Research Article

Parenting Practices Scale: Its Validity and Reliability for Parents of School-Aged Children

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Abstract

Parenting practices are a field in psychology in which numerous studies have been carried out. In western countries, attempts to define the concept operationally have led to the emergence of many scales claiming to test the concept. This study aims at developing a scale to evaluate the parenting practices of parents with schoolchildren and at carrying out the validity and reliability tests of the scale in question. In the study, 511 parents with schoolchildren between the ages of 6-13 participated. The initial scale consisted of 84 items. Explanatory factor analysis was applied in order to analyze the construct validity and factor structure of the scale, whereas principle component analysis and the varimax rotation technique were used as the factoring technique. Following analysis, 32 items were removed from the scale. The final version of the scale consists of six components (sub-dimensions) and 52 items that explain 40.1% of the variance. Afterwards, second-order confirmatory factor analysis was applied, and model data fit was observed to be high. Cronbach alpha values of the scales' sub-dimensions were found to be between .65 and .79. Criterion validity of the scale was also tested during the study. To this end, the Parenting Practices Scale (PPS) and Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) were used. The correlation between sub-dimensions and total score was analyzed in the study, in which 168 parents participated in total. The findings support the criterion validity of the scale. Moreover, the results prove that the developed scale has the ability to validly test existing differences among parents' parenting practices and the psychological structures leading to them.

Keywords
Parenting • Parenting practices • School-age children • Parenting style • Parenting Practices Scale

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As a main research area of psychology, parenting is a rather comprehensive field that is explored by many researchers in various disciplines throughout the world from the perspectives of biology, genetics, sociology, anthropology, history, and law. Parents mainly focus on three basic goals all over the world. These goals are providing children with the necessities of health and safety, preparing them for life as adults, and transmitting cultural values to them (American Psychological Association, 2010). In this field, the transmission process is known as socialization.

In psychology, parenting is defined as giving the necessary support to a child in order for them to develop physically, emotionally, socially, and intellectually/ cognitively (Baydar, Akçınar, & İmer, 2012). This definition of support that is given to a child in their growth process and the first studies by psychodynamic and learning theorists on its effects on child development, in parallel with the research done on child socialization, date back to the 1930s. That research has intended to answer two main questions: Which parenting model should be adopted in child rearing, and what are the developmental consequences of different child-rearing patterns on children (Darling & Steinberg, 1993)?

Psychodynamic theorists in their effort to answer these questions have focused more on quality of the emotional relationship and satisfaction in the parent/child relationship, while learning theorists focus more on observable parent behaviors, such as the principles that are reinforced, observance of the determined common-space usage rules, and administration of physical punishment onto the child (Cavell, 2002).

In the field, although parents' child-rearing patterns, namely the child's socialization process, have been studied systematically for quite some time, the phenomenon began being studied empirically when Baumrind (1971) defined the concept of parenting style. Baumrind defines parenting style as the values and beliefs about the child-rearing process that reveal the nature of the child, the emotions of the parents for the child, and parents' child-rearing practices. Unlike earlier researchers, Baumrind classified the different authority styles parents adopt in the child-rearing process into three groups: democratic, authoritarian and permissive. Thus, promoting the concept of parenting style as operational, she claimed these styles had different developmental consequences on children.

Using Baumrind's approach as their base, Maccoby and Martin (1983) claimed it would be better if parenting styles are dealt within the four categories that emerge from the intersection of two main dimensions: parents' sensitivity toward the demands of their children (interest/acceptance) and parents' demands from their children (control/ discipline). These styles were identified as democratic/balanced (high sensitivity, high demand), authoritarian (low sensitivity, high demand), permissive (high sensitivity,

low demand), and uninvolved/negligent (low sensitivity, low demand) parenting styles.

Darling and Steinberg (1993) suggested a holistic model for better understanding of how parenting styles affect child socialization. In this model, researchers claimed that parenting goal, parenting practice, and parenting styles together create parenting. They stated that to evaluate elements affecting child development, making a distinction between parenting style and parenting practice is really important because parents can have similar parenting styles but different parenting practices (Stevenson-Hinde, 1998; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). For instance, both use the democratic/balanced parenting style and explain the logic behind a rule, but where one mother lets her child play in the park to feel energetic about preparing for studying, another mother demands her child to study as soon as the child comes home from school. Therefore, even though parents have the same parenting style, performing different practices also changes a child's developmental process. In this example, explaining the logic behind a rule is an example of parenting style, while letting a child play before studying is an example of parenting practice. Parenting practices are defined as the observable behaviors of parents towards their children to make them socialize and achieve the goals parents have determined.

In western countries, researchers' attempts at defining parenting styles and parenting practices operationally have led to developing scales that measure these concepts. The Measure of Child Rearing Styles (Maccoby & Martin, 1983); Parenting Scale (Arnold, O'Leary, Wolff, & Acker, 1993); Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991); Parent Practices Scale (Strayhorn & Weidman, 1988); Parental Attitude Scale (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; adapted by Yılmaz, 2000); Family Life and Child Rearing Attitude Scale (Schaefer & Bell, 1958; adapted by Le Compte, Le Compte, & Özer, 1978); and Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire (Rohner, Saavedra, & Granum, 1978; adapted by Angel, 1993; Varan, 2003) are some of the extensively used scales that have been adapted to other languages.

When examined, the scales dealing with parenting style were mostly developed on the basis of the theory Maccoby and Martin (1983) suggested. For example, The Parental Attitude Scale (Lamborn et al., 1991) is one that has been adapted to Turkish (Yılmaz, 2000). The scale consists of three sub-dimensions: acceptance-involvement, strictness-supervision, and psychological autonomy. The scale studied the extent that children perceive their parents as loving, caring, and attentive in the acceptance-involvement dimension, that children perceive their parents as restrictive and controlling in the strictness-supervision dimension, and that children perceive their parents as democratic and encouraging them to express their individuality in the

psychological autonomy dimension. On the basis of Lamborn et al.'s (1991) work, Sümer and Güngör (1999) developed the Child Rearing Styles Inventory, which has two dimensions: acceptance-involvement and strict control-supervision. To illustrate, the item *we never had a close relationship* points to the acceptance-involvement dimension, whereas the item *they don't easily forgive me when I go against the rules* points to the strict control-supervision dimension. The Parental Attitude Scale was developed for the parents of children between the ages of 2-6 and consists of four sub-dimensions: democratic, authoritarian, protective, and permissive. *I believe my child should take risks to experience new things while growing up* points to the democratic sub-dimension, *I quickly get angry at my child* points to the authoritarian sub-dimension, *I fear my child will get sick* points to the protective sub-dimension, and *I spoil my child* points to the authoritarian sub-dimension. Other scales that measure parenting styles are similar (Angel, 1993; Le Compte et al., 1978). Note that no item that measures parenting style gives comprehensive information about parenting practices. For example, someone who says, "I believe my child should take risks to experience new things while growing up" gives no clue about whether they let their child experience new things or not. When parents think this way, they are more likely to act accordingly, though parents do not always practice what they preach. In practice, many parents say, "I yell at my child even though I know it is wrong." So in practice, a parent who says the statement above maybe doesn't allow the child to experience new things. For this reason, evaluating parenting practices is important in terms of child development.

