

***EFFECTS OF SPOUSAL ABUSE ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL
WELL-BEING OF HIS PARTNER AND EVALUATION OF
MARITAL SATISFACTION AND ADJUSTMENT***

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in
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by

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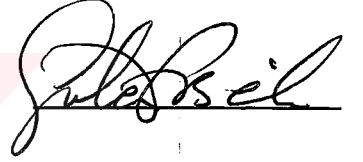
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ABSTRACT

**Effects of Spousal Abuse on the Psychological Well-being of His Partner and
Evaluation of Marital Satisfaction and Adjustment**

by

Sibel Tümer Özkan

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of spousal abuse on the psychological well-being, evaluation of marital adjustment and satisfaction of abused women.

The sample consisted of 30 women who applied to the Şişli Metropolitan Municipality Shelter to escape from spousal abuse. The measurement instruments were the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, a structured interview, the Coopersmith Inventory, the Semantic Differential Scale and Symptom Check List-Revised.

It was hypothesized that women who suffer verbal, physical and sexual abuse, compared to women who suffer only verbal and physical abuse, have more significant psychological disturbances. Also, women who experience verbal, physical and sexual abuse, compared to women who suffer from verbal and physical abuse, were hypothesized to have lower dyadic adjustment. Finally, it was also hypothesized that women who have worse economic conditions compared to the ones who have better conditions give a lower evaluation of their marriages.

The findings revealed that type of abuse was a partially significant factor affecting women's psychological well-being and it was a significant factor affecting women's marital adjustment. Economic conditions of the women were found to be a significant factor on their marital satisfaction.

KISA ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı eş tacizinin, tacize uğramış kadınların ruh sağlığı, evlilikte uyum ve tatminin değerlendirilmesi üzerindeki etkilerinin araştırılmasıdır.

Örnekleme, Şişli Belediyesi Sığınma Evi'ne koca tacizinden kaçmak amacıyla başvuran 30 kadından oluşturulmuştur.

İlk olarak sözel, fiziksel ve cinsel eş tacizine uğrayan kadınların sadece sözel ve fiziksel tacize uğrayanlardan daha fazla psikolojik yakınmaları olacağı varsayılmıştır. Ayrıca sözel, fiziksel ve cinsel tacize uğramış kadınların diğerlerine oranla daha düşük eş uyumu göstereceği varsayılmıştır. Son olarak kötü ekonomik şartları olan kadınların diğerlerine oranla eş tatmininin daha düşük olacağı varsayılmıştır.

Araştırmanın bulguları taciz tipinin kadınların psikolojik durumlarında kısmi etkisi olduğunu gösterirken, eş uyumunu belirli bir şekilde etkileyen bir faktör olduğunu açığa çıkarmıştır. Son olarak kadınların içinde bulunduğu ekonomik şartların eş tatminini belirli şekilde etkilediği ortaya çıkmıştır.

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INTRODUCTION

I

DEFINITION OF SPOUSE ABUSE

Before discussing family violence, it would be convenient to define violence itself. Violence is defined as a continuum of behaviors from coercion and control enforced through the explicit threat of violence lie further along the continuum (Goodman, 1993). Straus (1978) defined abuse as an intentional act or one that is perceived as intentional to physically injure another person. Violence as an aggressive behavior tends to appear in this order: direct physical aggression, direct verbal aggression and indirect aggression (Bjorkqvist, 1994). Physical violence is carried out with the intention of or is perceived as having the intention of physically hurting another person, ranging from slight pain to murder (Steinmetz, 1986). Violence is a global epidemic. Women seem to be primary victims of that violence (Mednick, 1993).

One of the main problems in child abuse, wife abuse, and family violence studies is that the concepts of "abuse" and "violence" are not equivalent. Gelles (1980), in a review study, noted that while definitions of violence refer to all forms of physical aggression, abuse definitions include both physical aggression that can cause injury and nonphysical, maltreatment acts that cause harm.

Kalmuss (1984) used the term "severe aggression" instead of "abuse" because defining abuse in terms of a variety of acts such as a "slap" and "beating someone with a fist" defuses the meaning of the concept. She referred to severe aggression as physical aggression which carries a high risk of serious injury to the victim.

The family, according to Goodrich et al. (1988) expresses society's values, expectations, roles, and stereotypes. In a broad definition,

"family violence refers to behavior that involves the direct use of physical aggression against other household members which is against their will and detrimental to their growth potential. This includes behaviors of homicide, beatings and forced sex" (Lystad, 1986).

Wife battering is an intimate violence. Although most intimate violence can be qualified as crime, historically violence within the family has been kept a secret and opposed to public disclosure.

Violence against women has different subtypes depending on the developmental stage of the victim, duration of the abuse, and severity of impact (Koss, 1990). Within the patriarchal society, violence against women as an acceptable behavior in the subordination, domination and control of women has existed for centuries (Cannon and Sparks, 1989). Scott (1974) pointed out that in every marriage when the differences in individual needs between partners exceed their capacities to adapt, mental conflict among them is always a possibility. Furthermore, Goldner et al. (1990) describe violence as a strategy of intimidation in the service of male domination. For them, male violence is both willful and impulse ridden. Thus it is a conscious strategy of control. However, Scott (1974) prefers to assume that wife battering might best be thought of as a failure of adaptation. When a wife is battered,

both partners and their setting must be examined in terms of battering in line with other social deviance.

Romkens (in press) suggests that there is a need to differentiate between unilateral and mutual violence. When the husband structurally starts the use of violence toward his wife who does not structurally respond with defensive violence of comparable severity, it is considered as unilateral violence. When women regularly use offensive or defensive violence with comparable frequency and severity to the husband's violence, it is considered as mutual violence. He also points out the intermittent nature of abuse. Non-violent periods of marriage interchange with violent periods which can be a characteristic of the violence cycle.

In the literature a major assumption is that there is a distinct difference between physical and nonphysical violence. However, both of them are examined only in terms of their relationship to actual physical attack (Richard et al., 1981). Moreover, there is debate on the inadequacy of the current mental health classification system for the battered women syndrome though Situationally Based Anxiety Disorder and Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) come closest to describing battered women who have repeatedly experienced physical, sexual and/or serious psychological abuse (Walker, 1991).

This thesis answers that wife abuse consists of physical violence as well as non-physical maltreatment acts. Accordingly, the study focuses on physical, sexual and psychological abuse.

II***THEORETICAL BASES FOR UNDERSTANDING SPOUSE ABUSE******AND******EMPIRICAL FINDINGS***

Gelles (1980) defined three general theoretical levels of analysis of family violence. The first one is the psychiatric model which focuses on the offender's personality characteristics and also includes theoretical approaches which link mental illness, alcohol and drug abuse, and other intra-individual phenomena to acts of family violence. The second one is the social or psychological model which proposes that violence and abuse can be understood by examination of the external environmental factors that impact on the family. Learning theory, frustration-aggression theory, exchange theory, attribution theory are theories of the social-psychological model. The final one is the sociocultural model which provides a macro-level of analysis of family violence. The model stresses socially structured inequality, cultural attitudes, and norms about violence and family relations.

In this part of the literature review Walker's (1986) categorization of the major theories which explain spouse abuse was used. The theories can be classified in three major categories: feminist-political, sociocultural, and psychological.

Feminist-political Approaches

Probably the first question in the field of domestic abuse is the role of women in battering. Feminists insist that women are primarily the victims of battering whereas the more systemic point of view suggests that women's violence plays a part in

contributing to the battering and also eliciting violence (Gondolf, 1988). According to feminist-political theories men beat women to gain the power to which they feel entitled, because the structure of a patriarchal society teaches men to be dominant, does not permit equality to women, and is structured to oppress women (Walker, 1986; Goodrich et al., 1988). The feminist perspective states that the inequality of power between women and men leads to the continuation of wife abuse in society. Browne and Williams (1993) explain spouse abuse as male responses to women's autonomy in intimate relationships. Thus they refer to family violence as a societal problem rather than one of individual pathology. Therefore changes toward a more egalitarian society are believed to eradicate such violent behavior.

In feminist theory violence is seen as an expression of power. Therefore there is a pecking order in the family violence pattern: husbands have power over their wives (McCall and Shields, 1986). With this point of view Swift (1987) stresses women have not been viewed as needing to exercise power in patriarchal society. In fact they exercise power in the service of others. Women use power to promote the growth and development of their children and their mates. Traditionally, women support their husband's goals, autonomy and success outside the home. Swift named this issue maternal thinking. Because of maternal thinking, a woman is unprepared to defend herself against attack from a significant other. The person who is used to focusing attention on the feelings of others does not understand personal risk as separate from the attacker's risk. The maternal thinker is unable to transfer her attention from other to self, needed to mobilize energy for self defense. Mills (1985), after a series of interviews with battered women, notes a loss of identity and a loss of observing self over time. Many of the women interviewed had few resources to stop the violence or to restore their sense of self.

Goodrich et al.(1988) point out that the family serves as a fundamental source for the transmission of the norms and values of the culture. Moreover, traditionally it is viewed as the domain of women. Finally, individuals learn the meaning of being male or female in the family. From the gender perspective, sex is a biological category while gender is a social construct, referring to maleness and femaleness. According to Goodrich et al., the human being is taught to see gender as deeply rooted in human nature rather than as a social construct due to the training methods of culture. They define the underlying assumptions of the gender construct as; "Men believe they should always have the privilege and right to control women's lives; Women believe they are responsible for whatever goes wrong in a human relationship; women also believe men are essential for their well-being essential rather than merely desirable or enjoyable". Thus their arguments about married couples is that gender role stereotyping often results in partners resenting each other precisely because they fulfill their gender roles.

Similarly, the socialist-feminist approach suggests the sexual division of labor as a starting point of wife battering. The most salient aspect of this separation, according to the socialist-feminist approach, is that women are nearly always primary caretakers of children and a good marriage is always the wife's responsibility. Inadequate housework, husband or child care, and sex are the most common reasons used to rationalize wife beating (Stangee, 1985).

