# ABSTRACT

Parenting is an area of concern in Child and Adolescent Psychology that affects individuals throughout the lifespan. The responsibility of preparing young ones for life in society rests mainly with parents. Hence, humans have influenced the development of certain traits in their offspring. Self-esteem in adolescence could well be one of the outcomes that are affected by the parent-child relationship.

Parenting has been viewed as a complex activity that includes an array of specific behaviour that work individually and collectively to influence child outcomes (Darling, 1999). Baumrind in Darling (1999) identified three main styles of parenting; the authoritarian, authoritative and permissive styles. The latter was further categorized into the neglectful and indulgent styles. According to Smith (2007), authoritative parents do not restrict their children and are not intrusive but balance demandingness with emotional responsiveness. Authoritarian parents set rules that they expect to be rigidly followed and are very demanding and directive but lack emotional responsiveness. Martinez and Garcia (2008) observed that neglectful parents are uninvolved while indulgent parents are overly responsive. Both neglectful and indulgent parents demand very little of their children and set no rules at all.

Parenting styles provide a framework on which parenting is studied in the West where they are believed to originate from. The parenting styles basically fall under two main dimensions of demandingness and responsiveness (Darling, 1999). Demandingness refers to the extent to which parents make control, supervision and 2 maturity demands of their children while responsiveness refers to the extent to which parents display warmth and acceptance to their children, give support as well as reason with them (Martinez and Garcia, 2007). Even though these distinctions of parenting are believed to be Western, they still give a basis for studying parenting the world over. Parents are basic social agents of their children whose relationships in the home lay a foundation for fostering social relationships extending beyond the family setting (Mboya, 1993).

Perceiving parents as role models made the feedback the adolescents received from them affect the way they viewed themselves. It is for this reason that relationships with parents were of interest in understanding behaviour perceived in the home which ultimately impact adolescent outcomes. Self-esteem which Harter (in Bos et al., 2006) defined as the overall evaluation of one’s worth has also been defined by Erikson as, ‘a feeling about the self, which tends to remain constant across life and gives the person a coherent psychological basis for dealing with the demands of social reality,’ in Lener, (2002: 139).

A healthy self-esteem is therefore, important for an individual to function optimally in society. Low self-esteem has been known to co-exist with other undesirable outcomes in most cases. According to Bos et al. (2006), low self-esteem may result in serious adjustment and mental problems in adolescence and even through adulthood. They 3 further assert that self-esteem in childhood and adolescence is related to academic achievement, social functioning and psychopathology. In addition, Khasakhala et al, (2012) noted that depression in adolescence stems from risk factors such as low selfesteem and body image, living in a dysfunctional family, academic problems, stressful life events and low social support among other determinants. Similarly, Wild et al., (2004) established that poor self-esteem was one of the major underlying factors of adolescent risk behaviour. They stated that adolescent deaths were increasingly due to avoidable behaviour interacting with social and environmental factors. In addition, Wilburn and Smith, (2005) linked some mental problems including depression, stress, suicidal ideation and anxiety (affecting at least one in six children) to low self-esteem. Self-esteem may be as a result of internal and external factors.

Internal factors influencing susceptibility to low self-esteem include adolescents’ temperament (Heinonen et al., 2002) whilst external factors include, the perceptions of parenting behaviour adolescents are subjected to. It has been observed that parents who exhibit supportive, approving and responsive behaviour will most likely instill the development of high self-esteem and those parents who are viewed as unresponsive, disapproving and uninterested may foster low self-esteem in their children (Bos et al., 2006). While parenting has been analyzed extensively in the Western world, gaps still remain particularly in the African setting especially in understanding parenting behaviour and how they impact child development. Therefore, this study will focus on Peace and Parenting Project Building Peace and Improving of Parenting Skills for Sustainable Families.

**Chapter One**

# 1.1 Introduction

Peace at home transforms research into practical tools. It starts with evidence-based strategies, from birth through young adulthood, proven to make a difference in your life. Easily digestible and simple to implement, our solutions help you bring more connection, cooperation and joy back into your family. Less stress, more control, and more productivity. Parents come to understand that children’s behavior tells a story that they are not acting out but reaching out.

Parents are among the most important people in the lives of young children from birth, children are learning and rely on mothers and fathers, as well as other caregivers acting in the parenting role, to protect and care for them and to chart a trajectory that promotes their overall well-being. While parents generally are filled with anticipation about their children’s unfolding personalities, many also lack knowledge about how best to provide for them. Becoming a parent is usually a welcomed event, but in some cases, parents’ lives are fraught with problems and uncertainty regarding their ability to ensure their child’s physical, emotional, or economic well-being.

At the same time, this study was fundamentally informed by recognition that the task of ensuring children’s healthy development does not rest solely with parents or families. It lies as well with governments and organizations at the local/community, state, and national levels that provide programs and services to support parents and families. Society benefits socially and economically from providing current and future generations of parents with the support they need to raise healthy and thriving children (Karoly et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2015). In short, when parents and other caregivers are able to support young children, children’s lives are enriched, and society is advantaged by their contributions.

To ensure positive experiences for their children, parents draw on the resources of which they are aware or that are at their immediate disposal.

# 1.2 Background of the Study

Parenting and peace plays a very a vital and supportive role in social, emotional, psychological, and intellectual growth and development of their children (Knappe et al., 2010). Paradoxically, despite the fact that parenting plays a pivotal role in building characters of individuals, families, communities and nations, it has remained a neglected discipline

There is basically no school for parenting. Some on-the job kind of training is the usual approach. Depending on the style of parenting adopted or used, the parenting processes can either impact positively or negatively on the child’s future life. It is a fact that children do not only inherit genetic characteristics from parents, but also through informal interactions, they learn social values. The primary purpose of this article is to explore parenting as a science. Styles and theories of parenting are examined in order to establish how parenting can either contribute to violence or to peace building in communities and across the globe

The Peace and Parenting is a Program for Parents and Teens to help them to cultivate peace, open, caring and trusting relationships between parents and caregivers and their teenagers to live in peaceful environment. The program helps to develop health and positive relationships to try and help parents to protect their adolescents against a variety of negative health, social outcomes and to create lasting peace in the families and communities.

This Project will bring up Positive parenting skills that will help parents to teach their children to have a responsible behavior and assist them towards attaining goals that them and set them for themselves. Raising children especially teenagers can be challenging for most parents, especially today.

The Peace and Parenting Program is targeting at pre-teens and teenagers between the ages of 10 to 19, and their caregivers or biological parents. Many children and youth are cared for by someone who is not their biological mama uncles, older siblings, cousins and foster parents). When we talk about ‘parents’ and ‘parenting’ we mean the caregiver of the teenager, whether that person is their biological parent or not. This includes any person who is a primary caregiver, responsible for the wellbeing of the teenagers

The program has 14 sessions. They all follow the same basic pattern. They build on each other which means that participants can develop and practice new skills around communication, supporting each other and problem-solving skills. The sessions are jointly done together with the joint sessions, in which parents and teens meet together at the same time in the same room, each session has a goal that is expressed in more detail in the core principles. The change social initiative is connected to peace in such a way that Peace starts in the individual as a state of mind a perspective a way of life and all things are molded in the family. In the family we are tested. Our patience and emotions can be pushed to their limits. And through such experience we learn that our connections to each endures beyond differences and conflicts. We learn to love, forgive and empathize with your siblings, parents and children. The hearts grow as does the understanding. In the family they will form values, character and approach to better communication and relationships.

# 1.3 Problem Statement

Relationship between teens or adolescents and parents are consistently interconnected to determine s they life they live and what they achieve in life (Wentzel, 2002).

Furthermore, students’ academic behaviors are related to supportive behavior from parents Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, Dornsbusch, 1992). In addition to how parenting styles relate to the adolescent’s outcomes, it has been established that authoritative parenting is positively related to peace and behavior they achieve. As reported by Guarian (2007).

 Guarian (2007) reported that despite of students’ difference in literacy ability, literacy experience and literacy preparation as the result of their relationship with the parents, parenting style that is authoritative contribute much benefit to enhance students’ ability in literacy as preparation before entering the school.

However, there were contradictory findings in the literature on the effect of parenting styles on achievement and students outcome (Rivers, 2008). Also, due to the evidence that recent parenting styles have not been across the culture and ethnicity (Spera, 2005) and the generalizability among all racial and ethnic group of the impact of parenting on children outcome remains questionable. Then, there exists a need to further examine the influence of parenting styles on students’ specific attitude through parents’ daily interaction with them. In this, reading attitude is concerned because of remembering the note from Briggs (1987) “early experiences were seen as crucial in the development of reading attitude”. Therefore, it is educationally meaningful and necessary to design a study to test the extension of relationship between parenting style and students’ attitude toward leisure time reading.

