciplinary habits.

In Le Compte et al's (1978) PARI adaptation, Discipline and Control is described as a negative child rearing attitude; repression of sexual behavior; repression of aggression; believe on hard discipline; believe on parental domination. Thus, during the training period, mothers, apparently did not exercise a hard discipline, did not dominate the child, did not repress their child's sexual behavior and aggression. This may be the result of no lose method of the PET program which ensures the lack of dominance of any part in the parent child relationship. However, it seems that this method could not be followed upon the termination of the program.

In the area of Discipline the general attitude is still controlling and protective in the Turkish family (Fişek 1982). Obedience to authority is essential (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981). Moreover Helling (1966) found rural discipline to be inconsistent and not based on verbal reasoning. Consistent with these findings, the Turkish adolescent is attached to and dependent on his parents and respectful of his elders (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1972; Öztürk & Volkan, 1977). Many express problems with family relationships (Baymur, 1961). As a result of the PET course the use of discipline may decrease. Thus, a better relationship may be established between mother and children.

Finally Democratic Attitude and Equality was found to change as a result of PET, only for overly trait anxious people. Significant improvement on this dimension occurred for these mothers during the training, but also a significant decrease was observed in the period after the training. Thus, Democratic Attitude & Equality increased during PET and decreased after that for overly trait anxious mothers. That is the gains made by highly anxious mothers with the help of the group were not sustained, once they were on their own.

In Le Compte et al.'s (1978) PARI adaptation Democratic Attitude and Equality is described as offering equality to children; supporting them to express their thoughts; establishing amicable relationships and sharing. Therefore, highly trait anxious mothers learned to offer more equality to their children, to support them to express their thoughts and

to establish an amicable relationship after the PET. This should be the result of especially Active-Listening, and then, I-Messages PET skills. It is not possible to check whether increased egalitarianism is a cause or effect of the reduction in anxiety for the highly anxious mothers.

The reason for not finding significant changes in all the PARI factors as a result of the PET may be that all of the factors are not appropriate to measure the effectiveness of this program. If the PARI subfactors are examined, it can be seen that three of them are directly related to the relationship between parents and children, whereas the other two are only indirectly related. Skills which are taught in the PET program are directly oriented towards extreme mothering the use of parental discipline and egalitarianism between family members; changes on parental conflict and the rejection of the house wife role may only be indirect consequences of this program. In the present research, Extreme Mothering & Overprotection and Discipline & Control PARI factors showed significant changes as a result of the PET but Parental Conflict and Rejection of the Housewife Role did not. Thus, it may be concluded that in this society, the PET Program is effective in improving the mother child relationship, but does not seem to have an impact on other intra-family dimensions. The Democratic Attitude & Equality factor should also have changed but it did only for the high trait anxious mothers. The reason for this may be that this factor is composed of two dimensions which are thought to function in parallel.

However, in a recent study, Fişek examined the relationship of these two dimensions and found that they do not necessarily occur in parallel. Fişek noted that Democratic Attitude & Equality factor items are subdivided in to two groups: Friendship-Sharing and Egalitarianism. When Democratic Attitude & Equality subfactor scores of this sample were subdivided accordingly and examined in terms of the change they show, it turned out that the Friendship - Sharing subcores improved while the Egalitarianism subcores showed no change. Fişek concluded that "when Turkish parents want to be more democratic, they may move more easily towards being more Friendly and Sharing but experience difficulty in increasing Egalitarianism (1986, p.6). Thus, it appears that the Democratic Attitude & Equality factor of the PARI does not accurately reflect Turkish attitudes on this dimension.

A comparison of the results of this study with another typical PARI study with a similar sample sheds further light on the differences between the factors. Öner (1986) gave the PARI to similarly high SES mothers. The mean scores for the factors obtained by Öner's subjects and the mean pre test factor scores of the present study are presented on Appendix E. It is interesting that only Extreme Mothering and Discipline factors scores are lower than regular mothers, that is to say mothers who have not applied for psychological help. It would seem that the self-selected group of mothers who applied for the PET program differ from ordinary mothers only on Extreme Mothering and Discipline, and not on the others.

The comparison strengthens the argument made above that the nonparenting related factors of Rejection of the Housewife Role and Parental Conflict do not differentiate between mothers who do and do not seek parenting help. Similarly the Democratic Attitude & Equality factor also does not discriminate these two groups possibly because the PARI items are not meaningful to Turkish mothers, as was stated above. Further, it would seem that mothers who apply for PET are already sensitive in the areas of Extreme Mothering and Discipline, have already worked on themselves and show the most improvement on these factors.

