

THE EFFECT OF PARENT EDUCATION ON THIRD GRADE  
CHILDREN'S SOCIAL SKILLS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO  
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
OF  
THE MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

RUKIYE ŞAHİN

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR  
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
IN  
THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

FEBRUARY 2006

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

\_\_\_\_\_  
Prof. Dr. Sencer Ayata  
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Prof. Dr. Ali Yıldırım  
Head of  
Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Assist. Prof. Dr. Zeynep  
Hatipoğlu Sümer  
Supervisor

\_\_\_\_\_  
Prof. Dr. Füsün Akkök  
Co-supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Bülbin Sucuoğlu	(AÜ, ÖEB)	_____
Prof. Dr. Füsün Akkök	(METU, EDS)	_____
Assist. Prof. Dr. Özgür Erdur Baker	(AİBÜ, EBB)	_____
Assist. Prof. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri	(METU, EDS)	_____
Assist. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer	(METU, EDS)	_____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last Name: Rukiye Şahin

Signature:

## **ABSTRACT**

### **THE EFFECT OF PARENT EDUCATION ON THIRD GRADE CHILDREN'S SOCIAL SKILLS**

Şahin, Rukiye

Ph. D., Department of Educational Sciences

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipođlu Sümer

Co-supervisor: Prof. Dr. Füsün Akkök

February 2006, 193 pages

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the effects of a parent education on third grade children's social skills. The sample of the study composed of twenty nine third grade students' parents. The 3x3 experimental design with two training groups (experimental I group - father involved and experimental II group - father uninvolved) and one control group and three measurements (pre, post and follow-up) were used. The experimental groups received a ten-week parent education which was developed by the researcher while the control group did not receive any training. In order to assess social skills of children the Social Skills Rating System-Parent Form (SSRS-P) was used. The data were analyzed by using Kruskal Wallis Homogeneity test. The results revealed that parent education which involved fathers had a significant effect on children's self-control dimension and total social skills score in terms of parent perception. However, contrary of the expectation, the gain was not maintained after three months follow-up. In addition, father

involved group improved in self-control and responsibility dimension and father uninvolved group improved in self-control dimension and total score of social skills and the improvements maintained after three months follow-up. The parent reports indicated that parents in the experimental groups perceived improvement in different dimensions such as parent child communication, behavioral changes in parents and children.

Keywords: Social Skills, Parent Education.

## ÖZ

### EBEVEYN EĞİTİMİNİN ÜÇÜNCÜ SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN SOSYAL BECERİ DÜZEYLERİNE ETKİSİ

Şahin, Rukiye

Doktora, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Yard. Doç. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer

Ortak Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Füsun Akkök

Şubat 2006, 193 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı ebeveyn eğitiminin ilköğretim üçüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin sosyal beceri düzeylerine etkisini araştırmaktır. Araştırmanın örneklemi 29, 3. sınıf öğrencisinin ebeveyninden oluşmaktadır. Araştırmada 3x3 iki deney (babanın dahil olduğu-deney I ve babanın dahil olmadığı-deney II), bir kontrol grubu ve ön-test, son-test, izleme ölçümlerinin alındığı deneysel desen kullanılmıştır. Deney grupları araştırmacının geliştirdiği 10 haftalık ebeveyn eğitimi almış ancak kontrol grubu herhangi bir eğitim almamıştır. Çocukların sosyal becerilerini değerlendirmek için Sosyal Beceri Derecelendirme Ölçeği-Ebeveyn Formu (SBDÖ-EF) kullanılmıştır. Veriler Kruskal Wallis H testi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Bulgular babaların dahil olduğu ebeveyn eğitiminin çocukların öz-denetimlerinin ve toplam sosyal becerilerinin üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla beraber beklentilerin tersine, kazanım 3 ay sonraki izleme ölçümlerinde korunamamıştır. Ayrıca babaların dahil olduğu grup öz-denetim ve

sorumluluk boyutlarında ve babaların dahil olmadığı grup öz-denetim boyutunda ve toplam sosyal beceri puanlarında ilerleme göstermiş ve bu ilerleme üç ay sonraki ölçümde de korunmuştur. Ebeveyn raporları her iki deney grubunun da ebeveyn-çocuk iletişimde ve ebeveyn ve çocuklardaki davranış değişikliklerinde ilerleme gösterdiğini algıladığına işaret etmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sosyal Beceriler, Ebeveyn Eğitimi.

*To my parents*

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my supervisor, Assist. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipođlu Sümer for her guidance, support, patience and invaluable suggestions throughout this study. I was privileged to work with an outstanding supervisor during the study. Without her I would never finish this study.

I am grateful to my co-supervisor, Prof. Dr. Füsün Akkök for her guidance, encouragement, invaluable suggestions and reliance throughout the research.

I am also grateful my doctoral committee members Prof. Dr. Bülbin Sucuođlu and Assist Prof. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri for their valuable contributions and suggestions. I would also express my thanks to my examining committee member Assist Prof. Dr. Özgür Erdur Baker for her ongoing support, encouragement and suggestions.

I would like express my thanks to Prof. Dr. Giray Berberođlu for his suggestions and help on statistical analysis of this study. I would also express my sincere thanks to Assist. Prof. Dr. Zekeriya Nartgün for his help on statistical analysis.

I wish to express my sincere thanks to my friend A. Tolga Taşçı for his ongoing support, help and patience. I am also grateful to my friends Aşur, Tuğba, Özlem and Tanju for their help and support.

I would like to express my sincere thanks and love to my parents and my brother Mahmut and my sisters Lale and Ayşe for their support in every phase of this study.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
ÖZ.....	vi
DEDICATION.....	viii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS .....	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS .....	xi
LIST OF TABLES .....	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xiv

### CHAPTER

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study .....	1
1.2. Purpose of the Study .....	8
1.3. Significance of the Study .....	8
1.4. Definitions of the Terms .....	10

#### 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Social Skills .....	11
2.1.1. Definitions.....	11
2.1.2. Social Skills Training .....	14
2.2. Parent Education .....	24
2.3. Social Skills Training Programs with Parent Involvement .....	31
2.4. Parent Education Involving Fathers.....	42
2.5. Parent Education and Social Skills Training in Turkey.....	47

#### 3. METHOD

3.1. The Design of the Study .....	55
3.2. Research Questions .....	55
3.3. Variables.....	56
3.4. Population and Sample Selection.....	57
3.5. Data Collection Instruments.....	59
3.5.1. Social Skills Rating System .....	59
3.5.2.1 Validity Study of SSRS Parent Form .....	60
3.5.2.2. Reliability Study of SSRS Parent Form .....	62
3.6. Data Collection Procedures .....	62
3.6.1. Training Procedures .....	63
3.6.2. Training Materials .....	64
3.6.3. Overview of the Sessions .....	66
3.7. Data Analysis.....	74
3.8. Limitations of the Study.....	76

4. RESULTS	
4.1. Results concerning the effect of the parent education on each dimension of social skills score and the total score of the experimental and control groups' subjects on parents' ratings .....	77
4.2. Results concerning the effect of the parent education in terms of groups' pretest, posttest and follow-up measures on the four dimensions of SSRS .....	81
4.3.1. Participants' Evaluation of Parent Education .....	91
4.3.2. The Similarities and Differences Between the Evaluations of Participants.....	102
5. DISCUSSION	
5.1 Discussion of the Findings.....	107
5.2. Conclusion.....	116
5.3. Implications and Recommendations.....	118
5.3.1 Implications for Counseling.....	118
5.3.2 Recommendations for Further Research.....	121
REFERENCES .....	123
APPENDICES.....	137
A    SOCIAL SKILLS RATING SYSTEM	
PARENT FORM .....	137
B    PARENT EDUCATION PROGRAM .....	144
C    TURKISH SUMMARY .....	166
D    CURRICULUM VITAE.....	193

## LIST OF TABLES

### TABLES

3.1. Factors of the Turkish Version of the SSRS Parent Form .....	61
3.2. The Reliability of the Subscales and Total Scale of the SSRS Parent Form .....	62
4.1. The Mean Ranks of the Experimental and Control Group Subjects for Pretest Scores of SSRS Parent Form.....	78
4.2. The Mean Ranks of the Experimental and Control Group Subjects for Posttest Scores of SSRS Parent Form .....	79
4.3. The Mean Ranks of the Experimental and Control Group Subjects for Follow-Up Scores of SSRS Parent Form.....	81
4.4. The Mean Ranks of the Experimental I Group Subjects for Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up Measures of SSRS Parent Form .....	82
4.5. The Mean Ranks of the Experimental II Group Subjects for Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up Measures of SSRS Parent Form.....	86
4.6. The Mean Ranks of the Control Group Subjects for Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up Scores of SSRS Parent Form.....	89

## LIST of FIGURES

### FIGURES

- 4.1. Pre-post and follow-up results of the experimental I group (father involved) subjects on the four perceived dimensions of SSRS-P ..... 84
- 4.2. Pre-post and follow-up results of the experimental I group (father involved) subjects on the total social skills score ..... 85
- 4.3. Pre-post and follow-up results of the experimental II group (father uninvolved) subjects on the four perceived dimensions of SSRS-P ..... 88
- 4.4. Pre-post and follow-up results of the experimental II group (father uninvolved) subjects on the total social skills score ..... 88
- 4.5. Pre-post and follow-up results of the control group subjects on the four perceived dimensions of SSRS-P ..... 90
- 4.6. Pre-post and follow-up results of the control group subjects on the total social skills score ..... 90

# **CHAPTER I**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1. Background to the Study**

Learning, playing and working almost always require social interactions among people (Elliott, Malecki & Demaray, 2001). Children need to build social relationships with others for healthy development (Parke & Ladd, 1992 as cited in Mize & Abell, 1996), and the ability to interact successfully with peers is an important aspect of a child's development (Gresham, 1982). In order to live in a social network effectively, individuals need to acquire certain basic skills. Successful interaction with others is key to experiences such as establishing and maintaining friendships, joining groups and participating in life-enhancing activities (Parke & Ladd, 1992 as cited in Mize & Abell, 1996). Social skills comprise a central part of these interactions, helping both young and old to achieve many of their educational, professional and personal goals. Initiating communication, sharing, complimenting, providing help and requesting help from others are universally desired forms of behavior commonly referred to as "social skills" (Elliott, Malecki & Demaray, 2001).

Developing social skills during childhood plays an important role in increasing a child's happiness and self-esteem and improving their peer-adjustment. Moreover, individuals who fail to develop social interaction skills as a child are less likely to have close inter-personal contact with others later in life (Kelly, 1982). Several researchers have studied the characteristics that distinguish socially skilled individuals

from others. Herbert (1996) described socially skilled individuals as more capable than non-socially skilled individuals in dealing with uncomfortable situations by reducing provocation while preserving self-esteem without having to resort to extremes.

At the same time, individuals with good interpersonal skills are considered to be socially competent and capable of developing healthy relationships with others. They can meet others easily, converse with them effectively, convey and elicit information freely during conversations, and leave others with a feeling of enjoyment following their interaction (Kelly, 1982).

While social skills are known to have positive effects on interpersonal skills, interpersonal skills are not fully representative of social skills. Self-responsibility and self-confidence are other aspects of social skills (Hair, Jager & Garrett, 2000), which may be conceptualized as part of a broader construct of social competence that includes social skills and adaptive behavior competencies central to the development of all children (Gresham, 1982). Individual attributes such as self-control/behavior regulation and social confidence are also associated with social competence (Hair, Jager & Garrett, 2000), which can be defined as a global, evaluative term that refers to the overall adequacy of a person's social performance (Hughes & Sullivan, 1988).

Self-control is a personal attribute that requires an understanding of oneself and an awareness of ways to cope with difficulties, frustrations and disappointments. Self-control in children is very closely linked with how they feel about themselves and their relationship to the world. It is a pre-requisite for many social skills, such as listening, knowing when and how to interrupt, controlling anger and reporting back after completing a task (National center of effective parenting, [http:// www.effectiveparenting](http://www.effectiveparenting)

.org, 2002). Children need help in developing the ability to judge right from wrong and to control their own behavior.

In contrast to those children who are socially skilled, children who lack social competencies may suffer from academic incompetence, social maladjustment, peer rejection and psychopathology (Elliott et al, 1995 as cited in Rivera & Roger-Adkinson, 1997). Without intervention, poor social skills in childhood may be predictive of poor social interactions in adolescence and adulthood. Young people whose social skills are inadequate for their age are likely to be more lonely, (DiTommaso, McNulty, Ross & Burgess 2003; Segrin, 1999; Şahin & Demir, 2001), have more symptoms of depression (Segrin, 1999) and psychosocial problems (Segrin & Flora, 2000) and are less able to develop positive relationships with their peers and fellow students. As a result, their academic achievement and learning is negatively affected, if not directly threatened (Wilson, 2002). Children who lack social skills tend to become aggressive when they are forced to deal with frustrating situations. In addition to aggressive anti-social behavior, they may also exhibit signs of social withdrawal, shyness and isolation (Herbert, 1996). The above consequences necessitate the attention of educators and practitioners in identifying and treating children who are experiencing delays or deficiencies in social-emotional development (Elliott et al., 1995 as cited in Rivera & Roger-Adkinson, 1997).

Inadequacies in terms of social skills may be conceptualized along three dimensions – skill deficits, performance deficits and self-control deficits – each of which represents a different type of difficulty (Gresham, 1982). Children with *skill deficits* lack the necessary social skills to interact appropriately with their peers. In other words, they do not have the necessary social skills in their repertoire for effective social interaction and peer acceptance. Skill deficits result from the inability to integrate the necessary behaviors or to know how to interact or to interact

successfully (Gresham, 1982). Children with *performance deficits* either lack the social skills required for effective social interaction or are unable to employ these skills at the appropriate levels. Performance deficits may be a result of an environment that does not promote or reinforce a child's behavior (Gresham, 1982). Children with *self-control deficits* lack adequate behavioral controls to inhibit impulsive or aggressive social behavior. While children with self-control deficits may or may not have effective social skills, their primary difficulty is that their impulsive reaction to social situations interferes with effective social interaction and peer acceptance (Gresham, 1982).

The school and the home are both important institutions in terms of a child's socialization and education (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994). Public expectations of the education system include the expectation that it is responsive to social needs (Authier, Sherrets & Tramontana, 1980). According to Webster-Stratton and Reid (2004) parent education and teacher training are two main approaches to strengthening a child's social and emotional competence.

Most children acquire necessary social skills by observing their parents and other important individuals in their environment (Jindal-Snape, 2004) as they grow up within their own network relationships in their own culture (Parke et al., 2002). Researchers claim that the family – considered to be the child's first society – is a social system in which fathers, mothers, siblings and the marital relationship are all important to a child's socialization because children initially learn their social skills from their significant others, including fathers, mothers, siblings and friends (Parke et al., 2002). Therefore, it is important that children receive help in learning how to function and get along with the other members of their family (University of Florida Cooperative Extension Service, 2000).

Over the years, a vast number of studies have tried to explain the role of parents in different social dimensions of children. Studies have found a relationship between maternal behavior and a child's sociometric status and social behavior. For example, mothers of children with high sociometric status appeared to be more positive, focused on feelings and less disagreeable and demanding when interacting with their children than mothers of lower-status children (Putallaz 1987). Children's communication skills have also been shown to be related to maternal attitudes and perceptions (Sommers & Fragapane, 1994).

Some researchers have found that parents' attitudes affect the development of their children's social competence and peer acceptance levels (Putallaz & Heflin, 1990). Others (Finnie & Russell, 1988) have suggested that there is a significant relation between maternal social competence and a child's peer functioning.

Results of a study by Prinstein and LaGreca (1999) that investigated the link between the social competences of mothers and children found a strong relationship between the social competence (social skills, social frames, social network) of mothers and the social competence (social skills, peer relations, social network) of their children. Mothers with high social competence levels had children who were more socially competent and more accepted by their peers. The researchers suggested that a mother's "modeling" of social skills for their children could account for this relationship (Prinstein & LaGreca, 1999). Similarly, social learning holds that children learn noncompliant behavior through an interaction of reinforcement processes and modelling from other people in the environment. Since parents are the most significant people in a child's environment who serve as the first and most important teachers of their children (Wierson & Forehand, 1994).

Children learn social skills generally through observation, imitation, verbal instruction and feedback from the environment (Flem, Thygesen, Valas & Magnas, 1998). However, they differ in the degree to which they have opportunities to learn appropriate social and interpersonal skills. Moreover, the type of social behavior modelled by significant others in their social worlds will be of varying levels of competence. In addition, the contingencies for engaging in socially skilled behavior will also vary across individuals. Children's acquisition or use of social skills is likely to be poor if they do not receive positive outcomes for socially skilled behavior, or are actively punished. Researchers have investigated the role of parental influences in the acquisition and performance of social skills because of these reasons (Spence, 2003).

The literature contains a great deal of empirical evidence regarding the positive effects of parent involvement in social skills training. It includes evidence of the influence of maternal social competencies, parental attitude and parenting style on children's social competencies. It is strongly believed that parental participation in a child's educational experience has a positive effect on the child's academic achievement, social competence and school quality (Webster-Stratton, Reid & Hammond, 2001). In general, three approaches, which were originally developed in the 1960s, have strongly influenced later models of parent-child interventions. Parents are taught to be child-centred play therapists for their own children at home as co-therapists is the first model. Improving parent-child relationships through direct coaching with the mother interaction with her child is the second model of parent-child intervention model. In this model, the parent was viewed as a co-client. The third approach involved parent training interventions based on social cognitive learning model (Johnson, Kent & Leather, 2005).

In social cognitive theory, social modelling operates at a higher level of learning and serves as much broader generative functions (Bandura,

2003). All people can learn through modelling and the effects of their actions (Bandura, 1989). According to Bandura (2002), modelling is a universalised human capacity but how it is used varies in different cultural milieus. Cultures provide numerous common direct and modelling influences that create many similar proclivities (Bandura, 1989). In many cultures, the word for “teach” is the same as the word for “show” (Reichard, 1938 as cited in Bandura, 1989). According to Kağıtçıbaşı (2000), learning by observing and imitating is generally used by people in Turkish culture. If knowledge and skills had to be shaped laboriously by response consequences without the benefit of modelled guidance, a culture could never transmit its language, social practices, traditions, and adaptive competencies (Bandura, 1989). In social cognitive theory, learning occurs through imitation, identification, modelling or through the association of behavior with its consequences (Sichel, 1989).

Parents tend to participate in parent education in order to gain a better understanding of what is considered normal behavior and the typical behavior of their children and to ensure their children exhibit more socially skilled behavior (Draper, Larsen & Rowles 1997). Parents involved in social skills training of children reported an improvement in terms of eye contact, listening, taking turns, sharing, compromising, initiating conversations, staying on topic, emotional recognition of others and attention span. There were also indications that parents’ patience with and understanding of their children improved (MacDonald, Chowdhury, Dabney, Wolpert & Stein, 2003). In a study by Spence, Donovan, and Brechman-Toussaint (2000), the social skills training of children with phobias were found to show more improvement when parents participated in the training.

Some studies have been criticized for considering only the mother in parental education programs (Phares, 1992). While fathers and mothers

usually play different roles in a child's life, neither should be considered more important than the other. A child's development is affected by both mother and father, for it is through interaction with both parents that children acquire the skills needed for better development. Although paternal involvement during infancy and childhood is quantitatively less than maternal involvement, fathers still have an important impact on their children's development (Parke et al., 2002). As maternal employment increases and societal expectations change, contemporary fathers are also expected to take more responsibilities for daily child care and to spend more time with their children than fathers did in the past (Lamb, 1986, as cited in Hwang and Lamb, 1997). In summary, children are equally affected from their relationships with mother and father (Lamb, 2002).

The growing interest in developing parent education programs and assessing their differential effectiveness on children's social skills is well-documented in the literature. Furthermore, program outcomes indicate that supporting parents and enhancing their abilities seem to produce real benefits for children as well as their parents.

### **1.2. Purpose of the Study**

The aim of the present study is to investigate the effects of a parent education on third grade children's social skills.

### **1.3. Significance of the Study**

Socio-emotional development and the acquisition of social skills have significant effects on the adaptation of children. Children appear much more competent, happier and healthier when they have friends and get on well with others in their immediate environment. Families, friends and teachers need to provide numerous opportunities for young people to develop social skills, to interact and to communicate with a variety of

people, in a number of social situations and on more than one occasion (Wilson, 2002).

The social skills literature includes reports on a number of studies conducted with children that aimed to investigate the effects of social skills training on children's sociometric status and social skills (Tiffen & Spence, 1986; Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 1999). While social skills training programs have been provided to children who were isolated, rejected, unpopular or unassertive (Spence, 1983), excessively aggressive and social withdrawn (Herbert, 1996), children should be helped to acquire the necessary skills before the manifestation of problems resulting from a lack of these skills. As the preventative attitude asserts, one of the most effective ways of handling problems is to ensure that they don't arise in the first place. A child's right to experience healthy growth and development is of paramount importance, and it is parents, teachers, counselors and other adults in the society who are responsible for providing the necessary conditions to ensure this occurs.

There is growing evidence in the literature that points to one major problem of social skills training conducted with children, namely, the difficulty of generalizing treatment effects to situations outside the group setting (Marziller & Winter, 1978 as cited in Verduyn, Lord & Forrest, 1990). Webster-Stratton and Reid (2004) claimed that education addressing the social skills deficits of children were often delivered without input from their parents and teachers, and as a result children lacked the opportunity to generalize their new skills. Because children's behavior requires reinforcement, the parent's role in a child's emotional and social development cannot be ignored. Hence, social skills should be taught in a naturalistic environment (Gresham, 1997; McGlynn & Rutherford, 2001) such as the home, school and community (McGlynn & Rutherford, 2001) in order to ensure the generalization of these skills (Gresham, 1997).

It is well-known that the father's role in the family is of great importance. Fathers contribute to the growth and development of children in ways that are different but equally important to that of mothers. Thus, involvement of both parents is likely to be required to meet the necessary conditions for ensuring beneficial effects of any training program.

While group social skills training procedures with children, pre-adolescents and adolescents have been widely reported (Aydın, 1985; Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 1999; Şahin, 1999; Kocayörük, 2000; Cerrahoğlu, 2002; Sert, 2003; Yukay, 2003) social skills training with parents have not received the deserved attention of Turkish researchers. Turkish studies investigating the effects of parent-based social skills training programs are rather limited (Akkök & Sucuoğlu 1988a, 1988b; Aydın, 2003; Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005), and those examining the effect of paternal participation are fairly negligible.

The present study aims to fill this gap in the Turkish literature. In addition, by exploring the differential effects of paternal and maternal involvement in the development of specific skills in their children, this study intended to provide empirical evidence that could contribute to the development of future training programs.

#### **1.4. Definitions of Terms**

*Social skill:* A social skill is a class of behavior responses that facilitates child-peer and child-adult interaction (Gresham & Elliott, 1990).

*Parent education:* Parent education is the systematic provision of information to parents for the purpose of supporting their efforts to enhance their child's social development (Kaiser et al., 1999).

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This chapter summarizes the literature relevant to the present study. It begins with a presentation of definitions and training procedures related to social skills, and follows with an overview of studies on parent education in general and on parent education with the participation of fathers in particular. Finally, the chapter concludes with a presentation of empirical studies related to parent education and social skills in Turkey.

#### **2.1. Social Skills**

##### **2.1.1. Definitions**

Certain basic skills are required for a child's healthy development (Parke & Ladd, 1992 as cited in Mize & Abell, 1996). Among these are skills defined as "social skills." Social skills are considered to be part of a broader construct known as "social competence", which includes both social skills and adaptive behavior competencies crucial to the development of all children (Gresham, 1982) that must be taught, learned and performed (Gresham, Sugai & Horner, 2001).

Gresham and Elliott (1987) conceptualized social competence as comprising two interrelated sub-domains, adaptive behavior and social skills. Adaptive behavior includes independent functioning, physical development, self-direction, personal responsibility, economic-vocational activity and functional academic skills. Social skills include

interpersonal behavior, self-related behavior, academic-related skills, assertion, peer acceptance and communication skills (Gresham & Elliott 1987).

Hair, Jagger and Garrett (2000) divided social skills into two domains, interpersonal skills and individual attributes. Interpersonal skills include conflict resolution, intimacy and pro-social behavior, whereas individual attributes include self-control, social confidence, and empathy/sympathy (Hair, Jager & Garrett, 2000). Self-discipline is an important individual attribute and is linked very closely with how children feel about themselves and their relationship with the world.

Self-control and self-discipline tend to be used interchangeably in the social skills literature. Whereas self-control is the ability to regulate behavior and emotions at a level appropriate for any given interaction (Hair, Jager & Garrett, 2000), self-discipline is the process of developing personally and socially constructive forms of behavior to meet an individual's needs (University of Florida Cooperative Extension Service, 2000).

Many researchers have provided definitions of the concept of social skills. Spence (1983) defined social skills as "the behaviors that are important for a person to be successful in their interactions, in a way that does not cause physical or psychological harm to others" (p. 621).

Kelly (1982) defined social skills as "those identifiable, learned behaviors whose use is indicated in interpersonal situations in order to obtain or to maintain reinforcement from their environment. When conceptualized in this manner, social skills can essentially be viewed as behavioral pathways or avenues to an individual's goals" (p. 3). Kelly (1982) considered the definition of social skills to comprise three aspects: "(1) viewing socially skilled behavior in terms of its ability to

lead to reinforcing consequences, (2) the interpersonal situations in which social skills are exhibited, and (3) describing skilled behavior in an identifiable, objective manner” (p. 3).

Walker, Colvin and Ramsey (1995) defined social skills as the set of competencies students need to initiate and maintain positive social relationships with their peers, teachers and family and other community members. These skills contribute to effective peer acceptance, school adjustment and community relations (as cited in Quinn & Jannasch-Pennel, 1995).

Social skills in children have also been defined as positive social behaviors that contribute to the initiation and maintenance of positive social interactions” (La Greca, 1993, p. 288). The existence of positive and supportive friendships is sufficient for the promotion of a child's social and emotional adjustment (La Greca, 1993). Powerful social contexts can motivate students' behavior (Juvenen & Wentzel, 1996, as cited in Wentzel & Berndt, 1999).

Gresham and Elliott (1984) defined social skills as socially acceptable learned behaviors that allow a person to interact in ways that elicit positive responses and assist in avoiding negative responses. In their *Social Skills Rating System Manual* (Gresham & Elliott, 1990), they identified five major response classes of social skills, namely, cooperation, assertion, responsibility, empathy and self-control, that facilitated child-peer and child-adult interaction. Cooperation can be characterized by behaviors such as helping others, sharing material with a peer and complying with rules. Assertion involves both initiating behaviors, such as asking others for information, and responsive behaviors, such as responding to peer pressure. Responsibility involves behaviors that demonstrate the ability to communicate with adults and concern about property. Empathy is characterized by behaviors that

show concern for the feelings of a peer or a significant adult. Finally, self-control behaviors involve behaviors that emerge in conflict situations, such as responding appropriately to teasing or to corrective feedback from an adult.

Although social skills have major positive effects on a child's socio-emotional development, some children may not perform socially skilled behavior. Kelly (1982) explained the reasons behind failure to exhibit socially skilled behavior as:

*Lack of skill acquisition or learning:* a specific type of social skill was never exhibited in any situation because it was either never acquired or inadequately learned.

*Lack of skill use in certain situations:* a specific type of skill is learned and exhibited effectively in a certain situation, but fails to appear in other situations.

To sum up, social skills are important for a number of reasons and make many positive contributions to a child's quality of life. Inadequate social skills may result from any of the reasons listed above. Researchers aware of the importance of social skills as well as the reasons why children may not sufficiently develop social skills may help children to acquire these necessary skills by developing social skills training programs and sharing knowledge about social skills training among the research community.

### **2.1.2 Social Skills Training**

Many researchers have conducted social skills training studies that aimed to increase the social skills of children. Argyle (1981) has stated that training means learning by experience, and the aim of social skills

training is to directly increase the behavioral competency of individuals. Social skills training is mostly conducted with isolated, rejected, unpopular and unassertive (Spence, 1983), excessively aggressive and socially withdrawn children (Herbert, 1996). The training requires the active contribution of the child. Trainers prefer group training to individual training, partly because group training entails cost and time advantages, and partly because children can often serve as models for behavioral practice (Kelly, 1982).

According to Gresham (1997), although modeling and coaching are the most effective techniques in teaching social skills, these techniques are weaker in terms of generalization and maintenance. Generalization errors result from inadequate stimulus control over social skills with regard to interfering problem behaviors. It may not be possible to generalize socially skilled behavior because newly taught behavior is masked or overpowered by older and stronger competing behaviors (Gresham, 1997).

Different types of training are mentioned in the social skills literature, such as training directed towards children, classroom-based training and multiple-model training involving peers, teacher and parents. Training based on different approaches apply specific techniques in line with their theoretical underpinnings.

Cartledge and Milburn (1978) have suggested that effective procedures exist for the systematic teaching of social behaviors, particularly through the application of behavioral techniques, and that the school classroom is the best setting for teaching academically relevant social behavior. They consider modeling and reinforcement to be efficient techniques for teaching social skills. Many researchers have noted the frequent and effective use of instruction and discussion, modeling, feedback, social reinforcement, coaching, homework tasks (Spence 1983; Ogilvy, 1994;

Nangle, Erdley, Carpenter & Newman, 2002) as well as role-play (Spence 1983) in social skills training programs.

Another model is cognitive-social learning model. According to Bandura (1989) there are two basic modes of learning: people learn by experiencing the effects of their actions and through the power of social modelling. Psychological theories have focused almost exclusively on learning from positive and negative response consequences. Much of the human learning occurs either designedly or accidentally from the models in one's immediate environment. On the other hand, a vast amount of knowledge about people, places, and styles of thinking and behaving is gained from the extensive modelling in the symbolic environment. Unlike learning by doing, which requires shaping the actions of each individual through repeated consequences, in observational learning, a single model can convey new ways of thinking and behaving concurrently to many people in widely spread locales (Bandura, 1989). In the cognitive-social learning model, social skills training consists of three components: enhancing skill concepts, promoting skill performance, and, as a result, fostering skill maintenance and generalization. In the first component, the objective is to teach an appropriate concept of a social skill and have the newly learned concept serve as a guide for future performance. In the second component, the social skills of children are improved by helping children to achieve higher levels of skill mastery. In the third component, the objective is to increase the child's ability to maintain and generalize the practiced skills through the use of self-directed rehearsal and self-evaluation (Choi & Kim, 2003). Indirect effects, such as imitation, modelling, identification, or vicarious or observational learning, are central importance for the development of social knowledge and relationships. It would be correct to assume that a large degree of culturally appropriate behavior, knowledge, and values are transmitted on the basis of these types of indirect effects (Lewis, 2005).

Additionally, Wilson (2002) reported that modeling might involve showing films or videos, discussing the behaviors displayed and demonstrating specific social behaviors. Modeling can be used effectively in providing opportunities to teach a skill and at the same time to provide appropriate feedback on performance. School excursions can be a valuable way of modeling and showing students acceptable behavior in the community they live in.

Pellegrini and Urbain (1985) identified and explained the techniques most frequently utilized in social skills training as contingency management, modeling, coaching, and cognitive problem-solving.

According to Gresham and Elliott (1984), social skills training is an intervention designed to improve the behaviors that predict socially valid outcomes. The basic assumption is that social skills are learned behaviors and can therefore be taught using structured teaching methods (Gresham & Elliott 1984). Gresham and Nagle (1980) have investigated the differential effectiveness of social skills training procedures. They compared three different techniques for social skills training: modeling; coaching; and a combination of both modeling and coaching. The effectiveness in increasing the frequency of positive social interactions and sociometric status was found to be similar among the three techniques.

Social skills training can be used in diverse population, including children with specific learning difficulties, behavior disorders and mild mental retardation (Forgan & Gonzalez-DeHass, 2004). Social skills training with children is also relevant with regard to children's peer status and aims to increase this status (Ogilvy, 1994; Mesch, Lew, Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Spence, 1983) for victims of bullying (Fox & Boulton 2003). Some researchers have investigated its effect on isolated or rejected children or on children who had difficulty with peer relations (Tiffen & Spence, 1986; La Greca & Santagrossi, 1980). Erwin

(1994) compared the effectiveness of three methods in social skills training – coaching, interpersonal problem-solving and modeling – and found no difference between the treatment techniques in terms of improvement in children’s social interaction.

According to Marzilier and Winter (as cited in Verduyn, Lord, & Forrest, 1990), the major problem with regard to social skills training is the difficulty in generalizing treatment effects to situations outside the group setting. Verduyn, Lord and Forrest (1990) suggested that in order to promote generalization, the training context should be as close as possible to everyday life. King et al., (1997) indicated that to promote generalization of learned social skills, close collaboration among all “significant others” in the child’s environment -parents, teachers and peers- was a necessity.

Social skills trainers have aimed to improve the social status of socially rejected and withdrawn students in order to provide opportunities for constructive interaction with peers and the development of social skills (Mesch, Lew, Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Tiffen & Spence, 1986; LaGreca & Santagrossi, 1980; Rubin & Mills, 1988; King et. al., 1997).

In one of these studies, Tiffen and Spence (1986) provided training to fifty children who were isolated or rejected. It was reported that social skills training did not produce beneficial effects for either isolated or rejected children and there was no improvement within the two groups. Rejected children in all experimental conditions showed minimal improvement over time, but isolated children in all groups tended to show improvements in social competence.

In another study, LaGreca and Santogrossi (1980) conducted a social skill training to thirty children. Treatment consisted of modeling, coaching and behavioral rehearsal. The results suggested that children

who experienced some difficulty in peer social interactions in a normal classroom setting could be taught to improve their social behaviors through instruction and practice.

Rubin and Mills (1988) examined the stability and the concurrent and predictive correlates of different forms of social withdrawal in childhood. The data revealed at least two distinct subtypes of social isolation, passive-anxious and active-immature. Passive isolation was observed to remain stable across all three grades; was consistently and concurrently related to peer rejection, internalizing difficulties, and negative social self-perceptions; and was not generally related to externalizing problems across all three grades. Moreover, indices of passive isolation in second grade tended to predict depression and loneliness in the fifth grade. In contrast, active-immature isolation was infrequent and unstable. This form of isolation was not related to internalizing difficulties, but more often with aggression and externalizing. Active isolation was not predictive of subsequent problems in fifth grade.

King et al., (1997) conducted a study that examined the effectiveness of a social skills training program was based on the cognitive-social learning model for eleven withdrawn, unpopular children with physical disabilities. The program, called "Joining In," was developed specifically for elementary school children with physical disabilities. Twenty sessions focused on five basic skills of interpersonal problem solving, verbal and nonverbal communication, initiating interactions with peers, conversational skills and coping with difficult others. Each child attended two 90-minute sessions a week for 10 weeks. The program was based on the cognitive-social learning model and utilized the techniques of skill instruction, symbolic videotape modeling, role play feedback and re-rehearsal, reality check and homework assignments. Results indicated a significant improvement in children's social acceptance according to

their own perception, but the findings were not maintained at six months of follow-up.

Flem, Thygesen, Valas, and Magnas (1998) applied another cognitive social learning based social skills training program to eight 6-year-old children (4 boys and 4 girls). The design chosen for the study was a one-group pretest/posttest design. The training lasted for a period of approximately one and a half month. The intervention program consisted of nine, 30-35 minute long, training sessions. Pretest/posttest assessment indicated that the intervention program was effective in increasing some positive (solving cooperation problems, self-assertion, positive leadership) and reducing some negative behaviours (negative leadership, introverted asocial problems, extroverted asocial problems)

Fox and Boulton (2003) developed a social skills training program for children who were victims of bullying that they tested on twenty eight children (15 in an experimental group and 13 in a control group) aged nine to 11 years. The aim of the study was to increase the social skills of children and thus reduce their risk of victimization. Findings indicated that the self-esteem score of children in the experimental group was significantly higher than those in the control group. Improvements were also seen in numbers of friends, peer acceptance, depression and anxiety.

As mentioned previously, one of the most persistent weaknesses of social skills training is its failure to demonstrate sufficient generalization and maintenance of the social skills instructed. Gresham, Sugai and Horner (2001) have stated the reasons for this failure as follows:

- a) Inadequate programming.
- b) Poor treatment application
- c) Received, restricted and decontextualized setting in which social behavior is taught.

For programs to be successful, they should involve schools, as they provide an ideal setting to achieve generalization (Evans, Axelrod & Sapia, 2000). According to the approach known as “entrapment”, a student’s peer group must also be socially competent and provide reinforcement for the student to engage in newly acquired social skills (McConnell, 1987 as cited in Maag, 1994). Moreover, it should be noted that the child's interpersonal competence occurs within a specific network of social relations, and any attempts to improve the individual's social functioning must therefore take contextual factors into account. In addition to targeting the deficits observed in the child's individual behavior, attempts should be made to restructure the social environment (Ogilvy, 1994).