In addition, this study also examined the extent the relationship between parenting styles and students’ attitude toward leisure reading vary across gender as it has been suggested that parenting styles have different influence on boys and girls (Baumrind, 1978; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

# 1.4 Objectives

The main objective of this study was to determine the positive parenting behavior as well as increasing parenting skills and confidence in raising teenagers in the community:

* Help teenagers to manage their behavior and manage conflicts in families.
* Help families to respond better to crisis situations
* Improve mental health and social support
* Improve problem-solving skills
* Decrease harsh discipline
* Reduce some of the stress that families experience such as financial  Improve knowledge of referral services available in the compound

# 1.5 Challenges and Mitigation Strategies

The project was confined to only Chimwemwe Township of Kitwe because it aimed at ascertaining the involvement of parents in building peace and improving of parenting skills for sustainable families. Due to the descriptive nature of the project, a small sample of 100 respondents was desired. This limited the selection of the sample to only Chimwemwe Township of Kitwe.

The study only covered Chimwemwe Township of Kitwe comprising a sample of 100 respondents. Therefore, generalization of the research findings cannot be guaranteed beyond the immediate study sites and population. This is because the sample was small with regards to the country’s population. Nevertheless, the study findings ought to hold and could be used in situations with similar socio-economic characteristics to the study sites.

**CHAPTER TWO**

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

# Introduction

The review of literature opens with a topic on understanding self-esteem and parenting and will culminate in findings from other studies that explain how parenting behaviour affect self-esteem. Research that has been conducted among Western and European samples in the area of peace and parentingwill be examined and an exploration of studies that have been conducted in other countries globally will be done and eventually this will be narrowed down to the Zambian situation to establish a proper background for this piece of work.

2.1 Peaceful Parenting

 For purposes of this study, No human is always peaceful. Peaceful Parenting just means that we work on ourselves first, so that we aren't taking our own emotions out on our children. Therefore, Peaceful Parenting creates a necessity of a healthy self-esteem throughout life cannot be understated. Not only is a high self-esteem good for psychological well-being but also for physiological health in adolescence. ‘Adolescents’ in our study referred to any individual aged between 16 and 18 years in high school. Only late adolescents were recruited for this study as theorists such as Bos et al, (2006) have indicated that self-esteem in childhood is generally high and unstable in early adolescence due to psychological and physiological changes that occur at that stage.

 Late adolescence is therefore, an appropriate time to measure self-esteem as it is believed to stabilize by then. Researchers have explored self-esteem and how it is affected by other variables. In parenting studies, self-esteem as Coppersmith in Martinez and Garcia, (2007) has observed, is among the traditional measures of adolescent adjustment. Psychologically, self-esteem promotes optimum social adjustment (Laible et al, 2004). Adolescents possessing a high self-esteem are well equipped to stand the pressures of life and function normally in society. Academic success has also been attributed to a high self-esteem (Cripps and Zyromski, 2009). Adolescents who were confident in their abilities performed better at school and faced minor difficulties academically. A high self-esteem has generally been associated with good adolescent outcomes. On the other hand, low self-esteem has been associated with several psychological problems and has been highlighted as being a salient underlying factor predisposing many to various psychological problems. These include anxiety, depression and suicidal ideation (Bos et al, 2006; Byrne, 2000; Muula and Siziya, 2007) among others. Mann et al, (2004) suggested that self-esteem was vital for the mental and social wellbeing of humans as it acts as a protective factor against not only psychological pressures but also, threats to physical health. Self-esteem with a combination of other positive factors was viewed as a buffer against fear and anxiety in studies examining stress and physical ailments particularly, among the chronically ill. It was determined that high levels of self-esteem were associated with the ability to withstand psychological stress and to withstand disease.

In contrast, those with a low self-esteem did not possess the same protective factors and constantly struggled with fear and anxiety in the face of illness. People with low selfesteem were reported to 1magnify negative experiences in their lives and to blame themselves for such occurrences but on the other hand, attributed their successes to good luck and other external factors. Mann et al, (2004) further established associations between low self-esteem and physiological health where it was reported that a low selfesteem made one susceptible to the contraction of HIV/AIDS. This is because people with low self-esteem had the tendency to engage in behavior targeted at receiving attention of and validation from others making it easy for them to engage in risky behavior. Similar concerns were observed by Okorodudu, (2010) in a study to ascertain the etiology of delinquency among Nigerian adolescents. It was observed that adolescents who had a low self-esteem particularly stemming from poor relations within the home, were predisposed to negative associations outside the home as well.

However, it is important to acknowledge that a very high self-esteem can have undesirable outcomes. This is because a very high self-esteem can also predispose one to risky behavior by foster experimentation through early initiation of sexual activity and alcohol intake (Baumeister et al, 2003). While favorable outcomes have been affiliated with a healthy self-esteem, Baumeister et al, (2003) established that sometimes, the effects of self-esteem are overrated. This is because some people who score high on selfesteem measures may actually be narcissistic as most self-esteem measures are selfreports and people have the tendency to state only the good about themselves.

Considering the issues raised above, it is clear to see that self-esteem is not only psychological in nature but has the ability to impact life in general. Generally though, a healthy high self-esteem is what is necessary for one to properly handle the challenges of life. When self-esteem is too low or too high, this poses a problem in the individual. Additionally, a healthy self-esteem has been highlighted to buffer one throughout life in ways that allows them to function normally. Favorable outcomes in adolescence and eventually adulthood have constantly been attributed to a high self-esteem. Low selfesteem has been identified as a factor associated with undesirable outcomes.

2.2 Parenting

For purposes of this study, a parent referred to a principal guardian who provided for and was responsible for the welfare of an adolescent. This particular study also considered the prevalence of AIDS and how it has impacted sub-Saharan African families. Therefore, because of the HIV/AIDS pandemic as well as other factors, a considerable number of children have had to live with guardians that may not be their biological parents (Oburu and Palmerus, 2003). It is common in the African setting and Zambia is no exception, to have the extended family taking care of adolescents who have lost their parents or have parents who are not able to provide for them. Cripps and Zyromski (2009) highlighted parental involvement as an important factor in adolescent psychological well-being. The quality of the time invested in the adolescent-parent relationship determined how the adolescents evaluated themselves. This was because the level of involvement of the parent in the adolescent’s life conveyed to the adolescent how important his or her life was. Parental involvement was portrayed through the parent’s efforts to know their adolescents’ interests, behaviour, activities and other such aspects of their lives which made them feel cared for.

Additionally, Cripps and Zyromski (2009) associated parental support with adolescent self-evaluation implying that an increase in this support resulted in the improvement of adolescents’ self-evaluations.

Similarly, Bester (2007) observed that, support from parents was vital in determining the emotional stability of adolescents. This conclusion was arrived at from a review of studies that showed that high school students who had loving supportive relationships with their parents had strong self-images and had fewer challenges at school. Without this support, adolescents were not equipped enough to deal with the challenges they faced in the school environment. It has been observed that to instill a sense of a healthy self-worth in adolescence, it was important for parents to engage in behaviour that showed support, interest and encouragement. As well as actively participated in their children’s lives, had realistic expectations, were nurturing and influenced the development of their children positively, (Mboya, 1993).

Generally, parents have certain expectations of their children to prepare them for life in society. Parental expectation involves parents communicating their thoughts and feelings about what is required of their adolescents (Mboya 1993). Sometimes these expectations are realistic and other times they are not or may altogether be nonexistent. Expectation can be good to motivate adolescents towards achieving the right goals in life. Noack (1998) asserts that adolescents perceive this pressure from 15 their parents as frustrating their independence. Okorodudu (2010) noted that parental monitoring and control was necessary for the adolescent in the home and without these qualities, adolescents were predisposed to feelings of neglect. However, when parents had unrealistic expectations, they were likely to be perceived as exerting unnecessary pressure on the adolescents to perform beyond their abilities. Parental nurturance portrays concern to the adolescent in the adolescent-parent relationship.

Brendgen et al, (2005) noted that turbulent relationships with parents made a depressed mood highly likely in adolescence. Okorodudu, (2010) observed that attention, love and warmth were vital in parenting in order to create a good environment for proper adolescent adjustment. In addition, Byrne (2000) found that the adolescent-parent relationships are vital in enabling adolescents bear life stressors, particularly so because adolescence is a time of searching for identity. Therefore, parents that nurture their adolescents lighten the burden of some of the processes experienced at this stage which include biological changes and a search for identity. It is important to also note that sometimes, the ability for parents to be available to their children may be hindered by their involvement in economic activities to provide for the financial needs of the family (Okorodudu, 2010). Consequently, the need to provide for the family is often given priority over the need to spend quality time with the children in the home. A number of studies have been conducted in the domain of parenting and constantly cited is Baumrind’s classification of parenting styles.

According to Darling and Steinberg (1993), Baumrind’s authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting 16 styles have been the most extensively researched in the field of parenting. The parenting styles lie along a continuum of responsiveness on one end and demandingness on the other. The authoritative style in cultures of the United States of America has been associated with a balance of responsiveness and demandingness. Parents that have adopted this style display emotional support, grant their children reasonable room for autonomy have good and open communication and set boundaries in the home (Darling and Steinberg, 1993). The authoritative style has been widely accepted as the best parenting style particularly among Western samples. It is believed to foster good adolescent adjustment and therefore recommended highly.