With a similar perspective Goldner et al. (1990) stress the importance of gender identity development in respect to spouse abuse. They refer to personhood and gender identity development as co-evolving and co-determining each other. Due to the primary relationship with the mother and the absence of an equivalently substantial relationship with the father in the early life of the human being, learning to be

masculine means learning to be not feminine. On the other hand, a woman's identity develops within a feminine relational context. So it can be said that the girl remains part of the mother's psychological space. A woman's empathic orientation, and difficulty of separating herself from relationships are caused by this type of formative mother-daughter bonding. For men using violence is seen as a pseudo-solution to feelings of dependency, fear, sadness and so on. These feelings do not fit masculine gender premises. Mostly, before the violent act, men generally describe a conflictual struggle between "unmanly feelings and macho feelings". In a study, Gondolf and Hanneken (1987) suggested from profile findings of batterers that a "failed macho complex" involves the batterers' tendency to see themselves as having fallen short of being ideal men. Thus violent attempts to control or dominate women may be used to overcompensate the feelings of inadequacy experienced by men.

In contrast, for Bjorkqvist (1994), females because of their physical weakness, have to develop other ways of aggression rather than physical harm. With the development of social skills for instance verbal skills can be used with aggressive purpose to harm another person. So females may develop means other than physical aggression.

Autonomy and dependence are often thought to be problems for women. Griffiths (1992) suggests that the problem of autonomy is in fact a problem for some men. For her, emotional and financial self-sufficiency are equated with autonomy. So, those who are called dependents are assumed to be women and children economically dependent on a man. She points out that the present structure of western traditions of thought as seen in the language, are inadequate and there is a need to re-evaluate western experiences related to dependency. Her argument is that

these concepts -autonomy, dependence, independence- do not fit lived experience very well.

Because of the above mentioned reasons the family takes a central place in feministic thinking. For them as long as women and children are subordinate in a culture and the assumption of what goes on "behind closed doors" is not society's business, women and children are in danger. Therefore, feminists with a systemic approach promote actions related to family life and their goal is social, family, and individual change. From this perspective, appropriate psychotherapy can only be beneficial in respect to the psychological consequences of spouse abuse on battered women, not to change the violent behavior (Walker, 1991f). Goldner et.al.(1990) proposes the application of feminist theory and values to family therapy in the form of feminist family therapy. The practice of feminist family therapy is the examination of gender roles and the enlightening of families about the connection between the family's problems and culture-wide stereotypes and power relations.

The major objection to feminist-political theory of spouse abuse in the literature is the objectivity issue. For example, Gelles (1981) believes ideology negatively influences data collection. Scientific empiricism proposes that with its sexist bias, the feminist perspective cannot offer sufficient understanding of the causes of domestic violence.

Sociocultural Approaches

There is an overlap between feminist-political theories and psychological theories. In sociocultural theory the main point is that through analyzing group behavior theorists try to define the norms of given society, and to define cultural

values which tolerate aggression. Sociological theory proposes that some societies tolerate a great deal of violence directed towards women and children and in some ways, such as prevalent violence on television or on the street, the culture can encourage abuse (Walker, 1986). For example, in some Third World cultures, the woman loses her ability to reach an orgasm and derive physiological pleasure from sex following the procedure of female clitoridectomies. Some theorists find parallels between this practice and the extreme sexual jealousy often seen in batterers (Walker, 1983).

Sociologists who stress an environmental analysis of spouse abuse, propose other theories. For instance, Gelles (1983) proposes the application of resource-exchange theory to male violence against his spouse. Resource-exchange theory is a social systems theory of family violence; The theory conceptualizes a dyadic relationship, either between spouses, or between parent and child. From this perspective violence is seen when "normal" family exchange relations fail. When the male does not receive the rewards he expects, or he feels that his status is threatened, violence is used as a resource to restore his dominant status in the relationship with his spouse. Thus, the theory proposes that men through childhood learn the successful use of violence to get needs met.

Although marital violence is seen as a universal problem, previous studies in the United States have suggested it as a lower class, minority women's, especially black women's phenomenon in United States. However, saying black women or women of a particular race are abused at a higher rate than white women or others can be very misleading. What appears to be racial differences may result from income levels, education levels, employment status, and differences in cultural expectations and values related with the violence (Straus, Gelles, Steinmetz, 1980). Similarly,

Alles (1978) also suggested that differences between racial groups may be because of social class or indicators of social class such as education, income and occupational status, and not because of a different racial background. In one study it was pointed out that, based upon official police statistics and clinical populations, the estimated rate, extent and nature of marital violence do not provide a sufficient base for race comparisons. This was due to the overrepresentation of black and/or lowerclass individuals in these populations (Lockhart, 1985). In another study Lockhart (1987) found that there is no significant difference in the proportion of black and white women victims of husband abuse. Black couples are not inherently more violent than white couples. Thus, Lockhart concluded that part of subcultural norms or a family history of violence leads to the use of aggressive and violent methods to solve the interpersonal problems between marital couples. On the other hand, Glaser (1986) pointed out that the differences in the use of violent behavior between males and females are part of the societal culture rather than of masculine subculture. The differences in behavior is a product of child rearing styles, not of biology. While girls are encouraged to behave in a ladylike manner, boys are reinforced to respond physically when challenged to a fight by their peers.

While epidemiological studies conclude that battering behavior occurs in all demographic categories (Straus et al., 1980), a substantial body of literature is also available on the problem of religiousness and violence. In fact, the literature on religiosity and marital violence yields very little research. Research that used religious affiliation points out a lack of relationship between religion and marital violence. The findings of a study of Brutz and Allen (1986) suggests that religious commitment rather than affiliation is the more appropriate indicator of religious influence on marital violence, but religious commitment by itself provides no information about the

direction of the relationship between religion and marital violence. They concluded that such principles as aggressive physical confrontation of one's adversaries, corporal punishment, mutilation of offenders incorporated with religious commitment may lead to higher levels of family violence.

Psychological Formulations

Psychological theories do not offer sufficient information about the causation of marital violence. Early theories stressed women's masochistic tendency to provoke their own abuse (Walker, 1986). Among some psychoanalysts, such victim precipitation theories still exist (Blum, 1982). According to one version of the victim-precipitation theory, the victim is viewed as a masochist who makes herself more vulnerable to victimization by her communications to others, mainly nonverbally. However, this masochistic process does not mean the victim enjoys the violence directed toward her (Shainess, 1984). There are feminist objections raised to the notion of the masochistic tendency of abused women. They argue that masochism is almost exclusively reserved for women and is described as a mentally disordered person who persistently contributes to her own harm in an abusive relationship and derives some pleasure out of pain. In fact the notion of the "sweetness of suffering" distinguishes masochistic women from other women who suffer and struggle for daily survival in an abusive relationship (Gelles, 1980).

Psychodynamic theories have not provided an analysis of battering as an interpersonal phenomenon therefore there is no separate explanation to how domestic violence occurs (Walker, 1986). From Erikson's stage of autonomy or separation, Miller (1991) suggests that the girl does not develop a sense of separation, but she

develops a more complex inner representation of a self in relation to other selves. Thus, development and growth require a change in her internal configuration of her sense of self and other but not a separation. Furthermore, during the oedipal stage, there is no need of identification with the threatening and dominant male figure. On the other hand, there may be a message that the girl should focus on the well-being, development and growth of men while the relationship with the mother continues. From Miller's point of view, Freud believed that girls during adolescence had to learn to use the derivatives of their sexual drive in the service of men and the next generation. Thus, this meant the resolution of their psychological issues via becoming passive, masochistic and submissive to the man and to sacrifice themselves for children. In short, girls seek a kind of identity different from boys which means developing a sense of self "being-in-relation" in increasingly complex ways. With this base, Miller argues for the presence of dependency issues in women different from realistic economic or social dependency. For instance, women's frequent references to their relationships indicate the desire to be in relationship with others, to comprehend, contribute and understand others.

Social psychology stresses the importance and impact of social conditions on battered women. Attribution theory analyzes battered women's beliefs regarding the reasons for what happens to them. Abused women would be more likely to attribute the causation of events to external things such as powerful others and uncontrollable forces. However, in one study, battered women who completed the Levinson Locus of Control Scale, were found to have high scores on both internal locus of control and external locus of control measures (Walker, 1986). There is also a difference in abused women's attributions related to staying in a violent relationship or not. For instance, Brewin (1990) found that women currently living with violent partners

reported the highest rate of self-blame and there is a significant change from self-blame to partner blame when women no longer live with the abusive partner. Additionally, while women are in the abusive relationship, four categories of attributions were defined: characterological self and partner blame, behavioral self-blame, and partners' situational response. Characterological self-blame was highly associated with repeated physical or sexual abuse in childhood, lack of social support related with violence, and a high rate of depression once out of the relationship.

One of the most important consequences that may be related to victims' attributions is depression. Marital violence is associated with a greater risk of depression and also women who are no longer in a violent relationship have a higher depression rate than women currently in abusive relationships (Andrews and Brown, 1988). Dutton et al. (1994) studied the relationship between cognitive schemata of battered women and the meaning attached to violence by them. The meaning attached to traumatic experience by abused women influences their cognitive schemata about safety, self, and other. For instance, expectation of recurrent violence appears to be one of the most important variables for the explanation of women's negative cognitive schemata. Social influences may play an important role in the formation of attributions due to the reported tendency of perpetrators' and observers' to blame victims (Davis and Jones, 1960). Kelley and Michela (1980) made a review of research into antecedents of attributions and defined three main investigation areas which were individual beliefs, motivations, and situational information.

Cognitive dissonance theory is another theory which has been applied to abused women. The theory is an attempt to understand how abused women are able to remain with the abuser. When women begin to doubt their own realities, they

substitute their husbands' world view. This is an attempt to reduce the conflict between the two opposing views (Stahley, 1978).

Aggression theory has also been examined as to whether general interpersonal aggression theories fit the case of wife abuse. Berkowitz's model (1983) classifies aggressive acts as instrumental violence which is designed to get what the aggressor wants from a victim and expressive violence which is designed to inflict pain on the victim. So, the model includes the explanation about the motive of the violent behavior. Berkowitz suggests that the victim's interaction with the aggressor may yield further aggressive behavior.

Lefkowitz, Eron, Walder, Huesmann (1977) discuss the roots of aggression in their book. Identification variables and sociocultural variables are pointed out as the best predictors of aggression longitudinally. Aggression is a stable behavior which is consistent over time and conforms to the definition of trait. Child rearing styles have an important impact on the child's nonaggressive behavior, for instance IQ does not predict later aggression independently of child rearing variables such as identification with parents. For boys, low identification with the mother is a significant predictor of later aggression while low identification with the father was a significant predictor of later victimization.