In order to provide generalization, social skills should be taught in a naturalistic environment (Gresham, 1997) and the training context should be as close as possible to everyday life (Verduyn, Lord,& Forrest, 1990). The traditional format of social skills programs, small group meetings away from a child’s normal environment, does not enhance development and generalization of skills (Evans, Axelrod & Sapia, 2000). King et al., (1997) have indicated that close collaboration among all significant others in a child’s environment is needed to promote generalization of learned social skills. Long-term success can be maintained with the involvement of teachers, parents and administrators. Teachers can support training programs in multiple ways, such as inviting the counselor into the classroom, endorsing the program with students and parents and reinforcing the program goals in daily interactions with students. Principals can inform parents about the positive aspects of social skills training and stimulate counselor and teacher participation (Rotheram-Borus, Bickford & Milburn, 2001). By basing social skills training in the classroom and around the existing curriculum, problems with transfer and generalization can be reduced

(Fields, 1989). In summary, an ecological model might afford greater opportunity for learning and generalization by allowing children to improve their deficits within their regular social environment (Evans, Axelrod & Sapia, 2000).

Stokes and Osmes (1989, as cited in Elliott & Gresham, 1993) identified several procedures, referred to as “generalization facilitators,” that improved generalization beyond the specific aspects of an intervention. Examples of generalization facilitators include (a) teaching behaviors that are likely to be maintained by natural contingencies, (b) training across stimuli (e.g., persons, setting) common to the natural environment (c) reducing response contingencies, (d) reinforcing application of skills to new and appropriate situations, and (e) including peers in training.

Parents are considered to be facilitators of generalization of newly learned skills. Today’s parents appear to be significantly more involved with and know more about their child than parents before them. Children establish their first relations with their family, and the nature of these relationships determines the nature of the social skills and social relations the child will develop with others later in life (Aquilino, 1994). The importance of the parental role in the development of a child’s social skills is supported by Bandura’s theories on “Learning by Observation” (Bandura, 1977, as cited in Webster-Stratton, 1981) According to Bandura, a subject will imitate a model’s behavior in the event that: (a) the subject has positive feelings about the model or perceives himself as similar to the model, (b) the subject observes the model receiving rewards, (c) the subject pays attention to the model’s behavior, (d) the subject is rewarded for modeling appropriate behavior.

There is a link between maternal social behavior and a child’s social behavior and sociometric status (Putallaz, 1987). A child’s orientation to

his or her peers is also affected by the parent-child relationship during early adolescence (Flugni & Eccles, 1993). Mothers of children rejected by their peers were less likely to teach their children about social skills, spent less time on child-centered activities and used more punishment and less reasoning in providing discipline. Moreover, fathers of rejected children were also less likely to spend time on child-centered activities (Kennedy, 1992). Maternal social competence (social skills, social frames, social network) and three domains of child social competence (social skills, peer relations and social network) were highly related (Prinstein & LaGreca, 1999). Socially competent mothers had children who were more socially competent and more accepted by their peers. Maternal modeling of this skill may be important for children's social competence.

Verduyn, Lord and Forrest (1990) investigated the effectiveness of school-based social skills training with the parent involved as an informant. Participants in the study were thirty four elementary school children (17 in the treatment group, 17 in the control group) between the ages of 10 and 13 years. The training lasted for eight weeks, and assessment was based on teacher and parent evaluation as well as child self-evaluation. Results of the study indicated that the treatment had a significant effect on children's social activity. The parental report of children in the treatment group indicated improvements in social behavior and self-esteem.

Becker (1964) has stated that "where both mothers and fathers have been studied, most of the research has shown the father's influence on the child's behavior to be at least equal to that of the mother" (p.204, cited in Rohner and Veneziano, 2001). For most people, life's major satisfaction and pain revolve around personal relationships with others (Rohner, 1994, 1994 as cited in Rohner & Veneziano, 2001). For children, the most influential of these "others" are parents. The quality of

personal relationships, especially personal relationships between parents and children, is a major predictor of psychosocial functioning and development for both children and adults (Rohner & Veneziano, 2001).

Social skills training programs undertaken with rejected and isolated children and those with poor peer relations in order to improve the social skills of such children have a significant place in the related literature. Considering that the difficulty in ensuring generalization and maintenance of improvements in social skills learned in training programs is one of the main problems that have been identified, researchers have taken an interest in training programs that involve parent participation.

## **2.2. Parent Education**

In recent years, changes in family structure, community composition, and social demographics have added new challenges to those already faced by parents (Skrypnek, 2005). Educators and clinicians attach to training parents to be teachers and therapists for their own children (Sapon-Shevin, 1982).

Parents have always been viewed as occupying a fundamental role in their children's education (Barge & Loges, 2003), and the need for parent education can easily be understood from their expectations regarding the education system. The education system must provide a child with academic success and healthy development as well as meeting the required social needs. Academic performance is the result of a complex combination of individual characteristics and social influences (Mullis, Rathge & Mullis, 2003). Coleman (1988) stated that parental involvement in a child's academic and social lives potentially enhanced his or her academic achievement. However, according to a

study conducted by Benson, Galbraith and Espeland (1995), only 26 percents of youth surveyed had parents who played a part in helping their children succeed in school.

The Education Commission of the States Child Abuse Project (1976) defined parent education as “any type of educational program, involvement or intervention designed to increase parental competence and self-esteem in the parenting role” (cited in Authier, Sherrets, & Tramontana, 1980). Moreover, Powell (1990, as cited in Schwartz, 2002) claimed that the main aim of parent education should be to discover the strengths and talents of parents in their roles and to facilitate their more frequent utilization of these strengths and talents in order to reduce stress, enhance family communications and engage in problem-solving with their children.

Wolfe and Hirsch (2003) differentiated parent education and parent training from parent therapy. Whereas parent education programs are typically limited in duration, therapy can continue indefinitely.

Kaiser et al., (1999) define parent education as the systematic provision of information to parents for the purpose of supporting their efforts to promote their child's development. This education is one of the many resources available to families of children with disabilities, and the use of this resource reflects parents' choices about resources that support them and their children. Provision of information takes into account the needs of parents for specific content and for methods of information delivery that are responsive to the learning style, education and culture of individual parents.

A similar definition is provided by Authier, Sherrets, and Tramontana (1980). They indicate that by improving the attitudes, knowledge and skills of parents in terms of parent-child interaction, parent education

ultimately leads to a healthier, more well-adjusted child. This is the aim of designing and providing parent education programs.

Epstein's comprehensive typology (1995, as cited in Barge & Loges, 2003), the most widely used, categorized parental involvement as follows:

*Type I Parenting:* the development of practices that facilitate families in establishing home environments to support children as students.

*Type II Communicating:* the design of effective forms of communication by schools that promote effective school-to-home and home-to-school communication about school programs and child progress.

*Type III Volunteering:* parents become involved by volunteering at school and serving as an audience for school performances.

*Type IV Learning at home:* parents help students at home with homework and other curriculum related activities.

*Type V Decision-making:* parents become involved in school decisions and develop as parent leaders and representatives by participating on boards and committees.

*Type VI Collaborating with the Community:* community resources and agencies become integrated with school programs, fostering a shared responsibility for children.

Getswicki (2004, as cited in Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005) indicated that certain assumptions underly parent training in which parents actively participate in the process, namely:

- 1- Parenting behaviors can be learned.
- 2- There is a knowledge base for parents that can help parents become more effective.
- 3- To develop competence, knowledge alone is not enough; feelings and attitudes must be dealt with.

- 4- All parents (no matter how well educated, well adjusted, etc.) need education and help.
- 5- Parents want to learn.
- 6- Parents learn best when the topics are closely related to them and their children.
- 7- Parents can often learn best from each other.
- 8- Parents learn in their own ways, each has different learning patterns.

According to Golding (2000), parent training has been used extensively as an intervention to increase the adequacy of parenting in order to facilitate the treatment of childhood behavior disorder or improve the emotional care of children. There are a large number of assumptions associated with the concept of adequate parenting:

- parenting behaviors are related to child behaviors
- inadequate parenting is identifiable
- parenting behaviors can be changed with an associated improvement in child behaviors and adjustment
- behavior is best understood and changed within a behavioral model.

Golding (2000) lists the theoretical models underlying these assumptions as follows:

*The attachment model:* concentrates on the importance of attachment bonds between parent and child for the development of the child. In this model, the quality of the relationship between parent and child can be taken into consideration in terms of the attachment history of the parent. Poor early attachment experience leads to the development of a parent who finds it difficult to empathize with his/her children and fails to foster security in these children. According to this model, effective parent should be sensitive to and aware of the child's needs (Golding 2000).

*Social learning model:* Social learning focuses on the family as a system with patterns of family interactions viewed as maladaptive or adaptive. It

is believed that the child learns appropriate behavior within a social environment. Behavior is learned by observation, modeling, shaping and reinforcement. It is suggested that the formation of concepts about possible behaviors that guide future actions is facilitated by the child's observations. This model explains a child behavioral problems (Golding 2000).

*The ecological model:* parenting is considered to be one part of the ecological framework involving reciprocal interactions between family members in a social environment which can be a source of stress or support. Parenting is considered as one part of family functioning that can increase risk or resilience to the development and maintenance of problem behaviors within the child (Golding 2000).

The second model explained by Golding (2000) and Bandura (1989) is observational learning which can take the form of behavioral, cognitive, valuational, and affective change, governed by four component subfunctions. *Attentional processes* determine what people observe in the profusion of modelling influences and what information they extract from what they perceive. People can not be much influenced by observed events if they do not remember them. A second major subfunction *governing observational learning* concerns representational processes. Maintenance involves an active process of transforming and restructuring the information conveyed by modelled events into rules and conceptions for memory representation. In the third subfunction, the behavioral production process-symbolic conceptions are translated into appropriate courses of action which is achieved through a conception-matching process in which behavioral enactments are structured until they match the conception of the activity (Bandura, 1989). The fourth subfunction in modelling concerns motivational processes. Social cognitive theory distinguishes between acquisition and performance because people do not perform everything they learn. Performance of

observationally learned behavior is influenced by three major types of incentive motivators-direct, vicarious, and self-produced. People are more likely to adopt modelled styles of behaviors producing valued outcomes than the ones having unrewarding or punishing effects. The observed cost and benefits accruing to others influence the adoption of modelled patterns in much the same way as do directly experienced consequences. People are motivated by the successes of others who are similar to themselves, but they are discouraged from pursuing courses of behavior often resulting in aversive consequences. People tend to generalise the behaviours producing valued outcomes (Bandura, 1989).

Treatments based on social learning principles, focuses on teaching parents a set of effective parenting behaviors. Each skill first is presented in a didactic format to the parents without the child present, followed by modelling by the therapist, and then role playing by the parents with the therapist. The parents then are observed in the clinic as they practice the skill with their child; during this practice, the therapist provides guided verbal feedback to the parents. Following the treatment session, the parents complete homework assignments designed to increase use of the parenting techniques in the home setting. At each subsequent session, homework assignments are also reviewed. Although the entire behavioral training program is designed to take 8 to 10 sessions, skills are practiced until they are being implemented successfully by the parents (Wierson & Forehand, 1994).

Authier, Sherrets and Tramontana (1980) state that the content of parent education programs may range from narrow, single-subject curricula on topics such as parent-child communication or discipline to comprehensive curricula covering “everything you will ever need to know to be a good parent.” Topics commonly covered in parent education programs include communication skills, child development

and psychology, responsibilities of parenthood, marriage and family relationships, discipline and moral development, cultural stimulation and play activities of childhood, first aid and health maintenance, human sexuality, nutrition, use of community resources and daily living skills (Authier, Sherrets & Tramontana, 1980). Moreover, the content/nature of parent education, its delivery mode, the organization of service delivery and philosophy and policy guiding the provision of parent education must evolve to meet the changing needs of families (Skrypnek, 2005).

“Parenting interventions must be broad-focused and delivered within the communities where the families live. They must be designed not only to help parents adopt parenting strategies that promote their children’s social competence and reduce behavior problems but also give them the support they need to become engaged citizens collaborating with teachers, involved in their schools and communities and supporting one another as parents. If counselors become successful in promoting social support and community involvement, they will reduce the risk of parents’ maltreating children and strengthen communities for all children in the long run” (Webster-Stratton, 1997, as cited in Golding, 2000).

Holden, Lavigne and Cameron (1990) reported that the effectiveness of a parent training program could be defined by three related criteria: the proportion of clients who successfully complete the training; the magnitude of behavioral changes exhibited by those who complete the training; and the length of time needed to bring about change. These criteria can be combined into a continuum of effectiveness that describes client outcome.

In sum, parent education programs generally have a positive effect on parent attitude (Wolfe & Hirsch, 2003) and aim to improve child adjustment by improving parenting behavior (Authier, Sherrets, & Tramontana (1980). Awareness of the significance of the positive

effects parents have on the healthy development of their children has focused researchers on implementing parent education programs and social skills training programs involving parents.

### **2.3. Social Skills Training Programs with Parent Involvement**

In line with empirical research indicating the importance of parental influence on the development and expression of social skills, many recent programs have included a parent training component.

MacDonald, Chowdhury, Dabney, Wolpert and Stein (2003) designed a study that aimed to teach social skills to children, not only in co-operation with parents, but with teachers as well. The subjects of their study were seven children between the ages of eight and 11, as well as their parents and teachers. The children's group employ various cognitive behavioral techniques, whereas the parents' group, which was designed as a support group, was less structured. Parents and teachers informed the children about the contents of the sessions and homework and provided them with feedback. Parents reported an improvement in terms of eye contact, listening, taking turns, sharing, compromising, initiating conversations, staying on topic, emotional recognition of others and attention span. Their reports also indicated an improvement in their patience with and understanding of their children.

Draper, Larsen and Rowles (1997) investigated the effects of parent training on children's social skills, family conflict and gross motor skills in a study comprised of parents of fifty three children. A training program was designed to help parents gain a better understanding of normal and typical behaviors of children. Training sessions were held once a week for three months. Following the program, children in the experimental group whose parents had received training were found to demonstrate better social skills than children in a control group.

Spence, Donovan and Brechman-Toussaint (2000) conducted a study that tested a twelve-session social skills training program using cognitive behavioral intervention conducted for 50 children aged 7-14 years with social phobias. An analysis of the program's effectiveness found improvements in the group of children whose parents had attended the program, although the differences between this group and a control group were not statistically significant.

Aquilino and Supple (2001) investigated the long-term effects of parenting during adolescence on well-being in young adulthood. They found out that parental warmth and support was predictive of lower levels of symptoms of depression and irritability/hostility among young adults. In another study, Flugni and Eccles (1993) reported a relationship between parent-child relationships during early adolescence and children's relationships with their peers.

Among several studies on parental characteristics and children's peer status and peer relations is one conducted by Updegraff, McHale, Crouter and Kupanoff (2001) investigating the effects of direct maternal and paternal involvement in their children's peer relationships. Parents in this study guided their children's peer relationships and supervised their peer interactions and their social lives. One hundred eighty-seven family members participated in a home interview and a series of evening phone calls. Mothers, fathers and adolescents (mean age 15) were interviewed separately in home visits that took place over two to three weeks. Following the interviews, phone calls were made on seven evenings to collect information about daily home and personal activities. Findings revealed that mothers were more likely to participate in and be knowledgeable about the friendships of their adolescents than fathers. Ladd and Golter (1988) investigated the relationship between parents' efforts to initiate and monitor children's peer contacts and the qualities

of their children's peer relations in both non-school and school settings. Peer relations were assessed using different parent evaluation criteria. During the course of the research, parents of 58 pre-school children completed logs detailing their initiation and monitoring practices and their children's peer contacts in non-school settings. Parents were classified as either high or low initiators and direct or indirect monitors, depending on the form of management. Information about children's peer relations in school was obtained through observational, sociometric and teacher assessments conducted during pre-school and kindergarten. Parents who initiated a higher rate of peer contacts tended to have children who possessed a larger number of different play partners and more consistent companions in non-school settings. Higher levels of parental initiation were also associated with greater peer acceptance and lower levels of peer rejection in school for boys, but not girls. Direct or indirect forms of parental monitoring were found unrelated to children's peer relations in non-school settings, but direct monitoring styles were predictive of a child's social maladjustment in school.

Some researchers have found that parental behavior had an effect on their children's acceptance level among peers as well as on the development of their social competence (Putallaz & Heflin, 1990). Similarly, Finnie and Russell (1988) suggested that there was a significant relation between maternal social competence and a child's peer functioning. Prinstein and La Greca (1999) reported that mothers with high levels of social competence had children who were more socially competent.

Supportive parents tended to be accepting of their children, evaluate them positively, promote interpersonal closeness and expression of affection and provide emotional support. A warm, supportive relationship between parent and child provides a secure trusting base

that fulfills the child's needs and allows the child to attend and respond to others needs (Baernett, 1987; Eisenberg & Mussen, 1989 as cited in Carlo, Roesch & Melby, 1998).

In addition to studies investigating links between children's peer experiences and parental involvement, other studies have attempted to find links between a parent's social and psychological functioning and their child's social competence. Russell and Russell (1987) indicated that mothers had more interaction and were more "caretaking" with their children when compared to fathers, a finding that may direct a researcher to work with mothers in order to investigate child outcomes. In one such study, Putallaz (1987) explored the potential link between maternal social behavior and child social behavior and sociometric status. In light of the research findings, it can be suggested that mothers of higher sociometric status children appeared to be more positive and more emotionally focused and also less disagreeable and demanding in interactions with their children than mothers of lower sociometric status children. Mothers of higher status children seemed to discuss their feelings and opinions more than mothers of less accepted children did when interacting with their children. These results were consistent with the notion of modeling, in that children, in their social interactions with their peers, seemed to display affective behavior similar to that of their mothers. In short, positive, agreeable mothers had positive, agreeable children; mothers who were emotionally focused had children who were emotionally focused; and disagreeable mothers had disagreeable children (Putallaz, 1987).

Another study into maternal social behavior conducted by Openheim, Goldsmith and Karie (2004) investigated correlations between improvements in the insightfulness of mothers and reductions in their children's behavior problems. The studied examined 32 children attending a therapeutic pre-school program for a range of behavioral

and emotional problems as well as their mothers. Results revealed that following treatment, although all the children achieved gains in terms of social skills, behavior problems of children whose mothers were more insightful decreased, whereas behavior problems of children whose mothers were less insightful increased.

Prinstein and LaGreca (1999) examined the relationship between maternal social and psychological functioning and a child's social competence. The results revealed that the social competence (social skills, social frames, social network) of mothers was highly related to three domains of children's social competence (social skills, peer relations and social network). Mothers with high levels of social competence had children who were more socially competent and more accepted by their peers. It may be hypothesized that maternal modeling of this skill plays an important role in a child's social competence.

In addition to the study about the link between parents' social and psychological functioning and children's peer experiences conducted by Prinstein and LaGreca (1999), Rice, Cunningham and Young (1997) investigated the role that emotional attachment to parents played in a child's social competence and emotional well-being. Results revealed that for boys, attachment to the father but not the mother was a predictor of social competencies and emotional well-being, whereas for girls, attachment to both parents was important in predicting social competence.

The literature also contains a number of studies examining the effects of parenting styles on children's social competence. Based on the findings of research into parenting styles (Baumrind, 1991; Weis & Schwartz, 1996; Miller et al, 1993) Darling (1999) hypothesized the following:

- 1- Children and adolescents who have authoritative parents consider themselves to be more socially competent than those whose parents are not authoritative.
- 2- Children and adolescents whose parents are uninvolved in their parenting styles perform most poorly in all aspects of social competence.

Since parental responsiveness is a predictor of social competence and psycho-social functioning, a demanding parenting style can be associated with instrumental control and behavioral control (academic performance and deviance);

- 3- Children and adolescents in authoritarian families (high-demand, low-response) have a tendency to perform moderately well in school, exhibit some behavior problems, have poorer social skills, lower self-esteem and higher levels of depression.
- 4- Children and adolescents in high-response, low-demand families are more likely to display behavior problems and perform worse in school, but have higher self-esteem, better social skills, and lower levels of depression when compared to those from authoritarian families.

DeHart, Pelham and Tennen (2005) summarized parenting styles as either authoritative, authoritarian or permissive. Parents with an authoritative parenting style provide their children with love and emotional support, as well as clearly defined rules of what is considered appropriate behavior. Parents with an authoritarian parenting style tend to criticize and to enforce unilaterally dictated rules and, in general, fail to provide their children with the love and emotional support characteristic of authoritative parenting. Parents with a permissive

parenting style typically exhibit inconsistent rule enforcement or lack of structure. Although permissive parents may be affectionate, they fail to regulate their children's behavior.

It is commonly agreed that parent education programs result in positive changes in parenting styles (Nystul, 1982). A study by Webster-Stratton and Hammond (1999 as cited in Webster-Stratton and Reid, 2004) reported that parents could be assisted in developing positive parenting strategies that would help their children build social competencies. In a study examining parenting style and social competency outcomes of children, Darling (1999) claimed that children of authoritative parents were more socially competent. Children with lower emotional and social competencies were more frequently found in families where parents exhibited a more hostile parenting style and paid more attention to the negative than to the positive behavior of their children (Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1999 as cited in Webster-Stratton and Reid, 2004). Children whose parents were emotionally positive and attend to pro-social behaviors were more likely to be able to self-regulate and respond in nonaggressive ways to conflict situations (Brestan & Eyberg, 1998 as cited in Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004).

Phares and Renk (1997) reported that positive feelings toward parents were associated with better psychological functioning and negative feelings toward parents were associated with more problematic psychological functioning. Whereas children had negative feelings toward mothers who exhibited high levels of control, they had more positive feelings toward fathers who exhibited high levels of control.

Most research examining relationships between parenting styles and social competency outcomes of children found positive relationship between these variables. Laible and Carlo (2004) conducted a study that aimed to investigate how parenting dimensions of mothers and

fathers independently and together predicted adolescent perceptions of sympathy, self-worth and social competence. Self-report measures were completed by the 108 adolescents who participated in the study. Results showed that perceived maternal support and rigid control were the most consistent predictors of adolescent perceptions of sympathy, social competence and self-worth. Perceived support from mothers was associated with lower levels of sympathy and lower levels of self-worth in adolescents. In contrast, perceived rigid control from mothers was associated with lower levels of self-worth and perceived social competence. The findings also indicated that, in contrast to maternal parenting dimensions, perceived paternal support and rigid control were unrelated to most of the adolescent outcome measures, although paternal support was related to higher scores for sympathy.

Carlo, Roesch and Melby (1998) investigated links between sociability, anger, parental support and pro-social/antisocial outcomes in a study that comprised 80 adolescents and their parents. Results indicated that low levels of aggression were related to high level of parental support. Maternal and adolescent anger were negatively related to pro-social outcomes and positively related to antisocial outcomes.

Parenting style has also been assessed with regard to ethnic status. Deater-Deckard, Dodge, Bates and Pettit (1996) examined the relation between physical discipline and child aggression by tracking 466 European American and 100 African American children from a broad range of socio-economic levels from kindergarten through third grade. Mothers reported their use of physical discipline in interviews and questionnaires, and mothers, teachers and peers provided annual ratings of children's externalizing problems. Teacher and peer ratings showed that physical discipline was associated with significantly greater externalizing problems among European American children, but not among African American children. According to the researchers, these

findings provide necessary evidence that the connection between physical punishment and child aggression may be culturally specific.

Supporting parents and enhancing their abilities has found to produce real benefits for children. Smith (1997) stated that one reason for the growth of interest in this area was the growing body of research showing that “it works.” While parent education programs differ according to their aims, the outcomes of such programs have been shown to benefit children as well as their parents. Program content could also be “behavioral” and “relationships”. Parents feel better about themselves, they are able to achieve more, and the family’s quality of life is enhanced.

MacDonald, Chowdhury, Dabney, Wolpert and Stein (2003) have claimed that parent participation in social skills training with children helps transfer data to the external environment. Webster-Stratton, Reid and Hammond (2004) investigated the effectiveness of parent training, parent/teacher training, child training, child/teacher training and parent/child/teacher training on 159 children aged 4-8 years experiencing behavior problems. The treatment had significant positive effects on parenting of both mothers and fathers in the treatment groups. Children in all treatment groups showed significantly less negative behaviors at home, and results also indicated that children’s social competence with peers improved as well.

Schafer (1991) reported that research into parental influence on child competence supported the recognition of parents and future parents as educators, as well as the development of programs designed to increase their effectiveness as educators. Research into parental values, beliefs, knowledge and behavior can guide the design of effective parent education programs.

The literature also presents findings of studies conducted with diverse populations, such as children with conduct problems, social phobia, and attention deficit-hyperactivity disorders.

Webster-Stratton, Reid and Hammond's (2001) implemented a twelve-session weekly program incorporating multi-modal methods and including a parent training component for children with early-onset conduct problems. The study sample comprised 272 mothers and their four-year-old children. Following the training, mothers in the experimental group were found to have significantly lower negative parenting scores and significantly higher positive parenting scores than those in the control group. Children in the experimental group were found to exhibit significantly fewer conduct problems at school than those in the control group. Mothers who attended 6 or more sessions showed significantly fewer conduct problems than mothers who did not attend the sessions. Children with higher risk (high rates of noncompliance and aggressive behavior poor social skills) significantly fell into the normal range than the control group subjects.

McNeil, Eyberg, Eisenstadt, Newcomb and Funderburk (1991) aimed to evaluate the effects of Parent-Child Interaction Therapy on children who demonstrated severe conduct problems. Thirty children between ages two and seven were divided into three groups, an experimental group, a control group comprised of normal children and one comprised of deviant children. Following participation in a 14-week Parent-Child Interaction Therapy program, children in the treatment group displayed significantly greater improvements in their behavior when compared to both control groups.

Eisenstadt, Eyberg, Mcneil and Funderburk (1993) examined the effects of Parent Child Interaction Therapy and Child-Directed Interaction. The subjects were twenty four families with children between the ages of 2,

5 and 7 who were referred to a psychology clinic for treatment of behavior problems. All families completing treatment received both the Child-Directed Interaction and the Parent Child Interaction Therapy treatment stages. Thirteen families participated in the Parent Child Interaction Therapy. Families received 14 week-sessions of Parent Child Interaction Therapy with half receiving Child-Directed Interaction training in which they instructed to the child's appropriate behavior, reflect inappropriate child speech, and ignore inappropriate behavior. Parents were taught not to criticize the child and not to use commands. At mid-treatment, the Parent Child Interaction Therapy training stage was found to be more effective than the Child-Directed Interaction stage for reducing noncompliance and disruptiveness. The groups were also compared at post treatment to examine the impact of stage sequence. The Parent Child Interaction Therapy group improved more on parent report of conduct problems, and mothers were more satisfied with the therapy.

Pfifner and McBurnett (1997) compared the effectiveness of child-focused social skills training with parent generalization training for children with attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). Twenty-seven children were randomly divided into three groups of nine, two treatment groups and a control group. Both child- focused social skills training group and the parent generalization group used a social skills curriculum that addressed the common social problems of children. In the parent generalization treatment group, parents were trained to support their children's skills transfer to everyday use. Increases in scores on the Social Skills Rating System Parent and Teacher Forms indicated that both treatment groups showed improvements relative to the control group.

It should be pointed out that the child and adolescent clinical literature has been criticized for a tendency to blame mothers for the psychological problems of their children. After closely reviewing the

literature, Phares (1992) claimed that this bias may be due to theory-driven research based on sexist or unquestioned theories, research assumptions based on outdated societal norms and practical issues in recruiting participants (Phares, 1992). In fact, some researchers have noted only a modest similarity in parenting styles used by two parents within the same home (Winsler, Madigan & Aquilino, 2005). Different parental roles in child rearing should also be kept in mind in this regard.

As summarized above, the general aim of parent education programs is to improve positive child behavior, strengthen social skills and increase peer acceptance of normally developed children and decrease negative child behavior by improving parenting.

#### **2.4. Parent Education Involving Fathers**

Parent education programs involving fathers represent a rich field of investigation for researchers wishing to examine the contributions of fathers to the social development of children. Reports in the literature have looked at different parent education programs, and the involvement of mothers and fathers, separately and together, have been tested.

Mothers and fathers interact with their children in unique and different ways that are neither equal nor interchangeable. Rather, each parent makes his or her own contribution to their child's social, emotional and intellectual development (Ohio State University Extension Fact Sheet: Family and Consumer Sciences <http://ohioline.osu.edu/hyg-fact/5000/5212.html>). The "combination package" that includes both parent and child training provides a number of advantages over child-cognitive behavioral training or parent training alone, because each component is geared to a different targeted area. Cognitive-behavioral training produces gains in a child's problem-solving abilities and conflict

management with peers, whereas parent-training leads to improved parent-child interaction. As a result, the best overall outcomes at follow-up have been found when both training components are utilized (Webster-Stratton & Hammond, 1997).

Gecas and Schwalbe (1986, as cited in Rice, Cunningham & Young, 1997) argue that a child's self-image might be more affected by the father's behavior in the family rather than the mother's behavior because the father has more authority and power. Moreover, they claim that the limited direct involvement of a father in the socialization of his child led to the child's exaggeration of the importance of paternal involvement, and thus, the less frequent involvement of the father took on greater importance in the child's mind than the daily involvement of the mother.

According to Horton (1984), the significance of the father's role in parent training generally lies in the importance of the consistent application of reinforcement contingencies and the generalization of training effects. He assumed that if father and mother had similar parenting skills, then parent-child interaction and reinforcement contingencies were likely to be applied more consistently and thus improve the effects of training (e.g. improve child behavior). Secondly, if both father and mother were able to demonstrate these parenting skills, then the child might encounter these reinforcement contingencies over a longer period of time.

Empirical evidence also supports the idea that a good father is critical to the optimal development and well-being of a child. Phares (1996a, 1996b; cited in Prinstein & La Greca, 1999) reported fathers had an important and unique influence on their children's social and emotional development. According to the researchers, in the cognitive-social learning tradition, face-to-face interactions between children and fathers

might help children learn social skills (Parke & O'Neil, 1997 as cited in Parke et al., 2002). A father's ability as a play partner has also been positively linked to children's social competence with peers (Parke et al., 2002). Tamis-LeMonda (2004) reported that fathers were important because of the unique (and biologically determined) ways they interact with their children specifically through non-object-related play engagement.

Parenting style and adolescent co-dependency are related. If a father has an authoritarian parenting style, their adolescent children have been found to be co-dependent (Fischer & Crawford, 1992). Parenting style has also been found to be predictive of a child's well-being in the domains of social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development, and problem behavior (Darling, 1999).

In a study by (Culp, Schadle, Robinson & Culp, 2000) examined the relationship of paternal involvement and a young child's perceived self-competence and the parental perceptions of a child's internalizing and externalizing behavioral problems were. Results indicated that mothers in families with high paternal involvement might have a more positive outlook regarding their child's behavior than mothers in families with low paternal involvement. High levels of paternal involvement were considered to be associated with a child's increased feelings of paternal acceptance, a factor that played a role in their development of self-image and self-esteem (Culp, Schadle, Robinson & Culp, 2000).

Another study conducted by Bagner and Eyberg (2003) aimed to examine the impacts of paternal involvement in parent-child interaction therapy. The study participants included a total of 107 families enrolled in parent-child interaction therapy, 56 of which included participation of both parents, 16 of which did not include paternal participation in therapy, and 35 of which were absent-father families. All groups showed

improvements during therapy, and mothers in absent-father families reported better treatment outcomes than in families where fathers were present but did not participate in therapy. However, whereas improvements were maintained in families where fathers participated in training, improvements in absent-father families were reported to have declined significantly at a four-month follow-up.

Studies comparing the effectiveness of training with and without paternal involvement include a study of four-year-old and eight-year old children with fathers who participated in a nine-week parent training program as well as children who had absent fathers (Webster-Stratton, 1985). The most significant improvements were observed immediately after the treatment, and there were no significant differences in outcome between the groups. However, one year after treatment, children whose fathers participated in the training were less non-compliant than children whose fathers did not participate. Moreover, mothers in the group that included paternal participation also criticized their children less often than the mothers in the group that did not include paternal participation.

Firestone, Kelly and Fike (1980) also conducted a study aiming to examine the effectiveness of two parent training groups, one in which both parents participated and one that involved maternal participation only. Parents of 18 out of 31 male children aged three to 11 who exhibited behavior problems including aggression, non-compliance and temper tantrums participated in the study. A behavioral approach to behavior management modeled after the social learning program was used with both treatment groups. While no significant differences in outcome were observed between the two treatment groups, children in both groups were found to show improvements in appropriate behavior at home when compared to a control group.

Another study looking at the effectiveness of maternal and paternal involvement in training was conducted by Tebes, Grady, and Snow (1989), with the aim of testing the effectiveness of parent training on an adolescent child's decisionmaking ability. A total of 122 parents of eighth- and nine-grade students participated in the study, 83 of whom attended a six-session parent course, and the remaining 39 of whom attended a two-session contact control group. The training course included instruction in listening, empathic responding and decisionmaking facilitation skills and also provided information on adolescent development. The results found that parents were able to facilitate decisionmaking behavior in their adolescent children. Moreover, the study strongly indicated that fathers should not be neglected in parent training because they were found equally capable of learning target skills as the mothers who participated in the training course.

Authier, Sherrets and Tramontana (1980) have indicated that rather than any single approach, discipline or doctrine regarding parent education, a combination of techniques and methods may be used to improve parenting potential. Researchers reported that a combination of many techniques and methods could be used in parent education, reflecting a recognition of the diversity of populations participating in parent education programs. Training has been used to address behavioral problems of children (Corcoran, 2000), conduct problems (Webster-Stratton, Reid, Hammond, 2001; McNeil, Eyberg, Eisenstadt, Newcomb & Funderburk, 1991; Eisenstadt, Eyberg, Mcneil, Newcomb, Funderburk, 1993), and parent-child interaction (Brestan, Eyberg, Bogs & Algina, 1997).

Related literature includes parent involved studies on different dimensions of children. Researchers investigated the effects of parent involvement, parent education and parenting style on the variables such

as social skills and peer relations of children. There are also a few experimental studies testing the effect of both father involvement and mother involvement.

## **2.5. Parent Education and Social Skills Training in Turkey**

A limited number of studies have been reported on the topic of parent education in Turkey (Akkök & Sucuoğlu 1988a, 1988b; Aydın, 2003; Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005). Akkök and Sucuoğlu (1988a) examined the effects of parental guidance on enhancing social skills of their children. The subjects were 14 kindergarten children and their parents, who participated in an eight-week program in which parents were informed about social skills activities and were asked to conduct these activities with their children in the experimental group. The activities included introducing oneself, understanding and expressing feelings, sharing, dealing with difficult situations, asking questions, understanding others' feelings and accepting consequences. The results showed improvements in the children's social skills following the program. A follow-up study conducted three months after the program (Akkök & Sucuoğlu 1988b) showed that the children's social skills had increased significantly.

As part of a study entitled Parent Programs in Special Education designed for parents of mentally retarded children, Sucuoğlu, Küçüker and Kanık (1994) prepared a structured parent education program that was based on the behavioral approach and supported with a parent guidebook (Akkök & Sucuoğlu, 1990) and videotape. The program was implemented as a work group study, which allowed parents of mentally retarded children to share their experiences and knowledge about the subjects by interacting with each other. Fathers and mothers participating in the study were grouped separately. Feedback comments

from parents revealed they enjoyed and benefited from the program and applied the knowledge obtained in the program in their daily lives.

A study by Aydın (2003) specifically aimed to investigate the effects of training with paternal participation on the level of paternal engagement and perceptions of the fathering role. The study compared an experimental group and control group of 10 fathers each, all of whom had children enrolled in pre-school or kindergarten at METU. Subjects in the experimental group participated in training aimed to help fathers realize their importance in the lives of their children, increase awareness of their children's needs and support developmentally appropriate parenting skills. Results indicated significant differences in post-test scores between the experimental and control groups. Similarly, evaluation reports indicated that the program contributed positively to the communication between fathers and children.

In a study conducted with parents of older children, Utku (1999) examined the effects of a parent involvement program on the academic achievement and social skills of sixth-grade students. Results showed significant improvements in the achievement test scores of children whose parents participated in the program. However, no significant differences were found in the social skill levels of children whose parents participated in the program when compared with children whose parents did not participate in the program. between the experimental and control group in terms of social skills. In contrast to this, direct observations by parents and teachers indicated that the program had a positive effect on children's social competence as well as their academic competence.

Özeke-Kocabaş (2005) also examined the effects of parent training on different dimensions of parent-adolescent relationships and communication skills of parents. The study utilized an experimental

design with one treatment and one control group and pre-test, post-test and follow-up measurements. A five-session training program (bi-weekly, 1.5 hour sessions) was administered to parents of ninth- and tenth-grade students that consisted of activities aimed at improving parent-child relationships. The study focused on developing parental social skills in order to improve parental communication, increase parent satisfaction and improve parenting skills (e.g. time management, obtaining more information about their children). Although no significant quantitative differences were found between groups as a result of the training, qualitative findings revealed that the training helped parents to develop more positive interactions with their children.