The authoritarian style is characterized by high demandingness and low responsiveness. Parents adopting this style are strict; they make rules that they expect their children to rigidly follow and offer no room for autonomy or negotiation. Unlike the authoritative parent, the authoritarian parent hardly offers any emotional support and is generally harsh towards the child (Darling and Steinberg, 1993). This parenting style has generally been condemned among Western samples and has been associated with poor adolescent outcomes in that part of the world. Permissive parents lack both demandingness and responsiveness. They do not set any rules for their children and do not offer emotional support (Smith, 2007). Later, the permissive style was further categorized into two; the neglectful and indulgent parenting styles (Martinez and Garcia, 2007). The neglectful parenting style describes parents who show very little involvement in the lives of their children. Parents exhibiting this style are generally disengaged and are low on both demandingness and responsiveness. The indulgent parenting style describes parents who are overly responsive to their children but very low on demandingness. Both varieties of the permissive style have been associated with undesirable adolescent outcomes. The authoritarian, authoritative and permissive styles make up the three original parenting styles. They have, however been modified over the years but remain the foundation of a number of studies that seek to understand how and if parenting affects characteristics of children. Baumrind’s constructs of parenting have received widespread recognition in the United States of America and Europe but the same cannot be said of them in Africa though they form a basis for studying parenting in a variety of cultures.

For our study, parental behaviour were preferred over parenting styles because firstly, parental behaviour are specific practices parents engage in while parenting styles are a constellation of attitudes that form individual styles that determine the emotional climate in the home (Darling and Steinberg, 1993). Secondly, parenting styles may not adequately describe parenting in the Zambian setting thus a more specific analysis of parenting through parental behaviour was deemed a better approach for our study.

Hence, if we really want to change the world, let's raise a generation built for peace from the very beginning. Parenting for Peace is a user-friendly scientific roadmap for how to do exactly that... while bringing more joy into family life. There is a thin line between parenting and peace building in families in the community. Parents and teenagers don’t enjoy peace that they are supposed to be enjoying as human beings in the families are supposed to be a good place to start building peace, it’s evident that there no peace in families for example parents apply hard methods of disciplining their children such as beating chasing and denied them food and so on whenever they do something wrong. Families face a lot challenges to raise these children such as war, violence, poverty, corruption these things have heavily impacted the family.

These Children have been robbed of critical lessons and experiences when they lack fathers, mothers, brothers, and sisters. Therefore, the need to start building peace and supporting families that nature and raise their children who are physically and mentally, health, socially responsible individuals. A teenager also comes with its own difficulties.

With changes taking place and different forms pressure’s being face at home, at school and within the community, many young people find themselves not sure what to do or who to talk to as communication and relationships with their parents is not usually good at most of the time hence, they get the wrong advice and end up making decisions that may be harmful to them. Talking to a parent about these difficulties or uncertainties can seem very difficult or intimidating especially when it comes to sharing about issues affecting them. Discussing sensitive issues such as HIV/AIDS has proved difficult for both parents and teenagers which maybe affecting their children

The families have demonstrated that despite these challenges, the family remains resilient. Maybe, it is because their hearts are kept gravitating towards some ideal of a place where they belong, feel loved, and find solace and hope. In fact, no matter how broken, the family continues to be a place of healing, forgiveness and new life. Many parents find themselves dealing with a number of issues that negatively influence their children and are harmful to their health and wellbeing. With the risks of becoming infected with HIV being high amongst young people – especially adolescent girls – this is an area of growing concern amongst many parents.

The world needs peace at all costs and if the world has to reach real peace, we all need to carry on a real war against war, we shall have to begin with children. And if they will grow up in their natural innocence, we won't have the struggle, we won't have to pass fruitless idle resolu-tions, but we shall go from love to love and peace to peace, until at last all the corners of the world are covered with that peace and love for which, consciously or uncon-scious-ly, the whole world is hungering these were the words of. Mahatma Gandhi

The world is hungry for peace. This is far too often, this seems to be just a dream, hopelessly out of reach. Instead of the peaceful life we all want, we have strife in our families, in our communities, and between our nations. We lose hope of anything better, and begin to think that nothing will ever happen or change for the better. The dream of peace remains elusive for everyone in the world today. This is a hard dream to relinquish, because it began at birth. Every infant beam when there is peace in the home, and looks perplexed and cries when there is not. To an infant, conflict is a puzzle. As infants, we not only want everyone to get along, we expect it. We are born expect-ing peace. Even as adults, we are shocked and saddened by every new story of brutality. We still believe that life can and should be peaceful. But we know that each day, in far too many places, there will be conflict, fighting, killing, and even war. If we are all peace lovers in our infancy.

We wake each morning with the hope that things will change, but every day there is another sad and shocking story. We are all bewil-dered, and want to understand what went wrong. It seems to be human nature to focus on the most recent events, not those further back in time. So, we wonder what could have been done on the days before a tragedy that might have prevented it. What last-minute interventions could have made a difference? What could have been done differently at the scene to save lives?

There is nothing wrong with these kinds of questions - they may help to prevent future acts of violence from taking place. But to reduce the potential for violence in general, it may be more constructive to look at the earliest links, not the most recent ones. While there are many factors that can lead to violence, the best preven-tion is always the earliest the one that keeps the first domino from falling. Unfortunately, we often receive misguided advice to use approaches such as spanking, time-out, denial of privileges, and cry-it-out. While this advice may be well-meant, such strate-gies inevitably create anger and frustration in the child, which can build up over time and lead to aggressive behavior. They can also damage the child's self-esteem and hinder their ability to connect with their parents or anyone else.

Without a strong connection to someone they fully trust, a child who is abused, bullied, angry or frus-trated (at home, school, or any-where else) can feel they have nowhere to turn for support and understanding.1 Aggression may then become their only outlet for communi-cating their feelings of anger, power-lessness, and desperation. Adults know that the kindlier they treat a friend the more cooper-ative and helpful that friend will be, because they will be motivated by love, not by fear. It's no different for a child. Parents who relate to their children with patience and empathy model peaceful problem-solving skills that the child can use through-out their life. The most constructive thing we can do to create a peaceful world is to focus on increasing the capacity for empathy within every child. The importance of meeting a child's needs with under-standing and compassion has been recognized by psychologists and researchers for decades. Let's start educating everyone about the critical impor-tance of the early years. Focusing on those years can not only help to prevent future tragedies, but can give our children the best possible start toward a joyful and fulfilling life.

# Theoretical Underpinnings

Understanding the developmental pathways that can influence individuals to consistently choose peaceful behaviors is important to promote a stable culture of peace. Such construct refers to a complex and interdependent set of beliefs, common practices and systems such as governmental policies, economic and justice systems, relations with the environments and social inequalities. Understanding the developmental pathways that can influence individuals to consistently choose peaceful behaviors is important to promote a stable culture of peace. Such construct refers to a complex and interdependent set of beliefs, common practices and systems such as governmental policies, economic and justice systems, relations with the environments and social inequalities. Peace behaviors occur when individuals act to establish and maintain nonviolent, harmonious relationships with others, and previous literature proposed several ways to define the construct. Galtung’s (1996) view emphasizes the difference between negative and positive peace. Integrative Theory of Peace (ITP) according to which peace is at the same time, a psychological, social, political, ethical and spiritual state with expressions in intrapersonal, interpersonal, intergroup and international areas of human life. The ITP comprises four sub- theories:

1. A psychosocial, political and moral condition;
2. A unity-based worldview that is;
3. The prerequisite for creating both a culture of peace and healing; and
4. A comprehensive, integrated and lifelong education process

According to ITP, peace can be reached only when the human need for survival, safety and security has first been achieved. Anderson (2004, 2014) defines it as a condition in which individuals, families, groups, communities and/or nations experience low levels of violence and engage in mutually harmonious relationships. More specifically, he posited that peace can be realized only if peace attitudes are consistently observable across eight domains: intrapersonal peace, interpersonal peace, social peace, civil peace, national peace, international peace, ecological peace and existential peace. The diversity of theoretical approaches to peace constitutes a challenge in terms of measurement and the proposed measures differ in terms of nature, structure and number of subdomains

Individuals who are reared with warmth (Baumrind, 1991), defined as a parenting attitude, characterized by responsiveness, intentional support of children’s individuality and self-regulation, tend to have better emotion regulation skills and ability to reach and maintain emotional closeness (Eisenberg et al., 1998a,1998b;Strayer and Roberts, 2004; Bugental and Grusec, 2006;Morris et al.,2007). Second, parents who functionally use behavioral control (Baumrind, 1991) that is the practice of reliably and appropriately providing awards (attention and praise) and punishments (removal of privileges) will promote positive development and better self-control (Barber, 1996; McDowell et al., 2002).