Among sociocultural variables, socioeconomic status as measured by the father's occupation is a consistent predictor of aggression. A child's aggressiveness increases as the father's occupational status increases. In short, modeling and sociocultural variables influence aggressive behavior synchronously and across time.

Finally, the authors' analysis yields a sex difference in aggression. They propose that females are less aggressive because of training not to express aggression in a direct manner due to aversive contingencies. In terms of gender differences, the

socialization theory states that women are socialized to use less effective coping strategies than men. On the other hand, role constraint theory proposes that there are no gender differences in coping when men and women occupy the same roles. In a study to test these theories, the socialization theory was not supported while the role constraint theory was partially supported (Rosario, Shinn, Morch, and Huckabee, 1988). Higher levels of psychological disturbance among women cannot be attributed to their coping styles independent of their social roles.

Among clinical psychological theories which explain the influence of family violence on the thinking, feeling, and behavior of its members, the application of *social learning theories* yield the most consistent information with empirical and clinical data (Walker, 1986). From this perspective violence is seen as learned aggressive behavior. The idea that family violence is learned in the home by modelling belongs to the intergenerational transmission theory. The hypothesis is that exposure to family violence as a child may be a factor in the development of family violence. The likelihood of adult victimization and participation in family violence are supposed to be related with the modelling process during the childhood (Gayford, 1975).

Simons et al. (1993) explained this phenomenon as women's double jeopardy. It appears that exposure to abusive parents increases the probability of being married to an assaultive husband. The double jeopardy phenomenon is based on the cycle of violence framework which was formulated to explain the finding of transmission of violence across generations. Women who learned, during their childhood, violence as normal because of harsh parenting, have a high tolerance for violent acts and tend to affiliate with and marry men with similar abusive characteristics. Thus, a woman's involvement in aggressive behavior mediates the relationship between exposure to harsh parenting and subsequent spousal abuse.

Gelles (1976) defined two reasons for women's double jeopardy. The first reason is a role model for the victims which means that women who are exposed to family violence as children may develop role expectations that husbands hit wives. The second one is the homogamy theory of mate selection. This perspective supposes that women who grew up in an environment of family violence are apt to marry men from similar backgrounds. Thus, Gelles identified two characteristics of family violence: Propensity for and tolerance of violence.

Kalmus (1984) also points out that the family communicates both the appropriateness of physical aggression in a love relationship and acceptability of physical aggression as a means of expressing anger, responding to stress, or controlling the behavior of others. She found, in her research about the intergenerational transmission of marital aggression, that there is a dramatic increase in the probability of marital aggression when respondents were exposed to parental hitting and observed hitting between their parents. Moreover, according to the sex-role theory childhood sex-role socialization prepares boys to become aggressive and dominant and girls to become submissive and victims of men (McCall and Shields, 1986). This principle suggests modelling by the same sex parent. However, Kalmus (1984) found that the modelling of parental hitting is not sex-specific. The likelihood that sons will be victims as well as perpetrators and daughters will perpetrate as well as be victimized are both related to the observation of fathers hitting mothers.

Walker (1986) points out that Seligman's learned helplessness theory is consistent with the clinical and empirical data from battered women studies. Similar to response, outcome events of learned helplessness studies, battered women lose their predictive ability that their responses will have an effect on what happens to them and develop distorted perceptions in their cognitive, behavioral and affective processes.

The original learned helplessness model pointed out that prolonged exposure to an uncontrollable situation and to action-outcome noncontingency produces performance deterioration on subsequent different tasks (Hiroto and Seligman, 1975; Abramson, Seligman, Teasdale, 1978). Then, as an alternative to the original model, repeated failure of the respondent itself is noted as responsible for the helplessness symptoms on subsequent activity. Repeated failure threatens the self-esteem of the subject which results in performance impairment (Boyd, 1982). Kofta and Sedek (1989) tested the validity of the egotism explanation of helplessness. In their study subjects received noncontingent-feedback training with or without repeated failure on five consecutive discrimination problems. Repeated failure appeared irrelevant to helplessness while noncontingent-feedback preexposure produced helplessness which supported the Seligman's original model.

Battered wives and the family: Hanks and Rosenbaum (1977) found that women were neither innocent victims nor precipitators of violent episodes. They argue that violence cannot be explained by either psychological theories of sadomasochistic behavior or by social theories of male-dominance; female submission. They point out that the familial backgrounds of women, the routine of childhood family interaction patterns paralleled the women's recent relationships with men. They define three family background types which are;

"1- Subtly controlling mothers/Figurehead fathers: These mothers were controlling bombastic but ineffectual fathers, and the daughters married men who often need rescuing. Their fathers severely punished them; now their husbands served that role.

2- Submissive mothers/Dictatorial fathers: Like their mothers these women married men they knew had violent propensities. These women's lives seemed structured

around the men's violent episodes, just as their parental family was preoccupied with the father's violence and absence.

3- Disturbed mother/ Multiple fathers: These women usually formed quick, intense, dependent relationships with men. They seemed to align themselves with inadequate, dependent men for whom they could provide financial security and a haven for the consequences of their actions. For these women, becoming indispensable resulted in an overly close, dependent relationship that neither they nor their mates could tolerate. Violence thus served as a distancing mechanism in these relationships."

In general, marital violence theories have typically emphasized single factors. Therefore, knowledge about marital violence is fragmented. To construct a more comprehensive understanding of abuse between partners, theories have been integrated (Williams, 1992). The following are attempts to integrate different theories.

For instance, Sheinberg and Penn (1991) attempt to integrate a feminist perspective with a revised traditional developmental paradigm. Feminist theory refuses the assumptions of the traditional developmental theory which viewed the infant as beginning life undifferentiated from the mother and moving toward separation/individuation in a stepwise fashion. They argue that this is a developmental description of males in a particular culture. Also, the feminist perspective gives considerable importance to Stern's research. In the *Interpersonal World of the Infant*, Stern (1985) defines the process of maturity as an alternating state of both connections and differentiation within the context of an ongoing relationship. His developmental model is representative of both genders. The integration of feminist revisionism, which stresses the importance of gender constructs, and new developmentalist research points out that both men and women have a rich, complex and multivarious body of experience. Idealized gender stereotypes often result in the

experience of gender failure. Therefore, they suggest integrative ideas about gender identity and a treatment model based on the contradictions inherent in the social construction of gender to deal with the family problems (Scheinberg and Penn, 1991). Stangee (1985) concluded from her integration of a socialist feminist perspective and object relational perspective that battering personalities are more internally determined than externally dictated. The most striking point of convergence of two views is the sexual division of labor.

Gelles (1983) suggests an integrated theory of marital violence. According to the theory increased privacy, inequality, and legitimation of violence will increase the uncontrollability of the partner assault. Isolation which is defined as detachment from community resources of social control, perceived power, and approval of assault increase the probability of marital violence because the perceived costs associated with such behavior are reduced. Williams (1992) tested the theory by using national survey data on physical assaults between heterosexual married and cohabiting couples. The findings were supportive of Gelles's "exchange/social control theory". Heightened perceptions of isolation, power, and approving attitudes toward violence decrease perceived arrest costs. As a result, these lead to an increased probability of partner assault.

In summary, theories of marital violence are developed from general psychology theories and there are some efforts to integrate different theories to explain the phenomenon comprehensively such as psychosocial theories.

*III**RESPONSES OF BATTERED WOMEN TO ABUSE*

Before beginning this section of the literature review it is important to note that research on the response of battered women has been carried out predominantly among clinical populations or samples of severely battered women (Mitchell and Hodson, 1983). Psychiatric illness of an abused woman can be misdiagnosed as a stable personality disorder and physical and sexual violence of the partner is not recognized as a contributing factor in the aetiology of psychiatric illness of women (Romkens, draft).

Individuals define the occurrence of abuse as normative in some home environments when it has been consonant behavior and unless a contrast is presented. In this type of situation people do not consider themselves as victims. When the actions are ambiguous, victimization is much more difficult. Descriptions such as weak, unable to handle daily life effectively, and out of control are frequently used for victims. Additionally, they are seen as responsible for their victim status. They can also be avoided because victims' pain and anxiety makes others uncomfortable (Browne, 1991).

Coping in Battered Women

Battered women develop many coping skills to keep themselves less seriously harmed, although behaviors such as putting the man's need before her own, staying in an abusive relationship, and behaving in a passive manner may be considered as maladaptive in other contexts (Walker, 1991). In general, battered women cope with

abuse by dealing with it on their own first, then by turning to social support networks. Seeking help from professional or legal sources can be the last way to deal with abuse. Informal social support networks may not be available when victimization occurs within families, therefore the need for disclosure to outsiders becomes especially crucial for victims of family violence (Browne, 1991).

Two classes of variables, which are options and sanctions, mediate the battered women's actions. The balance between options and sanctions shapes the behavioral response for them. Options refer to the availability of economic, social and occupational resources. According to research findings, women are more likely to stay with the abusive partner if they are poor, unemployed or in low paying jobs, poorly educated, and have lack of social support. Internal and external mechanisms in a culture to control behavior are referred to as sanctions. While internal sanctions, such as ethics, epistemology, and the use of power, are integrally tied to women's sense of identity, external sanctions include the law, police courts, clergy and the medical care system, religion and family. Along with these variables, women in the abusive situation have to choose which parts of themselves they will save; physical safety and well-being or economic safety and well-being (Swift, 1987).

In a study about differential patterns of wife abuse on 119 women admitted to shelters, Synder and Fruchtman (1981) identified the heterogeneity of wife abuse and five subtypes were defined, which differed in frequency and severity of abuse, usual precipitants, typical responses of the women and her assailant, history of violence in the family of origin, and residence at a shelter. Type 1 women had a relatively stable relationship with the assailant; were exposed to infrequent abuse; had no experience of sexual assault and concurrent abuse of children was rare. They rationalized their abuse by attributing the assailant's response to alcohol or external pressures. They

remained at the shelter for a brief period and were more likely to be living with the assailant at follow-up. Type 2 women had unstable, explosive relationships with their partners. Abuse of these women was not the most frequent one but it was the most severe one and involved a sexual component. They attempted long-term separations. Type 3 women were victims of the most chronic and severe forms of physical violence and children were frequently involved in abuse by the husband. A nonviolent past and lack of tolerance for abuse resulted most likely in leaving the husband. For Type 4 women there was minimal violence toward them, however there was a high rate of child abuse by the husband. They remained at the shelter for a brief period only but they were among the least likely to be living with their assailant at follow-up. Finally, type 5 women had an extensive history of violence in their family of origin so they expected and accepted violence as a part of their lives. They were most likely to seek short-term separation only.