A training manual developed by Akkök (1996a, 1996b) represents another contribution in the area of parent education in Turkey. The manual contains 42 activities, including those addressing basic social skills such as cooperative work, dealing with feelings, coping with aggression, problem-solving and coping with teasing, as well as activities designed to enhance self-esteem.

In addition to programs designed for parents, studies have also examined the relationship between children's psychological characteristics and parental attitudes and parenting skills. Characteristics that parents value in their children were measured in an international study conducted in nine different countries (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981). "Obedience to parents," mentioned by 60 percent of respondents, was found to be the characteristic Turkish parents found most desirable in their children, whereas only 18 percent of parents considered "independence and self-confidence" to be valuable characteristics in children.

In a 2002 study, Tunç examined the relationship between perceptions of childrearing styles and self-esteem among 755 high school students (354 female, 401 male). The findings indicated that adolescents who

reported their parents to be “authoritarian” had a relatively low level of self-esteem when compared to those who perceived their parents to be “authoritative”, “permissive” or “indulgent”.

Akbaba (1988) conducted research into the relationship between parent attitudes and characteristics such as self-image, time-management skills and ability to establish relations with others in a study covering 112 third-grade students in Turkey. Results indicated that a democratic parental attitude had a positive effect on self-image and time management skills, but a negative effect on a child’s ability to establish relationships with others. Conversely, both authoritarian attitudes and lack of authority/concern had negative effects on children’s self-image and time management skills, but a positive effect on their ability to establish relations with others.

Duru (1995) also investigated the relationship between self-esteem and perceptions of parental attitude among elementary school students. The results yielded a positive relationship between perceptions of a democratic attitude on the part of parents and high self-esteem in children. No significant relationships were found between self-esteem and other independent variables, such as gender, birth order, attendance in kindergarten, closeness of child-parent bonds, parental education levels, maternal professional background or academic achievement.

Another study by Torucu (1990) examining the effects of socio-economic status as well as parental attitudes on the self-esteem of children aged 13-14 years. Results indicated that while there was a significant relationship between paternal attitude and self-esteem, there was no significant relationship between maternal attitude and self-esteem. Children whose fathers displayed democratic attitudes were also found to have higher levels of self-esteem than other children.

Close inspection of the literature suggests that researchers have recently begun to show a greater interest in studies dealing with the social skills of children, social skills training and the relation of social skills with some variables (Aydın, 1985; Şahiner, 1994; Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 1999; Şahin, 1999; Cerrahoğlu, 2002; Kocayörük, 2000, Uz-Baş, 2003; Sert, 2003).

Among recent studies looking at the effect of social skills training designed for children and adolescents, Aydın (1985) investigated the effectiveness of social success training and social skills training on learned helplessness of elementary school children. As part of the study, thirty children considered unpopular and helpless received social skills training delivered in 10 separate sessions. Results indicated a significant improvement in social skills attribution and sociometric scores following the training.

Sümer-Hatipoğlu (1999) conducted a study that aimed to determine the student, teacher and parent perceptions of social skills of sixth- and seventh-grade Turkish students, to determine the relationship between social skills and sociometric status of the same students, and to design and evaluate the effects of a social skills training program. A total of 382 students, their parents and their teachers from four public elementary schools in Ankara participated in the first phase of the study. A 3×2 experimental design with one treatment group and two control groups (placebo-attention control, no treatment control) and two measurements (pre-test, post-test) was used to investigate the effectiveness of the training program. In the second phase of the study, the sample consisted of 21 students considered deficient in terms of social skills. The five-week, bi-weekly training program was based on principles of social learning and covered 42 prosocial skills in 45-minute training sessions. Results found the Social Skills Rating System-Student, Teacher and Parent forms developed in this study to be considerable

useful in assessing the social skills of sixth- and seventh-grade Turkish students. However, the results showed the program had no effect on increasing the social skills or sociometric status of skill-deficient subjects.

In a study examining the effects of drama on improving social skills of sixth-, seventh- and eighth-grade students, Kocayörük (2000) found that a two-week social skills training program incorporating drama improved the social skills of those students who participated.

Yukay (2003) developed a social skills training program for third-grade elementary school students that consisted of techniques including informing, modeling, role playing, feedback on behavior, practicing and interaction. Program contents included establishing social relationships, recognizing feelings, empathizing, self-respect, self-confidence, self-image, compromising and problem-solving skills. Data analysis found statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups, indicating that the training program had a supportive and beneficial effect on the social skills of students in the experimental group.

In a study of 28 (14 experimental, 14 control) seventh-grade students, Cerrahoğlu (2002) investigated the effects of social skills training on self-image levels of middle school students. The experimental group received social skills training in 10 weekly sessions that focused on human relations and effective communication, informing, following a model, role playing, feedback, practicing and interaction. The results showed that the social skills training program had a positive effect on the self-image levels of the students who participated.

Uz-Baş (2003) examined the relationship between the social skills and school adaptation and depression levels in 365 (180 female, 185 male) fourth- and fifth-grade students. The findings revealed a meaningful

negative relation between social skills and school adaptation and depression level of the students.

Studies of specific social skills that have been conducted in Turkey include a study by Çulha and Dereli (1987), which investigated the effects of assertiveness training on the assertiveness levels of high school students. Findings indicated that the training was effective in increasing the assertiveness levels of the students who participated.

A study by Şahin (1999) looked at the effects of communication skills training on loneliness and assertiveness levels of fifth-grade students. Students in an experimental group participated in a six-week, biweekly program in the classroom setting that focused on active listening, listening for feelings, nonverbal communication of feelings, summarizing skills and “I message” activities. Differences in pre-and post-test scores indicated that loneliness decreased and assertiveness increased more among students attending the training program when compared to a control group of students who did not attend.

Another study (Sert, 2003) examining the effects of assertiveness training on children’s assertiveness and self-esteem comprised 24 fifth-grade students who received eight weeks of assertiveness training. The training activities covered such skills as rejecting unreasonable requests, coping with criticism, standing up for rights and learning to discriminate assertive behavior from aggressive and passive behavior. An analysis of assertiveness scores revealed significant differences between experimental and control groups, whereas no significant differences were found in self-esteem scores between the groups. However, qualitative data based on teacher observations revealed that the training contributed positively to the self-esteem of children.

An overview of research conducted in Turkey indicates that the number of child-oriented social skills training programs has increased in recent years. Various studies have also been conducted on parental attitudes, parenting skills and psychological characteristics of children. Despite an increase, there are still limited experimental studies testing the effects of parental participation, especially paternal participation, in training on the skills levels of their children. Importantly, researchers have attempted to involve significant adult figures, particularly parents, in training aimed at improving the social skills of children.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHOD**

This chapter outlines the methodological procedures utilized in this study. It includes an overview of the study design, research questions, variables, population and sample selection, data collection instrument, training procedures, training program, training sessions, data analysis and study limitations.

#### **3.1. The Design of the Study**

This study aimed to investigate the effects of a parent education on the social skills levels of the third grade elementary school students. The sample composed of twenty nine 3rd grade students' parents recruited from a public elementary school. The 3x3 experimental design with two training groups (experimental group I - father involved and experimental group II - father uninvolved) and one control group and three measurements (pre, post and follow-up) were used. The Social Skills Rating System- Parent Form (Gresham & Elliott, 1990) was used to measure the social skills levels of students. The experimental groups received a ten-week parent education which was developed by the researcher while the control group did not receive any education.

#### **3.2. Research Questions**

The following main research question and the sub-questions were asked for the present study.

- 1- What is the effect of parent education on parent ratings of social skills dimension (cooperation, responsibility, assertion and self-control) scores and the total scores of 3<sup>rd</sup> grade students?
  - a- Are there any significant differences between the experimental group I (father involved), experimental group II (father uninvolved) and control group parents' ratings of social skills dimension (cooperation, responsibility, assertion and self-control) scores and the total social skills scores of 3<sup>rd</sup> grade students?
  - b- Are there any significant differences between the pretest, posttest and follow-up ratings of parents on social skills dimension scores and the total social skills scores of experimental group I (father involved)?
  - c- Are there any significant differences between the pretest, posttest and follow-up ratings of parents on social skills dimension scores and the total social skills scores of experimental group II (father uninvolved)?
  - d- Are there any significant differences between the pretest, posttest and follow-up ratings of parents on social skills dimension scores and the total social skills scores of control group?

### **3.3. Variables**

The independent variable of this study was two types of experimental groups (father involved and father uninvolved) and a control group. The dependent variables of this study were social skills dimensions scores and the total social skills score of third grade students.

Group: refers to the parent education program in which the participants were involved and categorized as experimental I (fathers involved),

experimental II (father uninvolved), and the control group including the participants who were not subject to any training.

Dimensions of social skills: refer to the score of four subscales such as assertion, cooperation, responsibility, and self-control of Social Skills Rating System Parent Form.

Social skills total score: refers to the sum of the score obtained from the Social Skills Rating System Parent Form.

### **3.4. Population and Sample Selection**

The population of the study included all parents of third-grade students enrolled in public elementary schools in Bolu.

In the related literature, it has been frequently mentioned that most of the fathers are reluctant to participate in parent education programs (Horton, 1984). Therefore, in order to increase the sample size of volunteer fathers, the most crowded school of the city was selected and the school principal was informed about the study. The principal who displayed a helpful and positive attitude toward the parent education program and the school which had the technical sources (e.g., T.V with scart slot module and meeting room) needed for training program was determined. After determining the school, the researcher announced the program by school bulletin. The written document about corresponding information of the researcher was also announced so that the families would also be informed. In addition, in order to increase the number of volunteer participants, the researcher announced the program in the class meetings held by the teachers monthly and repeated her contact information to be easily reached by the volunteers. The participants consisted of volunteers but were assigned randomly to both experimental and control groups. Among the parents of 105 students in

the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade in a public elementary school, 30 parents volunteered to participate in the study. One of the subjects in the experimental group I (father involved) withdrew from the parent education program due to lack of time in the first week of the training. As stated in the literature, the average rate of dropping out was around 28% in parent training programs (Forehand, Middlebrook, Rogers & Steffe, 1983). Therefore, the dropping out rate in the present study could be considered as acceptable.

Ages and education of the parents were as follows:

Experimental Group I (father involved): Of the nine mothers in this group, four were primary-school graduates, four were high-school graduates and one was a university graduate. Their ages ranged from 27 to 40, with a mean age of 35.3 years (SD=4.9). Of the nine fathers in this group, three were primary-school graduates, four were high-school graduates and two were university graduates. Their ages ranged from 33 to 49, with a mean age of 37.3 years (SD=6.28).

Experimental Group II (father uninvolved): Of the 10 mothers in this group, nine were primary-school graduates and one was a middle-school graduate. Their ages ranged from 29 to 42, with a mean age of 36.1 years (SD=5.50).

Control Group: Of the 10 mothers in this group, six were primary-school graduates, one was a middle-school graduate and three were high-school graduates. Their ages ranged from 29 to 48, with a mean age of 37.5 years (SD=6.63).

### **3.5. Data Collection Instrument**

#### **3.5.1. Social Skills Rating System**

Social skills of children were assessed using the parent form of the SSRS (Appendix A). The SSRS was developed by Gresham and Elliott (1990) to measure social skills of children. It includes 38 items distributed over four dimensions of social behavior: cooperation, assertiveness, responsibility and self-control. Parents rate the perceived frequency of their children's social behavior using a three-point rating scale ranging from 0 to 2, as follows: 0: "the behavior never occurs"; 1: "the behavior sometimes occurs"; and 2: "the behavior occurs very often."

A principal component analysis was conducted to determine the psychometric properties and dimensions of the initial SSRS (Gresham & Elliott, 1990). Factors with Eigenvalues greater than unity, using Kaiser's rule, were retained, and items with factor loadings of .30 or greater were considered to load on a given factor. Factor analyses of the SSRS domains were applied to 816 students from the standardization sample, using parent ratings. The final form of the SSRS-P Elementary Scale included four component factors mentioned above, namely, cooperation, assertiveness, responsibility and self-control.

In the present study, the SSRS-Parent Form was adapted into Turkish. First of all, three independent English literature specialists translated the scale into Turkish. Then, back translation procedure was applied to check the consistency between the translated and the original scale. Finally, the scale was piloted with 402 parents of the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade students in 10 elementary schools in Bolu.

### 3.5.2.1 Validity Study of SSRS Parent Form

In order to determine the dimensions of Social Skills Rating System-Parent Form (SSRS-P), the data obtained from four hundred and two 3<sup>rd</sup> grade students' parents were analyzed by using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. At the end of this analysis, factors were retained with Eigenvalues greater than unity, using Kaiser's rule. Items having factor loadings of .30 or greater than .30 were considered to load on a given factor.

The results of factor analysis revealed differences in factor loading between the original and translated sub-scales. Whereas "cooperates with family" (Item 36) was loaded in the self-control sub-scale in the original, in this study it was loaded in the cooperation sub-scale. "Introduces self" (Item 5) and "asks clerks for assistance" (Item 7) were previously loaded in responsibility, but in this study, they were loaded in assertiveness. "Responds to teasing friends" (Item 32) and "speaks in appropriate tone" (Item 3), both of which were loaded in self-control in the original, as well as "congratulates family member" (Item 11), which was loaded in cooperation, were all loaded in the responsibility sub-scale in the present study. Both "is liked by others" (Item 23) and "accepts friends' ideas" (Item 34), originally loaded in the assertion sub-scale, and "compliments friends" (Item 27), from the cooperation subscale, were loaded in the self-control subscale in this study. As with the original, "refuses unreasonable requests" (Item 9) was loaded in both responsibility and self-control in this study. Finally, "responds appropriately when hit" (Item 6), "shows interest in things" (Item 13) and "answers phone" (Item 18) did not load in any factors and were therefore excluded from the final Turkish version of the SSRS-P. Lists of the four sub-scales, their factor loadings, communalities and itemized contents used in the present study are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1.

*Factors of the Turkish Version of the SSRS Parent Form*

Item	Cooperation	Load	Comn
19	Helps with tasks	.72	.53
2	Keeps room clean	.68	.50
21	Attempts household tasks	.65	.47
15	Puts away property	.63	.43
16	Volunteers help	.62	.43
28	Completes tasks on time	.61	.41
33	Uses time while awaiting help	.46	.34
1	Uses free time	.40	.32
36	Cooperates family members	.38	.27
	<b>Assertion</b>		
12	Makes friends	.56	.42
4	Joins group activities	.52	.36
35	Changes activity	.49	.29
5	Introduces self	.43	.23
24	Starts conversations	.39	.23
30	Is self confident	.34	.23
7	Asks clerks for assistance	.32	.17
10	Invites others home	.32	.11
	<b>Responsibility</b>		
20	Questions unfair rules	.48	.25
9	Refuses unreasonable requests	.46	.34
11	Congratulates family members	.46	.35
8	Attends to speakers at meetings	.45	.31
32	Responds to teasing from friends	.45	.23
31	Requests permission to leave home	.45	.38
38	Reports accidents	.41	.22
29	Asks to use another's property	.39	.24
3	Speaks in appropriate tone	.36	.20
37	Acknowledges praise	.34	.20
	<b>Self-control</b>		
26	Controls temper with you	.67	.51
22	Controls temper with children	.66	.45
25	Ends disagreements calmly	.52	.36
17	Receives criticism well	.49	.32
23	Is liked by others	.45	.22
14	Avoids trouble situations	.41	.34
9	Refuses unreasonable requests	.32	.34
34	Accepts friends' ideas	.38	.16
27	Compliments friends	.35	.25

### 3.5.2.2. Reliability Study of SSRS Parent Form

The internal consistency of the scale was estimated by computing Cronbach's coefficient alpha for each sub-scale score and for the total score. Results of this computation and a comparison with the original scales are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2.

*The reliability of the subscales and total scale of the SSRS parent form*

<b>Subscales and Scale</b>	<b>Coefficient Alpha</b>	<b>Coefficient Alpha of the Original Scale</b>
<b>Cooperation</b>	.80	.77
<b>Assertion</b>	.50	.74
<b>Responsibility</b>	.63	.65
<b>Self-Control</b>	.69	.80
<b>Total Scale</b>	.82	.87

### 3.6. Data Collection Procedures

In the first stage, in order to adapt SSRS parent form into Turkish, the scale was administered to four hundred and two parents of the third grade students in 10 elementary schools in Bolu. In order to establish contact with parents, the researcher visited elementary schools to explain the study and to request permission to apply the scale to parents during a scheduled parent-teacher meeting. Most principals were of the opinion that teachers would prefer not to use the limited time available (meetings with parents were held only once a semester) on applying the scale and offered instead to hold school conferences. Following the conferences, parents volunteered to complete the SSRS-P, which was administered at the schools after being explained by the researcher. It took approximately 25 minutes for parents (either mother or father) to complete the form. All participants were assured of the confidentiality of their responses.

In the second stage, SSRS Parent Form was applied to the subjects of the parent education program. The subjects completed the scale in twenty five minutes. The pretest was applied in the first meeting and the post-test was applied one week after the parent education program terminated, the follow-up measure was obtained three months after the program ended.

### **3.6.1. Training Procedure**

Parents in Experimental Group I (farther involved) and Experimental Group II (father uninvolved) were subject to a parent education program. Parents in the Control Group were not subject to any training.

*Experimental group I (father involved):* Parent education program includes four social skills which are assertiveness, self-control, responsibility and cooperation (Appendix B). The training program was implemented in 10 1.5-hour weekly sessions over a 10-week period. Following the parents' request, sessions were held on Sunday mornings at the Rural Affairs Guesthouse next to the school. The overall aim of the training was to help fathers and mothers realize the importance of social skills in their children's life and how they could teach these skills to their children.

*Experimental group II (father uninvolved):* In this group, only the mothers participated in the parent education program. The training program applied was identical to the program applied to Experimental Group I, except that fathers did not participate. That is, the training program was implemented in 10 1.5-hour weekly sessions over a 10-week period. The overall aim of the training was to help mothers realize the importance of social skills in their children's life and how they could teach these skills to their children.

The following training procedures were used for both experimental groups in each of the sessions:

- 1- A warm atmosphere was provided to ensure group members were confident and comfortable in openly communicating.
- 2- Each session began with a brief summary of the previous session's content and a discussion of the homework assigned during that session.
- 3- A brief lecture was given about the theme of that particular session.
- 4- A video on the theme was viewed and discussed.
- 5- A discussion was held about the subject-parents' attitude and behaviors in situations similar to those presented in the video.
- 6- A discussion was held regarding the subject-parents' perceptions of the behaviors of the parents in the video and the applicability of those behaviors.
- 7- Each session concluded with a summary of the material covered and the assignment of homework.

*Control group:* The parents in this group were not subject to any training.

### **3.6.2. Training Material**

The Parent Education Program used in this study was developed by the researcher and based on Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). Earlier referred to as "Social Learning Theory," SCT posits a mutual relationship between behavior, individual factors and the environment. The SCT can best be visualized as a triangle, with each angle representing a different factor – (1) behavior, (2) cognition and personal factors, and (3) the environment – each of which may mutually affect and be affected by the others (Santrock, 1997). Grounded in SCT, the parent education program applied in this study aimed to help parents

acquire the knowledge and behaviors required to teach social skills to their children. The training materials employed were developed by the researcher in line with training techniques that have proven recognition in obtaining optimum results (O'Rourke & Worzbyt, 1996). Four main techniques were used in the training, namely, instruction, modeling, rehearsal, and feedback.

*Instruction:* Instruction was based on definitions of the target skills as defined in the literature. Brief definitions were provided by the researcher in introducing each skill.

However, programs relying on verbal training methods only, such as didactic lectures, prepared brochures, programmed texts and group discussions, have been found not to have considerable effects on either parent or child behavior (Webster-Stratton, 1981). In contrast to this, learning by observation and imitation has been shown to have considerable impact in Turkish culture (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2000). In commenting on a study conducted by Helling (1966) in a Turkish village, Kağıtçıbaşı (2000) suggested that the parents under observation were displaying the behavior they expected their children to learn through direct observation, rather than through an explanation made while teaching the behavior. The observations indicated similar results after 20 years. Taking into account the effects of cultural learning and the results of previous empirical studies (e.g., Aydın, 1985; Çifci & Sucuoğlu, 2003; Hatipoğlu-Sümer; Şahin, 1999), the training also utilized scenarios written by the researcher as an instruction technique. The performance of these scenarios by amateur actors, recorded on videotape, brought a behavioral model into the classroom.

*Modelling:* According to Bandura, a subject is more likely to pay attention to and imitate the behavior of a model if the subject has positive feelings about the model or perceives himself/herself as similar

to the model (1977 as cited in, Webster-Stratton, 1981; Bandura, 2003). This assumption was taken into consideration when writing the scenarios, each of which was designed to illustrate how parents could teach a specific social skill to their children in a positive, healthy way. Each scenario presented a hypothetical situation in which a child faced some type of difficulty and did not possess the social skill needed for the situation. The validity of the scenarios was obtained by subjecting them to analysis by three professionals. Scenarios were then performed by amateur theater players and recorded on video. By having parents view these videotaped scenarios, each training session presented a positive model for parents as to how they could communicate and teach that session's target skill to their children.

*Rehearsal:* Rehearsal took place in the form of homework assignments structured on the basis of the targeted skill. Homework assignments helped participants to practice the modeled behaviors and teach the target skill to their children. Forms provided by the researcher helped parents to remember the basic points while teaching the skills to their children.

*Feedback/reinforcement:* Review of the homework assignments from the previous training session provided an opportunity for feedback and reinforcement. The researcher tried to give direct and positive feedback to reinforce the transfer and generalization of the behaviors learned in the group.

### **3.6.3. Overview of the Sessions**

#### **Session One**

The main purpose of "Session One" was to help parents understand what was meant by the skill of cooperation. The session began with an

introduction to the group process and an establishment of the group rules. The researcher introduced the training period and procedures, as well as herself, and invited participants to introduce themselves as well. Next, parents stated their expectations from the group. As a result of this, a consensus was reached regarding the rules.

In the second part of the session, the group members talked about their children and their characteristics as a warm-up activity. The researcher then gave a mini-lecture about the session, explaining that the main purpose was to define cooperation. Participants watched a video about cooperation, after which they took part in a discussion about the topic.

In the last part of the session, the parents were assigned homework for the next session.

## **Session Two**

In this session, the purpose was to give information about other dimensions of the cooperation skill such as determining limitations and demanding requests for children.

The session began with a discussion of the previous week's homework, and parents were encouraged to share their feelings about their experience. The researcher then gave a mini-lecture about limitations and requests. Next, the parents watched the first part of a video about cooperation. Following the video, they shared their experiences and solutions on the topic presented in the video. In order to encourage parents to think about other possible solutions and their own behaviors, the researcher asked them to create their own scenarios related to similar problems.

In the second part of the session, parents watched the remaining part of the video. Following the video, they had a discussion that compared the video and their own scenarios, examining similarities and differences.

In the last part of the session, the parents were assigned homework for the next session.

### **Session Three**

In this session, the purpose was to provide the parents an understanding of the “assertiveness” concept.

The session began with a discussion of the previous week’s homework. Then, parents were asked to define “assertiveness.” They gave a number of answers, some of which were not representative of assertive behavior. Some parents explained their expectations as assertive behaviors from their children. Following a discussion on their answers, the researcher added other aspects of assertiveness that were not mentioned by parents. She also initiated a discussion on the differences between assertiveness and aggressiveness, and asked parents whether or not they encouraged aggressive behavior in their children, and what other results and alternative behaviors were possible. Following the discussion, the researcher gave a mini-lecture about assertiveness and explained acceptable ways in which children could express their thoughts and feelings. Differences were pointed out between the “I Message”, which makes our thoughts and feelings acceptable to the receiver, and the “You Message,” which sends the receiver the signal that s/he is being blamed by the sender, and examples were given by the researcher.

In the second part of the session, parents were encouraged to think of ways in which they could reinforce the assertive behavior of their

children. In addition, a summary was repeated of the ways in which children acquire certain skills.

At the end of the session, feeling charts were distributed to parents, and the researcher explained how they could be used. "I message" activity forms were also distributed to parents, and the researcher explained how parents were to perform these activities with their children.

In the last part of the session, the researcher gave a summary of the session, and parents were assigned homework for the next session.

### **Session Four**

The main purpose of Session Four was to explain to parents the importance of when and where the skill of assertiveness is displayed.

In the first part of the session, the previous session was summarized and the homework ("I messages" and "Feeling Chart Activity") was discussed. The parents in both groups, fathers as well as mothers, reported that they and their children had enjoyed playing the game (homework). In addition, fathers reported that the activity was different from most of the activities they had previously engaged in with their children and that the homework activity had provided them the opportunity to spend more time with their children.

In the second part of the session, parents watched a video about "assertiveness," in which some parts of the scenario were left incomplete to invite parents to come up with possible solutions. Each mother and father was asked to fill in the missing parts of the scenario to discover possible solutions. In this way, they were encouraged to find the best solutions to be able to give the best advice to their children. Parents were asked to write their proposed solutions on slips of paper

and place the folded slips of paper in a box provided by the researcher. Each parent then pulled a slip of paper from the box and read the contents to the class. A discussion was then initiated on the subject. As a result of this procedure, participants realized that there could be more than one solution for the same situation.

In the last part of the session, the parents were assigned homework for the next session.

### **Session Five**

The main purpose of Session Five was to help parents understand what was meant by the skill of responsibility and develop ideas as to how they could help their children in acquiring that skill.

The session began with a brief summary of the previous session. The homework was discussed, and parents were asked how they felt while they were performing these activities. Parents then summarized the previous week's homework activities and reported that both they and their children had enjoyed them.

Next, the researcher gave a mini-lecture on the definition of the responsibility skill. Parents were asked to explain their thoughts about the concept and talk about the responsibilities of their children at home. This led to a discussion about the differences between "skill" and "expectation." It was learned that while some of the parents had too many or too great expectations from their children, others had little or no expectations from their children.

In the second part of the session, parents watched a video about the "responsibility skill." Following the video, parents were asked to give

their opinions about the solutions proposed by the parents in the video and state whether or not they would attempt similar actions.

At the end of the session, the researcher distributed a form on responsibility to the parents, who were asked to complete it at home with their children as a homework assignment.

### **Session Six**

The main purpose of Session Six was to explain to parents the importance of the responsibility skill and how that session would help them to teach the skill to their children.

In the first part of the session, the previous session was summarized and the homework about responsibility discussed. Parents shared their experiences, and they all agreed that they and their children had enjoyed doing the activities, which had allowed them the opportunity to think more about what the “responsibility skill” was. Next, parents engaged in a discussion on whether or not there was any relationship between age and responsibility. Parents pointed out that unreasonable expectations that were inappropriate for a child’s age and skills might lead to certain problems.

In the second part of the session, parents watched a video about the responsibility skill. Following the video, they were asked to explain what they thought about the scenario and if they had experienced similar situations. Parents were asked to think about their children’s responsibilities.

In the last part of the session, the session was summarized and parents were assigned homework for the next session.

## **Session Seven**

The main purpose of Session Seven was to help parents to understand the concept of self-control and learn how to help their children by controlling themselves in conflict situations.

The session began with a summary of the previous session on the importance of the responsibility skill and a discussion of the homework. Next, the researcher gave a mini-lecture on the concept of self-control, which was followed by a discussion about the situations in which their children had difficulty in controlling themselves. Parents were encouraged to think about possible resolutions for these difficult situations.

In the second part of the session, parents watched a video about “self-control.” Following the video, parents discussed the scenario and the effectiveness of the methods parents in the scenario used for self-control. They were also asked whether or not they would employ similar techniques.

In the last part of the session, the session was summarized by the researcher, and parents were assigned homework for the next session.

## **Session Eight**

The main purpose of Session Eight was to help parents support their children in acquiring the skill of self-control.

The session began with a summary of the previous session, followed by a discussion of the homework.

In the second part of the session, parents watched a video on how they could support their children in acquiring the self-control skill. Following the video, parents were asked if they had had similar experiences. The researcher then explain the steps involved in problem solving, and parents were encouraged to think about problematic situations and how they behaved in them. The group then discussed the various situations presented as well as possible solutions.

In the last part of the session, the parents were assigned homework for the next session.

### **Session Nine**

Ensuring that parents understand their children's needs and accept them as they are is a prerequisite for providing an appropriate environment in which to display the objective skills that children are expected to acquire during the program. In line with this, the main purpose of Session Nine was to help parents understand the concept of "self-esteem".

The session began with a summary of the previous session and a discussion of the homework.

The second part of the session, the "self-esteem" concept was discussed. Then, a brief lecture was given about self-esteem by the researcher and "four keys" papers were distributed to the parents to help them think about their children. Then, the "children needs" papers including uniqueness, connectivity, power and models were distributed to the parents.

After the parents watched a videotape record about “showing how important the child is”, they were asked to explain how they behaved in similar situations.

In the last part of the session, the parents were assigned homework for the next session.

### **Tenth Session**

The main purpose of Session Ten was to help parents think about how they could act to support the development of their children’s self-esteem.

The session began with a summary of the previous session and a discussion of the homework. Parents were then encouraged to consider their children as unique characters, and they discussed ways they could help their children become aware of their uniqueness. Activities that could help in this area were later summarized.

In the second part of the session, the researcher and parents conducted an evaluation of the program. An evaluation form was distributed to the parents and they were asked if they thought they would benefit from the information learned during the course of the group study.

In the last part of the session, the parents were asked to summarize all the sessions through the experimental research and the evaluation forms were completed.

### **3.7. Data Analysis**

Data were analyzed using Kruskal-Wallis Homogeneity Tests, Mann-Whitney U Tests, Friedman Tests and Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests.

*Kruskal-Wallis Homogeneity Test* evaluates differences in medians among groups (Green, Salkind, & Akey, 1997). In this study the Kruskal-Wallis test was employed to the scores derived from Social Skills Rating System Parent Form of the experimental groups' and control group's subjects in order to estimate the effect of "Parent Education Program".

*Mann-Whitney U Test* evaluates whether the medians on a test variable differ significantly between two groups (Green et al, 1997). The reason for employing Mann-Whitney U in this study was to test the difference between two groups of data. In this study, Mann Whitney U Test was used as a post-hoc test when there was a significant difference found between groups.

*The Friedman Test* is a non-parametric test that compares three or more paired groups (Green et al, 1997). It is used to test whether;

H<sub>0</sub>: treatment effects are identical, or

H<sub>a</sub>: effects of at least one treatment differ from those of at least one other treatment.

In this study, the Friedman test was used to test the difference of experimental groups' and control group's social skills scores on each dimension and total scores according to the pretest, posttest and follow-up measures.

*The Wilcoxon Test* is a nonparametric test that compares two paired groups. It calculates the difference between each set of pairs, and analyzes that list of differences. Wilcoxon Test tests the hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the distributions of the populations from which the sample comes from (Green et al, 1997). In the present study Wilcoxon test was used as a post hoc analysis when there was a significant difference between each groups' pre-post and follow-up scores.

### **3.8. Limitations of the study**

Several limitations of the present study merit further investigations.

First, although the subjects were assigned randomly to groups, the participants were not randomly selected. The participants were voluntary for the parent education. Since the results obtained from a voluntary group, it is not possible to generalize the results of the present study to all parents.

The next limitation of the present study was about the education level of parents. The educational level of the parent subjects was quite low. Hence, it is not possible to generalize the findings to all educational level of parents.

Third, the assessment of social skills was based only on the perceptions of mothers and fathers; other assessments such as those of teachers, peers and self-reporting, were not obtained.

Fourth, because the education program applied in the present study was based on social cognitive theory, the study results should be generalized in this respect.

Finally, because the parents did not permit to record the sessions, the supervision was based merely on verbal reports of the researcher.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study which were obtained by analyzing the data through some non-parametric statistical techniques described in the preceeding chapter.

In the first section, the results of Kruskal-Wallis H Test, which was carried out to investigate the effect of the Parent Education on social skills dimension scores and the total social skills scores of experimental and control groups' parents ratings, are presented.

In the second section, the results of Friedman Test, which was carried out to examine the differences between pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of experimental I (father involved), experimental II (father uninvolved), and control group parents' ratings on social skills dimension scores and the total social skills scores, are presented.

In the third section, the experimental groups' parents reports derived from the training evaluation forms are presented.

#### **4.1. Results concerning the effect of the parent education on social skills dimension scores and the total social skills scores of experimental and control groups' parents' ratings.**

In order to examine the significant differences between the experimental group I (father involved), experimental group II (father uninvolved) and control group parents' ratings of social skills dimension (cooperation,

responsibility, assertion and self-control) scores and the total social skills scores of 3<sup>rd</sup> grade students, three separate Kruskal-Wallis Homogeneity tests were performed. Results of these tests are presented in Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3, respectively.

Table 4.1

*The Mean Ranks of the Experimental and Control Group Subjects for Pretest Scores of SSRS Parent Form*

<b>Dim. Of SSRS</b>	<b>Gr.</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Mean rank</b>	$\chi^2$	<b>df</b>	<b>P</b>
Coop.	Con.	10	11.90	3.14	17.70	1.71	2	.43
	Ex. I	9	10.88	3.17	12.78			
	Ex. II	10	9.90	4.72	14.30			
Asser.	Con.	10	11.30	2.66	15.40	.84	2	.65
	Ex. I	9	11.44	2.55	16.61			
	Ex. II	10	10.50	2.46	13.15			
Resp.	Con.	10	15.00	2.35	15.60	.08	2	.96
	Ex. I	9	14.44	3.39	14.56			
	Ex. II	10	14.10	4.99	14.80			
Self-con.	Con.	10	10.80	3.04	15.95	.49	2	.78
	Ex. I	9	10.77	3.30	15.61			
	Ex. II	10	9.70	3.23	13.50			
Total	Con.	10	49.00	8.17	16.95	.83	2	.27
	Ex. I	9	47.55	9.01	14.33			
	Ex. II	10	44.20	13.15	13.65			

As shown in Table 4.1, Kruskal-Wallis H test revealed that there was no significant difference between control group and experimental groups in terms of pretest scores on the four dimensions and total social skills scores of the SSRS-P.

Table 4.2

*The Mean Ranks of the Experimental and Control Group Subjects for Posttest Scores of SSRS Parent Form*

Dim. of SSRS	Gr.	N	M	Sd	Mean rank	$\chi^2$	df	P
Coop.	Con.	10	12.70	1.94	12.05	2.59	2	.27
	Ex. I	9	14.11	3.95	18.28			
	Ex. II	10	13.40	2.95	15.00			
Asser.	Con.	10	11.40	3.27	12.45	1.40	2	.49
	Ex. I	9	12.44	2.45	16.44			
	Ex. II	10	12.70	1.33	16.25			
Resp.	Con.	10	15.40	2.41	11.75	5.72	2	.06
	Ex. I	9	17.77	1.48	20.50			
	Ex. II	10	16.00	1.76	13.30			
Self-con.	Con.	10	11.70	2.45	9.40	8.28	2	.02*
	Ex. I	9	15.00	2.00	20.44			
	Ex. II	10	13.60	2.59	15.70			
Total	Con.	10	51.20	7.99	10.70	6.84	2	.03*
	Ex. I	9	59.33	6.96	20.78			
	Ex. II	10	55.70	5.47	14.10			

\* $p < .05$

The results of Kruskal-Wallis Test presented in Table 4.2 indicated a significant difference between the gained total scores of experimental groups' subjects and control group subjects, and the dimension of self-control of the SSRS parent form of experimental groups' subjects and control group subjects. The results indicated that the parent training had a significant effect on children's self-control level and total social skills score in terms of post-test scores. Although the results indicated a significant effect on the self-control dimension, no significant effect of parent training on cooperation, assertiveness and responsibility dimensions in terms of posttest scores was observed.

In order to analyze the comparison of the groups in terms of the total score of the scale, three separate Mann-Whitney U Tests were conducted as a post-hoc procedure. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between the experimental group I (father involved) and experimental group II (father uninvolved) ( $z = -2.48$ ,

$p=.04<.05$ ). The experimental group I had an average rank of 12.78, while the experimental group II had an average rank of 7.50. The results indicated that there was also a significant difference between experimental group I (father involved) and control group ( $z= -2.21$ ,  $p=.028<.05$ ). The experimental group I (father involved) had an average rank of 13 while control group had an average rank of 7.30. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between the control group and experimental group II (father uninvolved) ( $p=.24$ ). As shown in table 4.2., the parent education had a significant effect on the total score of children's social skills perceived by parents in terms of post-test scores of experimental group I (father involved).