Another reason for not finding significant changes on some of the PARI factors may be that the PARI was not the best scale to be used in this research because the PARI is a test of attitudes not practices, while PET focuses on actual practices, with much role playing and rehearsal. PET is a program aimed at the relationship between parent and child and is not necessarily related to attitudes. Rinn and Markle (1977) who reviewed research on the PET suggest the Hereford Survey as the proper measurement instrument.

Finally, it is possible to claim that the PET is not effective either for Western Cultures or for Turkish Culture. At the end of their review, Rinn and Markle Say that "the data available on PET for review do not support the assumption that PET is effective" (1977, p.105).

When PET-SS PET skill stories are considered, significant differences were observed both during the training and in the period after the training and in the direction indicated by hypothesis II. Thus, subjects seemed to have learned PET skills during the training but as time passed, their use of them decreases. However, after the eight weeks follow up, the use of the skills is always superior as compared to that the beginning. The verification of hypothesis II also supports the results obtained from hypothesis I. As the mothers learned the skills taught in PET the reason for not always findings significant changes on the PARI results might be due to the other factors than the PET program. One possible example may be that while single behaviors toward children change, generalized attitudes do not change as readily. However, the mothers' self concept seems to change since mothers self evaluation improved during the PET course. They evaluated themselves more positively at the termination of the training.

One reason for the change in the mothers' self-concept may have to do with changes in their anxiety levels. Trait anxiety seems to be affected more by the program than state anxiety. Overall, trait anxiety decreases at the end of the program and seems to continue decreasing over the follow up period. High trait anxiety especially seems to respond to this program. Low trait anxiety mothers seem to experience more of a reduction over the follow up period. State anxiety, however, seems less responsive to the program. Thus, it is

possible to conclude that the PET program is most recommended to those mothers who have a high level of trait anxiety because thanks to this program, they report becoming less extreme in mothering and they exercise less discipline, as well as becoming less anxious and developing a better self-concept.

A final methodological critique is brought by Rinn & Markle (1977) to the research's method. Rinn and Markle reviewed researchs on the PET. According to them, single group research design is not appropriate for such a study. They suggest the use of control groups, to make the necessary comparisons between people applying to participate in the PET program and people who do not feel the necessity of it. However, the use of such a design could not be possible in the present research because as mentioned above, the application of the PET program in Turkey is a new one and the institutions offering the service do not have waiting lists which are the traditionally used as control groups. Moreover, participating in such a program requires a certain amount of money and time. Thus, the creation of a control group was impossible for the present research. Therefore, further research with both experimental and control groups is suggested, as well as the use of other new measures.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

AİLE HAYATI VE ÇOCUK YETİŞTİRME TUTUMU ÖLÇEĞİ*

Aşağıda verilen ifadeleri okuyup, şu şekilde değerlendiriniz:

4	3	2	1
Çok Uygun	Oldukça Uygun	Biraz Uygun	Hiç Uygun
Buluyorum	Buluyorum	Buluyorum	Bulmuyorum

Görüşünüzü bu sayılardan birini daire içine alarak bildiriniz. Bu ifadelerde doğru veya yanlış yoktur, sadece kendi görüşünüzü işaretlemeniz gerekiyor. Araştırma için, bütün soruların cevaplandırılması çok önemli bir noktadır. Onun için, bazı ifadeler birbirlerine benzer dahi olsa, gene de cevaplandırmanızı rica ederiz.

*Kısaltılmış deneysel (PARI) formu. Güney Le Compte, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, 1978.