Barber et al., 2005; Moilanen, 2007). On the contrary, parents who tend to adopt forms of psychological control (i.e. parents who emphasize disappointment in the children’s behaviors and the sacrifices made on their behalf), tend to raise adolescents more prone to low self-esteem, low social competence and high levels of depression, anxiety and externalizing behaviors (Barber and Buehler, 1996;Barber and Olsen, 1997;Eccles et al.,

1997; Garber et al., 1997; Barber and Harmon, 2002; Laible and Carlo, 2004; Moilanen, 2007; Manzeske and Stright, 2009). Third, providing autonomy support –i.e. the tendency to encourage children toward exploration and the development of their own views of the world –promotes the internalization of rules and moral development (Barber, 1996). These facets of parenting style seem to be modestly related to the Five Factor Model of personality’s profiles. The association was investigated in a meta-analytic review showing that all five traits seemed to be related to warmth and behavioral control whereas autonomy support was related to agreeableness and neuroticism (Prinzie et al., 2009).

Another way to classify parenting styles rests on measuring the extent to which parents are able to adopt an authoritative style in rearing their children. Research shows that such style plays an important role in promoting healthy and pro-social development (Baumrind, 1991; Buri, 1991; Barber et al., 2005; Gafor, 2014). These dimensions are investigated by the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991), which includes three subscales:

1. Authoritative style, parents who are both responsive and demanding;
2. Authoritarian style, parents who are highly demanding but not responsive; and
3. Permissive style, parents who are more responsive than demanding.

Among these, the authoritative parenting style seems to predict lower levels of internalizing and externalizing problem behaviors and higher levels of prosocial behaviors in children and adolescents (Eisenberg and Valiente, 2002;Barber et al., 2005;Karmakar, 2017). Furthermore, if both parents adopt such style, its positive outcomes seem to be even greater (Simons and Conger, 2007). Even specific parenting practices seem to have a role in reinforcing prosocial behaviors. More specifically, while material rewards (e.g., money, prizes) seem to foster extrinsic motivation (engaging in behaviour because of factors outside of the individual, such as material rewards) to act prosocially thus increasing the frequency of emotional and public prosocial behaviors and decreasing altruistic and private ones social rewards (e.g., praise) are associated with nearly all forms of prosocial behaviors with factors such as empathic concern, perspective taking and moral reasoning functioning as mediating factors (Davis and Carlo, 2018). This distinction between intrinsically and extrinsically motivated behaviors is quite relevant for the topic at hand because while the former promotes action based on hedonism, conformity and self-interest, the latter produces actions originating from empathy, an orientation toward the task at hand and the other people involved (Boehnke et al., 1989).

In other words, fostering intrinsic motivation toward prosocial behaviors may increase the chance that individuals behave more consistently with peace-related values. Finally, inductive discipline –i.e. helping children understand the impact that their behavior will have on other people (Krevans and Gibbs, 1996) seems to be a contributing factor. Consistency in parenting style between parents seems to play a role in determining the kind of motivation that leads the child toward prosocial behaviors (Karmakar, 2017).

Adolescents with consistent parents seem to show higher levels of intrinsic prosocial motives compared to those who had inconsistent parents.

Furthermore, though adolescents from consistently authoritarian or permissive families show higher levels of extrinsic prosocial motivations, those coming from consistently authoritative families show higher intrinsic prosocial motivations. The author also found that adolescent girls tend to be significantly more empathetic and others-oriented than boys who, in turn, tend to conform more and to be concerned with helping others through heroic actions. The four types of parenting styles are summarized below:



In conclusion, consistently authoritative parents seem to reinforce intrinsically motivated, prosocial behaviours whereas permissive and authoritarian parenting styles constitute risk factors for the development of extrinsically motivated prosocial behaviors as well as antisocial behaviours. Though the works we cited do not explicitly address the link between parenting styles and practices and peace attitudes, the examined variables may be relevant to develop a more consistent and stable attitude toward peace

# Change Theory and How It Was Applied

A theory of change is a valuable tool that child welfare agencies can use to illustrate the pathway from where they are now to where they would like to be. Using a theory of change helps agencies be strategic in planning, achieving, and monitoring change (Farmelo, 2014). It also sets the foundation for later steps in achieving change, particularly in selecting an appropriate intervention. This brief can help child welfare agency leaders and managers ideally working within a team of partners and stakeholders create a theory of change that addresses an identified problem, need, or opportunity for improvement.

Essentially, a theory of change is a roadmap that illustrates the pathway from an identified problem to a long-term outcome in which the problem has been addressed. A theory of change presents a hypothesis for needed changes in behaviors or conditions that must unfold to move from the root cause(s) of a problem to an improved state. It provides direction for how and why change will happen and outlines what needs to occur before the desired outcome can be achieved.

A solid theory of change can serve as a roadmap to guide decisions about a needed intervention to address the root cause(s) of a problem. Ideally, data, critical thinking, and meaningful input from partners and stakeholders contributed to the development of the theory of change. After developing a theory of change, teams can begin identifying interventions that align with the identified pathway of change. In addition, theories of change can serve as powerful tools throughout implementation for communicating about the need for change and garnering support for the selected pathway toward desired outcomes. Finally, the theory of change also will support later evaluation activities as teams and evaluators test hypotheses on how change will lead to specific results and identify needed refinements.

The attached theory of change diagram outlines the steps towards achieving the long term goal of strengthening the protection of children, especially the most vulnerable. It is important to note here that the diagram is a simplified, linear depiction of change – in reality change is complex, and often cyclical and non-linear. However, the diagram allows us to conceptualize the major elements which are necessary for strengthening child protection.



# Methods and Design

 There are different methods of data collection. Data collection breaks down into two methods. The two methods are:

Primary

As the name implies, this is original, first-hand data collected by the data researchers. This process is the initial information gathering step, performed before anyone carries out any further or related research. Primary data results are highly accurate provided the researcher collects the information. However, there’s a downside, as first-hand research is potentially time-consuming and expensive.

Secondary

Secondary data is second-hand data collected by other parties and already having undergone statistical analysis. This data is either information that the researcher has tasked other people to collect or information the researcher has looked up. Simply put, its second-hand information. Although it’s easier and cheaper to obtain than primary information, secondary information raises concerns regarding accuracy and authenticity.

Quantitative data makes up a majority of secondary data.

Specific methods

Let’s get into specifics. Using the primary/secondary methods mentioned above, here is a breakdown of specific techniques.

Primary methods of Collection

Interviews

The researcher asks questions of a large [sampling](https://www.simplilearn.com/types-of-sampling-techniques-article) of people, either by direct interviews or means of mass communication such as by phone or mail. This method is by far the most common means of data gathering.

Projective Technique

Projective data gathering is an indirect interview, used when potential respondents know why they're being asked questions and hesitate to answer. For instance, someone may be reluctant to answer questions about their phone service if a cell phone carrier representative poses the questions. With projective data gathering, the interviewees get an incomplete question, and they must fill in the rest, using their opinions, feelings, and attitudes.

Delphi Technique.

The Oracle at Delphi, according to Greek mythology, was the high priestess of Apollo’s temple, who gave advice, prophecies, and counsel. In the realm of data collection, researchers use the Delphi technique by gathering information from a panel of experts. Each expert answers questions in their field of specialty, and the replies are consolidated into a single opinion.

Focus Groups

Focus groups, like interviews, are a commonly used technique. The group consists of anywhere from a half-dozen to a dozen people, led by a moderator, brought together to discuss the issue.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires are a simple, straightforward data collection method. Respondents get a series of questions, either open or close-ended, related to the matter at hand.

Secondary methods of Collection

Unlike primary data collection, there are no specific collection methods. Instead, since the information has already been collected, the researcher consults various data sources, such as:

* Financial Statements
* Sales Reports
* Retailer/Distributor/Deal Feedback
* Customer Personal Information (e.g., name, address, age, contact info)
* Business Journals
* Government Records (e.g., census, tax records, Social Security info)
* Trade/Business Magazines
* The internet

# Design

Research design is the framework of research methods and techniques chosen by a researcher to conduct a study. The design allows researchers to sharpen the research methods suitable for the subject matter and set up their studies for success.

There are three main types of designs for research:

[Data collection](https://www.questionpro.com/blog/data-collection/)

* Measurement
* Analysis

Research Design Elements

Impactful research usually creates a minimum bias in data and increases trust in the accuracy of collected data. A design that produces the slightest margin of error in experimental research is generally considered the desired outcome. The essential elements are:

* Accurate purpose statement
* Techniques to be implemented for collecting and analyzing research
* The method applied for analyzing collected details
* Type of research methodology
* Probable objections to research
* Settings for the research study
* Timeline
* Measurement of analysis

Characteristics of Research Design

A proper design sets your study up for success. Successful research studies provide insights that are accurate and unbiased. You’ll need to create a [survey](https://www.questionpro.com/blog/surveys/) that meets all of the main characteristics of a design. There are four key characteristics:

Neutrality: When you set up your study, you may have to make assumptions about the data you expect to collect. The results projected in the [research](https://www.questionpro.com/blog/what-is-research/) should be free from bias and neutral. Understand opinions about the final evaluated scores and conclusions from multiple individuals and consider those who agree with the results.

Reliability: With regularly conducted research, the researcher expects similar results every time. You’ll only be able to reach the desired results if your design is reliable. Your plan should indicate how to form research [questions](https://www.questionpro.com/article/survey-question-answer-type.html) to ensure the standard of results.