In order to analyze the comparison of the groups in terms of the self-control dimension score of the scale, three separate Mann-Whitney U Tests were conducted as a post-hoc procedure. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between the experimental group I (father involved) and experimental group II (father uninvolved) ( $p=.18$ ), experimental group II (father uninvolved) and control group ( $p=.75$ ). The results revealed that there was a significant difference between the control group and experimental group I (father involved) ( $z= -2.64$ ,  $p=.008<.05$ ). The experimental group I (father involved) had an average rank of 13.56 while control group had an average rank of 6.80. As shown in Table 4.2., the parent education had a significant effect on the self-control dimension of children's social skills in terms of posttest scores of father involved group parents' ratings.

Table 4.3

*The Mean Ranks of the Experimental and Control Group Subjects for Follow-Up Scores of SSRS Parent Form*

Dim. of SSRS	Gr.	N	M	Sd	Mean rank	$\chi^2$	df	P
Coop.	Con.	10	11.30	3.33	13.75	.43	2	.81
	Ex.I	9	12.00	4.41	16.28			
	Ex. II	10	11.30	4.83	15.10			
Asser.	Con.	10	11.20	2.48	12.10	1.87	2	.39
	Ex.I	9	12.66	2.12	17.00			
	Ex. II	10	12.10	2.88	16.10			
Resp.	Con.	10	15.70	1.94	12.95	4.02	2	.13
	Ex.I	9	17.33	1.73	19.67			
	Ex. II	10	14.90	3.63	12.85			
Self-con.	Con.	10	12.10	2.07	13.10	3.59	2	.17
	Ex.I	9	14.22	2.77	19.39			
	Ex. II	10	11.90	2.33	12.95			
Total	Con.	10	50.30	7.71	13.00	1.65	2	.44
	Ex.I	9	56.22	8.52	17.89			
	Ex. II	10	50.20	11.39	14.40			

As presented in Table 4.3, The Kruskal-Wallis H test indicated that there was no significant difference between control and experimental groups in terms of follow-up scores on each perceived dimension of social skills score and the total score of SSRS-P.

#### **4.2. Results concerning the differences between pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of experimental I (father involved), experimental II (father uninvolved), and control group parents' ratings on social skills dimension scores and the total social skills scores.**

In this section, the results of Friedman Tests which were carried out to investigate the differences between pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of experimental group I (father involved), experimental group II (father uninvolved), and control group parents' ratings on social skills dimension scores and the total social skills scores, are presented. In order to examine the differences in pretest, posttest and follow-up

measures of each group, fifteen separate Friedman Tests were conducted. The results are presented in Table 4.4 through Table 4.6.

Table 4.4

*The Mean Ranks of the Experimental Group I Subjects for Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up Measures of SSRS Parent Form*

Dim. of SSRS	Test	N	M	Sd	Mean rank	$\chi^2$	df	P
Coop.	Pre.	9	10.88	3.18	1.67	4.47	2	.11
	Post.	9	14.10	3.95	2.56			
	Follow-up	9	12.00	4.41	1.78			
Asser.	Pre.	9	11.44	2.55	1.72	1.12	2	.57
	Post.	9	12.44	2.45	2.17			
	Follow-up	9	12.66	2.12	2.11			
Resp.	Pre.	9	14.44	3.39	1.28	8.90	2	.01*
	Post.	9	17.77	1.48	2.61			
	Follow-up	9	17.33	1.73	2.11			
Self-con.	Pre	9	10.77	3.30	1.33	8.00	2	.02*
	Post	9	15.00	2.00	2.44			
	Follow-up	9	14.22	2.77	2.22			
Total scale	Pre	9	47.55	9.01	1.33	6.88	2	.03*
	Post	9	59.33	6.96	2.56			
	Follow-up	9	56.22	8.52	2.11			

\* $p < .05$

In order to test the difference between pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of the experimental group I (father involved) parents' ratings of social skills dimension scores and the total score, Friedman test was used. As seen in Table 4.4., there was a significant gain for the dimensions of "responsibility" and "self-control" and total scores of the experimental group I (father involved) from pretest to follow-up measures. The results indicated no gain in other dimensions.

Three separate Wilcoxon Signed Rank tests were conducted as a post-hoc procedure in order to analyze the difference between the pretest-

posttest, posttest- follow-up and pretest -follow-up measures of the subjects. The results of the analysis indicated that there was a significant difference between pretest-posttest ( $z = -2.52, p = .012 < .05$ ). There was also a significant difference between pretest-follow-up measures of the subjects ( $z = -2.07, p = .038 < .05$ ). There was no significant difference between the posttest and follow-up measures of the subjects ( $p = .39$ ) in terms of pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of the responsibility dimension perceived by parents.

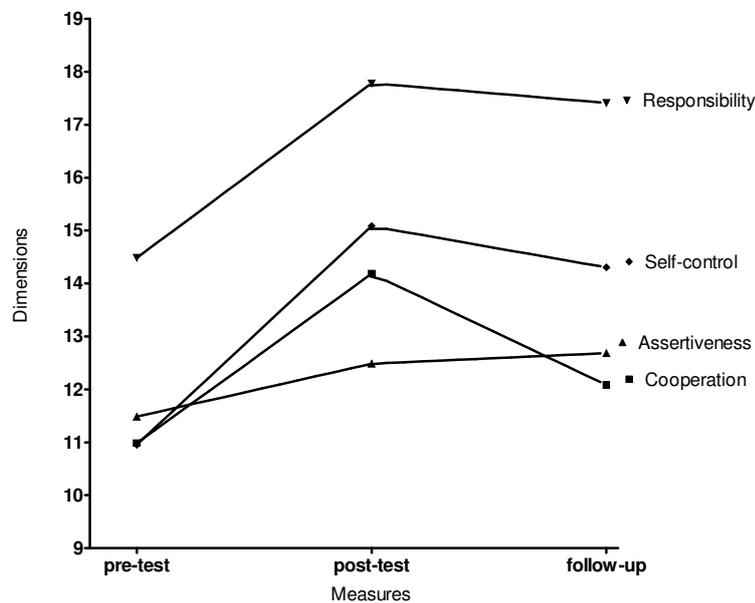
In order to determine the improvement of the self-control dimension of the subjects in terms of pretest, posttest and follow-up measures, Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used as a post hoc procedure. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between the pretest-posttest ( $z = -2.24, p = .025 < .05$ ), pretest-follow-up measures of the subjects ( $z = -2.20, p = .027 < .05$ ) and there was no significant difference between the posttest and follow-up measures of the subjects ( $p = .45$ ) in terms of the self-control dimension. The result showed that there was a significant gain of the experimental group I (father involved) subjects in terms of pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of self-control dimension perceived by parents.

In order to analyze the total score of the subjects in terms of pretest, post test and follow-up measures, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was used as a post hoc procedure. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between pretest-posttest ( $z = -2.43, p = .015 < .05$ ), and there was no significant difference between pretest-follow-up measures of the subjects ( $p = .05$ ) and posttest and follow-up measures of the subjects ( $p = .21$ ) in terms of the total scale scores. The results also showed that there was a significant gain of the experimental group I (father involved) subjects in terms of these pretest- posttest measures of total social skills score according to parents' perceptions. The

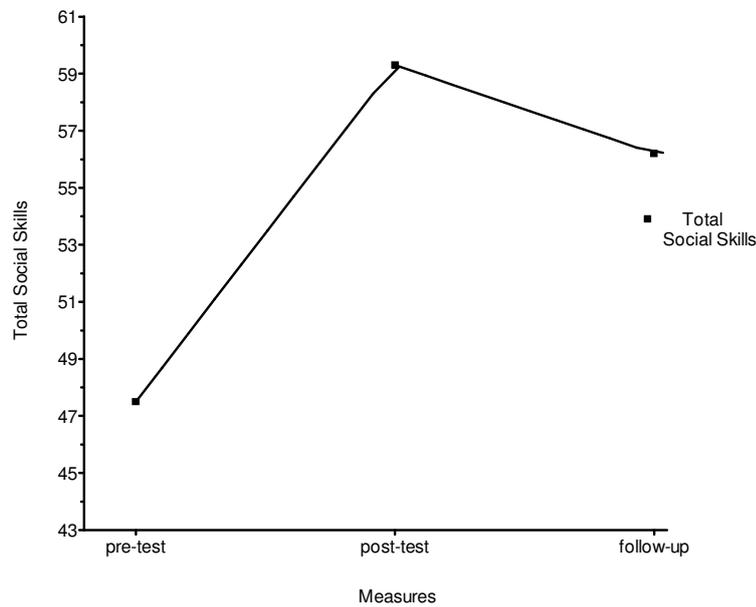
improvement in the social skills of the experimental group I (father involved) subjects was no longer lasting.

Even though there was an observable difference between the pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of experimental group I (father involved) subjects in terms of cooperation and assertiveness, the statistical analysis indicated that there was no significant difference between the pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of cooperation and assertiveness. There was no significant gain of the experimental group I (father involved) in terms of pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of the cooperation and assertiveness dimensions.

The figures 4.1 and 4.2 show the differences in more detail.



**Figure 4.1** Pre-post and follow-up results of the experimental I group (father involved) subjects on the four dimensions of SSRS-P.



**Figure 4.2** Pre-post and follow-up results of the experimental I group (father involved) subjects on the total social skills score.

As Figures 4.1 and 4.2 indicate, there were observable increases in perceived dimensions of cooperation, responsibility and self-control at post-test, and as a result of these improvements, in total social skills scores at post-test as well. The figures also show slight but observable decreases in these three dimensions and in total social skills scores at follow-up.

Table 4.5

*The Mean Ranks of the Experimental Group II Subjects for Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up Measures of SSRS Parent Form*

Dim. of SSRS	Test	N	M	Sd	Mean rank	$\chi^2$	df	p
Coop.	Pre.	10	9.90	4.72	1.30	10.17	2	.006*
	Post.	10	13.40	2.95	2.65			
	Follow-up	10	11.30	4.83	2.05			
Asser.	Pre.	10	10.50	2.46	1.45	4.48	2	.09
	Post.	10	12.70	1.33	2.30			
	Follow-up	10	12.10	2.88	2.25			
Resp.	Pre.	10	14.10	4.99	1.65	2.11	2	.35
	Post.	10	16.00	1.76	2.25			
	Follow-up	10	14.90	3.63	2.10			
Self-con.	Pre	10	9.70	3.23	1.20	14.60	2	.001*
	Post	10	13.60	2.59	2.75			
	Follow-up	10	11.90	2.33	2.05			
Total scale	Pre	10	44.20	13.15	1.20	12.00	2	.002*
	Post	10	55.70	5.47	2.70			
	Follow-up	10	50.20	11.39	2.10			

\* $p < .05$

In order to test the difference between pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of the experimental group II (father uninvolved) parents' ratings of social skills dimension score and the total score, Friedman test was used. As seen in Table 4.5., there was a significant gain in the "cooperation" and "self-control" dimensions and total scores perceived by parents of the experimental group II (father uninvolved) from pretest to follow-up measures. The subjects did not show any progress in other dimensions.

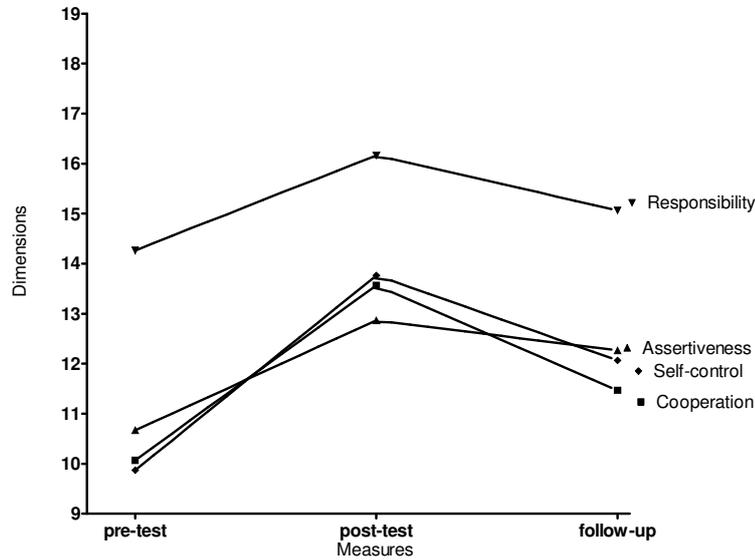
The analysis of the difference between the pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of the subjects was calculated by Wilcoxon Signed Rank test which was used as a post hoc procedure. The results of the analysis indicated that there was a significant difference between the

pretest-posttest ( $z = -2.44$ ,  $p = .015 < .05$ ), and there was no significant difference between pretest-follow-up measures ( $p = .108$ ) and between posttest and follow-up measures of the subjects ( $p = .068$ ) in terms of the cooperation dimension.

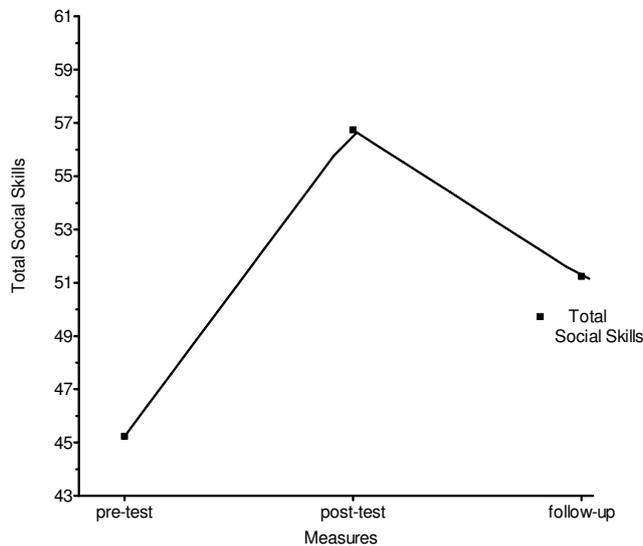
Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used as a post hoc procedure to determine the improvement of the self-control dimension of the subjects in terms of pretest, posttest and follow-up measures. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between pretest-posttest ( $z = -2.68$ ,  $p = .007 < .05$ ), pretest-follow-up measures of the subjects ( $z = -2.40$ ,  $p = .016 < .05$ ) and there was no significant difference between posttest and follow-up measures of the subjects ( $p = .105$ ) in terms of the self-control dimension.

Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used to determine the improvement of the total score of the subjects in terms of pretest, posttest and follow-up measures. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between pretest-posttest ( $z = -2.80$ ,  $p = .005 < .05$ ), pretest-follow-up measures of the subjects ( $z = -2.50$ ,  $p = .012 < .05$ ) and there was no significant difference between the posttest and follow-up measures of the subjects ( $p = .123$ ) in terms of the total social skills score.

Although there was an observable difference between pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of experimental group II (father uninvolved) subjects in terms of responsibility and assertiveness, the statistical analysis indicated that there was no significant difference between pretest, posttest and follow-up measure. There was no significant improvement of the experimental group II (father uninvolved) in terms of these dimensions. The figures 4.3 and 4.4 show the differences in more detail.



**Figure 4.3** Pre-post and follow-up results of the experimental II group (father uninvolved) subjects on the four dimensions of SSRS-P.



**Figure 4.4** Pre-post and follow-up results of the experimental II group (father uninvolved) subjects on the total social skills score.

As Figures 4.3 and 4.4 indicate, there were observable increases in perceptions of all four dimensions of social skills (cooperation, responsibility, assertiveness and self-control) at post-test, and, as a result, in total skills at post-test as well. The figures also show an

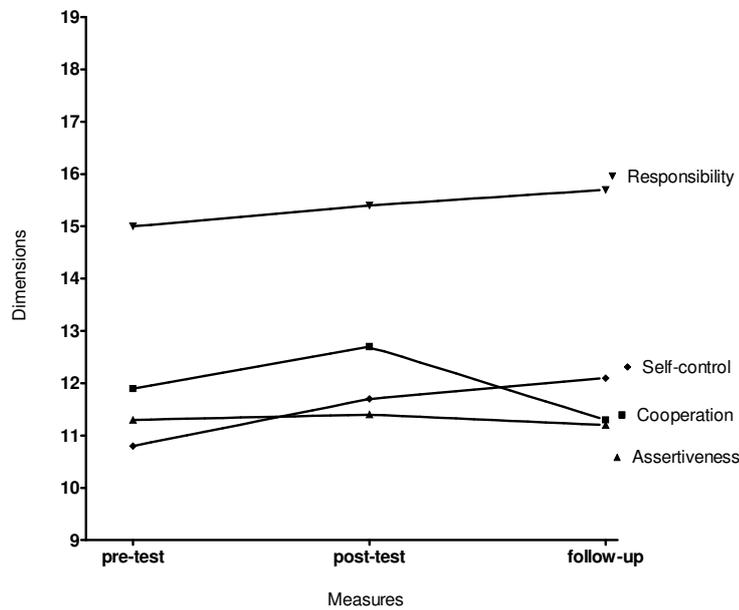
observable decrease in all four dimensions as well as in total social skills scores at follow-up.

Table 4.6

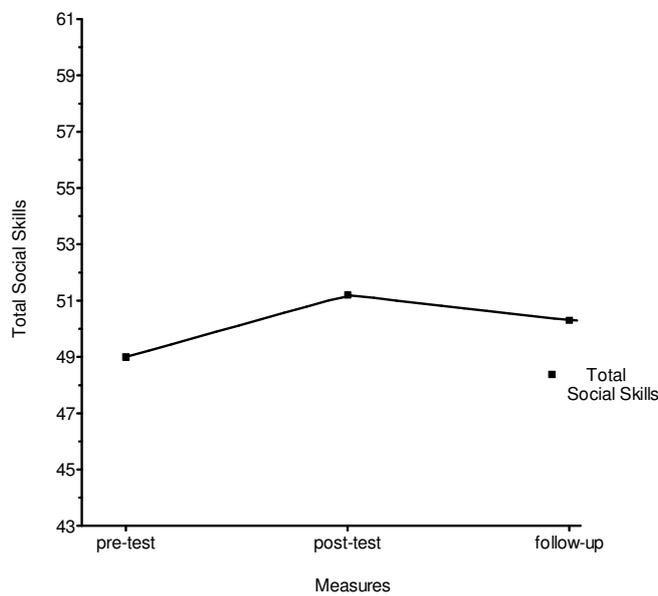
*The Mean Ranks of the Control Group Subjects for Pretest, Posttest, and Follow-Up Scores of SSRS Parent Form*

<b>Dim. of SSRS</b>	<b>Test</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Mean rank</b>	$\chi^2$	<b>df</b>	<b>p</b>
Coop.	Pre.	10	11.90	3.14	2.0	.47	2	.78
	Post.	10	12.70	1.94	2.15			
	Follow-up	10	11.30	3.33	1.85			
Asser.	Pre.	10	11.30	2.66	1.80	1.03	2	.59
	Post.	10	11.40	3.27	2.20			
	Follow-up	10	11.20	2.48	2.00			
Resp.	Pre.	10	15.00	2.35	1.70	2.25	2	.32
	Post.	10	15.40	2.41	2.00			
	Follow-up	10	15.70	1.94	2.30			
Self-con.	Pre	10	10.80	3.04	1.55	3.29	2	.19
	Post	10	11.70	2.45	2.25			
	Follow-up	10	12.10	2.07	2.20			
Total scale	Pre	10	49.00	8.17	1.55	3.84	2	.15
	Post	10	51.20	7.99	2.40			
	Follow-up	10	50.30	7.71	2.05			

In order to test the difference between pretest, posttest and follow-up measures of the control group parents' ratings of social skills dimension scores and the total score, Friedman test was used. According to the results of Friedman test seen in Table 4.4., there was no significant improvement in the four dimensions and the total score of social skills of control group children. The figures 4.5 and 4.6 show the difference between pre-test, post-test and follow-up scores of control group's subjects in more detail.



**Figure 4.5** Pre-post and follow-up results of the control group subjects on the four dimensions of SSRS-P.



**Figure 4.6** Pre-post and follow-up results of the control group subjects on the total social skills score.

As the figures 4.5 and 4.6 indicate, there were no observable increases in any of the four dimensions of social skills (cooperation, responsibility, assertiveness and self-control) or total social skills scores at post-test or follow-up in the Control Group.

In sum, the results that were presented in this chapter revealed that the parent education had a significant effect on the self control dimension of the subjects of the Experimental group I (father involved) and there was a total gain in the social skills level. However, the gain was not maintained after three months follow-up.

In addition, the results of the analysis revealed that the responsibility, self-control and total social skills of the Experimental group I (father involved) subjects showed an improvement. The improvements of the group in terms of self-control and responsibility dimensions were maintained at follow-up scores.

The analysis revealed that the experimental group II (father uninvolved) subjects improved in dimension of cooperation, self-control and total scores in terms of parent ratings. The improvements of the group in terms of self-control dimension and total social skills score were maintained after three months follow-up.

#### **4.3.1 Participants' Evaluation of Parent Education**

At the end of the 10-week Parent Education, participants (Experimental Group I and II) filled out an evaluation form designed to evaluate positive and negative effects of the training, if any, on themselves and their children. The evaluation form was designed by the researcher and contained the following four open-ended questions:

1. How would you describe yourself as a mother/father before the program?
2. How would you describe yourself as a mother/father after the program?

3. Has there been any difference in your behavior towards your children since attending the program? If yes, what are they?

4. Have there been any differences in your child's behavior since you attended the program? If yes, what are they?

The parent evaluation forms were completed during the final week of the program. Content analysis was then used to analyze the information provided. The aim of content analysis is to bring to light pertinent information that may be concealed within the data gathered. Grouping together similar data under certain concepts/themes facilitates their interpretation by organizing them in such a way that they can be easily understood (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2003). In this study, data from the evaluation forms were organized under the general headings of "Communication Style", "Feelings About Themselves" and "Behavioral Changes." The quotations of the mothers in experimental group II (father uninvolved) were given as capital letters (as A, B, C... etc) while the quotations of the mothers in experimental group I (father involved) were given as numbers (as 1, 2, 3... etc.) and the quotations of the fathers in the experimental group I (father involved) were given as Roman numerals (as I, II, III... etc.).

### **Communication style**

A large portion of mothers in Experimental Group I (father involved) said that before the Parent Education they were "aggressive towards their children", gave them orders, experienced sudden bursts of anger and refused to accept their children's mistakes. The following quotation provides an example of how mothers in Experimental Group I (father involved) evaluated their communication style before the training program, along with the respondent codes and response frequency.

“Before I joined this program, I was a more strict and more aggressive mother. I stuck strictly to the rules. I would give [my children] orders more frequently. I used to force them to be how I wanted. I wanted them to be perfect” – Respondent 6 (Respondents 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8; Response Frequency: 66.7%).

Responses to questions on the evaluation forms indicated mothers in Experimental Group I (father involved) experienced changes in their communication style following the program. Particularly noteworthy is the awareness they developed, particularly in regard to the language of communication. Statements such as “I speak in a language my child can understand”, “I am more tolerant and insightful” and “I am more perceptive and show love to my children” can be considered an indication of great improvement in mother-child communication after the program. The following quotation provides an example of the positive change in communication among mothers in Group I after the program, along with respondent codes and response frequency.

“We’ve learned to listen first and then solve problems by talking about them. I have more flexible rules now. I tell them that I may get upset because of their mistakes, but I still love them.” – Respondent 6 (Respondents 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8; Response Frequency: 66.7%)

Responses to the question about maternal behavior changes also revealed similar positive changes in communication of mothers in Group I (father involved), as in the statement below.

“I listen to what my child says. I try to explain how to correct mistakes calmly and patiently without shouting. I spend more time with [my children]. I can share my feelings with them more easily.” – Respondent 6 (Respondents 3, 5, 6, 8; Response Frequency: 44.4%)

Statements by mothers, such as “I used to use commands” to describe former behavior are significant in that they indicate the training program achieved its goals and the concepts employed in the program have largely been embraced. Moreover, the terminology used by mothers in their reporting is striking in that it connotes that the targeted behaviors of the program have been internalized.

Like the mothers, fathers also described themselves as ill-tempered and aggressive before taking part in the program. Clearly, both parents felt they had negative communication styles before training. It is easily understood that the fathers and mothers now find similar communication styles negative. The following quotation provides an example of how fathers evaluated their communication style before the training program, along with the respondent codes and response frequency.

“I was inexperienced and ill-tempered; I would sometimes forget how to approach a child and have to ask their mother for help. Now I see myself as a different person.”– Respondent III (Respondents II, III, V, IX; Response Frequency: 44.4%).

Statements by fathers indicated the communication style they used with their children changed after they took part in training, becoming more relaxed and friendly. The following quotation provides an example of how fathers evaluated their communication style after the training program.

“I’ve become a more patient, indulgent, self-sacrificing and self-denying father who spends more time with his children and takes time to do fun things.” – Respondent II (Respondents I, II, IV, V; Response Frequency: 44.4%)

Comments like the one below, in response to the question about changes in parental behavior, are also indications that father's communication with their children improved following the program.

"I don't get angry; instead, I try to help [my child] by explaining things. We get on well with each other now." – Respondent III (Respondents III, IV, VI; Response Frequency: 33.3%)

As with the other participants, mothers in Group II (father uninvolved) also characterized their communication before the program as ill-tempered, loud and aggressive, as the following response to the question, "How would you describe yourself as a mother/father before the program?" indicates.

"I used to get angry with my children easily and start yelling at them, and this would make me feel terrible. Now, I absolutely do not yell at my children, and I feel very good." – Respondent D (Respondents D, E, F, G, J; Response Frequency: 50%)

In contrast, after the program mothers in Group II (father uninvolved) described themselves as calm, well-tempered, insightful, sensitive, perceptive, and tolerant. They reported they had ceased to yell at their children and that they began to accept their behavior as normal when they understood it was typical for their age. They also started to spend more time with their children. The following example shows how mothers in Group II (father uninvolved) perceived positive changes in their communication with their children.

"Since I joined the program, I've become a mother who reacts calmly to her children, who doesn't get angry for the slightest thing. Once I understood that other children in the same age group displayed similar behaviors, which I had considered wrong, I realized that these

behaviors were in fact normal for their age. I tried to explain things to my child nicely, and I saw an improvement in the end.” – Respondent A (Respondents A, C, D, E, F, G, J, K; Response Frequency: 80%)

In responding to the question about changes in their behavior to their children as a result of the program, mothers in Group II (father uninvolved) reported changes in how they communicated with their children, indicating in particular that they had learned to talk with their children much more clearly about everything, that they got along better with and listened more to their children, and that rather than getting angry, they tried to solve problems by talking about them. The example below is typical of the comments from mothers in Group II (father uninvolved).

“My behavior changed after I joined the program. For example, when I wanted [my child] to do something, I did not give orders. I asked him kindly, “Could you...?” without shouting. I gave him some responsibilities. I didn’t insist on making him do his homework. I played with him and listened to him, looking him in the eye. When I got angry, I waited until I was calm so neither he nor I got upset.” – Respondent J (Respondents C, D, E, J; Response Frequency: 40%)

### **Feelings about themselves**

Responses provided in the parent evaluation form indicated mothers in Experimental group I (father involved) feelings about themselves were very different before and after the training program. Their comments indicated that they had tended to feel inadequate before the program, and this caused them to worry, as the following quotation shows.

“I used to feel inadequate sometimes and worried I would do something wrong in response to some words or actions of my child.” – Respondent 3 (Respondents 1,3,7; Response Frequency: 33.3%)

In contrast to this, responses indicate that mothers felt more self-confident, more aware and more self-sufficient after the program. They also had a positive attitude towards parent education. The following is a quotation from a mother in Group I (father involved) and that they were able to maintain this positive feelings about themselves.

“I am self-confident. I am an aware mother.” – Respondent 3 (Respondents 3, 7, 9; Response Frequency: 33.3%)

Responses to the question regarding changes in their behavior towards their children indicated that parents had mothers in Group I (father involved) had increased their awareness about their children as individuals, and that taking part in different activities with their children had helped them to become more self-confident and thus happier and at peace with themselves. In addition to increasing their awareness about how valuable their children were, knowledge gained during the program endowed them with a positive attitude towards information. This may be considered an indication that they are likely to be open to learning new information. The following is a quotation from a mother in Group I (father involved) and that they were able to maintain this positive feelings about themselves.

(4) “I realized that I was a mother, and I have a child, and she is growing up. I realized how I could share the same feelings with her.” – Respondent 4 (Respondents 1, 4, 7, 9; Response Frequency: 44.4%).

From their responses in the parent evaluation forms, it is clear that fathers, too, felt themselves to be inadequate and lacking in awareness before the program, as the below response indicates.

“I was inadequate in some ways.” – Respondent IV (Respondents IV, VI; Response Frequency: 22.2%).

In contrast, after the program fathers considered themselves to be adequate, informed more experienced and in general better parents. It can be said that the information gained by the fathers helped them to feel better and become more self-confident as the quotation below shows.

“I see myself as a very good father now. I feel well-informed. Even the way I talk with my child has changed. Now, I love my child very much, and I feel much better myself.” – Respondent I (Respondents I, III, IX; Response Frequency: 33.3%)

As stated by a father when asked, “After the program, are there any differences about your behaviors towards your children? If yes, what kind of differences are they? practicing the learned information allowed them to spend more time with their children and be happier.

“Before I used to spend time with my child, too, but now I practice what I’ve learned, and not only am I happier, but my child is happier, too.” – Respondent IX (Respondent IX; Response Frequency: 11.1%)

Mothers in experimental group II also reported negative self-images before the training program, saying they considered themselves inadequate, helpless and introverted. The quotation below is typical of their responses in the parent evaluation form.

“I didn’t consider myself adequate. I was afraid of thinking that I wouldn’t be able to provide necessary information and thus I would fail to educate my child.” – Respondent H (Respondents H, K; Response Frequency: 20.0%)

After the program, mothers in experimental group II perceived themselves to be more knowledgeable, happier, more relaxed, friendly, aware and adequate as mothers, and they had a positive attitude toward parental education. .An example quotation chosen from the mothers' answers is given below.

“I realized that I communicated with my child in an incorrect way. Without professional advice, one can consider oneself perfect and can't see mistakes. I was pleased to help my child in acquiring good habits. Now, I believe I am a good mother.” – Respondent J (Respondents B, D, G, J; Response Frequency: 40.0%)

Whereas mothers in experimental group II were observed to use negative expressions to describe themselves as mothers before the training program, it was also observed that after the program, not only did they note positive changes in describing themselves, they also noted the positive effects on other family members. For example, one mother who had considered herself inadequate before the program said that after the program she was able to provide better information and perform more useful activities for her child, and that as a result, both her husband and family were happier. In other words, it can be said that mothers' positive opinions about themselves were the result of the positive changes in their children.

The study also found mothers considered themselves to be happy and more calm and at peace with themselves after the parent education program. This finding should hopefully encourage other researchers to conduct additional parent education programs. The positive effect the program had on parents, specifically in helping them to develop positive attitudes, should indicate their likelihood of responding positively to and supporting future programs. An example of how the mothers considered

themselves as a mother after the program with their own statements is given below.

“I feel happy and at peace. This program gave me self-confidence. I took care of my children [before], but now I also want them to be well-educated and have good professions.” – Respondent K (Respondents H, J, K; Response Frequency: 30%)

### **Behavioral Changes Reported in Parents and Children**

Responses provided in the evaluation forms also revealed that parents were aware of differences in their own behavior after training. Mothers in experimental group I (father involved) indicated that, as expected, their behavior towards their children improved as a result of the parent education program. The quotation below is an indication that information learned in the program led to a change in behavior.

“I’ve realized how important my child is to me, even if she fails to be successful. I react after listening to [my children’s] opinions, taking into consideration that children are separate individuals who have different desires and wishes. I try to be more controlled. In fact, I’ve learned to control myself.” – Respondent 7 (Respondent 7; Response Frequency: 11.1%).

Changes in behavior reported by fathers included beginning to engage in activities formerly performed by mothers, taking care of their children’s needs, such as preparing their meals and getting them ready for bed. They also noted that they paid more attention to their children in general, respected them as individuals and tried to apply in practice the behaviors taught in the education program, as indicated in the quotation below.

“I’ve become a father who pays more attention, helps with homework, takes care of nutrition, and deals with everything from sleeping hours to studying.” – Respondent II (Respondents I, II, V, VII, VIII; Response Frequency: 55.6%)

Responses regarding changes in behavior of mothers in Experimental group II (father uninvolved) indicated that mothers had begun to perform behaviors that overlapped with the program goals in acquiring the targeted skills, as seen in the quotation below.

“In general, I used to explain how to behave. But now I try to explain right and wrong through practice. I let my children do some things on their own, like shopping.” – Respondent H (Respondents B, G, H, J; Response Frequency: 40%)

In terms of children’s behavior, mothers in Experimental Group I (father involved) noted that, in line with the program objectives, their children had begun to show more initiative, responsibility, and self-control and could solve problems and communicate more easily. All the mothers in Group I reported positive behavioral changes in their children. The quotation below provides an example of this, and is followed by respondent codes and the rate of similar responses.

“There is a significant difference in my child’s behaviors. He treats his father, sister, brother and me better. He explains what he has done at school; he wouldn’t before. He tells us everything he does now.” – Respondent 1 (Respondents 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9; Response Frequency: 100%)

All the fathers also reported that their children had begun to display the skills targeted in the parent education program. Changes in behavior observed by fathers indicated children had acquired the skills of introducing themselves, sharing, providing and asking for help and

taking responsibility. The quotation below is an example of a typical response from a father who participated in the program.

“She is well-behaved at home. She behaves more constructively towards her friends. She tidies her room and goes shopping alone. She introduces herself to others.” – Respondent VI (Respondents I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX; Response Frequency: 100%)

Responses from mothers in Group II (father uninvolved) also indicated that their children had learned the skills targeted by the program. Mothers reported a decrease in aggressive behavior (fighting with sibling/friends and shouting) and positive behavioral changes such as displaying the skills of co-operation, responsibility, assertiveness and self-control. The quotation below is taken from the evaluation form of one mother in experimental group II.

“My child was nervous and peevish. He used to fight with his friends all the time. He wouldn’t clean his room and would quarrel with his sister/brother. He was disrespectful to his elders. Now, all these things have disappeared.” – Respondent E (Respondents A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J; Response Frequency: 100%).

#### **4.3.2. The Similarities and Differences Between the Evaluations of Participants**

Parents in both experimental groups reported similar findings in terms of changes in their communication styles, feelings about themselves and their own as well as their children’s behavior.

Most mothers in Experimental Group I (father involved) reported that before the training, they were aggressive, with a tendency to give orders and exhibit sudden bursts of anger, and they refused to accept their

children's mistakes. Mothers in Experimental Group II (father uninvolved) also considered themselves to be bad-tempered, aggressive mothers who tended to shout at their children before the parent education program, whereas after the program, they considered themselves to be more calm, well-tempered, insightful, sensitive and tolerant. They reported that they no longer yelled at their children, and they had begun to perceive their behavior as normal for their age. In addition, mothers reported that since the training, they had learned to listen to their children more and had initiated a more open style of communication with them.

While the self-evaluations of mothers in both groups were similar, it should be pointed out that the mothers in experimental group I (father involved), but not in Group II (father uninvolved), provided information about their communication content as well as communication style, such as commenting on their use of commands and their unwillingness to accept their children's mistakes. This is an indication that the mothers in Group I gained greater insight into their communication with their children than the mothers in Group II (father uninvolved).

As with the mothers, the fathers also reported themselves to be bad-tempered and aggressive before the program, whereas after the program, they had become more indulgent, more moderate, more patient and more friendly towards their children. They said they no longer got angry with their children, that they preferred to explain things to them calmly, and they began talking to them more. In light of the fact that many fathers considered themselves to be aggressive and ill-tempered before the program, it may be suggested that the reportedly aggressive communication style fathers had with their children was due to the fact that their communication took place most frequently when a problem existed. Specifically, it can be asserted that the father, as the authority figure, takes the responsibility for addressing problems within

the home, which takes the form of the father becoming angry with the child.

When statements about self-worth/self-assessment were compared between groups, it was found that some mothers in both groups had feelings of inadequacy before the program. After the program, mothers in both groups said they felt better about themselves and that they were more self-confident and more self-sufficient.

Some fathers also reported feelings of inadequacy before the program. One father (VI) stated that the program was beneficial for parents as well as children, which is interesting in the sense that it suggests parents gained awareness about their relationships with their children and their parenting roles. As a result of the training, he began to take on more responsibility at home as a father. This example of how a parent education program raised a father's awareness and led to his increasing his involvement in parenting highlights the importance of paternal participation in training; it is likely that compared to fathers who are involved, fathers who are excluded from training will not experience behavioral changes and the overall training will be adversely affected as a result. In general, fathers reported themselves to be more well-informed, more experienced, more moderate, more sensible and better fathers following the training. In addition, they also felt better about themselves as a result of the program.

In reporting on their own behavioral changes, fathers said they had become aware of their negative behavior and began to act with more information. They reported volunteering to perform themselves some of the activities they considered maternal responsibilities, ranging from preparing children for school, preparing their meals, and putting them to sleep. Moreover, they reported openly displaying their love for their

children, spending more time with them, and beginning to play with them.