1. Çocuk yorulmuş veya zor işlerden korunmalıdır 4 3 2 1
2. Anne ve babalar, çocuklarını dertlerini anlatmaya teşvik ederler. Fakat bazan çocukların dertlerinin hiç açılmaması gerektiğini anlayamazlar 4 3 2 1
3. Çocuk boşa geçen dakikaların bir daha hiç geri gelmeyeceğini ne kadar cabuk öğrenirse, kendisi için o kadar iyi olur 4 3 2 1
4. Bir anne çocuğunun düş kırıklığına uğramaması için elinden geleni yapmalıdır 4 3 2 1
5. Çocuk ne kadar erken yürümeyi öğrenirse o kadar iyi terbiye edilebilir 4 3 2 1
6. Çocuk yetiştirmek sinir bozucu, yıpratıcı bir iştir 4 3 2 1
7. Çocuğun hayatta öğrenmesi gereken o kadar çok şey vardır ki, zamanını boşa geçirmesi affedilmez 4 3 2 1
8. Babalar, biraz daha şefkatli olsalar, anneler çocuklarını daha iyi yönetebilirler 4 3 2 1
9. Çocuk yetiştirmenin kötü taraflarından biri de, anne ya da babanın istediğini yapabilmesi için yeter derecede özgür olmamasıdır 4 3 2 1
10. Sıkı kurallarla yetiştirilen çocuklardan en iyi yetişkinler çıkar 4 3 2 1
11. Bir anne çocuğunun mutluluğu için kendi mutluluğunu feda etmesini bilmelidir 4 3 2 1
12. Daima koşuşturan, hareketli bir çocuk büyük bir olasılıkla mutlu bir kişi olacaktır 4 3 2 1
13. Büyükler çocukların şakalarına güler, onlara eğlendirici öyküler anlatırsa, evdeki düzen daha düzgün, daha akıcı olur 4 3 2 1
14. Çocuğun en gizli düşüncelerini kesinlikle bilmek, bir annenin görevidir 4 3 2 1
15. Anne babalar çocuklarına, sorgusuz sualsiz kendilerine sadık kalmalarını öğretmelidirler 4 3 2 1
16. Bütün genç anneler, bebek bakımından beceriksiz olacaklarından korkarlar 4 3 2 1
17. Eğer bütün gününü çocuklarla geçirmek zorunda kalırsa, hangi anne olursa olsun sonunda çocuklar sinirine dokunur 4 3 2 1

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| 18. Anne ve babalar her zaman çocuklarının kendilerine uymasını beklememeli, biraz da kendileri çocuklarına uymalıdır | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 19. Eğer anneler dileklerinin kabul edileceğini bilselerdi, babaların daha anlayışlı olmalarını dilerlerdi | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 20. Bir çocuğa ne olursa olsun doğuşmaktan kaçınması gerektiği öğretilmelidir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 21. Çocuklar bencil olduklarında hep bir şeyler istediklerinde, annenin tepesinin atması çok normaldir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 22. Eğer çocuklar ailedeki kuralları uygun bulmuyorlarsa, bunu anne babalarına söylemeleri hoş karşılanmalıdır | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 23. Anneler çocuğu zaman çocuklarına bir dakika daha dayanamayacakları duygusuna kapılırlar | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 24. Çocuğu sıkı terbiye ederseniz sonra size teşekkür eder | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 25. Küçük bir çocuk, cinsiyet konusundan sakınmalıdır | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 26. Bir annenin çocuğunun hayatı hakkında herşeyi bilmesi hakkıdır. Çünkü çocuğu onun bir parçasıdır | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 27. Uyanık bir anne-baba çocuğunun tüm düşüncelerini öğrenmeye çalışmalıdır | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 28. Çocuklar, anne babalarının kendileri için neler feda ettiklerini düşünmelidirler | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 29. Eğer çocukların dertlerini söylemelerine izin verilirse büsbütün şikayetçi olurlar | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 30. Sert terbiye, sağlam ve iyi karakter geliştirir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 31. Genç bir kadın henüz gençken yapmak istediği pek çok şey olduğu için, anne olunca kendisini tutuklanmış duygusuna kaptırır | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 32. Anneler çocukları için hemen hemen bütün eğlencelerini feda ederler | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 33. Babalar daha az bencil olsalar kendilerine düşen görevi yaparlardı | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 34. İyi bir anne çocuğunu ufak tefek güçlüklerden korumalıdır | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 35. Bir çocuğa anne ve babasını herkesten üstün görmesi öğretilmelidir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 36. Çocuk hiçbir zaman ailesinden sır saklamamalıdır | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

