BELIEFS ABOUT CHILDREN'S UPBRINGING:

THE VIEWS OF TURKISH MOTHERS AND PRESCHOOL TEACHERS
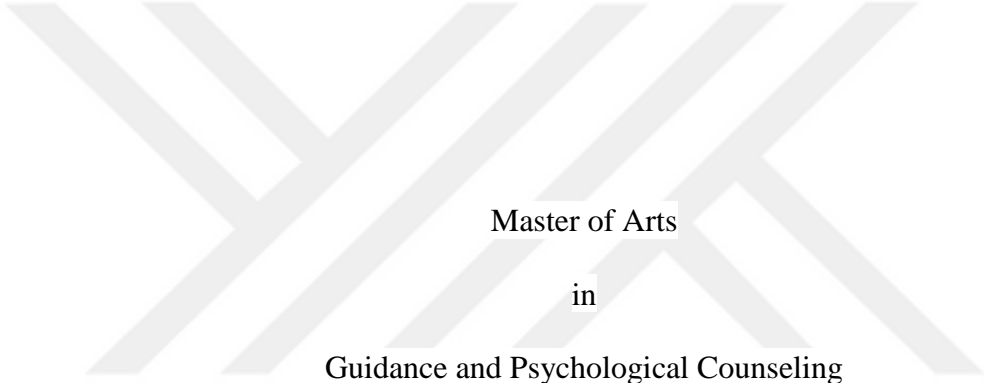
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Beliefs About Children's Upbringing:

The Views of Turkish Mothers and Preschool Teachers

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ABSTRACT

Beliefs about Children's Upbringing:

The Views of Turkish Mothers and Preschool Teachers

Child-caregiver relationship is of critical importance for the child's social-emotional development. Earlier studies on caregivers' sensitivity beliefs have focused on parents' childrearing beliefs and behaviors. Although there are some studies on beliefs of some childcare providers such as child psychologists, parenting counselors, and family therapists, the question if parents' caregiving beliefs are consistent with the beliefs of preschool caregivers regarding upbringing has not been studied. So, the main goal of the present study was to compare the views of the mothers' and to those of their children's teachers at preschool about caregiving sensitivity. The sample consisted of a total of 87 caregivers (36 preschool teachers and 51 mothers). Mothers' and teachers' views about the ideal sensitive mother were measured by the Maternal Behavior Q-Sort Version 3.1 (MBQS) and their views were compared with a criterion sort provided by the experts in the field. Additional comparisons were done to examine if the mothers' sensitivity beliefs differed in relation to their education level or their children's psychological difficulties which were measured by mother- and teacher-reported Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ). The results indicated both similarities and differences in beliefs about sensitive behaviors. Although they shared similar views with experts and with each other, they showed some differences in how descriptive they found the behaviors indicated in MBQS. Education level was found to be as an important indicator of the sensitivity. Hypotheses of the study and the results will be discussed in line with the related literature.

ÖZET

Çocukların Yetiştirilmesine İlişkin İnançlar:
Türk Anneleri ve Okul Öncesi Öğretmenlerinin Görüşleri

Çocuk ile bakım veren arasındaki ilişki, çocuğun sosyal-duygusal gelişimi için kritik öneme sahiptir. Çocuk psikologları, ebeveynlik danışmanları ve aile terapistleri gibi çocuk bakımı sağlayıcılarının inançlarına ilişkin bazı çalışmalar olmasına rağmen, ebeveynlerin bakıma yönelik inançlarının, okul öncesi bakım verenlerin yetiştirme konusundaki inançlarıyla tutarlı olup olmadığı sorusu henüz yanıtlanmamış görünmektedir. Bu çalışmalar daha çok yetiştirme inanç ve davranışlarına odaklanmıştır. Öğretmenler ve ebeveynler, çocuğun bakım ağının önemli değerleridir. Bakım vermeye dair inançlardaki farklılıklar, çocuklara yönelik evdeki ve okuldaki günlük uygulamalarda farklılıklara yol açabilir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, okul öncesi çağda olan çocukların annelerinin ve öğretmenlerinin duyarlı davranışlar hakkındaki görüşlerini karşılaştırmaktır. Araştırmaya 36 okul öncesi öğretmeni ve 51 anne olmak üzere toplam 87 kişi katılmıştır 'Ideal duyarlı anne' hakkındaki görüşleri öğrenmek için Anne Davranışları Sınıflandırma Seti 3.1 kullanılmıştır (ADSS). Duyarlılık inançlarının, katılımcıların eğitim düzeyine ve çocukların psikolojik zorluklarına göre farklılık gösterip göstermediği incelenmiştir. Çocukların davranışlarını değerlendirmek için Güçler ve Güçlükler Anketi (GGA) kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar, annelerin ve öğretmenlerin, duyarlı davranışlar konusunda benzer görüşler paylaştığını göstermiştir. Ancak, ADSS'de belirtilen davranışları ideal duyarlı davranışı ne kadar açıklayıcı buldukları konusunda bazı farklılıklar göstermişlerdir. Eğitim düzeyinin duyarlılığın önemli bir göstergesi olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Çalışmanın hipotezleri ve sonuçları ilgili literatür doğrultusunda tartışılmıştır.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ADSS: Anne Davranışları Sınıflandırma Seti

AQS: Attachment Q-Set

CBCL: Child Behavior Checklist

GGA: Güçler ve Güçlükler Anketi

FSM: Family Stress Model

INAREK: Boğaziçi University Ethics Committee

MBQ: Maternal Behavior Questionnaire

MBQS: Maternal Behavior Q-Sort

MONE: Ministry of National Education

MDI: Mental Developmental Index

NECEP: National Early Childhood Education Program

NGO: Nongovernmental Organization

Q-Set: Questionnaire Set

Q-Sort: Questionnaire Sort

SDQ: Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire

SS: Strange Situation

SSCPA: Social Welfare and Child Protection Agency

SSP: Strange Situation Procedure

TUSI: Turkish Statistical Institute

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

Early childhood is a formative developmental period and most children spend a great deal of time in early childhood educational settings from their early years. During this period, the child-caregiver relationship is of critical importance for the child's social-emotional development (Alink et al., 2009; Jaffari-Bimmel, Juffer, Van Ijzendoorn, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Mooijaart, 2006; Kochanska, Barry, Aksan, & Boldt, 2008; Leerkes, Blankson, & O'Brien, 2009; Olson, Bates, Sandy, & Lanthier, 2000; Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006; Tamis-LeMonda, Briggs, McClowry, & Snow, 2009). Bronfenbrenner's (1977) Ecological Systems Theory outlines the potential developmental impact of connections and experiences across different microsystems (i.e., home and childcare). Each microsystem is "the complex of relations between the developing person and environment in an immediate setting containing that person (i.e., home, school, workplace, etc.)" (p. 514). Components of each microsystem such as the school and home have its own features.

In Turkey, early childhood settings are expected to follow the National Early Childhood Education Program (NECEP, Ministry of National Education, 2013). These guidelines, which view the child, family, school, and community contexts as a whole, emphasize the importance of parental involvement in school activities or decision making processes (Demircan & Erden, 2015). Such involvement requires "alliance" between the parents and teachers.

Studies attempting to understand the family-teacher partnerships at the dyadic level are limited (Maras, Lang, & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2018). The cocaring

framework, which encompasses how parents and teachers work together in their caregiving roles to coordinate childrearing (Lang, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Jeon, 2017), offers a new perspective to researchers and practitioners to understand parent-teacher interactions by defining the key components of parent–teacher relationships (Maras et al, 2018). Concordance between the home and childcare is vital for providing high quality care and education (Lang, Tolbert, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Bonomi, 2016). In this sense, the cognitive match in the parents' and teachers' beliefs on caregiving is of critical importance. In their study, Mesman, Minter, and Angnged (2016) introduced the concept of the child's 'total caregiving network', indicating the total experience of sensitive care the child receives from multiple sources. Given the fact that today's children spend most of their time in early childhood educational settings, it can be said that the teachers are also a part of children's received sensitivity care network.

Sensitive caregiving refers to the ability to take the child's point of view, perceive and interpret the child's signals and respond to those signals in a prompt, appropriate and contingent way (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Correct interpretation of the child's signals is critical for understanding his or her needs, and caregivers' ideas about what children need may differ (Mesman, Van Ijzendoorn, & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2012). Values and beliefs are embedded in childrearing practices (Greenfield, Flores, Davis, & Salimkhan, 2008; Harwood, Schoelmerich, Schulze, & Gonzalez, 1999). Parental beliefs referring to the way children should be raised may unfold in an individual's upbringing practices that can be observed in interaction patterns with the child (Coplan, Hastings, Lagacé-Séguin, & Moulton, 2002). Situational variabilities can arise in the parent-child interactions consistent with the parent's goals and childrearing beliefs (Harwood et al., 1999). If parents

have stronger beliefs about the value of a particular parenting behavior such as spanking, they are more likely to behave accordingly, such as using harsh discipline (Pinderhughes, Dodge, Bates, Pettit, & Zelli, 2000). It seems that different beliefs are reflected in differences in parenting styles and behaviors. This may also be the case for teachers.

Both teachers and parents have certain beliefs about the way children should behave and the strategies to be used in childrearing (specific behaviors they allow or don't allow) obviously influence the child (Churchill, 2003). Differences in beliefs and goals between the mothers and early childhood education teachers who are parts of the total caregiving network may also indicate differences in sensitive behaviors toward children and may result in different practices between the home and school environments for children (Susman-Stillman, Pleuss, & Englund, 2013). This warrants attention and may have implications for hiring the caregiving workforce and choosing childcare (Susman-Stillman et al., 2013). When a child's behavior complies with the sensitive childrearing practices of the mother but not with that of the teacher (such as running from place to place), this situation may create a social and cognitive challenge for the child (Churchill, 2003). It is important to consider the role of context as well. Different expectations in the school and home environment may require some differences in practices between school and home environment.

The cooperation between parents and teacher seems meaningful for children's social emotional outcomes. For example, if parents and teachers agreed, or had similar expectations for childrearing practices and children's behaviors, preschoolers had higher social competence (Churchil, 2003). Support for open and ongoing communication between parents and childcare staff is essential, yet it is complicated by differing communication styles and expectations (Reedy & McGrath, 2010). For

many children, their parents and teachers may have different beliefs on what constitutes proper childrearing (Bernhard, Lefebvre, Murphy Kilbride, Chud, & Lange, 1998). Thus, this study aims to examine the possible similarities and differences in the views of mothers and preschool teachers regarding ideal sensitive behaviors toward children.

1.2 Significance of the study

Universal and culture-specific patterns of sensitivity and sensitivity beliefs of individuals who are in contact with children have been extensively studied in developmental research. Earlier studies on caregivers' sensitivity beliefs focused on parents' childrearing beliefs and behaviors (Ekmekci et al., 2016; Emmen, Malda, Mesman, Ekmekci, & Van IJzendoorn, 2012; Gonzalez-Ramos, Zayas, & Cohen, 1998; Harwood, Schoelmerich, Ventura-Cook, Schulze, & Wilson, 1996; Harwood et al., 1999; Mesman et al., 2016; Pinderhughes et al., 2000; Schulze, Harwood, & Scholmerich, 2001; Trommsdorff & Friedlmeier, 2010; Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp, & Park, 2013). Studies investigating commonalities and differences in sensitivity beliefs of these individuals (i.e., mothers, parents, teachers, or field professionals) from different cultures or ethnic groups revealed that despite the similarities, there may be significant differences in beliefs about the ideal sensitive behaviors (Ekmekci et al., 2015; Emmen et al., 2012). Although there are some studies on beliefs of childcare providers such as child psychologists, parenting counselors, and family therapists (Ekmekci et al., 2015; Rothbaum et al., 2006), the question if parents' sensitivity beliefs are consistent with the beliefs of preschool caregivers has not been studied.

According to the Ministry of National Education (MONE), the characteristics of teachers are one of the most important determinants of the quality of preschool education and the development of the child (MONE, 2013). The most important component of this supportive environment is the consistent and secure relationship established between the teacher and the child (MONE, 2013). An understanding of teachers' beliefs and applied instructional practices provides us with a perspective through which a holistic picture of an educational system can be obtained (Erdiller & McMullen, 2003). Literature seems limited in terms of teachers' beliefs about appropriate practices toward children. Most of the previous research focused on the mothers' views about sensitive practices toward children (e.g., Ekmekci et al., 2015; Emmen et al., 2016) Much of the Turkish literature on the importance of parent-teacher collaboration in preschool education has focused on communication with families, parental engagement or involvement in school activities, parents' and teachers' views on the importance of parent and teacher cooperation, as well as the importance of this collaboration for children's development (Bayraktar, Güven, & Temel, 2016; Çakmak, 2010; Hakyemez; 2015; Ok, 2016; Kocyigit; 2015; Topal, Erdem, & Dal, 2013). Considering the importance of parents' and teachers' caregiving roles to coordinate childrearing within cocaring framework (Lang et al.2017), investigation of their views can be informative for researchers as well as practitioners to decide the focus of early childhood parenting intervention programs to promote sensitive parenting by defining the key components of parent–teacher relationships and by providing a broad range of information about where the teachers and mothers differ on sensitive behaviors they value. In addition, to my knowledge, sensitivity beliefs of individuals sharing the caregiving network of a particular child have yet to be studied. In this respect, this study differs from its kinds by focusing on

the crucial figures of the child's care network, namely the teacher and mother, who are in contact with the same child on a daily basis.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theory of attachment

Since John Bowlby (1969) proposed the concept of attachment, a substantial amount

of empirical work on the caregiver-infant relationship has been carried out. By

definition, attachment is the affectional bond formed between people or animals,

which keeps them together in space and lasts over time (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970).

The behavioral hallmark initiating this bond is the infant's and mother's efforts to

gain and maintain a certain degree of proximity with each other, including physical

contact in close circumstances and interaction in distant circumstances (Ainsworth &

Bell, 1970). Following that, the infant's initiation is accompanied by proximity- or

contact-promoting behaviors such as approaching, clinging, smiling, crying,

following (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). When such proximity and contact promoting

behaviors are directed specifically towards the mother, it can be said that the infant

becomes attached, and flourishment of behaviors with other subsequent proximity-

seeking behaviors, presumably through a learning process in the course of mother-

infant interaction, accompanies the process (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). In case of a

decrease or disappearance of attachment behavior as a result of prolonged absence

from the attachment figure, the attachment does not diminish (Ainsworth & Bell,

1970). When the reunion with the attachment figure is provided, attachment behavior

tends to reemerge in full or heightened strength with or without delay (Ainsworth &

Bell, 1970).

        The affectional bonds in general provide a sense of security and comfort

(Ainsworth, 1989). However the secure base provided by the mother in order to

experience the surrounding, is the main criterion of attachment that other affectional

bonds do not necessarily have (Ainsworth, 1989). The way the infant can use the

attachment figure as a secure base from which to explore the world is an important

feature of the onset of attachment (Ainsworth, 1985). Since the attachment figure is

believed to be accessible and responsive, the infant experiences a sense of security

and comfort, which enables him to be confident enough to explore the environment

(Ainsworth, 1979). The presence of that figure leaves the baby open to stimulation

activating exploration so that attachment and exploration promote each other

(Ainsworth, 1979). When the attachment behavior is highly activated (i.e., in case of

absence of attachment figure), a baby tends to ignore exploring and seek proximity

contact; when the attachment behavior is low in intensity, the baby feels free to

respond to the novelty (Ainsworth, 1979).

There is a balance between infant behaviors and reciprocal maternal

behaviors, between those which lead the infant away from the mother and promote

exploration and those which draw mother and infant together and promote the

protection and nurturance provided by mother (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). In a secure

attachment, the infant conceptualizes a working model of the mother as responsive

and accessible (Ainsworth, 1985). With this confidence about accessibility and

responsiveness of the attachment figure, he can have courage to learn about his

surroundings and the mutual interaction between him and his surroundings

(Ainsworth, 1979; Ainsworth, 1985). Longitudinal studies supported the proposals of

Bowlby and Ainsworth that securely attached infants had a history of more sensitive

and cooperative interactions with their mothers compared to those who were

anxiously attached (Egeland & Farber, 1984; Sroufe, 2005). A well-known

procedure to measure attachment behaviors in infants and toddlers is the Strange

Situation (SP) which is a laboratory situation in which a stranger is introduced when the infant is nearly one-year-old in order to observe the extent to which he could use his mother as a secure base to explore this strange environment and the extent to which the attachment behavior gains ascendancy over exploration under conditions of entrance of a stranger, separation from and reunion with the mother (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). The procedure starts with the introduction of the baby into a playroom with his mother, followed by the entrance of an adult stranger along with a brief separation episode in which the mother leaves the baby with the stranger. After an episode of reunion with the mother, a second separation occurs in which the baby is first alone in the room and then again with the stranger, who returns before the mother comes back to the room (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). In the original study, it was observed that infants used their mothers as a secure base to explore the SP, indicating that the mother's presence could move the balance in favor of exploring the novel rather than avoiding it (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). Absence of the mother moved the balance in the opposite direction, a considerably increasing proximity-promoting behavior such as crying and search and concomitant decrease in exploration (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970).

Attachment is an important concept for children's later development. The way the child organizes his behaviors toward other animate or inanimate aspects of the environment is affected by the way he organizes his behaviors toward the mother (Ainsworth, 1979). Attachment studies showed that there might be four types of attachment. Some studies reported that Group A infants, avoidant ones, appeared as more aggressive and noncompliant, Group C infants, the ambivalent ones, became less persistent and more easily frustrated (Ainsworth, 1979). Moreover, compared to the anxiously attached infants, securely attached ones later became more cooperative,

less aggressive, and avoidant toward unfamiliar adults (Ainsworth, 1979). They were also found to be more competent and sympathetic in peer interaction; more interested in exploration during free play; more enthusiastic, persistent and talented in asking and accepting their mothers' help in problem-solving situations; as well as more curious, self-directed and ego-resilient (Ainsworth, 1979). Additionally, securely attached infants were more likely to get higher scores on developmental tasks, including language development (Ainsworth, 1979).

Some studies showed significant direct associations between early parent-child attachment relationships and later social development (e.g., Jaffari-Bimmel et al., 2006). In a longitudinal study from birth to adulthood, the researchers discussed general differences between children with secure attachment and those with anxious attachment regarding self-reliance, emotional regulation, and social competence (Sroufe, 2005). In this study, children with anxious attachment relationships became more dependent and less self-reliant later on. Compared to those with resistant or avoidant attachment styles, securely attached children were rated as more self-confident, higher on self-esteem, and more ego-resilient, supporting the hypothesis of Bowlby-Ainsworth that the role of secure attachment is the foundation of emotion regulation (Sroufe, 2005). Additionally, compared to those with resistant or avoidant attachment styles, those with secure attachment exhibited higher social competence regarding expectations and representations of relationships, engagement with others, skill in interaction, and popularity, supporting the role of secure attachment on promotion of social competence (Sroufe, 2005).

Secure attachment was also related to more active participation/less isolation in peer groups in both preschool years and middle childhood; higher levels of empathy, more mutual interactions during play in preschool; more close and

coordinated friendships with group functioning in middle childhood; more effective

participation in social interaction in social interaction in the mixed-gender peer

group, and notable leadership qualities in adulthood. Similar results were

demonstrated by another longitudinal study in which attachment disorganization in

infancy was negatively related with the quality of mother-child relationships at 24

and 42 months, it was positively related to behavior problems such as disobedience

or fighting in preschool, elementary school and high school, and diagnostic ratings of

psychopathology (i.e., affective disorders, schizophrenia) at age of 17.5 (Carlson,

1998).

In terms of the discipline of developmental psychopathology, while early

secure attachment promotes resilience by enabling positive expectations concerning

self and others and providing a frame in order to establish successful close

relationships and a viable social support network, anxious attachment in infancy

serves as a potential risk factor for later disturbance (Sroufe, 2005). Thus early

disturbances in attachment relationships may impair developmental processes which

might cause psychopathology later on (Sroufe, Carlson, Levy, & Egeland, 1999).

2.2 Maternal sensitivity

Maternal sensitivity, the ability to correctly observe and interpret the infant's signals

and respond to them promptly and appropriately (Ainsworth et al., 1978), is the

primary premise of attachment quality (Bohlin & Hagekull, 2000; Claussen &

Crittenden, 2000). An optimally sensitive mother not only perceives the baby's

signals accurately but also responds to them appropriately, is tactful in

acknowledging baby's communication and arranges her responses contingent upon

the baby's signals (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Thus, although sensitivity is often

considered as an intrapersonal variable, it is a dyadic construct (Claussen &
Crittenden, 2000). Because it is the child who is sending the signals to the mothers,
so if the child can communicate desires clearly instead of sending mixed or subtle
signals, mother's response might be much easier (Claussen & Crittenden, 2000). In
addition, sensitivity is age-specific, which means that forms of sensitive parenting
behavior can change depending on the child's developmental needs and the
appearance of sensitive parenting behavior is similar across the child developmental
stages (Claussen & Crittenden, 2000). On the other hand, maternal sensitivity might
be affected by some contextual factors. It varies as a function of the setting of the
interaction and broader cultural ideologies and goals (Tamis-LeMonda, 1996).
Subsequently, what is sensitive to one child is not necessarily sensitive to another or,
what is sensitive in one culture may differ from what is sensitive in another culture
(Tamis-LeMonda, 1996).

2.2.1 Maternal sensitivity and attachment

Bowlby (1969) suggested the mother's sensitivity to signals, her timing of
interventions, the child's experience of predictability and reciprocity contributes to
the "active and happy interchange between the couple and a secure attachment
develops" (p. 346). Meta-analysis studies show that maternal sensitivity is an
important condition of attachment security (e.g., Wolff & Van IJzendoorn, 1997;
Van IJzendoorn, Vereijken, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Rikensen-Walraven, 2004).
In a number of studies examining the relationship between maternal sensitivity and
attachment in infants, it has been found that maternal sensitivity consistently predicts
the attachment security. For example, a study revealed the predictive role of maternal
sensitivity at eighth-months of age on the infant's attachment security at 12-months

of age as derived from both mothers' and observers' judgments (Pederson & Moran, 1995). In this study, assessment of sensitivity and attachment security were based on two to four hours of home observations of mother-infant dyads, especially the circumstances where mothers' attention was divided between the infants' demands and tasks posed by the researchers. Similarly, a longitudinal study showed the predictive role of mothers' sensitivity to their infants at four-month of age on infants' secure attachment with their mothers at 12-month of age (Braungart-Rieker, Garwood, Powers, & Wang, 2001). These findings are in line with the fundamental proposal of the attachment theory: the interactions between the infant and the caregiver determines the nature and the quality of the attachment relationship (Pederson & Moran, 1995). Maternal sensitivity is influential on emotional security of an infant for two reasons (Thompson, 1990, as cited in Sümer, Sayıl, & Berument, 2016). First, sensitive responsiveness contributes to the infant's stress management. When they receive protection, nurturance, and emotionally responsive care, their biological systems develop to function adaptively, which in turn facilitates the growth of learning, problem solving, and self-regulation (Thompson, 2014). Second, responding in a sensitive manner reinforces and enhances the sense of self-sufficiency in children. For example, providing the child with positive experiences of behavioral contingencies (i.e., "if I cry, my mother will come to soothe me") promote the sense of self-efficacy through enabling the child to realize that rather than being a helpless recipient of unpredictable social interchanges, it can affect the social environment (Mesman et al., 2016).

Intrusiveness, which can be defined as the lack of respect for child's autonomy and interference with child' initiations is closely related to (in)sensitivity in parenting (Lyons-Ruth, Connell, Zoll, & Stahl, 1987). In extreme cases,

intrusiveness can take the form of maltreatment and abuse. Previous studies showed

a relation between abusive parenting and intrusiveness in the sense that maltreating

mothers were more likely to show hostility towards their infants in subtle ways and

to interfere with their behaviors. It seems that intrusive parents as well as harsh or

abusive parents are unable to take the perspective of the child in distressful situations

and/or understand the child's behaviors and motives, which makes it difficult for

them to interpret the baby's signals accurately and respond to these signals

appropriately (Joosen, Mesman, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Van IJzendoorn, 2012).

In contrast, a sensitive mother is well equipped to provide an autonomy-supportive

environment characterized by scaffolding, perspective taking, and respect for the

child's rhythm in problem solving with her ability to interpret the child's signals

correctly and respond to them appropriately (Bernier, Carlson, & Whipple, 2010).

Maternal (in)sensitivity during the first year was found to predict (in)sensitive

parenting in later years (Jaffari-Bimmel et al., 2006). In a longitudinal study on the

stability of maternal sensitivity, the researchers observed 27 mother-child dyads

during the standard Strange Situation Procedure (SSP) when infants were 12 months

old (Behrens, Parker, & Kulkofsky, 2014). Two and a half years later, families were

observed during home visits while the mother-child dyads were engaged in different

cognitive tasks. Researchers expected that sensitive mothers who satisfied their

infants' attachment needs would interact with them sensitively during preschool

years by acknowledging changes in their relationships and by adjusting their

behaviors in line with these changes. Accordingly, they expected a strong correlation

between the MBQS scores in two different time points. Results indicated the stability

of maternal sensitivity over a time period of two and a half years (Behrens et al.,

2014). Similarly, a longitudinal study on the predictive role of maternal

(in)sensitivity in infancy on harsh discipline in toddlerhood showed that lower levels of sensitivity at three months predicted lower levels of sensitivity in/at six months, which in turn predicted more use of harsh discipline in the second year (Joosen et al., 2012). Another study with a group of 117 mothers and their one- to three-year-old children indicated that the maternal sensitivity moderated the relation between maternal negative discipline and child aggression. In this study, three kinds of maternal discipline strategies were observed: commanding, positive feedback, and physical interference. Maternal sensitivity acted as a protector against the effect of negative discipline on the child's challenging behaviors (Alink et al., 2009). When mothers frequently used negative discipline strategies, children were more likely to be aggressive in the following year, but only in the group of less sensitive mothers. The researchers also noted that compared to a child who is used to insensitive care, children of sensitive mothers may interpret insensitive commands or physical interferences differently. The former child may interpret the negative parental discipline techniques as unjust or rejecting, while the latter child does not (Alink et al., 2009). Thus, it seems that early interaction patterns with the caregiver forms a mental set for the child and when these experiences are mostly positive, the child's deep down sense of security helps him to tolerate some occasional interferences. In addition, it is important to note that some studies also revealed significant associations of child temperament with maternal sensitivity and attachment security as well (e.g., Kivijärvi, Räihä, Kaljonen, Tamminen, & Piha, 2005; Seifer, Schiller, Sameroff, Resnick, & Riordan, 1996; Susman-Stillman, Kalkoske, Egeland, & Waldman, 1996). A study with infants from 6- to 12-month-of-age showed that both directly observed and mother-reported infant temperaments were related to attachment security and maternal sensitivity (Seifer et al., 1996). A similar

longitudinal study with infants from 3-to 12-month-of-age revealed that infants of highly sensitive mothers become less active and had fewer social behavior problems and expressed mood than those of mothers with low sensitivity (Kivijärvi et al., 2005). It might be that highly sensitive mothers can anticipate and structure the environment in line with the infants' needs in early infant-mother interaction (Kivijärvi et al., 2005). Similarly, there are some findings showing that infants with difficult temperament showed better adjustment than less difficult infants when the parenting quality was high and poor adjustment when the quality was low (Stright, Gallagher, & Kelley, 2008).