As stated above, parenting practices focus on parents' observable behaviors towards their children. Some of the scales developed for parenting practices are as follow. The Alabama Parenting Questionnaire as developed by Frick (1991) consists of five sub-dimensions: involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring/supervision, inconsistent discipline, and corporal punishment and other disciplinary practices. Items such as *you slap your child when they do something wrong* and *you specify in advance how long your child can watch TV* are two sample items in the scale. The Parent Practices Scale developed by Strayhorn and Wiedman (1988) consists of three sub-dimensions (warmth and involvement, consistency, and punitive discipline tactics) and two sample items from the scale are *how often do you read to your child or they to you* and *how often do you play with your child.* The Parenting Scale (Arnold et al., 1993), which deals with parental disciplinary techniques, has three dimensions: over-reactiveness, permissiveness, and wordiness. By applying this scale on school children, Irvine, Biglan, Smolkowski, and Ary (1999) only found two dimensions: over-reactiveness and permissiveness. These scale items, just like items mentioned above from the parenting practices scale, measure parenting practices by focusing on observable behaviors.

With the development of these scales it is now possible to estimate to a certain degree the developmental consequences of parenting styles and practices on children (Stormshak, Bierman, McMahon, & Lengua, 2000). A quick glance to the published research carried out in Turkey for evaluating the attitudes and behaviors of parents (Sümer, Aktürk, & Helvacı, 2010) would show that mostly translated or adapted scales have been used and these scales mostly measure parenting styles (Öner, 2009). Among the available scales, the Child Rearing Questionnaire (Paterson & Sanson, 1999), developed for preschool children, was adapted with the same title by Yağmurlu and Sanson (2009) to evaluate parenting practices. Aside from this, no scale for evaluating parenting practices developed for parents with primary schoolchildren could be found in Turkey and appropriate for Turkish culture.

Developing a scale that evaluates the parenting practices of parents with primary schoolchildren in Turkey is necessary for a few reasons. First off, parenting style and parenting practices are different from each other (Darling & Steinberg, 1993), and making parenting practices functional is necessary for predicting the developmental consequences of these practices. Secondly, due to the current rapid changes in society, culture, and scientific development, the quality of parenting practices has changed and also become diverse. Therefore, the developmental consequences of parenting practices on children vary. Knowing the quality of practices available in Turkish culture would be a reference point for intervening in the problems that emerge in families and children. Thirdly, primary school is quite an important period for both children's socializing and forming the fundamentals of academic life. Much research has proven the positive correlation of parenting practices with primary-school children's behavioral problems and academic failure (Stormshak et al., 2000). Thus, measuring the parenting practices of parents with primary schoolchildren is important for solving children's problems. Finally, the developed scale will provide information about functional/healthy parenting practices in Turkish culture.

Due to the lack of such a scale in Turkey, this study aims to develop a scale for evaluating the parenting practices of parents with schoolchildren and to carry out the validity and reliability tests of this scale. To these ends, a two-part study was carried out. In the first part, the items for the Parenting Practices Scale (PPS) were formed and the scale's validity and reliability were analyzed. In the second part, criterion validity of the PPS, whose construct validity had been tested in the previous analysis, was analyzed. Below are the study's first and second parts.

Part I: Choosing the PPS Items and Analyzing Their Construct Validity and Reliability

This first part aims at forming the scale's items and performing factor analysis for the construct validity and the reliability of the scale.

Methodology

Participants

In the study, 383 mothers and 128 fathers ($N = 511$) with schoolchildren between 6- and 13-years old participated in the study. Regarding parents' education levels, 3% ($n = 15$) are those who have never been educated, 29% ($n = 47$) are primary-school graduates, 14% ($n = 69$) are middle-school graduates, 24% ($n = 120$) are high-school graduates, 26% ($n = 129$) are university graduates, and 4% ($n = 20$) have a post graduate or doctoral degree. Regarding families' monthly income, 5% ($n = 23$) earn less than 500 Turkish Lira (TL), 20% ($n = 102$) earn 501-1,000 TL, 48% ($n = 235$) earn 1,001-3,000 TL, 21% ($n = 104$) earn 3,001-8,000 TL, and 5% earn more than 8,000 TL. Mothers' ages in the study are 25-63 ($M = 35.91$, $SD = 5.8$) and fathers' ages are 28-57 ($M = 40$, $SD = 6.76$). Children's ages as evaluated by their parents is 6-13 ($M = 9.37$, $SD = 2.08$).

The scale was applied in various cities in Turkey. Counselors working in schools and undergraduates of psychological counseling and guidance administered the applications. Parents applied the scale forms individually. SPSS 20 and Lisrel 8.8 were used for the data analysis.

Data Collection Tools

Information form. The Information Form prepared by the researchers includes questions about the participants' socio-demographic variables, such as age, income, and education. It also includes information about the children's age and gender.

Parenting Practices Scale (PPS). The PPS was developed in three stages explained in order below.

Stage 1. The first stage reviews the theoretical literature on parenting practices. In order to choose the aim of the scale's measuring structure and to form the scale's items accordingly, existing scales related to parental attitudes and practices were investigated. In the literature review, the chosen operational measuring structure was observed to have three main points: the family relationships affecting parenting practices (family system approach), practices for shaping children's behaviors such as limiting, consolidating, and punishing (learning

theories), and practices affecting the quality of the parent-child relationship. Afterwards, certain items that are believed to represent the structure in question and to be common in Turkey were written down. While writing down the items, items among the investigated scales that were thought suitable for the structure were added to the item pool with some partial changes. Including items taken and edited from the Parenting Scale (Arnold et al., 1993), Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991) and Parent Practices Scale (Strayhorn & Weidman, 1988), a pool with 96 items was written.

Stage 2. Following the narration and while being evaluated, items' features, coherence, and length; the number of positive and negative items; and content validity were considered. Two clinical psychologists who are experts in the field along with a developmental psychologist were asked to evaluate the items. After editing, the first scale was obtained with 84 items. The items in the first version were evaluated by an expert of Turkish language and literature in terms of spelling, dictation, and clarity.

