

**THE ROLE OF CHILDHOOD MALTREATMENT  
AND WITNESSING INTERPERANTAL  
CONFLICT ON DATING VIOLENCE THROUGH  
PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS**

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**İSTANBUL, 2015**

THE ROLE OF CHILDHOOD MALTREATMENT AND WITNESSING  
INTERPERANTAL CONFLICT ON DATING VIOLENCE THROUGH  
PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO  
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
OF  
BAHCESEHIR UNIVERSITY

BY

YAPRAK SALMAN

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY  
IN DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

DECEMBER 2015

T.C.

BAHÇEŞEHİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

KLINİK PSİKOLOJİ..... YÜKSEK LİSANS PROGRAMI

Tezin Adı: Çocukluk Çağı İstismarı ve Ebeveynlerarası Şiddetle Tanıl Olmanın  
Psikolojik Sıkıntı Aracılığıyla Aile Şiddeti Üzerindeki Rolü  
Öğrencinin Adı Soyadı : Yaprak Salman

Tez Savunma Tarihi : 28.12.2015

Bu tezin Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak gerekli şartları yerine getirmiş olduğu Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü tarafından onaylanmıştır.

Yrd. Doç Dr. Burak KÜNTAY  
Enstitü Müdürü  
İmza

Bu tezin Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak gerekli şartları yerine getirmiş olduğunu onaylıyorum.

  
Program Koordinatörü  
İmza

Bu Tez tarafımızca okunmuş, nitelik ve içerik açısından bir Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak yeterli görülmüş ve kabul edilmiştir.

**Jüri Üyeleri**

Tez Danışmanı Dr. Hatice Güneş

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**İmzalar**



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## **ABSTACT**

# **THE ROLE OF CHILDHOOD MALTREATMENT AND WITNESSING INTERPERANTAL CONFLICT ON DATING VIOLENCE THROUGH PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS**

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M.A, Clinical Psychology

Supervisor: Dr. Hatice Güneş

December 2015, 93 pages

The aim of the current study is to examine the relationship between childhood maltreatment, witnessing interperantal conflict and being perpetrator and victim through psychological distress in the dating violence context. It also aims to investigate the relationship between peer influence and dating violence. For these purposes, The Conflict in Adolescents Dating Relationship Inventory-Short Form (CADRI-S) have been translated into Turkish and the psychometric properties of the scale was tested on 18-25 year old youths. Moreover, Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ), was used to measure childhood maltreatment, The Conflict Tactic Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters was used to measure witnessing interperantal conflict also Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI) was used to measure psychological distress. The sample of the current study involved 477 (251 female, 226 male) young people. To test the hypothesis model structure equation modeling (SEM) was used. Result revealed that childhood maltreatment, witnessing interperantal conflict predicted being victim and perpetrator, in turn, these experiences predicted psychological distress. To compare female and male participants multi group structural equation modeling approach was used. Result indicated that childhood maltreatment was a stronger predictor for female than male participants. It was found that witnessing interperantal conflict was a stronger predictor as manifested being perpetrator and victim for only male participants.

Additionally, although both being perpetrator and victim predicted psychological distress for females, contrary to expectation being victim did not predicted psychological distress for males. In addition to that the relationship between peer influence and dating violence was found. According to literature individuals who exposed to marital violence also reported dating violence in their past relationship (O'Leary, Malone & Tyree 1994; Roscoe & Benaske, 1985). Therefore, the underlying factors of dating violence need to be understood before it turns to marital violence because the consequences of dating violence can be reduced. The results provided that childhood maltreatment, witnessing interperantal conflict can be the predictors to explain dating violence. In the light of dating violence literature, the findings, limitations and suggestion for future research were discussed.

*Keywords:* Childhood maltreatment, witnessing interperantal violence, dating violence, psychological distress.

## ÖZ

# ÇOCUKLUK ÇAĞI İSTİSMARI VE EBEVEYNLERARASI ŞİDDETE TANIK OLMANIN PSİKOLOJİK SIKINTI ARACILIĞIYLA FLÖRT ŞİDDETİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ROLÜ

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Tez Yöneticisi: Dr. Hatice Güneş

Aralık 2015, 93 sayfa

Bu çalışma çocukluk çağı istismarı, ebeveynlerarası şiddete tanıklık etmek ile flört ilişkisinde saldırgan ve kurban olmak arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek ve bu tecrübelerin psikolojik sıkıntı ile olan bağına ortaya çıkarmayı hedeflemektedir. Ayrıca, flört şiddeti ve akran etkisi arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda, flört şiddetini ölçmek için Ergen İlişkilerindeki Çatışma Envanteri Kısa Formu Türkçeye çevrilmiş, 18-25 yaş arasındaki gençler üzerinde psikometrik özellikleri test edilmiştir. Ayrıca, çocukluk çağı istismarını ölçmek için Çocukluk Çağı Travma Ölçeği, ebeveynlerarası şiddeti ölçmek için İtalyan Gençleri için Uyarlanmış Çatışma Taktik Ölçeği, psikolojik sıkıntıyı ölçmek için de Kısa Semptom Envanteri Kullanılmıştır (KSE). Çalışmaya 477 (251 kadın, 226 erkek) genç katılmıştır. Önerilen modeli test etmek için yapısal eşitlik modeli (YEM) kullanılmıştır. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlara göre çocukluk çağı istismarına uğramak, ebeveynlerarası şiddete tanıklık etmek ilişkide saldırgan ve kurban olmayı yordamaktadır. Ayrıca, ilişkide saldırgan ve kurban olmak da psikolojik sıkıntıyı yordamaktadır. Kadın ve erkek arasında fark olup olmadığını tespit etmek için çoklu grup yapısal eşitlik modeli kullanılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları göstermiştir ki çocukluk çağı istismarı erkeklere kıyasla kadınlar için daha güçlü bir yordayıcıdır. Ayrıca ebeveynlerarası şiddete tanık olmak, ilişkide saldırgan veya kurban rolünde olmayı sadece erkek katılımcılar için yordamaktadır. Bu bulgulara ek olarak, ilişkide