2.2.2 Sensitive parenting and child outcomes

Previous studies have shown that the form of mother's sensitivity towards the child is an important indicator of the later mother-child relationships (Alink et al., 2009; Jaffari-Bimmel et al., 2006; Joosen et al., 2012; Lyons-Ruth et al., 1987) and later developmental outcomes in several areas such as language skills (Hirsh-Pasek & Burchinal, 2006; Tamis-LeMonda, Bornstein, & Baumwell, 2001; Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2009), social-behavioral competence including affect regulation and behavior problems (Alink et al., 2009; Jaffari-Bimmel et al., 2006; Kochanska, Barry, Aksan, & Boldt, 2008; Leerkes et al., 2009; Olson, Bates, Sandy, & Lanthier, 2000; Rothbaum et al., 2006), academic achievement (Hirsh-Pasek & Burchinal, 2006), attention (Hirsh-Pasek & Burchinal, 2006), self-regulation (Bernier et al., 2010; Rothbaum et al., 2006), executive functioning (Bernier et al., 2010), cognitive functioning (Lemelin, Tarabulsy, & Provost, 2006), and adaptive functioning such as agency, contingency detection (Mesman et al., 2016; Tarabulsy, Tessier, & Kappas, 1996) and conscience development (Kochanska, 2002).

Some findings point to the importance of early sensitive care for later social development and academic development. Previous research revealed that infants who received sensitive parenting at the age of one month performed better on language, academic and attention tasks when they became first-graders (Hirsh-Pasek & Burchinal, 2006). Similar research on language revealed that responsiveness at both nine and 13 months predicted children's development in expressive language in five significant developmental milestones which were first imitations, first words, 50 words in expressive language, first combinatorial speech and first use of language to talk about the past (Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2001). In line with this, there are also some findings showing that children of more sensitive mothers were more communicative, responsive, and task-oriented during a cooking task that required mother-child interaction and were less negative during clean-up following the cooking task (Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2009). Research on the link between the child's executive functions (i.e., an umbrella term that is used for various hypothesized cognitive such as planning, working memory, self-regulation, attention, inhibition and self-monitoring, Goldstein, Naglieri, Princiotta, & Otero, 2014) and maternal sensitivity revealed that the children of more sensitive mothers performed better on the executive functions tasks at 26 months (Bernier et al., 2010).

Previous research revealed that maternal sensitivity to distress (i.e., the promptness and appropriateness of the mother's response to the child's distress) was a key and unique factor in early social-emotional adjustment of children (Leerkes et al., 2009). In this research, maternal sensitivity to infant distress (as rated by trained coders based on observations during a 15-min mother-child play session at home) was linked with greater social competence and fewer behavior problems in toddlerhood and it was particularly adaptive for temperamentally reactive infants

(i.e., those who get distressed easily and have trouble in being soothed and adapting to novel environments; Rothbart, 1998) in terms of affect dysregulation (Leerkes et al., 2009). Consistent with this finding, the results of another study identified the low quality of caregiver-child relationships as a risk factor for the long term prediction of child and adolescent externalizing behaviors (Olson et al., 2000). In this research, infants who received low levels of affectionate caregiving at the age of 6 months obtained relatively high parent ratings of aggression at age of 17, and rated themselves higher than others in aggressive conduct disturbances at the age of 17.

Furthermore, some studies pointed out the concurrent and longitudinal beneficial effect of mutually responsive orientation (i.e., the parent's and child's sensitive and developmentally appropriate responses to each other's signals of distress) on early development of conscience (Kochanska, 2002). In a study with a sample of 102 mother-child dyads, the results showed that infants of more responsive mothers adopted a more responsive stance toward the mother at 25-38 months of age. Follow-up data also demonstrated that this responsive stance during toddlerhood predicted the formation of conscience at 52 months, which mediated the link between the child responsiveness and disruptive behavior at 67 months (Kochanska et al., 2008). In a study, the researchers followed a group of 160 adopted children from infancy to the age of 14 years (Jaffari-Bimmel et al., 2006). In this research, maternal sensitive responsiveness was assessed in different task situations (i.e., making a simple puzzle, building a tower of blocks, solving a difficult age-adequate puzzle) in the family's home and the laboratory when children were 12, 18, or 30 months, or at seven and 14 years of age. Maternal sensitivity in infancy found to be indirectly associated with social development as the age of 14 years, through social development at the age of seven years and maternal sensitivity at the age of 14 years.

To sum up, there seems to be a sufficient amount of research demonstrating that children whose needs are sensitively fulfilled in the early years of their lives tend to be more competent in cognitive, social and emotional domains.

2.3 Parental sensitivity beliefs

Parenting beliefs refer to what parents think about their child, childrearing, and themselves as parents, as well as the way how children should be raised (Coplan et al., 2002). Parents' values and beliefs are embedded in the childrearing practices (Greenfield, Flores, Davis, & Salimkhan, 2008; Harwood et al., 1999). These beliefs may unfold in an individual's upbringing practices that can be observed in parent-child interaction (Coplan et al., 2002) and affect the way the child develops (Respler-Herman, Mowder, Yasik, & Shamah, 2012). For example, if parents have stronger beliefs about the value of a particular parenting behavior such as spanking, they are more likely to behave accordingly, such as using harsh discipline (Pinderhughes et al., 2000). Situational variabilities can arise in the parent-child interactions consistent with the parent's goals and childrearing beliefs (Harwood et al., 1999). Hence, parental beliefs are typically seen as situation-specific and vary as a function of the childrearing context (Coplan et al., 2002).

Previous studies focusing on cultural differences showed that the mothers from different cultures differed in their beliefs regarding desirable and undesirable long-term goals, child behavior and childrearing strategies (e.g., Harwood, Schoelmerich, Schulze, & Gonzalez, 1999; Harwood, Schoelmerich, Ventura-Cook, Schulze, & Wilson, 1996; Gonzalez-Ramos, Zayas, & Cohen, 1998; Schulze, Harwood, & Scholmerich, 2001). The mothers' perceptions of the desirability of specific behaviors in toddlers were influenced by the construct which they valued.

When parents value self-confidence and self-actualization (i.e., developing talents and abilities as an individual), they describe behaviors promoting independence and exploration as more positive. On the contrary, when parents value acceptance by the larger community and obedience, they describe behaviors such as remaining quiet, respectful, and attentive to others in public settings in a more positive way (Harwood et al., 1996). It seems that mothers' beliefs play an important role in their sensitive practices toward the child. There are also some studies comparing the Turkish mothers' socialization goals focusing on cultural differences and education level (e.g., Durgel, Leyendecker, Yağmurlu, & Harwood, 2009; Yağmurlu, Çıtlak, Dost, & Leyendecker, 2009). In one of these studies, the researchers compared German mothers and Turkish immigrant mothers living in Germany (Durgel et al., 2009). They found that Turkish immigrant mothers were less likely to value autonomy than German mothers. They were more likely to value their children to have close relationships with the family and to be well-mannered. In another study, Yağmurlu and her colleagues (2009) compared the long-term socialization goals of low-educated mothers and high-educated mothers. While the low-educated mothers valued the relatedness and obedience, high-educated mothers emphasized the importance of autonomy and self-enhancement as desirable characteristics. Both groups agreed on importance of lovingness, decency, and self-control in their children (Yağmurlu et al., 2009). Previous studies have compared sensitivity beliefs or sensitive practices of mothers from different cultures, or sensitivity beliefs of mothers with those of nonparent caregivers (i.e., nannies, parenting counselors, family therapists). There are some studies on sensitivity beliefs of professionals such as child psychologists, but the studies on teachers' sensitivity beliefs and sensitive practices are limited (e.g., Rothbaum et al., 2006).

2.3.1 Cross-cultural findings on caregivers' sensitivity beliefs

A large number of studies that focused on sensitive parenting found similarities among the mothers from different cultures and ethnic backgrounds regarding the views of maternal sensitivity. Posada and his colleagues (1995) compared the mothers' characterizations of their own children's behaviors and the "ideal child" notion in their minds to the experts' (i.e., child professionals such as psychologists, social workers, educators, academicians) definition about the most securely attached child across seven countries (China, Colombia, Germany, Israel, Japan, Norway, and the United States). Their assessment of the child was based on the Attachment Q-Set (AQS; Waters, 1987) which includes statements that describe behaviors of a hypothetical ideal child aged between one and five years (Posada et al., 1995). Despite some cultural differences, the mothers' described the ideal child as a child who uses the mother as a secure base for exploration, which seems consistent with what the attachment theory suggests (Posada et al., 1995). Beliefs of the mother and expert groups regarding secure-base behaviors of children showed some congruence. The mothers from seven different countries preferred a similar form and organization of secure-base behaviors.

In a study that was conducted in the Netherlands, Emmen and her colleagues (2012) investigated the sensitive parenting beliefs of mothers from different ethnical backgrounds through the MBQS, which includes statements that describe behaviors of the most sensitive mother. The scores of two immigrant groups (Turkish and Moroccan) and one native (Dutch) group of mothers with three different educational levels (low, middle, and high) were examined. The views of the three groups about the ideal, or most sensitive, mother were very similar across Turkish, Moroccan, and Dutch (low-, middle-, and high-educated) mothers. The mothers' views were also

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consistent with the views of the experts who developed the MBQS. Hence, the views of experts and mothers from different cultural and socio-economic groups about sensitive behavior were more similar than different (Emmen et al., 2012). These findings were in line with the Posada and colleagues (1995) who reported that mothers' preferences from different socio-cultural groups with respect to the AQS behavior patterns (the ideal child) were consistent with the secure behavioral patterns that were described by U.S. experts (Emmen et al., 2012).

These findings seem parallel to those of the study by Posada et al. (1995) who also emphasized the convergence of the mothers' descriptions of the ideal child in different sociocultural groups with the professional's descriptions of the hypothetical securely attached child (Ekmekci et al., 2016). Similarly, the results of another study showed that the mothers from 26 cultural groups agreed with the experts on the attachment theory on the behaviors that describe the hypothetical sensitive parent, which were predominantly about accurate perception and interpretation of the child's signals (Mesman et al., 2016).

The existing findings point out that sensitivity is a universal construct that is viewed similarly by caregivers from different cultures and socio-economic groups (Posada et al., 1995; Emmen et al., 2012; Ekmekci et al., 2015). On the other hand, the studies also revealed some differences regarding beliefs in sensitive parenting among different groups. Despite the high degree of similarity regarding the mothers' views about the hypothetical ideal (or most sensitive) mother both within and across ethnic and socio-economic groups, the findings by Emmen and colleagues (2012) revealed some significant differences on specific behaviors. For example, the item "[the ideal mother] speaks to her child directly and not just about her child" was perceived as less descriptive for the ideal mother by the Turkish mothers than the

mothers from different cultures (Emmen et al., 2012). Similarly, Ekmekci and her colleagues (2015) noted some differences among the professionals' views about the ideal mother. For instance, compared to the views of Moroccan and Antillean minority professionals, those of Dutch professionals were significantly more similar to the MBQS criterion sort (Ekmekci et al., 2015).

Sensitivity can be expressed in different ways depending on the underlying beliefs of parents in the cultural context. For example, children's independence is believed to be important in cultures in which autonomy is emphasized, because individuality and self-expression are esteemed attributes (Rothbaum & Trommsdorff, 2007). On the other side, in cultures in which interdependence is emphasized children's relatedness to their family is believed to be very important because group harmony and self-restraint are highly valued (Rothbaum & Trommsdorff, 2007). Therefore, while mothers' sensitivity in the Western contexts is assumed to be related to the support of children's exploration and autonomy, sensitivity in the non-Western cultures was found to be related to dependency and emotional closeness (Rothbaum et al., 2006). Rothbaum and colleagues (2006) interviewed with the American and Japanese preschool teachers about the anticipation of children's needs and responsiveness to them by asking them questions in the form of a scenario about common classroom circumstances (Rothbaum et al., 2006). The results revealed that whereas the Japanese teachers emphasized anticipation of children's needs, the American teachers stressed responsiveness to children's explicit expression of their needs. Specifically, the Japanese teachers mentioned that the primary role of the child was to wait for the teacher to meet their needs while the American teachers reported that the primary role of the child was to clearly express their needs. For the Japanese teachers the goal of being sensitive was to promote interdependence in

students. They believed that sensitivity requires showing empathy to the child, careful observation, paying attention to explicit cues, and making assumptions from the child's behaviors and that the responsibility of clarifying the child's needs was on them. On the other hand, for the American teachers, the goal of sensitivity was to foster the equilibrium between the child's independence and his reliance on the caregiver. They believed that sensitivity requires responding to explicit cues, pointing to the caregiver's responsibility of clarifying the child's needs to foster his autonomy. In line with this study, Trommsdorff and Friedlmeier (2010) investigated the German and Japanese preschool girls' distress reactions and negative emotion in two conditions that were designed to evoke distress: self-focused condition (children tried to manage a unsolvable task and experienced failure) and other-focused condition (children involved in an interaction with a playmate and witnessed the distressed of the playmate whose toy was accidentally broken). In the self-focused condition, while German girls sustained their distress expression at the end of the situation, Japanese girls decreased their distress. Researchers found that German mothers intervened only after their children expressed distress, whereas Japanese mothers responded to their children before the full expression of distress. Researchers interpreted that German girls' maintenance of distress fit the value of authentic self-expression in a context in which independence is favored. On the other hand, such an expression is to be avoided in a cultural context in which interdependence is favored, such as Japan. Therefore, according to the researchers these effects might be interpreted regarding the different parenting goals concerning children's socialization (authentic expression vs. suppression of emotions). The authors concluded that German mothers' sensitivity was stable across different situations, trait phenomenon, while the Japanese mothers' sensitivity varied

according to the situational context, state phenomenon (Trommsdorff & Friedlmeier, 2010).

In a similar study, the researchers asked the German and Korean mothers to report how a mother or child should behave in five different scenarios (Ziehm et al., 2013). Sensitivity was categorized as proactive sensitivity if the mothers' responses emphasized observing and interpreting children's signals in order to anticipate the children's needs. They were categorized as reactive sensitivity if their response emphasized responding to children's direct signals. The results pointed out both similarities and differences in parenting beliefs. The Korean and German mothers did not differ in terms of their beliefs about the necessity of proactive behavior according to the developmental stage of children. While the Korean mothers reported that they would probably reason their request to understand the situation (proactive option), the German mothers stated their preference to sit close to the unhappy child because the child might need to talk and to be comforted, which showed their willingnes to become engaged in the child's emotions. Moreover, the German mothers reported that they would attend to the child because they reported that it might be difficult for him to ask for help or express of the need for help, which showed the mothers' effort to encourage their children about feeling expression. On the other hand, the Korean mothers' approach towards an upset child resulted from their wish to cheer him up through communication, so that the child could be distracted from negative emotions. When it comes to reactive sensitivity, the German mothers reported that they would attempt to encourage children' independence, indicating individuality of the child and his separation from the mother. The Korean mothers claimed that for a mother it is hard to know everything about a child's needs or when to help, indicating the difficulty of anticipation in children's needs. While the German

mothers chose the reactive option in almost every-forced choice scenario, which is in line with the findings of Rothbaum and colleagues (2006), for the Korean mothers, the findings were less clear. The German mothers reported preference for fostering their children to solve problems on their own and verbalize their needs, most likely aiming to encourage children's independence, whereas the Korean mothers' response patterns indicated a more situation-specific sensitivity.

Previous studies have also revealed the effects of background variables such as the caregiver's education level, the number of children she has, income, and the effect of children's behavioral problems on the differences in the maternal sensitivity (Ekmekci et al., 2015; Emmen et al. 2012; Mesman et al., Sümer et al., 2016; Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2009). Some studies showed a positive correlation between the mothers' and professionals' levels of education and their sensitivity belief scores (Ekmekci et al., 2015; Emmen et al., 2012). In other words, their views regarding sensitive behavioral patterns become more similar to the behavioral patterns considered as indicative of sensitivity by the authors of the MBQS. In a similar study, while low-educated mothers found the item "[The ideal mother] has fixed ideas about how her child needs to be taken care of and always does these things the same way" as more important than the high-educated mothers, the high-educated mothers found the item "[The ideal mother] joins in the focus of her child's attention" more important than the low- and middle-educated mothers (Emmen et al., 2012).Similary, maternal education was found to be associated with greater maternal sensitivity and less control (Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2009). It is likely that caregivers' ability to respect the child's individuality may increase as their education level increases. Moreover, as the amount of income increased (Ekmekci et al. 2015; Emmen et al. 2012; Mesman et al., 2015) and as the number of children decreased,

the similarity of caregivers' sensitivity belief scores with expert's sorting also increased (Ekmekci et al., 2015; Mesman et al., 2015). A recent cross-cultural study with 751 mothers from 15 countries with a total of 26 cultural groups also showed that mothers with lower levels of family income and more children had lower sensitivity belief scores (Mesman et al., 2015). Moreover, in terms of the children's behavioral problems, Sümer and his colleagues (2016) observed interactions between Turkish mothers and their children and found that mothers' maternal sensitivity behaviors were not related to the children's internalizing and externalizing problems. In line with this finding, Ekmekci and her colleagues (2016) also found high similarity between the Turkish mothers' sensitivity related views and expert's views of sensitivity, although the mothers included a group of mothers with children who had high scores on externalizing problem.

2.3.2 The comparison of mothers' and nonparents' views

A large number of studies that focused on sensitive parenting found both similarities and differences among the mothers and nonparents caregivers (i.e., nannies, psychologist, and therapists) regarding the views of maternal sensitivity. In a study on the sensitivity beliefs, the researchers examined whether there was a cognitive match among the mothers, the early childcare providers and youth mental health professionals (i.e., child psychologists, parenting counselors, family therapists) in terms of the importance of parenting sensitivity (Ekmekci et al., 2015). The study was conducted simultaneously in the Netherlands and Turkey. The sample in the Netherlands consisted of mothers with different ethnic backgrounds (Dutch, Moroccan, Turkish, Surinamese, Antillean) and mental health professionals. The sample in Turkey included mothers and professionals. Results revealed a cognitive

match in terms of the importance of sensitivity-related behaviors in the childrearing (i.e., joining in the focus of the child's attention) between the mothers and professionals from different cultural backgrounds, indicating that their beliefs did not differ. However, professional's views were significantly more similar to the behavioral patterns considered as the indicative of sensitivity by the experts of the MBQS than the mothers. A similar strong convergence was also found between the expert-derived profile of the highly sensitive mother and Dutch and Turkish mothers' views about the ideal mother (Ekmekci et al., 2016).

Greenfield and colleagues (2008) investigated the possible conflict situations that the American mothers and their Latina immigrant nannies may have in the childrearing practices due to their different beliefs. Participants were interviewed for 10 to 45 minutes to uncover differences in values and practices from their perspectives. Mothers were directly asked if there was anything that the nanny did with the child that she felt was incorrect or that she disagreed with and the same question was asked to the nannies. The results of their study revealed that the nannies and mothers had different caregiving beliefs about several practices such as letting a baby sleep independently in contrast to holding a baby to prevent crying, requiring the child to do things for himself as opposed to doing things for him, negotiating with the child in contrast to telling him what to do as an authority figure, dressing the child to keep him warm enough versus bundling him for protection, taking experts and books as legitimate sources about the childrearing or learning caregiving from experienced family members. For example, in a nanny-mother case, while the mother wanted her baby to fall asleep on his own, emphasizing the mother's belief in early independence, the nanny preferred to comfort the baby physically when he cried. In another example, while the nanny supported the idea that older siblings have to take

the responsibility of younger siblings, both the mother and the child, who was three and a half, expressed negativity toward the idea of parentification. In another case, a nanny and a mother disagreed on independence where the mother hoped that the nanny would promote the child to do things for himself while the nanny put a priority on the value of helpfulness through helping the child and expecting him to help others, as well (Greenfield et al., 2008). Findings support that caregivers might have different childrearing expectations in line with their cultural contexts in which different values and practices are valued and these differences can create conflict between partners sharing the childrearing responsibility (in this case the mother and nanny).

2.4 Early childhood education in Turkey

2.4.1 The history of development of early childhood education

Early childhood education was disregarded in the first decades of the new Turkish Republic (1923) due to the prioritization of primary education (Bekman, 2005). In the 1960s, it began to be mentioned mostly within a social service understanding for children receiving inadequate care from their mothers (Bekman, 2005). In practice, it began to receive attention in the 1990s and many studies and projects have been conducted since then. In order to meet the increasing needs of the community and standardize early childhood education institutions in Turkey, a preschool education general directorate was established within the MONE in 1992.

Since the 2000s, Turkey has undergone rapid social change with the mass migration from rural to urban areas and the employment rate of women in nonagricultural jobs has rapidly increased. This situation created a demand for center-based education. Following this, the number of qualitatively poor early

childhood education programs increased rapidly with inadequate state supervision and the low expectation of parents (Bekman, 2005). Beside the public or government supervised services there are also some services run by the nongovernmental organizations (NGO). While the public services and services provided under governmental supervision are center based, the services provided by the NGOs are generally described as alternative services to the center based early childhood education such as home-based programs, TV programs or summer schools (Bekman, 2005). Turkey does not have a standardized widespread system of programs that are used in early childhood education settings (Bekman, 2005). Early childhood education services either belong to or are supervised by MONE or the general directorate of Social Welfare and Child Protection Agency (SSCPA) (Bekman, 2005). MONE is generally responsible for the education and development of children aged between four-to-six years and SSGPA is responsible for those children aged between zero-to-six years.

2.4.2 The current status and philosophy of early childhood education

According to the early childhood education regulations of MONE, in Turkey, while children aged 48-66 months have the right to enroll at preschools, children aged 36-66 months can go to kindergarten (MONE, 2014). The Turkish Statistical Institute reports (TUSI; 2017) on national education statistics showed that schooling ratios for children aged three- to-five years is 38.5%, for children aged four-to-five years is %50.4, and for five-year-old children is %66,9. Under this regulation, the number of children per class is not supposed to be less than 10 or more than 20. The daily plan consists of 6 class hours, each of which lasts 50 minutes (MONE, 2014). In each class, children are under the responsibility of one preschool teacher. In Turkey, early

childhood education teachers are required to have a bachelor's degree in order to work in public preschool and kindergarten, however for private preschools or daycare centers, programs under the supervision of SSCPA, this is not a requirement. The majority of teachers working in services supervised by SSCPA are high school graduates, rather than college graduates (Erdiller & McMuller, 2003).

MONE (2013) defines the objectives and tasks of early childhood education as promoting children's mind, body, and emotion development; providing them with good habits; preparing them for primary school; and developing an equal setting for children coming from disadvantaged environments and families. Since the foundation of the Turkish Republic in 1923, the Turkish early childhood education and care system was influenced by the ideas about education from several Western countries and developed a focus on child-centred practices (McMullen et al., 2005). Within this perspective, the philosophy of the Turkish early childhood education program is developed by understanding that the general developmental characteristics of all age groups are common to all children in that age group, but that each child is unique (MONE, 2013). This can be seen in the fundamental goals and principles of the program which are in line with the philosophy of developmentally appropriate practices toward the child, including supporting children to development physical, cognitive, emotional, and social skills; constructing activities in line with the children's age, interest, and needs; constructing curricula emphasizing active learning, provision of a rich and supporting environment in existence with the teacher as a guide and a facilitator rather than instructor; and forming an alliance with parents to educate children (Erdiller & McMullen, 2003).

According to the early childhood education program offered by MONE (2013), a daily training flow of a typical preschool consists of sections such as start

time, play time, activity time, and evaluation time. Time to start the day helps children to adjust to each other and to other activities during the day. In this process, the interaction of children with each other and with the teacher is ensured. For example, the teacher and children sit in a convenient place in the classroom or garden and greet each other. The teacher starts conservation by asking questions about the children's daily experiences, mood of the day, and important changes in their lives. This process in generally accompanied by activities such as singing, story telling, and finger games. Following this, the teacher introduces the children to learning centers and the play section starts where the children are involved in free play activity in their preferred centers, as well as a field trip and morning walk. Activity time includes activities that are in line with children's needs and interests, characteristics of developmental period, and certain gains. At the end of the day, the whole group is gathered together and a conversation is held for the purpose of evaluation. Children are facilitated to evaluate the plays and activities they were involved in and the materials and environment they engaged in through open-ended questions.

2.4.3 Preschool teachers in Turkey

Quality early childhood education is related to the quality of preschool teachers' trainings. In line with this statement, the Turkish education system has brought a number of innovations in the early childhood teacher training curriculum in order to improve the teachers' quality. The previous curriculum had some major problems which affected the quality of teacher training, such as limited number of teaching profession courses and general education courses, repetition of courses because of overlapping content, limited university–community partnership, and limited

exposure to scientific research experiences (Atay-Turhan, Koc, Isiksal, & Isiksal, 2009). In order to improve the competency of pre-service teachers in teaching young children and designing an appropriate learning environment for all children, as well as to facilitate their awareness on social, cultural, and historical issues several steps were taken, such as increasing the numbers of teaching profession courses, general education courses, and research courses (Atay-Tuhan et al., 2009). It seems that Turkish teachers strive to be successful to reach some standards in their profession. A study comparing teachers' beliefs about the appropriate practices toward three- to five-year-old children from five different countries, as well as the philosophies of professionals across these countries –the U.S., China, Taiwan, Korea, and Turkey- showed that Turkish teachers shared similar views with other teachers regarding the content across the curriculum, promoting social/emotional development, providing concrete/hands-on materials, and allowing play/choice in the curriculum (McMullen et al., 2005).

Studies show that Turkish preschool education teachers adopt a child-centered perspective in their practices toward children (Erdiller & McMullen, 2003; McMullen et al., 2005). This child-centeredness is balanced with the traditional Turkish family notion of respect and deference to authority (McMullen et al., 2005), which seems consistent with findings of a study on Turkish preschool teachers' beliefs about developmentally appropriate practices toward children (Erdiller & McMullen, 2003). In this particular study, there was a general tendency among teachers toward a conceptualization of authority in which the teachers are to be kind but strict in establishing order and setting limits in classroom, as well as an emphasis on authority based shared decision-making with the children. However, Turkish early childhood teachers were found to be less traditional and more developmentally

appropriate regarding authority in the classroom, as they define the authority figure with the words of "friend" and "guide" and emphasized the need for the teacher to be "kind" but in control (Erdiller & McMullen, 2003).

2.4.4 Importance of the teachers for childcare

An educational system contains three main components; students, teachers, and curriculum. The efficiency and effectiveness of the system depends upon the congruence between these three components (Karagozoglu & Murray, 1988). How much the child can discover and at the pace he can learn are closely linked to how much the child's environment is supportive and what opportunities are available to the child. At this point, the quality of the environment provided by the early childhood education settings gains importance. The teacher's characteristics are one of the most important determinants of the quality of preschool education and the development of the child (MONE, 2013). Children can discover and benefit from the learning opportunities offered in a supportive environment where they feel worthy, loved, and confident. The most important component of this supportive environment is the consistent and secure relationship established between the teacher and the child (MONE, 2013). Teachers' beliefs or theories about practices can be defined as the ideas about instruction that teachers gain through their personal experiences depending on their practical knowledge (Erdiller & McMullen, 2003). An understanding of teachers' beliefs and applied instructional practices provides us with a perspective through which a holistic picture of an educational system can be obtained, because it is about what teachers believe and how they make decisions about instruction (Erdiller & McMullen, 2003). Literature is limited in terms of investigating teachers' beliefs about appropriate practices toward children. Previous

studies mostly studied the mothers' views about sensitive appropriate practices toward children. However, highlighting teachers' views is of critical importance in understanding the early childhood education in a system. So, this study offers a new and different perspective.