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| 37. Çocuklardan sık sık ödün vermelerini, anne babaya uymalarını istemek doğru değildir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 38. Çoğu anneler bebeklerine bakarken onu inciteceklerinden korkarlar | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 39. Bir çocuğa başı derde girdiğinde döğüşmek yerine büyüklere başvurması öğretilmelidir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 40. Anne baba arasındaki bazı konular hafif bir tartışma ile çözümlenemezler | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 41. Ev bakımında ve idaresinde en kötü şeylerden biri de, kişinin kendini evinde tutuklanmış gibi hissetmesidir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 42. Hiçbir kadından yeni doğmuş bir bebeğe tek başına bakması beklenmemelidir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 43. Oğlan ve kız çocuklarının birbirlerini soyunurken görmemeleri gerekir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 44. Çocukların sorunlarına eğilirseniz sizi oyalamak için birçok masal uydururlar | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 45. Eğer anne babalar çocukları ile şakalaşıp beraber eğlenirlerse, çocuklar onların öğütlerini dinlemeye daha çok yönelirler | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 46. Anneleri kendileri yüzünden zorluk çektiği için çocuklar, onlara karşı daha anlayışlı olmalıdırlar | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 47. Bir çocuk evinde sonunda anne-babasınınkinden daha üstün bir akıla sahip olamayacağını öğrenir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 48. Eğer bir anne çocuklarını iyi yetiştirmiyorsa belki de bu, babanın evde kendine düşen görevi iyi yapmamasından ileri geliyordur | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 49. Genç bir anne için ilk bebeğin bakımı sırasında yalnız kalmaktan daha kötü bir şey olamaz | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 50. Bir çocuğun diğer bir çocuğa vurması hiçbir şekilde hoşgörülle karşılanamaz | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 51. Anne babalar çocuklarına hayatta ilerliyebilmeleri için hep bir şeyler yapmaları ve boşa zaman geçirmemeleri gerektiğini öğretmelidirler | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 52. Akıllı bir kadın yeni bir bebeğin doğumundan önce ve sonra yalnız kalmamak için elinden geleni yapar | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 53. Evde olup bitenleri sadece anne bildiği için ev hayatını onun planlaması lazımdır | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 54. Kendi haklarına sahip olabilmesi için, bazan bir kadının kocasını terslemesi gerekir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

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| 55. Bütün zamanını çocuklarıyla geçirmek, bir kadına kanadı kopmuş kuş duygusunu verir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 56. Eğer anne kollarını savar, bütün yükü sırtına alırsa tüm aile rahat eder | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 57. Anne babalar çocuklarını kendi kendilerine oluşturdukları güveni sarsabilecek bütün güç işlerden sakınmalıdırlar | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 58. Çocuklar aslında sıkı disiplin içinde mutlu olurlar | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 59. Çocuklarının toplantılarıyla, kız-erkek arkadaşlıklarıyla ve eğlenceleriyle ilgilenen anne-babalar onların iyi yetişmelerini sağlarlar. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 60. Anne ve babaya sadakat herşeyden önce gelir | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

APPENDIX B: MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT FOR THE ACQUISITION OF PET
SKILLS

Aşağıdaki hayali durumları anlatan hikayeleri ve her hikayeden sonra verilmiş olan cevap listesini okuyun. Sizden istenen, böyle bir durumda ne şekilde davranacağınızı, ilgili cevaplardan en yakın olanını seçerek işaretlemenizdir. Lütfen her hikaye ile ilgili olarak bir tek cevabı seçiniz.

1- Çocuk her günkü gibi okuldan gelip tüm eşyalarını savurduktan sonra, arkadaşları ile oyuna gidiyor. Oysaki anne, aile kalabalık ve ev işleri fazla olduğu için kızının ev işlerinde yardımcı olmasa bile, kendi eşyaları ile ilgilenip, en azından bu konuda kendisine destek olması gerektiğini düşünmektedir. Anne çocuğu ile bu durumu konuşmak istemiş ve akşamleyin eve döndüğünde şöyle demiştir:

- a) Sen çok düşüncesiz bir çocuksun. Ev işlerinde bana hiç yardımcı olmuyorsun.
- b) Ger derhal odanı toplamazsan, akşama seni babana şikayet ederim.
- c) Kız çocuklarının odalarının dağınık olması çok ayıptır.
- d) Bütün gün ev işlerinden çok yoruluyorum ve senin odanı dağınık görünce fena halde sinirleniyorum.

2- Henüz bir lise öğrencisi olduğu için, annesi kızının makyaj yapmasını ve erkek arkadaşları ile gezmesini uygun görmemektedir. Kızının bu konudaki ısrarı onu rahatsız ettiği için, onunla konuşmaya karar verir ve şöyle der:

- a) Erkeklerle gezmeye devam edersen, senin sonun hiç iyi

olmaz, adın çıkar.