saldırgan ve kurban olmak psikolojik sıkıntıyı kadınlar için yordamasına rağmen beklentilerin aksine kurban olmak psikolojik sıkıntıyı erkekler için yordamamaktadır. Ayrıca, flört şiddeti ve akran etkisi arasında ilişki bulunmuştur. Literatür bulgularına göre evlilik şiddetine maruz kalanlar, eski ilişkilerinde flört şiddeti yaşadıklarını belirtmişler (O'Leary, Malone & Tyree 1994; Roscoe & Benaske, 1985). Bu sebeple, flört şiddeti evlilik şiddetine dönüşmeden önce altında yatan faktörler anlaşılmalıdır. Çünkü erken müdahale ile etkileri azaltılabilir. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre çocukluk çağı istismarı, ebeveynlerarası şiddete tanıklık etmenin flört şiddetini önemli derecede yordadığı söylenebilir. Son olarak, araştırmanın bulguları flört şiddeti literatürü kapsamında değerlendirilmiş, çalışmanın kısıtlılıkları ve gelecek çalışmalar için önerileri tartışılmıştır.

*Anahtar Kelimeler:* Çocukluk çağı istismarı, ebeveynlerarası şiddete tanıklık, flört şiddeti, psikolojik sıkıntı



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Initially I would like to thank my thesis advisor Dr. Hatice Güneş for her guidance, support and encouragement. This thesis would not have been completed without her criticism, suggestions, her valuable comments. I would also like to thank my committee member, Assist. Prof. Başak Türküler Aka and Seda Gökçe Turan for their support and valuable suggestions.

I would like to thank my friend and colleague, Zeynep Yetkin who also experience same process with me and felt anxiety and pain during that process. Without her emotional support, advices and encouraging attitudes to me this thesis would not be accomplished. She was always with me whenever I needed her. I would also like to thank Ayfer Yetkin for facilitating the data collection process.

I would like to thank my childhood friend, Sevda Okudan. She always motivated and encouraged me to work.

I would like to thank my classmates for their support. Specifically, I would like to express my appreciation to Ece Özçirak, Nurcihan Alpaydın and Nilay Uğurlu for their potential help offer in any case and their sincere support.

I would also like to thank Özge Sarıot and Christine Wekerle for their support and sincere interest on my thesis work.

Lastly but most importantly I would like to thank my mother Saynur Salman and my father Cihat Salman. I felt I was the luckiest person in the world by feeling their unconditional love, believe, support and patients toward me during that process like the every time in my life. Therefore this thesis is dedicated to my parents.

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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

Marital violence is an important problem around world that has been studied widely. The research investigated the relationship dynamics in the family. Although, previous studies mostly investigated marital violence, little is known about dating violence. However, it has recently drew attention of researchers. Because it was found that individuals who experienced marital violence also reported dating violence in their past relationships (O’Leary, Malone & Tyree 1994; Roscoe & Benaske, 1985). Therefore it can said that dating violence is a source of marital violence. Additionally, it was found that dating violence can be resulted in psychological distress (Aguliar & Nightingale, 1994; Cascardi & O’ Leary, 1992; Magdol et al., 1997; Ullman & Brecklin, 2002). Despite the importance of dating violence, there is an inadequate research regarding it. Thereby, this study aims to examine childhood maltreatment, witnessing interperantal conflict via being perpetrator and victim and the psychological distress as a consequence of dating violence. Moreover, the relationship between peer influence and dating violence will be investigated. In the following sections, dating violence, childhood maltreatment,

witnessing interparental conflict, peer influence and psychological distress will be presented respectively within the light of dating violence literature.

### **1.1 Dating Violence**

Dating is the relationship among two unmarried individuals that includes emotional, romantic or sexual connection apart from friendship (Murray & Kardatzke, 2007). Wolfe, Wekerle and Reitzel-Jaffe (1988) defined dating violence as any physical, sexual or emotional/verbal act to gain control over dating partner within the romantic relationship. There are four different types of dating violence; physical, sexual, verbal/emotional and relational violence. In the literature, to understand these types of dating violence examples of them were presented. According to that physical violence includes “hitting, punching; sexual violence involves unwanted touching, forcing dating partner for sex; emotional/verbal violence refers to isolate self/partner, name-calling, threat to harm self/other, insulting the partner” (Emelianik-Key, 2010). Relational violence was defined as an intention of damaging social relations of dating partner such as spreading rumors, excluding partner from the group, threatening partner to make him/her something (Crick, 1996). Individuals can be perpetrator or victim within the relationship in the context of dating violence. Perpetrator status refers to using violent act against dating partner. Victim status refers to inflicted violence by dating partner (Hatipoğlu, 2010).