2.5 Overview and the hypotheses of the study

Given the importance of the preschool teachers' role for the early childcare network and the consensus between childcare providers' attitudes about caregiving, this study focuses on the sensitivity beliefs of two caregivers in the care network of a particular child, who are mothers and their children's teachers at preschool. First, the sensitivity beliefs of these two groups will be explored in comparison with the views of the experts, who provided a categorical description about the sensitive parenting behaviors. Second, possible similarities and differences in the caregiver's sensitivity beliefs between the mothers and teachers at preschool will be investigated. Third, maternal sensitivity beliefs will be examined in accordance with education level to determine if maternal sensitivity belief scores differ between mothers depending on their education level. Last, it will be studied whether the similarity between the two groups' beliefs may change depending on psychological health of the child they take care of.

Previous studies showed a significant overlap in sensitivity beliefs of various groups. In accordance with previous findings discussed in the literature review (e.g., Emmen et al., 2012; Ekmekci et al., 2015; Mesman et al., 2015), in this study it is expected that mothers and teachers will share similar ideas about sensitive behaviors. However, it is important to note that there are studies also revealed some specific differences in individuals' beliefs (e.g., Durger et al., 2009; Erdiller & McMullen,

2003; McMullen et al., 2005; Yağmurlu et al., 2009). Although previous studies provide information about mothers, information about teachers is limited. These studies did not identify the early childhood education teachers' beliefs about maternal sensitivity; instead they focused on professionals' views such as child psychologists and family therapists. So, in this study, hypotheses about the teachers were developed according to the findings obtained from studies with professionals (e.g., Ekmekci et al., 2015; Emmen et al., 2012), considering that teachers overlap with professionals regarding their field knowledge. This study aims to contribute to the literature by highlighting possible differences and similarities in beliefs among the mothers and teachers which in turn can lead to new studies aiming at enhancement of child development in Turkey.

In this study, hypotheses are as follows:

1. The magnitude of the positive association of the mothers with the experts will be similar to the magnitude of the positive association of the teachers with the experts.

2. There will be no significant differences in terms of the degree to which the mothers and preschool teachers find each behavior descriptive for the ideal mother.

3. As the mothers' level of education increases, their views will become more similar to the preschool teachers' and expert's views.

4. There will be negative relation between the participants' sensitivity belief scores and children's psychological wellbeing.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Sample of the study

As the main goal of this study was to explore the degree of similarity between sensitivity beliefs of two caregivers who were in the network of a specific child, the sample consisted of the mothers and their children's teachers at preschool. A total of 51 mothers and 36 preschool teachers participated to the study. Each teacher was paired with the mother(s) of one or two children in her class. Thus, among the 36 preschool teachers, each of 24 preschool teachers was paired up with mothers of two students in her class (a total of 48 mothers) and three preschool teachers paired up with mother of one student in her class (a total of three mothers).

The remaining nine teachers could not be matched with any mothers as the mothers could not be recruited. Since the sensitivity belief score of the teachers did not change significantly, these teachers did not excluded from the sample in order to keep the sample number strong. Therefore, the total number of participants was 87, including 36 teachers and 51 mothers. Sampling was conducted in five public preschools in İstanbul and Manisa, Turkey. The preschools were selected by convenience sampling. The mean age for children was 59.96 months ($n = 51$, $SD = 8.69$). Children's ages ranged from 39 to 77 months.

3.2 Procedure

Data collection occurred between October 2017 and January 2018. Data were collected in individual interview format either during home visits or school visits. While the mothers' data were collected at home visits, the teachers' data were

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collected at school visits. In some cases, mothers were invited to the schools since the school had opportunity to provide private room to the researcher for the sorting implementation procedure. However, in most cases schools had limited opportunity to provide quiet environment. So, mothers preferred home visits.

Data collection lasted approximately 75 minutes with each participant. At first, the permission of Boğaziçi University Ethics Committee (INAREK) was obtained. Following this the permissions of İstanbul Provincial National Education Directorate and Manisa Provincial National Education Directorate were obtained (see Appendix A). After that, school administrations were contacted in order to ask for their cooperation to collect data from public schools.

After obtaining the consent from the school directors for the participation, the teachers were given consent forms and consent forms were sent to parents through the teachers. Some teachers were hesitant about inviting the parents to participate to the study because of the duration of the assessment. The teachers informed the parents about the study via classes' social media groups. In some cases, the teachers asked parents, who they thought would be willing to participate, to join the study.

The mothers and preschool teachers who gave their consent for the study were asked to fill out the demographic information form and the SDQ based on their observations about the child. The completed questionnaires were collected from the mothers and teachers during the school and home visits by the researcher herself and packed in the individual files. The MBQ assessment was conducted in a quiet room at the family's home or on school ground.

3.3 Measures

3.3.1 Mother demographic information form

The mothers were asked to report their child's age, gender, school type (private or public), the number of children they had, the birth order of them and their gender, as well as their age, marital status, occupation, educational level, family income and, the information of the primary caregiver of the child at home, the extent to which they had disagreements with the teacher about the practices for the child, the extent to which the mother was interested in the child and family psychology trainings (see Appendix B and Appendix C for English and Turkish forms, respectively).

Also, the mothers were asked to answer some open-ended questions after the MBQS implementation. These questions covered the age and gender of the child the mother imagined when she was doing the MBQ sorting, as well as her ideas about the importance of being a sensitive mother and her views on why her sorting represented the ideal mother.

A summary of descriptive statistics for the mother and family characteristics of the study are presented in Table 1. Since only one mother reported that she dropped out the school before completing the primary school, this mother's education level is not presented in the table below (Table 1). Also, almost all mothers ($n = 50$) reported that they did not experience any disagreement with their child's preschool teacher regarding the practices for children.

3.3.2 Teacher demographic information form

The teachers were asked to provide information about their classroom (i.e., age group of children, type of childcare program, the number of children they are responsible for in classroom, the number of assistant teacher, communication with

the parents, the number of parent-teacher meetings in a month, the information of the points where teacher was having disagreement with the parents about the practices for the child), their job qualification (i.e., education level, work experience, attendance to field trainings regarding the child and family psychology).

Teachers were also asked other personal information (i.e., marital status, family income, birth year, the number of children that they had, the birth order of their children and their gender) (see Appendix D and Appendix E for English and Turkish forms, respectively). In addition, they answered some open-ended questions after the MBQS implementation. These questions covered the age and gender of the child teacher imagined when she was doing the MBQ sorting, as well as her ideas about the importance of being a sensitive mother and her view on why her sorting represented the ideal mother.

Among the teachers, twenty-seven of the teachers reported to work in public schools, while remaining eight teachers reported to work in private schools. Since only one teacher worked in a municipal preschool, this teacher was included in public school category. A summary of descriptive information regarding the teacher characteristics is presented in Table 2. Additional information regarding the classroom and teacher characteristics in terms of classroom context is presented in Table 3. Other than demographic information forms, data collection procedure included the card sorting implementation which provided information about the mothers' and teachers' views in terms of sensitive behaviors. The detailed information about the sorting implementation is provided in the following subheading.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for the Parents' Demographic Characteristics

Descriptive Variables	*M*	*SD*	*Min.*	*Max.*
Mother age (years) (*n* = 51)	33.25	4.93	22	45
The number of children in the family unit	1.71	.73	1	4

Descriptive Variables (*n* = 51)	*f*
Mother education level	
Primary school	4
Secondary school	7
High school	24
Two-year year college	6
University (4 years)	9
Monthly family income	
< 1500	3
1500-2999	23
3000-4499	15
> 4500	10
Employment of the mother	
Employed	7
Unemployed	44
Working status of the mother	
Working	4
Used to work	32
Never worked	15
Gender diversity of children in a family unit	
All girl(s)	17
All boy(s)	18
Both girl(s) and boy(s)	16
The division of childcare tasks at home	
Only mother	27
Mother and others (i.e., father & elder relatives)	24
Field training of the mother	
Have attended trainings	13
Never attended trainings	48
The imagined gender of the hypothetical child while sorting MBQ cards	
A girl	18
A boy	19
Imagine no gender	4
Imagine both a girl and boy	10

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for the Teacher Characteristics

Descriptive Variables ($n = 36$)	M	SD	$Min.$	$Max.$
Teacher age (years)	32.33	6.38	22	53
The number of children in the family unit	.94	.89	0	3
Weekly working hour	33.66	8.04	25	51
Work duration in teaching profession	9.33	5.24	1	31

Descriptive Variables ($n = 36$)	f
Teacher education	
High school	2
Two-year year college	5
University (four years)	27
Master degree	2
Field training of the teacher	
Have attended trainings	24
Never attended trainings	12
Monthly family income	
< 1500	2
1500-2999	4
3000-4499	5
> 4500	22
Marital status of the teacher	
Married	26
Not married	10
Being a mother	
Yes	23
No	13
Gender diversity of children in a family unit	
All girl(s)	7
All boy(s)	9
Both girl(s) and boy(s)	7
The imagined gender of the hypothetical child while sorting the MBQ	
A girl	8
A boy	4
Imagine no gender	13
Imagine both a girl and boy	10

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for the Teachers in Classroom Context

Descriptive Variables ($n = 36$)	M	SD	$Min.$	$Max.$
Number of students in class	18.08	2.82	12	24
Number of co-teacher per class	.81	.71	0	4
Number of parent-teacher contact in a month	4.78	5.93	0	20
Descriptive Variables ($n = 36$)				f
Having help during class				
Having a co-teacher				26
Not having				10
Teacher-parent meeting on a regular basis				
Yes				31
No				5
Teacher-parent conflict				
Experience of disagreement				20
No conflict				16

3.3.3 Views about the ideal mother (sensitivity beliefs)

Maternal Behaviour Q-Sort Version 3.1 (MBQS; Pederson & Moran, 1995; Pederson, Moran, & Bento, 1999) was used to assess the mothers' and teachers' views about the ideal sensitive mother. The MBQS consists of 90 cards with statements about maternal behaviors such as "Encourages the baby's initiatives in feeding", "Ignores positive signals", "Attempts to involve the baby in games or activities that are beyond the baby's current capability", "When the baby is distressed, mother is able to identify the source". Since the original items were designed to be evaluated by professionals rather than parents, the simplified versions of the behavioral descriptions were used for presenting the study to make them more understandable for the mothers, taking the previous studies as example (e.g., Emmen et al., 2012; Mesman et al., 2016) (see Appendix F and Appendix G for English and Turkish forms of MBQS, respectively). For example, in this version, the item ''Provides the baby with little opportunity to contribute to the interaction'' was simplified into ''Gives her child little opportunity to play along or to respond''. The

adaptation study of the scale to Turkish was done by Sümer et al. (2016) in a sample of 85 mothers with children aged between 10 months to 50 months. The inter-rater reliability coefficient was found to be .85.

The mothers and teachers sorted the cards into nine stacks from "least descriptive" (1) to "most descriptive" (9) of the ideal mother and they were given the same directives as provided by the MBQS sorting protocol (see Appendix H and Appendix I for English and Turkish forms of MBQS protocol, respectively). They were explicitly told that there was no right or wrong answers and the important thing was the behaviors they found appropriate for their ideal mother, not their own behavior as a mother. The protocol includes directives as follows:
"We want to learn your ideas about ideal mother. We have 90 cards about maternal behavior. I would like you to split these 90 cards into 9 groups of 10 cards. On the right side, you will put the behaviors that you find completely appropriate to the ideal mother, and on the left side, you will put the behaviors that you do not find appropriate for the ideal mother. Dividing cards into 3 groups in the first place makes your work easier. I'll give you the cards soon. Read the text on the card completely. You can ask me if there is anything you don't understand, or if you have a question. There is no right or wrong answer, the important thing in this research is not your own behavior as a mother, but the behaviors you find appropriate for your ideal mother."

First, they were asked to sort the cards into three stacks: "Group A: do not fit the ideal mother at all," "Group B: do not fit nor do fit the ideal mother," and "Group C: fit the ideal mother really well". Further explanations were provided in line with the standardized protocol in case the participants ask questions about the items. After the participants distributed the cards into three stacks, they were asked to sort each

stack into three more stacks. When all cards are distributed into nine stacks, the teachers and mothers were asked to distribute the cards evenly across the stacks until each stack consists of 10 cards. Consistent with the standard Q-sort methodology, for data analysis, each mother's and teacher's sort was represented as an individual variable which consisted of 90 cases, representing the 90 cards. In order to compute the sensitivity belief scores, participants' sorts were correlated with the criterion sort representing the prototypically sensitive mother. The criterion sort was provided by the authors of the MBQS (Pederson et al., 1999). Sensitivity belief scores ranged from -1.00 to 1.00. High positive scores reflected high concordance with the criterion sort that reflected the highly sensitive mother. Also, a higher correlation referred to a greater overlap between the participant's beliefs about the ideal mother and attachment theory's notion of the highly sensitive mother.

A pilot study was done with a graduate guidance and psychological counseling student and a graduate early childhood education student beforehand. The sorting procedure lasted for around 75 minutes with each participant. Sorts were coded right after the implementation (see Appendix J). Also, resulting sorts were videotaped in order to check the coding.

3.3.4 Psychological wellbeing of the child

The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ; Goodman, 1997) was used to screen children's psychological problems by their mothers and teachers. The SDQ is a brief behavioral screening questionnaire that is completed in about five minutes by parents or teachers of children aged 4 to 16 years (Goodman, 1997) and there is a self-report version for 11- to 16-year-olds (Goodman, Meltzer, & Bailey, 1998). The SDQ shows internal consistency (Cronbach's

alpha = .73) and retest stability after 4 to 6 months (*M* = 0.62) (Goodman, 2001). Adaptation studies of the parent version were conducted by Güvenir et al., 2008) with a sample of 514 adolescents and 504 parents. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity-inattention, peer problems, and prosocial behavior subscales and the total difficulty score were .73, .65, .80, .37, .73, and .84, respectively (Güvenir et al., 2008). Internal consistency coefficients for the teacher version were also found to be as .77, .68, .80, .28, .75, and .83, respectively (Eremsoy, 2007).

In this study, the mothers and teachers scored a total of 25 items on a 3-point scale with 0 = not true, 1 = somewhat true, and 2 = certainly true. Subscale scores, ranging from 1 to 10, were computed by summing scores on relevant items after recoding reverse items. Higher scores on the prosocial behavior subscale reflected strengths, whereas higher scores on the other four subscales reflect difficulties. In this current study, the reliability analyses were conducted for both mother and teacher reported SDQ data.

For the mother-reported SDQ, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the emotional symptoms subscale, conduct problems subscale, hyperactivity-inattention subscale, peer problems subscale, and prosocial behavior subscale were .64, .35, .72, .09, and .59. Also, the reliability coefficient for the total difficulty was found to be as .67. For the teacher-reported SDQ, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the emotional symptoms subscale, conduct problems subscale, hyperactivity-inattention subscale, peer problems subscale, and prosocial behavior subscale were .87, .71, .87, .65, and .75, respectively. Also, the reliability coefficient for the total difficulty was found to be as .88. In line with previous studies (e.g., Stevenson et al., 2010) in this study, a total difficulty score, ranging from 1 to 40 was calculated by summing the

scores on the emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity-inattention, and peer problems subscales and analyses were conducted based on the total difficulty score.

Participants were given different versions of the SDQs by paying attention to scorer of it and taking the child's chronological age into consideration (see Appendixes K – S for English and Turkish forms of SDQs). In the following, the cut off scores of teacher-reported and mother reported SDQ are presented. It is important to note that these cut off scores are different for parent and teacher forms. Copies of the questionnaire and details on items and scoring were obtained from http://www.sdqinfo.com/. A summary of descriptive statistics for SDQ scale scores for the children regarding the mothers' and teachers' reports on emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity/ inattention, peer relationship problems, and prosocial problems are presented in Table 4.

For the parent-reported SDQ for 2 to 4 year-olds, the score of 0 to 2 in emotional problems, 0 to 3 in conduct problems, 0 to 3 in hyperactivity, 0 to 2 in peer problems, 7 to 10 in prosociality and 0 to 12 in total difficulties categorized as in the no-risk banding. The score of 3 in emotional problems, 4 in conduct problems, 6 in hyperactivity, 3 in peer problems, 6 in prosociality and 13-15 in total difficulties categorized as in the at-risk banding. The score of 4 to 10 in emotional problems, 5 to 10 in conduct problems, 7 to 10 in hyperactivity, 4 to 10 in peer problems, 0 to 5 in prosociality and 16-40 in total difficulties categorized as in the severe banding.

For the parent-reported SDQ for 4 to 17 year-olds, the score of 0 to 3 in emotional problems, 0 to 2 in conduct problems, 0 to 5 in hyperactivity, 0 to 2 in peer problems, 6 to 10 in prosociality and 0 to13 in total difficulties categorized as in the no-risk banding. The score of 4 in emotional problems, 3 in conduct problems, 6

in hyperactivity, 6 in peer problems, 5 in prosociality and 14-16 in total difficulties categorized as in the at-risk banding. The score of 5 to 10 in emotional problems, 4 to 10 in conduct problems, 7 to 10 in hyperactivity, 4 to 10 in peer problems, 0 to 4 in prosociality and 17-40 in total difficulties categorized as in the severe banding.

For the teacher-reported SDQ for 2 to 4-year olds, the score of 0 to 2 in emotional problems, 0 to 2 in conduct problems, 0 to 1 in hyperactivity, 0 to 2 in peer problems, 5 to 10 in prosociality and 0 to 10 in total difficulties categorized as in the no-risk banding. The score of 3 in emotional problems, 3 in conduct problems, 5 to 6 in hyperactivity, 3 to 4 in peer problems, 4 in prosociality and 11-14 in total difficulties categorized as in the at-risk banding. The score of 4 to 10 in emotional problems, 4 to 10 in conduct problems, 7 to 10 in hyperactivity, 5 to 10 in peer problems, 0 to 3 in prosociality and 15-40 in total difficulties categorized as in the severe banding.

For the teacher-reported SDQ for 4 to 17 year-olds, the score of 0 to 4 in emotional problems, 0 to 2 in conduct problems, 0 to 5 in hyperactivity, 0 to 3 in peer problems, 6 to 10 in prosociality and 0 to 11 in total difficulties categorized as in the no-risk banding. The score of 5 in emotional problems, 3 in conduct problems, 6 in hyperactivity, 4 in peer problems, 5 in prosociality and 12-15 in total difficulties categorized as in the at-risk banding. The score of 6 to 10 in emotional problems, 4 to 10 in conduct problems, 7 to 10 in hyperactivity, 5 to 10 in peer problems, 0 to 4 in prosociality and 16-40 in total difficulties categorized as in the severe banding. A summary of descriptive statistics for psychological screening of the children with respect to no-risk, at-risk, and severe bandings are presented in Table 5.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for the SDQ Scale Scores

Psychological Screening ($n = 51$)	*Min.*	*Max.*	*M*	*SD*
Mother-reported scale scores				
Emotional problems (0 – 10)	0	9	2.63	2.23
Conduct problems (0 – 10)	0	4	1.63	1.28
Hyperactivity (0 – 10)	0	8	3.75	2.34
Peer problems (0 – 10)	0	5	2.00	1.33
Prosocial (10 – 0)	5	10	8.00	1.58
Overall difficulty score (0 – 40)	2	23	10.00	4.65
Teacher-reported scale scores				
Emotional problems (0 – 10)	0	8	1.69	2.46
Conduct problems (0 – 10)	0	6	.86	1.39
Hyperactivity (0 – 10)	0	10	2.69	2.86
Peer problems (0 – 10)	0	7	1.73	1.72
Prosocial (10 – 0)	2	10	8.10	2.02
Overall difficulty score (0 – 40)	0	26	6.96	6.36

3.4 Data analysis

For the data inspection, two sets of analyses were conducted via the Statistical

Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS – v. 23). First, the group differences were

examined through Independent Samples t-test and one-way Analysis of Variance

(ANOVA) test depending on the nature of the groups in question, or through a non-

parametric Mann-Whitney test in case normality of the distribution was not obtained.

In addition, Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were computed in order to

examine the nature of the relationships among the variables of interest. The

significance level was decided at p value of .05, unless otherwise was not indicated.

Prior to running analyses, the assumptions were evaluated and the normality,

linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals were checked from the residuals

scatterplots.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for Children's Bandings According to Mother- and Teacher- Reported SDQ Scale Scores

Psychological Screening (n = 51)	M	SD	f		
			No-risk	*At-risk*	*Severe*
Mother-reported banding[a]					
Emotional symptoms	1.55	.81	33	8	10
Conduct problems	1.31	.62	39	8	4
Hyperactivity/inattention	1.45	.78	37	5	9
Peer relationship problems	1.45	.73	35	9	7
Prosocial	1.06	.24	48	3	0
Overall	1.29	.61	40	7	4
Teacher-reported banding[a]					
Emotional symptoms	1.27	.67	43	2	6
Conduct problems	1.20	.49	43	6	2
Hyperactivity/inattention	1.29	.70	43	1	7
Peer relationship problems	1.25	.63	43	3	5
Prosocial	1.16	.51	46	2	3
Overall	1.35	.72	40	4	7

Note: [a]In the banding, no-risk was coded as = 1, at-risk was coded as = 2, severe was coded as = 3. No-risk banding: Clinically significant problems in this particular subscale are unlikely, at-risk banding: There is a risk to reflect clinically significant problems, severe banding: There is substantial risk for clinically significant problems.

In order to test the first hypothesis, Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were examined to assess the bivariate relations between the mothers' and teachers' individual MBQS scores with the criterion sort. Also, bivariate relations between the teachers and matched mothers (i.e., the mothers of the teacher's students) were assessed. The average sorts per groups of mothers and teachers were calculated and associations were assessed between the composite sorts of the groups. Univariate outliers were checked and z-scores of 90-item MBQS scores ranging between -3.29

and 3.29 were accepted as normal. Also, the mean sensitivity belief scores of groups of mothers and teachers were compared through Independent Samples t-test.

To test the second hypothesis, the average scores for each MBQS item were calculated in order to identify the 10 items with the highest averages and 10 items with the lowest averages for the mothers and teachers, separately. The degree of overlap in the items that were scored as the most and the least descriptive of the ideal sensitive behavior was examined. Moreover, the results of the Independent Samples t-test were examined between the groups on item level. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to test the normality for each item of the MBQS and Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test was conducted for a group comparison. Outliers were checked through the use of stem-and-leaf plots and boxplots. Equality of variance was checked for each item. Mann-Whitney U test values (U) and test statistics (z) were reported. When the distribution across groups had the same shape, median values were reported, otherwise mean ranks were reported.

To test the third hypothesis, three sets of analysis were conducted. Firstly, the role of education level was explored by using one-way ANOVA test. Following this, Tukey HSD test for equal variance as determined by Levene's test, was conducted for the post hoc comparisons. Lastly, Pearson Product-Moment Correlations were estimated between the groups' composite sorts and criterion sort in order to identify the degree of similarity in groups' MBQS scores. To test the last hypothesis, correlations were estimated between the groups based on their assessment of their children's psychological wellbeing.

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CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Participants' maternal sensitivity belief scores

Pearson correlation coefficients between each participant's responses to 90 items and the responses of the experts were computed in order to represent the sensitivity belief score. The degree of correlation coefficients indicated the degree of similarity of participants' maternal sensitivity beliefs with the experts' view. Within the participants, there were no teachers and mothers with outlier sensitivity belief scores as z-scores were between -3.29 and 3.29.

4.1.1 Relation between the mothers' sorts and criterion sort

Correlations between each mother's sort and the criterion sort are demonstrated in the Table 6. The correlations indicated that there was a significant positive correlation between each mother's sort and the expert's view ranging from .59 ($p < $ .01) and .83 ($p < .01$) with a mean of .72, and standard deviation of .06, meaning that the views of the mothers were very similar to the criterion sort.

4.1.2 Relation between the teachers' sorts and criterion sort

Correlations between the teachers' MBQ sorts and criterion sort are demonstrated in the Table 7. The results indicated that there was a significant positive correlation between each teacher's sort and the experts' view ranging from .62 ($p < .01$) and .84 ($p < .01$) with a mean of .74 and standard deviation of .05, meaning that the views of teachers were very similar to the criterion sorts.

Table 6. Pearson Correlations of the Mothers' MBQ Sorts with the Experts' View of the Sensitive Mother

	Mothers' ID[a]											
	M_1	M_2	M_3	M_4	M_5	M_6	M_7	M_8	M_9	M_{10}	M_{11}	M_{12}
	.65[**]	.68[**]	.73[**]	.72[**]	.68[**]	.67[**]	.77[**]	.75[**]	.74[**]	.75[**]	.73[**]	.83[**]
	M_{13}	M_{14}	M_{15}	M_{16}	M_{17}	M_{18}	M_{19}	M_{20}	M_{21}	M_{22}	M_{23}	M_{24}
	.68[**]	.62[**]	.62[**]	.80[**]	.65[**]	.66[**]	.76[**]	.67[**]	.78[**]	.81[**]	.78[**]	.61[**]
	M_{25}	M_{26}	M_{27}	M_{28}	M_{29}	M_{30}	M_{31}	M_{32}	M_{33}	M_{34}	M_{35}	M_{36}
Expert	.68[**]	.68[**]	.74[**]	.74[**]	.74[**]	.71[**]	.72[**]	.72[**]	.79[**]	.70[**]	.73[**]	.65[**]
	M_{37}	M_{38}	M_{39}	M_{40}	M_{41}	M_{42}	M_{43}	M_{44}	M_{45}	M_{46}	M_{47}	M_{48}
	.74[**]	.70[**]	.66[**]	.81[**]	.72[**]	.66[**]	.59[**]	.74[**]	.77[**]	78[**]	.74[**]	.74[**]
	M_{49}	M_{50}	M_{51}									
	.72[**]	.67[**]	.78[**]									

Note: [a]Mothers ID codes ranges from 1 to 51, indicating that M_1 represents Mother1, M_{51} represents Mother 51.

[**]$p < .01$, $N = 90$.

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Table 7. Pearson Correlations of the Teachers' MBQ Sorts with the Experts' View of the Sensitive Mother

	Teachers' ID[a]											
	T_1	T_2	T_3	T_4	T_5	T_6	T_7	T_8	T_9	T_{10}	T_{11}	T_{12}
	.79**	.75**	.77**	.76**	.62**	.72**	.75**	.67**	.75**	.68**	.75**	.74**
Expert	T_{13}	T_{14}	T_{15}	T_{16}	T_{17}	T_{18}	T_{19}	T_{20}	T_{21}	T_{22}	T_{23}	T_{24}
	.76**	.73**	.75**	.80**	.77**	.75**	.69**	.70**	.83**	.84**	.79**	.79**
	T_{25}	T_{26}	T_{27}	T_{28}	T_{29}	T_{30}	T_{31}	T_{32}	T_{33}	T_{34}	T_{35}	T_{36}
	.65**	.69**	.75**	.75**	.78**	.71**	.68**	.69**	.73**	.77**	.75**	.73**

Note: [a]Teachers' ID codes ranges from 1 to 36, indicating that T_1 represents Teacher1, T_{36} represents Teacher36.

**p < .01, N = 90.

4.2 Relations between the teachers' and matched mothers' views

In this study the degree of similarity between the MBQ sorts of two individuals' who were in the network of a specific child (i.e., the mother and the child's preschool teacher) was examined. Correlation coefficients between the teachers and matched mothers (i.e., the mothers of the teacher's students) are presented in the Appendix T, in a way that each row represents a different teacher-mother pair. Pearson correlation coefficients indicated that there were significant positive correlations between the teacher-mother pairs ranging from .58 ($p < .01$) and .85 ($p < .01$), with a mean of .75 and a standard deviation of .06, meaning each teacher shared similar views with the matched mothers regarding the ideal sensitive behaviors.