- b) Bir daha makyaj yapıp sokaklarda gezdiğini görmeyeyim.
- c) Lise çağındaki kızların makyaj yapıp, erkek çocukları ile gezmesini doğru bulmuyorum ve senin bu halinden rahatsız oluyorum.
- d) Kızım lütfen makyaj yapma.

3- Oğlunun yüksek sesle müzik dinlemesi hem kendisini hem de komşularını sürekli rahatsız ettiği için komşuları ile sürekli sürtüşen anne, bu durumu oğlu ile konuşup düzeltmeye karar verir ve şöyle der:

- a) Şunun biraz sesini kısamazmısın? Herkes senin müziğini dinlemek zorunda değil?
- b) B aletin sesini sırf ben sinirleneyim diye açıyorsun.
- c) Müziğin sesi hem beni hem de komşuları rahatsız ediyor. Komşularımın aram bozulsun istemem.
- d) Kes artık şu gürültüyü, yoksa bir daha plak alman için para vermem.

4- Çocuğu sofraya konan yemekleri genellikle yemeyen bunun yerine vücudu için zararlı yiyecekler tercih eden bir anne, bu durumu konuşmak için çocuğuna şöyle der:

- a) Benim uğraşıp hazırladığım yemekleri yememen sağlığın açısından zararlı ve ayrıca bu durum beni endişelendiriyor.
- b) Eğer önüne koyduğum yemekleri yemezsen, o çok sevdiğin şekerleri de yiyemezsin.
- c) Beğenmediğin yemekleri bana söylersen, bir daha pişirmem.

d) Bu pişirdiğim yemekleri yemezsen, büyüyemezsin.

5- Vakit oldukça ilerlediği halde çocuğunuz her zamanki gibi yatmamak için çeşitli bahaneler uyduruyor. Siz artık vaktin geç olduğunu ve yatması gerektiğini söylediğinizde, televizyondaki büyüklere ait filmi seyretmek istediğini söyleyip itiraz eder. Siz bu durumda ne dersiniz?

a) Bu saatte ayakta olman çok ayıp, haydi bakalım derhal yatağa.

b) Eğer derhal yatmazsan dayak geliyor.

c) Senin bu saatte yatmış olman gerekir. Uslu çocuklar erken yatarlar.

d) Bu gecelik beş dakika geç yatabilirsin.

e) Bu filmi seyrettikten sonra yatmak istiyorsun, öyle mi?

f) Şımarık çocuklar gibi davranıyorsun, baksana uykusuzluktan gözlerin kapanıyor.

g) niye yatmak istemiyorsun? Oysaki yatınca hemen uykun gelir.

6- Çocuğunuz matematik öğretmeninden şikayet edip, artık okula gitmeyeceğini söyler. Siz bu durumda ona ne dersiniz?

a) Şimdi okula gitmezsen, ileride çok pişman olursun.

b) Matematik öğretmenin seni rahatsız ettiği için, artık okula gitmek istemiyorsun, öyle mi?

c) Okul, çocuklar için çok faydalıdır. Niçin okulun iyi yönlerini de görmüyorsun?

d) Matematik öğretmenin hakkında yanılıyorsun. Şimdi okula git, bak hemen alışırısın.

e) Okula gitmede çöpçü ol.

f) Sen aslında öğretmenini mi yoksa ders çalışmayı mı sevmiyorsun?

7- Kızınız erkek arkadaşının kafasının hiç çalışmadığını ve artık onu görmek istemediğini söyler. Oysa siz, onun kızınıza iyi bir eş olacağını düşünmüyorsunuz. Kızınıza şöyle dersiniz:

- a) Onunla görüşmezsen, bir daha başkasını zor bulursun.
- b) Niye onunla barışmayı düşünmüyorsun? Ona biray anlayış göstermelisin.
- c) Eminimki bu konuda haksızsındır, düşünürsen ona hak verirsin.
- d) Erkek arkadaşın akıllıca davranmadığı için, onunla beraber olmak istemiyorsun.
- e) Bover, nasıl olsa daha iyi bir kısmetin çıkar. Zaten seni isteyen başkaları da var.
- f) Niye onun böyle olduğunu düşünüyorsun?