The aggression in the relationship is used to resolve the conflict. Because the perpetrator does not have an ability regarding positive conflict resolution strategies such as rationale discussion. Therefore the perpetrator uses aggression to gain control when there is a conflict in the relationship (Maxwell, 1998).

White and Humphrey (1994) found that adolescents who experience dating violence in high school also reported relationship violence in college. Similarly,



individuals who exposed marital violence reported experiencing dating violence in their past relationships (O’Leary, Malone & Tyree 1994; Roscoe & Benaske, 1985). In other words previous dating violence experience predicts future victimization and perpetration. These studies showed that the relationship violence turn into marital violence from dating violence by changing forms if there is no intervention.

Dating violence is a major public health issue that can lead serious consequences such as depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, post traumatic stress disorder (Aguliar & Nightingale, 1994; Cascardi & O’ Leary, 1992; Magdol et al., 1997; Ullman & Brecklin, 2002). Moreover dating violence provides a basis for marital violence (e.g., Pageglow, 1984). Although the importance of dating violence is evident, previous studies mostly investigated marital violence. Because young people generally experience short-term romantic relationships and the content of relationship changes in a short time. Most importantly young people define their relationship as “seeing each other”, “crushing”, “going out” or “hooking up” (Pittman, Wolfe, & Wekerle, 2000; Theriot, 2008). This can create confusion whether there is a romantic relationship. Moreover, young people cannot readily recognize the abusive act in the relationship (Callahan et al., 2003). When they realize there is an abusive act, they focus on coping abusive act instead of ending the relationship. For example, although jealousy is the most common reason for dating violence (Adelman & Kil, 2007; Foshee, Bauman, Linder, Rice, & Wilcher, 2007; Lavoie et al., 2000; Sears et al., 2006; Wolfe et al., 2001), it also seems as a sign of love (Callahan et al., 2003). Girls annoy their boyfriends by making them jealous as a result of that boys use abusive act in the relationship. Furthermore, there is a lack of knowledge of young people to define abusive act. For example, males perceive the behavior as an abusive if the perpetrator intentionally hurt the victim. Apart from that

if the abusive act is a joke or occurred accidentally it does not define as a perpetration. However if there is emotional, physical harm as a result of abusive act girls labeled that act as an abusive (Sears, Byers, Whelan, Saint-Pierre & the Dating Violence Research Team, 2006). As far as it can see there is a confusion of defining abusive act among young people. Therefore definition of dating violence needs to be clarified. But most of studies investigated marital violence instead of focusing dating violence. Therefore there is a limited research regarding dating violence compared to marital violence in literature (Hatipoğlu, 2010). Thus, this study aims to determinate underlying factors of dating violence and also examine the relationship between experiencing dating violence and psychological distress. In the following sections prevalence of dating violence, gender differences, theoretical perspective of dating violence and related literature about intimate partner violence will be presented.

### **1.1.1 Prevalence of Dating Violence**

Dating violence is a growing problem in the society. Research finding demonstrated that it has an importance that cannot be ignored. For example, it was found that 32.9% of women exposed physical violence and 48.4% of women experienced threatening behavior from dating partner in the United States (Black et al., 2011; CDC, 2010). In addition to that, approximately 25% of women and 7.6% of men experienced physical violence or raped by a partner (Tjaden, P. & Thoennes N., 2000). Result showed that the age group of 18 to 24 had higher risk of dating violence compared to other age groups (Catalano, 2012). Therefore, it can said that college age youths are target for intimate partner violence.

Makepeace (1981) conducted a study with college students to investigate the prevalence of dating violence. Results revealed that 21% of respondents experienced dating violence at least one time and 61.5% of students knew someone who had

abused in the romantic relationship. Following studies showed dating violence occurs in high school and college age. The results revealed in the range of 10 to 25% of high school age (Henton, Cate, Koval, Lloyd, & Christopher, 1983; Roscoe & Kelsey, 1986; Sudermann & Jaffe, 1993; Wolfe, Wekerle, Reitzel-Jaffe, & Lefebvre, 1998) and 20-30% of college age youth (Billingham, 1987; Cate, Henton, Koval, Christopher, & Lloyd, 1982) experience physical and sexual violence within a dating relationship.

Based on different types of intimate partner violence, the estimation of prevalence changes. Verbal aggression is the most common type of dating violence (Bookwala, Frieze, Smith, & Ryan, 1992; Riggs & O'Leary, 1996). Many adolescents reported that mild form of verbal (e.g., name-calling, teasing) and physical violence (e.g., pushing, shoving) is perceived as normal. Because these kind of aggression is thought a sign of intimacy. Results consisted with this view that, 93% of college men and 97% of college women reported using verbal violence toward dating partner (Riggs & O' Leary, 1996).