4.3 Views of groups regarding the ideal sensitive behaviors

4.3.1 Group sensitivity belief scores of the mothers and teachers

In order to estimate MBQ sorts of the mother and teacher groups, the 36 sorts of all teachers and the 51 sorts of all mothers were averaged into composite sorts. Composite sorts were correlated with the criterion sort, so that correlation coefficients were computed for the groups in order to represent group sensitivity belief scores. The degree of correlation coefficients indicated the degree of similarity of groups' sensitivity beliefs with the expert's view. Correlations between the composite sorts of the groups with each other were also examined in order to estimate the degree of similarity between the groups. Correlations of composite sorts are demonstrated in the Table 8.

Table 8. Pearson Correlations Among the Composite Sorts[a] of the Mothers, Teachers and Experts (Criterion)

	Expert	Teachers ($n = 36$)	Mothers ($n = 51$)
Expert	-		
Teachers	.84[**]	-	
Mothers	.82[**]	.98[**]	-

Note: [a]Composite sort = The average sort per group.
[**] $p < .01$.

Both the teachers' ($r = .84$, $n = 36$, $p < .01$) and mothers' ($r = .82$, $n = 51$, $p < .01$) composite MBQ sorts were highly correlated with the experts' view. Using the independent samples t-test with the group effect as the predictor and sensitivity beliefs as the outcome, it was examined whether there was a significant difference in mean scores of sensitivity beliefs between the teachers and mothers. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to test for normality and normality was assumed. The mothers' sensitivity belief score ($M = .72$, $SD = .06$, $n = 51$) was significantly lower than the teachers ($M = .74$, $SD = .05$, $n = 36$), as determined by independent samples t-test for equal variance, $t(85) = 1.99$, $p = .05$. However, it is important to note that the mean scores of sensitivity beliefs of both groups showed a high degree of similarity with the criterion sort, indicating that the views of the group as a whole about the ideal mother were very similar across the mothers and teachers. Following scatterplots illustrate the degree of relation between groups (see Figures 1 - 3). As presented, the relation between the mothers' and teachers' composite sorts ($r = .98$) was higher than the relation between any of these groups with the experts, indicating that the mothers and teachers shared more similar views

with each other regarding the ideal sensitive behavior than they shared with the
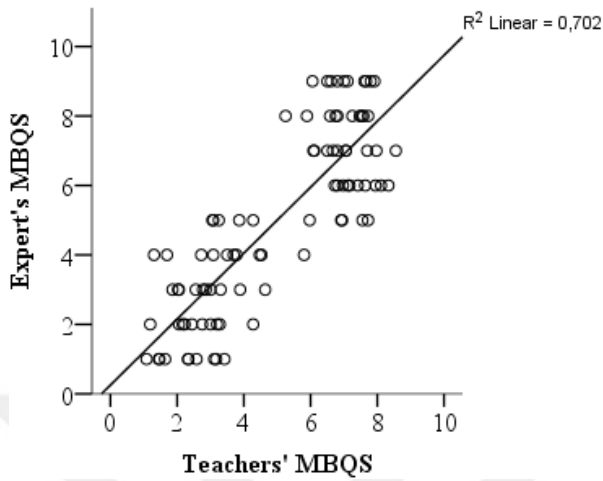
experts.

Figure 1. The correlation coefficients between the teachers' composite
MBQ sort and the experts' view of sensitive mother ($n = 36$)
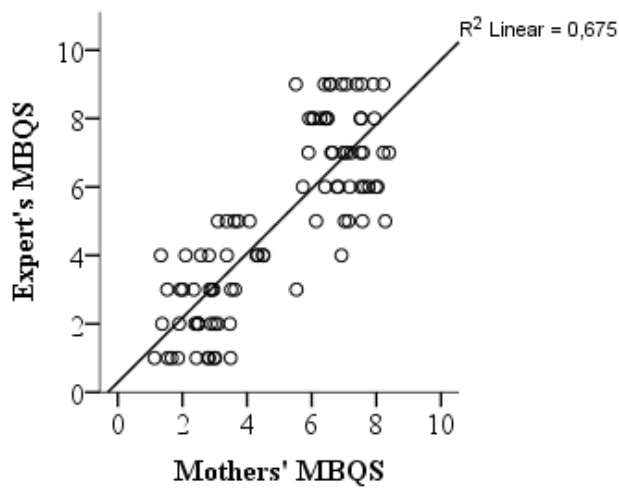

Figure 2. The correlation coefficients between the mothers' composite
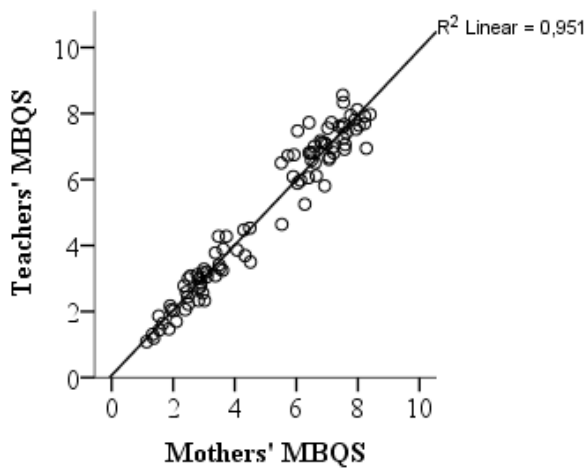MBQ sort and the experts' view of sensitive mother ($n = 51$)

Figure 3. The correlation coefficients between the mothers' composite
MBQ sort and the teachers' composite MBQ sort

4.3.2 Descriptive items among the mothers and teachers

In order to find the items that were scored as the most and the least descriptive of
the ideal sensitive behavior, the average scores for each MBQS item were
calculated for the mothers and teachers, separately. Among the mothers and
teachers, 10 items with the highest averages and 10 items with the lowest averages
were identified as descriptive items and the results are presented in the Table 9 and
Table 10, respectively.

The mothers' and teachers' responses overlapped in six out of 10 items
within the most ideal sensitive behaviors, meaning that they found "praising the
child" (item 45), "displaying affection by touching, caressing" (item 47),
"spontaneously expressing positive feelings to the child" (item 81), "vocalizing to
the child throughout the visit" (item 77), "showing delight in interaction with the
child" (item 57) and "playing social games with the child" (item 78) as the most
descriptive of the ideal sensitive behaviors.

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Table 9. Descriptive Items in the Mothers' MBQ Sorts (*n* = 51)

The most descriptive behaviors of the ideal mother	*M*
Item 45. Praises the child	8.39
Item 39. Instructive during interactions with the child	8.27
Item 47. Displays affection by touching, caressing	8.22
Item 81. Spontaneously expresses positive feelings to the child	8.22
Item 49. Seeks interactions with the child	8.04
Item 77. Vocalizes to the child throughout the visit	7.98
Item 76. Uses close bodily contact to soothe the child	7.94
Item 57. Shows delight in interaction with the child	7.90
Item 78. Plays social games with the child	7.76
Item 43. Is animated when interacting with the child	7.63

The least descriptive behaviors of the ideal mother	
Item 90. Punitive or retaliatory during interactions with the child	1.14
Item 7. Treats the child as an inanimate object when moving her around or adjusting her posture	1.33
Item 60. Scolds or criticizes the child	1.37
Item 21. Overwhelmed by caretaking demands	1.53
Item 54. Teases the child to promote continued interaction/contact	1.55
Item 88. Interactions with the child are characterized by conflict	1.67
Item 66. Consistently unresponsive	1.86
Item 42. Expressions of affection are limited to perfunctory, mechanical kisses, typically on the head	1.90
Item 83. Aloof when interacting with the child	1.94
Item 84. Display of affect does not match the child's display of affect (i.e., smiles when the child is distressed)	2.02

Note: Items were rated nine-point Likert scale in which 1 = "does not fit well at all", 2 = "do not fit well", 3 = "do not fit", 4 = "do not quite fit", 5 = "don't know if it fits", 6 = "fits a little bit", 7 = "fits", 8 = "fits well", 9 = "fits really well".

Table 10. Descriptive Items in the Teachers' MBQ Sorts (*n* = 36)

The most descriptive behaviors of the ideal mother	*M*
Item 75. Encourages independent exploration of environment	8.56
Item 58. Considers the child's needs when structuring environment	8.33
Item 77. Vocalizes to the child throughout the visit	8.11
Item 45. Praises the child	7.97
Item 78. Plays social games with the child	7.94
Item 81. Spontaneously expresses positive feelings to the child	7.92
Item 57. Shows delight in interaction with the child	7.81
Item 40. Encourages the child's initiatives in feeding	7.72
Item 68. Interactions appropriately vigorous and exciting as judged from the child's responses	7.72
Item 47. Displays affection by touching, caressing	7.69
The least descriptive behaviors of the ideal mother	
Item 90. Punitive or retaliatory during interactions with the child	1.08
Item 60. Scolds or criticizes the child	1.19
Item 7. Treats the child as an inanimate object when moving her around or adjusting her posture	1.31
Item 54. Teases the child to promote continued interaction/contact	1.44
Item 66. Consistently unresponsive	1.47
Item 88. Interactions with the child are characterized by conflict	1.64
Item 18. Home shows little evidence of presence of the child	1.69
Item 21. Overwhelmed by caretaking demands	1.86
Item 84. Display of affect does not match the child's display of affect (i.e., smiles when the child is distressed)	2.03
Item 9. Ignores positive signals	2.06
Item 83. Aloof when interacting with the child	2.06

Note: Items were rated nine-point Likert scale in which 1 = "does not fit well at all", 2 = "do not fit well", 3 = "do not fit", 4 = "do not quite fit", 5 = "don't know if it fits", 6 = "fits a little bit", 7 = "fits", 8 = "fits well", 9 = "fits really well".

The mothers' and teachers' responses overlapped in nine out of 10 items within the least ideal sensitive behaviors, meaning that they found "being punitive or retaliatory during interactions with the child" (item 90), "treating the child as an

inanimate object when moving her around or adjusting her posture" (item 7),
"scolding or criticizing the child" (item 60), "being overwhelmed by caretaking
demands" (item 21), "teasing the child to promote continued interaction/contact"
(item 54), "having interactions with the child that are characterized by conflict"
(item 88), "being consistently unresponsive" (item 66), "being aloof when
interacting with the child" (item 83) and "displaying of affect that does not match
the child's display of affect (i.e., smiles when the child is distressed)" (item 84) as
the least descriptive of the ideal sensitive behaviors.

4.4 Differences between the groups on item level

Although the mothers' and teachers' views about the ideal sensitive mother showed
a high degree of similarity, there were significant differences between the two
groups in terms of the extent to which they found each item descriptive of the ideal
mother. By independent samples comparison, it was examined whether there were
differences between the groups in how descriptive they found each item for the
ideal mother. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to test for normality on the
item level comparisons between the mothers and teachers. As the data were not
normally distributed on item level, Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test,
which is a nonparametric method of analysis, was conducted for group comparison.
Statistically significant group differences at 12 out of 90 items were revealed (see
Table 11). There was a significant difference between the mothers' and teachers'
responses for these items in terms of the extent at which they found each item
descriptive for the ideal mother. Outliers and equality of variance were checked for
each item. When the distributions of the scores of the groups have the same shape,
median values were reported, otherwise mean ranks were reported.

Table 11. Items on Which the Mothers' and Teachers' Responses Significantly Differed

Item 11. Repeats words carefully and slowly to the child as if teaching meaning or labelling an activity

Item 17. Content and pace of interaction set by the mother rather than according to the child's responses

Item 33. Repeated series of interventions in search of best method to satisfy the child, resorts to trial and error

Item 38. Provides nutritional snacks

Item 39. Instructive during interactions with the child

Item 50. Creates interesting physical environment for the child

Item 53. Slows pace down, waits for the child's response during interactions

Item 55. Respects the child as an individual (i.e., able to accept the child's behaviour even if it is not consistent with her wishes)

Item 58. Considers the child's needs when structuring environment

Item 68. Interactions appropriately vigorous and exciting as judged from the child's responses

Item 74. Anxious about the child's exploration (i.e., hovers over the child)

Item 75. Encourages independent exploration of environment

Note: Teachers $n = 36$; Mothers $n = 51$.

The following figures presenting the items that were perceived as less descriptive for the ideal mother by the mothers than the teachers summarize the frequencies, rank averages and median scores given by the mothers and teachers on these specified items (see Figures 4 – 9). These items were found to be more descriptive of the ideal sensitive behaviors by the teachers than mothers.
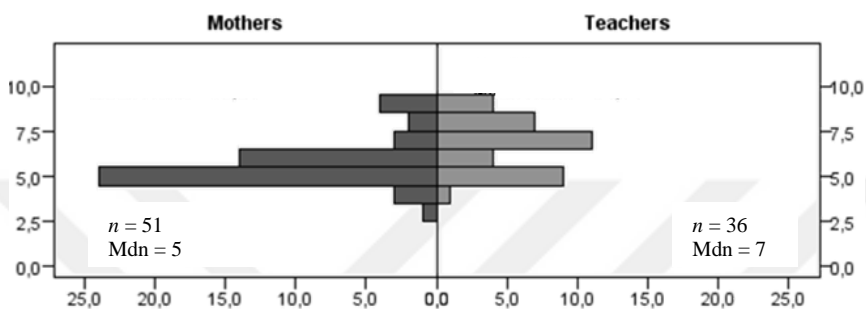
Figure 4. Median values and frequencies for the item 50

The median value on the item 50 that is "Creates interesting physical environment for the child" was significantly lower for the mothers ($Mdn = 5$, $n = 51$) than the teachers ($Mdn = 7$, $n = 36$), $U = 553$, $z = -3,261$, $p < .01$.
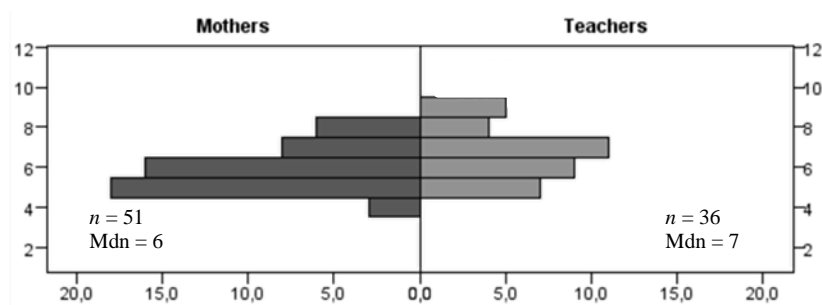
Figure 5. Median values and frequencies for the item 53

The median value on item the 53 that is "Slows pace down, waits for the child's response during interactions" was significantly lower for the mothers ($Mdn = 6$, $n = 51$) than the teachers ($Mdn = 7$, $n = 36$), $U = 593$, $z = -2,888$, $p < .01$.
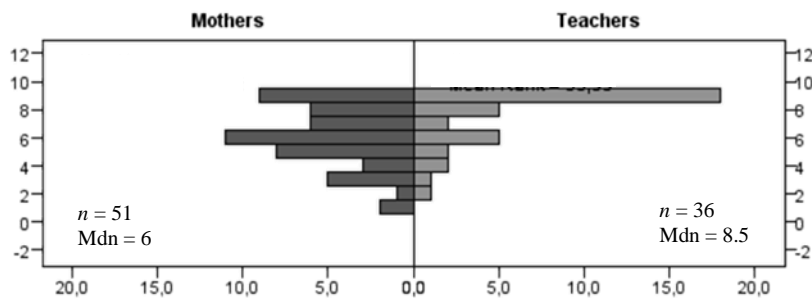
Figure 6. Median values and frequencies for the item 55

The median value on the item 55 that is "Respects the child as an individual, i.e., able to accept the child's behaviour even if it is not consistent with her wishes" was significantly lower for the mothers (Mdn = 6, n = 51) than the teachers (Mdn = 8.5, n = 36), U = 558.5, z = -3,163, p < .01.
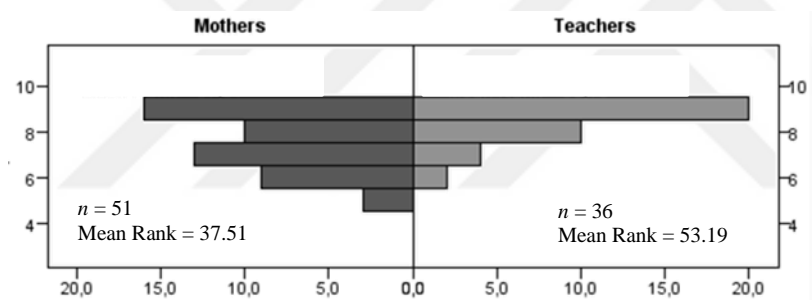

Figure 7. Rank averages and frequencies for the item 58

The rank average on the item 58 that is "Considers the child's needs when structuring environment" was significantly lower for the mothers ($Mean Rank$ = 37.51, n = 51) than the teachers ($Mean Rank$ = 53.19, n = 36), U = 587, z = -2,994, p < .01.

The rank average on the item 68 that is "Interactions appropriately vigorous and exciting as judged from the child's responses" was significantly lower for the mothers ($Mean Rank$ = 35.05, n = 51) than the teachers ($Mean Rank$ = 56.68, n = 36), U = 461.5, z = -4,027, p < .001.
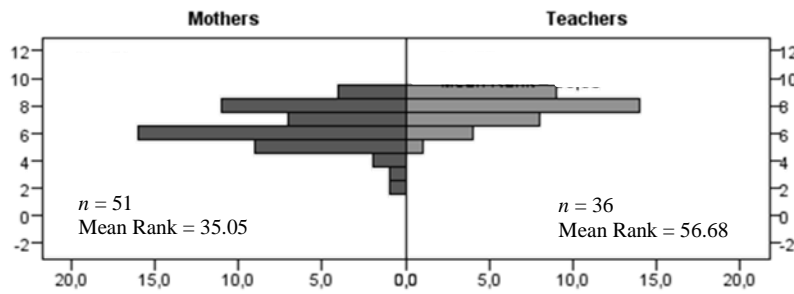
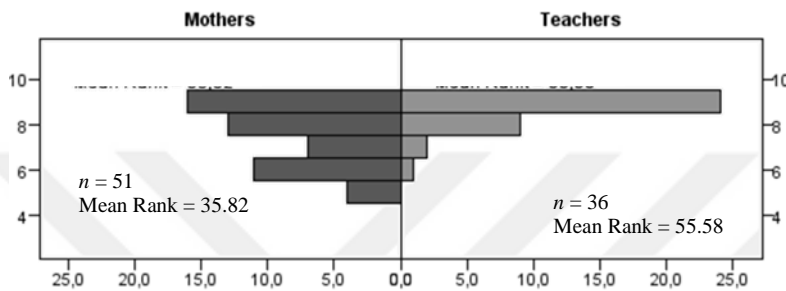Figure 8. Rank averages and frequencies for the item 68

Figure 9. Rank averages and frequencies for the item 75

The rank average on the item 75 that is "Encourages independent exploration of environment" was significantly lower for the mothers (*Mean Rank* = 35.82, *n* = 51) than the teachers (*Mean Rank* = 55.58, *n* = 36), $U = 501$, $z = -3,825$, $p < .001$.

The following figures presenting the items that were perceived as more descriptive for the ideal mother by the mothers than the teachers summarize the frequencies, rank averages and median scores given by the mothers and teachers on these specified items (see Figures 10 – 15).
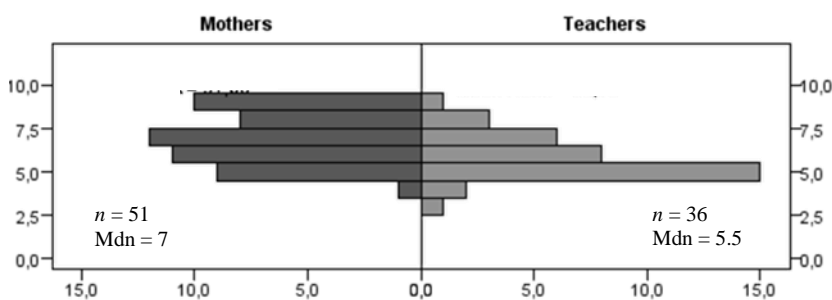
Figure 10. Median values and frequencies for the item 11

The median value on the item 11 that is "Repeats words carefully and slowly to the child as if teaching meaning or labelling an activity" was significantly higher for the mothers (*Mdn* = 7, *n* = 51) than the teachers (*Mdn* = 5.5, *n* = 36), *U* = 526.5, *z* = -3,451, *p* < .01.
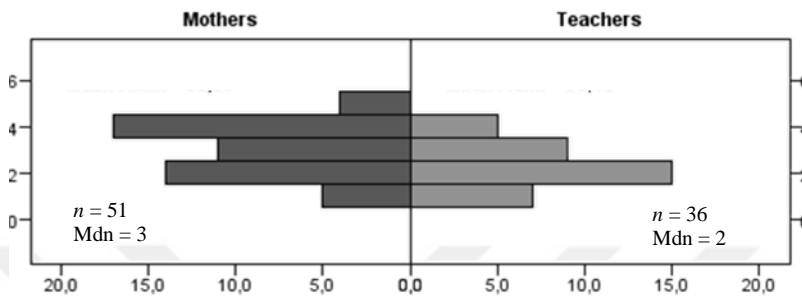
Figure 11. Median values and frequencies for the item 17

The median value on the item 17 that is "Content and pace of interaction set by M rather than according to the child's responses" was significantly higher for the mothers (*Mdn* = 3, *n* = 51) than the teachers (*Mdn* = 2, *n* = 36), *U* = 610.5, *z* = -2,745, *p* < .01.
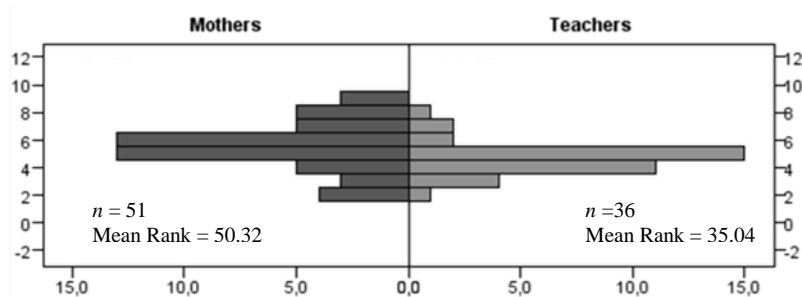
Figure 12. Rank averages and frequencies for the item 33

The rank average on the item 33 that is "Repeated series of interventions in search of best method to satisfy the child, resorts to trial and error" was significantly

higher for the mothers (*Mean Rank* = 50.32, *n* = 51) than the teachers (*Mean Rank* = 35.04, *n* = 36), *U* = 595.5, *z* = -2,846, *p* < .01.
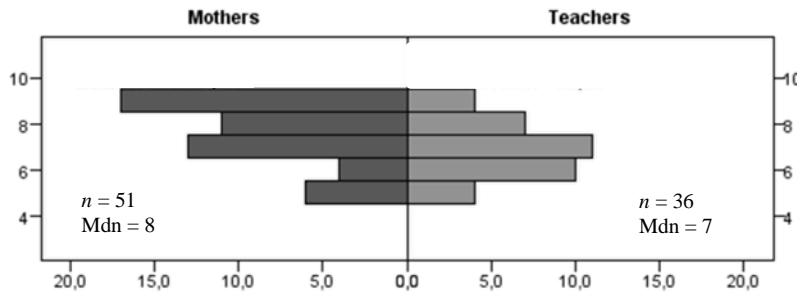

Figure 13. Median values and frequencies for the item 38

The median value on the item 38 that is "Provides nutritional snacks" was significantly higher for the mothers (*Mdn* = 8, *n* = 51) than the teachers (*Mdn* = 7, *n* = 36), *U* = 643, *z* = -2,431, *p* < .05.
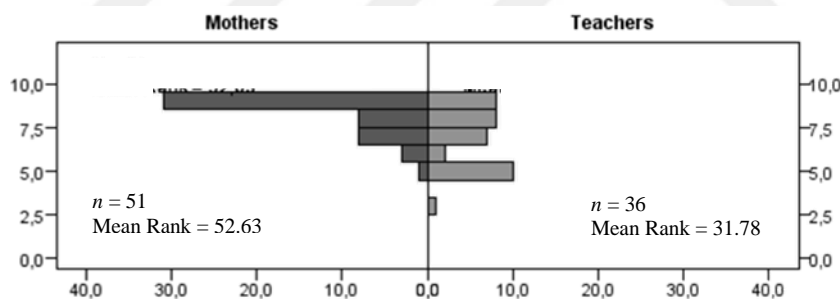

Figure 14. Rank averages and frequencies for the item 39

The rank average the on the item 39 that is "Instructive during interactions with the child" was significantly higher for the mothers (*Mean Rank* = 52.63, *n* = 51) than the teachers (*Mean Rank* = 31.78, *n* = 36), *U* = 478, *z* = -4,005, *p* < .001.

The median value on the item 74 that is "Anxious about the child's exploration (i.e., hovers over the child)" was significantly higher for the mothers (*Mean Rank* = 50.66, *n* = 51) than the teachers (*Mean Rank* = 34.57, *n* = 36), *U* = 578.59, *z* = -3,026, *p* < .01.
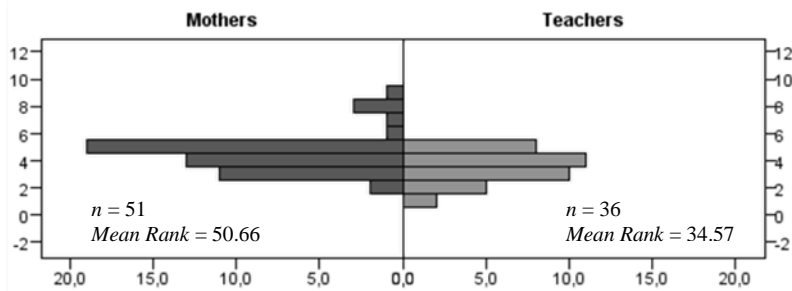
Figure 15. Median values and frequencies for the item 74

4.5 Sensitivity beliefs of the mothers depending on the level of their education

The mothers ($n = 51$) were grouped regarding their education levels and three subgroups were formed as the low-educated mothers (Mother-L, $n = 12$), mid-educated mothers (Mother-M, $n = 24$) and high-educated mothers (Mother-H, $n = 15$). The mothers with education level lower than high school were coded as low-educated, the mothers with a high school degree were coded as mid-educated and the mothers with an education level higher than the high school were coded as high-educated. Thus, 12, 24 and 15 sorts of the Mother-L, Mother-M and Mother-H groups respectively were averaged into three composite sorts in order to represent the groups' MBQ sorts. The results of correlations across composite sorts are presented in the Table 12.

The sensitivity belief score of the high-educated mothers ($r = .83, p < .01$) was higher than the middle-educated mothers ($r = .81, p < .01$) and that of the middle-educated mothers was higher than the low-educated mothers ($r = .79, p < .01$), meaning that the high-educated mothers' views were more similar to the MBQ criterion sort than the mid-educated mothers and the mid-educated mothers' views were more similar to the MBQ criterion sort than the low-educated mothers, while the teachers' views were the most similar to expert's views. When all participant's sorts ($n = 87$) were averaged into a composite sort, its correlation with the experts'

sort was found be as .83. Using analysis of variance (ANOVA), this study tested

whether there were significant differences between the mothers with different

educational levels (low-educated, mid-educated, and high-educated) and teachers in

terms of sensitivity beliefs scores. Thus, 12, 24 and 15 belief scores of the Mother-L,

Mother-M and Mother-H groups respectively were averaged into three mean

sensitivity belief scores in order to represent the groups' MBQ sorts.