8- Bir ortaokul öğrencisi olan oğlunuz, size öfke ile bağırarak, onu artık çocuk yerine koymamanızı ister. Bu durumda ona nasıl bir karşılık verirsiniz?

- a) Artık yetişkin bir insan olduğunu düşünüyorsun ve bizim de sana çocuk muamelesi yapmamız seni kızdırıyor.
- b) Peki anlaştık koca adam, galiba haklısın.
- c) Benle bu şekilde konuşmaya devam edersen pişman olursun.
- d) Şımarık çocuklar gibi davranma. Zaten senin yaşındaki çocuklar hep büyüdüklerini sanırlar.
- e) Sen galiba şimdiden biz büyüklerin ayrıcalıklarından

yararlanmak istiyorsun ama merak etme, bir-iki sene sonra zaten sen de büyüyeceksin.

9- Evinize misafir geldiği bir sırada, çocuğunuz misafir odasında televizyon seyretmektedir. Bir yanda çocuk programı olduğu için çocuğunuz seyretmek istemekte, öte yanda siz misafirinizi ağırlamak istemektesiniz. Bu durumda ne yapardınız.

- a) Kesinlikle televizyonu kapatırdım.
- b) Televizyonun sesine rağmen, misafirlmeri ağırlamaya çalışırdım.
- c) Çocuğumla anlaşp, programı banda çekip sonradan seyretmek gibi her ikimizin de anlayabileceği, ortak bir çare bulmaya çalışırdım.
- d) Televizyonu kapatmaya mecbur olduğumu çocuğuma iyilikle anlatmaya çalışırdım.

10- Aile bütçeniz çok kısıtlı olduğu halde, oğlunuz harcamaları için buradan sık sık para almaktadır. Bütçenizde meydana gelen bu açık ile ilgili olarak onunla konuşacak olsanız, ne dersiniz?

- a) Hem çocuğumun kendisine para getirecek bir işte çalışması, hem de aile bütçesinden sağlanacak bir destek ile harcamalarını yapması gibi, ikimizde uyacak bir yol seçerim.
- b) Bu işe bir çare bulması için harçlığını keserim.
- c) Çocuğum mahrum olmasın diye bütçemdeki bu açığa katlanırım.
- d) Onun bu kadar çok para harcamasının hata olduğunu anlatırım.

11- Sabahları genç oğlunuzla aynı saatte kalktığınız için, banyoyu aynı zamanda kullanma ihtiyacını duymaktasınız. Bu durumda ne yapardınız?

- a) Büyük olduğum için bana öncelik tanınmasını isterdim.
- b) Çocuğumun, küçük olduğu için bekleyemeyeceğini düşündüğümünden, sıramı ona verirdim.
- c) Kendim rahatça kullanabilmek için, onun ihtiyacını gidermesini beklerdim.
- d) nunla oturup anlaşarak, her sabah öncelik hakkını sırayla kullanmak gibi bir yol benimserdim.

12- Geceleyin gezmeğe çıkan çocuğunuzu merak ediyorsanız, ancak o da gezmenin hakkı olduğunu iddia ederse, ne yaparsınız?

- a) Ancak tanıdığım arkadaşları ile çıkmasına izin veririm.
- b) Onunla konuşup, eve dönüş saatlerini belirleme gibi ortak bir karara varmaya çalışırım.
- c) Artık delikanlı olduğu için, gezmesine karışmağa hakkım olmadığını düşünürüm.
- d) Gee sokağa çıkmasına izin vermem.

APPENDIX C: MOTHERS' SELF EVALUATION SCALE

	<u>Bana Çok Uygun</u>	<u>Bana Uygun</u>	<u>Kararsızım</u>	<u>Bana Uygun Değil</u>	<u>Bana Hiç Uygun Değil</u>
1- Otoriter	()	()	()	()	()
2- İşbirlikçi	()	()	()	()	()
3- Aksi ve öfkeli	()	()	()	()	()
4- Aşırı şefkatli	()	()	()	()	()
5- Tutucu	()	()	()	()	()
6- Yapıcı	()	()	()	()	()
7- Açık ve samimi	()	()	()	()	()
8- Başkalarını yönlendiren.	()	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX D: THE STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY

Aşağıda kişilerin kendilerine ait duygularını anlatmakta kullandıkları birtakım ifadeler verilmiştir. Her ifadeyi okuyun, sonra da o anda nasıl hissettiğinizi ifadelerin sağ tarafındaki parantezlerden uygun olanını karalamak suretiyle belirtin. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Herhangi bir ifadenin üzerinde fazla zaman harcamadan, anında hissettiğinizi gösteren cevabı işaretleyin.