Stage 3. The trial version of the scale was applied to two groups with different socio-economic status to evaluate clarity of the scale items. In İzmir, 15 parents with low socio-economic status and 20 mothers with medium socio-economic status were involved. Necessary editions were made to unclear items.

The scale items were written as a 4-point Likert-type scale and scored as 1 = *never*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *often*, and 4 = *always*. High scores obtained on the scale show the existence of better or more positive parenting practices. The scale was implemented as follows:

> The following scale was prepared to evaluate your behaviors toward your children. Your behavior toward your children may change depending on the nature of your child and the situation you are in. The scale is meant to specify the frequency of your observed behaviors. Read the statements below thinking about how you treat your child under the stated circumstances. Put a cross (x) on the item you think is correct on the answer sheet. The options are 1-Never, 2-Sometimes, 3-Often, 4-Always. Please do not skip any statements so as to provide us with better results. Thank you.

Findings and Interpretations

PSS Construct Validity, Factor Analysis, and Reliability

The first factor analysis was completed by having 511 people fill out the 84-item scale. Before carrying out the factor analysis, the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis was evaluated using the Kaiser Meyer-Olkin (KMO) factor and Bartlett tests. A KMO-factor greater than 60 and a Bartlett's test result that shows significance

means the data are appropriate for factor analysis (Büyüköztürk, 2002; Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2007). In the first factor analysis, the KMO value was found to be .91 for the PPS, and the significance of the Bartlett test showed homogeneity (p = .000). A KMO result greater than .90 is regarded as a perfect sample size (Büyüköztürk, 2010; Leech et al., 2007). Bartlett's sphericity test examines whether data comes from a multivariate or a normal distribution. If the test result's significance level is less than .05, then the factor is found in the correlation matrix (Büyüköztürk, 2010). As data are significant in factor analysis, exploratory factor analysis was used to investigate its construct validity and factor structure; principle component analysis was used as the factorization technique.

The varimax rotation technique was used in the first factor analysis with no limitations to the number of factors. Analysis results specified 11 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. These 11 factors make up 49% of the variance. When considering the factor loading values based on Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) criteria, items with low item-total correlations and eigenvalue less than .32, factor-loading values among different factors that are close to each other (Tavşançıl, 2002), and items with low item correlations were removed from the analysis. Following analysis, 32 items were removed from the scale. The final version of the scale consisted of six factors and 52 items, which explain 40.1% of the variance.

The scale's item dimensions, factor loadings, item-test correlations, changes in reliability when removing items from the test, and Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients related to the test are given in Table 1. The scale's sub-dimensions were named according to the structures measured as the sub-dimensions of positive problem-solving practices, negative problem-solving practices, functional family practices, over-reactive parenting practices, inconsistent parenting practices, and interactive practices.

Table 1
Exploratory Factor Analysis of PSS: Item-Total Correlation and Internal Consistency Reliability Results

Factor	Item	Factor Loadings	Item-Total Correlation	α when the item was removed	Cronbach α
Positive Problem Solving	9	.482	.403	.778	
	11	.618	.522	.768	
	12	.501	.375	.781	
	13	.487	.454	.773	
	14	.544	.483	.770	
	18	.508	.448	.773	.79
	19	.462	.469	.771	
	22	.583	.478	.772	
	28	.474	.465	.772	
	30	.482	.417	.777	
	32	.481	.338	.785	
	35	.466	.372	.781	
Negative Problem Solving	2	.559	.421	.783	
	5	.353	.391	.790	
	6	.630	.520	.770	
	7	.652	.616	.757	
	27	.579	.592	.759	.80
	29	.614	.459	.779	
	38	.411	.478	.776	
	42	.513	.429	.782	
	52	.442	.478	.776	
Functional Family	36	.575	.460	.746	
	37	.466	.493	.742	
	24	.550	.443	.748	
	40	.430	.403	.754	
	43	.389	.390	.759	.77
	44	.470	.473	.744	
	46	.623	.466	.745	
	49	.433	.452	.747	
	51	.484	.492	.741	
Over-reactive	8	.437	.321	.758	
	15	.375	.361	.756	
	17	.427	.446	.745	
	20	.397	.384	.753	
	21	.464	.389	.751	
	23	.515	.413	.749	.77
	26	.448	.374	.753	
	39	.451	.553	.738	
	41	.390	.448	.745	
	47	.623	.323	.760	
	48	.422	.432	.748	
	50	.454	.478	.746	
Inconsistent	45	.628	.441	.578	
	10	.581	.472	.560	
	25	.456	.407	.594	.65
	31	.503	.377	.609	
	33	.478	.318	.635	
Interactive	1	.510	.389	.600	
	3	.645	.487	.552	
	4	.398	.358	.618	.65
	16	.739	.397	.596	
	34	.360	.376	.606	
Total					.91

As seen in Table 1, the PSS's Cronbach alpha coefficient for all the items was calculated as .91. When considering individual factor's reliability, Cronbach's alpha is seen to vary from .79 to .65. Not just the scale's overall reliability but also the sub-dimensions' reliability values show that the scale has sufficient internal consistency. All items also have high correlations with the dimensions they are in; every item removed from the test causes the reliability coefficient to go down. All these data show that the tacit feature the PPS measures has the same internal consistency and reliability.

Results on the Construct Validity of the PPS

In order to find the construct validity of the PPS, confirmatory factor analysis was initially performed (Appendix 1), followed by second-order confirmatory factor analysis. While examining model-data fit through confirmatory factor analysis, fit and error statistics such as χ^2, χ^2 / SD, *RMSEA*, *RMR*, *GFI*, *AGFI*, and *CFI* have been used. From the calculated statistics, values of $\chi^2 / SD < 5$, *GFI* and *AGFI* > .90, and *RMR* and *RMSEA* values < .05 indicate perfect model-data fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993; Marsh & Bailey, 1991; Marsh & Hocevar, 1988). Moreover, lower bound values are considered as *GFI* < .85, *AGFI* < .80, *RMR* < .10, and *RMSEA* < .10 are considered to be the lower bounds (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988).

When examining Table 2, the compliance indexes gathered through confirmatory factor analysis of the structural model shown in Appendix 1 indicate high-level compliance between the model and the data. When examining the indexes, the ratio of χ^2 to degrees of freedom was found to be 1.6. This value indicates good compliance. Furthermore, the *CFI*, *NFI*, *GFI*, *AGFI*, and *IFI* values are greater than .90. This indicates high compliance between model and data. When examining the model's error indexes, an *SRMR* value showing model compliance of the model's standardized errors less than .8 indicates model-data compliance. With 90% probability, one sees the *RMSEA* = .04. This indicates model-data compliance is almost perfect (Hu & Bentler, 1999). When examining all the values of the scale's model data compliance, one can say the model highly complies with the data and thus the scale has construct validity. Looking at the analysis results, the items making up the PPS can acceptably measure the tacit variable.