Table 12. Pearson Correlations of Composite Sorts[a] of the Mothers with Different

Educational Levels and the Expert's View of the Sensitive Mother

Variable	Expert	Teacher	Mother-L	Mother-M	Mother-H
Expert	-				
Teachers	$.84^{**}$	-			
Mother-L *Range*	$.79^{**}$ (.62 - .75)	$.95^{**}$	-		
Mother-M *Range*	$.81^{**}$ (.59 - .81)	$.97^{**}$	$.98^{**}$	-	
Mother-H *Range*	$.83^{**}$ (.68-.83)	$.98^{**}$	$.96^{**}$	$.98^{**}$	-

Note: Mother-L = Low-educated mothers ($n = 12$); Mother-M = Middle-educated
mothers ($n = 24$); Mother-H = High-educated mothers ($n = 15$); Teachers ($n = 36$).
[a]Composite sort = The average sort per group.
$^{**} p < .01$.

A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to test for normality and normality

was assumed. Levene's test of equality of variance indicated equality, $F(3,83) =$

1.24, $p = .302$. Group differences in sensitivity beliefs were examined by one-way

ANOVA. For post hoc comparisons, Tukey HSD test for equal variance was used

and the results are presented in the Table 13.

Table 13. Sensitivity Belief Scores of the Mothers with Different Educational Levels and Teachers

N = 87	M	SD	Range	Teachers	Mother-L	Mother-M	Mother-H
				Tukey's HSD Comparisons (p values for Post-Hoc test)			
Teachers	.74	.05	.22	-			
Mother-L	.68	.04	.13	.006**	-		
Mother-M	.71	.06	.22	.208	.320	-	
Mother-H	.75	.04	.15	.937	.006**	.155	-

Note: Mother-L = Mother low-educated; Mother-M = Mother middle-educated; Mother-H = Mother high-educated.
Teachers n = 36, Mother-L n = 12, Mother-M n = 24, Mother-H n = 15.
**p < .01.

The mean scores of sensitivity beliefs differed significantly between the groups, $F(3,83) = 5.31$, $p < .01$. The views of the teachers ($M = .74$, $SD = .05$) and high-educated mothers ($M = .75$, $SD = .04$) were significantly more similar to the MBQ criterion sort than the low-educated mothers ($M = .68$, $SD = .04$). As the mothers' education levels increased, their views about ideal sensitive behaviors became more similar to the expert's views. Also, as the education level difference increased within the mothers, their agreement on the sensitive behaviors became less similar.

4.6 Group sensitivity belief scores regarding children's psychological difficulties

The correlation between the mothers and teachers on the SDQ total scale scores was found to be as .44 ($p < .01$, $n = 51$). Moreover, correlations between the mothers' and teachers' responses on the emotional symptoms subscale, conduct problems subscale, hyperactivity-inattention subscale, peer problems subscale, and prosocial behavior subscale were found to be as .46, .26, .45, .13, and .37 ($p < .01$, $n = 51$)

respectively. Moreover, while the correlation between the mother-reported difficulty score and mothers' sensitivity scores was -.23 ($n = 51$, $p < .01$), the correlation between the teacher-reported difficulty score and teachers' sensitivity scores was .01 ($p < .01$, $n = 27$).

4.7 Similarities and differences in the views of the mothers

Mothers ($n = 51$) were grouped into different subgroups regarding the number of children they had in a family unit, gender diversity of their children in a family unit, gender of child that they imagined while sorting the MBQS cards, and their childcare responsibility share at home. The sorts of each group were averaged into composite sorts. Correlations were computed between the different sorts and expert's sort. In the following step, mean sensitivity belief scores of groups were compared in order to examine whether there were significant differences between the groups or not.

When the mothers ($n = 51$) were grouped regarding the number of their children, two subgroups were formed as mothers having one child ($n = 22$) and mothers having more than one child ($n = 29$). Correlation of the composite sorts of the groups with the criterion sort was found to be as .82 for both groups of mothers ($p < .01$), indicating that these two groups of mothers shared similar views with the experts. Correlation of the composite sorts of the groups with each other was found to be as .99 ($p < .01$), indicating that these two groups of mothers shared similar views with each other with respect to the ideal sensitive behaviors. There was no significant difference between the mothers with one child ($M = .72$, $SD = .05$) and mothers having more than one child ($M = .71$, $SD = .06$) in terms of sensitivity belief scores, as determined by the independent samples t-test for equal variance, $t(49) = .30$, $p = .77$.

When the mothers ($n = 51$) were grouped regarding gender diversity of their children in a family unit, three subgroups were formed as mothers having only daughter(s) ($n = 17$), mothers having only son(s) ($n = 19$) and mothers having both daughter(s) and son(s) ($n = 16$). Correlation s of the composite sorts of the groups with the criterion sort were .83, .82, and .80, respectively. Results indicated that mothers shared similar views with the experts with respect to the ideal sensitive behaviors ($p < .01$). Also, the views of three groups of mothers showed strong correlations (*range* = .96 - .98). The sensitivity belief scores did not significantly differ between the mothers having only daughter(s) ($M = .73$, $SD = .07$), mothers having only son(s) ($M = .71$, $SD = .06$), and mothers having both daughter(s) and son(s) ($M = .71$, $SD = .04$), as determined by the one-way ANOVA ($F(2, 48) = .58$, $p = .56$). In addition, when the mothers were grouped regarding the gender of the child that they imagined during MBQ sorting, four subgroups were formed as mothers imagining a girl ($n = 18$), mothers imagining a boy ($n = 19$), mothers imagining no gender ($n = 4$), and mothers imagining both a girl and boy ($n = 10$). Correlations between composite sorts of the groups and the criterion sort were .83, .82, .80, and .79, respectively ($p < .01$), indicating that the groups shared similar views in terms of the ideal sensitive behaviors.

When the mothers ($n = 51$) were grouped regarding the division of childcare tasks, two groups were formed as the mothers who reported that they were the only person taking the responsibility of childcare at home ($n = 27$) and mothers who reported that they shared childcare tasks with a second party (i.e., father, grandparents) ($n = 24$). Correlation s of the composite sorts of the groups with the criterion sort were found to be as .81 and .83 ($p < .01$), respectively, indicating that these two groups of mothers shared similar views with the experts. Also, the views of

two groups of mothers showed strong correlation ($r = .99$, $p < .01$), indicating that these two groups of mothers shared similar views with each other with respect to the ideal sensitive behaviors. There was no significant difference between mothers who were the only person taking the responsibility of childcare at home ($M = .70$, $SD = .05$) and mothers sharing this responsibility with a second party ($M = .73$, $SD = .06$), based on the results of the independent samples t-test for equal variance, $t(49) = -1.66$, $p = .10$).

4.8 Similarities and differences in the views of the teachers

Teachers ($n = 36$) were grouped into different subgroups regarding whether they had participated in trainings on child and family psychology or not, whether they are also mother or not, gender diversity of their children in a family unit, gender of the child that they imagined while sorting the cards, and their experience of conflict with the parents. The sorts of each group were averaged into composite sorts. Correlations were computed between the sorts of the groups and expert's sort. In the following step, mean sensitivity belief scores of the groups were compared in order to examine whether there were significant differences between the groups or not.

When the teachers ($n = 36$) were grouped regarding having field training about child and family psychology, two subgroups were formed as teachers who participated some training on psychology ($n = 24$) and teachers who never participated to such training ($n = 12$). Correlations of the composite sorts of the groups with the criterion sort were found to be as .84 and .82 ($p < .01$), respectively. Results indicated that these two groups of teachers shared similar views with expert with respect to beliefs about the ideal sensitive behaviors. In addition, the views of two groups of teachers showed strong correlation ($r = .99$, $p < .01$), indicating that

they shared similar views with each other. There was no significant difference between the teachers attending field trainings ($M = .75$, $SD = .04$) and teachers who never attended in trainings on child and family psychology ($M = .73$, $SD = .05$) regarding sensitivity belief scores, as determined by the independent samples t-test for equal variance, $t(34) = .93$, $p = .36$.

When the composite sorts of the teachers who were also mother ($n = 23$) and the teachers who were not mother ($n = 13$) were correlated with the experts' sort, correlation coefficients were found as .84 and .83, respectively. Also, when teachers were grouped regarding gender diversity of their children in a family unit, three subgroups were formed as teachers having only daughter(s) ($n = 7$), teachers having only son(s) ($n = 9$), and teachers having both daughter(s) and son(s) ($n = 7$). Correlations of the composite sorts of the groups with the criterion sort were found to be as .82, .85, and .81, respectively. The correlations of all groups with each other were .97 ($p < .01$). Results indicated that teachers shared similar views with the experts and each other with respect to the ideal sensitive behaviors. There was no significant difference between teachers having only daughter(s) ($M = 74$, $SD = .07$), teachers having only son(s) ($M = .76$, $SD = .01$), and teachers having both daughter(s) and son(s) ($M = .73$, $SD = .04$), based on the results of the Welch's adjusted one-way ANOVA for unequal variance ($F(3, 13.61) = 1.97$, $p = .18$).

When the teachers ($n = 36$) were grouped regarding the gender of child that they imagined while sorting the MBQS cards, four subgroups were formed as teachers imagining a girl ($n = 8$), teachers imagining a boy ($n = 4$), teachers imagining no gender ($n = 13$), and teachers imagining both a girl and boy ($n = 10$). Correlations of the composite sorts of the groups with the criterion sort were found to be as .82, .85, .82, .83, respectively ($p < .01$), indicating that teachers shared similar

views with experts about the ideal sensitive behaviors. When the teachers ($n = 36$) were grouped in terms of the experience of disagreement with the parents about the practices for the child, two groups were formed as teachers who reported that they experienced some disagreement with parents about practices toward children ($n = 20$) and teachers who did not experience any disagreement with the parents ($n = 16$). Correlations of the composite sorts of the groups with the criterion sort were found to be as .83 and .84 ($p < .01$), respectively, indicating that these two groups of teachers shared similar views with the experts in terms of the ideal sensitive behaviors. In addition, the views of two groups of teachers showed strong correlation ($r = .98$, $p < .01$), indicating that they shared similar views with each other. There was not significant difference between teachers experiencing disagreement with parents ($M = .74$, $SD = .06$) and teachers who did not experience any conflict with parents ($M = .74$, $SD = .04$), as determined by independent samples t-test for equal variance, $t(34) = -.376$, $p = .71$.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Beliefs about caregiver sensitivity have received increasing scientific attention in the last two decades and existing studies focused on differences and similarities in sensitivity beliefs of different ethnic and cultural groups (Ekmekci et al., 2015; Ekmekci. et al., 2016; Emmen et al. 2012; Greenfield et al., 2008; Harwood et al., 1996; Harwood et al., 1999; Mesman et al., 2012; Mesman et al., 2015; Rothbaum et al., 2006; Trommsdorff & Friedlmeier, 2010; Ziehm et al., 2013). Today, young children spend most of their time in early childhood education settings, nevertheless little is known about the cognitive match in beliefs on sensitive caregiving of parents and teachers who are parts of the child's total caregiving network. Therefore, in the present study, the degree of similarity between beliefs of the two individuals in preschoolers' caregiving network, who were the mothers and teachers were investigated.

It was hypothesized that the magnitude of the positive association of the mothers with the experts will be similar to the magnitude of the positive association of the teachers with the experts (hypothesis one). It was also expected that mothers and preschool teachers will not differ in terms of the degree to which they find each behavior descriptive for the ideal mother (hypothesis two), mothers' views will be more similar to those of preschool teachers and experts as their level of education increases (hypothesis three), and there will be negative relation between the participants' sensitivity beliefs scores and children's psychological wellbeing (hypothesis four). In this chapter, the results are discussed in the light of relevant studies from the literature.

5.1 Similarities of the mothers' and teachers' views about the sensitive behaviors

The findings of this study seem to support the first hypothesis, which stated that the magnitude of the positive association of the mothers with the experts is similar to the magnitude of the positive association of the teachers with the experts, thus the sensitivity belief scores of these two groups show a positive association with the experts and the sensitivity belief scores of these two groups show a positive association. Participants' individual sensitivity scores revealed that their views about maternal sensitivity were consistent with the experts' view. The comparisons of participants' sensitivity scores both on the individual (the teacher-mother(s) pair) and group level (the groups of 36 teachers versus 51 mothers) revealed that the mothers' and teachers' views about maternal sensitivity were consistent. The strong convergence of individual's views regarding sensitive behaviors with the expert and with each other, the strong convergence of groups' views regarding sensitive behaviors with the expert view and the similarity between the groups are consistent with a large body of previous research examining maternal sensitivity beliefs across different socio-cultural groups (Emmen et al., 2012; Ekmekci et al., 2015; Ekmekci et al., 2016; Mesman et al., 2015; Mesman et al., 2016).

Moreover, the findings seem to support the second hypothesis, which stated that there will be no significant differences in terms of the degree to which the mothers and preschool teachers find each behavior descriptive for the ideal mother, thus they will find the same behaviors important. The high degree of overlap in the number of items that are scored as the most (six out of 10) and the least (nine out of 10) descriptive of the ideal sensitive behavior by mothers and teachers supports this hypothesis.

Six behaviors that are praising the child, expression of affection physically, expression of positive feelings, speaking regularly, showing delight during interaction and play were found to be most descriptive of the ideal sensitive behaviors by the mothers and teachers. The results of a recent study revealed that behaviors indicating praising the child, expression of affection by touching, expression of happiness for being with the child, speaking regularly, seeking contact with the child, encouraging trying new things, interrupting dangerous activities, responding well when the child is sad, were scored as the most descriptive of the ideal mother by the mothers across 26 cultural groups in 15 countries (Mesman et al., 2015). Similarly, Sümer and his colleagues observed a group of Turkish mothers while they were interacting with their children and coded the mothers' behaviors according to the MBQ (Sümer et al., 2016). The most frequently observed behaviors of the sensitive mothers were those that recognize the child and respond to her needs, encourage the child, interact and communicate with her (Sümer et al., 2016). Also, 10 items with the highest averages representing the most descriptive ideal sensitive behaviors in Sümer and colleagues' study (2006) were also given high scores by mothers and teachers in this present study. Thus, the behaviors that were described by the mothers and teachers as the most sensitive while considering a hypothetical ideal mother in this study seem to be in line with the behaviors of the sensitive mothers that were frequently observed in the study by Sümer and colleagues (2016). Given the fact that these behaviors refer to different aspects of sensitivity, including proximity/ interaction, signal perception, and appropriate positive responsiveness (Mesman et al., 2015), the results indicated convergence between mothers' and teachers' views about the ideal mother and attachment theory's notion of sensitive mother (Emmen et al., 2012; Mesman et al., 2015).

A glance on the six common items scored by the mothers and teachers in the list of ten most sensitive behaviors shows a preference for positive affect and warmth towards the child (i.e., displaying affection, touching, expressing positive feelings, showing delight). These items received high scores by the experts while describing a sensitive parent. Some researchers emphasized the importance of positive affect and warmth of the parent during interaction with the child in the conceptualization of sensitivity (e.g., Biringen & Easterbrooks, 2012). On the other hand, positive affect is not synonymous with sensitivity and can co-occur with extreme intrusiveness and lack of signal perception (Mesman & Emmen, 2013). The synchronization of positive affect and responsiveness is characteristics of the sensitive mother (Mesman et al., 2015) and as such are also ranked high in the MBQ criterion sort (i.e., "displaying affection by touching, caressing").

The mothers' and teachers' responses overlapped for the nine out of ten behaviors that reflect the least sensitivity towards the child, which are punishment, criticizing, becoming overwhelmed by caretaking demands, conflict, harsh treatment, being inanimate, unresponsiveness, aloofness and affect incongruence. Behaviors that were considered as the least sensitive by the mothers and teachers in this study showed a high degree of similarity with the least observed behaviors (i.e., "being unresponsive to the child, self-closing, ignoring the needs of the child and being overwhelmed by these needs") from the sensitive mothers in the Turkish study mentioned above (Sümer et al., 2016). Thus, it can be claimed that the beliefs of the mothers reported in this study were congruent with the practices of the mothers, who were observed in the study by Sümer et al. (2016). Consistently, the results of the study by Mesman and colleagues (2015) revealed that the top 10 items that were evaluated as the least descriptive of the ideal mother by the mothers across 15

countries were related to behaviors such as hostility, unresponsiveness toward the child's initiatives to communicate and the child's needs, irritation, aloofness and criticizing attitudes (Mesman et al., 2015). In addition, many studies showed that there are similarities in the socialization practices of caregivers from different cultures valued the similar practices toward children (e.g., Durger et al., 2009; Erdiller & McMullen, 2003; McMullen et al., 2005; Yağmurlu et al., 2009). Considering the high degree of overlap between the mothers and teachers in terms of the behaviors that they found as representative of the (in)sensitivity and the degree of convergence of these MBQS items with the behaviors found in previous cross-cultural studies (e..g., Emmen et al., 2012; Ekmekci et al., 2015; Ekmekci et al., 2016; Mesman et al., 2015; Mesman et al., 2016), it seems that the sensitivity concept shares some common features across different cultures and groups. It seems that expression of affection by touching, expression of happiness for being with the child, speaking regularly, seeking contact with the child and showing delight during interaction with the child are highly valued across different groups and these behaviors are found as representative of sensitivity. Besides, it is important to note that the similarity between the mothers and teachers in terms of the behaviors that they found as representative of sensitivity was higher than their individual similarities with the experts. This may result from the fact that the mothers and teachers in this study were from the same culture whereas, the experts who provided the criterion sort were from the Western culture. Thus, despite the possibility that the sensitivity concept shares common features across different cultures, the findings seem to leave room for cultural differences as well.

5.2 Differences of the mothers' and teachers' views about the sensitive behaviors

The second hypothesis of this study was that there will be no significant differences between the mothers and teachers in terms of the extent to which they found descriptive each behavior for the ideal mother. Since the relevant literature indicated a high degree of similarity in the views regarding sensitive behaviors across different samples (e.g., Emmen et al., 2012; Ekmekci et al., 2015; Ekmekci et al., 2016; Mesman et al., 2015; Yağmurlu et al., 2009), in this study no significant difference between mothers and teachers was expected. The responses on the only 12 out of 90 items were significantly different between the two groups.

The items indicating behaviors such as respecting the child as an individual, considering his needs when structuring the environment, encouraging his independent exploration of the environment, waiting for his response during interaction and having qualified interactions as judged from the child's response were found to be more descriptive of the ideal mother by the teachers compared to the mothers. On the other hand, it was found that the items indicating behaviors such as having interactions in which content and pace are set by the mother rather than the child's responses and being anxious about the child's exploration were found to be more descriptive of the ideal mother by the mothers than the teachers. It is possible that the teachers might be more aware of the individual differences as they share the same environment with many children during school time. These findings support the increasing focus on active participation and agency in learning in childcare settings (Berthelsen & Brownlee, 2005). It seems that teachers respect children as autonomous learners who take initiatives for exploration and problem-solving. It might be related to differences in home and school environment. At preschools, teachers are responsible for many children, but at home mothers are responsible for

only for their own children. While the mothers need to control a limited number of children, teachers need to care and control the behaviors of 10 to 20 children. So, the nature of the context may require some differences in practices between school and home environment.

Moreover, while creating an interesting physical environment was found to be more descriptive of the ideal mother by the teachers compared to mothers, repeating series of interventions in search of the best method to satisfy the child (resorting trial and error) was found to be more descriptive of the ideal mother by the mothers. These results indicate that the teachers might be more aware of the importance of the stimulating environment for child development compared to mothers. Repeating series of interventions to comfort the child might seem a valid option since the aim is to provide the child what she/he needs however, this might seem contradictory to Ainsworth's definition of mothers with low sensitivity: "These mothers may try a series of interventions as though searching for the best method or solution" (Ainsworth, Bell, & Stayton, 1974, p. 130). Behaviors would be labeled as insensitive if the random trial-and-errors are unrelated to the infant's behavior as it is assumed to meant (Mesman et al., 2012). Ainsworth's further definition of sensitive mother emphasizes the importance of appropriate response to the situation and the child's communication (Ainsworth et al., 1974). Given the fact that the source of an infant's distress cannot easily be observed, it is important to keep in mind that searching for an appropriate response may be very sensitive and that a sensitive person would try her best to figure out what the source is or what works to alleviate the distress (Mesman et al., 2012). Given that mothers' intention to search for the best method to comfort the child, labeling them as insensitive for not being able to identify the source of child's distress at the first glance might be an early decision.

So, it might be good thing to try out new things to alleviate the distress. One possible explanation may also be that this item might be regarded differently by the mothers and the teachers. The mothers may have interpreted that it is good to try whatever they can do. They may not have interpreted the item as an experience of failure in finding the source of distress.

The mothers also found items including behaviors such as repeating words to the child as if teaching meaning or labelling activity and being instructive during interactions as more descriptive of the sensitive mother than the teachers. The teachers may have thought that students benefit from peer interaction and collective learning experience at schools, so they might have cared about the quality of the environment more than the one-to-one instruction to the child. These results seem similar to those of Ekmekci and her colleagues (2016). They demonstrated that the Dutch mothers found creating an interesting environment and being animated with the child as more ideal than the Turkish mothers, who placed more emphasis on behaviors related to fostering obedience, while the Turkish mothers found repeating words, scheduling naptimes and using verbal prohibitions as more ideal than the Dutch mothers, who placed more emphasis on the importance of nonintrusive behavior (Ekmekci et al., 2016).

The results of this study also showed that providing nutritional snacks was found to be more descriptive of the sensitive mother by the mothers than the teachers. Mothers may consider feeding the child as a way of showing sensitivity. However, for the teachers, this behavior might seem less relevant to caregiving sensitivity since they are responsible for many students, who need to learn to feed themselves during meal times. It is also important to note that although many of the teachers in this study were also mothers, they differed from the mothers in the degree

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to which they found behaviors descriptive within the framework of specific themes (i.e., individuality, exploration, independence). This might be explained by the possibility that the teachers give more value to the behaviors that can invest the children's agency from a pedagogical perspective. Moreover, one possible explanation for the differences between the teachers' and mothers' views may be related to the differences in home and school environments. Teachers' expectations may be shaped based on the behaviors they would like to increase in the school environment. Previous studies showed that Turkish preschool teachers value a child-centered perspective (i.e., active learning, provision of a rich and supporting environment, and teacher as a rather than someone who provides knowledge) in their childrearing practices (Erdiller & McMullen, 2003; McMullen et al., 2005). They shared similar views with other teachers across different countries –the U.S., China, Taiwan, and Korea- in terms of the appropriate practices toward children, the importance of promoting social/emotional development, and the content of the preschool curriculum and activities (McMullen et al., 2005). With this regard, adopting a child-centered perspective in the school environment might be a reason for teachers' preference for practices emphasizing exploration, independence, individuality, and problem solving that are in line with their childrearing philosophy. If caregivers believe that certain behaviors contribute to the values they adopted in childrearing (such as providing independence), they shape their practice toward the child in accordance (Greenfield et al., 2008). In Greenfield and his colleagues' study (2008), mothers' beliefs had some differences from their employees (Latino immigrant nannies) about several childrearing practices such as letting a baby sleep independently vs. holding a baby to prevent crying or requiring the child to do things for himself vs. helping the child by doing things for the child, because mothers'

beliefs regarding infant sleep and making the child do more for himself stressed the importance of early independence. This value conflict between caregivers regarding the theme of independence was also seen in prior research, in which Latino immigrant parents favored helpfulness while their children's teachers favored independent task accomplishment and personal responsibility for class tasks (Raeff, Greenfield, & Quiroz, 2000).

In this study, the mothers' and teachers' responses differed in their 10 highest-ranked and lowest-ranked behaviors. While the mothers and teachers agreed on the six out of 10 items as the most descriptive of the ideal sensitive behaviors, they chose different ones for the remaining four while sorting cards. The mothers chose the items indicating using close contact with the child and instructing the child: "Instructive during interactions with the child" (item 39), "Seeks interactions with the child" (item 49), "Uses close bodily contact to soothe the child" (item 76) and "Is animated when interacting with the child" (item 43). On the other hand, the teachers picked the items indicating encouragement of exploration and individuality: "Encourages independent exploration of the environment" (item 75), "Considers the child's needs when structuring the environment" (item 58), "Encourages the child's initiatives in feeding" (item 40), "Interactions appropriately vigorous and exciting as judged from the child's responses" (item 68). These results are consistent with the item level analysis results. Compared to the mothers, the teachers may tend to prioritize behaviors that enable the child to gain self-reliance and sense of agency. Regarding the least descriptive 10 items that the mothers and teachers overlapped at nine of them, in the remaining one item the mothers picked an item, which indicates the lack of affection: "Expressions of affection are limited to perfunctory, mechanical kisses, typically on the head" (item 42). On the other hand, the teachers

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chose two items both of which indicate disregarding the child's needs and signals "Home shows little evidence of presence of the child" (item 18) and "Ignores positive signals" (item 9) (These two items gained the same averaged score). In line with the differences between the mothers' and teachers' responses in the highest-ranked items, the differences in the lowest-ranked items showed that the mothers gave priority to show affection to the child while the teachers gave priority to recognize the child's needs as a separate individual at home or during mutual interaction.

It seems that different caregivers may have different priorities in terms of sensitive behaviors. The results highlighted different themes in teachers' and mothers' responses (i.e., affectionate and protective environment provided by the mother, stimulating environment provided by the teacher). They portrait a teacher figure who gives priority to respect the child as an individual, considers his needs when structuring the environment, encourages his independent exploration of the environment, waits for his response during interaction and have qualified interactions as judged from the child's response. On the other hand, there is a mother figure who gives priority to have interactions in which content and pace are set by the mother rather than the child's responses, be anxious about the child's exploration, be instructive during interactions with the child, provide healthy nutrition, and show affection verbally and physically. These differentiations leave room for the effect of Turkish culture as well. Kağıtçıbaşı (1996) defines Turkish culture as "culture of relatedness", neither strongly individualistic nor collectivistic. As compared to individualistic cultures, in collectivistic cultures, individual behavior tends to be controlled more by group surveillance than by private conscience and the individual conceptualizes the self more in terms of relationships than of personal characteristics

(Sunar & Fisek, 2005). Kağıtçıbaşı (1996) describes the modern Turkish families as emotionally interdependent and predicts "a combination, or coexistence, of individual and group (family) loyalties" (p. 89). This suggests that the childrearing practices produce an "autonomous-relational" rather than an independent or interdependent self in the child (Sunar & Fisek, 2005). The results showed that mothers gave priority to behaviors promoting close contact and affect, whereas teachers prefer behaviors contributing to child agency, exploration, and autonomy, as well as expression of affection. It seems like mothers are on the relatedness part of this autonomous-relatedness dimension and teachers have a much more balanced view of relatedness as well as autonomy. Turkish mothers' tendency to be on the relatedness side of this autonomous-relatedness dimension was also found in previous studies (e.g., Durgel et al., 2009). For example, a study comparing the long term socialization goals of Turkish immigrant mothers and German mothers found that Turkish mothers were less likely to value autonomy and more likely to have their children to have close relations than were German mothers (Durgel et al., 2009). As the Turkish mothers became more integrated into the German culture, they were found to value individualistic goals (i.e., self-control), but they still valued mutual support within the family very highly irrespective of their degree of integration with the German culture (Durgel et al., 2009). It seems that caregivers from different cultures may have different expectations even though they live in the same environment for years. This situation would create handicaps for an immigrant mother who wants to send her child to preschool, if she is having a different cognitive match with the host culture she migrated to.