In light of dating violence literature, previous studies focused to examine physical violence among high school and college age youths. The findings were consistent for both college (Arias, Samios, & O'Leary, 1987; Pedersen & Thomas, 1992; Sharpe & Taylor, 1999; Sigelman, Berry, & Wiles, 1984) and high school students (Avery-Leaf, Cascardi, O'Leary, & Cano, 1997; Molidar & Tolman, 1998, O'Keefe, 1997) that indicated youths experienced some form of physical violence from dating partners. Sigelman (1984) found that 58.9% of men and 47.8% of women were victim of physical violence. However Pederson and Thomas (1992) reported that 22% of college men and 40.5% of college women were in physically abused in dating relationship. Shook et. al. (2000) investigated physical and verbal

violence among college students. Result revealed that 21% of respondents reported using physical violence toward dating partner in the past year. Additionally, gender difference was not found for both type of violence. In the following study, Miller (2011) found that 25% of college students experienced physical violence. In the same study 25% of respondents were found as victim and 25% of respondents were found as perpetrator. There were also studies which showed both physical and sexual violence reported (Silverman, Raj, Mucci, & Hathaway, 2001).

In cross-cultural studies revealed that physical violence is common in the intimate relationship. Research indicated that 11.9% of African American students, 9.9% of Latinos and 8.2% Caucasian students exposed to physical dating violence (Eaton et al., 2010). Silverman (2001) found that 20% of adolescents experienced physical and sexual abuse. Similarly, Watson et al. (2001) in a study utilized a sample of 401 high school students. Result revealed that being victim of sexual violence ranged from 14% to 42% for girls while 1% to 36% of boys experiencing same type of violence. Additionally, it was found that 14% of Latino females and 15% of males exposed sexual violence (Hickman, Jaycox, & Aronoff, 2004). Foshee et al. (2009) conducted a study with a larger sample (N=973) to examine the prevalence of four different types (physical, verbal, psychological/verbal, sexual violence) of dating violence. It was found that experiencing psychological/verbal abuse is more common than other types of violence. However experiencing sexual abuse is less common among youths. Additionally, it was found that youth who have single parent experience severe physical violence (Foshee et al., 2009).

Another research investigated lifetime prevalence of dating violence among college students. Although 42.1% of young people reported experiencing at least one type of physical, emotional/verbal or sexual victimization; 17.1% of them were in

exposed physically abused; 26.2% of them experienced being victim of emotional violence; 22.9% of them experienced being victim of sexual violence; 17.1% of youths reported being perpetrator; 11.4% of them being perpetrator of physical violence, 6.3% of respondents being perpetrator of emotional violence and 4.1% of college students perpetrated sexual violence (Forke et al., 2008).

While different estimation of dating violence among young people the prevalence of findings indicate that intimate partner violence is a public health concern. Therefore why young people experience dating violence needs to be examined.

### **1.1.2 Gender Differences**

The empirical literature showed that gender is a controversial issue about being perpetrator and victim in the relationship. Although some studies found that males are more aggressive than females, other studies found that females are more aggressive than males (Foshee, 1996). In a study being victim was reported by only females (Coker et. al., 2000). Consisted with this finding it was found that 85% of females reported victimization in studies (Landfield, 2006). In the following study it was found that females were more likely abused physically than males (Marquart, Nannini, & Edward, 2007). In contrast, according to most of research females and males experience being victim with a similar rate (Howard & Wang 2003; Miller & White 2003; Molidor & Tolman 1998; O'Keefe 1997; Wolf & Foshee 2003). Similarly, several research found that the rate of being perpetrator is equivalent among females and males (Burke et al., 1988; Deal & Wampler, 1986; Follingstad et al., 1991; Follingstad et al., 1999; Foshee, 1996; Hammock & O'Heam, 2002; Holtzworth-Munroe, 2005; Stets & Pirog-Good, 1987; Worth et al., 1990).

Straus (2004) found the most extensive result in the dating violence research.

The international dating violence study included 19 countries firstly and then the scope of the research was extended as a result of that 13 countries have also been added. Results indicated that 29.2% of females reported being perpetrator whereas 24.7% males reported being perpetrator in the relationship. Despite the small differences in percent rates females were found more aggressive than males. Govern (2004) explained females' violent acts as a self-defense. Chen and White (2004) supported this result by their findings.

Williams, Ghandour, and Kub (2008) reviewed 14 studies and found that college age females reported being physically perpetrator and its rates changed between 11.7% and 39%. Five of 14 studies showed that females reported high level of being perpetrator of psychological abuse than males. In another study men reported more being perpetrator of sexual aggression than women (Holtzworth-Munroe, 2005; Williams et al., 2008). In other words although females use more psychological aggression than males, men are more sexually aggressive than women. Previous studies indicated that females perpetrated low level of violence such as pushing, slapping, emotional abuse whereas males perpetrated moderate level of violence such as punching, hitting with objects (Burke et al., 1988; Follingstad et al., 1991; Foo & Margolin, 1995; Foshee, 1996; Jezl et al., 1996; Malik et al., 1997; Makepeace, 1986; O'Keefe et al., 1986; Sigelman et al., 1984; & Schwartz et al., 1997). Moreover Lyod (1987) showed that there was a difference between males and females about expressing aggression. Because females prefer to talk about the problem when there is a conflict in the relationship whereas males prefer to avoid from that kind of interaction. This difference can increase the aggression among dating partners.