Table 2
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of PPS: Obtained Error and Compliance Indexes

χ^2	df	χ^2/SD	CFI	NFI	GFI	AGFI	IFI	SRMR	RMSEA	90% C.I. RMSEA	
1946.77	1209	1.60	0.95	0.95	0.82	0.75	0.95	0.059	0.041	0.037	0.044

In the second-order confirmatory factor analysis, the scale's sub-dimensions (positive problem-solving practices, negative problem-solving practices, over-reactive parenting practices, inconsistent parenting practices, and interactive practices) were analyzed as components of the tacit variable. This way the theoretical structure creating the scale (Appendix 2) is tested. The values obtained from the analysis results are given in Table 3.

Table 3
Second-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of PPS: Obtained Error and Compliance Indexes

χ^2	df	χ^2/SD	CFI	NFI	GFI	AGFI	IFI	SRMR	RMSEA	90% C.I. RMSEA	
2460	1116	2.02	0.93	0.93	0.83	0.82	0.93	0.069	0.049	0.046	0.051

When examining the indexes from the second-order confirmatory factor analysis results, the ratio of the value of chi-square to the degrees of freedom is 2.02 and the *CFI*, *NFI*, *AGFI*, and *IFI* values are greater than .90. This indicates high compliance between the model and data. In the model's error indexes, *SRMR* < .8 and 0.046 < *RMSEA* < 0.051 covers the .05 value at 90% probability; this indicates model-data compliance is almost perfect (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

When examining the scale's confirmatory factor analysis and all model-data compliance values from the second-order confirmatory factor analysis, the first-order confirmatory factor analysis results show higher model-data compliance. In addition, the two models that were designed also show a high degree of compliance; thus the scale has construct validity. Considering the analysis results, one can say the items making up the PPS can measure the scale's tacit variable.

The relationships of the sub-scales of the SPP with one another and their relationship with the total score were examined using the Pearson moment correlation technique. The correlational findings among the sub-scales prove the developed scale's validity. Analysis results show high correlation among the sub-scales of positive PPS (positive problem-solving practices, interaction, and functional family practices) and among the sub-scales of negative PPS (negative problem-solving, over-reactivity, inconsistency), and low correlations between the positive PSS sub-scale and the negative PPS sub-scale (Table 4).

Table 4
Correlation Coefficients for the Sub-Scales of the PPS

	Positive Problem Solving	Negative Problem Solving	Functional Family	Over Reactivity	Inconsistency	Interaction	Total Score
Positive Problem Solving		.35*	.62*	.21*	.18*	.53*	.69*
Negative Problem Solving			.39*	.66*	.51*	.28*	.75*
Functional Family				.35*	.25*	.47*	.73*
Over Reactivity					.48*	.17*	.67*
Inconsistency						.18*	.64*
Interaction							.65*

*$p < .001$.

Because the items making up the PPS have the desired features and the scale has high reliability and validity, the scale can be used for the purpose of determining parents' parenting practices in Turkey.

The research has examined whether parents vary their parenting practices or not using the *t*-test. A statistically significant difference in the total average PPS scores was found between mothers and fathers ($t_{(340)} = 2.389$, $p = .017$). When examining the findings, mothers' total average PPS score ($\bar{x} = 168.77$, $s = 17.28$) is found to be higher than that of fathers' ($\bar{x} = 163.76$, $s = 17.02$). When examining the sub-scales statistically, mothers and fathers differ significantly in positive problem-solving ($t_{(444)} = 3.66$, $p = .000$), functional family ($t_{(459)} = 4.29$, $p = .000$), and inconsistency ($t_{(469)} = 2.158$, $p = .031$). Mothers' average scores for positive problem-solving ($\bar{x} = 39.79$, $s = 5.21$), functional family ($\bar{x} = 31.56$, $s = 3.91$) and inconsistency are higher than the fathers' scores (positive problem solving $\bar{x} = 37.72$, $s = 5.20$], functional family $\bar{x} = 29.78$, $s = 3.85$], and inconsistency $\bar{x} = 14.66$, $s = 2.70$]).

Part II: Validity Analysis of the Parenting Practices Scale

The second part was carried out to examine PPS's scale validity, whose factor analysis had already been carried out and construct validity analyzed. To evaluate the scale's validity, the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Scale was used alongside the PPS.

Methodology

Participants

The study was carried out with 168 mothers and fathers. Mothers' ages vary from 22 to 50 ($M = 36.31$, $SD = 5.28$) and fathers' ages vary from 26 to 53 ($M = 39.58$, $SD = 5.59$). Of the mothers, 12% of the mothers ($n = 20$) are literate or only finished primary school, 37% ($n = 62$) are secondary or high school graduates, 41% ($n = 69$)

are university graduates, and 10% ($n = 69$) have master's degrees. Of the fathers, 8% ($n = 13$) are literate or primary school graduates, 28% ($n = 54$) are secondary or high-school graduates, 52% ($n = 87$) are university graduates, and 7% ($n = 12$) have master's degree. For monthly family income, 16% ($n = 26$) earn less than 1,500 TL, 30% ($n = 49$) earn 1,501-3,000 TL, 30% ($n = 51$) earn between 3,001 and 5,000 TL, 30% ($n = 30$) earn 5,001-8,000 TL, and 8% ($n = 8$) earn more than 8,000 TL per month.

Data Collection Tools

This research applies the PPS, developed by the researchers, and the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ; Rohner, Saavedra, & Granum, 1978).

Parenting Practices Scale (PPS). The scale was developed by the researchers as a 4-point Likert-type scale consisting of 52 items and six sub-dimensions with the aim of evaluating parents' positive and negative practices toward their primary-school children. The six sub-dimensions are positive problem solving practices, negative problem-solving practices, functional family practices, over-reactive practices, inconsistent practices, and interactive practices. The higher the parents' score, the better their parenting practices. The lowest score one can get is 52 and the highest is 208. Items 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 15, 17, 20, 21, 23, 25, 26, 27, 29, 31, 33, 38, 39, 41, 42, 45, 47, 48, 50, and 52 are reverse-scored in the scale.

Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ). PARQ was developed by Rohner et al. (1978) for measuring parents' perceptions related to their behaviors of acceptance and rejection toward their child. With 60 items, the scale consists of four sub-dimensions: warmth-affection, hostility-aggression, rejection, and neglect-indifference. A high score on the scale points to high perceptions of rejection; low scores point to high perceptions of acceptance. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Anjel (1993). The overall internal consistency coefficient for the scale is .74, whereas the internal consistency coefficient for the sub-dimensions of warmth-affection, hostility-aggression, neglect-indifference, and rejection are .79, .83, .68, and .59 respectively (Erkman, & Varan, 2004).

Information form. The information form was prepared by the researchers to obtain information about the participants' socio-demographic characteristics. The form has questions about participants' gender, age, economic status, educational level, and income.

Findings

In order to determine the validity of the PPS, we examined its correlation to PARQ in this part. For this purpose, the same group filled out the two scales simultaneously, and Pearson's correlation analysis for the scales' sub-dimensions and total scores were performed. These findings are given in Table 5.

Table 5
Pearson's Correlation Coefficients for the Sub-Dimensions of the PPS and PARQ (n = 168)

	Positive Problem Solving	Negative Problem Solving	Functional Family	Over-Reactivity	Inconsistency	Interaction	PPS Total Score
Warmth-affection	-.467***	-.315***	-.450***	-.262**	-.141	-.314***	-.476***
Hostility-aggression	-.436***	-.625***	-.401***	-.549***	-.40***	-.383***	-.634***
Neglect-indifference	-.191*	-.182*	-.129	-.254**	-.179*	-.231**	-.261**
Rejection	-.402***	-.539***	-.377***	-.475***	-.313***	-351***	-.563***
PARQ Total Score	-.518***	-.571***	-.518***	-.516***	-.345***	-.451***	-.676***

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, **$p < .001$.

The sub-dimension of positive problem-solving negatively correlates to PARQ's total score and sub-dimensions ($-.19 < r < -.52$). The sub-dimension of negative problem solving negatively correlates to PARQ's total score and sub-dimensions ($-.18 < r < -.63$). The sub-dimension of functional family negatively correlates to PARQ's total score and sub-dimensions of warmth-affection, hostility-aggression, and rejection ($-.13 < r < -.52$). No correlation was found for the sub-dimension of functional family with PARQ's neglect-indifference sub-dimension ($r = -.19, p = .095$). The sub-dimension of over-reactivity negatively correlates to PARQ's total score and sub-dimensions ($-.25 < r < -.55$). The sub-dimension of inconsistency negatively correlates to PARQ's total score and its sub-dimensions of hostility-aggression, neglect-indifference and rejection ($-.18 < r < -.40$). No statistical correlation was found between the sub-dimension of inconsistency and PARQ's sub-dimension of warmth ($r = -.14, p = .068$). The sub-dimension of interaction negatively correlates to PARQ's total score and sub-dimensions ($-.23 < r < -.45$). PPS total score negatively correlates to PARQ's total score and sub-dimensions ($-.26 < r < -.68$). A medium-level significance and negative relationship exists statistically between the two scales. As positive parenting practices increase, parents' acceptance behaviors increase. The relationship level, direction and significance between the two scales show that PPS can serve well in measuring parenting features.

Discussion

This study aims at developing and carrying out the validity and reliability tests for a scale to evaluate the parenting practices of parents with school-aged children. An item pool was created taking into consideration the related literature and parenting practices scales that had been developed abroad; after choosing a set of items thought to represent the structure to be measured, the developed scale was given to the parents. When examining reliability and validity studies about the PPS, the scale is seen to measure the tacit variable with low level random errors; the total score and

sub-dimension scores obtained from the scale reflect the likelihood that individuals have the features that are intended for measurement.

In the reliability analysis, the internal consistency of the scale was understood to be high to have the expected relationship with the items' relevant dimensions and with the scale as a whole. Moreover, the analysis performed for the scale's validity show the created model to be highly compliant with the data. Taking a glance at the scale's correlation to the related structures, as parents' positive practices increase, their parental acceptance was seen to increase, as well. Parents with negative parenting practices are more rejectionist and show less affection. Parents who are indifferent to and reject their children are prone to have negative parenting practices like yelling and using violence, as well as a decrease in the number of positive practices. This medium-level, expected relationship supports validity of the PPS. In light of all these findings, one can propose that the PPS makes it possible to validly measure the difference between parenting practices and psychological structures.

As a result of factor analysis on the PPS scale, a structure emerged with six components (sub-dimensions): positive problem-solving practices, negative problem-solving practices, functional family practices, over-reactive parenting practices, inconsistent parenting practices, and interactive practices. The sub-dimensions obtained from the study are consistent with the theoretical and empirical studies from the literature on parenting practices. The Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (Frick, 1991) consists of five sub-dimensions: involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring/supervision, inconsistent discipline, corporal punishment, and other discipline practices. The Parent Practices Scale (Strayhorn & Weidman, 1988) consists of three sub-dimensions: warmth and involvement, consistency, and punitive disciplinary tactics. The Parenting Scale (Arnold et al., 1993), dealing with the disciplinary techniques of parents, consists of three dimensions: over-reactiveness, permissiveness, and verbosity. Using this scale on schoolchildren, Irvine et al. (1999) specified two dimensions: over-reactiveness and permissiveness. Similar to the scales mentioned above and developed as part of the research, the sub-dimensions of positive problem-solving, negative problem-solving, over-reactive, inconsistent, and interactive practices emerged in the PPS.

In the sub-dimension of positive problem solving, the items evaluate the communication style that parents adopt talking with their child and their effective problem-solving methods. These items generally include statements such as effective listening, warm and open communication, empathy, and behaving in accordance with the child's level while teaching them a skill. Getting a high score in the sub-dimension of positive problem solving indicates a parent with many healthy parenting practices.

In the negative problem-solving dimension, the items evaluate parents' ineffective methods such as acting aggressively, critically, accusatorily, or verbosely and making things difficult for others while trying to solve a problem. In this sub-dimension, a high score points to a parent with many healthy parenting practices.

The sub-dimension of over-reactivity consists of items that evaluate parents' over-reactiveness such as exhibiting physical violence to the child and hindering their autonomy. In this sub-dimension, a high score indicates a parent with many healthy parenting practices.

In the consistency sub-dimension, items evaluate whether or not the rules set for the child are applied consistently. Getting a high score in this sub-dimension score to a parent with many healthy parenting practices.

The sub-dimension of interaction has items that evaluate parents' activities done with their child. Getting a high score in this sub-dimension indicates a parent with many healthy parenting practices.

In the scale, an additional sub-dimension was obtained that is similar to the sub-dimensions in the literature: the functional family. In this sub-dimension, items evaluate the continuity of family functions with family members, such as obeying household rules and having a positive atmosphere among family members. Getting a high score in this sub-dimension shows a parent with many healthy parenting practices.