There is a dynamic existence of relatedness in a family culture which characterizes the Turkish family (Bekman, 2005). The value given to relatedness in a

family environment might be one possible explanation for mothers' preference for close bodily contact and expression of affection. Socialization practices in the family allow children to learn relations and social skills which enable them to function in a close-knit context where power and authority differences are well defined (Bekman, 2005). Previous studies emphasized the tendency among teachers toward a conceptualization of authority based on shared decision-making in which teachers are kind but strict in setting limits and rules in the classroom (e.g., Erdiller & McMullen, 2003; McMullen et al., 2005). Teachers' notion of child-centeredness balanced with traditional Turkish family notion of respect and authority seems consistent with the teachers' balanced view of relatedness as well as autonomy.

Moreover, mothers' and teachers' different priorities for sensitive behaviors (i.e., emphasis for behaviors promoting close contact by the mothers, emphasis for behaviors contributing to child agency, exploration, and autonomy by the teachers) might be attributed to which part they are closer to in the proactive and reactive sensitivity dimension. Proactive sensitivity emphasizes observing and interpreting children's signals in order to anticipate the children's needs, whereas reactive sensitivity emphasizes responding to children's direct signals (Ziehm et al., 2013). It seems that the mothers are on the proactive side of this dimension. Mothers' preference for series of interventions in search of the best method to satisfy the child might be explained by their efforts to understand the situation and to distract the child from negative emotions (proactive option). This is consistent with findings of a study in which mothers who were more reactive claimed that for a mother it is hard to know everything about a child's needs, indicating the difficulty of anticipation in children's needs (e.g., Ziehm et al., 2013). On the other hand, teachers' preference to encourage child's independence, individuality, and his agency, can be attributed to

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their tendency for reactive sensitivity (e.g., Ziehm et al., 2013). Similarly, Rothbaum et al. (2006) investigated the American and Japanese teachers' views about the anticipation of children's needs and their responsiveness to them. Researchers revealed that Japanese teachers favored anticipation of children's needs, whereas American teachers valued to responsiveness to children's explicit expression of their need. For the Japanese teachers the goal of being sensitive was to promote interdependence in children by means of showing empathy to the child, careful observation, paying attention to explicit cues, and making assumptions from the child's behaviors. On the other hand, for the American teachers, the goal of sensitivity was to foster the equilibrium between the child's independence and his reliance on the caregiver (Rothbaum et al., 2006). It seems that the American teachers represented a balanced approach in the reactivity and proactivity dimension of sensitivity. Considering the mothers' preference for anticipation for children's needs in this current study, it seems that mothers have closer views with Japanese teachers. However, teachers in this current study seem to have a reactive approach which helps children to foster their autonomy. So, they might be regarded as to have closer views with American teachers.

Comparing the responses of the teachers to those of the mothers might be helpful to examine the extent to which the two groups showed a cognitive match about caregiving sensitivity. Nevertheless, categorizing one of the groups as less sensitive than the other based on their scores for specific items would be misleading. Regarding the item-specific differences, some researchers emphasized that there might be individual differences in the specific content of mothers' behavior since the statements of the MBQS leave room for individual differences (Emmen et al., 2012). For example, the researchers discussed that the 20th item that is "Responds

well when her child is sad" only specified that the child is calming down in response to the mothers' behavior, not the specific content of the mothers' response (Emmen et al., 2012). It is important to note that Ainsworth's further definition regarding the appropriateness of the caregiver's response should be inferred from the outcome (Mesman et al., 2012), so what is important in terms of maternal sensitivity is the influence of the mother's response on the child's behavior, not the content of her response. Parenting beliefs and behaviors may vary among individuals in terms of the content of response and these differences do not necessarily indicate that one response is less sensitive than the other (Emmen et al., 2012). In other words, the positive influence of the response on the child is critical in terms of determining whether the mother's behavior was sensitive, not the concrete parental behaviors (except for harsh behaviors) (Mesman, Oster, & Camras, 2012).

5.3 Differences and similarities in sensitivity beliefs between mother with different education levels

The third hypothesis of this study was that as the mother's education level increases, their views of the ideal sensitive mother will be more similar to the criterion sort. To test this hypothesis, composite sorts of mothers with different education levels were correlated with the criterion sort. Also, the mean sensitivity belief scores of groups were compared. As predicted, despite the high degree of similarity in sensitivity belief scores across the groups, it was found that the higher the education level of the mothers, the more similar the views about the ideal sensitive behavior to the expert view. The teachers' views were the most similar to the expert's views. Besides, the results indicated that the views of the teachers and the high-educated mothers were significantly more similar to the criterion sort than the low-educated mothers. In this

study, teacher's education level was high and high-educated mothers' level of education was similar to the teachers. These results are consistent with other studies, in which the high-educated mothers had sensitivity belief scores that were more similar to the experts (Emmen et al., 2012; Ekmekci et al., 2015). Thus the findings seem to support the third hypothesis of this study.

5.4 Examination of the mothers' and teachers' sensitivity belief scores depending on the children's psychological wellbeing

The results showed that the correlations between the participants' sensitivity belief scores and their assessment of children' psychological wellbeing were low. Thus, caregivers' sensitivity beliefs were not related to the psychological problems of the children whom they took care of. These results are in line with the results of a study from Netherlands which included a group of Turkish mothers with children who had high scores on externalizing problems as measured by the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000) (Ekmekci et al., 2016). In this mentioned study, the Turkish mothers' average sensitivity score was high as measured by the MBQS, indicating a strong convergence with the experts' views (Ekmekci et al., 2016). Also, Sümer and colleagues' study (2016) also showed that the mothers' maternal sensitivity behaviors were not related to their children's internalizing and externalizing problems that were measured by the Turkish form (Erol & Şimşek, 1997) of the CBCL (Achenbach, 1991). Thus, it seems that participants' sensitivity belief scores are not related to their children's psychological problems. All in all, the results did not support the last hypothesis of this study.

It is important to note that in this study, mother- and teacher-reported SDQ scale scores indicated very low reliability levels. However, in a study conducted to

understand the nature of the relationship between the maternal sensitivity and infant temperament, mother-infant attachment in laboratory based Strange Situation and children's temperament were observed and also mothers were asked to fill the questionnaires regarding maternal sensitivity, attachment and child's temperament (Seifer et al., 1996). It was reported that the observed infant temperament was strongly associated with the maternal sensitivity. Interestingly, there was a concurrent relationship between the mother-reported temperament and maternal sensitivity which was explained as a support for the idea that these different assessment styles present different kind of information (Seifer et al., 1996). In a different study, an intervention was designed to improve the low-income mothers' relationship with their irritable infants in order to help mothers to respond more sensitively since the temperamental characteristics, especially negative emotionality might harm the secure attachment between them and might be at risk for anxious attachment (Van den Boom, 1994). The focus of intervention was on the enhancement of maternal sensitive responses in terms of noticing the signals, correctly interpret them, choose an appropriate response and put that response into action. As a result, it was found that there was a difference between the relationship of mother-child who received intervention than who did not which result in both more sensitively responding mothers and more social and more self-regulating infants. The change in behaviors in mothers into more sensitive direction leaded to more positive and more securely attached infants. These results indicated that the temperamental differences have an impact on mother-child interaction but the increase in sensitive behaviors of mothers influence infants' behaviors, indicating the bidirectionally of this relationship (Van den Boom, 1994). In terms of secure attachment, not only the maternal sensitivity beliefs, but also the children's

temperamental differences might come into play since it has a great deal of influence in interaction between mother-child dyads (Van den Boom, 1994). Therefore, it was also suggested that the differences in children's attachment status might also be explained by children's temperament (Seifer et al., 1996). However, these two concepts might be overlapping conceptually. For example, if the child is in distress and sends some signals to the mother who responds to these signals and comforts the child could be considered as maternal sensitivity. However, it might also indicate the degree of the children's self-regulatory mechanism as a temperamental difference (Seifer et al., 1996). For this reason, it is required to understand these overlapping factors such as regulation of affect in these two concepts.

5.5 Further examination of sensitivity beliefs depending on additional background variables

This study aimed to investigate the possible variables that may play a role in the mothers' and teachers' preference for behaviors that they found as representative of sensitivity. For this reason, teachers were asked whether they participated in any training on child and family psychology or not, whether they experienced any conflict with parents or not, whether they are also mother or not, the gender diversity of their children in a family unit, and the gender of the child that they imagined while sorting the MBQS cards. Also, mothers were asked the number of children they had in a family unit, the gender diversity of their children in a family unit, the gender of the child that they imagined while sorting the MBQS cards, and the division of childcare tasks at home. However, findings showed that the participants' sensitivity belief scores were free from these variables.

5.6 Limitations and future directions for research

This study has limitations that should be noted. First, a convenient sampling method was used and all mothers were volunteers to take part in this study. It is possible that they were the potential sensitive mothers, which may limit the representativeness of the target population and the ecological validity of the results. Second, the existence of the researcher while the participant was sorting the items may have resulted in biased responses. For future research, it is important to develop new methods such as computerized administrations to minimize the social desirability effect. In this case, issues, whether mothers can use the computer practically or not, should be considered for the convenience of the implementation. Third, data were collected during school and home visits. The conditions were not ideal all the time. For example, some teachers had limited time to complete the sorting at schools. In some cases the sorting was interrupted due to the needs of children; in others, there was no available room for the administration so the researcher worked with the participants in a classroom or the kitchen.

Future research may focus on some questions that remain unanswered. First, in this study, the caregivers' views showed a strong convergence, but they also shared different views about some behaviors (i.e., being anxious about the child's exploration). The question to what extent beliefs are consistent with caregiving behaviors is not answered in this research. The questions of "what happens when the mother is sensitive and the teacher is not, or the teacher is sensitive and the mother is not" and "whether or not one of the caregivers being not so much sensitive could be compensated for some negative influences of other caregiver's being sensitive" have not answered, yet. Second, the literature is limited in terms of the studies with male professionals. However, there is a fact that there are not many male preschool

teacher in Turkey as well. So, the question of how these results would be if the teachers were male might be elaborated in the future research. Third, literature is limited in terms of fathers' sensitivity beliefs. The similarities and differences between the mothers and fathers who are key figures of childcare responsibility have not been clarified yet. Moreover, the attachment that is formed in the first years of life has long term influences on children. Mother is a crucial for attachment but, how children establish relationships with teachers during early years might have important contribution on this long term effect. A mother might be the most important figure but teachers may have an important role in case of mothers' insensitivity. This might be a topic to be studied.

5.7 Conclusion and implications

The findings of the current study suggest that the mothers and preschool teachers who were partof the child's caregiving network showed a cognitive match in terms of the sensitivity and sensitivity beliefs do not differ in terms of the children's psychological wellbeing. On the other hand, the results also suggest that mothers and teachers seem to have different priorities in caregiving (i.e., preference for protective environment by mothers and stimulating environment by the teacher). Results indicated that the mothers' level of education is an important factor for the similarity of their sensitivity beliefs to the experts' view. Study findings may provide important contributions to the potential developmental impact of the practices at home and the school environment, which are defined as two connected microsystems in Bronfenbrenner's (1977) Ecological Systems Theory. Concordance between the home and childcare, the extent to which parents and teachers concur in terms of the beliefs about how to raise a child, as well as appropriate discipline and educational

expectations, is vital for providing high-quality care and education (Lang et al., 2016). Parents' and teachers' different priorities with regard to the sensitive behaviors may indicate a source of incongruence for their co-caring relationship, which encompasses their roles to coordinate childrearing (Lang et al., 2017). The highlight of the different beliefs may offer new perspectives to researchers and practitioners to understand parent-teacher interactions by defining the key components of relationships. Moreover, given the assumptions that mothers' and teachers' priorities may shape their caregiving behaviors (Coplan et al., 2002), it may cause children to experience inconsistent practices at home and school environment. Compliance of the child behavior with sensitive childrearing practices of the mother but not with that of the teacher may create a social and cognitive challenge for the child (Churchill, 2003). In this regard, this study may contribute providing children with a consistent environment in each step of their development by increasing awareness of mothers and teachers toward each other's priorities and beliefs. On the other hand, different themes highlighted in teachers' and mothers' responses (i.e., affectionate and protective environment provided by the mother, stimulating environment provided by the teacher) may provide the child several possibilities for diverse interactions to benefit from. In ideal conditions, this implication points out the importance of preschool education that complements parental nurturance.

In conclusion, these findings provide crucial information for researchers as well as practitioners (i.e., early childhood education teachers, child and family specialists, psychologists, psychological counselors) to decide the focus of early childhood caregiving prevention programs by highlighting behaviors about which the teachers and mothers prioritize. While the low education level is an important indicator of mothers' preference for relatedness and obedience, the high education

level is an important factor for preference in autonomy and self-enhancement (Yağmurlu et al., 2009). It seems that mothers' level of education is very much related with their priorities in childrearing. The resuşts ofhis study showed that the mothers gave priority to provide children with more protective environment. However, overprotection might intervene with the children's courage to explore the environment and their development of agency. At this point, intervention programs can help mothers to make right decisions in terms of protecting the child without inhibiting their exploratory behaviors by providing trainings. Lastly, the findings can be helpful for caregivers to take each other's perspective that may support open and effective communication between parents and teachers.

APPENDIX A

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

**T.C.
BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ**
İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Alt Kurulu

Sayı:19-2017

5 Mayıs 2017

Şeyda Çetintaş
Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık

Sayın Araştırmacı,

"Türkiye'de bakım verenlerin anne duyarlılığına dair inançları: Annelerin, okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin ve danışmanların görüşlerinin karşılaştırılması" başlıklı projeniz ile ilgili olarak yaptığınız SBB-EAK 2017/23 sayılı başvuru İNAREK/SBB Etik Alt Kurulu tarafından 5 Mayıs 2017 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.

Saygılarımızla,

İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Alt Kurulu

Doç. Dr. Ebru Kaya

Yrd. Doç. Dr. İnci Ayhan

Doç. Dr. Gül Sosay

Doç. Dr. Mehmet Yiğit Gürdal

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Bengü Börkan

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAFIC INFORMATION FORM FOR THE MOTHERS

Demographic Information Form for Mothers |

ID: _____   Date: _____

Date of birth: _____   Your child's school type:
Your child's date of birth: _____   Public school _____
Your child's sex: _____   Private school _____

How many children have you got? _____   Sex of your children;
Your children's date of birth: 1. Female _____   Male _____
1. _____   2. Female _____   Male _____
2. _____   3. Female _____   Male _____
3. _____   4. Female _____   Male _____
4. _____   5. Female _____   Male _____
5. _____

Your marital status: Married ____ Not ____   If your answer is yes:
          Your husband's date of birth: _____
          Your husband's work: _____

School that you graduated last: Your husband's education (school he graduated last)
1 _____ Primary   1 _____ Primary
2 _____ Secondary   2 _____ Secondary
3 _____ High School   3 _____ High School
4 _____ Vocational School (2 years)   4 _____ Vocational School (2 years)
5 _____ University (4 years)   5 _____ University (4 years)
6 _____ Master Degree   6 _____ Master Degree
7 _____ PhD   7 _____ PhD
8 _____ Other (specify_____)   8 _____ Other (specify_____)

Are there any points that you disagreed with your child's   Are you working now? Yes _____ No_____
teacher on practices toward your children?
Yes____   If your answer is yes, your occupation: _____
          Your weekly working hour: _____
Yes_____
          If your answer is no and if you worked before, please specify
If your answer is yes, please specify the practices: how many years did you work? _____
_____
_____   If your answer is no and if you worked before, please specify
_____   how many years did you work? _____
_____
          Have you ever attended trainings on child and family
          psychology? Yes_____ No____

Your family's monthly income: Who is taking care of your child at home most? (you can
1____ 1.500 and lower   choose more than one option.)
2 ____ 1.500 - 2.999   _____ Mother
3 ____ 3.000 - 4.499   _____ Father
4 ____ 4.500 - 5.999   _____ Other relatives (aunt etc.)
5 ____ 6.000 - 7.499   _____ Nanny
6 ____ 7.500 - 8.999   _____ Other (specify_____)
7 ____ 9.000 and higher

Information about MBQS Implementation

ID: _____   Date: _____

During the MBQS implementation you just did, how old have you imagined in your mind? _____

During the MBQS implementation you just did, did you imagine a female or a male child?
Female _____ Male _____ None_____

I wanted to learn your ideas about the ideal mother by the MBQS implementation you just did. What was important was the behaviors that you found convenient for the ideal mother and you made a card sorting by choosing behaviors that you found convenient for the ideal mother. Why do you think the mother with behaviors that you chose is the ideal mother?

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Why do you think being a sensitive mother is important?

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DEMOGRAFIC INFORMATION FORM FOR THE MOTHERS (TURKISH)

Ebeveyn Demografik Bilgi Formu

ID: _____   Tarih: _____

Sizin doğum yılınız: _____   Çocuğunuzun okulunun türü:
Anasınıfına giden çocuğunuzun doğum yılı: _____   Devlet okulu ____
Çocuğunuzun cinsiyeti: _____   Özel okul ____

Toplam kaç çocuğunuz var? ____   Çocuklarınızın cinsiyeti;
Çocuklarınızın doğum tarihi: 1. Kız ____   Erkek ____
1. _____   2. Kız ____   Erkek ____
2. _____   3. Kız ____   Erkek ____
3. _____   4. Kız ____   Erkek ____
4. _____   5. Kız ____   Erkek ____
5. _____

Şu anki medeni durumunuz: Evli ___ Evli değil ___   Cevabınız evli ise:
                                                   Eşinizin doğum yılı: _____
                                                   Eşinizin mesleği   : _____

En son mezun olduğunuz okul: Eşinizin Eğitimi (en son mezun olduğu okul)
1 ____ İlkokul   1 ____ İlkokul
2 ____ Ortaokul   2 ____ Ortaokul
3 ____ Lise   3 ____ Lise
4 ____ Meslek Yüksek Okulu (2 yıllık)   4 ____ Meslek Yüksek Okulu (2 yıllık)
5 ____ Üniversite (4 yıllık)   5 ____ Üniversite (4 yıllık)
6 ____ Yüksek Lisans   6 ____ Yüksek Lisans
7 ____ Doktora   7 ____ Doktora
8 ____ Başka (belirtiniz_____)   8 ____ Başka (belirtiniz_____)

Çocuğunuzun öğretmeni ile çocuğa yönelik uygulamalar   Şu an çalışıyor musunuz? Evet _____ Hayır____
konusunda uyuşmadığınız noktalar oluyor mu?
                                                        Cevabınız evet ise mesleğinizi belirtiniz:_____
Evet____   Haftada kaç saat çalışıyorsunuz?_____
Hayır_____
Cevabınız evet ise uyuşmadığınız uygulamaları belirtiniz.   Cevabınız hayır ise ve eğer daha önce çalıştıysanız, hangi
_____   yıllar arasında çalıştınız? _____
_____
_____   Bugüne kadar hiç çocuk ve aile psikolojisi üzerine
_____   eğitimlere katıldınız mı? Evet____ Hayır____

Ailenin toplam aylık geliri ne kadardır?   Evinizde çocuğunuzun bakımıyla en çok kim veya kimler
1____ 1.500 ve altı   ilgilenir? (Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz.)
2____ 1.500 - 2.999   ____ Anne
3____ 3.000 - 4.499   ____ Baba
4____ 4.500 - 5.999   ____ Diğer akrabalar (Örn. teyze, hala vb.)
5____ 6.000 - 7.499   ____ Bakıcı
6____ 7.500 - 8.999   ____ Diğer (belirtiniz _____)
7____ 9.000 ve üzeri

Uygulamaya Dair Bilgiler

ID: _____   Tarih: _____

Biraz önce yapmış olduğunuz kart dizimi uygulamasını, zihninizde kaç yaşında bir çocuğu canlandırarak gerçekleştirdiniz? _____

Biraz önce yapmış olduğunuz kart dizimi uygulamasında, zihninizde bir kız çocuğunu mu yoksa bir erkek çocuğunu mu canlandırarak ilerlediniz ?
Kız _____ Erkek _____ Hiçbiri_____

Biraz önce yapmış olduğunuz kart dizimi uygulamasında, sizin ideal anne hakkındaki düşüncelerinizi öğrenmek istedim. Bu çalışmada önemli olan sizin ideal anneye uygun bulduğunuz davranışlardı. Siz de uygun bulduğunuzu davranışları seçerek bir sıralama yaptınız. Sizce neden sizin seçtiğiniz sıralamadaki gibi bir anne ideal bir annedir?
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Sizce duyarlı bir anne olmak neden önemli?
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APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM FOR THE TEACHERS

Demographic Information Form for Teachers

ID: _____   Date: _____|

I. Information about Your Work

Type of school you work: Public school _____   Private school _____

Your current job: _____ How many years do you do your current job? _____ Since when have you been working in this school? _____ Your weekly working hour? _____	Have you ever worked in a different job? Yes____ No____ If yes, please specify the sector(s) you worked: _____ _____ _____
How many students are you responsible for in your class? ___ Please specify the age range of students: _____	Do you have any intern teacher in your class? Yes___ No___ If yes, please specify the number _____
Do you have regular meetings with parents? Yes_____ No_____	If yes, please specify the average number of your meetings per month: _____
Are there any points that you disagreed with parents on practices toward children? Yes_____ No_____ If your answer is yes, please specify the practices: _____ _____ _____ _____	Have you ever attended training on child and family psychology? Yes_____ No___

II. Personal Information

You date you birth: _____	Sex: Female_____ __Male_____
Your family's monthly income: 1_____1.500 and lower 2 _____ 1.500 - 2.999 3 _____ 3.000 - 4.499 4 _____ 4.500 - 5.999 5 _____ 6.000 - 7.499 6 _____ 7.500 - 8.999 7 _____ 9.000 and higher	School that you graduated last: 1 _____ Primary 2 _____ Secondary 3 _____ High School 4 _____ Vocational School (2 years) 5 _____ University (4 years) 6 _____ Master Degree 7 _____ PhD 8 _____ Other (specify_____)
Do you have any child? Yes_____ No_____ If yes, how many children do you have? _____	Your marital status: Married ____ Not ____
Your children's date of birth: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3._____ 4._____ 5. _____	Sex of your children; 1. Female _____ Male _____ 2. Female _____ Male _____ 3. Female _____ Male _____ 4. Female _____ Male _____ 5. Female _____ Male _____

Information about MBQS Implementation

ID: _____   Date: _____

During the MBQS implementation you just did, how old have   During the MBQS implementation you just did, did you
you imagined in your mind? _____   imagine a female or a male child?
                                                                   Female _____   Male _____   None_____

I wanted to learn your ideas about the ideal mother by the MBQS implementation you just did. What was important was the
behaviors that you found convenient for the ideal mother and you made a card sorting by choosing behaviors that you found
convenient for the ideal mother. Why do you think the mother with behaviors that you chose is the ideal mother?

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Why do you think being a sensitive mother is important?

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DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM FOR THE TEACHERS (TURKISH)

Öğretmen Demografik Bilgi Formu

ID No: _____   Tarih: _____

I.İşinize dair bilgiler

Çalıştığınız okulunun türü: Devlet okulu ____   Özel okul ____

Şimdiki işiniz: _____   Bundan önce farklı bir işte çalıştınız mı? Evet___ Hayır___
Kaç yıldır şu anki işinizi yapıyorsunuz? _____   Evetse hangi sektör(ler) olduğunu belirtiniz._____
Hangi yıldan beri bu kurumda çalışıyorsunuz? _____   _____
Haftada kaç saat çalışıyorsunuz? ____   _____

Sınıfınızda sorumluluğunuzda olan kaç öğrenci var? ____   Sınıfınızda düzenli olarak size yardım eden stajyer öğretmen
                                                          var mı? Evet___ Hayır___
Sorumlu olduğunuz öğrencilerin yaş aralığını belirtiniz. ____   Eğer varsa kaç tane stajyer öğretmen var? ____

Veliler ile düzenli görüşmeler yapıyor musunuz?   Cevabınız evet ise ayda ortalama kaç kere görüşme yaptığınızı
Evet____ Hayır____   belirtiniz: _____

Veliler ile çocuğa yönelik uygulamalar konusunda   Bugüne kadar hiç çocuk ve aile psikolojisi üzerine eğitimlere
uyuşmadığınız noktalar oluyor mu? Evet____ Hayır____   katıldınız mı?
Cevabınız evet ise uyuşmadığınız uygulamaları belirtiniz.
_____   Evet____
_____
_____   Hayır____
_____

II.Kişisel Bilgiler

Sizin doğum yılınız: _____   Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın _____   Erkek_____

Toplam aylık geliriniz ne kadardır?   En son mezun olduğunuz okul:
1____ 1.500 ve altı   1 ____ İlkokul
2____ 1.500 - 2.999   2 ____ Ortaokul
3____ 3.000 - 4.499   3 ____ Lise
4____ 4.500 - 5.999   4 ____ Meslek Yüksek Okulu (2 yıllık)
5____ 6.000 - 7.499   5 ____ Üniversite (4 yıllık)
6____ 7.500 - 8.999   6 ____ Yüksek Lisans
7____ 9.000 ve üzeri   7 ____ Doktora

Çocuğunuz var mı? Evet ____ Hayır____   Şu anki medeni durumunuz: Evli ___ Evli değil ___

Cevabınız evet ise toplam kaç çocuğunuz var? ____

Çocuklarınızın doğum tarihi: Çocuklarınızın cinsiyeti;
1. _____   1. Kız ____   Erkek ____
2. _____   2. Kız ____   Erkek ____
3. _____   3. Kız ____   Erkek ____
4. _____   4. Kız ____   Erkek ____
5. _____   5. Kız ____   Erkek ____

Uygulamaya Dair Bilgiler

ID: _____   Tarih: _____

Biraz önce yapmış olduğunuz kart dizimi uygulamasını, zihninizde kaç yaşında bir çocuğu canlandırarak gerçekleştirdiniz? _____

Biraz önce yapmış olduğunuz kart dizimi uygulamasında, zihninizde bir kız çocuğunu mu yoksa bir erkek çocuğunu mu canlandırarak ilerlediniz ?
Kız _____   Erkek _____   Hiçbiri _____

Biraz önce yapmış olduğunuz kart dizimi uygulamasında, sizin ideal anne hakkındaki düşüncelerinizi öğrenmek istedim. Bu çalışmada önemli olan sizin ideal anneye uygun bulduğunuz davranışlardı. Siz de uygun bulduğunuzu davranışları seçerek bir sıralama yaptınız. Sizce neden sizin seçtiğiniz sıralamadaki gibi bir anne ideal bir annedir?

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Sizce duyarlı bir anne olmak neden önemli?

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MATERNAL BEHAVIOR Q-SORT

1.	2.
Provides B with little opportunity to contribute to the interaction.	Monitors B's activities during visit.
3.	4.
M's responses are unpredictable.	During interaction with visitor does not notice B.
5.	6.
Awkward and ill at ease during intimate interactions with B.	Supports interaction of B with visitor.
7.	8.
Treats B as an inanimate object when moving her around or adjusting her posture.	Gives signal or explanation to B when leaving the room.

9. Ignores positive signals (vocalizations, smiles, reaches).	10. Speaks to B directly.
11. Repeats words carefully and slowly to B as if teaching meaning or labelling an activity or object.	12. Naptimes are determined by M's convenience rather than the immediate needs of B.
13. Uses sibling or television to keep B entertained.	14. Breaks off from B in mid-interaction to speak to visitor or attend to some other activity.
15. Attempts to involve B in games or activities that are beyond B's current capability.	16. During ongoing interactions, misses slow down or back off signals from B.