Validity: There are multiple measuring tools available. However, the only correct measuring tools are those which help a researcher in gauging results according to the objective of the research. The [questionnaire](https://www.questionpro.com/blog/what-is-a-questionnaire/) developed from this design will then be valid.

Generalization: The outcome of your design should apply to a population and not just a restricted [sample.](https://www.questionpro.com/blog/sample/) A generalized method implies that your survey can be conducted on any part of a population with similar accuracy.

Design Types

A researcher must clearly understand the various research design types to select which model to implement for a study. Like research itself, the design of your analysis can be broadly classified into quantitative and qualitative.

[Qualitative research](https://www.questionpro.com/blog/qualitative-research-methods/)

It determines relationships between collected data and observations based on mathematical calculations. Statistical methods can prove or disprove theories related to a naturally existing phenomenon. Researchers rely on qualitative research methods that conclude “why” a particular theory exists and “what” respondents have to say about it.

[Quantitative research](https://www.questionpro.com/blog/quantitative-research/)

It is for cases where statistical conclusions to collect actionable insights are essential. Numbers provide a better perspective for making critical business decisions. Quantitative research methods are necessary for the growth of any organization. Insights drawn from complex numerical data and analysis prove to be highly effective when making decisions about the business’s future.

# LOCATION

James (2017) says that research site involves physically moving to a particular place to gather information related to a research project, it may comprise, a visit to an institution’s library or archives in order to gather the information they may have in relation to research project. Kitwe is the third largest city in terms of infrastructure development and second largest city in terms of size and population in Zambia. With a population of 517,543 Kitwe is one of the most developed commercial and industrial areas in the nation, alongside Ndola and Lusaka. However, the research project was conducted in Chimwemwe Township of the City of Kitwe. The township was established in 1957 and currently has a population of about 14,193, according to the 2010 national census.



**SOURCE: http://www.maplandia.com › Zambia › Copperbelt › Kitwe**

**CHAPTER THREE**

**Interventions and Activities**

# Introduction

This section provides a brief introduction to parenting interventions, including what they are, why they are important, and how they can be used to promote peace and parenting. This memo also provides guidance on the types of parenting interventions that are available, how they could be accessed, as well as the factors that must be considered in deciding when, where and for whom specific parenting interventions should be implemented. The target audience of this memo are organisations providing support and / or guidance to parents.

Parenting interventions refer to any parent or family based education programme that aims to impact children’s emotional, cognitive, behavioural and health-related outcomes through the improvement of parenting skill and the parent-child relationship. Alongside childcare provision, prenatal care, postnatal home visiting and family support policies (e.g. welfare benefits, parental leave and other workplace policies), parenting interventions constitute one of several ways in which parents promote the welfare of children and families. The support offered by parenting interventions is largely practical and psychological in nature, and is generally deployed to improve children’s cognitive and language development, to prevent or reduce child problem behaviours and mental health problems, and to combat harsh parenting and child maltreatment.

There are several ways parents can access parenting Programmes. For instance, parents can be referred to take part in a specific intervention by their family worker, a staff member from the nursery or school that their child attends, or a social services worker. Parents can also self-refer to get access to parenting Programmes, for instance through the family centres delivering services in the local community, sign up to online Programmes, or participate in Programmes run in educational settings.



# Nurturing care framework for evidence-based parenting support

Some parenting interventions are intended for universal rollout to all families; however, evidence suggests that they are most effective in improving child outcomes either when targeted at families with some level of need or vulnerability, or when used to address identified behavioural problems in children. The combination of the targeted approach for high-risk children and their parents, and integrated and multiagency working seems to be the most effective delivery method to reach out to those families who are most in need.

Although cases of extreme child abuse and neglect are relatively rare, lower-level exposure to childhood adversity is fairly common in the general population, and can still be detrimental to child well-being. Additionally, parenting strategies that are neither harsh nor abusive may nevertheless contribute to negative child outcomes. Parenting styles classed as excessively permissive or controlling, for example, have been linked to the development of child and adolescent behaviour problems. Conduct disorder, a prevalent mental health problem that encompasses rule-breaking, defiance, poor impulse control and aggression, is also recognized to stem at least partly from deficits in parenting strategies. The consequences of leaving affected children untreated are costly and include delinquency, criminality, school failure, substance abuse, early pregnancy and various physical and mental illnesses. As a consequence, the range of families who can benefit from parent training and support is remarkably broad. Most of the studies highlight the relative ease of behavioural change and effectiveness of preventive measures when applied in the early years. However, as recent evidence suggests, intervention beyond the childhood age can also be cost-effective and efficient.

Studies clearly indicate that parenting is the single strongest determinant of a child’s future development. Positive parenting, defined as a warm and supportive parent–child relationship, is an essential element of children’s emotional well-being and resilience, and can limit the harm caused by bullying, family poverty, intimate partner violence and even sexual abuse. The use of positive disciplinary techniques by parents has also been linked to a range of positive child outcomes. In contrast to aggressive punishment strategies like hitting and shouting, non-aggressive punishment strategies such as ignoring, removing privileges, or the use of ‘time-out’ are linked to long-term reductions in both conduct disorder and emotional problems.

Parental monitoring and involvement can limit rates of adolescent substance abuse, while parental monitoring of children’s screen time in particular can benefit children’s sleep, social functioning and academic outcomes. Furthermore, authoritative parenting practices such as limit-setting, non-coercive rule reinforcement and the structured promotion of children’s autonomy, are associated with increased physical activity, healthier diets and better academic engagement and performance. As parenting interventions aim to support parents in adopting these specific skills and strategies, and have been shown to do so across a range of cultural contexts, they have the potential to increase the number of children who can reap the many benefits of positive parenting.

THE CONSEQUENCES OF HARSH, NEGLIGENT OR ABUSIVE PARENTING

 Child physical, emotional and sexual abuse and neglect have been implicated in the development of a vast array of negative long-term outcomes, including:

* Chronic physical illnesses such as arthritis, ulcers, migraine, obesity and heart disease;
* Psychological issues such as depression, anxiety, self-injury, suicidal ideation, eating disorders and dissociative disorders;
* Child conduct disorder and problem behaviour;
* Health risk behaviours such as smoking, early or excessive alcohol consumption, illicit substance abuse, sexual risk-taking, early pregnancy and the contraction of sexually transmitted diseases. Negative child outcomes have also long been linked to parenting styles that fall short of meeting the criteria for abuse but can be characterized as ‘harsh’ and ‘inconsistent’. These include:
* Child aggression and callous-unemotional traits;
* Conduct disorder and behaviour problems;
* Delinquency

Types of parenting interventions

The full extent of the relationship between parenting and children’s long-term physical and emotional outcomes has been uncovered relatively recently. However, formal and rigorously tested Programmes that use parenting as a modifier of child behaviour. These pioneer interventions laid the foundation for many contemporary parenting interventions, for instance Incredible Years, Parent-management training are ongoing band a range of other Programmes incorporating emergent research findings and additional theoretical perspectives. The parenting interventions that have since been developed are varied and numerous; however, they share the broad aim of improving children’s health, well-being and behaviour by enhancing the quality of the parenting they receive. This is achieved through parent education and training, and usually involves providing parents with examples of techniques of how to communicate effectively, reduce harsh discipline, set boundaries, model and reinforce good behaviour, and respond consistently and noncoercively to bad behaviour. Many Programmes also focus on cultivating warm parent– child relationships in parallel, primarily through the use of praise, affection and responsiveness to children’s needs.

GUIDANCE TO PARENTS NEED TO CONSIDER WHEN CHOOSING A PARENTING INTERVENTION

Possible parent-specific outcomes include: - increased parenting consistency, efficacy and warmth; - increased use of positive parenting techniques; - reductions in parenting stress, harsh discipline or child abuse and neglect.

Possible child-specific outcomes include: - improved cognitive or language skills, mental health or well-being; - reduced antisocial behaviour, conduct disorder, truancy or delinquency; - prevention or reduction of alcohol, tobacco or illicit substance abuse.

• In cases of extreme child maltreatment, neglect or poverty, parenting interventions may be insufficient to achieve the target outcomes on their own. Child protection system responses aimed at supporting struggling families, which also include appropriate evidence-based parenting Programmes, may be more effective ways to meet these families’ most urgent needs.

## Key Findings

All parents in the sample volunteered to take part in the program and accepted filling in the questionnaires and other forms for evaluation purposes.

## Distribution of and responses to the questionnaire

**\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_**

Questionnaires Distributed Received

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

Parents 50 50

Children 50 50

## Total 100

\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ **Source: Field work (2022**

A random distribution of questionnaires of design (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991) was carried out in a controlled trial developed in the natural social context where the parents and the children usually interact, hence adding ecological validity to the experience.