Several researchers (Coley and Beckett 1988; Strube and Barbour, 1983; Gelles, 1976) found that most of the battered women lived in fear. They made several attempts to leave but they repeatedly returned to their abusive mates because of financial difficulties, a lack of safety, promises of improved behavior, and threats from their husbands. There are many factors which influenced the decision to terminate an abusive relationship. It is found that there is a correlation between the fear of being killed if they remained, the type and severity of abuse, the abuse of children by the partner, contact with the police, the availability of a social support system, and economic self-sufficiency with a decision making process of leaving the abusive partner. Among these variables Richard et al. (1981) noted that money is the greatest obstacle for an abused wife to leave home. In one study Gelles (1976) found also that in the case of marital violence there is a correlation between seeking outside

intervention such as the police, a social service agency and employment status and level of education. Unemployed and low educated women were less likely to seek outside intervention than employed and educated women.

Pfouts (1978) postulated that abused wives first make a total cost and benefit evaluation and then evaluate their overall level of satisfaction with the marriage. She described four coping strategies of battered women: 1- self-punishing response means blaming herself; 2- the aggressive response means using violence against partner's violence; 3- the early disengagement response means moving quickly out or staying and controlling the spouse; 4- the reluctant midlife disengagement means leaving because of the high price of staying. Women stay in an abusive relationship because they expect their batterers will change.

Herbert, Silver, and Ellard (1991) found that women who have remained with their abusive partners perceive fewer negative relationship changes, make fewer partner attributions and make more personal attributions for the abuse, and experience less frequent severe physical and verbal abuse. Thus, the study suggests that abused women who remain with the husband may cognitively restructure their situations to be able to stay with the husband. They employ some cognitive strategies to appraise their relationships positively and they are able to focus on positive features of their relationships.

In summary, battered women develop many coping strategies according to their own economic and support resources; they either live in an abusive relationship with fear or leave the relationship.

Psychological Disturbances of Battered Women

Coley and Beckett (1988) claimed that battered women have negative self-concept, depression, and fear of reprisals by their partners if they leave the relationship. Additionally, while some of them may become noncommunicative about their current violent experiences and reflect hopelessness feelings, the others may be characterized by images of strength. There are similar studies of marital violence which showed that it is a severe and traumatic experience for the abused women and leads to a high incidence of depression and other related disorders (Andrews and Brown, 1988; Hillberman, 1980). In short, women with a history of abuse are more likely to experience problems with depression and report a greater number of depressive episodes as compared to women with no history of abuse.

Some researchers (Walker, 1991; Koss, 1990, Romkens, draft) pointed out that the symptoms of battered women can be grouped into the major categories of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) which are: recurrent thoughts of the abuse incidents, avoidance, numbing, depression to avoid dealing with the unpredictable situations and relationships, feelings and lifestyle, and increased arousal symptoms such as pervasive anxiety, panic attacks, phobias, and hypervigilance to cues of future harm, disturbances of self-concept/self-efficiency, and sexual dysfunction. Also some neuropsychological symptoms which can be caused by repeated head injuries are common among battered women. Even many years after the assault, victims have psychiatric diagnoses such as major depression, alcohol abuse/dependence, drug abuse/dependence, generalized anxiety, obsessive-compulsive disorder and post traumatic stress disorder. Furthermore, there is a strong correlation between a history of violent victimization and suicidal ideation. On the other hand, Norris (1992)

stresses that post traumatic stress disorder represents only the tip of the iceberg in terms of experienced distress.

Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) first was placed among the anxiety disorders in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-III; American Psychiatric Association, 1980). It rarely exists as a separate disorder once it has become chronic (Davidson and Foa, 1991). Hilberman (1980) stresses that abused women can suffer from a "stress-syndrome or a battered women syndrome" that is related to the PTSD.

Being sexually assaulted is associated with increased risk for the later onset of major depression, substance use disorders, and anxiety disorders. The relationship with the assailant and whether it was a single event or repeated experience are important predictors of these disorders (Burnam, Stein, Golding, Siegel, Sorenson, Forsythe, and Telles, 1988).

To summarize, usually a battered woman makes between three and five attempts to leave the abusive partner before she is able to stay away completely. These attempts can be viewed as a learning process of abused women and a cumulative effect of these experiences will assist the women in making her final break. Battered women feel isolated and trapped when there are no available emotional and financial resources Changing a woman's previously distorted view of reality is needed to experience a different reality such as a women's shelter where professionals will try to help her.

*IV**SHELTER STUDIES*

There has been little empirical investigation of the organizational characteristics of the shelters. Epstein, Russell, and Silvern (1988) studied the ideological differences-feminist, grass roots, or professional. Their results show the presence of distinctions between feminist and other shelters in terms of their priorities. Actual structural and behavioral differences are associated with the age and organizational development of the shelters, not with the ideology. Women can apply to a shelter to escape the fear of physical attack and damage to their bodies.

Battered women's increasing awareness of community resources and services is the major goal of shelters. These institutions can be a starting place to change battered women's self-esteem and self-acceptance. Cannon and Sparks (1989) suggested that abused women seem to have a lower degree of self-acceptance in terms of problem-solving abilities and skills. They also experience inferiority feelings, self-consciousness, insecurity, and guilt which may result from their subordinate relationship with the abuser. At the onset of shelter residency, women first perceive their own inability to solve problems but they also feel emotional support from others.

In the United States as a result of increased social awareness there has been an increase in the rise of emergency shelters. Shelters provide a safe and secure environment; social support and mutual help groups; advocacy and information on legal rights and social benefits and assistance in exploring future goals and alternatives for battered women and their children. Unlike readmission to a psychiatric hospital which indicates the reoccurrence of a psychological disorder, returning to a shelter means that her significant other abused the woman again (Wilson, Baglioni, Downing,

1989). Their study yields that earned income, the age of the children, and history of battering episodes are the most important positive determinants of a return to the shelter while the number of children and intensity of the battering are negatively related to a return to the shelter. Working reduces the emotional, economical and social dependence on the husband and increases the likelihood of an emotional break from the batterer. Similarly, Gondolf (1988) states that personal income, transportation, and child care services have a substantial impact on living arrangements and need to accompany shelter care. However, if the batterer is in counseling, a woman is likely to return to the relationship and to home.

High levels of depressive symptoms, psychotic symptoms, and hospitalization for psychiatric, medical, alcohol and drug problems are frequently reported by shelter women. There is a positive relationship between depressive symptoms and lifetime sexual and physical assault (D'Ercole and Struening, 1990).

There are a lot of commonalities between recent feminist thinking and community psychology. Mulvey (1988) lists some of them as a peer support model, social policy and advocacy, and creation of alternative settings and institutions. These institutions provide immediate support to women and also educate the community about the origins and seriousness of the problem.

MARITAL VIOLENCE AND TURKEY

Fişek (1993) pointed out that Turkish culture is relatively traditional and patriarchal with an extremely rapid sociocultural, economic and political change. In the traditional families marriage is still a social and economic matter between two families (Fişek, 1982). Except for highly educated, professional, urban women, there is no difference in the low status of Turkish women in terms of urban/rural residence, educational status, or employment status (Çanakçı, 1992). Thus, the main responsibilities of a woman are seen as her home and children, despite the reality of work (Ergüder, Kalaycıoğlu, and Esmer, 1991). In the process the conditions of the continuity of the patriarchy in worker families are determined by the interaction between economic, cultural, and emotional dimensions. Although women's working and contribution to housekeeping do not affect their domestic roles, this will ideologically threaten the conventional base of man's authority (Bolak, 1990). As pointed out in the Levine's study (1982) rapid socioeconomic change leads to increased stress between married couples. Increases in the divorce rate are linked with periods of expansion of the economy, increased availability of housing and decreases in the inflation rate.

In Turkey the dominant force for one's actions is determined by society. In terms of the regulation of male-female and sexual relations, the guarding of a female's reputation creates constant male-male and male-female tension in the society. A girl risks her freedom and her life if she tries to break out of the societal pattern (Kagan, 1979).

In an extensive study Delaney (1991) pointed out that in rural areas of Turkey, men should exhibit qualities of manliness and not be soft and henpecked. According to her observations, relations between husband and wife ranged from reserve, distance and tolerance to companionship, joking, and some displays of affection that are considered as inappropriate in the presence of others. It is also important to note that young people are often less rigid than their elders about gender related behaviors.

A women's movement emerged during the 80's in Turkey. Against the beating of women, consciousness raising groups, petition campaigns, protest walks to highlight women's problems, papers and two feminist journals were organized and a Women's Library and foundation were instituted by educated, mostly professional, middle-class women (Arat, 1994). The women's movement in Turkey also discusses the law. For example, according to law, the penalty for raping a non-virgin, divorced or a prostitute woman is reducible. If this rapist marries the woman he raped the crime is nullified; according to this way of thinking, rape in marriage is not accepted as a crime (Yelda, 1990). Tankut (1990) compares the sexual relationship between a man and a woman to the relationship between the ruling authority and the suffering citizen. He indicates that, as men accept their women as their own goods, it is not important for them whether their wives show appreciation of the sexual relationship or not. The women who suffer from abuse prefer to hide their situation due to the threat they feel or public disbelief and ignorance.

We know from the literature review that religion has no clear influence on marital violence. The group of Sisters in Islam (1990) pointed out that "the Qur'an teaches "love and mercy" (30:21), between men and women, that men and women are like each other's garment (2:187), that "be you male or female, you are members of one another" (3:195), and that "men and women are protectors, one of another" (9-

71)". Thus, they said that Islam does not allow a husband to act cruelly to his wife, either physically or mentally.

However, folk sayings indicate how the culture allows a different look. Yüksel (1989), states the expressions such as "the one who does not beat his daughter beats himself later" or "the one who cannot be educated by advice deserves to be beaten" are favored and the corporal punishment has common but hidden acceptance in Turkish society. Turkish society allows certain reasoning, moreover some apology base, to men who beat their wives. Women's staying in the house despite the terror there can be interpreted as if they are not substantially suffering. The 140 women observed by Yüksel are categorized under three groups; women who have been under physical spouse abuse for a long time, a one year minimum, women who do not have a reasonable spousal relationship but are not suffering violence, and women who have no family problems. Regarding the physical abuse group it is found that, on average the age of marriage is significantly lower; there has been physical abuse in both parties' families of origin; there is a belief about a correlation between husband abuse and alcohol consumption. Depression, anxiety disorders and somatoform disorders are common in this group. The first call for help by the women is directed to their own family. Beatings began during the first year and they are consistently carried out once or twice a week for half of the group, and once or twice a month for the other half of the group. Similarly, Savaşır (1990) points out that married women who express depressive feelings attributed their problems to spousal and other familial causes.