17.	18.
Content and pace of interaction set by M rather than according to B's responses.	Home shows little evidence of presence of B.
19.	20.
Places B in another room when B is in a bad mood or cranky.	Responds accurately to signals of distress.
21.	22.
Overwhelmed by caretaking demands.	Appears to tune out and not notice bids for attention.
23.	24.
Provides B with unrestricted access to her.	Arranges her location so she can perceive B's signals.

25. Not skillful in dividing her attention between B and competing demands and therefore misses B's cues.	26. Responds immediately to cries/whimpers
27. Responds to B's distress and non-distress signals even when engaged in some other activity such as having a conversation with visitor.	28. Offers an acceptable alternative to B to divert attention from inappropriate activity.
29. When B is distressed, M is able to identify the source.	30. Interactions with B characterized by active physical manipulations.
31. Redirects B's bids for proximity and/or contact without a transition period to facilitate smooth interactions	32. Non-synchronous interactions with B, i.e., the timing of M's behaviour out of phase with B's behaviour.

33.	34.
Repeated series of interventions in search of best method to satisfy B, resorts to trial and error.	Interactions revolve around B's tempo and current state.
35.	36.
Well resolved interaction with B -- interaction ends when B is satisfied -- also consider the termination of ongoing interactions that B is enjoying.	Interrupts activity that is likely to be dangerous.
37.	38.
Interferes with appropriate activity if it is likely to get B messy.	Provides nutritional snacks.
39.	40.
Instructive during interactions with B.	Encourages B's initiatives in feeding.

41.	42.
Interactions with B are object oriented (e.g. with toys, food).	Expressions of affection are limited to perfunctory, mechanical kisses, typically on the head.

43.	44.
Is animated when interacting with B.	Realistic expectations regarding B's self-control of affect.

45.	46.
Praises B.	Molds B to self when holding.

47.	48.
Displays affection by touching, caressing.	Points to and identifies interesting things in B's environment.

49.	50.
Seeks interactions with B.	Creates interesting physical environment for B.
51.	52.
Provides age appropriate toys.	Uses verbal prohibitions (e.g., "no or don't").
53.	54.
Slows pace down, waits for B's response during interactions.	Teases B to promote continued interaction/contact.
55.	56.
Respects B as an individual, i.e., able to accept B's behaviour even if it is not consistent with her wishes.	Has lots of "shoulds" or mind sets about B's care, has rigid routines.

57.	58.
Shows delight in interaction with B.	Considers B's needs when structuring environment.
59.	60.
Lets B carry on with appropriate activity without interruption.	Scolds or criticizes B.
61.	62.
Is irritated by demands of B for physical contact or proximity.	Interprets cues correctly as evidenced by B's response.
63.	64.
Signals awareness of B's distress to B, but does not intervene.	Greets B when re-entering room.

65. Responds to B's signals.	66. Consistently unresponsive.
67. Responds only to frequent, prolonged or intense distress.	68. Interactions appropriately vigorous and exciting as judged from B's responses.
69. Notices when B is distressed (e.g., cries, fusses or whimpers).	70. Response delayed such that B cannot connect M's responses with the action that initiated it.
71. Builds on the focus of B's attention.	72. Notices when B smiles and vocalizes.

73.	74.
When irritated with B, disengages or distances herself from interaction with B.	Anxious about B's exploration (e.g. hovers over B).
75.	76.
Encourages independent exploration of environment.	Uses close bodily contact to soothe B.
77.	78.
Vocalizes to B throughout the visit.	Plays social games with B.
79.	80.
Distressed by B's demands.	Annoyed by B's uncooperative behaviour.

81.	82.
Spontaneously expresses positive feelings to B.	Physically restricts B's movements while in proximity.
83.	84.
Aloof when interacting with B.	Display of affect does not match B's display of affect (e.g., smiles when B is distressed).
85.	86.
Interactions with B are incomplete.	Terminates physical contact before B is satisfied.
87.	88.
Actively opposes B's wishes.	Interactions with B are characterized by conflict.
89.	90.
Interventions satisfy B.	Punitive or retaliatory during interactions with B.

MATERNAL BEHAVIOR Q-SORT (TURKISH)

1.

Çocuğuna kendisiyle birlikte oynaması veya tepki vermesi için az fırsat tanır.

2.

Misafir geldiğinde çocuğunun ne yaptığına dikkat eder.

3.

Çocuğuna karşı tepkileri kestirilemez.

4.

Misafirle meşgulken, çocuğuna dikkat etmez.

5.

Çocuğunu turarken (örneğin kucağında) rahat hissetmez.

6.

Çocuğunun misafirle iletişimini destekler.

7.

Çocuğunu tutarken ona cansız bir nesneymiş gibi davranır.

8.

Odadan çıkarken bunu çocuğuna bildirir.

9.

Çocuğu sesler çıkardığında, güldüğünde veya ona uzandığında tepki vermez.

10.

Sadece çocuğunun <u>hakkında</u> konuşmakla kalmaz, çocuğunun dikkatini çekerek onunla doğrudan konuşur.

11.

Çocuğuyla konuşurken yavaş yavaş kullandığı kelimeleri tekrar ederek konuşur.

12.

Annesi çocuğun yorgun olup olmadığına bakmadan onun ne zaman yatacağına karar verir.

13.

Çocuğunu oyalamak için çocuğun kardeşlerini veya televizyonu kullanır.

14.

Misafirle konuşmak için çocuğuyla oynamayı birdenbire keser.

15.

Çocuğuna göre aslında fazlasıyla zor olan oyunları veya faaliyetleri ona yaptırmaya çalışır, ama bunun farkına varmaz.

16.

Çocuğuna birşeylerin çok fazla geldiğini fark etmez.

17.

Çocuğuyla ne yapacaklarına ve bunun ne kadar hızlı olacağına o karar verir, çocuğu degil.

18.

Evde bir çocuğun yaşadığını gösteren hiç birşey göremezsiniz.

19.

Çocuğu huysuzlandığında onu başka bir odaya götürür.

20.

Çocuğu üzgün olduğunda, buna iyi karşılık verir.

21.

Çocuğunun bakımı ona ağır gelir.

22.

Çocuğu ilgi istediğinde bunu fark etmemiş gibidir.

23.

Çocuğunun her zaman kendisine yaklaşabileceği bir ortam sağlar.

24.

Yerini çocuğunu görebileceği veya duyabileceği bir şekilde ayarlar.

25.

Dikkatini aynı anda hem çocuğuna hem de diğer işlere veremediği için çocuğunun neye ihtiyacı olduğunu her zaman fark etmez.

26.

Çocuğunun ağlamalarına veya sızlanmalarına anında cevap verir.

27.

Misafirle meşgulken bile çocuğu ilgi istediğinde onunla ilgilenir.

28.

Yasak olan birşeyden çocuğunun dikkatini dağıtmak için ona yapabileceği başka bir şey sunar.

29.

Çocuğu stres altında olduğunda bunun neden kaynaklandığını anlar.

30.

Çocuğuyla sesli iletişim yerine çoğunlukla fiziksel iletişim kullanır.

31.

Çocuğu kucağına oturmak istediğinde yumuşak bir geçiş yapmadan onu baska bir şeye yönlendirir.

32.

Anne kendi davranışıyla, çocuğun davranışını takip etmez.

33.

Çocuğunu memnun edebilmek için net bir planı olmaksızın farklı farklı şeyler dener.

34.

Annenin davranışı çocuğun o anki ruh haline uygundur.

35.

Oyunları ve aktiviteleri çocuğunun memnun olacağı şekilde sonlandırır.

36.

Çocuğu için tehlike yaratabilecek aktivitelere müdahale eder.

37.

Çocuğu, üzerini kirletebilecek birşey yapıyorsa müdahale eder.

38.

Çocuğuna atıştıracak sağlıklı şeyler verir.

39.

Çocuğuyla oyun oynarken öğretici olmaya çalışır.

40.

Çocuğunun kendi başına yeme girişimlerini teşvik eder.

41.

Çocuğuyla olan etkileşimi genellikle birşeyleri yapmak üzerine kurulmuştur (örneğin yemek yemek ve oyuncakla oynamak gibi).

42.

Çocuğuna sevgisini gösterme biçimi samimi degildir.

43.

Çocuğuyla birşeyler yaparken neşelidir.

44.

Çocuğunun kendisini kontrol etmesi söz konusuysa, onun bu yaşta neyi yapıp neyi yapamayacağını bilir.

45.

Çocuğunu takdir eder.

46.

Çocuğunun kucağında rahat ettiğinden emin olur.

47.

Çocuğuna olan sevgisini dokunarak veya sarılarak gösterir.

48.

Çocuğunun çevresindeki ilginç şeyleri gösterir ve bunların isimlerini söyler.

49.

Çocuğuyla iletişim kurmaya çalısır.

50.

Ortamın çocuğu için ilginç olmasını sağlar.

51.

Oyuncakların çocuğunun yaşına uygun olduğundan emin olur.

52.

Çocuğuna birşeyi yasaklamak istediğinde bunu sözlü olarak, çocuğuna dokunmadan ve durdurmadan yapar.

53.

Birlikte birşey yaptıkları zaman çocuğunun tepkisini bekler.

54.

Çocuğunun ilgisini devam ettirmek için bu çocuğunun hoşuna gitmese dahi onunla dalga geçer.

55.

Çocuğu kendisinin sevmediği şeyleri yapsa dahi onu kendi arzuları olan bir birey olarak görür.

56.

Bir çocuğun nasıl büyütülmesi gerektiğiyle ilgili kalıplaşmış düşünceleri vardır, ve her zaman bunu aynı şekilde uygular.

57.

Çocuğuyla birşeyler yapmaktan zevk aldığını belli eder.

58.

Evini düzenlerken çocuğunun ihtiyaçlarını göz önünde bulundurur.

59.

Çocuğu sevdiği birşey yaptığında onu bölmez, rahat bırakır.

60.

Çocuğunu sıkça eleştirir veya azarlar.

61.

Çocuğu kucağına çıkmak istediğinde rahatsız olur.

62.

Çocuğunu iyi anladığı, çocuğunun verdiği tepkilerden belli olur.

63.

Çocuğunun sıkıntısının farkında olduğunu belli eder, ama tepki vermez.

64.

Odaya girdiğinde çocuğunu selamlar.

65.

Çocuğunun yaptığı veya söylediği şeye cevap verir.

66.

Çocuğuna asla tepki vermez.

67.

Çocuğu ancak uzun veya şiddetli bir şekilde sıkıntılıysa tepki verir.

68.

Çocuğuyla oynarken onun ihtiyacına/isteğine göre temposunu (hızını) ve ses tonunu ayarlar.

69.

Çocuğu sıkıntılı olduğunda bunu fark eder (örneğin ağladığında, huysuzlandığında veya. sızlandığında).

70.

Tepkilerinde o denli gecikir ki çocuğu annesinin neye tepki verdiğini anlayamaz.

71.

Çocuğunun odaklandığı şeye ilgisini verir.

72.

Çocuğu gülümsediğinde ve sesler çıkardığında fark eder.

73.

Çocuğuna sinirlendiğinde onunla beraber birşeyler yapmayı bırakır.

74.

Çocuğu yeni şeyleri keşfetmek istediğinde, bunlar tehklikeli olmadığında dahi kaygılanır.

75.

Çocuğunu yeni şeyler denemesi için teşvik eder.

76.

Çocuğunu yatıştırmak için onu kucaklar, ona sarılır.

77.

Çocuğuyla düzenli olarak konuşur.

78.

Çocuğuyla birlikte oyunlar oynar.

79.

Çocuğu fazla ilgi istediğinde gerilir.

80.

Çocuğu kendisine karşı koyduğunda rahatsız olur.

81.

Çocuğuyla mutlu olduğunu ona açıkça belli eder.

82.

Çocuğunun hareketlerini kısıtlar.

83.

Çocuğuyla birşeyler yaptığı zaman uzak/soğuktur.

84.

Gösterdiği duygular çocuğunun duygularıyla uyuşmaz, örneğin çocuk ağlarken anne güler.

85.

Çocuğuyla birlikte yapmakta olduğu şeyleri birden sonlandırır.

86.

Çocuğu memnun olmadan fiziksel teması keser.

87.

Çocuğunun arzularına açıkça karşı çıkar.

88.

Çocuğuyla sık sık kavga eder veya anlaşmazlıklar yaşar.

89.

Çocuğuyla olan iletişimi çocuğu memnun eder.

90.

Çocuğuna karşı negatif ve düşmanca davranır.

APPENDIX H

MBQS PROTOCOL

Get MBQ cards. Keep the cards numbered from 1 to 9 and A to C, separate from the printed item cards. Tell the mother what to do:

> We want to know what you think of ideal mother. We have 90 cards for mothers' behavior. I would like you to split these 90 cards into 9 groups of 10 cards. On the right side, you will put the behaviors that you find completely appropriate to the ideal mother, and on the left side, you will put the behaviors that you do not find appropriate to the ideal mother. Dividing the cards into 3 groups in the first place makes your work easier.

Take the card A, card B, and card C and place them from left to right in the center of the table.

> I will give you the cards soon. Read the text on the card completely. If there is something that you don't understand, or if you have a question, you can ask me. There is no right or wrong answer, the important thing in this research is not your own behavior as a mother, but the behaviors you find appropriate for your ideal mother.

Take these 90 cards and give them to the mother.

> Please read the card first. If you think that the behavior is not appropriate for the ideal mother, put the card in group A, if you find the behavior a little appropriate for the ideal mother, put the card in group B and put the cards that you find appropriate for the ideal mother in group C. Continue until you split all the cards into these three groups

After the mother divides the cards, place the cards 1 to 3 on top of the A card in the upper left side of the table. Make sure that there is enough room to put the cards from 4 to 9. After that, explain how the mother will continue to divide the cards.

> Now you can continue splitting these 3 groups. Start with group A. Divide these cards on cards from 1 to 3, put the behaviors you think do not fit the ideal mother well at all to number 1, the behaviors that you think do not fit the ideal mother well to number 2, and the behaviors you think do not fit the ideal mother to number 3. An important point to keep in mind is that the

cards you want to place in number 1 are the opposite of the ideal mother's behaviors for you.

After the cards of group A are divided into cards 1, 2 and 3, place cards 4, 5 and 6 on top of card B.

Now you will continue to divide the cards of group B into cards 4, 5 and 6. If you think that the behavior on the card does not quite fit the ideal mother put it on number 4, if you do not know whether the behavior fits the ideal mother or not put it number 5, and if you think this behavior fits the ideal mother a little bit put it on number 6.

After the cards of group B are divided into cards 4, 5 and 6, place cards 7, 8 and 9 on top of card C.

Now you will continue to divide the cards of group C into cards 7, 8 and 9. When you want to put the card in a high number, for example 8 or 9, you should note that the behavior on the card separates the ideal mother from other mothers with this behavior. Place the cards that match the ideal mother really well to number 9, place the cards that fit the ideal mother well to number 8, and place the cards that fit the ideal mother to number 7.

After dividing the cards of group C into cards 7, 8 and 9, it is time to place the cards evenly.

Now you have to split the cards equally. Make sure there are 10 written cards under each numbered card and put them together. Start with card number 9 and put10 behaviors that fit the ideal mother. What is important here is whether you think these behaviors are exactly the ideal mother, and whether they are different from other mothers. If you have placed less than 10 cards in 9 numbers, you must select cards from number 8 to number 9. If you have more than 10 cards in number 9, you should place the cards that less fit to ideal mother to number 8.

After finishing this, tell the mother that she can continue with 8, 7 and 6 in the same way

Now continue by placing 10 cards under the cards 8, 7 and 6.

After the mother finishes this, tell her she can continue splitting through card number 1.

This may sound weird, but it's best that you go on card number 1 now. If you have more than 10 cards here, leave the 10 cards that don't fit the ideal

mother and pass the others to number 2. If you have less than 10 cards in number 1, pass card number 2 to number 1.

After finishing this, tell the mother that she can continue with 2, 3 and 4 in the same way.

Now continue by placing 10 cards under the cards 2, 3 and 4.

When 10 cards are placed on each card, there must be10 cards in card number 5 as well. Tell the mother this and check number 5. We are at the end of the sorting. Place the cards in the envelopes. Count the cards before putting them in the envelope, so you can make sure that there are 10 cards for each number. If a mistake has been made, it is necessary to correct it, because we cannot use the data if there are no 10 cards in each number.

If it's true, there must be 10 cards left in number 5. Let's have a look. You divided the cards into 9 groups, each with 10. Now I want to ask you if there are behaviors that are important for the ideal mother and that will separate her from the other mothers but not included in our cards. Are there any other behaviors that you think fit the ideal mother but not included in the 90 cards that you sorted?

If the mother add a behavior:

I'm writing this on a blank card, and I'd like to ask you where you would put this card between the cards you've split up from 1 to 9.

Note the number on the card that the mother wants to place this card. Ask the mother if she wants to add more behavior. If so, repeat what you did first. If the mother doesn't add a behavior, you can finish the home visit.

We've come to the end of our home visit, I will put the groups into the envelopes.

Finishing a home visit

Thank the mother for her participation in to the research.

MBQ kartlarını alın. A'dan C'ye kadar ve 1'den 9'a kadar olan kartları, yazılı olan item kartlardan ayrı tutun. Anneye ne yapması gerektiğini anlatın:

> Sizin ideal anne hakkındaki düşüncelerinizi öğrenmek istiyoruz. Annelerin davranışlarıyla ilgili 90 tane kartımız var. Bu 90 kartı, hepsi 10 karttan oluşan 9 gruba, bölmenizi rica ediyorum. Sağ tarafınıza ideal anneye tamamen uygun bulduğunuz davranışları koyuyorsunuz, sol tarafınıza ise ideal anneye kesinlikle uygun bulmadığınız davranışları koyuyorsunuz. Kartları ilk etapta 3 gruba bölmek işinizi kolaylaştırır.

A'dan C'ye kadar olan kartları alın ve bunları masanın ortasına soldan sağa doğru koyun.

> Size birazdan kartları vereceğim. Kartın üzerindeki yazıyı tamamen okuyun. Anlamadığınız bir şey olursa veya bir sorunuz olursa bana sorabilirsiniz. Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur, bu araştırmada önemli olan anne olarak kendi davranışlarınız değil sizin ideal anneye uygun bulduğunuz davranışlardır.

90 yazı kartlarını alın ve anneye verin.

> Lütfen ilk önce kartı okuyun. İdeal anne için uygun bulmadığınız davranışları A grubuna koyun, ideal anneye biraz uygun bulduğunuz davranışları B grubuna koyun ve ideal anneye uygun bulduğunuz kartları C grubuna koyun. Bütün kartları bu üç gruba bölene kadar bu şekilde devam edin.

Anne kartları böldükten sonra masanın sol üst tarafına A kartının üstüne 1'den 3'e kadar olan kartları koyun. Daha sonrası için 4'den 9'a kadar olan kartları koyabilmek için yeterince yer kalmasına dikkat edin. Bundan sonra annenin oluşturduğu 3 grubu nasıl devam edip böleceğini açıklayın.

> Şimdi bu 3 grubu bölmeye devam edebilirsiniz. A grubuyla başlayın. Bu kartları 1'den 3'e kadar olan kartlar üzerinde bölün, ideal anneye kesinlikle uymadığını düşündüğünüz davranışları 1 numaraya, ideal anneye fazla uymadığını düşündüğünüz davranışları 2 numaraya, ideal anneye uymadığını düşündüğünüz davranışları da 3 numaraya yerleştirin. Aklınızda tutmanız

gereken önemli bir nokta 1 numaraya yerleştirmek istediğiniz kartların size göre ideal annenin hareketlerinin zıttı olmasıdır.

A grubunun kartları 1, 2 ve 3 numaralı kartlara bölündükten sonra, B kartının üstüne 4, 5 ve 6 numaralı kartları koyun.

Şimdi B grubunun kartlarını 4, 5 ve 6 numaralı kartlara bölmekle devam edeceksiniz. Kartta yazan davranışın ideal anneye pek uymadığını düşünüyorsanız 4 numaraya, bu davranışın ideal anneye uyup uymadığını bilmiyorsanız 5 numaraya ve bu davranışın ideal anneye biraz uyduğunu düşünüyorsanız 6 numaraya koyuyorsunuz.

B grubunun kartlarını 4, 5 ve 6 numaraya böldükten sonra C kartının üstüne 7, 8 ve 9 numaralı kartları koyun.

Şimdi C grubunun kartlarını 7, 8 ve 9 numaralı kartlara bölmekle devam edeceksiniz. Kartı yüksek bir numaraya koymak istediğinizde, örneğin 8 veya 9 numaraya, kartta yazan davranışın ideal anneyi diğer annelerden bu davranışla ayırıp ayırmadığına dikkat etmelisiniz. 9 numaraya ideal anneye tamamen uyan kartları yerleştirin, 8 numaraya ideal anneye oldukça uyan kartları yerleştirin ve 7 numaraya ideal anneye uyan kartları yerleştirin.

C grubunun kartlarını 7, 8 ve 9 numaralı kartlara böldükten sonra kartları tek tek eşit olarak numaralara göre yerleştirmenin vakti gelmiştir.

Şimdi kartları eşit olarak bölmeniz gereken bölüme geldik. Her numaralı kartın altında 10 yazılı kart olmasını sağlayın ve bunları biraraya koyun. 9 numaralı karttan başlayıp buraya ideal anneye tamamen uyan 10 davranışı koyun. Burada önemli olan bu davranışların ideal anneye tamamen uyup uymadığını ve diğer annelerden farklı kılıp kılmadığını düşünmeniz. 9 numaraya 10 karttan az kart koymuşsanız, 8 numaraya bakıp oradan 9 numaraya eklenebilecek kartları seçmeniz gerekir. Eğer 9 numarada 10'dan fazla kartınız varsa hangi kartların ideal anneye daha az uyduğuna bakıp onları 8 numaraya yerleştirmeniz gerekir.

Bunu bitirdikten sonra anneye aynı şekilde 8, 7 ve 6 numarayla devam edebileceğini anlatın.

Şimdi aynı şekilde 8, 7 ve 6 numaralı kartların altına 10 kart yerleştirerek devam edin.

Anne bunu bitirdikten sonra, ona şimdi 1 numaralı karttan bölmeye devam edebileceğini söyleyin.

Bu tuhaf gelebilir ama şimdi 1 numaralı karttan devam etmeniz en iyisi. Burada 10'dan fazla kartınız varsa ideal anneye kesinlikle uymayan 10 kartı orada bırakıp diğerlerini 2 numaraya geçirin. Eğer 1 numarada 10'dan az kartınız varsa 2 numaradan 1 numaraya kart geçirin.

Bunu bitirdikten sonra anneye aynı şekilde 2, 3 ve 4 numarayla devam etmesini söyleyin.

Şimdi aynı şekilde 2, 3 ve 4 numaralarıyla devam edebilirsiniz.

Bunları da her karta 10 tane koyarak eşit şekilde böldükten sonra 5 numarada da 10 kart kalmış olması gerekiyor. Bunu anneye söyleyip kontrol edin. Bölme işleminin sonuna geldik. Kartları özel olarak ayrılmış olan zarflara yerleştirin (1 numaradaki kartları 1 numaralı zarfa vesaire). Kartları zarfa koymadan önce sayın, böylece her numara için 10 kart olduğundan emin olursunuz. Eğer bir yanlış yapıldıysa bunu düzeltmek gerekir, çünkü her numarada eşit olarak 10 kart yoksa verileri kullanamayız.

Eğer doğruysa şimdi 5 numarada da 10 kart kalmış olması gerekiyor. Bir bakalım (sayın). Kartları her birinde 10 tane olacak şekilde 9 gruba böldünüz. Şimdi sizce ideal anne için önemli olan ve onu diğer annelerden ayıracak olan ama bizim kartlarımızda bulunmayan davranışlar olup olmadığını sormak istiyorum. Biraz önce düzenlediğiniz 90 kartın içinde bulunmayan ama sizce ideal anneye uygun olan ve eklemek istediğiniz davranışlar var mı?

Eğer anne bir davranış eklerse:

Bunu boş bir karta yazıyorum ve sizden bana bu kartı 1'den 9'a kadar böldüğünüz kartlar arasında nereye yerleştirirdiniz diye sormak istiyorum.

Yeni davranışı yazdığınız karta annenin bu kartı yerleştirmek istediği numarayı yazın. Anneye eklemek istediği daha fazla davranış var mı diye sorun. Eğer varsa önce yaptığınızı tekrarlayın. Eğer anne bir davranış eklemezse ev ziyaretini bitirebilirsiniz.

Ev ziyaretimizin sonuna geldik, ben grupları ayırdığımız zarflara koyuyorum.

Ev ziyaretini bitirme

Anneye araştırmamıza katıldığı için teşekkür edin.

Katılımınız için teşekkürler. Ev ziyaretimizi eğlenceli bulduğunuzu umuyorum.

SCORING SHEET OF MATERNAL BEHAVIOR Q-SORT

MBQ scoring form

Date: _____

Researcher: _____

	1. Does not fit well at all	2. Do not fit well	3. Do not fit	4. Do not quite fit	5. Don't know if it fits	6. Fits a little bit	7. Fits	8. Fits well	9. Fits really well
1.									
2.									
3.									
4.									
5.									
6.									
7.									
8.									
9.									
10.									

STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR THE PARENTS OF 2-4-YEAR-OLDS

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire   P 2-4

For each item, please mark the box for Not True, Somewhat True or Certainly True. It would help us if you answered all items as best you can even if you are not absolutely certain. Please give your answers on the basis of your child's behavior over the last six months.

Your child's name .... Male/Female

Date of birth...

	Not True	Somewhat True	Certainly True
Considerate of other people's feelings	☐	☐	☐
Restless, overactive, cannot stay still for long	☐	☐	☐
Often complains of headaches, stomach-aches or sickness	☐	☐	☐
Shares readily with other children, for example toys, treats, pencils	☐	☐	☐
Often loses temper	☐	☐	☐
Rather solitary, prefers to play alone	☐	☐	☐
Generally well behaved, usually does what adults request	☐	☐	☐
Many worries or often seems worried	☐	☐	☐
Helpful if someone is hurt, upset or feeling ill	☐	☐	☐
Constantly fidgeting or squirming	☐	☐	☐
Has at least one good friend	☐	☐	☐
Often fights with other children or bullies them	☐	☐	☐
Often unhappy, depressed or tearful	☐	☐	☐
Generally liked by other children	☐	☐	☐
Easily distracted, concentration wanders	☐	☐	☐
Nervous or clingy in new situations, easily loses confidence	☐	☐	☐
Kind to younger children	☐	☐	☐
Often argumentative with adults	☐	☐	☐
Picked on or bullied by other children	☐	☐	☐
Often offers to help others (parents, teachers, other children)	☐	☐	☐
Can stop and think things out before acting	☐	☐	☐
Can be spiteful to others	☐	☐	☐
Gets along better with adults than with other children	☐	☐	☐
Many fears, easily scared	☐	☐	☐
Good attention span, sees work through to the end	☐	☐	☐

Do you have any other comments or concerns?

Overall, do you think that your child has difficulties in one or more of the following areas: emotions, concentration, behavior or being able to get on with other people?

	No	Yes- minor difficulties	Yes- definite difficulties	Yes- severe difficulties
	☐	☐	☐	☐

If you have answered "Yes", please answer the following questions about these difficulties:

· How long have these difficulties been present?