Factors affecting the internal validity of the design such as participants’ history, maturation and statistical regression toward the mean were controlled with the timing of performance within the program in **14 weeks** and the adulthood developmental stage of the participants. Other factors such as instruments, selection of participants, mortality and pre-test effects were controlled by using similar processes and procedures on the part of the participants. As for external validity or extent the treatment effect can be generalized across populations, settings, treatment variables, and measurement instruments, as previously mentioned, data was gathered from 100 participants. All together provides evidence of this external validity to some extent (Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003). Instrument

In this research, peaceful and parenting questionnaires was the main intervention instrument to promote parenting competences. The evaluation tools it includes were used to collect information to analyze its effectiveness. The questionnaires was a resource for qualified participants to enhance parenting competences of parents having children aged between 10 and 19 years. The contents of the questionnaires are classified into six parenting competence dimensions: **(1)** awareness of children's personal and behavioral characteristics according to their developmental stage and living circumstances; **(2)** emotional self-regulation abilities; **(3**) self-esteem and assertiveness; **(4)** communication strategies; **(5)** strategies to solve conflicts and to negotiate; and **(6)** strategies to establish coherent norms, limits and consequences to promote positive discipline. These dimensions relate to key parenting competences which allow parents to behave effectively in diverse areas when upbringing their children, according to the latter's age and developmental stage: supporting children's involvement in academic tasks, building up housework corresponsability, healthy diet, leisure time and living habits, drugs consumption prevention, school failure and drop-out prevention, among others.

These questionnaires were facilitated in 14 sessions according to the guidelines and resources included in the project. The first and the last sessions are devoted, respectively, to assess parenting competences before (pre-test) and after (post-test) the contents of the project are delivered to parents. It is suggested that each program session will be delivered weekly with a length of two hours.

Although the projected can be applied to parents individually, the group methodology is suggested for parents to be active, participative and ready to share their doubts and parenting experiences. Working in small groups and discussions allow parents to support each other through cooperative learning among equals to find their own answers to their own parenting needs. Cooperative learning among parent’s shows better results when the groups are mixed and heterogeneous in terms of parents’ educational backgrounds, parenting experiences and family circumstances (Stein & Hurd, 2000). These groups bring parents different strengths and approaches to solve doubts and family problems. Slavin et al. (1985), Slavin (2010) and Johnson and Johnson (1990) state that cooperative structures provide a higher quality of reasoning, more intrinsic motivation, more interpersonal attraction, more self-confidence and better solutions to doubts and problems in a shorter amount of time because the learners tend to acquire more information from one another, and therefore, facilitating to develop cognitive, emotional and social competences.

On this learning approach, participants are less prejudicial and have more open attitudes toward each other because all of them want to reach the same objective of contributing to the best of their children. Parents can be demanding learners; they usually know what they should be getting in terms of the knowledge and the skills they need or in which they have an interest of regarding their children. It is only when they realize there are measurable benefits for the effort of participating in a program that they may find the decision to take part in it. Two professionals are recommended; one of them would act as facilitator and the other one as participatory observer to collect data for ongoing evaluation (Kawulich, 2005). This second professional will join the group of parents as a participating member to get a first-hand perspective of the group and a much more indepth understanding of their learning progress, doubts and difficulties.

It is suggested that no more than 16 parents participate at a time in the program in order to guarantee their active involvement, sharing and learning; then small groups of four parents can be built. Together with their parents, children can also take part in the sessions as participants, as well as teachers or other related participants.

Grandparents and other relatives are welcome when the parents cannot participate themselves. Couples are invited to participate together; nevertheless, it is difficult to reach both partners at the same time due to work schedules, parenting tasks, small children, or other related reasons.

It is advised to perform the program with parents who have children in the same evaluative developmental stage: infant education (0–3/3–5 years old), primary education (6–11 years old) and teenagers (12–18 years old). This would bring them the opportunity to share common experiences, doubts and worries about upbringing their children in that particular age. However, the program can also be delivered with parents who have children of different ages by organizing small groups with those who have children in the same evaluative stage. Each group can then learn from the appropriate resources included in questionnaires for each stage. The professionals shall be trained to facilitate these processes. The questionnaires included detailed guidelines for the facilitators to do so, as well as worksheets, pictures and family cases to be simulated and discussed through roleplaying, together with other additional resources.

The following objectives guaranteed effective results: (1) to be permanent in time and institutionally supported, thus being integrated in the everyday tasks of participants; (2) to be interpectoral and community based through coordinating efforts and resources from social services, health and educational systems, local police, business enterprises, NGOs, and any other entities or associations working with children, youth and families in the surrounding community; (3) to be preventive, proactive and competence-education oriented to empower parents both as human beings and as effective parents able to prevent family problems, and to face them constructively avoiding any kind of violence and mistreatment at home; and (4) to be inclusive, integrative and normalized, focusing on families with children of any age, no matter their diverse social circumstances and ethnic background, including parental, mono-parental, adoptive, foster and step families, adolescent parents, families with members with special needs, families affected by violence and maltreatment, drugs consumption, children dropping-out from the school system, or any other kind of personal and family diversity.

Discussion and conclusion

Results obtained from a sample of 50 parents and 50 children participating in the project with children aged from 1 to 18 years, show that after concluding the sessions, participants perceived themselves more competent as parents in all five dimensions analyzed.

They significantly gained emotional self-regulation abilities; thus decreasing the frequency with which they tend to shout at their children and to tell them things they really do not want to say. Scores on indicators of this dimension showed a large effect size. This finding is in accordance with other findings of decreased over reactivity and laxness as an effect of parent training (Sanders, Markie-Dadds, Tully, & Bor, 2000).

This applies to the positive effects of Triple P intervention in women regarding parenting behavior; Bodenmann et al. (2008) reported less over reactive parenting, as well as more satisfaction with one's own parenting, and the perception of fewer burdens with regard to parenting and therefore, connecting these results with self-esteem and assertiveness.

In the present study results show that parent's self-esteem and assertiveness increased significantly after taking part in the program. They developed a more positive perspective on their own life and tended to look more at the positive side when things do not happen as expected regarding their children. This attitude helps them to control guilty feelings when their children have behavioral problems or when the latter fail subjects at school, and to feel more assertive when performing their parenting role. The effect size was low to medium. Leijten, Overbeek, and Janssens (2012) come to similar results when analysing the effect of the parent training program Parents and Children Talking Together (PCTT) for parents with children in the preadolescent period and who experienced parenting difficulties. Their results show that parents increased their display of positive affect and were less dominant toward their children. Censullo (1994) also reported moderate improvement in maternal self-esteem post-intervention in a pilot study conducted to promote greater responsiveness in adolescent parent/infant relationships. Moreover, two meta-analysis on parenting programs carried out by Lundahl et al. (2006) and MacLeod and Nelson (2000) also showed that these programs have a positive effect on parents’ emotional adjustment, attitudes toward children and childrearing behaviors; the programs also proved positive in relation to abuse or neglect among families referred for abuse and/or neglect or at high risk of abuse or neglect.

Parenting communication competences also increased significantly in this study after completing the program. These results were also obtained by Leijten et al. (2012) after analysing the effectiveness of a parent training program in (pre)adolescence through a randomized controlled trial. In the present study parents indicated they know better than before how to say things to other people and to their children without offending them. The frequency of their quarrels, fights and reprimands to their children decreased significantly. The parents also indicated a better control of their tendency to call their children clumsy and disobedient whenever the children misbehave, so as to make them correct themselves. Scores on this dimension showed a small effect size.

Regarding conflict resolution strategies, parents reported that after participating in the program they were doing significantly better on how to reach agreements both with other people and with their children to solve problems. Results also indicated that parents tend to impose significantly less than before in front of their children when the latter disobey. The effect size on this dimension was moderate-large. Letarte et al. (2010) reported similar results after evaluating the effectiveness of the parent training program “Incredible Years” in a child protection service. They found out that parents used less harsh discipline, more praise and incentives, more appropriate discipline and more positive verbal discipline.

In the present study results also indicated that parents significantly gained competences to establish coherent norms, limits and consequences to their children's behavior; hence, helping their children to learn tolerance and self-control toward frustration. Parents admit they apply consequences to their children's misbehavior in a more effective way than before, letting them know which consequences could follow to misbehavior or lack of responsibility and trying to make agreements with them on the matter. Democratic authority is then built into the family. The effect size was large.

They also tend to do less tasks for their children, thus being consistent with their own family rules. By doing so, their children learn to respect the family norms and their parents’ words. These results are in line with those of Bodenmann et al. (2008), who remark that the Triple P group program is effective to reduce dysfunctional child behavior. In the present study the effect of the program on children's behavior was not analyzed; however, the results are promising given that according to Gershater-Molko, Lutzker, and Sherman (2002) and Herbert (2000), improving parenting practices, parent– child conflict relationships might decrease as well as abuse or neglect practices.

In conclusion, the contextual, methodological and institutional processes described in this paper to promote positive parenting through the Program-Guide led parents with children from 1 to 18 years old who participated in one of several editions of the program to significantly improve their parenting competences and practices.