In Turkish and similar cultures it is reinforced for men to be the leader and the dominant one. This situation creates a right for men to control women and decide the important events regarding women instead of the women themselves. The mechanism for the pressure appears to be physical violence on the women's body. Beating in the

home covers not only applying physical violence on the women's body, but restricting women's rights involving their bodies and lifestyles as well. It is a known fact that aggression and violent practices affect human psychology negatively. Unfortunately, such a serious situation has not been a serious subject of discussion (Yüksel and Kayır, 1985).



HYPOTHESES

One aim of the study is to investigate the relationship between marital violence and women's psychological well-being. Since there is little spouse abuse research in Turkey to draw upon, this study can only be evaluated as a preliminary field survey. Therefore, the predictions will be parallel with investigations reported in the Western spouse battering literature. In the light of that literature there will be a correlation between violence related factors and women's psychological well-being.

The second aim is to investigate the relationship between marital violence and women's marital satisfaction. In the light of investigations that were carried out abroad, it is expected that spouse violence by itself will have a direct effect on women's marital satisfaction.

Finally, since economical independence is thought to be a condition for leaving an abusive relationship, it is expected that some other factors such as the economic status of the husband and the wife will influence the relationship between spousal violence and women's marital satisfaction.

The specific hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

1- It is hypothesized that women who suffer verbal, physical and sexual abuse, compared to women who suffer only verbal and physical abuse, have more significant psychological disturbances.

2- Women who experience verbal, physical and sexual abuse, compared to women who suffer verbal and physical abuse, are hypothesized to have lower dyadic adjustment scores.

3- Women who have worse economical conditions, compared to women who have better conditions, are hypothesized to give a lower evaluation to their marriage.

In addition to the hypothesis the effects of various demographic characteristics on the dependent variables will be examined as well.



METHOD

Subjects

During the pilot study, a total of 30 subjects (ages 20 to 44 with a mean age of 29.7) were consulted. In the main study, the sample of abused women consisted of 30 women who were self-referred clients of the Şişli Women's Consulting Center in the Şişli Metropolitan Municipality in İstanbul over a one year period. The shelter provides temporary emergency housing for women and their minor dependents. Paid staff members work twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. Living facilities include bedrooms, a bathroom, and a communal living room and kitchen. Normal living routines are encouraged because the shelter is not considered an institutionalized living arrangement. To improve the operation of the shelter ideas and suggestions are shared by residents and staff members at regular house meetings. The shelter offers support groups that are facilitated by staff and meet once a week. Police, court, medical, legal aid and welfare assistance are provided for attendees. Court advocacy by staff members enables battered women to become aware of their rights. Women and their dependents who have been physically abused recently and/or are in immediate danger due to serious threat or past history of abuse are admitted.

The age of the sample ranged from 19 to 41 with a mean age of 27. Being in an abusive relationship that is a chronic problem was a precondition for participation in the study. The recruitment of the subjects was voluntary. All subjects answered all the scales.

Instruments

Dyadic Adjustment Scale

The scale was designed as an assessment tool for measuring the quality of adjustment in marital and other dyads. This scale has four subscales, which measure affectional expression, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus, and dyadic satisfaction. This 32 items scale can be used with either married or unmarried couples who are living together in a marital-type relationship. It is a paper-pencil test which can be self-administered. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale can be used as an overall measure of couples' adjustments. It also allows researchers to use one or more of the subscales alone without losing much confidence in reliability or validity of the instrument. 13 items of the scale measure dyadic consensus, 10 measure dyadic satisfaction, 5 measure dyadic cohesion, and 4 measure affectional expression. The range of scores is from 0 to 151. Higher scores mean better adjustment in the marriage. The reliability for the entire 32 item scale is quite high (.96). The Dyadic Adjustment Scale was correlated with other similar scales. The correlation between scales was .86 among married respondents and .88 among divorced respondents (Fredman and Sherman, 1987).

The scale was translated into Turkish and all items were back translated by two bilingual Boğaziçi University professors and a translation center and then presented to a group of judges. The judges chose between alternatives for each item. When the items took their final form, the Dyadic Adjustment Scale was administered to 30 married women during the pilot study to make sure that the items were understood and the reliability of the scale was assessed. The reliability analysis

revealed that the standardized item alpha was (.92) for all 32 items, (.76) for dyadic consensus, (.70) for affectional expression, (.82) for dyadic satisfaction and (.78) for dyadic cohesion.

The Structured Interviews

The Structured Interview Sociocultural Determinants (A); gathered the following information; age, occupation, educational level, duration of marriage, number of children, their age and sex, average income of the subject and her family, and social support resources.

The Structured Interview Spousal Violence (B); gathered the following information; the duration of abuse, the onset of abuse, the frequency of abuse, the type of abuse, women's attitudes toward violence, and the history of application to Şişli Women's Consulting Center.

Coopersmith Inventory

This is a self-rated scale of self-esteem including 25 items with a score range of 0 to 100. The standardization version is available in Turkish with .76 reliability (Turan and Tufan, 1987).

Semantic Differential Scale

This scale can be used in marital satisfaction. The subjects are administered a 7 point semantic differential scale to rate how they feel about their marriage. The

possible range of scores are 12 to 84. Higher scores mean more positive evaluations about their marriage. In scoring the semantic differential, a rating of 1 to 7 is distributed across each bipolar range, with 1 being the most negative score and the 7 the most positive, the interval 4 being identified as neutral. The Turkish version of the scale developed by Campell and Rodgers in 1976 and used by Collon (1987), was prepared by Çanakçı (1992).

Symptom Check List-Revised

SCL-90 was originally developed by Derogatis in 1977 (Dağ, 1991). The psychometric properties of the Turkish version of the SCL-90-R was investigated by Dağ (1991). SCL-90-R was administered to university students. Standart deviations and ranges were tabulated for global scores and subscales separately; test-retest reliability and internal consistency measures were also calculated. Correlations between SCL-90-R subscales and MMPI and Beck Depression Inventory were used to test convergent and discriminant validities. Results showed that SCL-90-R is a reliable (.97) and valid instrument for normal university students as a psychiatric screening device.

Procedure

During the pilot study, all subjects were given the dyadic adjustment scale in order to make sure that the items were understood. The reliability of the instruments was evaluated.

In the main study, permission was issued by the Şişli Municipality Council and communication with the shelter staff was established. After the women were instructed about the study, the activities of the shelter were followed by a participant observer for one month. Interviews were done with women who came to the shelter during a seven months period. As this shelter was the only one in Istanbul and it had limited capacity, the planned number of women, which was sixty, could have been achieved. However, during the seven months, interviews were done with a total of thirty women who joined the shelter and were eligible for the study purposes.

After the required procedures were accomplished with a shelter in Ankara, a short while later the shelter was closed by the new municipality authorities, which put obstacles before the endeavors of the study and made it impossible.

Volunteer interviews lasting (1 to 1,5 hour each) were carried out with thirty women. All subjects were administered the structured interview first since the scales may be threatening to the abused women. Then the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, the Self-esteem Scale, the Semantic Differential Scale and SCL-90-R were presented in random order to eliminate the confounding effect of presentation order. Although written instructions for the scales were given at the beginning of each form, the investigator administered all the scales in an interview format. Participation was not compulsory, but no subjects refused to participate.

RESULTS

This chapter is divided into three parts involving the frequencies of some demographic characteristics, the evaluation of the hypotheses and additional findings. First, the analysis of some demographic characteristics are presented (frequencies and percentages). Secondly, the hypotheses are presented. Finally, stepwise multiple regressions computed to examine the relative contributions of other variables are also presented.

Analysis of demographic characteristics:

The subjects' age, education level, number of children, employment status, type of abuse to which they were exposed, number of divorce attempts, conformity to husband abuse, and subjects' income level are analyzed; frequencies and percentages are given in Tables 1-2-3-4.

Table 1. Frequencies and percentages of subjects' age and education level.

	<i>Education</i>			<i>Age</i>	
	<i>pri.</i>	<i>sec.</i>	<i>high</i>	<i>19-26</i>	<i>27-41</i>
<i>frequency</i>	17	10	3	17	13
<i>%</i>	56.7	33.3	10.0	56.7	43.3

Table 2. Frequencies and percentages of subjects' number of children and employment status.

	<i>Number of children</i>					<i>Employ. stat.</i>	
	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>Emp.*</i>	<i>Unem.**</i>
<i>freq.</i>	3	11	10	5	1	9	21
<i>%</i>	10.0	36.7	33.3	16.7	3.3	30.0	70.0

* Emp. = Employed

** Unem. = Unemployed

Table 3. Frequencies and percentages of subjects' number of divorce attempts and conformity to spouse abuse.

	<i>Type of abuse</i>		<i>Number of divorce att.</i>	
	<i>ver/phy*</i>	<i>ver/phy/sex*</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>Several</i>
<i>freq.</i>	12	18	8	22
<i>%</i>	40.0	60.0	26.7	73.3

* ver/phy = verbal and physical abuse

ver/phy/sex = verbal, physical and sexual abuse

Table 4. Frequencies and percentages of subjects' conformity to spouse abuse and economic status.

	<i>Conformity to spouse abuse</i>		<i>Economic status</i>			
	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Middle</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Very High</i>
<i>freq.</i>	11	19	23	11	9	3
<i>%</i>	36.7	63.3	23.3	36.7	30.0	10.0

Analysis of Specific Hypothesis

Hypothesis I predicted that women who suffer from chronic verbal, physical, and sexual spousal abuse would have more significant psychological disturbances than women who exposed to verbal and physical spousal abuse without sexual abuse history in their marital relationship. The means, standard deviations and t-test results of the Symptom Check List-90 Revised (SCL-90-R) scores for two groups of abused women are given in Table 5.