In terms of their own behavioral changes, mothers in both groups said they noticed positive changes as a result of the parent education program. In the reports of the mothers in the father uninvolved group, they stated that they paid attention to react appropriate to the age of their children, gave more importance to the opinions of their children, explained the right and wrong instead of telling how to behave and thus let their children realize why their mother wanted them to behave that way and paid more attention to the behaviors of their children. The statements of the mothers about behavioral changes are similar to the reports of the mothers in the father involved group.

Mothers in both groups reported observing similar improvements in their children's behavior in all four social skills (co-operation, assertiveness, responsibility, self-control). Specific expressions used by the mothers in making these evaluations – “respect”, “obedience to rules”, “willingness to help voluntarily” – may be an indication that mothers observed those particular behavioral changes that were useful to themselves, or more frequently encouraged such changes.

When reporting on behavioral changes in their children, fathers stated that their children had become more respectful. Other behavioral changes noted included better relationships with their siblings and friends, and increases in self-confidence. Like the mothers, the fathers also highlighted respectful behaviors useful for parents. However, not only did they point out changes in such skills useful to them, the most significant difference between the statements of fathers and mothers was that fathers also pointed out positive changes in their children's relationships with siblings and friends, indicating how improvements in

social skills had positive effects on their social relations, which may be more useful for children than for parents.

To sum up, reports from each group are similar. Fathers as well as mothers in both groups noted changes in their communication styles. Fathers as well as mothers in both groups felt they were more self-sufficient and well informed after the training. Furthermore, fathers became more aware of their responsibilities and took more of a role in parenting than they had before the training. In reporting on behavioral changes in their children, mothers of both group placed more emphasis on behavioral changes useful to parents, whereas fathers placed emphasis equally on changes useful to parents and to children.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **DISCUSSION**

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the effects of a parent education on third grade children's social skills.

In the first section of this chapter, discussions regarding the statistical findings and parents' training evaluation reports are presented. In the second section, conclusions drawn from the data, and implications and recommendations for practice and research are presented.

#### **5.1. Discussion of the Findings**

The results of the present study revealed that a parent education with father involved was effective in improving self-control and overall social skills of children, as seen in the SSRS-P scores measuring parental perceptions of their children's skill levels. Although there was no significant difference in the cooperation, assertiveness and responsibility dimensions of the social skills assessed in this study, there was a total gain due to the observable improvement in these three dimensions.

The findings of the present study are in line with those of Spence, Donovan and Brechman-Toussaint (2000). They found improvements in the skill levels of children whose parents participated in training compared to children whose parents had not received training, although the differences between the two groups were not statistically significant.

On the other hand, some studies on the short and long term effects of the parent education program demonstrated contradictory findings. For example, in a study (Webster-Stratton,1985) which compared the outcomes of children with father involved groups and father absent families following a 9-week group parent training, results revealed no significant difference in outcome. However, 1 year after the treatment, children in the father involved families were less non compliant than the ones in the father uninvolved families. The mothers in the father involved group also often less criticized their children than the mothers in the father uninvolved families did. In other words, the children in the present study may not have been encouraged to perform their newly acquired skills in their school or social environment.

Considering the results of the present study although the parent education had a significant effect on the self-control dimension of the experimental group I (father involved) children and a total gain in the total social skills level, the gain was not maintained after three months follow-up. This result showed that the gained skills were not displayed or observed after some time.

Several explanations for this result could be stated. Firstly, considering one of the objectives of the parent education program developed in the present study, parents were expected to reinforce the socially skilled behaviors of their children. Based on the findings, the significant difference in the post test scores might have indicated that some skills (self-control) were taught in the natural settings but parents might have not continued to reinforce the taught skills in order to increase the maintenance.

Secondly, according to Gresham (1982), one type of social skills deficiency is performance deficiency. Performance deficiency indicates that the child has repertoire of social skills for effective social interaction

but due to several environmental conditions s/he may not perform these skills at the appropriate level. As the findings of the study demonstrated significant differences between the children of father involved group and control group in terms of both the self-control and total social skills scores, it can be thought that these children acquired but had difficulties in displaying the gained skills or could not find the necessary environmental conditions to display the skills. In other words, the children in the present study may not be encouraged to perform the skills they have gained in their school and social environment.

According to Evans, Axelrod and Sapia (2000), school provides an ideal setting for achieving generalization. However, in order for children to utilize their new social skills, their peer groups must be socially competent and provide reinforcement for new behaviors (McConnell, 1987 as cited in Maag, 1994). While this study involved parents as significant individuals in children's lives, negative effects of teachers and peers may have impeded generalization. King et al., (1997) have indicated that the promotion of generalization of learned social skills involves close collaboration among all "significant others" in the child's environment, i.e., parents, teachers and peers. Ogilvy (1994) has stated that restructuring the social environment can help to improve the effects of parent education programs. In this study, the social environment was not restructured, and among children's "significant others", only parents were included in the program.

Finally, it is possible that the significant improvements in the social skills of children in father involved group of this study were masked or overpowered by older and stronger competing behaviors. This phenomenon, mentioned in Gresham (1997) and Gresham, Sugai and Horner (2001), would explain why the children in this study failed to maintain and generalize skills they have acquired or that have been taught by parents.

When the experimental groups and the control group were compared, it was observed that the significant effect of the program on the self-control and total social skills was not maintained in the follow-up measures. Despite this fact, it was found that there was a significant improvement in the self-control dimension of the children of the parents in the father involved group and this improvement was maintained after three months follow-up according to parent perceptions. The difference between three measures of the group indicated that there was a significant improvement in the responsibility dimension and it was maintained after three months follow-up. Finally, there was a significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores in terms of the total social skills scores but this improvement was no longer lasting. To sum up, when three measures of the father involved group were compared, it was observed that the improvement in the self-control and responsibility skills was maintained after three months follow-up.

The father uninvolved group showed improvement in the cooperation dimension but this improvement was no longer lasting after three months follow-up. Another improvement was observed in the self-control dimension and this improvement was also maintained in the follow-up measures. Similarly, the total social skills were improved and this improvement was maintained after three months follow-up. Briefly, when the scores of the three measures of the father uninvolved group were compared, it was observed that there was an improvement in the self-control dimension and total score of social skills and this improvement was maintained.

To sum up, the self-control dimension of both groups, the responsibility dimension of the father involved group and total social skills score of father uninvolved group improved and the improvements were maintained after three months follow-up.

A study by Firestone, Kelly and Fike (1980) supports the present study's findings regarding improvements. Their study also examined the effectiveness of two parent training groups, one that involved the participation of both parents, and one that involved maternal participation only. Their results demonstrated that, when compared to a control group, children of parents in both training groups showed improvements in appropriate behavior at home, whereas there were no significant differences found between the two treatment groups.

Although not within the scope of the present study, a brief discussion of the possible effects of culture on social skills learning and behavior is appropriate at this point. The culture in which a child is raised should be considered an important factor, since the culture may determine the child-raising values of the parents and their expectations from the child. The research findings of Kağıtçıbaşı (1981) clearly reveal what is expected of children in Turkey. In her study, "obeying parents," followed by "being a good person," were considered to be the most desirable characteristics in children, whereas "being independent" was considered to be the least desirable characteristic. In other words, parents considered a child's most important characteristics to be their dependence and usefulness, e.g., useful for the parents rather than the child. Within such a conceptual framework, it is impossible for a child to develop behaviors of self-control and assertiveness (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981). Kağıtçıbaşı's (1981) study included comparisons between parental expectations in Turkey with those in Germany and the United States. When asked how they expected their children to behave as adults, parents often stated that they wanted their children to be "helpful and courteous"; in other words, parents were observed to attach importance to the fact that children should have characteristics useful for the parents. These findings are practically the reverse of findings for Germany and the United States. Whereas "independence" is generally considered a desirable characteristic of children in the United States, in

Turkey the preference is for “dependence”. Similarly, “self-reliance” is preferred in the United States, compared with “loyalty and responsibility to family and parents” in Turkey (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981).

The findings of the present study appear to be in line with those of Kağıtçıbaşı (1981). Following the 10-week parent education program, the only one of the four individual social skills scores to increase significantly in father involved group was self-control. Although the skills of cooperation, responsibility and assertiveness may be useful to parents, self-control is the skill that directly provides such valued behavior as obedience and respect for parents. Improvements in such behavior as quarreling and shouting with parents, which were reported in the parent evaluation forms, can be accounted for by improvements in children’s self-control. Such a development may be considered expected in terms of its consistency with the culture. Similarly cultural expectations regarding “independence” as the least preferred characteristic in children (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981) may have a bearing on the lack of improvement in assertiveness skills found in this study. Although parents, in the evaluation forms, said they supported their children in expressing their opinions independently, they also reported improvements in terms of the respect shown them by their children. This may be interpreted as demonstrating that although parents prefer their children to behave more enterprisingly outside the home, they do not have the same preferences regarding their behavior within the home.

In line with this, Bernstein, Harris, Long, Lida and Hans (2004) have asserted that in collectivistic cultures, children are raised to share and to be obedient, respectful and honest, whereas independence, assertiveness and inquisitiveness is considered inappropriate for children. In view of this, and in light of the findings of the present study, it can be suggested the improvements found in this study were in those skills and abilities considerate appropriate for Turkish culture.

In discussing the findings of the present study, the methodology of the parent education program applied, i.e., its techniques, content and duration, must also be touched upon. In terms of training techniques, modeling was selected as an appropriate technique, both for its perceived consistency with the culture (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2001) and for the recognition of its effectiveness in teaching social skills. At the same time, modeling and coaching techniques are weaker with regard to securing generalization and maintenance (Gresham, 1997); therefore, it is possible that there is a relationship between the training techniques utilized in this study and the parents' failure to observe the targeted skills.

The organization of the training program over a period of 10 weeks may also be relevant to outcome. According to Holden, Lavigne and Cameron (1990), the effectiveness of a parent training program may be defined by three related criteria; namely, the proportion of clients who successfully complete the training, the magnitude of behavioral changes exhibited by those who complete the training, and the length of time required to bring about change. While extending the length of training may have increased its effects, reports in the literature of a high rate of drop-out from parent education programs (Forehand, Middlebrook, Rogers & Steffe, 1983) were taken into consideration in limiting the program to 2.5 months in order to avoid a high drop-out rate that could result from a longer training period.

The parent evaluations of the parent education program indicated that there was a slight difference between two experimental groups in terms of the themes of communication style, feelings about themselves, behavioral changes of mothers and children. The mothers both in the father involved (experimental I) and the father uninvolved (experimental II) groups reported improvement in their communication styles and the social skills of their children. This is in line with Putallaz's (1987) study

which indicated that social behavior of mother was related with the social behavior of their children and the nature of the relationship. The fathers' reports interestingly indicated that fathers took different responsibilities such as daily care of their children after the parent education program.

Important insight into the effects of the parent education program was also gathered through parent evaluation forms. These indicated slightly different but similar effects on the communication styles, feelings about themselves and behavioral changes of parents and children between the two experimental groups. Mothers in both groups as well as the fathers reported positive changes in all these areas.

Mothers in both experimental groups reported improvements in their communication styles and in the social skills of their children. This is in line with Putallaz's (1987) study that indicated social behavior of children, maternal social behavior, and the nature of the mother-child relationship are interrelated.

Fathers in the present study also reported improvements in their children's social skills, and some fathers reported improvements in their children's social relationships. Interestingly, fathers also reported that following the education program, they took on different responsibilities involved in the daily care of their children. These findings are consistent with studies such as that of Putallaz and Heflin (1990), which demonstrated that parental attitude had an effect on the development of a child's social competence.

Draper, Larsen and Rowles (1997) have found improvements in the skills of children whose parents received training, and Smith (1997) has shown the outcomes of parent education programs to be beneficial for children and parents, whose feelings of self-worth improve as a result.

Parents in this study also reported decreases in some of their children's undesirable behaviors. This is consistent with Webster-Stratton, Reid and Hammond (2004).

Reports of a range of behavioral changes in their children overlap with the findings of a study by (Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005) that examined the effects of parent training on various dimensions of parent-adolescent relationships and communication skills of parents. Although no significant differences were found between groups, parent reports indicated that training helped parents to develop positive interaction with their children. Similarly, in another study involving fathers, parent evaluations indicated training contributed positively to the communication between fathers and children (Aydın, 2003).

Reports by parents in this study indicating positive changes in their parenting styles as a result of training are consistent with a study by Wolfe and Hirsch (2003) that reported more authoritative parenting practices among parents who received training when compared to those who did not receive training. Although the parenting styles were not assessed by the researcher as part of the present study, parent self-evaluation indicated changes in parenting as a result of the education program.

Parent statements referring to improvements in parenting styles and child behavior are supported by Webster-Stratton and Hammond (1999), who reported that working with parents provided them with positive parenting strategies that helped their children to build social competencies (as cited in Webster-Stratton & Reid, 2004). Whereas parents in this study reported aggressive behavior in both themselves and their children before the education program, after the program they became aware of positive changes in both their own parenting styles and in the social skills of their children.

## **5.2. Conclusion**

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of a parent education on the social skills dimensions of assertiveness, self-control, responsibility and cooperation of third-grade children. Results of the study revealed that a parent education involved fathers was effective in terms of improving overall social skills and the self-control as perceived by parents. These findings are in line with other studies that claim fathers have an impact on the development of their children (Parke et al., 2002; Lamb, 2002).

In order to increase father involvement in school activities, teachers and school administrators need to revise their policies on parent involvement. Currently, parent meetings are held in order to obtain economic support from parents, to announce student grades or to discuss specific problems. It is essential that new school policies so that parents are encouraged to attend meetings and to participate in educational activities so that they may contribute to their children's development.

It should be noted that although this study found parent education to result in statistically significant improvements in the self-control and total social skills scores, three-month follow-up showed that these gains were not maintained in the long term. However, the improvement of self-control and responsibility dimension of father involved group (experimental I) and the improvement of self-control dimension and total scores of father uninvolved group (experimental II) were maintained. These findings are in line with Spence, Donovan and Brechman-Tousaint (2000).

Contrary to expectations, the parent education program did not have a statistically significant long-term effect which perceived by parents on children's social skills. The fact that improvement was seen in the self-

control of children whose father attended the program, but not in other aspects of their social skills, may be a result of the effects of children's peer groups or other social environments. Not only is the modeling used in social skills education programs useful for teaching targeted skills, it also contributes to the learning of non-targeted skills. While children gain many skills from their parents through both direct instruction and observation at home, children also learn skills from the media, school, public (street) life and their friends through modeling. As Kağıtçıbaşı (2000) has stated, learning by observation and imitation has considerable impact in Turkish culture. In regard to children's social skill learning, it is possible that children imitate undesirable models from popular culture. While this falls unquestionably outside the scope of the present study, and, moreover, it is a speculative assessment, the possibility cannot be ignored.

Although environmental factors may have an impact on socially skilled behavior, as Spence (1983) has stated, children acquire social skills either automatically through parental and peer influences or as a product of their education. Moreover, it is possible that children who do possess desirable behaviors are not able to exhibit them. As King et al., (1997) have indicated, promoting generalization of learned social skills requires close collaboration of all a child's "significant others". In other words, in addition to parents, teachers and friends may contribute to the generalization of learned social skills. Involving schools can be an effective means of contributing to generalization (Evans, Axelrod & Sapia, 2000). It is important, however, that other children in the same environment are also socially competent (McConnell, 1987 as cited in Maag, 1994).

In order to maintain the positive outcomes achieved as a result of parent education programs, the following suggestions can be made:

- The duration of the program should be sufficient for teaching the targeted skills.
- Children's social networks should be included in education (McConnell, 1987 as cited in Maag, 1994).
- Teachers should incorporate activities to teach social skills into existing classroom curricula (Fields, 1989). This facilitates peer involvement, which is equally important in supporting generalization as teacher involvement (Stokes & Osmes, 1989, as cited in Elliott & Gresham, 1993).
- Culturally desirable behaviors should be taken into consideration, and content of educational programs revised accordingly in order to increase the likelihood that improvements are maintained.

In summary, an ecological model can provide the opportunity for learning and generalization (Evans, Axelrod & Sapia, 2000) that is capable of overcoming a child's inability to display and generalize skills taught by parents due to inappropriate environmental conditions, thereby increasing the efficacy of parent education programs.

### **5.3. Implications and Recommendations**

A number of implications for counseling and recommendations for further research can be offered based on the findings of the present study.

#### **5.3.1. Implications for Counseling**

1. Parent education programs can improve parenting attitudes and practices; therefore, school counselors should place greater emphasis on involving parents in general school activities and psycho-educational programs offered by counseling services.

2. It is well known that in addition to parents, other adults in their environment – including television and cartoon characters – may become models for children. It is essential for school counselors to make parents aware of this so that they become positive models while helping them limit the exposure to and mitigate the effects of negative models.

3. School counselors need to make specific efforts to engage fathers in the counseling and education process. At present, counselors tend to schedule interviews with mothers, mainly because more fathers than mothers work outside the home, so they are less able to schedule appointments during work days, which is what counselors prefer. The unintentional result is that children's problems tend to be dealt with by mothers only, and fathers establish only an indirect connection, thus effectively transforming family-school cooperation into "mother-school cooperation".

4. It can be speculated that in addition to ensuring direct contact between school counselors and both parents, the importance of cooperation between school counselors, school administrators and teachers should not be underestimated. In this regard,

- During parent-teacher meetings, it is not uncommon for teachers to offer parents advice, such as "Have insight into your children," or "Accept your children's characteristics as they are." While this provides parents with insight into "what" to do, it would be more useful for them to learn "how" to do it. Considering that one of the main roles of school counselors is to provide information to classroom teachers, providing information on the "hows" of skills training, so that teachers are better able to help parents address their children's problems, would be of great benefit. Regular

meetings between counselors and classroom teachers would help achieve this objective.

- School counselors need to be aware of administration policies in order to successfully engage with parents, conduct training programs, conferences, etc. Activities organized at the schools require the co-operation of all school administrative personnel. In the current environment of changing National Education policies and efforts on the part of schools to overcome economic problems, parents tend to view any invitation to school meetings as an attempt to secure their financial contributions to the school, and as a result, positive co-operation between schools and parents is difficult to realize. School administrators need to be aware of this unfortunate situation and develop organizational policies to overcome it. School counselors can provide support in this regard by stressing to administrators the value of parent participation in children's education.

5. It can also be speculated that in addition to parental participation, it is likely that classroom activities and school guidance programs in which teachers participate can help to support the socio-emotional development of children. In this regard,

- Rather than work solely with parents of children with poor social skills, it would be helpful for school counselors to establish a policy of communicating with all parents. A lack of social skills may create a range of problems for a child that is difficult to overcome. A school curriculum that supports children's social development through a wide range of school-based activities can help children acquire the social skills necessary for healthy development. Failure to address children's basic developmental needs can be regarded as a sign that school guidance activities

are inadequate. Fortunately, “problem-oriented guidance” is gradually being abandoned in favor of a concept of guidance based on “developmental needs.”

- It is essential that teachers perform classroom activities that support social skills competencies. School counselors should support teachers by informing them about the importance of such activities and helping them to implement them. This is of particular importance in light of the suggestion that inappropriate environmental conditions inhibit children from displaying appropriate social skills in school, even when they are capable of displaying these skills at home. Such performance deficiencies may reflect negatively on peer relationships. In short, school counselors should support teachers in establishing a classroom environment conducive for the development and display of social skills within a child’s repertoire.
  
- By creating a positive school atmosphere and thus an environment in which children feel safe, school administrators can support the social development of students. School counselors can support school administrators in this area.

### **5.3.2. Recommendations for Further Research**

1. This study comprised parents from one small-size city and with relatively low levels of education. Future research should be carried out in different regions in Turkey and with the participation of parents with different educational backgrounds.
  
2. Teachers play as important role as parent in the lives of children. Future research should involve teachers, which will allow for the testing of generalization and maintenance.

3. In addition to studying the effects of parental education on the social skills of children, future research should investigate other dimensions of the parent-child relationship. This will help to provide a better understanding of the effects of parent education programs on different aspects of child development as well as increase the value attached to parent training.
4. Future studies should look at training that involves children in addition to their parents.
5. The present study may be viewed as a pilot study for testing paternal participation in parent training on the social skills of children. Similar studies may be conducted in the future with parent education programs utilizing different curricula or approaches.

## REFERENCES

- Akbaba, S. (1988). *Ana-baba tutumlarının bazı kişilik özelliklerine etkisi*. Yayınlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi. Gazi Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Akkök, F. (1996). *İlköğretimde Sosyal becerilerin geliştirilmesi: Öğretmen elkitabı*. Milli Eğitim Basımevi: İstanbul.
- Akkök, F. (1996). *İlköğretimde Sosyal becerilerin geliştirilmesi: Anne-baba el kitabı*. Milli Eğitim Basımevi: İstanbul.
- Akkök, F., & Sucuoğlu, B. (1988). Aile rehberliğinin yuvaya yeni başlayan çocukların sosyal becerilerinin gelişimine etkisi: İzleme çalışması. *Paper presented at the V Ulusal Psikoloji Kongresi*, İzmir.
- Akkök, F., & Sucuoğlu, B. (1988). Aile rehberliğinin yuvaya yeni başlayan çocukların sosyal becerilerinin gelişimine etkisi. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, 12,68, 10-13.
- Andersen, S. M., & Berk, M. S. (1994). The social-cognitive model of transference: experiencing past relationships in the present. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 7(4), 109-115.
- Aquilino, W.S., (1994). Later life parental divorce and widowhood: Impact on young adults' assessment of parent-child relations. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 56, 908-922.
- Aquilino, W. S., & Supple, A.J. (2001). Long term effects of parenting practices during adolescence on well-being: Outcomes in young adulthood. *Journal of Family Issues*. 22 (3), 289-308.
- Argyle. M., (1981). *Social skills and work*. New York: Methuen & Co.
- Authier, K. J., Sherrets, S. D., & Tramontana, M. G. (1980). Methods and models of parent education. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 9 (1) 38-41.
- Aydın, G.A (1985). *Sosyal başarı eğitimi ile sosyal beceri eğitiminin çocuklarda öğrenilmiş çaresizlik davranışının ortadan kaldırılmasına etkisi*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Ankara.

- Aydın, A. (2003). *The effect of father involvement training on the fathers' involvement level and perceptions of their fathering roles. Unpublished master's thesis.* Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Bagner, D. M., & Eyberg, S. M. (2003). Father involvement in parent training: when does it matter? *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 32 (4), 599-605.
- Bandura, A. (1989). A social cognitive theory of personality. L. Pervin & O. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality* (154-196). New York: Guilford Publications.
- Bandura, A. (2002). Social cognitive theory in cultural context. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 51(2), 269-290.
- Bandura, A. (2003). On the psychosocial impact and mechanisms of spiritual modelling. *The Interpersonal Journal for the Psychology of Religion*, 13(3), 167-173.
- Barge, J. K., & Loges, W. E. (2003). Parent, student, and teacher perceptions of parental involvement. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 31 (2), 140-163.
- Benson, P. L., Galbraith, J., & Espeland, P. (1995). *What kids need to succeed.* Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing.
- Bernstein, V.J., Harris, E.J., Long, C.V., Iida, E., & Hans, S.L. (2004). Issues in multi-cultural assessment of parent-child interaction: An exploratory study from the starting early starting smart collaboration. *Journal of School Psychology*. 42 (5), 359-383.
- Brestan, E.V., Eyberg, S. M., Boggs, S. R. & Algina, J. (1997). Parent-child interaction therapy: Parents' perceptions of untreated siblings. *Child and Family Behavior Therapy*, 19 (3), 13-28.
- Carlo, G., Roesch, S. C., & Melby, J. (1998). The multiplicative relations of parenting and temperament to prosocial and antisocial behaviors in adolescence. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 18 (3), 266-290.
- Cartledge, G., & Milburn, J. (1978). The case for teaching social skills in the classroom: A review. *Review of Educational Research*, 1 (1), 133-156.
- Cerrhaoğlu, S. (2002). *Sosyal beceri eğitiminin ilköğretim öğrencilerinin öz-kavramı düzeylerine etkisi.* Unpublished masters' thesis. Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi, Samsun.

- Choi, D. H., & Kim, J. (2003). Practicing social skills training for young children with low peer acceptance: a cognitive-social learning model. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 31 (1), 41-46.
- Coleman, J.S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94, 95-120.
- Corcoran, J. (2000). Family treatment of preschool behavior problems. *Research on Social Work Practice*, 10 (5), 547-588.
- Culp, R.E, Schadle, S., Robinson, L., & Culp, A.M.(2000). Relationships Among Paternal Involvement and Young Children's Perceived Self-Competence and Behavioral Problems. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 9 (1), 27-38.
- Çifci, İ. & Sucuoğlu, B. (2003). *Bilişsel Süreç Yaklaşımıyla Sosyal Beceri Öğretimi*. Kök Yayıncılık, Ankara.
- Çulha, M., & Dereli, A. A. (1987). Atılganlık eğitimi programı. *Psikoloji Dergisi*, 6 (21), 124-127.
- Darling, N. (1999). Parenting Style and It's Correlates. *ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education*. 7 pages. Eric Digest, ED427896.
- Deater-Deckard, K., Dodge, K. A., Bates, J. E., & Pettit, G. S. (1996). Physical discipline among African-American and European-American mothers: Links to children's externalizing behaviors. *Developmental Psychology*, 32, 1065-1072.
- DeHart, T., Pelham, B. W., & Tennen, H. (2005). What lies beneath: parenting style and implicit self-esteem. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, In Press.
- DiTommaso, E., McNulty, C. B., Ross, L., & Burgess, M. (2003). Attachment styles, social skills and loneliness in young adults. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35 (2), 303-312.
- Draper, T. W., Larsen, J. M., & Rowles R. (1997). Developmentally appropriate parent training for families with young children. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 12, 487-504.
- Duru, A. (1995). *İlkokul 5. sınıf öğrencilerinin benlik saygıları ile ana bab tutumları arasındaki ilişki*. Unpublished master's thesis. Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, İzmir.

- Einsenstadt, T. H., Eyberg, S., McNeil, C. B., Newcomb, K., & Funderburk, B. (1993). Parent-child interaction therapy with behavior problem children: relative effectiveness of two stages and overall treatment outcome. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 22* (1) 42-51.
- Elliott, S. N., & Gresham, F. M. (1993). Social skills interventions for children. *Behavior Modification, 17* (3) 287-313.
- Elliott, S. N., Malecki, C.K., & Demaray, M.K. (2001). New directions in social skills assessment and intervention for elementary and middle school students. *Exceptionality, 9* (1&2), 19-32.
- Erwin, P. G. (1994). Effectiveness of social skills training with children: a meta-analytic study. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly, 7* (39), 305-311.
- Evans, S. W., Axelrod, J. L., & Sapia, J. L. (2000). Effective school-based mental health interventions: advancing the social skills training paradigm. *Journal of School Health, 70* (5), 191-194.
- Fields, B. A. (1989). A classroom-based social skills training program for children with social competence and school adjustment problems. *Australia and New Zealand Journal of Developmental Disabilities, 15* (2), 99-107.
- Finnie, V. & Russell, A. (1988). *Preschool children's social status and their mothers' behavior and knowledge in the supervisory role* *Developmental Psychology, 24* (6), 789-801.
- Firestone, P., Kelly, M. J., & Fike, S. (1980). Are fathers necessary in parent training groups? *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 9* (1), 44-48.
- Fischer, J. L., & Crawford, D. W. (1992). Codependency and parenting styles. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 7* (3), 352-363.
- Flem, A., Thygesen, R., Valas, H., & Magnas., E. (1998). A social skills intervention programme for kindergarten children at risk of developing behavioral problems. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 13*(2), 208-215.
- Forehand, R., Middlebrook, J., Rogers, T., & Steffe, M., (1983). Dropping out rate of parent training. *Behaviour Research and Therapy, 21*(6), 663-668.

- Forgan, J. W., & Gonzalez-DeHass, A. (2004). How to infuse social skills training into literacy instruction. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 36 (6), 24-30.
- Fox, C. L., & Boulton, M. J. (2003). Evaluating the effectiveness of a social skills training (SST) programme for victims of bullying. *Education Research*, 45 (3), 231-247.
- Fuligni, A. J., & Eccles, J. S. (1993). Perceived parent-child relationships and early adolescents' orientation toward peers. *Developmental Psychology*, 29 (4), 622-632.
- Golding, K. (2000). Parent Management Training as an Intervention to Promote Adequate Parenting. *Clinical Child Psychology & Psychiatry*, 5 (3), 357-372.
- Green, S. B., Salkind, N. J., & Akey, T. M. (1997). *Using SPSS for windows: Analyzing and understanding data*. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New Jersey, USA.
- Gresham, F. M. (1982). Social skills instruction for exceptional children. *Theory Into Practice*, 21 (2), 129-133.
- Gresham, F. M. (1997). Social competence and students with behavior disorders: where we've been, where we are, and where we should go. *Education & Treatment of Children*, 20 (3), 233-250.
- Gresham, F.M., & Elliott, S.N. (1984). Assessment and classification of children's social skills: a review of methods and issues. *School Psychology Review*, 13, 292-301.
- Gresham, F. M., & Elliott, S. N. (1987). The relationship between adaptive behavior and social skills: issues in definition and assessment. *The Journal of Special Education*, 21 (1), 167-181.
- Gresham, F. M., & Elliott, S. N. (1990). *Social Skills Rating System Manual*. American Guidance Service, Inc. USA.
- Gresham, F.M., & Naggle, R.J. (1980). Social skills training with children: responsiveness to modeling and coaching as a function of peer orientation. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 48, 718-729.
- Gresham, F. M., Sugai, G., & Horner, R. H. (2001). Interpreting outcomes of social skills training for students with high-incidence disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 67 (3), 331-344.

- Grolnick, W. S., & Slowiaczek, M. L. (1994). Parents' involvement in children's schooling: A multidimensional conceptualization and motivational model. *Child Development*, 65, 237-252.
- Hair, E.C., Jager, J., & Garrett, S. (2001). Background for community-level work on social competency in adolescence: reviewing the literature on contributing factors. Available online at :[http://www.childtrends.org/what\\_works/youth\\_development/doc/social.pdf](http://www.childtrends.org/what_works/youth_development/doc/social.pdf)
- Hatipođlu-Sümer, Z. (1999). *The effect of social skills training on perceived dimensions of social skills and sociometric status of primary school students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Herbert, M. (1996). *Social skills training for children*. Leicester: The British Psychological Society Books.
- Holden, G. W., Lavigne, V. V., & Cameron, A. M. (1990). Probing the continuum of effectiveness in parent training: characteristics of parents and preschoolers. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 19 (1), 2-8.
- Horton, L. (1984). The father's role in behavioral parent training: a review. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 13 (3), 274-279.
- Hughes, J. N., & Sullivan K. A. (1988). Outcome assessment in social skills training with children. *Journal of School Psychology*, 26, 167-183.
- Hwang, C.-P., & Lamb, M. E. (1997). Father involvement in Sweden: a longitudinal study of its stability and correlates. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 21 (3), 621-632.
- Jindal-Snape, D., (2004). Generalization and maintenance of social skills of children with visual impairments: self-evaluation and the role of feedback. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness*, 99 (8), 486-498.
- Johnson, G., Kent, G., & Leather, J. (2005). Strengthening the parent-child relationship: A review of family interventions and their use in medical settings. *Child: Care, Health & Development*, 31(1), 25-32.
- Kađıtçıbaşı, Ç (1981). *Çocuđun deđereri, Türkiye'de deđerler ve dođurganlık*. Bođaziçi Üniversitesi idari bilimler fakóltesi. Güzlem matbaacılık kolektif Őirketi. İstanbul.

- Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç (2000). *Kültürel psikoloji - kültür bağlamında insan ve aile*. Evrim yayınevi ve Tic. Ltd. Şirketi. İstanbul
- Kaiser, A., Mahoney G., Girolametto L., MacDonald J., Robinson C., Safford P., & Spiker, D. (1999). Rejoinder: Toward a Contemporary Vision of Parent Education. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, 19 (3), 173-176.
- Kelly, J.A (1982). *Social-skills training a practical guide for interventions*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Kennedy, J. H. (1992). Relationship of maternal beliefs and childrearing strategies to social competence in preschool children. *Child Study Journal*, 22 (1), 39-60.
- King, G. A., Specht, J. A., Schultz, I., Warr-Leeper, G., Redekop, W., & Risebrough, N. (1997). Social skills training for withdrawn unpopular children with physical disabilities: A preliminary Evaluation. *Rehabilitation Psychology*, 42 (1), 47-60.
- Kocayörük, A. (2000). *İlköğretim öğrencilerinin sosyal becerilerini geliştirmede dramanın etkisi*. Unpublished master's thesis. Ankara Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Ladd, G. W., & Golter, B.S. (1988). Parents' management of preschoolers' peer relations: Is it related to children's social competence? *Developmental Psychology*, 24, 109-117.
- La Greca, A. M., & Santogrossi, D. A. (1980). Social skills training with elementary school students: a behavioral group approach. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 48 (2), 220-227.
- La Greca, AM. (1993). Social skills training with children: Where do we go from here? *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 22 (1), 288-298.
- Laible, D. J., & Carlo, G. (2004). The differential relations of maternal and parental support and control to adolescent social competence, self-worth, and sympathy. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 19 (6), 759-782.
- Lamb, M. E. (2002). Infant-father attachments and their impact on child development. LeMonda, T., Catrine, S., Cabrera, N. J., (Eds). *Handbook of Father Involvement: Multidisciplinary Perspectives*, (93-118). Mahwah, N.J. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Lewis, M. (2005). The child and its family: the social network model. *Human Development*, 48 (1), 8-27.

- Maag, J. W. (1994). Promoting social skills training in classrooms: issues for school counselors. *School Counselor*, 42 (2), 100-114.
- MacDonald, E., Chowdhury, U., Dabney, J., Wolpert, M., & Stein, S. M. (2003). A social skills group for children. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 8 (1), 43-52.
- McGlynn, M. .M. & Rutherford, RB. (2001). Teaching social skills to enrich the lives of children and youth with emotional and behavioral difficulties. *Focal Point*, 15(2), [Online] Available at <http://www.rtc.pdx.edu>.
- McNeil, C. B., Eyberg, S., Einstadt, T. H., Newcomb, K., & Funderburk, B. (1991). Parent-child interaction therapy with behavior problem children: generalization of treatment effects to the school setting. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 20 (2), 140-151.
- Mesch, D., Lew, M., Johnson, D.W., & Johnson, R (1986). Isolated teenagers, cooperative learning, and the training of social skills. *Journal of Psychology*, 120 (4), 323-334.
- Mize, J., & Abell, E. (1996). *Encouraging social skills in young children: Tips teachers can share with parents*. [Online] Available at [humsci.auburn.edu](http://humsci.auburn.edu).
- Mullis, R. L., Rathge, R., & Mullis, A. K. (2003). Predictors of academic performance during early adolescence: A contextual view. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 27 (6), 541-548.
- Nangle, D. W., Erdley, C. A., Carpenter, E. M., & Newman, J. E. (2002). Social skills training as a treatment for aggressive children and adolescents: a developmental-clinical integration. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 7, 169-199.
- National Center of Effective Parenting, (2002). *Helping children develop self discipline*. [Online] Available at <http://www.effectiveparenting.org>.
- Nystul, M. S. (1982). The effects of systematic training for effective parenting on parental attitudes. *The Journal of Psychology*, 112, 63-66.
- Ogilvy, C.M. (1994). Social skills training with children and adolescents: A review of the evidence on the effectiveness. *Educational Psychology*, 14 (1), 73-84.
- Ohio State University Extension Fact Sheet: Family and Consumer Sciences <http://ohioline.osu.edu/hyg-fact/5000/5212.html>

- Openheim, D., Golsmith, D., & Koren-Karie, N. (2004). Maternal insightfulness and preschoolers' emotion and behavior problems: reciprocal influences in a therapeutic preschool program. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, 25(4), 352-367.
- O'Rourke, K., & Worzbyt, J. C. (1996). *Support groups for children*. Taylor & Francis, USA.
- Özeke-Kocabaş, E. (2005). *The effects of a parent training on different dimensions of parent adolescent relationships*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Parke, R.D., McDowell, D.J., Kim, M., Killian, C., Dennis, J., Flyr, M.L., & Wild, & M.N. (2002). Fathers' contributions to children's peer relations. LeMonda, T., Catrine, S. & Cabrera. N. J., (Eds). *Handbook of Father Involvement: Multidisciplinary Perspectives*, (141-169). Mahwah, N.J. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Pellegrini, D.S., & Urbain, E.S., (1985). An evaluation of interpersonal cognitive problem-solving training with children. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 26, 17-47.
- Pfiffner, L. J., & McBurnett, K. (1997). Social skills training with parent generalization: treatment effects for children with attention deficit disorder. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 65 (5), 749-757.
- Phares, V. (1992). Where's poppa? The relative lack of attention to the role of fathers in child and adolescent psychopathology. *American Psychologist*, 47 (5), 656-664.
- Phares, V., & Renk, K. (1998). Perceptions of parents: a measure of adolescents' feelings about their parents. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 60, 646-659.
- Prinstein, M.J., & La Greca, AM., (1999). Links between mother's and children's social competence and associations with maternal adjustment. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 28 (2), 197-210.
- Putallaz, M. (1987). Maternal behaviour and children's sociometric status. *Child Development*, 58, 324-340.
- Putallaz, M., & Heflin, AH. (1990). Parent-child interaction. Asher, S.R. and Coie, J.D. (Eds). *Peer rejection in childhood*, (189-217). New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Quinn, M. M., & Jannasch-Pennell, A. (1995). Using peers as social skills training agents for students with antisocial behavior. *Preventing School Failure*, 39 (4), 26-31.
- Rice, K. G., Cunningham, T. J., & Young, M. B. (1997). Attachment to parents, social competence, and emotional well-being: a comparison of black and white late adolescents. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 44 (1), 89-101.
- Rivera, B. D., & Rogers-Adkinson, D. (1997). Culturally sensitive interventions: social skills training with children and parents from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 33 (2), 1053-4512.
- Rohner, R. P., & Veneziano, R. A. (2001). The importance of father love: history and contemporary evidence. *Review of General Psychology*, 5 (4), 382-405.
- Rotheram-Borus, M. J., Bickford, B., & Milburn, N. G. (2001). Implementing a classroom-based social skills training program in middle childhood. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 12 (2), 91-111.
- Rubin, K.h., & Mills, R.S. (1988). The many faces of social isolation in childhood. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*. 56 (6), 916-924.
- Russell, G., & Russell, A. (1987). Mother-child and father-child relationships in middle childhood. *Society for Research in Child Development*, 58, 1573-1585.
- Santrock, J, (1997). *Life-Span Development*. 6<sup>th</sup> ed. Madison, Wis: Brown& Benchmark.
- Sapon-Shevin, M. (1982). Ethnical issues in parent training programs. *The Journal of Special Education*, 16 (3), 341-357.
- Schaefer, E. S. (1991). Goals for parent and future-parent education: research on parental beliefs and behavior. *The Elementary School Journal*, 9 (3), 239.
- Schwartz, J. P. (2002). Family resilience and paramagnetic parent education. *The Journal of Individual Psychology*, 58, 3, 250-262.
- Segrin, C. (1999). Social skills, stressful life events, and the development of psychosocial problems. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 18, 1, 14-34.