Literature findings displayed that there was a few study which investigated

relational aggression. According to that females used more relational violence compared to males (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). The aim of the relational violence is to damage the social relation of victim. According to literature social values have changed depending on gender. For example; having close relationships with the member of groups are more important for females than males. Therefore, females prefer to spread rumor regarding dating partners to harm their social relations whereas being physically aggressive is preferred by males. (Block, 1983; as cited in Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Despite, there is a limited research about relational violence within the scope of this study it will be investigated.

To sum up there is an inconsistent finding about the relationship between gender (i.e., victim, perpetrator) and dating violence. But gender is not alone an efficient factor to explain dating violence. It needs to be evaluated with some other variables within the dating violence concept. In the following section at first the theoretical background of dating violence and then factors associated with dating violence will be presented.

### **1.1.3 Theoretical Perspectives**

The three major theoretical perspectives leading dating violence research which are social learning theory, attachment theory and feminist theory.

#### **1.1.3.1 Social Learning Theory**

Social learning theory based on Bandura's (1977) idea that offers learning a behavior is more likely occur by observing and imitating of role models. Children perceive their parents or caregivers as a source of learning. Observing violence at home creates an idea in the child's mind regarding when the aggression is appropriate (Corvo & Carpenter, 2000). Therefore if a child learns violent behavior in the family, it is more likely to use later in life.

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1971) supposes that observing interparental conflict alone is not enough to learn violent act, the consequences are also important of observed violent behavior. According to that when children with violent parents experiences positive consequences of observed violent behavior such as a reward or unpunished the child would use violent behavior in similar situation. Because models of behavior are perceived as having high status, competence and power by children (Foshee et al., 1999). Verbal reasoning, listening, self-calming, negotiation are positive strategies to resolve conflict that children can learn by observing their parents. Parents who use violence do not have ability to use these positive strategies. Therefore children with violent parents may not have an opportunity to witness about how to use positive strategies when there is a conflict in the relationship (Gotman, 1979; Lyod, 1987; Margolin, Burman, & John, 1989). The risk of having dating violence increases for that children. Because the foundation of violence which were established during childhood become activated with dating onset (Early, Cains, & Mercy, 1993).

### **1.1.3.2 Attachment Theory**

The early relationship between parents and child affect how an individual acts to other people and situations (Bowlby, 1969). Mental representations about the self, the relationship and the others occur based on the attachment between parents and the child. According to that mental representation about relationship, children choose dating partners in later life. Hazan and Shaver (1987, 1994) investigated romantic relationship as an attachment process. They found that healthy partner choice depends on secure attachment models that defined as consistent and responsive childrearing. In contrast, children who had insecure attachment models such as inconsistent, intrusive or unresponsive caregiving experience unhealthy



romantic relationships. Securely attached individuals describe their relationship as happy, trusting, friendly. On the other hand insecurely attached individuals defined their love experience as including jealousy, fear of intimacy and emotional lability (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Attachment theory assumes that males and females with maltreatment history have an increased risk to become victim and perpetrator in relationship (Wekerle & Wolfe, 1999). As a result of having maltreatment background, attachment figures shape as a perpetrator or victim; aggression and a sense of authority overlaps perpetration, passivity and deficiency overlaps victimization. Therefore attachment models consisted with the selection of adolescents dating partner. Because the meaning of what the relationship is about, the expectation of dating partner and who they are in the relationship are shaped depending on attachment figures (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Waters et al., 1993).

### **1.1.3.3 Feminist Theory**

Feminist theory suggests that dating violence is the result of patriarchal value system depending on power and control struggles between men and women (e.g., Dobash et al., 1992; Larkin & Popaleni, 1994; Lyod, 1991). It views dating violence embedded because of the traditional power roles of male dominance and females subservience. For example, although men are aggressive, dominant, care-taking, competitive, having poor ability to express feelings such as fear, distress, concern women are passive, cooperative, care-giving, having poor ability to express anger from the inequality power of men and women (Miedzian, 1995; Serbin, Powlishta, & Gulko, 1993). Due to gender specific approach feminist theory considers men are in control and women are dependent. Therefore women are perceived as victims while men are perpetrators. Feminist theory claims physical danger is the result of male

aggression (Browne, 1987 & Browne, 1993). It accepts that physical violence can be used by females but it believes that female violence is the result of self-defense which generally does not end injury while male violence is evoking fear and oppressing the victim (Herman, 1992).

## **1.2 Childhood Maltreatment: Abuse and Neglect**

Childhood maltreatment defined as any act including physical, emotional, sexual abuse by a parent toward a child (Herman, 1992; Şar, 2012). However the child abuser is not only parents; the individuals that children trust can also define as a child abuser such as teachers, foreigners, trainers (Çocuk İstismarını ve İhmalini Önleme Derneği, 2013). Furthermore, the occurrence of an abusive act can be unintentionally by an adult but this is not criterion of maltreatment. It is important to determinate whether abusive act harm a child without considering intention of an adult (WHO, 2013).