The results indicated that there were no significant differences between women who experience verbal, physical, and sexual abuse in their marital relationship vs. who experience only verbal and physical abuse in terms of developing psychological disturbances. However, there was a trend for developing psychological disturbances, indicating that women who suffer from verbal, physical and sexual abuse had developed more psychological disturbances than other group ($p < .08$). Thus, Hypothesis I was partially supported.

Hypothesis II stated that there would be differences between women who suffer from verbal, physical, and sexual spouse abuse and who suffer from verbal and physical abuse in their dyadic adjustment scores. The means, standard deviations and t-test results of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale are presented in Table 5. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups in terms of their quality of adjustment in their marriages. Thus, Hypothesis II was supported.

Table 5. The means, standard deviations and t-test scores of the two groups of abused women on the Symptom Check List-Revised (SCL-90-R) and Dyadic Adjustment Scale.

<i>Variables *</i>	<i>Ver/Ph Group</i>		<i>Ver/Ph/Sex Gr</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>			
<i>SCL-90-R</i>	119.25	34.54	145.0	52.69	-1.49	28	.074
<i>DAS</i>	62.08	27.15	32.94	17.13	3.62	28	.0005

* Ver/Ph Group = Verbally and physically abused women group

* Ver/Ph/Sex Gr.= Verbally, Physically, and sexually women group

* SCL-90-R = Symptom Check List-Revised

* DAS = Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Hypothesis III predicted that there would be a difference between battered women who have worse economical conditions and battered women who have better conditions in their marital satisfaction scores. The means, standard deviations and t-test results of the Semantic Differential Scale are given in Table III. The results indicated that there were significant differences between two groups in terms of their marital satisfactions. Thus, the hypothesis was supported.

Table 6. The means, standard deviations and t- test of the Semantic Differential Scale for two battered women group.

<i>Variables*</i>	<i>Good Economic Cond.</i>		<i>Poor Economic Cond.</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>			
<i>SDS</i>	30.08	17.67	18.89	8.82	2.03	15	.03

* Cond.= Conditions

* SDS = Semantic Differential Scale

Additional Findings

A stepwise regression analysis was conducted to reveal the pattern of relationship in the data. The variable of educational level of the subject was recoded in two categories particularly primary school as "0" and junior high school and high school as "1". "0" and "1" dummies are recoded as in the same fashion above for the rest of the variables as follows. Employment status was recoded as "unemployed" and "employed". Income level of the subjects was recoded as "poor" and "good". The type of abuse that women suffer from was recoded as "verbal-physical" and "verbal-physical-sexual". Conformity to husband abuse was recoded as "no" and "yes". Divorce attempt was recoded as "none" and "several". Woman's beating of her own children was recoded as "no" and "yes". The scores on Semantic Differential scale, Self-esteem Scale, Dyadic Adjustment Scale and SCL-90-R were recoded as "low" and "high".

The first criterion variable was the Semantic Differential Scale and the predictors were income level, educational level, employment status, type of violence that women suffered, conformity to husband abuse, divorce attempts and woman's beating of her own children. The results of the multiple regression analysis evaluating the contribution of the independent variables to Semantic Differential scores are displayed in Table 7.

In step one, level of income was entered into the equation ($R^2 = .34028$, $F = 14.44 (1,28)$). It was found to explain 34% of the variance in the women's evaluation of their marital satisfaction. As the income level decreased, the Semantic Differential scores also decreased, indicating that having more satisfaction in the marriage was associated with better income level. In the second step, women's level

of education was entered into the equation ($R\text{ sq}=.10165$, $F=10.69$ (2,27)). The second variable with a negative effect, explained an additional 10% of variances, indicating that as the women's educational level decreased, the Semantic Differential scores increased which shows that lower level of women's education was related with better satisfaction from abusive husband.

The predictions with these two variables reached an R square of .442 and was significant at the .0000 level. As these figures indicate Semantic Differential can be successfully predicted by the abused women's income and education levels. Among these scores the woman's relative position in the level of income seems to be the most important variable.

Table 7. Results of multiple regression analysis of the independent variables on Semantic Differential Scale.

<i>DV</i>	<i>IV</i>	<i>R Sqr</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p<</i>
<i>SDS*</i>	<i>Income</i>	.34028	.66466	4.480	.0001
<i>SDS*</i>	<i>Educat.**</i>	.10165	-.32904	-2.218	.05

* SDS = Semantic Differential Scale.

** Educat.= Education

The second criterion variable was women's self-esteem and the predictors were educational level, level of income, employment status, type of violence that women suffered, conformity to husband abuse, divorce attempts and beating her own children. The results of multiple regression analysis are presented in Table 8. The first variable entered into the equation was conformity to husband abuse with a negative effect and it explained 23% of the variance in self-esteem ($R\text{ sq}=.23445$, $F=8.57$

(1,28)). The more women complied their husband's abuse, the more women's self-esteem decreased. Secondly, the income level of the women was entered and it explained an additional 19% of the variance ($R^2 = .19035$, $F = 9.9782.27$), indicating that as women's income increased, self-esteem increased.

The prediction with these two variables reached an R square of .425 and was significant at the .0006 level. As these figures indicate, abused women's self-esteem can be successfully predicted by their conformity to husband abuse and their income level.

Table 8. Results of multiple regression analysis of the independent variables on Self-esteem Scale.

DV	IV	R square	Beta	t	p<
Self-	Conform.	.23445	-.52800	-3.481	.01
Esteem	Income	.19035	.44600	2.989	.01

The third criterion variable was Dyadic Adjustment and the predictors were income level, educational level, employment status, type of abuse that women suffered, conformity to husband abuse, divorce attempts and woman's beating of her own children. The results of the multiple regression analysis are presented in Table 9. Only the type of abuse that woman suffers from was entered into the equation ($R^2 = .14781$, $F = 4.86$ (1,28)). With a negative effect, the variable explained 14% of the variance, indicating that as spouse abuse increased the quality of marital adjustment decreased. Among the variables the type of abuse seems to be the most important variable to predict Dyadic Adjustment.

The final criterion variable was the psychological well-being of the subject and the predictors were income level, educational level, employment status, type of abuse, conformity to abuse, divorce attempts and woman's beating of her own children. The results of the multiple regression analysis are presented in Table 9. The only variable entered into the equation was women's income level. It explained 13% of the variance in SCL-90-R, with a negative effect ($R^2 = .1333$, $F = 4.31 (81,28)$). As income level decreased, psychological disturbances of the abused woman increased.

Table 9. Results of multiple regression analysis of the independent variables on Dyadic Adjustment Scale and SCL-90-R.

DV	IV	R square	Beta	t	p<
DAS*	Typ.ab.**	.14781	-.38889	-2.204	.05
SCL-90-R	Income	.1333	-.27778	-2.075	.05

* DAS = Dyadic Adjustment Scale

** Typ. ab. = Type of abuse that women suffer

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of spousal abuse on women's psychological well-being, marital adjustment and satisfaction. The overall results of this study indicate that spousal abuse had an influence on women's psychological well-being in that women who suffered sexual as well as verbal and physical abuse tended to report higher scores on SCL-90-R. Similarly, differential violence types were found to have significant effects on women's evaluation of the quality of their marriages, in that verbal, physical and sexual abuse together were associated with worse quality of marriage. Finally, poor income was found to be associated with worse marital satisfaction.

In this section each hypothesis will be presented and the results discussed. Hypothesis I stated that women who exposed verbal, physical and sexual spousal abuse would have more psychological disturbances than women who suffered only verbal and physical abuse. Since there is a little research in Turkey on women abuse, the predicted relationship was based on investigations reported in the Western literature.

Other investigations suggest that no matter the frequency of physical abuse experienced, some women are able to focus on the positive aspects of the relationship. However, when we look at verbal abuse, the more frequently verbal abuse is experienced, the less capable women seem to be in appraising their relationship positively. It seems that the psychological impact on women of verbal and emotional abuse is greater (Herbert et al., 1991). In terms of sexual spousal abuse, batterers often demand frequent sex with their wives as a way of proving dominance and love. The batterer's obsession with sex confuses emotional with sexual intimacy (Walker,

1991). There is also another finding in the literature that being sexually assaulted is associated with the increased risk for later onset of major depression, substance use disorders, and anxiety disorders (Burnam et al., 1988).

However this was not the case according to the results of the present study. Type of abuse was found to have no significant differential effect on women's psychological well-being. The present study only partially supports this contention, in that there was a trend in the data that women who suffer from verbal-physical-sexual abuse have more psychological disturbances.

One can think of some explanations. The first possible reason may be due to the small sample size.

The second possible reason may be due to the retrospective nature of the data. Such retrospective data are potentially biased by failure to recall past abuse experiences or episodes of disorder (Burnam et al., 1988). Furthermore, in the process of attempting to cope with a traumatic event such as spousal abuse, individuals may cognitively reconstruct or deny their experience.

Alternatively, verbal-physical abuse occurs with greater frequency than verbal-physical-sexual abuse, therefore, may be less likely to be minimized. Psychological impact of verbal abuse on women may be greater.

Secondly it was hypothesized that there would be differences between women who suffer verbal-physical abuse and those who suffer verbal-physical-sexual abuse in their quality of marital adjustments. The results revealed that there was a significant difference on quality of marital adjustment in terms of type of abuse. The regression analysis as well as the t-test results supports this hypothesis. According to Yüksel (1988) who studied spousal abuse in Turkey extensively, marriage, by definition, is an agreement between men and women of regarding mutual duties for the sexes that also

covers sexual relations. Accordingly, in addition to the duties like washing the dishes or caring children, making love with her husband whenever wanted is a duty for women. Sexually abused women have various reasons to stay silent and not to tell the fact to anybody after the fact. Beyond their physical and psychological perplexities, they are demanded to prove the sexual abuse. Women's right to the use of their own bodies in a marriage is not regarded. The difficulty of a woman who rejects her partner may extend to physical harassment. Thus, an abused woman may be in danger of experiencing victimization both at the hands of her abuser and from others who may be unlikely to respond in a sympathetic fashion regarding this type private marital issues. It is thought that this situation leads to feelings of helplessness, which in turn traps women in such relationships.

Finally, it was hypothesized that there would be a difference between battered women who have worse economic conditions and battered women who have better conditions in their marital satisfaction. As it was predicted, both t-test results and regression analysis support the hypothesis III. Women who had better economic conditions presented higher marital satisfaction in their marriage in spite of spousal abuse. It appears that the economic benefits of marriage to the abusive husband, tends to function as a counter weight to the negative effects of abuse.