- Segrin, C., & Flora, J. (2000). Poor social skills are a vulnerability factor in the development of psychological problems. *Human Communication Research*, 26, 3, 489-514.
- Sert, A. G. (2003). *The effect of an assertiveness training on the assertiveness and self-esteem level of 5<sup>th</sup> grade children*. Unpublished master's thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Sichel, B. A. (1989). Classical interpretations of social-learning theory: Protagoras and Socrates. *Educational Theory*, 39(3), 247-260.
- Skrypnek, B. J. (2005). Parent education in Canada: yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Canadian Home Economics Journal*, 51.2, 5(10).
- Smith, R. S. (1997). Parent education: empowerment or control? *Children And Society*, 11, 108-116.
- Sommers, R.K., Fragapane, L. (1994). Changes in maternal attitudes and perceptions and children's communication skills. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 79, 851-861.
- Spence, S.A. (1983). Annotation teaching social skills to children. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 24 (4), 621-627.
- Spence, S. H. (2003). Social skills training with children and young people: theory, evidence and practice. *Child and Adolescent Mental Health*, 8(2), 84-96.
- Spence, S. H., Donovan, C., & Brechman-Toussaint, M. (2000). The treatment of childhood social phobia: the effectiveness of a social skills training-based, cognitive-behavioral intervention, with and without parental involvement. *Journal of Child Psychology Psychiatry*, 41 (6), 713-726.
- Sucuođlu, B. Kūçūker, S. & Kanık, N. (1994). Anne babaların özūrlū çocukla-rının eđitimine katılımları. 1. *Eđitim Bilimleri Kongresi Bildirileri*, Adana: Çukurova Őniversitesi Yayınları, No: 1, 318-331.
- Şahin, R. (1999). *The effect of the communication skills training programo n children's loneliness and assertiveness level*. Unpublished master's thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Şahin, R., & Demir, A. (2001). Assertiveness and loneliness of fifth grade Turkish students. *Abant izzet Baysal Őniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitūsū Dergisi*, 2(3), 118-122.

- Şahiner, B. (1994). *The relationship between assertiveness and self-concept*. Unpublished master's thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Tamis-LeMonda, C. S. (2004). Conceptualizing fathers' roles: playmates and more. *Human Development*, 47(4), 220-227.
- Tiffen, K., & Spence, S.H. (1986). Responsiveness of isolated versus rejected children to social skills training. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 27 (3), 343-355.
- Tebes, J. K., Grady, K., & Snow, D. L. (1989). Parent training in decision-making facilitation: skill acquisition and relationship to gender. *Family Relations*, 38, 243-247.
- Torucu, B. K. (1990). *13- 14 yaşındaki gençlerin sosyo-ekonomik düzeyi ve ana-baba tutumlarındaki farklılıkların belirlenip benlis saygısına etkisinin araştırılıp karşılaştırılması*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans tezi, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İzmir.
- Tunç, A. (2002). *The relationship between parenting style and self-esteem*. unpublished master's thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- University of Florida Cooperative Extension Service, (2000). Guiding children toward self-discipline. [Online] Available at [www.edis.ifas.ufl.edu/pdffiles](http://www.edis.ifas.ufl.edu/pdffiles).
- Updegraff, K. A., McHale, S. M., Crouter, A. C., & Kupanoff, K. (2001). Parents' involvement in adolescents' peer relationships: a comparison of mothers' and Fathers' roles. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 63, 655-668.
- Utku, D. Ö. (1999). *The effects of a parental involvement program on the academic and social development of 6<sup>th</sup> grade children and their parents*. Unpublished master's thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Uz-Baş, A. (2003). *İlköğretim 4. ve 5. sınıflarda okuyan öğrencilerin sosyal becerileri ve okul uyumu ile depresyon düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, İzmir.
- Verduyn, C. M., Lord, W., & Forrest, G. C. (1990). Social skills training in schools: an evaluation study. *Journal of Adolescence*, 13, 3-16.

- Webster-Stratton, C. (1981). Videotape modeling: a method of parent education. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 10 (2), 93-98.
- Webster-Stratton, C. (1985). The effects of father involvement in parent training for conduct problem children. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*. 26, 801-810.
- Webster-Stratton, C., & Hammond, M. (1997). Treatment children with early onset conduct problems. A comparison of child and parent training interventions. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*. 65 (1), 93-109.
- Webster-Stratton, C., Reid, M. J., & Hammond, M. (2001). Preventing conduct problems, promoting social competence: a parent and teacher training partnership in head start. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 30 (3), 283-302.
- Webster-Stratton, C., Reid, M. J., & Hammond, M. (2004). Treating children with early-onset conduct problems: intervention outcomes for parent, child, and teacher training. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology*, 33 (1), 105-124.
- Webster-Stratton, C., & Reid, M. J. (2004). Strengthening social and emotional competence in young children-the foundation for early school readiness and success. *Infants and Young Children*, 17 (2), 96-113.
- Wentzel, K.R., & Berndt, T.J. (1999). Social influences and school adjustment: Overview. *Educational Psychologist*, 34 (1), 1-2.
- Wierson, M., & Forehand, R. (1994). Parent behavioral training for child noncompliance: rationale, concepts, and effectiveness. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 3(5), 146-150.
- Wilson, A. (2002). Developing social skills and self-esteem in children with special needs. *Primary Educator*, 8 (3), 17-23.
- Winsler, A., Madigan, A. L., & Aquilino, S. A. (2005). Correspondence between maternal and parental parenting styles in early childhood. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 20, 1-12.
- Wolfe, R. B., & Hirsch, B. J. (2003). Outcomes of parent education programs based on reevaluation counseling. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 12 (1), 61-76.
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2003). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara, Seçkin Yayınevi.

Yukay, M. (2003). *İlköğretim üçüncü sınıf öğrencilerine yönelik sosyal beceri programının değerlendirilmesi*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Marmara Üniversitesi, İstanbul.

## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### SOSYAL BECERİ DERECELENDİRME ÖLÇEĞİ- ANNE BABA FORMU

Sevgili anne ve baba;

Bu anket çocuğunuzun bazı davranışları ne sıklıkla yaptığını anlamak amacıyla düzenlenmiştir. Öncelikle, aşağıdaki boşluklara siz ve çocuğunuzla ilgili bilgileri doldurunuz

Öğrenci Bilgileri

İsim .....Tarih:.....

Okul: ..... Şehir:.....

Sınıf: .....Yaş:..... Cinsiyet: Kız:  Erkek:

Öğretmenin adı:.....

Kaç kardeşi var?

Hiç  1  2  3 ve daha fazla

Anne baba bilgileri

İsim:.....Telefon; .....

Adres: .....Şehir:.....

Eğitim durumu: İlkokul  Ortaokul  Lise  Üniversite

Diğer:.....Yaş:.....

Cinsiyet: Kadın  Erkek

Öğrenciyle akrabalık dereceniz nedir?

Anne  Baba  Diğer

Aşağıdaki soruları lütfen içtenlikle cevaplayınız. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Lütfen hiçbir maddeyi atlamayınız.

Sevgili Anne ve Baba;

Aşağıda l'den 35'e kadar sıralanan cümleleri okuyunuz. Bu cümlelerde söylenenleri dikkate alarak çocuğunuzun davranışları hakkında düşününüz. Daha sonra açıklanan davranışı çocuğunuzun ne sıklıkla yaptığı hakkında karar veriniz. Eğer çocuğunuz bu davranışı "Hiç bir zaman" yapmıyorsa "0"ı, "Bazen" yapıyorsa "1"i, "Çoğu zaman" yapıyorsa "2"yi daire içine alınız. Yardımlarınıza çok teşekkür ediyorum. Aşağıda anketi nasıl dolduracağınızla ilgili bir örnek vardır.

	Hiç bir zaman	Bazen	Çoğu zaman
Mizah duygusuna sahiptir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Telefona uygun bir şekilde cevap verir.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Bu aile çocuğunun mizah gücünü çoğu zaman ortaya koyduğunu düşünmektedir. Aynı zamanda çocuğunun telefona hiçbir zaman uygun bir şekilde cevap vermediğini düşünmektedir.

Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Lütfen içtenlikle cevaplayınız ve hiçbir maddeyi atlamayınız.

	Hiç bir zaman	Bazen	Çoğu zaman
1. Evdeki boş zamanlarını uygun bir şekilde değerlendirir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Hatırlatmadan odasını temiz ve düzgün tutar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Evde uygun bir ses tonuyla konuşur.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Okulda ya da sokakta oyun etkinliklerine hatırlatılmadan katılır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Yeni insanlarla tanıştığında hatırlatılmadan kendisini tanıtır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Bir şey satın alacağı zaman satış yapan kişilere bilgi ve yardım için soru sorar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Okuldaki veya başka bir yerdeki toplantılara katılır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Gerçekçi olmayan ricaları kibarca geri çevirir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Arkadaşlarını eve davet eder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Başarı durumlarında ailedeki diğer fertleri tebrik eder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Kolaylıkla arkadaş edinir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Hiç bir zaman	Bazen	Çoğu zaman
12. Sorun yaratabilecek durumlardan kaçınır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Oyuncaklarını ve sahip olduğu eve ait diğer şeyleri yerine kaldırır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Aile fertlerine yardıma gönüllüdür.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Kendisine yapılan eleştiriyi olumlu karşılar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Siz yardım istemeden de ev işlerine yardımcı olur.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Kendisine haklı görünmeyen ev içi kurallarını uygun bir şekilde sorgular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Ev işlerini sizin yardımınızı istemeden önce kendisi yapmaya çalışır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. Diğer çocuklarla tartışırken öfkesini kontrol eder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Çevresi tarafından sevilir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Önce başkasının konuşmasını beklemek yerine konuşmayı başlatır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Sizinle olan anlaşmazlıklarını ılımlı bir şekilde sonlandırır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Hiç bir zaman	Bazen	Çoğu zaman
23. Sizinle olan çatışmalarda öfkesini kontrol eder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Arkadaşlarına ya da ailedeki ve akraba çevresindeki diğer çocuklara iltifat eder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Ev işlerini uygun bir zamanda bitirir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Aile fertlerinden birinin eşyasını kullanmadan önce izin ister.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Sosyal ortamlarda (arkadaşlarıyla bir aradayken) kendine güvenlidir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Evden çıkmadan önce izin ister.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Arkadaşlarının ya da aynı yaşta olduğu yakınlarının kızdırmalarına uygun tepki verir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. Sizin yardımınızı beklerken zamanını ev işleriyle ya da başka konularla uğraşarak uygun bir şekilde değerlendirir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. Arkadaşlarının oyunla ilgili fikirlerini kabul eder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Hiç bir zaman	Bazen	Çoğu zaman
32. Bir etkinlikten diğerine kolayca geçebilir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. Aile fertleriyle gerekli durumlarda kendiliğinden işbirliği yapar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Arkadaşlarının iltifat ya da armağanlarına teşekkür eder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. İstenmeyen durumları (kaza v.b) uygun kişilere bildirir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## APPENDIX B

### ANNE BABA EĞİTİM PROGRAMI

#### I. OTURUM

Bu oturumda grup süreciyle ilgili bilgi verilecek, anne ve babalardan grup sürecinden beklentilerini açıklamaları istenecek ve işbirliği davranışı ile ilgili bilgi verilecektir.

##### *Amaçlar*

- Anne ve babaların gruptan beklentilerini belirlemelerini sağlamak,
- Anne ve babaların grubun diğer üyeleriyle tanışmaları ve iletişim kurmalarını sağlamak,
- Grubun temel kurallarını açıklamak,
- İşbirliği davranışını açıklamak,
- İşbirliği davranışının önemini anlatmak.

##### *Araçlar*

- 3x5 renkli karton (isim etiketleri için)
- İşbirliği davranışı ile ilgili 5 basamağının yazılı olduğu kağıt
- Ahmet ve annesinin video kaseti
- Ev ödevi kağıdının olduğu renkli karton

##### *Süreç*

1- Grup lideri kendini tanıtarak, grup üyelerinden de kendilerini tanıtmalarını ister. Burada bulunma amaçlarının bazı sosyal becerilerin çocuklar için neden önemli olduğunu öğrenmek ve bunu çocuklara öğretmek olduğu açıklanır.

2- Grup kurallarının neler olabileceği ile ilgili tartışma başlatılır. Bu kurallar karton ya da tahtaya yazılır.

Bu kurallar aşağıdakilerdir:

- a- Burada konuşulanlar burada kalsın (gizlilik).
- b- Grubu bırakmamak gerekir.

c- Bir kerede bir kiři konuřarak birbirimizi dinleyelim.

d- Bütün oturumlara katılmak gerekir.

Bu kurallar anne babalar tarafından söylenmeyebilir ya da eksik olabilir. Bu durumda grup lideri, oturuma bunları getirerek fikir birlięi saęlamalıdır.

3- Grup üyelerine 3x5 kartonlar verilerek çocukları ve çocukların özelliklerini anlatmaları istenir. Grupta okuma-yazma bilmeyen veliler olur ise, grup üyelerinden bunu sözlü yapmaları istenir.

4- İşbirlięi, iki kiři arasında karşılıklı gönüllü baęlılıęı gerektiren davranışlardır. Çocuklarınızın işbirlięi becerisinden kastedilen gönüllü yardım etmesi, ev işlerini uygun bir zamanda tamamlaması, boş zamanlarını uygun kullanması ve kurallara uyabilmesidir.

5- Grup üyelerine işbirlięinin ile ilgili kaset izletilir.

6- İşbirlięi kaseti ile ilgili fikirleri sorulur. Benzer deneyimleri olanların deneyimleri tartışılır.

7- Ev ödevi (çocuęuyla birlikte yaptığı işler) kaęıdı verilir.

### *Senaryo I*

- Anne ve çocuk mutfaktadır.

- Anne: Ayşecim bana masayı kurmamda yardımcı olur musun? Yemeęe yetiřtirmeye çalışıyorum.

- Çocuk: Tamam anne

- Anne: O büyük tencereleri ben alırım. Onlar senin için ağır. Eęer tuzluk, karabiber, çatal, kaşık koyarsan çok sevinirim. Başka neler yapabilirsin bir bakalım.

- Çocuk: Anne ben ekmeęi de masaya getireyim.

- Anne: Biliyor musun nasıl yetiřtireceęim diye endişeleniyordum, sen olmasan yetiřtiremezdim, canım kızım teşekkür ederim.

- Çocuk: Bir şey deęil annecięim, hem sana yardım etmeyi seviyorum ben.

### *Çocuk*

- Eęer benden yardım isterseniz, niçin yardım istedięinizi söyleyin.
- Yardımımın nasıl önemli olacaęını bana anlatın.

- Yeteneklerimin kıymetini anlamama yardımcı olun. Mesela “bak masayı birlikte toplamamız ne kadar iyi oldu. Şimdi beraber oynamak için daha çok zamanımız var” deyin.

- Bana emir vermeyin, tavsiye yada öneride bulunun. Öneri, teklif işbirliğini artırır, emir verdiğiniz zaman karşı çıkmama yol açar.

*Ev Ödevi:* Önümüzdeki bir hafta çocuğunuzla yapmaktan zevk aldığınız ve onun sizinle yapmaktan zevk aldığı işleri yada etkinlikleri gözlemleyin.

Bu hafta içerisinde;

Çocuğunuzla evde hangi konularda ondan işbirliği beklediğinizi konuşun, çocuğunuz bulmakta zorlandığı zaman ona işbirliğinin içerdiği eşyaları yerine koyma, kendisine düşen işleri zamanında bitirme, odasını söylenmeden temiz tutma gibi işleri yapabileceğini hatırlatın.

### **UNUTMAYIN!**

- ✓ Eğer çocuğunuzdan yardım isterseniz, niçin yardım istediğinizi söyleyin.

- ✓ Yardımının nasıl önemli olacağını anlatın.

- ✓ Çocuğunuzun yeteneklerinin kıymetini anlamasına yardımcı olun. Mesela “bak masayı birlikte toplamamız ne kadar iyi oldu. Şimdi beraber oynamak için daha çok zamanımız var” deyin.

- ✓ Çocuğunuza emir vermeyin, tavsiye yada öneride bulunun. Öneri, teklif işbirliğini artırır, emir verdiğiniz zaman çocuğunuzun size karşı çıkmasına sebep olursunuz.

## **II. OTURUM**

Bu oturumda anne babalara işbirliği becerisinin diğer boyutu olan sınırları koyma ve ricada bulunma becerisi konu edilecektir.

### *Amaçlar*

- Anne babalara çocukları için sınırların niçin önemli olduğunu anlatma.
- Anne babaların sınırları belirlemede izleyebilecekleri yollar üzerinde düşüncelerini sağlama

### *Araçlar*

- “Problem çözme” video kaseti
- Ev ödevi kağıdı

### *Süreç*

- 1- Ev ödevi hakkında konuşulur.
- 2- “Problem çözme” video kaseti izlettirilir.
- 3- Anne ve babalara kasetin ilk kısmındakilere benzer sorunlar yaşayıp yaşamadıkları sorulur.
- 4- Benzer durumları nasıl çözdükleri tartışılır.
- 5- Anne ve babalardan benzer durumlar için kendi senaryolarını oluşturmaları istenir.
- 6- Kasetin son kısmı izlettirilir.
- 7- Anne ve babalardan kendi senaryoları ile karşılaştırmaları istenir. Kendi senaryoları ve izledikleri senaryo arasındaki benzerlik ve farklılıklar üzerinde tartışılır.
- 8- Ev ödevi verilir.

### *Senaryo I*

Ayşe evin ortasında boya kalemlerini dağıtmış, halının üzerinde sulu boya yapmaktadır.

- Anne: Ayşe halının üstünde oynama
- Ayşe: Anne nerde oynarsam oynayayım, beğenmiyorsun.
- Anne: E ama halının üstü dışında oynayacak yer yok mu?
- Ayşe: Anne ne yapayım sen söyle.
- Anne: Git ayak altında oynama, nerde oynarsan oyna.

Ayşe boyalarını bırakır gider.

- Anne: Çabuk gelip boyalarını topla, huysuzluk etme, akşam baban gelince görürsün sen.
- Ayşe: Anne yaaaaa...

### *Senaryo II*

- Anne: Ayşe halının üzerinde oynadığın zaman boyalar dökülebilir.
- Ayşe: Anne peki nerde oynayayım? Hiç beğenmiyorsun yaptığım işleri.
- Anne: Sadece kurallara uymadığın zaman uyarıyorum canım.
- Ayşe: Peki ne yapayım?

- Anne: Başka nerede yapabilirsin bir düşünelim. Nerde oynarsan su dökülmez boyalar etrafı kirletmez beraber karar verelim.
- Ayşe: Mutfakta yapsam olur mu?
- Anne: Mutfakta rahat eder misin? Birazdan masayı kuracağım. O zamana biter mi? Odana ne dersin?
- Ayşe: Anne ben en iyisi odamda yapayım doğru.
- Anne: Bak ne güzel çözüm buldun.

### *Çocuk*

- Eğer bana bazı sınırlar koyacaksanız, bunun sebebini açıklayın.
- Bana problemi çözmem için zaman tanıyın.
- Yaptığım davranışta sorun neyse onu tanımlayın.
- Bana soru sorun, “Başka nerede resim çizebilirsin?” gibi.
- Pek çok çocuk uygun yolu bulma konusunda sorun yaşar ve yardıma ihtiyaç duyar. Bana çözüm önerileri getirin.

*Ev ödevi:* Çocuğunuzla benzer sorunlar yaşadığınızda burda öğrendiğiniz davranışların işinize yarayıp yaramadığını gözlemleyin.

Çocuğunuza geçen hafta belirlediğiniz hem onun hem sizin beraber yapmaktan zevk aldığınız davranışları yapmayı deneyin. Çocuğunuzun ev işleri, odasının düzeni, eşyalarını yerine kaldırma gibi işbirliği davranışlarını farkettiğinizi ve takdir ettiğinizi gösterin.

### **UNUTMAYIN!**

- ✓ Eğer çocuğunuza bazı sınırlar koyacaksanız bunun sebebini açıklayın.
- ✓ Çocuğunuza problemi çözmesi için zaman tanıyın.
- ✓ Yaptığı davranışta sorun neyse onu tanımlayın.
- ✓ Ona soru sorun, “Başka nerede resim çizebilirsin?” gibi.
- ✓ Pek çok çocuk uygun yolu bulma konusunda sorun yaşar ve yardıma ihtiyaç duyar. Ona çözüm önerileri getirin.

### **III. OTURUM**

Bu oturumda anne ve babalara girişkenliğin ne olduğu hakkında bilgi verilecektir.

### *Amaçlar*

- Anne ve babaları girişkenlik davranışı hakkında düşünmeleri için cesaretlendirmek.
- Anne ve babaları girişkenlik davranışının ne olduğunu anlamalarına yardımcı olmak.

### *Araçlar*

- 10x10 renkli karton girişkenlik becerisi yazılı
- Anne ve babalar için çocuklarıyla oynamaları için duygu kartları
- Ev ödevi kağıtları
- Ben dili aktivitesi tahta ve her veli için renkli kartonlara yazılı

### *Süreç*

- 1- Oturum geçen oturumun özeti ve ev ödevlerinin tartışılmasıyla başlar.
- 2- Anne ve babalara girişkenlik nedir ve çocuklarından bekledikleri girişkenlik davranışları nelerdir diye sorulur.

Cevaplar şunları içerecektir;

- a- Çocuğum haklarını korusun,
- b- Düşüncelerini savunsun
- c- Haklı olduğu zaman sonuna kadar savunsun.

- 3- Lider eklemek istediği maddeleri ilave eder. Bunlar şunlar olacaktır;

- Haklarının farkına varma
- Duygularının farkına varma
- Kendisine uygun görünmeyen ricaları kibarca geri çevirme
- Haklarını başkalarının haklarını incitmeden savunabilme

- 4-Çocukların bu becerileri hangi yolla kazanabileceği sorulur.

Cevaplar şunları içerecektir.

- a- Model alma yoluyla
- b- Olumlu davranışı sergileyerek
- c- Olumlu davranışı pekiştirildiği zaman

- 5- Ben dili egzersizi yapılır.

- 6-Ev ödevi verilir (Duygu kartları ve ben dili egzersizi).

### Çocuk

- Eğer daha girişken olmamı istiyorsanız bana davranışlarınızla model olun.
- Bana girişken olmakla saldırgan ya da pasif olmak arasındaki farkı gösterin.
- Evde oynayacağımız oyunlarla ya da ev içindeki yaşantılarda bana bu davranışı sergileyebileceğim ortamlar hazırlayın.
- Herhangi bir durumda girişken davrandığımda bunu bana söyleyin ve beni kutlayın.

*Ev ödevi:* Ben dili formlarına bu hafta kullanacağınız cümlelerden örnekler yazın. Çocuğunuzla duygu kartlarının aynısını ifade ettikleri duyguları da konuşarak çizmeye çalışın.

- Ben dili egzersizi:

“Ben dili”: ben diliyle konuştuğunuzda düşüncelerinizi çocuğunuza aktarırsınız. Çocuğunuz ben mesajını duyduğu zaman, sizin istediğiniz ya da beklediğiniz şeyi yapmadığını anlar. Ben mesajı çocuğunuza ne ne istediğinizi ve ne hissettiğinizi söylemenin açık ve tehdit içermeyen bir yoludur.

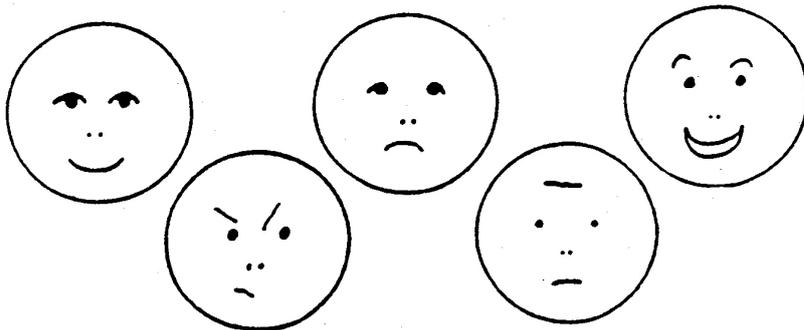
“Sen dili”: sen diliyle konuştuğunuz zaman çocuğunuz yargılandığını ya da suçlandığını hisseder. Sizin onun kötü bir çocuk olduğunu düşündüğünüzü sanır.

Ben .....hissediyorum (duyguyu yazın).

Sen .....yaptığında (belirgin davranışı yazın).

Çünkü .....(hayatınıza olan etkisini yazın).

- Duygu kartları



## **UNUTMAYIN**

- ✓ Eğer çocuğunuzun daha girişken olmasını istiyorsanız ona davranışlarınızla model olun
- ✓ Ona girişken olmakla saldırgan ya da pasif olmak arasındaki farkı gösterin.
- ✓ Evde oynayacağınız oyunlarla ve ev içindeki yaşantılarda ona bu davranışı sergileyebileceği ortamlar hazırlayın.
- ✓ Herhangi bir durumda girişken davrandığında bunu ona söyleyin ve onu kutlayın.

## **IV. OTURUM**

Bu oturumda anne ve babalar girişkenlik becerisinin hangi durumlarda ve nasıl sergileneceği konusunda bilgilendirilecektir.

### *Amaçlar*

- Anne ve babaların çocukların evde sergiledikleri cesaretlendirilmeyen becerilerinin dışarda uygulamalarının güçlüğü anlamaları .
- Anne ve babaların çocuklarında gelişmesini istedikleri davranışları sergilemeleri .
- Anne ve babaların cesaretlendirme ve pekiştirmenin önemini anlamaları.

### *Materyaller*

- 10x10 renkli karton (önceki oturumda da kullanılan girişkenlik becerisinin tanımı yazılı)
- 5x10 renkli karton “çözüm önerileri” için
- 20x10 tahta kutu
- “Ne zaman hayır diyebilirim” video kaseti

### *Süreç*

- 1- Anne ve babalara önceki oturumun özeti yaptırılır.
- 2- Ev ödevleri tartışılır.
- 3-Anne ve babalara önceki oturumda da dağıtılan girişkenlik becerisinin yazılı olduğu kartonlar dağıtılır. Tanım kısaca hatırlanır.
- 4- “Ne zaman hayır diyebilirim” kaseti izlettirilir.

5- Senaryo da yarım bırakılan yerler için her anne ve babadan çözüm önerilerini kartona yazmaları ve kutuya atmaları istenir.

6- Herkes kutudan bir karton çekerek elindeki çözüm önerisini tartışır.

7- Ev ödevi verilir.

*Ev ödevi:* bu hafta çocuğunuzla beraber alışverişe çıktığınızda beğendiği şeyler hakkında satıcıyla konuşmasına izin verin ve teşvik edin.

Çocuğunuz için yeni olabilecek ortamlara girmeye çalışın ve kendisini tanıtmayı onu teşvik edin.

Çocuğunuzun eve arkadaşlarını çağırması için onu teşvik edin.

#### *Senaryo IV*

Ayşe eve geldiğinde çok üzgündür. Babası o gün okulda Ayşe'yi üzecek birşey olup olmadığını anlamaya çalışır. Ama Ayşe okul hakkında konuşmak istememektedir. Babası endişelenip öğretmenini arar. Öğretmeni Ayşe'nin o gün arkadaşlarıyla beraber okuldan kaçtığını söyler. Ayşe ve babası arasında şu konuşmalar geçer.

- Baba: Ayşe az önce öğretmenle konuştum. Bu gün okuldan kaçmışsınız. Bu davranışına çok üzüldüm. Bunu neden yaptığını merak ediyorum.

- Ayşe:.....

- Baba: Ayşe okuldan neden kaçtığını duymak istiyorum.

- Ayşe: Arkadaşlarım ısrar etti. Gelmezsen seninle oynamayız dediler.

- Baba: Sen okuldan kaçmak istemediğin halde sadece başkası istedi diye mi yaptın? Onlar ne istese yapacak mısın?

- Ayşe: Onlar beni sevsin diye yaptım baba.

- Baba: İnsanlar seni sevsin diye her istediklerini yapmamalısın.

- Ayşe: Ama siz demiyor musunuz bana eğer uslu bir çocuk olursan seni severiz diye. Bende onların her dediklerini yaparsam onlar da beni sever zannettim.

- Baba: Sana ne zaman böyle dediğimi hatırlamıyorum. Biz senin her istediğimizi yapmanı istemiyoruz.

-Ayşe: O zaman neden alacağım kalemi seçemiyorum, giyeceğim elbiseye karar veremiyorum ya da rengini ben seçemiyorum. Neden benim seçtiklerimi hiç beğenmiyorsunuz? Ben beğendim dediğimde neden hep hayır diyorsunuz?

-Baba: Tamam, tamam. Anlaşılan bugüne kadar senin düşüncelerine ne kadar önem verdiğimizizi gösterememişiz. Unutma biz seni her koşulda seviyoruz. Eğer arkadaşlarında seni gerçekten seviyorlarsa her zaman düşüncelerine saygı gösterirler. Tabi bunu uygun yolla ifade edersen. Şimdi beraber düşünelim, bir daha hoşuna gitmeyen bir şey yapmanı isterlerse onlara neler söyleyebilirsin.....

.....  
- Baba: Tamam o zaman anlaştık.

-Ayşe: Bir şey daha var. Sıra arkadaşım Derya'yı biliyorsun, hep o eşyalarımı izinsiz alıyor.

-Baba: Tabi sen buna kızılıyorsun.

-Ayşe:Evet.

-Baba: Hadi birlikte ona nasıl bunu söyleyebileceğini konuşalım. Biri senden izinsiz birşey aldığında, ya da sana lazım olan bir şey istediğinde neler söyleyebilirsin.

.....  
Baba: Ayşe bir daha okulda zor durumda kaldığında bana anlatır mısın canım. Bak beraber ne güzel çözümler buluyoruz.

## **V. OTURUM**

Bu oturumda anne ve babalara sorumluluk davranışının ne olduğu anlatılacak ve üzerinde tartışılacaktır.

Amaçlar

- Anne ve babaların sorumluluk davranışının ne olduğunu anlamalarını sağlamak.
- Anne ve babalardan çocukların özellikleri ve yaşına göre sorumluluk istemelerine yardımcı olmak.

- Anne ve babaların çocuklarına sorumluluk becerisini kazandırmalarına yardımcı olmak.

### *Araçlar*

- Tahta ve kalem
- 10x10 sorumluluk becerisinin tanımı yazılı renkli kağıtlar.
- Sorumluluk video kaseti

### *Süreç*

1- Anne ve babalara sorumluluk size göre nedir diye sorulur. Cevaplar tahtaya yazılır.

2- Anne ve babalara sorumluluk tanımı olan kağıtlar dağıtılır üzerinde tartışılır.

“Çocuğunuzun sorumluluk becerisi yetişkinlerle iletişim kurabilmek ve sahip olduğu eşyalara ve kendisine verilen görevlere dikkat etme anlamına gelecektir. Çocuğunuzun sorumlulukla ilgili davranışları şunları içerecektir;

- başkasının eşyasını kullanmadan önce izin isteme,
- aile üyelerini kutlayabilme
- evden ayrılmadan önce izin isteme
- uygun bir ses tonuyla konuşma
- kızdırmalara karşı uygun tepki verme”

2- Anne ve babalara çocuklarının evde ne tür sorumlulukları olduğu sorulur.

3- Eğer sorumluluk davranışı tanımıyla çocukların evdeki sorumlulukları arasında fark varsa sebebi tartışılır.

4- Sorumluluk kaseti izlettirilir.

5- Anne ve babalar senaryodaki çözüm önerilerini tartışmaları ve kendi çocuklarıyla benzer çözümleri deneyip deneyemeyecekleri sorulur.

6- Senaryonun sonundaki çözüm önerisinin işe yaramadığı durumlarda çocukları öğretilen diğer becerilerin neler olabileceği tartışılır ve diğer başatma yolları sunulur.

7- Sorumluluk kartonu (sorumluluk becerisi yazılı) birlikte doldurulur ve ev ödevi olarak verilir.

*Ev ödevi:* Bu hafta öğrendiğiniz sorumluluk becerisi hakkında çocuğunuzla konuşun ve bu hafta çocuğunuzun evden ayrılmadan önce izin isteme, uygun bir ses tonuyla konuşma, başkasının eşyalarını kullanmadan önce izin isteme becerilerini sergilemesine yardımcı olun.

#### *Senaryo V*

Ahmet okuldan eve döndüğünde evde misafirler olduğunu görür, ama hiçbirini tanımamaktadır. Kapıdan bakar ve odasına. Misafirler gittikten sonra babası kapıyı vurarak içeri girer;

Baba: Ahmet nasılsın oğlum okul nasıldı?

Ahmet: İyiydi baba. Onlar kimdi?

Baba: Benim işyerinden arkadaşlarımdı oğlum. Onlara hoş geldin demeni çok isterdim.

Ahmet: İyi ama tanımıyordum ki onları.

Baba: İşte hoş geldin demen tanışman içinde çok iyi bir fırsat olabilirdi.

Ahmet: Aslında ben böyle zamanlarda utanıyorum baba.

Baba: Neden utandığını merak ediyorum.

Ahmet: Ya yanlış bir şey söylersem, ya beni ayıplarlarsa falan diye düşünüyorum.

Baba: Bak bu düşüncen seni rahatsız ediyor. Bu yüzden konuşmaktan çekiniyorsun sanırım. Şöyle düşün, onların da senin yaşında çocukları var ve sen utanılacak hiçbir şey yapmıyorsun.

Ahmet: Tamam baba bir dahaki sefere deneyeceğim.

Baba: Anlaştık.

Ahmet: Baba sana bir şey söyleyeceğim okulla ilgili

Baba: Seni dinliyorum

Ahmet: Bugün okul çıkışı bazı çocuklar bizi sıkıştırıp topaçlarımızı aldılar. Sonra da korkuttular kimseye söylemeyelim diye.

Baba: Öğretmenin bu konuda sana yardımcı olabilir mi ne dersin?

Ahmet: Baba öğretmene nasıl söyleyeceğim bize de kızar sonra hem o çocuklar sonra niye öğretmene söyledin derlerse ne yapacağım?

Baba: Ahmet bu çocuklarla kavgaya girmek istememen ve bundan kaçınman çok güzel. Ancak onların seni bir daha rahatsız etmemesi için öğretmenin yardım istemen işe yarayabilir. Bunu denemek ister misin?

Ahmet:Tamam ne söyleyeyim?