	Less than a month	1-5 months	6-12 months	Over a year
	☐	☐	☐	☐

· Do the difficulties upset or distress your child?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
	☐	☐	☐	☐

· Do the difficulties interfere with your child's everyday life in the following areas?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
HOME LIFE	☐	☐	☐	☐
FRIENDSHIPS	☐	☐	☐	☐
LEARNING	☐	☐	☐	☐
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	☐	☐	☐	☐

· Do the difficulties put a burden on you or the family as a whole?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
	☐	☐	☐	☐

Signature ....   Date ....

Mother/Father/Other (please specify:)

STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PARENTS OF

2-4 YEAR-OLDS (TURKISH)

GÜÇLER VE GÜÇLÜKLER ANKETİ (SDQ-Tur)

AB **2-4**

Her cümle için, Doğru Değil, Kısmen Doğru, Tamamen Doğru kutularından birini işaretleyiniz. Kesinlikle emin olamasanız ya da size anlamsız görünse de elinizden geldiğince tüm cümleleri yanıtlamanız bize yardımcı olacaktır. Lütfen yanıtlarınızı çocuğunuzun son 6 ay içindeki davranışlarını göz önüne alarak veriniz.

Çocuğunuzun Adı: ....

Kız / Erkek

Doğum Tarihi: ....

	Doğru Değil	Kısmen Doğru	Kesinlikle Doğru
Diğer insanların duygularını önemser.	☐	☐	☐
Huzursuz ve aşırı hareketlidir, uzun süre kıpırdamadan duramaz.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça baş ağrısı, karın ağrısı ve bulantı şikayetleri olur	☐	☐	☐
Diğer çocuklarla kolayca paylaşır. (yiyeceğini, oyuncağını, kalemini v.s.)	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça öfke nöbetleri olur yada aşırı sinirlidir.	☐	☐	☐
Daha çok tek başınadır, yalnız oynama eğilimindedir.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle söz dinler, büyüklerin isteklerini yapar.	☐	☐	☐
Birçok kaygısı vardır. Sıkça endişeli görünür.	☐	☐	☐
Eğer birisi incinmiş, morali bozulmuş yada kendini kötü hissediyor ise ona yardımcı olur.	☐	☐	☐
Sürekli elleri ayakları kıpır kıpırdır yada oturduğu yerde kıpırdanıp durur.	☐	☐	☐
En az bir yakın arkadaşı vardır.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça diğer çocuklarla kavga eder yada onlarla alay eder.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça mutsuz, kederli yada ağlamaklıdır.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle diğer çocuklar tarafından sevilir.	☐	☐	☐
Dikkati kolayca dağılır. Dikkatini toplamakta güçlük çeker.	☐	☐	☐
Yeni ortamlarda gergin yada huysuzdur. Kendine güvenini kolayca kaybeder.	☐	☐	☐
Kendinden küçüklere iyi davranır.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça yetişkinlerle tartışır.	☐	☐	☐
Diğer çocuklar ona takarlar yada onunla alay ederler.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça başkalarına (anne baba, öğretmen, diğer çocuklar) yardım etmeye istekli olur.	☐	☐	☐
Birşeyi yapmadan önce durup düşünebilir.	☐	☐	☐
Kin tutabilir.	☐	☐	☐
Büyüklerle çocuklardan daha iyi geçinir.	☐	☐	☐
Pek çok korkusu var. Kolayca ürker.	☐	☐	☐
Başladığı işi bitirir, dikkat süresi iyidir.	☐	☐	☐

Belirtmek istediğiniz başka düşünce ya da duygunuz var mı?

Lütfen sayfayı çeviriniz - arka sayfada birkaç soru daha var

Genel olarak, çocuğunuzun aşağıdaki alanların birinde ya da daha fazlasında güçlükleri olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz: Duygular, dikkati toplama, davranışlar, başkaları ile geçinebilme?

	Hayır	Evet-Biraz	Evet-Oldukça Ciddi	Evet-Çok Ciddi
	☐	☐	☐	☐

Eğer yanıtınız "evet" ise, lütfen aşağıdaki bu güçlüklere ilişkin soruları yanıtlayınız.

- Bir önceki soruda bahsettiğiniz bu güçlükler ne zamandır var?

	1 aydan az	1 - 5 ay	6 - 12 ay	Bir yıldan fazla
	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler çocuğunuzu sıkıntıya sokuyor yada moralini bozuyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler aşağıdaki alanlarda, çocuğunuzun günlük yaşamını etkiliyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
Ev yaşamı	☐	☐	☐	☐
Arkadaş ilişkileri	☐	☐	☐	☐
Öğrenme	☐	☐	☐	☐
Boş zaman etkinlikleri	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler size ya da ailenize zorluk yaşatıyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
	☐	☐	☐	☐

İmza: ....   Tarih: ....

Anne / Baba / Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz):

Yardımınız için teşekkür ederiz

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APPENDIX M

STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHERS

OF 2-4-YEAR-OLDS

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire   T 2-4

For each item, please mark the box for Not True, Somewhat True or Certainly True. It would help us if you answered all items as best you can even if you are not absolutely certain. Please give your answers on the basis of the child's behavior over the last six months or this school year.

Child's name ....   Male/Female

Date of birth..

	Not True	Somewhat True	Certainly True
Considerate of other people's feelings	☐	☐	☐
Restless, overactive, cannot stay still for long	☐	☐	☐
Often complains of headaches, stomach-aches or sickness	☐	☐	☐
Shares readily with other children, for example toys, treats, pencils	☐	☐	☐
Often loses temper	☐	☐	☐
Rather solitary, prefers to play alone	☐	☐	☐
Generally well behaved, usually does what adults request	☐	☐	☐
Many worries or often seems worried	☐	☐	☐
Helpful if someone is hurt, upset or feeling ill	☐	☐	☐
Constantly fidgeting or squirming	☐	☐	☐
Has at least one good friend	☐	☐	☐
Often fights with other children or bullies them	☐	☐	☐
Often unhappy, depressed or tearful	☐	☐	☐
Generally liked by other children	☐	☐	☐
Easily distracted, concentration wanders	☐	☐	☐
Nervous or clingy in new situations, easily loses confidence	☐	☐	☐
Kind to younger children	☐	☐	☐
Often argumentative with adults	☐	☐	☐
Picked on or bullied by other children	☐	☐	☐
Often offers to help others (parents, teachers, other children)	☐	☐	☐
Can stop and think things out before acting	☐	☐	☐
Can be spiteful to others	☐	☐	☐
Gets along better with adults than with other children	☐	☐	☐
Many fears, easily scared	☐	☐	☐
Good attention span, sees work through to the end	☐	☐	☐

Do you have any other comments or concerns?

Overall, do you think that this child has difficulties in any of the following areas: emotions, concentration, behavior or being able to get on with other people?

	No	Yes- minor difficulties	Yes- definite difficulties	Yes- severe difficulties
	☐	☐	☐	☐

If you have answered "Yes", please answer the following questions about these difficulties:

• How long have these difficulties been present?

	Less than a month	1-5 months	6-12 months	Over a year
	☐	☐	☐	☐

• Do the difficulties upset or distress the child?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
	☐	☐	☐	☐

• Do the difficulties interfere with the child's everyday life in the following areas?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
PEER RELATIONSHIPS	☐	☐	☐	☐
LEARNING	☐	☐	☐	☐

• Do the difficulties put a burden on you or the class or group as a whole?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
	☐	☐	☐	☐

Signature .... Date ....

STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHERS

OF 2-4-YEAR-OLDS (TURKISH)

GÜÇLER VE GÜÇLÜKLER ANKETİ (SDQ-Tur) Ö 2-4

Her cümle için, Doğru Değil, Kısmen Doğru, Tamamen Doğru kutularından birini işaretleyiniz. Kesinlikle emin olamasanız ya da size anlamsız görünse de elinizden geldiğince tüm cümleleri yanıtlamanız bize yardımcı olacaktır. Lütfen yanıtlarınızı çocuğun son 6 ay içindeki veya bu sene okuldaki davranışlarını göz önüne alarak veriniz.

Çocuğun Adı: .... Kız / Erkek

Doğum Tarihi: ....

	Doğru Değil	Kısmen Doğru	Kesinlikle Doğru
Diğer insanların duygularını önemser.	☐	☐	☐
Huzursuz, aşırı hareketli, uzun süre kıpırdamadan duramaz.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça baş ağrısı, karın ağrısı ve bulantıdan yakınır.	☐	☐	☐
Diğer çocuklarla kolayca paylaşır. (yiyecek, oyuncak, kalem v.s.)	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça öfke nöbetleri olur yada aşırı sinirlidir.	☐	☐	☐
Daha çok tek başınadır, yalnız oynama eğilimindedir.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle söz dinler, erişkinlerin isteklerini yapar.	☐	☐	☐
Birçok kaygısı vardır. Sıkça endişeli görünür.	☐	☐	☐
Eğer birisi incinmiş, morali bozulmuş yada kendini kötü hissediyor ise ona yardımcı olur.	☐	☐	☐
Sürekli elleri ayakları kıpır kıpırdır yada oturduğu yerde kıpırdanıp durur.	☐	☐	☐
En az bir yakın arkadaşı vardır.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça diğer çocuklarla kavga eder yada onlarla alay eder.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça mutsuz, kederli yada ağlamaklıdır.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle diğer çocuklar tarafından sevilir.	☐	☐	☐
Dikkati kolayca dağılır. Yoğunlaşmakta güçlük çeker.	☐	☐	☐
Yeni ortamlarda gergin yada huysuzdur. Kendine güvenini kolayca kaybeder.	☐	☐	☐
Kendinden küçükler iyi davranır.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça yetişkinlerle tartışır.	☐	☐	☐
Diğer çocuklar ona takarlar yada onunla alay ederler.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça başkalarına (anne baba, öğretmen, diğer çocuklar) yardım etmeye istekli olur.	☐	☐	☐
Birşeyi yapmadan önce durup düşünebilir.	☐	☐	☐
Kin tutabilir.	☐	☐	☐
Erişkinlerle çocuklardan daha iyi geçinir.	☐	☐	☐
Pek çok korkusu var. Kolayca ürker.	☐	☐	☐
Başladığı işi bitirir, dikkat süresi iyidir.	☐	☐	☐

Belirtmek istediğiniz başka düşünce ya da duygunuz var mı?

Lütfen sayfayı çeviriniz - arka sayfada birkaç soru daha var

Genel olarak, bu çocuğun aşağıdaki alanların birinde ya da daha fazlasında güçlükleri olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz: Duygular, dikkati toplama, davranışlar, başkaları ile geçinebilme?

Hayır	Evet-Biraz	Evet-Oldukça Ciddi	Evet-Çok Ciddi
☐	☐	☐	☐

Eğer yanıtınız "evet" ise, lütfen aşağıdaki bu güçlüklere ilişkin soruları yanıtlayınız.

- Bu güçlükler ne zamandır var?

1 aydan az	1 - 5 ay	6 - 12 ay	Bir yıldan fazla
☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler çocuğu sıkıntıya sokuyor yada moralini bozuyor mu?

Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler aşağıdaki alanlarda, çocuğun günlük yaşamını etkiliyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
Akranları ile ilişkisi	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sınıf içi öğrenme	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler size ya da sınıfın/grubun tümüne güçlük yaşatıyor mu?

Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
☐	☐	☐	☐

İmza: .... Tarih: ....

Oyun grubu öğretmeni / Kreş öğretmeni / Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz):

Yardımınız için teşekkür ederiz   © Robert Goodman, 2005

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STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PARENTS OF

4-10-YEAR-OLDS

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire

P 4-10

For each item, please mark the box for Not True, Somewhat True or Certainly True. It would help us if you answered all items as best you can even if you are not absolutely certain. Please give your answers on the basis of your child's behavior over the last six months.

Your child's name .... Male/Female

Date of birth...

	Not True	Somewhat True	Certainly True
Considerate of other people's feelings	☐	☐	☐
Restless, overactive, cannot stay still for long	☐	☐	☐
Often complains of headaches, stomach-aches or sickness	☐	☐	☐
Shares readily with other children, for example toys, treats, pencils	☐	☐	☐
Often loses temper	☐	☐	☐
Rather solitary, prefers to play alone	☐	☐	☐
Generally well behaved, usually does what adults request	☐	☐	☐
Many worries or often seems worried	☐	☐	☐
Helpful if someone is hurt, upset or feeling ill	☐	☐	☐
Constantly fidgeting or squirming	☐	☐	☐
Has at least one good friend	☐	☐	☐
Often fights with other children or bullies them	☐	☐	☐
Often unhappy, depressed or tearful	☐	☐	☐
Generally liked by other children	☐	☐	☐
Easily distracted, concentration wanders	☐	☐	☐
Nervous or clingy in new situations, easily loses confidence	☐	☐	☐
Kind to younger children	☐	☐	☐
Often lies or cheats	☐	☐	☐
Picked on or bullied by other children	☐	☐	☐
Often offers to help others (parents, teachers, other children)	☐	☐	☐
Thinks things out before acting	☐	☐	☐
Steals from home, school or elsewhere	☐	☐	☐
Gets along better with adults than with other children	☐	☐	☐
Many fears, easily scared	☐	☐	☐
Good attention span, sees chores or homework through to the end	☐	☐	☐

Do you have any other comments or concerns?

Overall, do you think that your child has difficulties in one or more of the following areas: emotions, concentration, behavior or being able to get on with other people?

	No	Yes- minor difficulties	Yes- definite difficulties	Yes- severe difficulties
	☐	☐	☐	☐

If you have answered "Yes", please answer the following questions about these difficulties:

• How long have these difficulties been present?

	Less than a month	1-5 months	6-12 months	Over a year
	☐	☐	☐	☐

• Do the difficulties upset or distress your child?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
	☐	☐	☐	☐

• Do the difficulties interfere with your child's everyday life in the following areas?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
HOME LIFE	☐	☐	☐	☐
FRIENDSHIPS	☐	☐	☐	☐
CLASSROOM LEARNING	☐	☐	☐	☐
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	☐	☐	☐	☐

• Do the difficulties put a burden on you or the family as a whole?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
	☐	☐	☐	☐

Signature .... Date ....

Mother/Father/Other (please specify:)

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STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PARENTS OF

4-10-YEAR-OLDS (TURKISH)

GÜÇLER VE GÜÇLÜKLER ANKETİ (SDQ-Tur)   AB [4-17]

Her cümle için, Doğru Değil, Kısmen Doğru, Tamamen Doğru kutularından birini işaretleyiniz. Kesinlikle emin olamasanız ya da size anlamsız görünse de elinizden geldiğince tüm cümleleri yanıtlamanız bize yardımcı olacaktır. Lütfen yanıtlarınızı çocuğunuzun son 6 ay içindeki davranışlarını göz önüne alarak veriniz.

Çocuğunuzun Adı: ....   Kız / Erkek

Doğum Tarihi: ....

	Doğru Değil	Kısmen Doğru	Kesinlikle Doğru
Diğer insanların duygularını önemser.	☐	☐	☐
Huzursuz ve aşırı hareketlidir, uzun süre kıpırdamadan duramaz.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça baş ağrısı, karın ağrısı ve bulantı şikayetleri olur	☐	☐	☐
Diğer çocuklarla kolayca paylaşır. (yiyeceğini, oyuncağını, kalemini v.s.)	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça öfke nöbetleri olur yada aşırı sinirlidir.	☐	☐	☐
Daha çok tek başınadır, yalnız oynama eğilimindedir.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle söz dinler, büyüklerin isteklerini yapar.	☐	☐	☐
Birçok kaygısı vardır. Sıkça endişeli görünür.	☐	☐	☐
Eğer birisi incinmiş, morali bozulmuş yada kendini kötü hissediyor ise ona yardımcı olur.	☐	☐	☐
Sürekli elleri ayakları kıpır kıpırdır yada oturduğu yerde kıpırdanıp durur.	☐	☐	☐
En az bir yakın arkadaşı vardır.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça diğer çocuklarla kavga eder yada onlarla alay eder.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça mutsuz, kederli yada ağlamaklıdır.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle diğer çocuklar tarafından sevilir.	☐	☐	☐
Dikkati kolayca dağılır. Dikkatini toplamakta güçlük çeker.	☐	☐	☐
Yeni ortamlarda gergin yada huysuzdur. Kendine güvenini kolayca kaybeder.	☐	☐	☐
Kendinden küçüklere iyi davranır.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça yalan söyler yada hile yapar.	☐	☐	☐
Diğer çocuklar ona takarlar yada onunla alay ederler.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça başkalarına (anne baba, öğretmen, diğer çocuklar) yardım etmeye istekli olur.	☐	☐	☐
Bir şeyi yapmadan önce düşünür.	☐	☐	☐
Ev, okul yada başka yerlerden çalar.	☐	☐	☐
Büyüklerle çocuklardan daha iyi geçinir.	☐	☐	☐
Pek çok korkusu var. Kolayca ürker.	☐	☐	☐
Başladığı işi bitirir, dikkat süresi iyidir.	☐	☐	☐

Belirtmek istediğiniz başka düşünce ya da duygunuz var mı?

Lütfen sayfayı çeviriniz - arka sayfada birkaç soru daha var

Genel olarak, çocuğunuzun aşağıdaki alanların birinde ya da daha fazlasında güçlükleri olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz: Duygular, dikkati toplama, davranışlar, başkaları ile geçinebilme?

	Hayır	Evet-Biraz	Evet-Oldukça Ciddi	Evet-Çok Ciddi
	☐	☐	☐	☐

Eğer yanıtınız "evet" ise, lütfen aşağıdaki bu güçlüklere ilişkin soruları yanıtlayınız.

- Bir önceki soruda bahsettiğiniz bu güçlükler ne zamandır var?

	1 aydan az	1 - 5 ay	6 - 12 ay	Bir yıldan fazla
	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler çocuğunuzu sıkıntıya sokuyor yada moralini bozuyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler aşağıdaki alanlarda, çocuğunuzun günlük yaşamını etkiliyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
Ev yaşamı	☐	☐	☐	☐
Arkadaş ilişkileri	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sınıf içi öğrenme	☐	☐	☐	☐
Boş zaman etkinlikleri	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler size ya da ailenize zorluk yaşatıyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
	☐	☐	☐	☐

İmza: ....   Tarih: ....

Anne / Baba / Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz):

Yardımınız için teşekkür ederiz

APPENDIX R

STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHERS

OF 4-10-YEAR-OLDS

Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire   T 4-10

For each item, please mark the box for Not True, Somewhat True or Certainly True. It would help us if you answered all items as best you can even if you are not absolutely certain. Please give your answers on the basis of the child's behavior over the last six months or this school year.

Child's name ....   Male/Female

Date of birth...

	Not True	Somewhat True	Certainly True
Considerate of other people's feelings	☐	☐	☐
Restless, overactive, cannot stay still for long	☐	☐	☐
Often complains of headaches, stomach-aches or sickness	☐	☐	☐
Shares readily with other children, for example toys, treats, pencils	☐	☐	☐
Often loses temper	☐	☐	☐
Rather solitary, prefers to play alone	☐	☐	☐
Generally well behaved, usually does what adults request	☐	☐	☐
Many worries or often seems worried	☐	☐	☐
Helpful if someone is hurt, upset or feeling ill	☐	☐	☐
Constantly fidgeting or squirming	☐	☐	☐
Has at least one good friend	☐	☐	☐
Often fights with other children or bullies them	☐	☐	☐
Often unhappy, depressed or tearful	☐	☐	☐
Generally liked by other children	☐	☐	☐
Easily distracted, concentration wanders	☐	☐	☐
Nervous or clingy in new situations, easily loses confidence	☐	☐	☐
Kind to younger children	☐	☐	☐
Often lies or cheats	☐	☐	☐
Picked on or bullied by other children	☐	☐	☐
Often offers to help others (parents, teachers, other children)	☐	☐	☐
Thinks things out before acting	☐	☐	☐
Steals from home, school or elsewhere	☐	☐	☐
Gets along better with adults than with other children	☐	☐	☐
Many fears, easily scared	☐	☐	☐
Good attention span, sees work through to the end	☐	☐	☐

Do you have any other comments or concerns?

Overall, do you think that this child has difficulties in any of the following areas:
emotions, concentration, behavior or being able to get on with other people?

	No	Yes- minor difficulties	Yes- definite difficulties	Yes- severe difficulties
	☐	☐	☐	☐

If you have answered "Yes", please answer the following questions about these difficulties:

• How long have these difficulties been present?

	Less than a month	1-5 months	6-12 months	Over a year
	☐	☐	☐	☐

• Do the difficulties upset or distress the child?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
	☐	☐	☐	☐

• Do the difficulties interfere with the child's everyday life in the following areas?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
PEER RELATIONSHIPS	☐	☐	☐	☐
CLASSROOM LEARNING	☐	☐	☐	☐

• Do the difficulties put a burden on you or the class as a whole?

	Not at all	Only a little	A medium amount	A great deal
	☐	☐	☐	☐

Signature .... Date ....

STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHERS

OF 4-10-YEAR-OLDS (TURKISH)

GÜÇLER VE GÜÇLÜKLER ANKETİ (SDQ-Tur)   Ö[4-17]

Her cümle için, Doğru Değil, Kısmen Doğru, Tamamen Doğru kutularından birini işaretleyiniz. Kesinlikle emin olamasanız ya da size anlamsız görünse de elinizden geldiğince tüm cümleleri yanıtlamanız bize yardımcı olacaktır. Lütfen yanıtlarınızı öğrencinin son 6 ay içindeki davranışlarını göz önüne alarak veriniz.

Öğrencinin Adı: ....   Kız / Erkek

Doğum Tarihi: ....

	Doğru Değil	Kısmen Doğru	Kesinlikle Doğru
Diğer insanların duygularını önemser.	☐	☐	☐
Huzursuz, aşırı hareketli, uzun süre kıpırdamadan duramaz.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça baş ağrısı, karın ağrısı ve bulantıdan yakınır.	☐	☐	☐
Diğer çocuklarla kolayca paylaşır. (yiyecek, oyuncak, kalem v.s.)	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça öfke nöbetleri olur yada aşırı sinirlidir.	☐	☐	☐
Daha çok tek başınadır, yalnız oynama eğilimindedir.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle söz dinler, erişkinlerin isteklerini yapar.	☐	☐	☐
Birçok kaygısı vardır. Sıkça endişeli görünür.	☐	☐	☐
Eğer birisi incinmiş, morali bozulmuş yada kendini kötü hissediyor ise ona yardımcı olur.	☐	☐	☐
Sürekli elleri ayakları kıpır kıpırdır yada oturduğu yerde kıpırdanıp durur.	☐	☐	☐
En az bir yakın arkadaşı vardır.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça diğer çocuklarla kavga eder yada onlarla alay eder.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça mutsuz, kederli yada ağlamaklıdır.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle diğer çocuklar tarafından sevilir.	☐	☐	☐
Dikkati kolayca dağılır. Yoğunlaşmakta güçlük çeker.	☐	☐	☐
Yeni ortamlarda gergin yada huysuzdur. Kendine güvenini kolayca kaybeder.	☐	☐	☐
Kendinden küçükler iyi davranır.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça yalan söyler yada hile yapar.	☐	☐	☐
Diğer çocuklar ona takarlar yada onunla alay ederler.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça başkalarına (anne baba, öğretmen, diğer çocuklar) yardım etmeye istekli olur.	☐	☐	☐
Bir şeyi yapmadan önce düşünür.	☐	☐	☐
Ev, okul yada başka yerlerden çalar.	☐	☐	☐
Erişkinlerle çocuklardan daha iyi geçinir.	☐	☐	☐
Pek çok korkusu var. Kolayca ürker.	☐	☐	☐
Başladığı işi bitirir, dikkat süresi iyidir.	☐	☐	☐

Belirtmek istediğiniz başka düşünce ya da duygunuz var mı?

Lütfen sayfayı çeviriniz - arka sayfada birkaç soru daha var

Genel olarak, bu öğrencinin aşağıdaki alanların birinde ya da daha fazlasında güçlükleri olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz: Duygular, dikkati toplama, davranışlar, başkaları ile geçinebilme?

	Hayır	Evet-Biraz	Evet-Oldukça Ciddi	Evet-Çok Ciddi
	☐	☐	☐	☐

Eğer yanıtınız "evet" ise, lütfen aşağıdaki bu güçlüklere ilişkin soruları yanıtlayınız.

- Bu güçlükler ne zamandır var?

	1 aydan az	1 - 5 ay	6 - 12 ay	Bir yıldan fazla
	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler öğrenciyi sıkıntıya sokuyor yada moralini bozuyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler aşağıdaki alanlarda, öğrencinin günlük yaşamını etkiliyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
Akranları ile ilişkisi	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sınıf içi öğrenme	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Bu güçlükler size ya da sınıfın tümüne zorluk yaşatıyor mu?

	Kesinlikle Hayır	Biraz	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
	☐	☐	☐	☐

İmza: ....   Tarih: ....

Sınıf öğretmeni / Rehberlik öğretmeni / Müdür Yard. / Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz):

Yardımınız için teşekkür ederiz

APPENDIX T

PEARSON CORRELATIONS OF THE TEACHERS' MBQ SORTS WITH THEIR

STUDENTS' PARENTS' VIEWS OF THE SENSITIVE MOTHER

Teacher Code	1st Mother in the class	2nd Mother in the class
T_1	M_1 $.76^{**}$	M_2 $.81^{**}$
T_2	M_3 $.68^{**}$	M_4 $.73^{**}$
T_3	M_5 $.78^{**}$	M_6 $.75^{**}$
T_4	M_7 $.82^{**}$	
T_5	M_8 $.66^{**}$	M_9 $.74^{**}$
T_6	M_{10} $.78^{**}$	M_{11} $.81^{**}$
T_7	M_{12} $.78^{**}$	M_{13} $.82^{**}$
T_8	M_{14} $.59^{**}$	M_{15} $.58^{**}$
T_9	M_{16} $.81^{**}$	M_{17} $.69^{**}$
T_{10}	M_{18} $.76^{**}$	M_{19} $.79^{**}$
T_{11}	M_{20} $.62^{**}$	M_{21} $.81^{**}$
T_{12}	M_{22} $.76^{**}$	M_{23} $.83^{**}$
T_{13}	M_{24} $.72^{**}$	M_{25} $.72^{**}$

Continued

T_{14}	M_{26} $.81^{**}$	M_{27} $.72^{**}$
T_{15}	M_{28} $.82^{**}$	M_{29} $.78^{**}$
T_{16}	M_{30} $.73^{**}$	M_{31} $.77^{**}$
T_{17}	M_{32} $.78^{**}$	M_{33} $.74^{**}$
T_{18}	M_{34} $.75^{**}$	
T_{19}	M_{35} $.75^{**}$	M_{36} $.69^{**}$
T_{20}	M_{37} $.80^{**}$	M_{38} $.80^{**}$
T_{21}	M_{39} $.63^{**}$	M_{40} $.81^{**}$
T_{22}	M_{41} $.71^{**}$	M_{42} $.74^{**}$
T_{23}	M_{43} $.72^{**}$	M_{44} $.78^{**}$
T_{24}	M_{45} $.85^{**}$	M_{46} $.79^{**}$
T_{25}	M_{47} $.80^{**}$	M_{48} $.81^{**}$
T_{26}	M_{49} $.81^{**}$	M_{50} $.68^{**}$
T_{27}	M_{51} $.77^{**}$	

Note: T_1 represents the Teacher1, M_1 represents Mother1. Each line in the table indicates different teacher-mother pairs in the same classroom (M_1 and M_2 for T_1, M_3 and M_4 for T_2,..., M_{49} and M_{50} for T_{26}, M_{51} for T_{27}), $^{**}p < .01$.

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