### **1.2.1 Types of Childhood Maltreatment**

#### *Physical Abuse*

Physical abuse is defined non-accidental injuries of a child such as “beating, burning, biting, shaking, slapping, pulling hair, throwing, shoving, whipping” by parents or caregivers. The other examples of physical violence can be listed “unusual broken bones, black eyes, bruise marks because of objects or hands, choke marks around neck, medical requirement, inflicting by a tool or object” (Akdaş, 2005; Bonner, 2003). It is important to define physical abuse that there have to be an attack on a child’s body by an abuser as exemplified above.

#### *Emotional Abuse*

Emotional abuse affect child’s sense of efficiency negatively which refers to ego strength, setting goals, effective communication skills. Emotionally abusive

parents damage the child's sense of efficiency as a result of "humiliation, labeling, name-calling, insulting, ignoring" (Garbarino, 1978).

### *Sexual Abuse*

Finkelhor (1979) defined childhood sexual abuse as using a child for sexual gratification by an adult. There are two sexual abuse categories: physical contact with abuser and non-physical contact with abuser. Exhibitionism, voyeurism can be given as an example of non-physical sexual abuse; touching of the genitalia, breast, unwanted kissing can be given as an example of sexual abuse with physical contact (Wyatt, 1985, as cited in Akdaş, 1998).

### **1.2.2 Childhood Neglect**

There is a difference between abuse and neglect; abuse is an active concept and neglect is a passive concept (Aral, 2001). Neglect is a type of maltreatment and defined as an inadequate or lack of relationship between parents and child (Şahin, 2008). There are two types of neglect: physical and emotional neglect. Physical neglect occurs when caregivers do not provide basic physical needs of children such as food, shelter, clothing, protection, education, health care; Emotional neglect occurs when the caregiver fails to meet children's emotional and psychological needs such as love, support, nurturance (Polat 2007; Turhan et al, 2006).

Within the scope of this study three dimensions (physical, emotional and sexual abuse) of childhood maltreatment and two dimensions of neglect (physical and emotional neglect) will be examined.

### **1.2.3 Childhood Maltreatment and Dating Violence**

Various studies have been conducted to examine the link between childhood maltreatment and dating violence. For example, Moos, Fleming, Herrenkohl, and

Catalona (2010) conducted a study to find risk factors of dating violence. Different ethnicities participated to the study and ethnicity did not found as a risk factor of dating violence. However the association between maltreatment and dating violence was found (Maas et al., 2010). Smith et al. (2003) conducted a study to explore the contribution of maltreatment (i.e, parental physical abuse, sexual abuse and witnessing interparental violence) to dating violence. Females who are in the first year of college participated to the study and the survey reapplied during their fourth year of college. Result showed that women who had maltreated as an adolescent were more likely experience being victim of physical and sexual violence in college (Smith et al., 2003).

Several studies focus to examine why maltreatment increases the probability of experiencing violence in the relationship. It was found that aggression is shaped in childhood and would stay stable over time. In other words the pattern of violence has a circle and when it is established in childhood it continues further time (R.B, Cairns, B.D, Cairns, Neckerman, Ferguson, & Dariepy, 1989; Dodge, Bates, & Petit, 1990; Huesmann, Eron, Lefkowitz, & Walder, 1984; Olweus, 1979).

Several studies found that maltreated children developed adjustment and behavioral problems in their relationships. In a study physically abused young people reported more symptomology such as anxiety, depression, hostility, dissociation, somatization (Malinosky-Rummell, & Hansen, 1993). Following studies supported that children with a history of maltreatment reported more psychological and behavioral problems (Boney-McCoy, & Finkelhor, 1995). They even exhibited physical and verbal aggression while interacting with peers except dating partner (Dodge, Petit, & Bates, 1994; Salzinger, Fuldmen, Hammer, & Rosario, 1993).

Kalmus (1994) found that the aggression between husband and wife is 1% if there is no childhood maltreatment history. However if there is a childhood maltreatment history the aggression increases to 12% between husband and wife. This result indicated the importance of the relationship between childhood maltreatment and using aggression. Therefore, the intervention is necessary for violent relationship before it shapes as a lifelong state. Deborah (1999) conducted a study more than 80% of Caucasian participated to the study. The contribution of maltreatment and witnessing interparental conflict were investigated in intimate partner violence. It was found that physical maltreatment and witnessing conflict at home were indicators of being victim and perpetrator within the relationship (Deborah, 1999).

Several studies examine the link between childhood maltreatment and dating violence. Wekerle and Wolfe (1998) found that child maltreatment predicted victimization and perpetration for adolescents. Although there are different types of childhood maltreatment most studies focus on one type and that is physical abuse. Physical punishment is widely used by caregivers to discipline their children. The national family violence survey in US found that 84% of respondents viewed physical punishment as an acceptable and necessary disciplinary techniques for young children (Dibble & Straus, 1990; Straus, 1994). The gender difference was found when physical punishment is perceived as a disciplinary strategy. Research showed that boys were more physically abused than girls (Straus, Gelles, & Steinmentz, 1980). Because boys are more likely get into trouble compared to girls. Moreover boys were perceived more independent than girls and girls were thought more fragile (Beal, 1994). Therefore caregivers use physical punishment with boys to “toughen them up” (Straus et al., 1980). Thus, boys are viewed aggressive and

inadequate to resolve conflict and this reflects to romantic relationship when dating onset is activated.