Baba:Gel nasıl söyleyeceğini kararlaştıralım.

## **OTURUM VI**

Bu oturumda anne ve babalara sorumluluk davranışının niçin önemli olduğu ve çocuklarına neler kazandıracacağı tartışılacaktır.

### *Amaçlar*

- Anne ve babaların çocuklarının sorumluluk davranışının niçin gerekli olduğunu anlamalarına yardımcı olma.
- Anne ve babalara çocuklarına bu beceriyi kazandırmalarına yardımcı olma.

### *Araçlar*

- Video kaset

### *Süreç*

- 1- Geçen oturum özetlenir ve ödevler tartışılır.
- 2- Anne ve babaların çocuklarının hangi yaşta ne tür sorumluluklar üstlenmesi gerektiği tartışılır.
- 3- Sorumluluklar yaşa ve beceriye uygun olmadığında neler olabileceği tartışılır
- 4- Video kaset izlettirilir
- 5- Kasetle ilgili olarak velilere neler düşündükleri sorulur.
- 6- Anne ve babalara benzer durumlarda nasıl davrandıkları sorulur.
- 7- Anne ve babaların alternatifler üzerinde düşünmeleri istenir ve bunlar tartışılır.
- 8- Ev ödevi kağıdı verilir.

*Ev ödevi:* çocuğunuzla bu hafta okulda arkadaş çevresinde yaşadığı sorunları konuşması için teşvik edin. Çocuğunuzla evdeki sorumlulukları hakkında konuşun ve kendisine uygun gelmeyen sorumlulukları konuşma fırsatı yaratın.

### *Senaryo VI*

Ahmet okuldan eve döndüğünde annesi evde yoktur. Ahmet'e not bırakmıştır. "Ahmet yemeğin dolapta ısıtıp yiyebilirsin" yazmaktadır notta. Ahmet yemeğini ısıtırken yemeği üzerine döker ve neyse ki çok hafifçe yanar. Annesi ve babası eve döndüklerinde Ahmet evde yoktur. Komşu Fatma hanım onların geldiğini görünce Ahmet'le beraber gelir.

Fatma hanım: Lale Hanım Ahmet üzerine yemeği dökmüş ısıtırken, yanınca bana geldi, endişelenecek bir şey yok merak etmeyin.

Anne: Çok endişelendik oğlum, nasıl oldu? İyi misin?

Baba: Oğlum canın yanıyor mu?

Fatma Hanım: Evde yalnız kalmış galiba yemeğini de kendisi ısıtmaya kalkmış. Keşke bana haber verseydiniz ben yardımcı olurum. Ahmet bu işleri büyüdükçe öğrenecek.

#### *Çocuk:*

- Benden beklediğiniz sorumlulukların yaşına ve bana uygun olup olmadığını düşünün.
- Benimle bunu yapabili yapamayacağım hakkında konuşun.
- Yapamayacağımı söylediğimde sebepini anlamaya çalışın.
- Eğer benim uygun olmayan bir davranışım varsa bunu benimle konuşun.
- Yaptığım olumlu davranışları bana söyleyip destekleyin.

#### **UNUTMAYIN!**

- ✓ Çocuğunuzdan beklediğiniz sorumlulukların yaşına ve ona uygun olup olmadığını düşünün.
- ✓ Onunla bunu yapabili yapamayacağı hakkında konuşun.
- ✓ Yapamayacağını söylediğinde sebepini anlamaya çalışın.
- ✓ Eğer çocuğunuzun uygun olmayan bir davranışı varsa bunu onunla konuşun.
- ✓ Yaptığı olumlu davranışları ona söyleyip destekleyin.

#### **OTURUM VII**

Bu oturumda anne ve babalara özdenetimin ne olduğu anlatılacaktır.

### *Amaçlar*

- Anne ve babaların özdenetimi anlamalarını sağlamak
- Anne ve babaların çocuklarının çatışma durumlarında kendini kontrol etmesine yardımcı olmalarını sağlamak

### *Araçlar*

- Tahta ve kalem
- Video kaseti
- Ev ödevi kağıtları

### *Süreç*

1- Önceki oturum hep beraber özetlenir. Ev ödevleri tartışılır.

2- Lider özdenetimi tanımlar

Özdenetim güç durumlarla, öfkeyle ve hayalkırıklığıyla başa çıkmaya yarayan bir anlayış geliştirebilmektir. Çocuğunuz öz-denetim becerisine sahip olduğunda, sizinle, arkadaşlarıyla ya da çevresindeki anlaşmazlıklarını ılımlı bir şekilde sonlandırmayı, rahatsız edici durumlardan kaçınmayı başaracaktır.

Anne ve babalara çocuklarının hangi durumlarda kendini kontrol etmekte zorlandıkları sorulur. Cevaplar tahtaya yazılır.

3- Bu tür durumlarda nasıl davranmalarını bekledikleri sorulur.

4- Kaset izlenir.

5- Anne ve babalara benzer bir yöntem uygulayıp uygulayamayacakları sorulur.

6- Ev ödevi kağıdı verilir.

*Ev ödevi:* Çocuğunuzla senaryodaki gibi bir durum başına geldiğinde nasıl davranabileceği hakkında konuşun. Zor durumda kaldığında bir yetişkinden yardım isteme, duymamazlıktan gelme ve oradan uzaklaşma seçeneklerini konuşarak çocuğunuzla senaryolar oluşturmayı ve oynamayı deneyin.

### *Senaryo VII*

Eve telefon gelir, arayan Ahmet'in öğretmenidir. Ahmet'in o gün okulda kavga ettiğini söyler ve ertesi gün konuyu görüşmek üzere kendilerini okula davet eder.

Baba: Ahmet az önce öğretmenin aradı. Bugün okulda neler oldu? Bir de senden duymak istiyorum.

Ahmet: Baba, biliyorsun sana geçen gün anlatmıştım.okul çıkışı çocuklar önümü kesiyor demiştim. Öğretmene söyledim. Artık kesmiyorlar. Ama okul çok zor baba, beni ördek diye kızdırıyorlar. Bunu da öğretmene söylesem işe yaramayacak biliyorum. Sonra her şeyi öğretmen söylüyor diye dalga geçecekler bu sefer de.

Baba:Arkadaşlarının seni kızdırması seni çok üzmüş ve kızdırmış galiba. Anladığım kadarıyla bu sorunla kendin başa çıkmak istedin. Peki nasıl çözmeye çalıştığını öğrenmek istiyorum.

Ahmet: Biliyorum kavga etmeme kızılıyorsun ama başka türlü çözemzedim.hem senin haklarımı korumamı istemiyor musun?

Baba: Elbette senin kendi haklarını savunmanı bekliyorum Ama yöntemin hoşuma gitmedi açıkçası bu konudaki fikrimi sen de biliyorsun. İstersen senin bu davranışın ne kadar işine yaradı onu konuşalım. Sen kavga edince neler oldu anlatır mısın?

Ahmet: Öğretmen kızdı, müdüre söyledi, müdür de kızdı, sınıfta herkes bizim müdüre gittiğimizi biliyor şimdi. Öğretmen bir de sizi aradı.

Baba: Ahmet anladığım kadarıyla şu an içinde bulunduğun durumdan memnun değilsin.kavga sorunları çözmüyor gördüğün gibi daha fazla soruna yol açıyor. Böyle bir durumda başka nasıl davranabilirdin?

Ahmet: Bir daha bana ördek derlerse, bana öyle söylemeyin derim.

Baba: Bu güzel bir fikir ama yine de söylemeye devam ederlerse, arkanı dönüp duymamazlıktan gelebilirsin ya da oradan uzaklaşabilirsin. Gel seninle bunu oynayalım mı ne dersin?

## **OTURUM VIII**

Bu oturumda anne ve babalara çocuklarının özdenetimlerini nasıl geliştirebilecekleri tartışılacaktır.

### *Amaçlar*

- Anne ve babaların çocuklarının özdenetimlerini geliştirmelerine yardımcı olmak.

### *Araçlar*

- Video kaset
- Ev ödevi kağıtları

### *Süreç*

- 1- Bir önceki oturum özetlenir ve ev ödevleri tartışılır.
- 2- Özdenetim ve önemiyle ilgili anne ve babaların bir önceki oturumda söyledikleri özetlenir ve tekrarlanır.
- 3- Anne ve babalara video kaset izlettirilir.
- 4- Kasetteki çocuk ve anne-baba hakkında ne düşündükleri sorulur.
- 5- Anne ve babalara benzer durumlarda nasıl davrandıkları sorulur.
- 6- Anne ve babalardan kendi çocuklarının öz-denetim becerileri hakkında düşünmeleri istenir.
- 7- Her birinin çözüm önerilerinin çocuklarının özelliklerine göre nasıl farklılaştığı ve neden kendi çocuklarına özel çözümler üretmeleri gerektiği tartışılır.
- 8- Ev ödevi verilir.

*Ev ödevi:* Bu hafta çocuğunuzla bir tartışmayı nasıl ılımlı bir şekilde sonlandırabileceğini konuşun. Senaryodaki çözüme benzer çözümler üretin ve unutmayın kağıtlarınızdaki adımları takip edin.

### *Senaryo VIII*

Ayşe: Anne ben köfte sevmiyorum sürekli köfte yapıyorsun.

Anne: Çünkü köfte çok pratik canım, biliyorsun çalışıyorum zaman benim için önemli.

Ayşe: İyi de bıktım yaa, yemeyeceğim işte.

Anne: Ayşe çok kızdın köfte yaptım diye.

Ayşe: (suratını asar) Ben odama gidiyorum yemeyeceğim işte.

Anne: Ayşe, arkadaşların seni kızdırdıklarında kavga etmemek için neler yapacağını konuşmuştuk seninle hatırlıyor musun? Bunu bana ya da babana kızdığında denemeye ne dersin?

Ayşe: Nasıl yani duymamazlıktan mı geleyim.

Anne: Sence bu durumda işe yarar mı?

Ayşe: Yüksek sesle konuşma diyeceksin.

Anne: Haklısın, bağırmandan hiç hoşlanmıyorum ve ben de kızıyorum, ama bak kendimi tutuyorum ve seninle konuşuyorum. Sen de dener misin bunu. Şu köfte olayını baştan alalım hadi. Nasıl öfkeni kontrol edip, benimle konuşabilirdin?

Anne ve babalara bu konuşmanın devamının nasıl olabileceği sorulur.

Anne ve babalardan bu senaryoları grup içinde denemeleri istenir

#### *Çocuk*

- Bir hata yaptığımda bunu bana söylemelisiniz.
- Bana bir şey yapmadan önce düşünmeyi öğretin.
- Bana çözemediğim problemlerimi sizinle rahatça konuşabileceğimi hissettirin.
- Uygulamamı beklediğiniz çözümleri bana gösterin. Sizi model aldığımı unutmayın.

#### **UNUTMAYIN**

- ✓ Çocuğunuz bir hata yaptığında bunu söylemelisiniz.
- ✓ Ona bir şey yapmadan önce düşünmeyi öğretin.
- ✓ Ona çözemediği problemlerini sizinle rahatça konuşabileceğini hissettirin.
- ✓ Uygulamasını beklediğiniz çözümleri ona gösterin. Sizi model aldığını unutmayın.

#### **OTURUM IX**

Bu oturumda anne ve babalara özsaygı konusunda bilgi verilecektir.

#### *Amaçlar*

- Anne ve babaların özsaygı konusunda bilgilenmeleri
- Anne ve babaların çocuklarının sağlıklı gelişimi için ve çocuklarının öğrendikleri sosyal becerileri sergileyebilmeleri için gerekli görülen öz-saygı kavramını anlamaları.

#### *Araçlar*

- Tahta ve kalem
- Dört anahtar soru kağıdı ev ödevi
- Çocukların ihtiyaçlarının yazılı olduğu karton
- Video kaset.

### *Süreç*

1- Önceki oturum özetlenir ve ev ödevleri üzerinde konuşulur.

2- Anne ve babalar öz-saygının ne olduğu sorulur. Cevaplar tahtaya yazılır ve tanımla ilgili eksiklikler tamamlanır.

Öz-saygı kısaca kişinin kendisini değerlendirerek, kendisini değerli ve önemli hissetmesidir. Öz-saygı kendini olduğundan aşağı ya da olduğundan üstün görmemek ve kendini olduğu gibi kabul edip kendinden memnun olmaktır.

3- Anne ve babalara dört anahtar soru kağıdı dağıtılır.

Aşağıdaki dört soruya verdikleri cevaplar çocuklarınızın öz-saygısıyla ilişkilidir.

Ne yapmak istiyor: Çocuklarınız yapmak istediklerine ulaşmak için bazı etkinliklere girişmek durumundadır. Bu etkinliklerde amacına ulaşmak için uygun olmayan modelleri örnek almışlarsa başarısız olma olasılıkları olacak ve öz-saygıları olumsuz etkilenecektir.

Ne olmak istiyor: Çocuklarınızın olmak istedikleri yetenekleri yada becerileri ile ilgili ise bu durum öz-saygısını olumlu etkileyecektir.

Neye sahip olmak istiyor: Çocuğunuzun sahip olmak istediklerine çaba göstermesine rağmen ulaşamaması durumunda öz-saygısı olumsuz etkilenebilir. Örneğin arkadaş edinmeye çalışıp edinememesi.

Ne vermek istiyor: Çocuklarınız başkaları içinde bir şeyler yapabilmek isterler, örneğin gülümseme, iltifat etme, karşıdakinin söylediklerine önem verme gibi. Bu durumda yapabildiği ölçüde öz-saygısını artıracak ya da azaltacaktır.

4- Çocukların ihtiyaçlarının yazılı olduğu kağıt anne ve babalara dağıtılır. Bunların üzerinde tartışılır.

Çocuklarımızın ihtiyaçları;

-Çevreyle bağlantı ya da ilişki kurabilme.

-Diğerlerinden farklı olduğunun, kişisel özelliklerinin kabul edilmesi.  
Biricik, tek olduğunun anlaşılması.

-Kendi yeteneklerini, becerilerini kullanabilme.

-Doğruyu yanlış farketmesi, doğru seçimler yapabilmesi ve hedefler oluşturabilmesi için uygun modellere ihtiyaç duyarlar

5- Anne ve babalara kendi çocuklarının ihtiyaçları hakkında neler düşündükleri sorulur.

6- Video kaset izlettirilir.

7- Anne ve babalara benzer durumda nasıl davranacakları sorulur.

8- Ev ödevleri verilir ve oturum özetlenir.

*Ev ödevi:* Çocuğunuzun kendine has olumlu özellikleri hakkında düşünüp uygun ortamlarda bunu ona dile getirin.

-Çocuğunuzla beraber kendisinde beğendiği özellikleri bulmaya çalışın. Bu çalışma sırasında çocuğunuz bulamasa da siz ona onunla ilgili olumlu düşüncenizi söyleyin ve olumlu duygularla aranızdaki bu etkinliği bitirdiğinizden emin olun.

*Senaryo IX*

Ayşe ve annesi mutfakta oturmaktadır.

Anne: Ayşe matematik sınavın nasıl geçti yavrum.

Ayşe: Anne matematiği yapamıyorum. Benim algılama sorunum var.

Anne: Ayşe o ne demek canım, sen o kelimeyi nereden öğrendin?

Ayşe: Öğretmen söyledi anne. Herkes herşeyi aynı derecede algılayamaz dedi. Demek ki ben algılayamıyorum.

Anne: Ayşe öğretmenin farklı konularda, farklı başarılarınızın olmasının doğal bir şey olduğunu söylemek istemiş canım. Mesela sen çok güzel resim yapıyorsun. Çok başarılısın.

Ayşe: ben de Sıla kadar iyi olmak istiyorum matematikte, hem o çok da güzel. Öğretmen beni de onun kadar severdi?

Anne: Ayşe böyle hissetmene üzüldüm. Bu durum beni endişelendiriyor açıkçası. Kendi yeteneklerini, olumlu özelliklerini farketmeni isterdim. Bak sana ne söyleyeceğim. Sen çok özel bir çocuksun. Ben seni çok seviyorum her koşulda. Ama matematikte daha başarılı olmak istemeni

de anlıyorum. Bunun nasıl bir çalışma yöntemi geliştirebileceğini konuşalım gel seninle.

*Çocuk:*

- Sorumlu davranışlarımı ödüllendirin.
- Benimle duygularınızı paylaşın ve bana kendi duygularımı sizinle nasıl paylaşacağımı öğretin.
- Benimle, beni yargılamadan, öğüt vermeden eleştirmeden konuşun.
- Kendimdeki olumlu özellikleri farketmeme yardımcı olun.
- Benimle nasıl olumlu iletişim kurabileceğinizi düşünün ve bu yolları her gün uygulayın.
- İşbirliği, problem çözme ve birbirine saygı göstermek için olumlu yolları deneyin.
- *Unutmayın!* Ben sizden farklıyım ve farklı olmam normal bir durum. Benim kendime özgü özelliklerimi kabullenmeyi öğrenin.
- Problemlerimi mümkün olduğunca kendi yollarımla çözmeme fırsat tanıyın. Seçim yapma şansını verirken sınırların ve sorumluluklarımın farkında olduğumdan emin olun.
- Bana yaratıcılığımı kullanma fırsatı verin.

### **UNUTMAYIN!**

- ✓ Çocuğunuzun sorumlu davranışlarını ödüllendirin.
- ✓ Çocuğunuzla duygularınızı paylaşın ve ona kendi duygularını sizinle nasıl paylaşacağını öğretin.
- ✓ Onunla yargılamadan, öğüt vermeden eleştirmeden konuşun.
- ✓ Çocuğunuzun sahip olduğu olumlu özellikleri farketmesine yardımcı olun.
- ✓ Onunla nasıl olumlu iletişim kurabileceğinizi düşünün ve bu yolları her gün uygulayın.
- ✓ Çocuğunuzla işbirliği, problem çözme ve birbirine saygı göstermek için olumlu yolları deneyin.
- ✓ Unutmayın! Çocuğunuz sizden farklı ve farklı olması normal bir durum. Onun kendine özgü özelliklerini kabullenmeyi öğrenin.

- ✓ Problemlerini mümkün olduğunca kendi yollarıyla çözmeye fırsat tanıyın. Seçim yapma şansını verirken sınırlarının ve sorumluluklarının farkında olduğundan emin olun.
- ✓ Ona yaratıcılığını kullanma fırsatı verin.

## **OTURUM X**

Bu oturumda tüm oturumların özeti yapılacak ve grup sonlandırılacaktır.

### *Amaçlar*

- Anne ve babaların çocukların öz saygılarını geliştirmelerine yardımcı olmak.
- Grup sürecini özetleme.

### *Araçlar*

- Değerlendirme kağıdı (Grup oturumları için).

### *İşlem*

- 1-Geçen haftanın özeti yapılır ve ev ödevi üzerinde tartışılır.
- 2-Değerlendirme kağıdı üzerinde doldurulur ve tartışılır.
- 3-Anne ve babalara oturumları kendileri ve çocukları üzerinde ne gibi etkiler yaptığı sorulur.
- 4-Anne ve babalara bugüne kadar öğrendiklerini ilerde karşılaşılabilecekleri durumlarda ne kadar kullanabilecekleri sorulur.
- 5-Oturum sonlandırılır.

## APPENDIX C

### TÜRKÇE ÖZET

#### EBEVEYN EĞİTİMİNİN İLKÖĞRETİM ÜÇÜNCÜ SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN SOSYAL BECERİ DÜZEYLERİNE ETKİSİ

Çocuklar sağlıklı bir gelişim için diğerleriyle sosyal ilişkiler kurmaya ihtiyaç duyarlar (Parke ve Ladd, 1992 akt. Mize ve Abell, 1996) ve akranlarıyla başarılı bir şekilde etkileşime girmek çocukların sağlıklı gelişiminin önemli bir parçasıdır (Gresham, 1982). Sosyal beceriler bu etkileşimin merkezinde yer alır ve bireylerin eğitsel, mesleki, ve kişisel amaçlarına ulaşmalarına yardımcı olur. Sosyal beceriler daha geniş bir kavram olan sosyal yeterlilik kavramının bir alt boyutu olarak tanımlanabilir (Gresham, 1982). Paylaşma, yardım etme, iletişim kurma, başkalarından yardım isteme ve iltifat etme gibi davranışlar evrensel olarak istenen ve sosyal beceriler olarak adlandırılan davranışlardır (Elliott, Malecki ve Demaray, 2001).

Sosyal becerilerin gelişmesi çocukların daha mutlu, öz-saygısı yüksek ve akranlarıyla uyumlu bireyler olmasına yardımcı olur. Herbert'a (1996) göre sosyal becerilere sahip bireyler, rahatsız edici durumlarla baş ederken diğerlerinden farklı davranırlar. Ayrıca sosyal becerilere sahip ya da sosyal yeterliliğe sahip bireyler başkalarıyla sağlıklı iletişim kurabilme becerisine sahiptirler (Kelly, 1982).

Elliott ve diğerleri'ne göre sosyal beceri yetersizliği çocuklarda sosyal uyumsuzluğa, akademik yetersizliğe, akran grubundan reddedilmeye ve

psikopatolojiye yol açabilir (akt. Rivera ve Roger-Atkinson, 1997). Sosyal beceri yetersizliği, eğer müdahale edilmezse, ergenlik ve yetişkinlikte sosyal etkileşimde yetersizliğe yol açabilir. Araştırma bulguları, yaşlılarına göre daha az sosyal beceriye sahip olan çocukların kendilerini daha yalnız hissettiklerini (DiTommaso, McNulty, Ross ve Burgess 2003; Segrin, 1999, Şahin ve Demir, 2001), daha depressif semptomlar gösterdiklerini (Erwin, 1999) ve daha fazla psikososyal problemlerinin (Segrin ve Flora, 2000) olduğunu göstermektedir.

Bir çok çocuk gerekli sosyal becerileri içinde büyüdüğü kendi kültüründe ve sosyal ilişkilerinde (Parke ve diğerleri 2002) ebeveynlerini ya da çevredeki diğer insanları gözlemleyerek doğal yollardan öğrenir (Jindal-Snape, 2004). Çocuklar, sosyal becerileri anne, baba, kardeş, arkadaş gibi kendileri için önemli gördükleri kişilerden öğrendikleri için araştırmacılar bu kişileri çocuğun ilk sosyal ağı olarak görmekte ve çocuğun sosyalleşmesi için büyük önem taşıdıklarını belirtmektedirler (Parke ve diğerleri 2002).

Uzun yıllardan beri pek çok araştırmacı anne ve babaların çocuklarının sosyal gelişimleri üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaya çalışmışlardır. Bu çalışmalardan bazılarında anneye özgü davranışların, çocukların sosyometrik durumları ve sosyal ilişkileriyle (Putallaz, 1987), anne tutumlarının ise çocukların iletişim becerileriyle ilişkili olduğu saptanmıştır (Sommers, Fraganane ve Schnock 1994). Ayrıca ilgili alan yazınında anne ve babanın sosyal beceri eğitimine katılımının çocukların sosyal yeterliliklerine etkisini araştıran ampirik çalışmalar da vardır. Ebeveynlerin çocuklarının eğitimlerine katılımlarının çocukların akademik başarı düzeylerine, sosyal yeterliliklerine ve okul yaşamlarına olumlu bir etkisi olduğu vurgulanmaktadır (Webster-Stratton, Reid ve Hammond, 2001). Ebeveyn eğitimine katılan anne ve babalar çocuklarının normal ve tipik davranışları hakkında daha fazla bilgiye, çocukları ise daha fazla sosyal beceriye sahip olmaktadır (Draper,

Larsen ve Rowles, 1997). Sosyal beceri eğitim programlarına dahil olan anne ve babalar çocuklarının göz kontağı kurma, dinleme, paylaşma, uzlaşma, sohbet başlatma, diğerlerinin duygularına önem verme gibi davranışlarının arttığını belirtmektedirler (MacDonald, Chowdhury, Dabney, Wolpert ve Stein, 2003).

Yalnızca annelerin dahil olduğu bazı çalışmalarda eleştirilmektedir (Phares, 1992). Anne ve babalar çocuklarının yaşamlarında farklı rollere sahiptirler ancak bu birinin öneminin diğerinden az olduğu anlamına gelmez. Sonuçta babalar bebeklik ve çocukluk çağında annelerden daha az zaman geçirmelerine rağmen, babaların da çocuklarının gelişiminde önemli bir rolü vardır (Parke ve diğerleri 2002). Ayrıca annelerin çalışma yaşamına daha fazla dahil olması ve sosyal beklentilerdeki değişimler, çağdaş babalardan geçmiştekinden daha fazla çocuk bakımına katılmaları, daha fazla sorumluluk almaları ve çocuklarıyla daha fazla zaman geçirmelerini gerektirmektedir (Lamb, akt. Hwang ve Lamb, 1997).

Sonuç olarak hem annelerin hem babaların dahil olduğu ebeveyn eğitim programlarının çocuklar üzerindeki olumlu etkilerinden yola çıkılarak ebeveyn eğitim programlarına verilen önem son yıllarda giderek artmıştır.

### **Sosyal Beceriler**

Sosyal beceriler sosyal yeterlilik kavramının altında ele alınır. Sosyal yeterlilik tüm çocukların gelişiminde hayati bir yer tutan sosyal becerileri ve uyum davranışlarını içerir (Gresham, 1982); öğretilmeli, öğrenilmeli ve sergilenmelidir (Gresham, Sugai ve Horner, 2001).

Gresham ve Elliott (1987) sosyal yeterliliğin alt alanları olan uyum davranışları ve sosyal becerilerin karşılıklı olarak ilişkili olduğunu

belirtirler. Uyum davranışları, bağımsız davranmayı, fiziksel gelişimi, kendini yönlendirmeyi, kişisel sorumluluğu, ekonomik-mesleki etkinlikleri ve işlevsel akademik becerileri kapsarken sosyal beceriler, kişiler arası davranışları, girişkenliği, akran kabulünü ve iletişim becerilerini kapsar. Hair, Jagger ve Garrett' da (2000) sosyal becerileri iki alt alanda incelemiştir. Bunlar kişiler arası beceriler ve bireysel özelliklerdir. Kişilerarası beceriler çatışma çözmeyi, yakınlık kurmayı, ve olumlu sosyal davranışlar davranışları içerirken bireysel özellikler öz-denetimi, öz-güveni ve empatiyi içerir.

Sosyal beceriler pek çok araştırmacı tarafından tanımlanmıştır. Spence'e (1983) göre sosyal beceriler "bireyin ilişkilerinde, diğerlerine fiziksel ya da psikolojik zarar vermeden başarılı olabilmesi için önemli olan davranışlardır" (s. 621). Kelly'e (1982) göre ise sosyal beceriler "kişilerarası durumlarda kullanılan ve çevreden pekiştireç almayı sağlayan tanımlanabilir ve öğrenilen davranışlardır" (s. 3).

Gresham ve Elliott (1990) beş ana başlık altında topladıkları sosyal becerilerin çocuk -akran ve çocuk -yetişkin ilişkilerinde kolaylaştırıcı rol oynadığını belirtmektedir. Bu beş başlık işbirliği, girişkenlik, sorumluluk, empati ve öz-denetim şeklinde açıklanabilir. İşbirliği becerisi, başkalarına yardım etme, eşyalarını arkadaşlarıyla paylaşma, ve kurallara uyma, girişkenlik becerisi diğerlerine bilgi sorma ya da akran baskısına direnebilme, sorumluluk becerisi yetişkinlerle iletişim kurabilme, başkalarının sahip olduklarına saygı gösterme, empati akranlarının ve kendisi için önemli olan yetişkinlerin duygularına önem verme ve son olarak öz-denetim becerisi çatışma durumlarında ya da yetişkinlerden gelen düzeltici geri bildirimlere uygun tepki verme olarak tanımlanabilir (Gresham ve Elliott, 1990).

Çocukların sosyal ve duygusal gelişimi için bu kadar önemli olmasına rağmen bazı çocuklar sosyal beceri davranışlarını sergileyemezler.

Kelly'e (1982) göre bazı çocukların sosyal becerileri sergileyememelerinin nedenleri bir kaç başlık altında değerlendirilebilir. Bunlar:

*Sosyal beceri kazanımının ya da öğrenmenin olmaması:* Bazı somut sosyal becerilerin hiç kazanılmaması ya da öğrenilmemesi ve böylece her hangi bir durumda sergilenememesi.

*Belirli durumlarda kullanılan sosyal becerilerin olmaması:* Bu durumda, somut bazı beceriler öğrenilmiş ve belirli bazı durumlarda kullanılmaktadır, ancak diğer durumlarda kullanılamamaktadır.

### **Sosyal Beceri Eğitimi**

Pek çok araştırmacı çocukların sosyal becerilerini artırmak amacıyla sosyal beceri eğitim programları uygulamışlardır. Argyle'e (1981) göre eğitim deneyimle öğrenme anlamına gelmektedir. Sosyal beceri eğitim programlarının amacı ise bireylerin davranışsal yeterliliğini doğrudan artırmaktır. Sosyal beceri eğitim programları çoğunlukla izole edilmiş, reddedilmiş ya da arkadaşları arasında popüler olmayan çocuklara yöneliktir (Spence, 1983).

İlgili alan yazınında pek çok sosyal beceri eğitim programına rastlanmaktadır. Bunlar çocukların doğrudan eğitilmesi, sınıf temelli eğitim, akranların ve öğretmenlerin de sürece dahil olduğu çoklu modeller ya da öğretmenler yoluyla olabilmektedir (Cartledge ve Milburn, 1978; Verduyn, Lord ve Forrest, 1990; King ve diğerleri, 1997; Rotheram-Borus, Bickford ve Milburn, 2001). Sosyal beceri eğitim programları farklı yaklaşımları ve bu yaklaşımlara bağlı olarak kullanılan bazı farklı teknikleri içerir.

Gersham'a (1997) göre model olma ve alıştırma yapma en etkin sosyal beceri öğretim teknikleridir. Wilson'a (2002) göre model olma film ya da video gösterimini ve sergilenen somut davranışların tartışılmasını içerebilir. Model olma, öğretilen becerinin sergileneceği fırsatların yaratılması ve olumlu geri bildirim verme yoluyla kullanılabilir. Ancak bu tekniklerin zayıf yanı genelleme ve kazanımın korunması açısından daha yetersiz olmalarıdır. Genelleme hataları problem davranışlarla ilgili yetersiz uyarın kontrolünden kaynaklanabilir. Sosyal beceri davranışları önceden öğrenilmiş olan ve daha güçlü olan bazı davranışlar tarafından baskı altına alındığı durumlarda da genellemede başarısızlık ortaya çıkmaktadır (Gresham, 1997).

Gresham, Sugai ve Horner (2001) sosyal beceri eğitimi programlarının genelleme ve kalıcılıkta başarılı olamamasının nedenlerini öğretim araçlarının yetersiz olması ve sosyal davranışların öğretildiği ortamların uygun olmaması şeklinde açıklamışlardır. Bu çerçevede ele alındığında genellemeyi kolaylaştıran en önemli faktörlerden biri anne ve babalardır. Ailenin sosyal becerilerin kazanılmasındaki rolü Bandura'nın (1989) "gözlem yoluyla öğrenme" hakkındaki fikirleri tarafından da desteklenmektedir. Bandura'ya (2003) göre sosyal bilişsel yaklaşımın açıkladığı model olma kazanımların artmasını ve genellemenin kolaylaşmasını sağlar. Model olma insanlarda evrensel olarak kabul edilen bir özelliktir, ancak nasıl kullanılacağı kültürden kültüre değişmektedir (Bandura, 2002). Pek çok kültürde "öğretme" kelimesi "gösterme" kelimesiyle aynı anlamdadır (Reichard, 1938 akt. Bandura, 1989). Sosyal bilişsel yaklaşımda öğrenme, taklit ve model olma yoluyla gerçekleşmektedir. (Sichel, 1989). Türk kültüründe ise gözlem yoluyla öğrenme ve taklit en sık kullanılan öğrenme yöntemidir (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2000).

Özetle, ilgili alan yazında izole edilmiş ve reddedilmiş çocuklarla yürütülen sosyal beceri eğitimi programları önemli bir yer tutmakta ve bu

çalışmalar çocukların sosyal becerilerini artırmayı hedeflemektedir. Bununla beraber, araştırmalar, çocuklarla yürütülen sosyal beceri eğitim programlarında kazandırılması hedeflenen becerilerin genellenmesinin ve kazanımlarının uzun vadede korunmasının sağlanmasında ebeveynlerinde dahil olduğu programların daha etkili olabileceğini göstermektedir.

### **Ebeveyn Eğitimi**

Günümüzde aile yapısındaki ve toplumsal yapıdaki değişimler ebeveynlerin eskiye oranla daha farklı şeylerle başetmeleri zorunluluğunu doğurmuştur (Skrypnek, 2005). Eğitimciler ve klinik çalışmacılar ebeveynleri kendi çocuklarının terapisti ve öğretmeni olmaları amacıyla eğitmeleri konusuyla ilgilenmeye başlamışlardır (Sapon-Shevin, 1982).

Wolfe ve Hirsch (2003) ebeveyn eğitimi ebeveyn terapisinden ayırmaktadır. Ebeveyn eğitimleri kısa süreliken ebeveyn terapileri uzun sürelidir. Powell'a (akt. Schwartz, 2002) göre ebeveyn eğitiminin amacı ebeveynlere kendi güçlü yanlarını ve yeteneklerini farketmeleri için yardım etmek ve böylece bu güçlü yanları ve yeteneklerini stres düzeylerini azaltmak, aile içi iletişimi güçlendirmek ve çocuklarıyla olan problemlerini çözmek amacıyla kullanmalarını sağlamaktır. Kaiser ve diğerleri (1999), ebeveyn eğitimi çocuklarının gelişimini sağlayacak çabalarını desteklemek için ebeveynlere sistematik bilgi sunma olarak tanımlamaktadırlar.

Getswicki (akt. Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005) ebeveynlerin aktif olarak katıldığı ebeveyn eğitiminin temel varsayımlarını şöyle açıklamaktadır:

- 1- Ebeveyn olma öğrenilebilir.
- 2- Ebeveylere daha etkin olabilmeleri için sunulacak bir bilgi temeli vardır.

- 3- Yeterliliđi ve bilgiyi artırmak tek başına yeterli deđildir aynı zamanda duygu ve tutumlarla da ilgilenilmelidir.
- 4- Bütün ebeveyleyler (ne kadar eđitimli ya da uyumlu oldukları dikkate alınmaksızın) eđitime ve yardıma gereksinim duyarlar.
- 5- Ebeveynler öğrenmek isterler.
- 6- Ebeveynler aktarılan konular kendileri ve çocukları ile yakından ilgili olduđu zaman en iyi şekilde öğrenirler.
- 7- Ebeveynler sıklıkla bir diđer ebeveynin yardımıyla en iyi şekilde öğrenirler.
- 8- Ebeveynler kendi yollarıyla öğrenirler ve her biri farklı öğrenme özelliđine sahiptir.

Golding'e (2000) göre ebeveyn eđitimi, ebeveyn yeterliliđini artırmak ve çocuklardaki davranıř problemlerine yönelik programların etkinliliđini artırmak amacıyla yaygın şekilde kullanılmaktadır. Authier, Sherrets, ve Tramontana'ya (1980) göre ebeveyn eđitiminde tek bir yaklařım ya da öğreti ve yöntem yoktur. Daha çok ebeveynlerin potansiyellerini artırmak için teknik ve yöntemlerin kombinasyonu kullanılmaktadır. 1960' larda geliřtirilen üç model daha sonraki yıllarda uygulanan ebeveyn eđitim programlarını büyük ölçüde etkilemiřtir. Bunlardan ilki, ebeveynlere evde uygulayacakları oyun terapi yöntemlerini öğretmek, diđer çocuk ve ebeveynlerin, çocuklarıyla iletiřimlerini artırmak için yapılan terapi sürecine dahil olmalarını sađlamak ve sonuncu olarak da sosyal biliřsel modele dayalı ebeveyn eđitim programlarını uygulamaktır (Johnson, Kent ve Leather, 2005).

Sosyal biliřsel modele dayalı ebeveyn eđitim programlarında öncelikli olarak ebeveynlerin etkili anne ve baba davranıřlarını öğrenmeleri hedeflenir. Her bir beceri öncelikle didaktik olarak daha sonra da model yoluyla sunulur. Ebeveynler daha sonra rol oynama yoluyla bu becerileri sergiler ve geribildirim alırlar. Etkili anne baba davranıřlarını artırmayı

hedefleyen ev ödevleri verilir ve sonraki oturumlarda ev ödevleri gözden geçirilir (Wierson ve Forehand, 1994).

### **Ebeveynlerin Dahil Olduğu Sosyal Beceri Eğitim Programları**

Çocukların sosyal becerilerinin gelişiminde ebeveynlerin rolünün ve öneminin anlaşılması sosyal beceri eğitim programlarına ebeveynlerin de dahil olması ve ebeveynlere yönelik eğitim yoluyla çocukların sosyal becerilerini artırmayı hedefleyen çalışmalara verilen önemin artmasına yol açmıştır.