It should be noted that a bias in the recall of subjects may be accounting for these results.

Further analysis revealed that women's conformity to husband abuse, interacting with income had a significant influence on women's self-esteem. It was found that the more women complied with their husband's abuse, the more women's self-esteem decreased. This finding is not surprising as attribution theory states that abused women generally blame themselves for their husbands' violence and

exaggerate their responsibility for negative events (Miller and Porter, 1983). The effect of income indicates that, regardless of whom a woman blame for causing her abuse, if she has no money it is unlikely that she will be able to leave her husband. Thus, woman's coping may be relative to other factors such as economic threats.

Holtzworth-Munroe (1988) reviewed that the attributions of abused women are complex and they often list more than one cause for the violence. They frequently blame both themselves and their partners, or blame some aspects of their interactions with one another. Thus, it seems that the relation between women's causality attributions for their husband's violence and their self-esteem needs to be studied in. Wortman (1976) points out that holding themselves responsible for events in their past enables these women to believe that they can control future events. Finally, Lerner (1980) states that victims may accept blame to maintain their "just world" hypothesis. They prefer to believe that they are guilty rather than admit that life is unfair.

Finally, it was found that level of income had a significant influence on abused women's psychological well-being. The women who have low economic status found to have more psychological disturbances. The interaction between stress and income and the effect on family violence is critical. One possible explanation can be a higher income enables one to secure medical and psychological help from a private professional (Prescott and Letka, 1977). The other possible explanation is that, financial hardship (i.e. "no way to support self", "no cash", "no where to go", "no resources", "no job") is an important reason to stay or return back to an abusive relationship. As abuse continues overtime, she may begin to blame herself for continuation of the relationship, or for tolerating the abuse. When individuals experience chronic victimization by someone close to them, the impact is intensified

and complicated by the profound betrayal of trust (Follingstad et al., 1988). Thus, feeling trapped in an abusive relationship intensifies the psychological disturbances.

Several directions can be indicated for further research. The relatively small sample in the present study may limit the generalizability of results to other settings. Current results need to be replicated on enlarged samples. Additionally, the current design needs to be extended to battered women not seeking help outside the home. There should be studies on intervention strategies employed with both the battered persons and her partner. Moreover research on batterers must be performed.

It is also recommended that future research examine the long-term effects of shelter programs and services, particularly with respect to the perceptions of violence from the perspective of the abuser, other significant individuals and the community. It is hoped that in Turkey, this type of studies will be beneficial in terms of improving the quality of life of abused women and decreasing the instances of abuse.

Victims typically do not talk about their victimization just for the sake of conversation. It is generally a cry for help and relief. In Turkey, there is a need for pathways to disclosure and to help. First, victims must know what options are available before they make decisions on whether or not to use them.

Clearly this study reveals only the top of an iceberg. Future research should extend this inquiry into how cultural features affect the spousal violence process. For example, we should ask which cultural aspects allow the formation and continuity of family violence. Direct comparisons of the attributions offered by women living with their husbands and those who had separated must be done.

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APPENDICES**The Structured Interview****Açıklama**

Bu çalışma Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji öğrencisi Sibel Tümer Özkan tarafından yapılmaktadır. Çalışmanın konusu aile içinde şiddete ve tacize maru kalan kadınları psikolojik uyumlarıdır. Beni ilgilendiren, kişilerin tek tek düşünceleri değil, genel eğilimleridir. Bu nedenle size adınızı, adresinizi veya kimliğinizi belirten herhangi bir soru sormayacağım. Vereceğiniz cevaplar sadece şiddete maru kalan kadınların genel tablosunu çıkartmakta kullanılacaktır. Hem sizin düşüncelerinizin hesaba katılmasını sağlamak hem de çalışmanın güvenilirliği açısından, sorularına samimi cevaplar vermenizi rica ediyorum. Sorularımın doğru veya yanlış bir cevabı yoktur. Tek doğru cevap sizin samimi görüşlerinizdir. Cevaplarınız tamamen gizli tutlacaktır. Yardımlarınız ve zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim.

- 1- Doğum yılınız:
- 2- Eşinizin doğum yılı:
- 3- Kaç yıldır evlisiniz:
- 4- Kaçınıcı evliliğiniz:
- 5- Çocuğunuz var mı: Evet-- Kaç tane--
Hayır--

6- Eğitim durumunuz: Okuma-yazma bilmiyor--

Okur-yazar--

İlkokul mezunu-

Ortaokul mezunu--

Lise mezunu--

Yüksekokul/Üniversite mezunu--

Diğer--

7- Eşinizin eğitim durumu: Okuma-yazma bilmiyor--

Okur-yazar--

İlkokul mezunu--

Ortaokul mezunu--

Lise mezunu--

Yüksekokul/Üniversite mezunu--

Diğer--

8- Mesleğiniz:

9- Çalışıyor musunuz: Evet-- Şimdiki işiniz-----

Hayır--

10- Eşinizin mesleği:

11- Eşiniz çalışıyor mu: Evet-- Şimdiki işi-----

Hayır--

12- Gelir durumunuz: Çok iyi--

İyi--

Orta--

Kötü--

13- Yaşadığınız konut türü: Gecekondu--

Apartman--

Ev--

Diğer--

14- Yaşadığınız konut kendinizin mi:

Evet-- Kira-- Lojman-- Diğer--

15- Evde sizinle beraber devamlı olarak yaşayan kimler var:

16- Kimi zaman evli çiftler arasında tatsızlık, münakaşa, kavga ve şiddet yaşanabilir.

Sizin evliliğinizde, eşiniz size karşı aşağıda sayacağım davranışlarda bulundu mu?

(Cevaplarınız tamamen gizli tutlacaktır. Lütfen sorularımı samimiyetle cevaplayınız).

Evet--- Sözel (küfretmek, sözle aşağılamak gibi)--

Fiziksel (tokat, vurma, fiziki güç kullanma gibi)--

Cinsel (zorla ilişki kurmak gibi)--

Diğer--

Hayır---

17- Evliliğinizde ne kadar zamandır bu tür davranışlar yaşanıyor?

18- İlk şiddet davranışı neydi?-----

19- Şimdi şiddet ne sıklıkta devam ediyor?-----

20- Karı koca ilişkisinde erkeğin karısına tokat atması veya onu dövmesi pek çok memlekette tartışılan bir konu. Sizce bir kadının kocasından dayak yemeği hakettiği durumlar olabilir mi?

Evet bazı durumlarda olabilir----

Kesinlikle hayır----

21- Okuyacaklarımdan sizin için en doğru olan cümleyi söyleyiniz.

Eşimin uyguladığı şiddet benim için hiç önemli değil, beni etkilemiyor---

Eşimin uyguladığı şiddet benim için çok az önemlidir ve beni az etkiliyor---

Eşimin uyguladığı şiddet benim için önemlidir, beni etkiler ve dayanmak zor---

Eşimin uyguladığı şiddet benim için çok önemli, etkileyicidir ve dayanmak benim için son derece zor---

Eşimin uyguladığı şiddet benim için kesinlikle dayanılmayacak kadar önemli ve zor---

22- Eşiniz şiddete başvurduğunda siz ne yaparsınız?

Bende ona şiddetle karşılık veririm---

İtiraz etmeden boyun eğirim----

Kaçmaya çalışırım----

Birilerine şikayet ederim----

Diğer----

23- Hiç kimseye başvurduğunuz mu?

Evet-- Karakol---

Mahkeme---

Kadın sığınma evi---

Aile---

Arkadaş---

Diğer---

Hayır--

24- Başvurduğunuz kişiler size ne önerdiler?

25- Boşanmayı ne sıklıkta düşünürsünüz?

Hiç--

Ayda birden az--

Haftada bir veya iki--

Hergün bir kere--

Daha sık--

26- Boşanmayı denediniz mi?

Hiç--

Bir iki kere--

Pek çok kere--

27- Evden hiç ayrıldınız mı?

Hiç--

Bir iki kere--

Pek çok kere--

28- Siz hiç eşinize karşı şiddet kullanmayı başlattınız mı?

Hiç--

Bir iki kere--

Pek çok kere--

Ne zamanlar-----

Ne şekilde: Sözel--

Fiziksel--

Cinsel--

Diğer--

29- Eşiniz ne zamanlar şiddete başvurur?

30- Büyürken ailenizin evinde dayak yediniz mi?

Hiç--

Bir iki kere--

Pek çok kere--

31- Siz çocuğunuzu döver misiniz?

Hiç--

Bir iki kere--

Pek çok kere--

32 Neden bu merkeze başvurduunuz?

İlk başvurunuz mu? Evet-- Hayır--

Önceki başvurularınız:

Ne zaman-----

Ne nedenle-----

Symptom Check List-Revised**Açıklama**

Aşağıda zaman zaman herkeste olabilecek yakınma ve sorunları bir listesi vardır. Lütfen herbirini dikkatlice okuyunuz. Sonra her bir durumun, bugün de dahil olmak üzere son onbeş gün içinde sizi ne ölçüde huzursuz ve tedirgin ettiğini gözönüne alarak, cevap kağıdında belirtilen tanımlamalardan (Hiç/Çok az/Orta derecede/Oldukça fazla/ İleri derecede) uygun olanının altındaki boşluğa bir çarpı (x) işareti koyunuz. Düşüncenizi değiştirirseniz ilk yaptığınız işaretlemeyi tamamen silmeyi unutmayınız. Lütfen anlamadığınız bir cümle ile karşılaştığınızda uygulayan kişiye danışın:

- 1.Baş ağrısı
- 2.Sinirlilik ya da içinin titremesi
- 3.Zihinden atamadığınız, yineleyici, hoş gitmeyen düşünceler
- 4.Baygınlık veya baş dönmesi
- 5.Cinsel arzu ve ilginin kaybı
- 6.Başkaları tarafından eleştirilme duygusu
- 7.Herhangibir kimsenin düşüncelerinizi kontrol edebileceği fikri
- 8.Sorunlarınızdan pek çoğu için başkalarının suçlanması gerektiği duygusu
- 9.Olayları anımsamada güçlük
- 10.Dikkatsizlik veya sakarlıkla ilgili endişeler
- 11.Kolayca gücenme, rahatsız olma hissi
- 12.Göğüs veya kalp bölgesinde ağrılar