Gender is a conflicting issue when considering the relationship between physical maltreatment and dating violence. For example, Alexander and her colleagues (1991) found that college male students who experienced physical maltreatment from father during childhood also experienced being victim and perpetrator in the relationship. Similarly, Follette and Alexander (1992) found that female college students with a history of physical abuse from father reported being victim and perpetrator in a romantic relationship.

Roscoe and Callahan (1985) is one of the first researchers to find the overlap between physical maltreatment and dating violence. They found that young people who were either a perpetrator or a victim had physically abused by their caregivers. Smith and Williams (1992) investigated the association between experiencing physical abuse in the family and being perpetrator in dating relationship with a larger sample that included 12 different high school students (N=1353). Results showed that physically abused adolescents were more likely become perpetrator within the relationship compared to non-physically abused adolescents. Besides, the same study demonstrated that there was a mirror effect which refers to adolescents with a history of physical maltreatment also reported the same violent act toward dating partner when they experienced in childhood.

Various studies have been examined the relationship between dating violence and physical and sexual maltreatment. The results are consistent about childhood physical and sexual abuse are predictors of dating violence (Graves, Sechrist, White, & Paradise, 2005; White & Widom, 2003). Lisak, Hopper and Song (1996) examined risk factors of intimate partner violence. Results indicated that the risk for

being perpetrator increased for young people, especially for men who had history of childhood sexual and physical abuse. Also sexually abused children tend to experience sexual violence victimization in later relationship (Gidycz, Hanson, & Layman, 1995; Humphrey & White, 2000; Koss & Dinero, 1989; Messman-Moore & Long, 2003; Siegel & Williams, 2003). Sexual maltreatment was found the most powerful type of maltreatment which had an influence on a child's relationship schemas and causes interpersonal problems (Classen, Field, Kooperman, Nevill-Manning, & Spiegel, 2001). Because sexual abuse damages the development of child's "basic beliefs about safety and trust" so the component of healthy relationship in young people shaped in a false perception (Cole & Putnam, 1992). For example, cognitive schemas may have developed based on the idea that violence is an appropriate way to express emotions.

To detect emotional abuse is more difficult compared to physical abuse. However, the negative consequences of emotional abuse is apparent. Emotionally abused child perceives their ideas, feelings are non-valued and their behaviors are condemned. Thus, they may not feel free to express their emotions (Wekerle, et al., 2009). Furthermore, maltreated children generally have a few friends so they are more likely ignored in preschool (Holt, Finkelhor, & Kantor, 2007), school age (Smith, 2006) and adolescents years (Smith, 2006). Thereby, maltreated children experience inadequate emotional sharing with caregivers and friends. Thus, the negative impact of emotional abuse become salient. Crawford and Wright (2007) found emotional abuse and neglect predicted aggression in college students. In another study which was conducted with clinical sample emotional maltreatment predicted being victim of sexual violence (Stermac, Reist, Addison, & Millar, 2002).

Similarly, Messman Moore and Brown (2004) determined rape victims exposed emotional abuse during their childhood.

### **1.3 Witnessing Interparental Conflict**

#### **1.3.1 Definition of Witnessing Interparental Conflict**

Interparental conflict is a subtopic of family violence and marital violence (Kitzmann et al., 2003; Owen et al., 2006). The literature displayed that there were various definitions of it (Kitzmann et al., 2003, Wallace, 2008; Wolfe, Crooks, Lee, McIntyre-Smith & Jaffeof, 2003). Kitzman and his colleagues (2003) defined interparental conflict as a physical aggression between adults in the family which involves slapping, pushing, punching, kicking, choking. However, Wolfe and his colleagues (2003) defined interparental conflict as an incidence at least one event that included physical aggression in the past year.

Although there are various definitions of interparental conflict, there are also different definitions of witnessing of conflict (Wolfe et al., 2003). Witnessing conflict refers to seeing violence with its physical and emotional impact (Edleson, 1999; Harne & Radford, 2008; Peled, 1993; Wolfe et al., 2003). Apart from seeing violence children can also experience violence by hearing (Harne & Radford, 2008; Peled, 2003).

#### **1.3.2 Witnessing Interparental Conflict and Dating Violence**

To understand the pattern of violent behaviors in the relationships it is significant to identify when the violent behavior pattern occur. Therefore many studies have traced witnessing interparental conflict apart from childhood maltreatment.

A number of studies have shown maltreatment history and witnessing aggression in the family predicts dating violence. Specifically, living with violent



family is a good indicator in dating violence perpetration. By witnessing parental violence, young people believe that violence is the part of intimate relationship and it is a form of expression love. Therefore, they have two expectations; one is from their dating partners which is acting in a abusive manner toward themselves and second one is exposing to an abusive act by partners (Callahan et al., 2003; Foshee, Ennett, Bauman, Benefield & Suchindran, 2005). Vezina and Hebert (2007) conducted a study that youth who had violence in the family origin tend to repeat the behavior which they observed from parents. Consequently, they found themselves in an abusive relationship. Additively, young people were looking for the relationship that includes the same characteristic of parents (Vezina & Hebert, 2007). Moreover, Arriaga and Foshee (2004) found that if the intimate relationship was modeled in a negative way youth also experienced their romantic relationship in a negative way.