Obeying household rules in general and treating each other thoughtfully show that the family is functional as a system (Gladding, 1998). As parents are able to act better as parents in a family where the boundaries and rules are clearly specified (Cavell, 2002; Sanders, 1999), other parenting practices from the other dimensions will also be affected positively. The positive and high correlation values that the sub-dimension of functional family has with the sub-dimensions of interaction support this evaluation.

In the study, mothers' parenting practices were found to be higher than those of fathers. When examining the sub-dimensions causing this difference, one sees mothers scored higher than the fathers in the sub-dimensions of positive problem solving, functional family, and inconsistency. This means mothers are more consistent in their behavior towards their children, apply ways more positively for solving problems, and support more their children's learning how things work at home. The reason for this difference is thought to be gender roles in society; women always have to take care of the children more. Women in Turkey still spend most of their time at home taking care of their children. This is also the case for working women (Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu, 2006). As the primary responsibility of women is child rearing, women gather more information about the issue either formally (attending mother-

training programs at schools) or informally (asking elders or friends). Therefore, they are more qualified in rearing a child than fathers.

The scale developed as a part of this research is important in some respects. As mentioned previously, parenting styles and parenting practices are different structures, and for parents with school-aged children (between 6-13 years old), no scale evaluates parenting practices. Measuring parenting practices is important for revealing the developmental results of these practices, both on the child and the family. Studies carried out on this issue show that positive parenting practices such as following homework and watching children's activities at school have a positive correlation with the school-aged child's academic performance (Raya, Ruiz-Olivares, Pino, & Herruzo, 2013), whereas criticizing this child or beating them makes behavioral problems more likely to occur, like being incompatible, disobedient, and aggressive; this also affects their academic performance negatively (Harvey, Danforth, Ulaszek, & Eberhardt, 2001; Irvine et al., 1999; Stormshak et al., 2000). For this reason, if the researchers, teachers, and psychologists working with parents and children, along with all experts working in the field, were able to evaluate current parenting practices effectively and quickly, significant contributions would be made to theoretical and practical studies (Raya et al., 2013). Furthermore, due to the rapid change and scientific developments currently in societies and cultures, the quality of parenting practices has also changed. Therefore, the developmental consequences for children have changed. This scale, developed as a part of this research, is important in specifying the quality of continuing parenting practices, as well as its developmental consequences on children.

This study has some limitations. In the study, the relationship of parenting practices was applied through parents' perceptions of acceptance-rejection, but not with other features like parenting purposes or parenting attitudes. No test/re-test reliability was performed. In future studies, exploring the correlation of parenting practices with other parenting features would provide a better understanding of this structure. Moreover, examining whether parenting practices are related to a child's characteristics would contribute to the literature on parenting practices.

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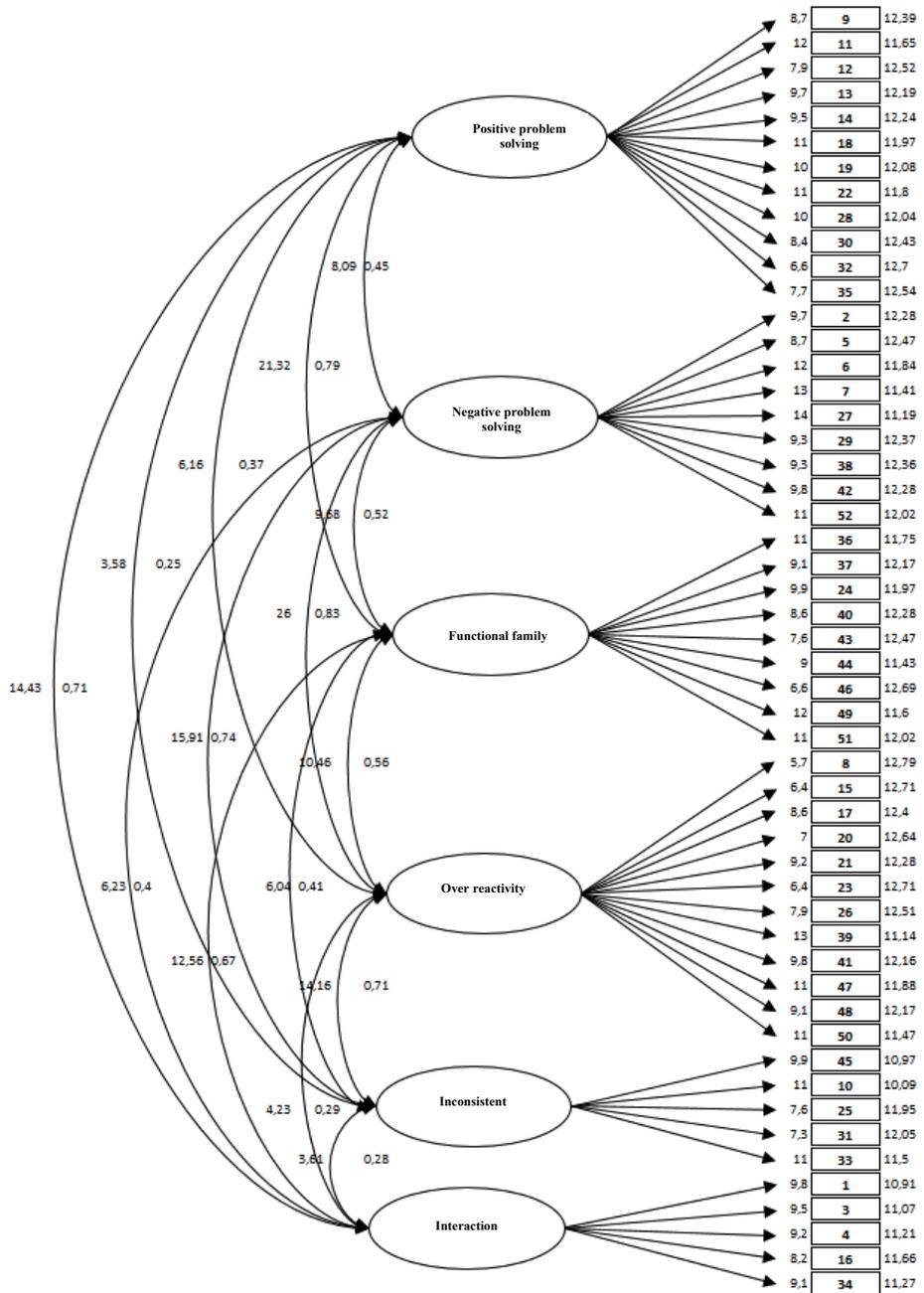
Appendix 1a: *Structural Model designed as a result of the confirmatory factor analysis of the PPS*