Evidence was gathered of the effectiveness of the program when delivered by trained professionals from social services and education with groups of parents with children of diverse developmental stages. Thus, sharing similar conclusions with Coren, Barlow, and Stewart-Brown (2003), who after revising 14 studies on parenting programs for teenage parents, claimed that these programs were effective in improving a range of outcomes for both teenage parents and their infants, such as maternal sensitivity, identity, selfconfidence and the infants’ responsiveness to their parents.

As Dretzke et al. (2005) and McCart, Priester, Davies, and Azen (2006) pointed out after conducting several meta-analyses, parent training is one of the most promising types of interventions aimed at promoting children's psychosocial development and at reducing child problem behavior. These authors also claimed that this intervention is generally cost-effective in doing so. Therefore, prevention efforts through delivering parenting programs should focus on strengthening both the parenting and partner’s relationships in order to promote healthy family functioning and child well-being.

Strengths of the Study, Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

One strength of this study is that it is multi-setting, as the program was delivered in 26 municipalities. The program obtained promising results when delivered in natural contexts. This study is the only one conducted in the whole region of Asturias (Spain) to test the effectiveness of a parent training program focused on emotional competences and delivered by trained professionals from social services and education in their own real professional contexts. The pre-test and post-test design to check the program effectiveness is new in the social service context in Asturias, as well as the processes implemented to gain the intervention effects.

Together with these strengths, however, there is also the limitation on identifying the impact of the program under controlled conditions with control groups.

The study is multi-informant considering that the data was gathered from 259 parents and 52 in-service professionals who worked with those parents in their respective municipalities. The participating parents have diverse socio-demographic characteristics and educational backgrounds; in this study the categories of the parents’ literacy level were balanced in the sample to introduce this as a moderator variable.

Families at-risk and not-at-risk participated in the program sharing the same group, thus promoting inclusion and normalization on family relations. Connected with this strength is, however, the constraint that it is not possible to directly generalize the findings of this study to the population at large; nevertheless, as an additional strength, it can be noted that the size of the participating parents in this study is quite large compared with other studies on parenting training (Bodenmann et al., 2008, Leijten et al., 2012, Letarte et al., 2010). The study is also multi-method design combining quantitative and qualitative procedures to gather and to analyze information. However, qualitative results were not included in this paper due to space restrictions.

An additional strength is the integrated focus of the project intervention on parents’ personal and emotional empowerment for them to feel able to better understand themselves, their own emotions and reactions, as well as those of their children. These competences helped parents to communicate assertively with their children, to solve problems in a constructive way and to discipline them positively. The clear structure, methodology, guidelines and resources of the program also contributed to this end. Most families who took part in the program had children who had not yet developed clinicallevel problem behavior, thus introducing a family preventive approach in the social services of Asturias and in the daily work of its professionals.

Finally, other strength is the inter-sectorial coordination among the Observatory on Childhood and Adolescence, the author of the Program-Guide, the university research team and the local professionals to maintain the integrity and effectiveness of the program to support parents for positive parenting.

Regarding limitations and suggestions for further research, the present study focused on analyzing only short-term effects of the program; thus, taking into account larger-term effects will add more value to the experience. Also, it would be worth running future studies devoted to check the effect of the parenting program on children's behavior in different settings such as home, school or any other related contexts. On the other hand, the study did not examine for whom the Program-Guide works best in terms of family diversity characteristics, as for example, children's age, family typology, families with various educational, professional or ethnic backgrounds or different types of child problem behavior. Only the parents’ educational level was controlled to some extent as a possible moderator variable. Thus, further analysis can be done on the matter. Moreover, future studies with control groups should be addressed in order to better control the effects of the program on the parents’ parenting competences.

Although difficult, it would be interesting to check the extent to which the collaboration among researchers, professionals and local institutions contributed to the positive results of this experience. This would help to build more consciousness of the need to include program evaluation designs when delivering parenting programs; thus, providing further evidence of results.

**Chapter Four**

## General Conclusion

In sum, the existing evidence highlights the importance of parenting approaches for the development of children and adolescents across various domains. Warm parenting that provides children with age-appropriate autonomy and structure is key for a healthy and prosperous development of children. The parenting approach adopted by parents but also its effect varies and research pointed to various contextual factors (e.g. culture, socioeconomic factors, support within the community and family) and individual factors (e.g. gender, personality and health condition of children and parents) explaining these variations. A systematic consideration of such factors not only sharpens the scientific understanding of parenting and its impact but also helps improving family policies and support (Mitchell, 2012[262]). To inform policy making, practice and science, however, research needs to increase efforts to:

* Close research gaps, elaborate the practical implication of basic parenting research, and explore the generalizability of findings across cultures, developmental domains and all key figures involved in raising a child.
* Strengthen the methodological soundness and diversity of studies as well as the measurement of parenting approaches.
* Improve the conceptual clarity of parenting concepts, the comparability of their operationalization, and the scientific understanding of how different concepts relate to each other.

## Sustainability plan

Sustainability can be defined in different ways, but essentially it is building the momentum needed to maintain an initiative while continuing to develop funding strategies, relationships, practices, procedures, and services that will last. Sustained level of services to children, youth, and families requires strategic program planning and the ability to adapt to changes over time. Use the resources listed in “Spotlight On” and below to learn more about sustainability planning for child welfare and other social service organization.

With sustainable parenting, there’s an emphasis on teaching children to be eco-conscious as well as making mindful decisions based on environmental impact.

Basically, you seek to raise kids that love and care about the environment which can be done in a number of ways.



**Non-modifiable and modifiable determinants of parenting and child outcomes of Sustainability plan**

## Recommendations / Implications for Policy

This paper provided a structured overview of the existing parenting literature with some limitations (e.g. scoping instead of a systematic, comprehensive review). Additionally, the reviewed parenting literature revealed important research gaps and methodological issues that future research has to address:

1. Closing pressing research gaps: Families are increasing in diversity (e.g. living apart together families, commuter families, same-sex parents, multi-ethnic families, more custodial, single fathers) and technology has changed family lives substantially. These developments are still insufficiently addressed in parenting research. There is also a need for more research on the impact of intensive parenting, especially on concerted cultivation and tiger parenting. Moreover, a greater balanced attention on need-supportive and need-thwarting parenting behaviours across all dimensions is required (Bornstein, 2019; Skinner, Johnson and Snyder, 2005).
2. Elaborating on the practical implications of basic parenting research: The implications of basic parenting research for the development, evaluation, and dissemination of family support Programmes should be explored (Power et al., 2013). For example, more work is needed in order to understand what constitutes an effective culturally-sensitive parenting programme regarding recruitment, retention and ultimately impact on parenting skills and child outcomes.
3. Exploring the generalizability of findings and understanding cultural specificities: It should be noted that research has traditionally focused on Western societies and Caucasian families (Davids, Roman and Leach, 2016). Research on parenting in other countries and ethnicities is growing (e.g. Asian countries and ethnic groups) but still limited, especially for certain regions and ethnic minorities (e.g. countries and ethnic groups from Middle East and Africa). Comparative studies such as cross-country comparisons or meta-studies help understanding the generalizability and cultural specificities of parenting and its effects. Yet, meta-studies need to increase efforts to include studies in non-Western countries, which may not always be published in English. Furthermore, cross-country studies require validated measurement instruments that work equally well across cultural groups (Bornstein, 2012; Power et al., 2013.
4. Confronting parenting myths and bridging the public disconnect: There is a need to decrease the gap between concepts and positions on parenting advertised in public (e.g. social media, parent help books), and concepts of parenting supported by empirical research (Schofield, Holst and Murphy, 2016[253]). Researchers should, on the one hand, try to confront parenting myths and misinformation using channels and language that reach parents and professionals.
5. Accumulating evidence on intensive parenting and across developmental domains: Several systematic reviews exist but focus on specific outcomes. Yet, contrasting the relative benefits and harms across different domains would be important to avoid false conclusions. The scoping in this paper summarized the developmental outcomes across domains but search and synthesis were neither systematic nor comprehensive. Metaanalyses, which can inform about the magnitude of effects and moderating factors (e.g. culture, individual attributes), are scarce. Moreover, meta-studies cover insufficiently the evidence on intensive parenting, though the scoping exercise identified several relevant studies and a systematic review and quality appraisal of studies would be valuable for research.
6. Sharpening the clarity of concepts, their theoretical underpinning and operationalization: Parenting concepts lack sufficient clarity and, unsurprisingly, operationalization varies substantially. This is particularly obvious for the more recent parenting concepts (e.g. helicopter parenting, concerted cultivation, tiger parenting and Unclassified over parenting), though classic parenting concepts also lack precision, e.g. behavioural control (Bornstein, 2019. Research on styles and dimensions are both valuable as they serve different purposes. Yet, the line between the two gets blurred.

Equally misleading are (meta-) studies that build composite scores of “negative and positive parenting styles”, “unsupportive parenting” and “adaptive parenting” across different parenting behaviours (e.g. Lei et al., (2018); Chen et al., (2018), based on a presumption of their developmental effects. In light of the cultural and further variations discussed here, this seems not advisable. Structured overviews of the different parenting concepts and how they relate to each other are rare but render the field a great service (e.g. Skinner, Johnson and Snyder (2005); Soenens and Beyers, 2012).