	<u>Hayır</u>	<u>Biraz</u>	<u>Çok</u>	<u>Tama- miyle</u>
1- Şu anda çok sakinim.	()	()	()	()
2- Kendimi emniyette hissediyorum	()	()	()	()
3- Şu anda sinirlerim gergin	()	()	()	()
4- Pişmanlık duygusu içindeyim	()	()	()	()
5- Şu anda huzur içindeyim	()	()	()	()
6- Şu anda hiç keyfin yok	()	()	()	()
7- Başıma geleceklerden endişe ediyorum	()	()	()	()
8- Kendimi dinlenmiş hissediyorum	()	()	()	()
9- Şu anda kaygılıyım	()	()	()	()
10- Kendimi rahat hissediyorum	()	()	()	()
11- Kendime güvenim var	()	()	()	()
12- Şu anda asabım bozuk	()	()	()	()
13- Çok sinirliyim	()	()	()	()
14- Sinirlerimin çok gergin olduğunu hissediyorum	()	()	()	()
15- Kendimi rahatlamış hissediyorum	()	()	()	()
16- Şu anda halimden memnunum	()	()	()	()
17- Şu anda endişeliyim	()	()	()	()
18- Heyecandan kendimi şaşkına dönmüş hissediyorum	()	()	()	()
19- Şu anda sevinçliyim	()	()	()	()
20- Şu anda keyfim yerinde	()	()	()	()

Aşağıda, kişilerin kendilerine ait duyguları anlatmakta kullandıkları birtakım ifadeler verilmiştir. Her ifadeyi okuyun, sonrada genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi, ifadelerin sağ tarafındaki parantezlerden uygun olanını karalamak suretiyle belirtin. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Herhangi bir ifadenin üzerinde fazla zaman harcamadan, genelde hissettiğinizi gösteren cevabı işaretleyiniz.

	<u>Hayır</u>	<u>Bazen</u>	<u>Çok</u>	<u>Tama- miyle</u>
21- Genellikle keyfim yerindedir	()	()	()	()
22- Genellikle çabuk yorulurum	()	()	()	()
23- Genellikle kolay ağlarım	()	()	()	()
24, Başkaları kadar mutlu olmak isterim	()	()	()	()
25- Çabuk karar veremediğim için, fırsatları kaçıtırırım.	()	()	()	()
26- Kendimi dinlenmiş hissederim	()	()	()	()
27- Genellikle sakın, kendime hakim ve soğukkanlıyım	()	()	()	()
28- Güçlüklerin yenemeyeceğim kadar biriktiğini hissederim	()	()	()	()
29- Önemsiz şeyler hakkında endişelenirim	()	()	()	()
30- Genellikle mutluyum	()	()	()	()
31- Herşeyi ciddiye alır ve etkilenirim	()	()	()	()
32- Genellikle kendime güvenim yoktur	()	()	()	()
33- Genellikle kendimi emniyette hissederim	()	()	()	()
34- Sıkıntılı ve güç durumlarla karşılaşmaktan kaçınırım.	()	()	()	()
35- Genellikle kendimi hüzünlü hissederim	()	()	()	()
36- Genellikle hayatımdan memnunum	()	()	()	()
37- Olur olmaz düşünceler beni rahatsız eder.	()	()	()	()
38- Hayal kırıklıklarını öylesine ciddiye alırım ki, hiç unutmam	()	()	()	()
39- Akıllı başında ve kafalı bir insanım	()	()	()	()
40- Son zamanlarda kafama takılan konular beni tedirgin ediyor	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX E: COMPARISON OF HIGH SES MOTHERS' PARI FACTORS
RESULTS' FOR ÖNER'S STUDY AND THE PRESENT STUDY

PARI FACTORS	ÖNER'S STUDY (N= 42)		PRESENT STUDY (N= 28)	
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.
Extreme mothering	46.50	7.56	37.36	8.57
Democratic Attitude & Equality	26.98	2.86	28.79	3.20
Rejection of House Wife Role	27.86	6.99	29.36	5.11
Parental Conflict	14.21	3.63	14.11	4.17
Discipline	35.09	6.88	27.75	7.05