- 13.Caddelerde veya açık alanlarda korku hissi
- 14.Enerjinizde azalma veya yavaşlama hali
- 15.Yaşamınızın sonlanması düşünceleri
- 16.Başka kişilerin duymadığı sesleri duyma
- 17.Titreme
- 18.Çoğu kişiye güvenilmemesi gerektiği hissi
- 19.İştah azalması
- 20.Kolayca ağlama
- 21.Karşı cinsten kişilerle utangaçlık ve rahatsızlık hissi
- 22.Tuzağa düşürülmüş veya yakalanmış olma hissi
- 23.Bir neden olmaksızın aniden korkuya kapılma
- 24.Kontrol edilemeyen öfke patlamaları
- 25.Evden dışarı yalnız çıkma korkusu
- 26.Olanlar için kendini suçlama
- 27.Belin alt kısmında ağrılar
- 28.İşlerin yapılmasında erteleme duygusu
- 29.Yalnızlık hissi
- 30.Karamsarlık hissi
- 31.Herşey için çok fazla endişe duyma
- 32.Herşeye karşı ilgisizlik hali
- 33.Korku hissi
- 34.Duyularınızın kolayca incitilebilmesi hali
- 35.Diğer insanların sizin özel düşüncelerinizi bilmesi
- 36.Başkalarının sizi anlamadığı veya hissedemeyeceği duygusu
- 37.Başkalarının sizi sevmediği ya da dostça olmayan davranışlar gösterdiği hissi

- 38.İşlerin doğru yapıldığından emin olabilmek için çok yavaş yapma
- 39.Kalbin çok hızlı çarpması
- 40.Bulantı veya midede rahatsızlık hissi
- 41.Kendini başkalarından aşağı görme
- 42.Adale (kas) ağrıları
- 43.Başkalarının sizi gözlediği veya hakkınızda konuştuğu hissi
- 44.Uykuya dalmada güçlük
- 45.Yaptığınız işleri bir ya da birkaç kez kontrol etme
- 46.Karar vermede güçlük
- 47.Otobüs, tren, metro gibi araçlarla yolculuk etme korkusu
- 48.Nefes almada güçlük
- 49.Soğuk veya sıcak basması
- 50.Sizi korkutan belirli uğraş, yer ve nesnelere kaçınma durumu
- 51.Hiç bir şey düşünememe hali
- 52.Bedeninizin bazı kısımlarında uyuşma, karıncalanma olması
- 53.Boğazınıza bir yumru tıkanmış hissi
- 54.Gelecek konusunda ümitsizlik
- 55.Düşüncelerinizi bir konuya yoğunlaştırmada güçlük
- 56.Bedeninizin çeşitli kısımlarında zayıflık hissi
- 57.Gerginlik veya coşkunluk hissi
- 58.Kol ve bacaklarda ağırılık hissi
- 59.Ölüm ya da ölme düşünceleri
- 60.Aşırı yemek yeme
- 61.İnsanlar size baktığı veya hakkınızda konuştuğu zaman rahatsızlık duyma
- 62.Size ait olmayan düşüncelere sahip olma

63. Bir başkasına vurmak, zarar vermek, yaralamak dürtülerinin olması
64. Sabahın erken saatlerinde uyanmak
65. Yıkanma, sayma, dokunma gibi bazı hareketleri yineleme hali
66. Uykuda huzursuzluk, rahat uyuyamama
67. Bazı sevleri kırıp dökme isteği
68. Başkalarının paylaşıp kabul etmediği inanç ve düşüncelerin olması
69. Başkalarının yanında kendini çok sıkılgan hissetme
70. Çarşı, sinema gibi kalabalık yerlerde rahatsızlık hissi
71. Herşeyin bir yük gibi görünmesi
72. Dehşet ve panik nöbetleri
73. Toplum içinde yiyip-içerken huzursuzluk hissi
74. Sık sık tartışmaya girme
75. Yalnız bırakıldığınızda sinirlilik hali
76. Başkalarının sizi başarılarınız için yeterince takdir etmediği duygusu
77. Başkalarıyla birlikte olunan durumlarda bile yalnızlık hissetme
78. Yerinizde duramayacak ölçüde huzursuzluk duyma
79. Değersizlik duygusu
80. Size kötü birşey olacakmış duygusu
81. Bağırma ya da eşyaları fırlatma
82. Topluluk içinde bayılacağınız korkusu
83. Eğer izin verirsiniz insanların sizi sömüreceği duygusu
84. Cinsiyet konusunda sizi çok rahatsız eden düşüncelerin olması
85. Günahlarınızdan dolayı cezalandırılmanız gerektiği düşüncesi
86. Korkutucu türden düşünce ve hayaller
87. Bedeninizde ciddi bir rahatsızlık olduğu korkusu

88.Başka bir kişiye karşı asla yakınlık duymama

89.Suçluluk duygusu

90.Aklınızdan bir bozukluğun olduğu düşüncesi



Cevap Kağıdı

Sıra No	Hiç	Orta Derecede	Oldukça Fazla	İleri Derecede
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1.

2.

3.

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90.

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The Dyadic Adjustment Scale

İlişikte çiftler hakkında bazı cümleler bulunmaktadır. Size uyan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Her cümle için uzun uzun düşünmeyiniz. Mümkün olduğu kadar çabuk ve samimi cevaplar veriniz. Kararsızlığa düşerseniz, ilk aklınıza gelen seçenek doğrultusunda hareket ediniz. Lütfen her cümleyi cevapladığınızdan emin olunuz.

Not : Eğer boşanmışsanız, cümlelere boşanmadan önceki son bir ayınızı dik-kate alarak cevap veriniz.

		Her zaman anlaşırız	Hemen her zaman anlaşırız	Arada bir anlaşamayız	Çok sık anlaşamayız	Hemen her zaman anlaşamayız	Hiçbir zaman anlaşamayız
1	Aile gelirinin idaresi						
2	Eğlenceyle ilgili konularda						
3	Dini konularda						
4	Sevgi gösterme şekillerinde						
5	Arkadaşlar						
6	Cinsel ilişkiler						
7	Toplumsal örf ve adetlerle ilgili olarak						
8	Yaşam felsefesi						
9	Kendinizin veya eşinizin ailesiyle ilişkilerde						
10	Önemli olduğuna inanılan amaç, hedef ve diğer konularda						
11	Birlikte geçirilen zaman konusunda						
12	Çok önemli kararlar verirken						
13	Ev işlerinde						
14	Boş zaman ilgi ve uğraşlarında						
15	Mesleki kararlarda						

		Her zaman	Çoğu zaman	Yeterince	Ara sıra	Nadiren	Hiç
16	Boşanmayı, ayrı yaşamayı veya ilişkinizi sonlandırmayı ne sıklıkta tartışıyor veya düşünüyorsunuz?						
17	Kavga sonrasında siz veya eşiniz ne sıklıkta evi terkeder?						
18	Sizce genellikle, siz ve eşiniz arasında işler ne sıklıkta yolunda gider?						
19	Eşinize içinizi döker misiniz?						
20	Evlendiğiniz (veya birlikte olduğunuz) için hiç pişmanlık duyar mısınız?						
21	Eşinizle ne sıklıkta münakaşa edersiniz?						
22	Eşinizle ne sıklıkta birbirinizi sinirlendirecek şeyler yaparsınız?						

		Her gün	Hemen her gün	Arada sırada	Nadiren	Hiç
23	Eşinizi öper misiniz?					

		Hepsi	Çoğu	Bazıları	Çok azı	Hiçbiri
24	Eşinizle ev dışındaki meraklarınızın ne kadarını birlikte gerçekleştirirsiniz?					

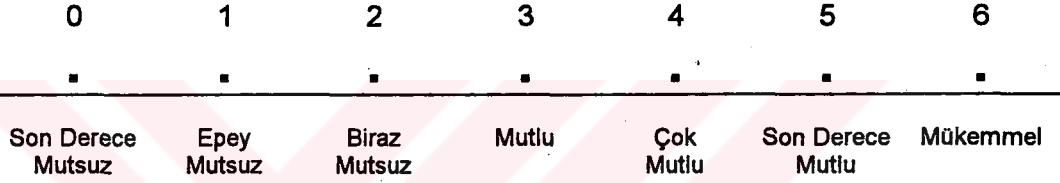
Aşağıdakilerin siz ve eşiniz arasında ne sıklıkta olduğunu söyleyebilir misiniz?

		Hiç	Ayda birden az	Ayda bir veya iki	Haftada bir veya iki	Hergün bir kere	Daha sık
25	Heyecan verici, keyifli fikir alışverişleri						
26	Beraber gülme						
27	Birlikte sakin bir şekilde tartışma						
28	Bir konu üzerinde beraber çalışma						

Aşağıdakiler, çiftlerin bazen anlaşıp bazen karşıt düştüğü şeylerdir. Aşağıdaki konular geçtiğimiz bir kaç hafta içinde aranızda fikir ayrılığı yarattıysa veya ilişkinizde sorun haline geldiyse, bunu belirtiniz. (Evet veya Hayır olarak işaretleyiniz)

		Evet	Hayır
29	Cinsel ilişki için fazla yorgun düşmek		
30	Sevgi göstermemek		

31 Aşağıdaki çizgi üzerindeki noktalar ilişkinizdeki değişik mutluluk derecelerini ifade etmektedir. "Mutlu" noktası çoğu ilişkideki mutluluk derecesini ifade eder. Lütfen, her şeyi düşünerek ilişkinizin mutluluk derecesini en iyi tarif eden noktayı, çevresine bir daire çizerek gösteriniz.



32 Aşağıdaki cümlelerin hangisi, ilişkinizin geleceğiyle ilgili hissettiklerinizi en iyi tanımlar?

- 5 İlişimin başarılı olmasını son derece fazla istiyorum ve öyle olması için her türlü şeyi yaparım.
- 4 İlişimin başarılı olmasını çok istiyorum ve öyle olması için elimden gelen her şeyi yaparım.
- 3 İlişimin başarılı olmasını çok istiyorum ve öyle olması için kendi payıma düşeni gerçekleştiririm.
- 2 İlişim başarılı olursa iyi olurdu ve başarılı olması için şimdi yaptığımdan daha fazlasını yapamam.
- 1 İlişim başarılı olsa iyi olurdu, fakat ilişkiyi sürdürmek için şu an yaptığımdan daha iyisini yapmayı reddediyorum.
- 0 İlişim hiç bir zaman başarılı olamaz ve ilişkiyi devam ettirmek için daha fazla yapabileceğim bir şey yok.