MacDonald, Chowdhury, Dabney, Wolpert ve Stein'in yaptığı bir çalışmada (2003) ebeveynlerin çocuklara verilen sosyal beceri eğitim programlarına dahil olması çocukların göz kontağı kurma, dinleme, paylaşma, gibi sosyal becerileri kazanmalarına yardımcı olmuştur. Spence, Donovan ve Brechman-Toussaint'ın (2000) yürüttüğü benzer bir çalışmada ebeveynlerin dahil olduğu ve olmadığı iki gruba sosyal beceri eğitimi verilmiş ve ebeveynlerin dahil olduğu grubun sosyal becerilerinin daha fazla arttığı gözlemlenmiştir. Bir diğer çalışmada da çocuklarının sosyal becerilerini artırmak amacıyla ebeveynlere verilen eğitimde yine benzer şekilde çocukların sosyal becerilerinin arttığı gözlenmiştir (Draper, Larsen ve Rowles, 1997).

Aquilino ve Supple'in (2001) yaptığı bir başka çalışmada ebeveynlerin ergenlik dönemindeki çocuklarıyla sıcak ve destekleyici bir ilişki içinde olmalarının çocuklarının yetişkinlik dönemindeki ruh sağlığını olumlu yönde etkilediği ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca ebeveyn çocuk ilişkisinin çocukların akranlarıyla ilişkisiyle de ilgili olduğu saptanmıştır (Flugni ve Eccles, 1993). Olumlu ebeveyn davranışlarının çocukların davranışları üzerinde olumlu etkisi olduğuna dair ilgili alan yazınında benzer pek çok çalışma örneği vardır (Putallaz, 1987; Webster-Stratton ve Hammond, 1999; Laible ve Carlo, 2004).

Özetle anne ve babaların sosyal beceri eğitim programlarına dahil olmasının çocukların sosyal becerilerini artırdığına dair ilgili alan yazınında pek çok çalışma mevcuttur. Ancak anne ve babaların bu süreçteki etkisini ayrı ayrı araştıran sınırlı sayıda çalışma vardır.

### **Babaların Dahil Olduğu Ebeveyn Eğitim Programları**

İlgili alan yazınında çocukların sosyal becerileri üzerinde anne ve babaların etkisini araştıran çalışmalar olduğu kadar babaların dahil olduğu programların etkisini araştıran sınırlı sayıda da olsa çalışmalar vardır.

Horton'a (1984) göre ebeveyn eğitimlerinde babaların rolü hem kazanımların korunması hem de genellemenin sağlanması açısından önemlidir. Horton'a (1984) göre eğer babalar annelerle aynı etkili anne-baba becerilerine sahip olurlarsa pekiştirme daha tutarlı bir şekilde uygulanacak ve ebeveyn eğitiminin etkisi de artacaktır. Ayrıca anne ve babalar aynı becerileri sergilerlerse, çocuk bunu farkedecek ve model alacaktır.

Sosyal bilişsel modele bağlı araştırmacılara göre çocuk ve baba arasındaki yüz yüze iletişim çocuğun sosyal becerileri öğrenmesini kolaylaştırmaktadır (Parke ve O'Neil, 1997 akt. Parke ve diğerleri, 2002). Ayrıca babaların çocuklarıyla oyun arkadaşı olmaları da çocukların sosyal yeterlilikleri üzerinde olumlu bir etkiye sahiptir (Parke ve diğerleri, 2002).

Culp, Schadle, Robinson ve Culp'in (2000) yürüttüğü bir çalışmaya göre babaların dahil olduğu eğitim programı çocukların babaları tarafından kabul edildiklerini hissetmelerine ve olumlu bir benlik algısı geliştirmelerine ve öz-saygılarının artmasına yardımcı olmuştur.

Webster-Stratton (1985) yürüttüğü bir çalışmada babaların dahil olduğu gruba verilen ebeveyn eğitimiyle babaların dahil olmadığı gruba verilen ebeveyn eğitimi karşılaştırılmış ve uzun dönemde babaların dahil olduğu gruba verilen ebeveyn eğitiminin daha etkili olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Firestone, Kelly ve Fike (1980) ise saldırgan çocukların anne ve babalarına verdiği ebeveyn eğitim programında, eğitimin yalnızca annelerin dahil olduğu grup ve anne -babaların birlikte dahil olduğu gruplar üzerindeki etkisini karşılaştırmış ve her iki grubun çocuklarının da saldırganlık davranışlarında azalma olduğu sonucuna ulaşmıştır.

### **Türkiye’de Yapılan Ebeveyn Eğitimi Ve Sosyal Beceri Programları**

Ebeveyn eğitimi ile ilgili Türkiye’de sınırlı sayıda çalışma yapılmıştır (Akkök ve Sucuoğlu, 1988a; 1988b; Aydın,2003; Özeke-Kocabaş, 2005).

Akkök ve Sucuoğlu’nun (1988a) yürüttükleri bir çalışmada ebeveynlere, çocuklarının sosyal becerilerini arttırmalarını amaçlayarak verilen eğitim sonucunda çocukların sosyal becerilerinin arttığı ve üç ay sonra yapılan izleme çalışmasında da (Akkök ve Sucuoğlu, 1988b) eğitim verilen grubun çocuklarının sosyal becerilerindeki artışın devam ettiği gözlenmiştir.

Aydın’ın (2003) babalara yönelik uyguladığı eğitim programının çalışmaya katılan babaların baba rollerini farketmeleri ve farkındalıklarının artmasında ve etkili ebeveyn yöntemlerini öğrenmeleri üzerinde etkili olduğu ortaya konulmuştur.

Özeke-Kocabaş (2005) ise ebeveynlere yönelik eğitim programının ebeveyn ergen iletişimi ve iletişim becerileri üzerindeki etkisini araştırmış ve çalışmanın nitel bulguları eğitimin ebeveynlerin

çocuklarıyla olumlu iletişim kurmalarına yardımcı olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Son yıllarda Türkiye’de yapılan ebeveyn eğitim programları ve bunların çocukların sosyal becerileri, ebeveyn rolleri ve ebeveyn ergen iletişimine etkisini araştıran çalışmaların yanısıra doğrudan çocuklara yönelik sosyal beceri eğitim programlarının etkisini test eden çalışmalar da yapılmıştır (Aydın, 1985; Şahiner, 1994; Sümer-Hatipoğlu, 1999; Şahin, 1999; Cerrahoğlu, 2002; Kocayörük, 2000; Uz-Baş, 2003; Sert, 2003).

Türkiye’de son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalar ebeveyn eğitime yönelik ilginin arttığını göstermektedir. Ancak anne ve babaların çocuklarının sosyal becerileri üzerindeki etkisini ayrı ayrı test eden bir çalışma yoktur. Bu çalışma bu açıdan literatürde bu alandaki boşluğu gidermeye de katkıda bulunacaktır. Öte yandan bu çalışmanın bulguları bundan sonraki çalışmalara ışık tutacak ve ebeveyn eğitime yönelik çalışmalar için bir başlangıç olacaktır.

### **Araştırmanın Amacı**

Bu çalışmanın amacı ebeveyn eğitiminin ilköğretim üçüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin girişkenlik, öz-denetim, sorumluluk ve işbirliği sosyal beceri boyutları üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaktır.

### **YÖNTEM**

Bu araştırmanın örneklemini bir devlet ilköğretim okulunda okuyan yirmi dokuz, 3. sınıf öğrencisinin anne ve babası oluşturmuştur. Araştırmada iki deney grubu (babaların dahil olduğu deney-I ve babaların dahil olmadığı deney- II) ve bir kontrol grubu ile 3 ölçümün (ön test, son test ve izleme) kullanıldığı 3x3 deneysel desen kullanılmıştır. Gresham ve Elliott (1990) tarafından geliştirilen “Sosyal Beceri Derecelendirme

Ölçeği –Ebeveyn Formu (SBDÖ-EF) çocukların sosyal becerilerini ölçmek amacıyla kullanılmıştır. Deney grupları 10 haftalık “Ebeveyn Eğitimi” alırken kontrol grubu herhangi bir eğitim almamıştır.

### **Örnekleme**

İlgili alan yazınında sıklıkla bahsedildiği gibi babalar ebeveyn eğitim programlarına katılmakta gönüllü olmamaktadırlar (Horton, 1984). Bu sebeple gönüllü sayısını artırmak için öncelikle öğrenci sayısı yüksek ilköğretim okulları belirlenmiş ve müdürlerine çalışma hakkında bilgi verilmiştir. Okul yönetiminin çalışmaya olumlu baktığı ve uygulama için gerekli teknik koşullara sahip olduğu belirlendikten sonra ebeveynler çalışma hakkında bilgilendirilmiş ve programa katılmak konusunda gönüllü olan anne babalardan oluşan bir liste düzenlenmiştir. Gönüllü anne ve babalar iki deney ve bir kontrol grubuna seçkisiz olarak atanmıştır. Böylece I. deney grubu (babaların dahil olduğu) 10 anne ve baba, II. deney grubu (babaların dahil olmadığı) 10 anne ve kontrol grubu 10 anne olmak üzere üç grup olarak belirlenmiştir. Ancak eğitimin ilk haftasında I. deney grubundan (babaların dahil olduğu) 1 anne ve baba programa devamlı katılım için yeterli zamanları olmadığı gerekçesiyle programdan çekilmişlerdir. Böylece I. deney grubundaki (babaların dahil olduğu) anne ve baba sayısı 9’a düşmüştür.

### **Veri Toplama Aracı**

Çocukların sosyal becerilerini değerlendirmek amacıyla Gresham ve Elliott (1990) tarafından geliştirilen “Sosyal Beceri Derecelendirme Ölçeği –Ebeveyn Formu (SBDÖ-EF) kullanılmıştır. Orjinal ölçek 38 madde ve girişkenlik, işbirliği, sorumluluk ve öz-denetim sosyal becerileri olmak üzere 4 alt boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Ölçek sosyal becerilerin ebeveynler tarafından algılanan sıklığını ölçen 3'lü Likert tipi (0'dan 2'ye) bir ölçektir ( 0-hiç bir zaman, 1-bazen, 2-çoğu zaman).

“Sosyal Beceri Derecelendirme Ölçeği –Ebeveyn Formu” (SBDÖ-EF)’nün Türkçeye uyarlanması, geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması için ölçek Bolu ilindeki toplam 402 ilköğretim 3. sınıf öğrencisinin anne ve babasına uygulanmıştır. Ölçek her bir öğrenci için sadece ya anne ya da baba tarafından cevaplanmıştır.

Ölçeğin alt boyutları ve yapı geçerliliğini belirlemek amacıyla yapılan açıklayıcı faktör analizi sonucu, Eigen değeri 1’den yüksek, anlamlı 4 alt boyut belirlenmiştir. Her bir boyutta .30 ve üzeri korelasyonla yüklenen maddelerin o faktöre ait oldukları kabul edilmiştir. Orjinal ölçekte yer alan 3 madde ( madde 6, 13 ve 18) ölçeğin Türkçeye uyarlama çalışmasında her hangi bir faktörde yüklenmemiş ve böylece ölçeğin Türkçe formunda yer almamıştır. 35 maddeden oluşan “Sosyal Beceri Derecelendirme Ölçeği –Ebeveyn Formu’nun (SBDÖ-EF) Cronbach Alfa güvenilirlik katsayısı ile hesaplanan tüm ölçek ve alt boyutlarının iç tutarlılığına ilişkin bulgular ise ölçeğin ve alt boyutlarının güvenilirliğinin yeterli olduğuna işaret etmektedir (işbirliği .80, girişkenlik .50, sorumluluk .63, öz-denetim .69 ve toplam ölçek .82).

### **Ebeveyn Eğitimi Programı**

Bu çalışmada eğitsel araç olarak araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen “Ebeveyn Eğitim Programı” kullanılmıştır. Program Sosyal Bilişsel yaklaşımı esas almaktadır. Programın amacı ebeveyn eğitim programı aracılığıyla ebeveynlere çocuklarına sosyal becerileri öğretebilmeleri için gerekli olan bilgi ve davranışları kazanmaları için yardımcı olmaktır. Programda kullanılan teknikler öğretim, model olma, prova yapma, ve geribildirim vermedir. “Ebeveyn Eğitim’inde” bu teknikler şu şekilde kullanılmıştır:

*Öğretim süreci:* Öğretim iki şekilde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Birincisi, becerinin kısa bir tanımı, ikincisi ise söz konusu beceriyle ilgili yazılan

senaryoların amatör tiyatrocular tarafından oynanmasıyla elde edilen video kasetlerin her oturumda ebeveynler tarafından seyredilmesi yoluyla olmuştur. Senaryoların canlandırılması öğretimsel araç olduğu kadar davranışsal *model* sunmayı da amaçlamaktadır. Her senaryo çocukların bir güçlükle karşılaştığı ve o oturumun konusu olan sosyal beceriye sahip olmadığı ve ebeveynlerin hedef sosyal becerileri nasıl öğrettiğiyle ilgili hipotetik bir durumu içermektedir.

*Prova yapma süreci:* Ebeveynlere hedef becerilerle ilgili ev ödevleri verilmiş ve bu yolla model olan davranışları deneyimlemeleri amaçlanmıştır.

*Geribildirim/pekiştirme süreci:* Önceki hafta verilen ev ödevlerine dayalı olarak deneklere pozitif geribildirim verme yoluyla oturumlarda öğrenilen davranışların transferinin ve genellenmesinin pekiştirilmesi amaçlanmıştır.

## **Süreç**

*I. Deney Grubu (babaların dahil olduğu):* Ebeveyn eğitimi programı dört sosyal beceriyi içermiştir. Bunlar girişkenlik, öz-denetim, sorumluluk ve işbirliğidir. Program 10 hafta boyunca 1.5 saatlik sürede haftada bir kez uygulanmıştır. Eğitim, sosyal becerilerin çocukların yaşamındaki önemini anlamaları ve bu becerileri çocuklarına öğretmeleri için anne ve babalara yardım etmeyi amaçlamıştır.

*II. Deney Grubu (babaların dahil olmadığı):* Bu grupta I. deney (babaların dahil olduğu) grubuna uygulanan işlemler tekrarlanmıştır. Program 10 hafta boyunca 1.5 saatlik sürede haftada bir kez uygulanmıştır. Eğitim, sosyal becerilerin çocukların yaşamındaki önemini anlamaları ve bu becerileri çocuklarına öğretmeleri için annelere yardım etmeyi amaçlamıştır.

“I. Deney” ve “II. Deney” gruplarında her oturum aşağıdaki şekilde tasarlanmış ve uygulanmıştır:

- 1- Grup üyelerinin kendilerini güvende ve iletişime açık hissedecekleri sıcak bir ortam sağlanmıştır.
- 2- Her oturum önceki oturumun kısa bir özeti ve önceki hafta verilen ev ödevlerinin tartışılmasıyla başlamıştır.
- 3- Her oturum o oturumun teması olan beceri ile ilgili kısa bir bilgi vermeye başlamıştır.
- 4- Her oturumda o oturumla ilgili video kaset izlenerek tartışılmıştır.
- 5- Her oturumda izlenen kasetteki benzer konularda ebeveynlerin neler yaptıkları ve nasıl davrandıkları tartışılmıştır.
- 6- Her oturumda izlenen kasetteki ebeveynlerin davranışlarının gruptakiler tarafından nasıl karşılandığı ve uygulanabilirliği tartışılmıştır.
- 7- Her oturumun sonunda oturum özetlenmiş ve arkasından ev ödevleri verilmiştir.

*Kontrol grubu:* Kontrol grubu üyelerine her hangi bir eğitim verilmemiş, sadece ön test, son test ve izleme ölçümlerine katılmaları istenmiştir.

### **Verilerin Analizi**

Verilerin analizinde Kruskal-Wallis Homogeneity test, Mann-Whitney U test, Friedman Test ve Wilcoxon Signed Rank test kullanılmıştır.

İlk aşamada her iki deney grubu ve kontrol grubunun ön, son ve izleme testleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını anlamak için 3 ayrı Kruskal-Wallis H test uygulanmıştır. Mann-Whitney U test post-hoc analizi için kullanılmıştır.

İkinci aşamada her bir grubun ön, son ve izleme testleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını belirlemek amacıyla Friedman test

kullanılmış ve post-hoc test olarak Wilcoxon Signed Rank test kullanılmıştır.

## BULGULAR

### **Ebeveyn eğitimi programının deney ve kontrol gruplarının çocuklarının sosyal beceri boyutlarına ve toplam sosyal beceri puanlarına etkisi**

Ebeveyn eğitiminin etkisini araştırmak amacıyla SBDÖ-E formundan elde edilen öntest, sontest ve izleme puanları üç farklı Kruskal Wallis-H testiyle analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular her üç grubun SBDÖ-E formundan elde edilen öntest puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Öte yandan grupların sontest puanlarının analizi sonucu öz-denetim ( $p = .016 < .05$ ) ve toplam sosyal beceriler ( $p = .033 < .05$ ) açısından her iki deney grubu ve kontrol grubu arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur.

Post-hoc analiz olarak yapılan Mann-Whitney U testi sonuçları I. deney (babaların dahil olduğu) ve II. deney (babaların dahil olmadığı) grupları arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu ( $z = -2.48, p = .04 < .05$ ), I. deney grubu (babaların dahil olduğu) ile kontrol grubu arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu ( $z = -2.21, p = .028 < .05$ ) ve II. deney ve kontrol grubu arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını ortaya koymuştur.

Sonuçlar ebeveyn eğitiminin I. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olduğu) toplam sosyal beceri puanları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğuna işaret etmiştir.

Ölçeğin öz-denetim boyutu açısından her üç grubu karşılaştırmak amacıyla post-hoc test olarak yapılan Mann-Whitney U testi sonuçlarına

göre I. deney (babaların dahil olduğu) ve II. deney (babaların dahil olmadığı) grupları arasında ve II. deney (babaların dahil olmadığı) ile kontrol grubu arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır. Öte yandan bulgular I. deney grubu (babaların dahil olduğu) ile kontrol grubu arasında anlamlı bir fark ( $z = -2.64$ ,  $p = .008 < .05$ ) olduğuna işaret etmektedir.

Sonuçlar ebeveyn eğitiminin I. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olduğu) öz-denetim becerisi puanları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğuna işaret etmektedir. Bununla birlikte her üç grubun izleme testinden elde ettikleri puanlar için yapılan Kruskal-Wallis H testi sonuçları deney ve kontrol gruplarının izleme testleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir.

### **Deney ve kontrol gruplarının öntest, sontest ve izleme testleri arasındaki farklar**

Her bir grubun SBDÖ-E formunun öntest, sontest ve izleme ölçümlerinden aldıkları puanlar arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla Friedman testi yapılmıştır.

I. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olduğu) öntest, sontest ve izleme testinden elde edilen puanlarının analizi sorumluluk ( $p = .01 < .05$ ), öz-denetim ( $p = .02 < .05$ ) ve toplam sosyal beceri ( $p = .03 < .05$ ) puanlarının üç ölçümü arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir. Post-hoc analiz olarak yapılan Wilcoxon Signed Rank testi I. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olduğu) öntest-sontest ( $z = -2.52$ ,  $p = .012 < .05$ ) ve öntest-izleme testi ( $z = -2.07$ ,  $p = .038 < .05$ ) puanları arasında sorumluluk boyutundan elde edilen puanlara göre anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir. Öz-denetim becerisindeki ilerlemeyi belirlemek amacıyla yapılan Wilcoxon Signed Rank testi sonuçlarına göre I. deney

grubunun (babaların dahil olduğu) öntest-sontest ( $z = -2.24$ ,  $p = .025 < .05$ ), ve öntest-izleme testi ( $z = -2.20$ ,  $p = .027 < .05$ ) puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermektedir. Toplam sosyal beceri puanları için post-hoc test olarak yapılan Wilcoxon Signed Rank testi sonuçlarına göre I. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olduğu) öntest-sontest puanları arasında anlamlı ( $z = -2.43$ ,  $p = .015 < .05$ ), bir fark varken öntest-izleme testleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır.

II. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olmadığı) öntest, sontest ve izleme testinden elde edilen puanların analizi işbirliği ( $p = .006 < .05$ ), öz-denetim ( $p = .001 < .05$ ) ve toplam sosyal beceri ( $p = .002 < .05$ ) puanlarının üç ölçümü arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir. Post-hoc analiz için yapılan Wilcoxon Signed Rank testi II. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olmadığı) öntest-sontest ( $z = -2.44$ ,  $p = .015 < .05$ ) arasında işbirliği boyutundan elde edilen puanlara göre anlamlı bir fark olduğunu gösterirken öntest-izleme testi ve sontest-izleme testleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Öz-denetim becerisindeki ilerlemeyi belirlemek amacıyla yapılan Wilcoxon Signed Rank testi sonuçlarına göre II. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olmadığı) öntest-sontest ( $z = -2.68$ ,  $p = .007 < .05$ ), ve öntest-izleme testi ( $z = -2.40$ ,  $p = .016 < .05$ ) puanları arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermektedir. Toplam sosyal beceri puanları için post-hoc test olarak yapılan Wilcoxon Signed Rank testi sonuçlarına göre II. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olmadığı) öntest-sontest puanları arasında ( $z = -2.80$ ,  $p = .005 < .05$ ), ve öntest-izleme testi puanları arasında anlamlı ( $z = -2.50$ ,  $p = .012 < .05$ ) bir fark olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Kontrol grubunun SBDÖ-EF'nin öntest, sontest ve izleme ölçümlerinden elde ettikleri puanlarının Friedman testi ile yapılan analizine göre bu grubun öntest, sontest ve izleme ölçümleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır.

Özetle, bulgular, “Ebeveyn Eğitiminin” I. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olduğu) öz-denetim ve toplam sosyal beceri puanları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla beraber kazanım üç ay sonraki izleme ölçümlerinde korunamamıştır.

Bulgular I. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olduğu) öz-denetim ve sorumluluk beceri puanlarında ilerleme gösterdiğini ve bu ilerlemenin izleme ölçümlerinde de korunduğunu gösterirken öte yandan toplam sosyal becerilerinde gösterdikleri ilerlemenin izleme ölçümlerinde korunamadığını göstermiştir. Bulgular ayrıca, II. deney grubunun (babaların dahil olmadığı) öz-denetim ve toplam sosyal beceri puanlarında ilerleme gösterdiğini ve bu ilerlemenin üç ay sonraki izleme ölçümünde de korunduğunu ancak işbirliği becerisindeki ilerlemenin izleme ölçümünde korunamadığını göstermiştir.

Deney gruplarının programla ilgili değerlendirmelerini belirlemek amacıyla 4 açık uçlu sorudan oluşan “değerlendirme formu” eğitim sonunda verilmiş ve ebeveyn raporları içerik analizine göre analiz edilmiştir. Böylece “iletişim stilleri” , “kendileri hakkındaki duyguları” ve “çocuklarındaki ve kendilerindeki davranış değişiklikleri” adı altında üç tema belirlenmiştir.

Ebeveyn raporlarında her iki grubun anneleri programdan sonra kendilerini daha yeterli ve bilgili hissettiklerini, babaların çocuklarıyla ilgili sorumluluk anlayışlarının değiştiğini, daha önce anneye ait olarak olarak gördükleri kimi sorumlulukları şimdi üstlendikleri belirtilmiştir. 1. deney grubundaki anneler ve 2. deney grubundaki anne ve babalar tarafından her iki deney grubunun çocuklarında da benzer davranış değişiklikleri rapor edilmiştir. Anneler kendileri için daha faydalı davranışları rapor ederken babalar hem kendileri hem de çocukları için aynı derecede önemli davranış değişikliklerine eşit oranda yer vermişlerdir.

## TARTIŞMA

Bu çalışmanın bulguları babaların dahil olduğu ebeveyn eğitiminin çocukların öz-denetim becerisini kazanmalarında ve girişkenlik, işbirliği ve sorumluluk becerilerindeki gözlenebilir artışa bağlı olarak toplam sosyal becerilerinin artmasında etkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Girişkenlik, sorumluluk ve işbirliği becerileri üzerinde programın anlamlı bir etkisi olmamakla beraber gözlenebilir bir artıştan söz edilebilir. Bununla beraber eğitimden üç ay sonra yapılan izleme ölçümleri öz-denetim becerisi ve toplam sosyal becerilerdeki söz konusu kazanımların korunamadığını göstermiştir.

Çalışmanın bu bulguları bir kaç şekilde açıklanabilir. Çocuklara yönelik olarak hazırlanan sosyal beceri eğitimi programlarına yönelik en ciddi eleştirilerden birisi becerilerin doğal ortamlarda öğretilmemesi ve bu nedenle becerilerin diğer sosyal ortamlara genellenememesidir. Bu araştırmada kullanılan sosyal beceri eğitimi programı hazırlanırken literatürde vurgulanan eleştiriler göz önüne alınmış, çocukların sosyal becerileri doğal ortamlarında öğrenmesi hedeflenmiş ve bu süreçte ebeveynlerin rolü dikkate alınarak öğrendikleri becerilerin pekiştirilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu açıdan ele alındığında deney ve kontrol gruplarının çocuklarının sosyal beceri son test puanlarındaki anlamlı fark, bu becerilerin doğal ortamlarında öğrenildiğini ancak uzun vadede korunamadığını göstermiş olabilir. Ebeveyn eğitimi programının çocukların öz-denetim ve toplam sosyal becerilerindeki etkisinin izleme ölçümlerinde korunamamasının ise bazı açıklamaları olabilir. Bunlardan ilki ebeveynlerin becerilerin kalıcılığını sağlamak için gerekli olan olumlu pekiştiricileri kullanmaya devam etmemesi olabilir.

Araştırmanın bu bulgusunu açıklayabilecek bir diğer noktada Gresham'ın (1982) da belirttiği gibi performans yetersizliği olabilir. Gresham'a (1982) göre çocuklar bazı sosyal becerileri önceden

kazanmış olabilirler ancak bazı çevresel koşullar yüzünden bunları sergileyemeyebilirler. Dolayısıyla bu çalışmada ebeveynlerine eğitim verilen çocuklar sınav puanlarından anlaşıldığı gibi bazı sosyal becerileri kazanmışlardır. Ancak çevresel koşulların uygun olmaması yüzünden kazandıkları bu becerileri sergileyebilecek uygun ortam bulamamış olabilirler. Bu nedenle, King ve diğerlerinin (1997) belirttiği gibi genellenmenin sağlanması için çocuk için önemli olan herkesin işbirliği yapması ve Ogilvy'nin (1994) de önerdiği gibi çevresel koşulların yeniden yapılandırılması sosyal becerilerin genellenmesini sağlamak için gerekli olabilir.

Kazanılan sosyal becerilerin kalıcılığının sağlanamaması bulgusu ile ilgili bir diğer açıklamada Türk kültürünün etkisi olabilir. Kağıtçıbaşı'nın (1981) Türkiye'de çocuktan beklentilerin neler olduğu konusunda yaptığı araştırma, ailelerin çocuklarının "anne baba sözü dinleyen" bireyler olmalarını istediklerini, çocuğun "bağımsız" olmasının ise en az önemsenen özellik olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu bulgular özellikle Almanya ve Amerika'da yapılan çalışmaların bulguları ile neredeyse ters bulgulardır. Türkiye'de "bağımsızlık" yerine "bağımlılık", "kendine karşı sorumluluk" yerine "ailesine ve ana babaya karşı bağlılık ve sorumluluk" kavramları yaygın tercihlerdir (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981). Bu durumda çocuğun özerklik ve girişimcilik davranışının doğal aile ortamında gelişmesi ya da geliştirilen becerilerin kalıcılığının sağlanması pek mümkün görülmemektedir (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981).

On haftalık eğitimin sonunda her ne kadar toplam sosyal beceri puanında babaların dahil olduğu deney grubunun çocuklarının lehine bir artış görülse de dört boyuttan (girişkenlik, işbirliği, sorumluluk, öz-denetim) sadece öz-denetim becerisinde anlamlı bir farklılık gözlemlenmiştir. Ebeveyn eğitim programı çocukların toplam sosyal beceri puanlarının artmasında ve öz-denetim becerisi üzerinde anlamlı bir etki yaratmıştır. Her ne kadar girişkenlik, işbirliği, sorumluluk

becerileri anne babalara da faydalı olacak beceriler gibi görünse de anne babaya itaat ya da saygı gibi değerleri doğrudan sağlayacak beceri öz-denetim becerisi olarak görülebilir. Çocuk ancak davranışlarını kontrol ederse değerlendirme raporlarında da belirtildiği gibi, kavga, anne babaya bağırma gibi olumsuz davranışların oluşmasının önüne geçilebilir. Bu açıdan ele alındığında kültüre uygunluğu açısından bu becerinin artışı beklenen bir gelişme olarak ele alınabilir.

Öte yandan girişkenlik ile ilgili sosyal becerilerin kazanılamaması yine Kağıtçıbaşı (1981) nın çalışmasında da belirtilen en az istenen, beklenen değer “bağımsızlık” olduğu göz önüne alındığında ebeveynler tarafından çok da tercih edilmeyen ve geliştirilmesi çok fazla istenmeyen bir beceri olarak düşünülebilir. Bu durum ilk bakışta ebeveyn raporlarında belirtilen ifadelerle çelişiyor gibi görünse de ebeveynler özellikle bir taraftan çocuklarının kendi düşüncelerini bağımsızca ifade etmesini desteklerken diğer bir taraftan da çocuklarının kendilerine karşı daha saygılı olmasından duydukları memnuniyeti dile getirmektedirler. Bu durum ebeveynlerin çocuklarının dışarıda girişken davranmalarını isterken evde kendilerine karşı benzer bir şekilde davranılmasını çok da hoş karşılamadıkları şeklinde yorumlanabilir.

Bu çalışmanın bulgularıyla ilgili olarak tartışılması gereken bir diğer nokta da programın içeriği ve süresiyle ilgilidir. Bu çalışma için geliştirilen programda kullanılan teknikler örneğin model olma kültüre (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2001) uygunluğu açısından ve sosyal beceri öğretiminde en etkili tekniklerden biri olması sebebiyle seçilmiştir. Ancak ilgili yazında belirtildiği gibi model olma aynı zamanda genellemenin sağlanması açısından oldukça zayıf tekniklerden biridir (Gresham, 1997).

Diğer bir nokta da eğitim programının süresiyle ilgilidir. Bu araştırma için geliştirilen program on haftalık bir eğitim süresini içermektedir. Ebeveynlerin çocuklarına kazandırması hedeflenen dört sosyal beceriyi daha uzun sürede öğrenmeleri ve uygulamaları düşünülmesine rağmen uzun süreli ebeveyn eğitimlerinde gözlenen, grubu bırakma oranlarının yüksekliği (Forehand, Middlebrook, Rogers ve Steffe, 1983) eğitim süresinin daha kısa tutulmasına neden olmuştur.

Çalışmanın uygulama aşamasının sonunda anne-baba ve anne gruplarından elde edilen değerlendirme raporları dikkate alındığında hem ebeveynlerin hem de çocukların sosyal ilişkilerle ilgili sosyal becerilerinde olumlu gelişmelerin rapor edildiği görülmüştür. Her iki grubun ebeveyn raporlarında ebeveynlerin çocuklarında pek çok olumlu davranış değişikliği gözlemlendiği ifade edilmiştir. Bu bulgular Özeke-Kocabaş'ın (2005) ebeveyn eğitiminin ebeveyn-ergen ilişkilerinin farklı boyutlarına ve ebeveynlerin iletişim becerileri üzerine etkisi konulu araştırmasının bulgularıyla benzerlik göstermektedir. Çalışmasında Özeke-Kocabaş, ebeveyn eğitiminin ebeveynlerin çocuklarıyla olan iletişimlerine olumlu bir etkisi olduğu sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Son yıllarda Türkiye'de yapılan bir diğer çalışmada bu araştırmanın bulgularını destekler niteliktedir. Aydın (2003) baba eğitiminin baba çocuk iletişimi üzerinde olumlu bir etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir.

### **Vargı ve Öneriler**

Çalışmanın bulgularına göre beklentilerin aksine ebeveyn eğitiminin çocukların sosyal becerileri üzerinde kalıcı bir etkisi olmamıştır. Eğitimin etkisinin kalıcılığını sağlamak için bazı önerilerde bulunulabilir.

- Eğitimin süresi hedeflenen beceriler dikkate alınarak yeterli uzunlukta olmalıdır.
- Çocukların sosyal çevresi eğitim programına dahil edilebilir (McConnell, 1987 akt. Maag, 1994).

- Öğretmenler eğitimin programının bir parçası olarak sosyal beceri etkinliklerini sınıfta uygulayabilir (Fields, 1989).
- Eğitim programının kültüre uygunluğu dikkate alınarak programın içeriği gözden geçirilebilir.

Özetle ekolojik bir model uygulanarak öğrenmeye ve genellemeye uygun bir zemin oluşturabilir (Evans, Axelrod ve Sapia, 2000). Böylece ebeveynlerin öğrettiği becerilerin çevresel koşullar uygun olmadığı için sergilenememesi ve genellenememesinin önüne geçilmiş olacak ve ebeveyn eğitim programlarının etkinliliği artırılacaktır.

Bu araştırmada elde edilen bulgular ışığında yeni yapılacak araştırmalara ve psikolojik danışmanlara yönelik olmak üzere bazı önerilerde bulunulabilir.

- 1- Bu çalışmaya katılan ebeveynler nispeten küçük bir şehirdeki eğitim düzeyleri düşük ebeveynlerdir. Bundan sonraki çalışmalar Türkiye'nin farklı bölgelerinden seçilmiş, farklı eğitim düzeyindeki ebeveynlerle yürütülebilir.
- 2- Bundan sonraki çalışmalarda ebeveynler kadar çocuk için önemli olan öğretmenler de çalışmaya dahil edilebilir. Böylece genelleme ve kazanımların korunması sağlanabilir.
- 3- Bundan sonra yürütülen çalışmalarda ebeveyn eğitiminin çocukların sosyal becerileri üzerindeki etkisinin yanısıra ebeveyn çocuk ilişkisinin farklı boyutları test edilebilir. Böylece ebeveyn eğitiminin çocukların farklı gelişim alanlarındaki etkisi anlaşılabilir ve ebeveyn eğitime verilen önem artırılabilir.

- 4- Bundan sonraki çalışmalarda ebeveyn eğitiminin yanısıra çocuğun kendisinin de eğitim programlarına dahil edilmesiyle programın etkisi test edilebilir.
- 5- Bu çalışma ebeveyn eğitime babaların dahil edilmesinin çocukların sosyal becerilerine etkisini test eden pilot bir çalışma olarak kabul edilebilir. Bundan sonraki çalışmalarda farklı bir program ya da farklı yaklaşımlara göre ebeveyn eğitim programları hazırlanabilir.

Psikolojik danışmanlara yönelik öneriler şu başlıklar altında toplanabilir.

- 1- Psikolojik danışmanlar ebeveyn görüşmelerini çoğunlukla annelerle gerçekleştirmektedir. Okul danışmanlarının bu görüşmelere babaların da dahil olmasını sağlayacak düzenlemeleri yapmaları babaların da sürece daha fazla dahil olmasını sağlayacaktır.
- 2- Psikolojik danışmanlar ebeveynlere doğrudan ulaşmanın dışında hem okul örgütüyle hem de öğretmenlerle işbirliği içinde olmalıdır.
- 3- Ebeveynlerin katılımının dışında çocukların sağlıklı duygusal ve sosyal gelişimlerini desteklemek amacıyla öğretmenlerin sınıf içi uygulamaları ve okul rehberlik programı da önemlidir. Bu bağlamda psikolojik danışmanlar bazı etkinlikler yürütebilirler.
- 4- Çocukların sağlıklı gelişimleri için gerekli olan sosyal becerileri kazanabilmeleri için psikolojik danışmanlar sadece sosyal becerileri düşük çocukların ebeveynleriyle çalışmak yerine okul geneline ve ebeveynlerin tümüne ulaşmayı hedefleyecekleri bir politika geliştirmeleri yararlı olacaktır.

5- Okul ynetimleri olumlu bir okul atmosferi yaratmak yoluyla đrencilerin, kendilerini gvende hissedecekleri bir ortam oluřturarak đrencilerin sosyal geliřimlerini destekleyebilirler. Bu konuda psikolojik danıřmanlar okul ynetimine destek verebilirler.

## **APPEDIX D**

### **CURRICULUM VITAE**

Rukiye Şahin was born in Tokat in 1972. She graduated from the Department of Educational Sciences in 1996. She received MS degree in Psychological Counseling and Guidance from Middle East Technical University in 1999. She has been working as a research assistant in the Department of Educational Sciences at Abant İzzet Baysal University.