Positive problem solving, negative problem solving, functional family, over-re-activity, inconsistency, interaction (from top to bottom)
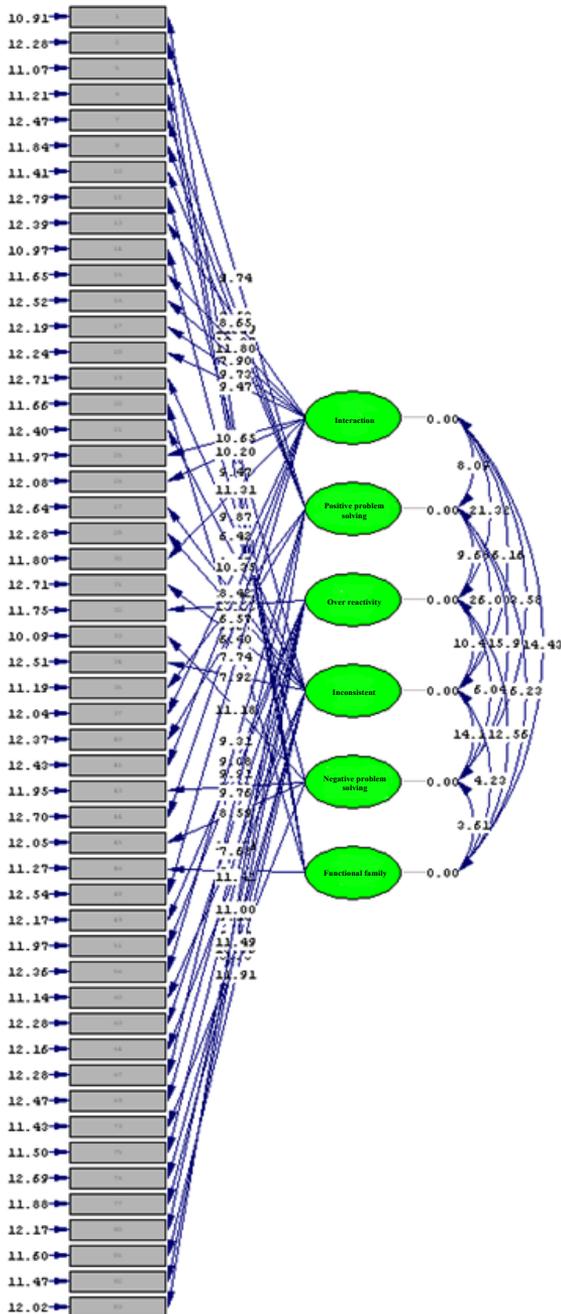
Appendix 1b: *Structural Model designed as a result of the confirmatory factor analysis of the PPS*

Interactive, Positive problem-solving, Over-reactive, inconsistent, negative problem-solving, and functional family practices (from top to bottom)
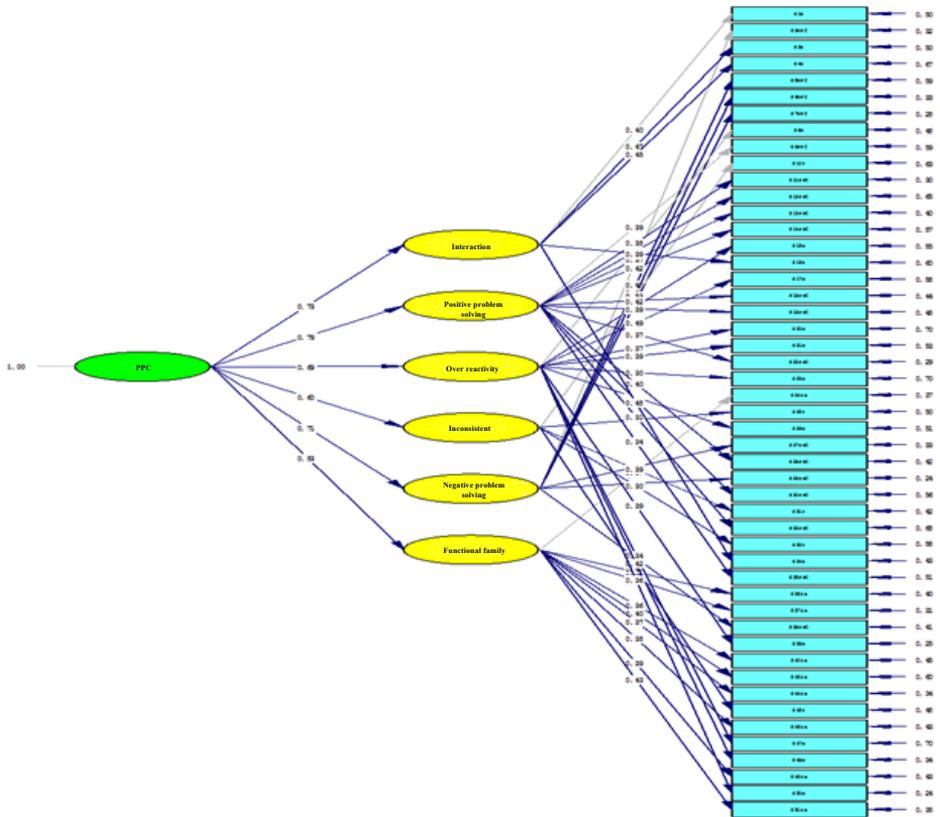
Appendix 2: Second-Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Ana Babalık Uygulamaları Ölçeği

Bu ölçek çocuklarınıza yönelik davranışlarınızı değerlendirmek için hazırlanmıştır. Çocuğunuza karşı davranışlarınız çocuğunuzun yapısına, içinde bulunduğunuz koşullara göre değişebilir. Ölçek davranışlarınızın gözlenme sıklığını belirlemeye yöneliktir. Aşağıda sunulan ifadeleri, bu ifadelerle ilgili genelde çocuğunuza nasıl davrandığınızı düşünerek okuyunuz. Değerlendirmenizi **1-Asla, 2-Ara sıra, 3-Sıklıkla, 4-Her zaman** olmak üzere derecelendirdikten sonra cevap kâğıdındaki uygun yere **(x)** koyarak belirtiniz. Hiç bir ifadeyi boş bırakmamanız sonuçları daha sağlıklı değerlendirmemize yarayacaktır. Teşekkürler.