1. Understanding the additive impact of multiple caretakers: Most parenting research still focuses on mothers. Research on fathers has grown but little is known about parenting influences beyond the parent-child dyad and outside of the household (Power et al., 2013). In many countries, children spend substantial amounts of time with caregivers other than parents (e.g. teachers, siblings, other relatives and neighbours) (Bornstein, 2012). Equally important, many children experience different family living arrangement throughout their childhood (Miho and Thévenon, 2020). Future research should take an

“enlarged family systems perspective” (Bornstein, 2012, p. 218): How do the ‘‘parenting’’ approaches of all caretakers involved in raising a child impact a child’s development? This should include an exploration of how parenting approaches beyond the home influence child-parent interactions and child outcomes (Pellerin, 2005); Power et al., 2013[31]).

1. Further discovering contextual factors that explain parenting and its differential impact: Sections 2 and 3 have exemplified how a consideration of contextual and individual factors has improved the understanding of both, parenting and its effects (Smetana, 2017). Studies on parenting trends and factors relating to the wider context (e.g. factors relating to labour market and educational systems) are extremely rare but particularly valuable for policy-makers. Sometimes, however, they use rather crude parenting measures (e.g. parenting goals as a proxy for parenting style) (Doepke and Zilibotti, 2014)
2. Designing new measurement approaches and tools: Reliable, valid and comparable short-forms of well-established parenting instruments are needed for large international or national surveys where parenting is not the main focus. Short-forms would also be valuable for screenings to identify parents for targeted programmes and evaluations of parenting-related interventions. Emerging electronic and web-based technologies enable a range of new assessment methods. Smartphones and tablets, for example, allow for repeated, real-time collection of audio and video data in the home environment. Such

“ecological momentary assessments” (Power et al., 2013,) can reduce recall bias and maximize practicability and ecological validity of measurements. Having practicable online and offline tools available would also allow practitioners and parents to conduct formative assessments and reflect on the progress in parenting programmes (Sanders, 1999[234]; Caron, Bernard and Dozier, 2018).

1. Producing more long-term longitudinal evidence and experimental evidence: A lot of evidence on parenting is cross-sectional in nature and the existing longitudinal evidence is often restricted in length. Moreover, experimental research is missing but could help understand the directions of effects (Thirlwall and Creswell, 2010); Slep and O’Leary, 1998[258]). Experimental and observational research also enables to explore how parenting approach is influenced by situational cues, states and decisions (Thus far, research on the flexibility in parenting approach (i.e. how parents adapt their approach to varying situational demands) is insufficient.
2. Further improving the methodological quality of studies: Further aspects of design and methodology of existing research could be improved that have not been mentioned so far. First of all, sample sizes varied considerably for studies and was rather small in some cases. The review also showed that contextual and individual covariates need to be considered in parenting research, which is not always the case. Information on parenting approaches stems mostly from child or parent questionnaires. A triangulations of data collected through multiple methods (questionnaires, observations, journals) and sources would increase the validity of results (Power et al., 2013). Research would also benefit from implementing more high-quality qualitative studies and mixed-method studies to explore the beliefs, motives and cultural norms underlying parenting approaches and acculturation processes of immigrant families (Barker and Cornwell, 2019); Salami et al., (2017)

**References**

Arcus et al., (1993). *Handbook of family life education*. *The practice of family life*

 *Education*. London: Sage Publications.

Bodenmann et al., (2008). *The efficacy of the Triple P-Positive Parenting Program in Improving parenting and child behavior: A comparison with two other treatment conditions*

Behaviour Research and Therapy, 46 (2008), pp. 411-427

Baumrind D. (1967). *Child care practices anteceding three patterns of preschool Behavior.* *Genet Psychol Monogr*. 75(1):43-88.

Maccoby EE, (1983). *Socialization in the Context of the Family: Parent-Child Interaction*. In: *Handbook of Child Psychology*. Socialization, Personality, and Social Development.

Pong S ling, (2009). *Authoritarian Parenting and Asian Adolescent School Performance*: *International Journal of Behavioral Development*. Published online November 6, 62-72.

Darling N, (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*. 113(39):487-496.

Baumrind D. (2012). Differentiating between Confrontive and Coercive Kinds of

 Parental Power-Assertive Disciplinary Practices. *Human Development*. Published online: 35-51.

.

Miklikowska M, (2011). Democracy begins at home: Democratic parenting and

Adolescents’ support for democratic values. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*. Published online June 28,541-557.

Steinberg L, (1992). Darling N. Impact of Parenting Practices on Adolescent

Achievement: Authoritative Parenting, School Involvement, and Encouragement to Succeed. *Child Development*. Published online October: 1266.

Spera C. (2005). A Review of the Relationship among Parenting Practices, Parenting Styles, and Adolescent School Achievement. *Educ Psychol Rev*. 125-146.

Nyarko K. (2011). The influence of authoritative parenting style on adolescents’ Academic achievement. *AJSMS*. 278-282.

Strage A, (1999). Authoritative parenting and college students’ academic adjustment and success. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. Published online 146-156.

McClun LA, (1998). Relationship of perceived parenting styles, locus of control

Orientation, and self-concept among junior high age students. *Psychol Schs*. Pp 390.

Rankin Williams L,(2009). Impact of Behavioral Inhibition and Parenting Style on

Internalizing and Externalizing Problems from Early

Childhood through Adolescence. *J Abnorm Child Psychol*.:1063-1075.

Rothrauff TC, (2009). Remembered Parenting Styles and Adjustment in Middle and Late Adulthood. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*. Published online January 1, 137-146.

Newman K, (2008). Relationships between parenting styles and risk behaviors in adolescent health: an integrative literature review. *Rev Latino-Am Enfermagem*. 142-150.

Zeinali A,(2011). The mediational pathway among parenting styles, attachment styles and self-regulation with addiction susceptibility of adolescents. *J Res Med Sci*. 16(9):1105-1121.

Jackson C, (1999). The Authoritative Parenting Index: Predicting Health Risk Behaviors Among Children and Adolescents. *Health Educ Behav*.

319-337.

Smith JD, (1914). Coercive family process and early-onset conduct problems from age 2 to school entry. *Dev Psychopathology*. Published online April 2,:917-932.

Martin G, (1994). Parental bonding and vulnerability to adolescent suicide. *Acta Psychiatr Scand*. 246-254.

Baumrind D. (1991). The Influence of Parenting Style on Adolescent Competence and Substance Use. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*.56-95.

Wolfradt U, (2003). Perceived parenting styles, depersonalization, anxiety and

 Coping Behaviour in adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences*. Published online February 2003:521-532.

Steinberg L, (1992). Ethnic differences in adolescent achievement: An ecological Perspective. *American Psychologist*. 47(6):723-729.

Chao RK. (1994). Beyond Parental Control and Authoritarian Parenting Style:

Understanding Chinese Parenting Through the Cultural Notion of Training. *Child Development*. Published online August 1994:1111.

Garcia F, Gracia E. Is always authoritative the optimum parenting style? Evidence from Spanish families. *Adolescence*. 2009;44(132):101.

Chao RK. The Parenting of Immigrant Chinese and European American Mothers. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*. Published online March 2000:233-248.

Chen X, Dong Q, Zhou H. Authoritative and Authoritarian Parenting Practices and Social and School Performance in Chinese Children. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*. Published online November 1997:855-873.

Steinberg L, Lamborn SD, Dornbusch SM, Darling N. Impact of Parenting Practices on Adolescent Achievement: Authoritative Parenting, School Involvement, and

Encouragement to Succeed. *Child Development*. Published online October 1992:1266.

Pratt MW, Kerig P, Cowan PA, Cowan CP. Mothers and fathers teaching 3-yearolds: Authoritative parenting and adult scaffolding of young children’s learning. *Developmental Psychology*. Published online November 1988:832-839.

Polderman TJC, Benyamin B, de Leeuw CA, et al. Meta-analysis of the heritability of human traits based on fifty years of twin studies. *Nat Genet*. Published online May 18, 2015:702-709.

Landry SH, (2006). Responsive parenting: Establishing early foundations for social,

 Communication, and independent problem-solving

 Skills. *Developmental Psychology*. Published online July: 627-642.

Locke JY, (2012). Can a Parent Do Too Much for Their Child? An Examination By Parenting Professionals of the Concept of Overparenting. *Aust j guid couns*.249-265.

LeMoyne T, (2011). DOES “HOVERING” MATTER? HELICOPTER PARENTING AND ITS EFFECT ON WELL-

BEING. *Sociological Spectrum*. 399-418.

Odenweller KG, (2014). K. Investigating Helicopter Parenting, Family

Environments, and Relational Outcomes for

Millennials. *Communication Studies*. Published online July 28, 07-425.

Kim SY, (2013). Does “tiger parenting” exist? Parenting profiles of Chinese Americans and adolescent developmental outcomes. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*. 7-18.

Pimentel D. (2012). Criminal Child Neglect and the Free Range Kid: Is Overprotective Parenting the New Standard of Care. *Utah Law Review*. 2012; (947).