	ASLA	ARA SIRA	SIKLIKLA	HER ZAMAN
Ne sıklıkla çocuğunuza bir şeyler okursunuz ya da o size bir şeyler okur?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz evinizde ne sıklıkla yetişkinlerin birbirlerine bağırdığını görür?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzla birlikte şarkı söyler, dans eder veya eğlenceli bir şeyler yaparsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzun katıldığı etkinliklere ne sıklıkla eşlik edersiniz? (Örn. Onu tiyatroya götürmek, okulun düzenlemiş olduğu hafta sonu etkinliğine katılmak vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun bazı davranışlarını " başkaları ne der" diyerek engellemeye çalışırsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz yanlış bir şey yaptığında ne sıklıkla ona küsersiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz yanlış bir şey yaptığı zaman ne sıklıkla ona olumsuz şeyler söylersiniz? (Örn. Ne beceriksiz şeysin, tembelsin, beni rezil ediyorsun vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzla oynarken oyunun kurallarını ve ne oynayacağınızı ne sıklıkla siz belirlersiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzun sizinle ilgili problemlerini veya olumsuz duygularını ifade etmesini ne kadar anlayışla karşılarsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz ne sıklıkla ona vereceğiniz cezadan sizi konuşarak vazgeçirir? (Örn. Ağlayarak veya sözler vererek)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz beklentinize uygun davrandığında ne sıklıkla onu öper veya ona sarılırsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzla arkadaşları hakkında ne sıklıkla konuşursunuz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzla ilgili karar verirken ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzun fikrini alırsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzu dinlediğinizi ve anladığınızı göstermek için fark ettiğiniz duygu ve düşüncelerini ona ne sıklıkla söylersiniz? (Örn. Bu seni çok sinirlendirmiş, gerçekten kendinle gurur duymuşsun vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzu sırlarınıza ortak edersiniz? (Örn. Bunu satın aldığımı sakın babana söyleme vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzla ne sıklıkla oyun oynarsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzu ne sıklıkla kardeşiyle veya başka biriyle kıyaslarsınız? (Örn. Ağabeyin kadar çok çalışırsan sen de başarılı olursun vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzdan istediklerinizin onun kişiliğine uygun olup olmadığına ne kadar dikkat edersiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuza bir beceri kazandırmaya çalışırken ne sıklıkla yapılacak şeyi basit ve sırasıyla anlatırsınız? (Örn. Odasını toplamayı öğretirken işlerin sırasını ve yöntemini yaparak basitçe göstermek vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz için yaptığınız fedakârlıkları ne sıklıkla ona hatırlatırsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzun çözmesi gereken problemleri ne sıklıkla siz çözersiniz? (Örn. Arkadaşına ödev sormak vb.).	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ne sıklıkla çocuğunuza içinizden geldiği için güzel şeyler söylersiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Kişisel sorunlarınız olduğunda ne sıklıkla çocuğunuza anlatırsınız? (Örn. Eşinizle ya da kardeşlerinizle olan bir anlaşmazlık ya da işyerindeki bir tartışma)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aile üyeleri birbirlerinden ne ölçüde haberdardır?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sorun çıkarmasın diye çocuğunuzun uygun olmayan isteklerini ne sıklıkla yaparsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuza ceza verip vermeyeceğiniz içinde bulunduğunuz ruh haline ne kadar bağlıdır?	☐	☐	☐	☐

Çocuğunuza söz geçiremeyince ne sıklıkla onu korktuğu bir şeyle tehdit edersiniz? (Örn. Yaptıklarını akşam babana söyleyeceğim, Allah seni taş edecek vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz yanlış davrandığı zaman ne sıklıkla bunun nedenini araştırırsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzla ne sıklıkla sinirli bir ses tonuyla konuşursunuz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz ciddi bir yanlış yaptığında ne sıklıkla, yaptığı yanlış üzerine kısa bir süre düşündürüp, ardından onunla yaptığı şey üzerine konuşursunuz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz görev ve sorumluluklarını yerine getirmediğinde ne sıklıkla onun yerine siz yaparsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Yaşadığınız gündelik şeyler hakkında ne sıklıkla çocuğunuzla sohbet edersiniz? (Örn. Bugün çok yoruldum vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzun hareketlerini ve oyunlarını, ne sıklıkla terliyor, düşecek gibi gerekçelerle kısıtlarsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzla birlikte eğlenceli bir şeyler yapmak için dışarı çıktığınızda ne sıklıkla gerçekten eğlenirsiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzla aranızdaki anlaşmazlıklarda ne sıklıkla iki tarafı da memnun eden çözümler bulabilirsiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ailenizdeki bireyler ev içi kurallara ne kadar uyar? (Örn. Eve dönüş saatinde aile üyelerinin eve gelmesi vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzun düzenli beslenmesine ne kadar dikkat edersiniz? (Örn. Öğünleri atlamamak vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Genel olarak değerlendirdiğinizde, çocuğunuza yönelik yorumlarınız ne sıklıkla yargılayıcı veya reddedici tarzdadır?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz evinizde ne sıklıkla yetişkinlerin birbirlerine vurduklarını görür?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz ne sıklıkla evinizde yetişkinlerin birbirlerine dostça, kibarca veya minnettar bir şekilde davrandığını görür?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Siz eşinizle (veya evdeki diğer yetişkinlerle) tartıştığınızda çocuğunuz ne sıklıkla birinizin tarafını tutar?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzla yaptığı bir yanlış üzerine konuşurken daha önce yaptığı hataları ne sıklıkla yüzüne vurursunuz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzu ne sıklıkla çalıştırır veya ödevlerini kontrol edersiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzdan bir şeyler istediğinizde bunu yerine getirip getirmediğini ne sıklıkla kontrol edersiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuza verdiğiniz cezayı uygulamayı ne sıklıkla yarıda bırakırsınız? (Örn. İki gün televizyon seyretmeyeceksin deyip, bir günün sonunda seyretmesine izin vermek gibi.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzun okul toplantılarına veya okul etkinliklerine ne sıklıkla katılırsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuzun zevk ve seçimlerine ne kadar karışırsınız? (Örn. Dinlemek istediği müzik türü, giyim tarzı, tuttuğu takım vb.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuza doğruları göstermek için ne sıklıkla vurur ya da hafifçe canını yakarsınız?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuza yapmaması gereken şeyleri söylerken kesin bir dil kullanmaya ne kadar dikkat edersiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuza doğruları göstermek için ne sıklıkla kemer, sopa veya diğer objelerle ona vurursunuz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuza dersleriyle ilgili hedefler koyarken yeteneğine ve gelişim düzeyine ne kadar dikkat edersiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ne sıklıkla çocuğunuza onun yüzünden kendinizi kötü hissettiğinizi ya da hastalandığınızı söylersiniz?	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix 3: Items from the PPS