Research showed that the risk for assaulting dating partner increases ten times if men witnessed aggression in the family (Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980). Consistent with the findings, Bernard and Bernard (1983) reported that 32% of males who did not experience violence in the relationship also maltreated or witnessed conflict in the family origin. However, 73% of males who experienced violence in the relationship reported maltreatment history and witnessing conflict in their family. In the same study, although 23% of females in non-violent relationship and 50% of females in violent relationship reported the history of maltreatment and witnessing conflict in their family.

Breslin, Riggs, O'Leary and Arrias (1990) concluded that male aggression is associated with observing mother's aggression against father. In the same study females who witnessed any forms of interparental violence also experienced perpetration. In contrast, a previous study demonstrated that witnessing interparental

violence was the best predictor for women's victim status (Hotelling & Sugarman, 1986). In addition to these results, also childhood abuse was found as a predictor of dating violence (Marshall & Rose, 1988; Tontodonato & Crew, 1992). As it can be seen from the results, sometimes gender difference was found between dating violence and its relationship between witnessing family aggression. The following studies also found inconsistent results about gender. Although several studies indicated that witnessing interparental aggression was predicted from male to female violence (e.g. Breslin et al., 1990; DeMaris, 1987; Gwartney-Gibbs et al., 1987; Malik et al., 1997; Marshall & Rose, 1988) many research showed that observing family aggression was predicted from female to male violence (e.g. Follete & Alexander, 1992; Malik et al., 1997; Tontodonato & Crew, 1992). Arriaga and Foshee (2004) conducted a study with high school students to examine the association between being victim and having violent parents. Most of the participants were Caucasians (83%). It was found that adolescents who had violent family were more likely experienced intimate partner violence. Additionally, gender role was investigated in the same study and found both females and males with violent families experienced abusing relationship. In one study, the association between childhood maltreatment, witnessing parental violence, sibling violence perpetration and perpetrator status in the dating relationship examined with college students. Childhood maltreatment, witnessing parental violence were found highly correlated with dating violence (Sims, N. E., J. Virginia, Dodd, & M. J. Tejada, 2008). Sims et al. evaluated dating violence via social learning perspective. They concluded that individuals are not born with aggressive tendency. They learn violent behavior by observing their caregivers.

In summary, based on literature findings despite the contradictory finding about gender, there is a link between witnessing interparental conflict and dating violence. The risk of experiencing dating violence increases if the witnessing interparental conflict and maltreatment history coexists.

#### **1.4 Peer Influence**

Adolescence is a critical period involves important developmental changes. During this period peers affect each other's ideas, behaviors or attitudes and they provides models for behavior. Moreover, peer ideas are perceived more important than family ideas. The empirical studies showed that parents have an influence of children's behavior. Also peers have an increasingly significant effect in adolescence (Harris, 1995). One of the most important topic is dating in adolescence. Generally, young people experience their first dating with the members of peer group and they define dating according to peer group's norm (Stephenson, 2011). Therefore how friends solve their own relationship problems is significant (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999; Simon, Eder, & Evans, 1992). Because the problem solving strategy of a group member models for other members in peer group. Therefore, young people make a decision about remaining in their abusive relationship based on approval or disapproval of peer group. However the importance of peer influence, a few studies have investigated how peer affect dating relationship.

Several studies stated that having friends who commit violence toward dating partners increases the risk of using dating aggression (Arriaga & Foshee 2004; DeKeserdy & Kelly 1995; Sousa 1999). DeKeseredy (1988) conducted a study with 333 college males to examine the contribution of friend influence to dating violence. Result revealed that peer groups had a significant role to experience dating violence. Smith (1991) examined peer influence on college females who stayed at Toronto

residence by applying telephone survey. Females reported that males who had abusive male friends, were in perpetrator status compared to males who had non-abusive friends. Consisted with that result female college students who were in perpetrator status in the relationship also knew females who were in the same status with them (Toronto & Crew, 1992). It was also mentioned by Reuterman and Burcky (1989) victims of dating violence knew friends who exposed to dating violence like themselves.

Capaldi et al (2001) investigated friend influence on dating violence. The males with the ages of 17 and 18 were observed while they were talking their friends. It was found that there is an association between friend's aggressive comments about women and committing violence toward dating partners at ages between 20 and 23. In the following study Huth- Bocks and Semel (2002) examined whether peer influence dating aggression. Results showed that peer influence predicted dating violence specifically for adolescents who came from violent families. Similarly, it was also found by Swart, Stevens and Ricardo (2002) that there was a relationship between using aggression toward dating partner and witnessing friends while they perpetrated violence to their partners. Additionally, negative peer behaviors have greater influence than parents behavior on dating violence (DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1995).

To sum up having friends in violent relationship may increase normalize the violence in dating relationship. Thus, if the friends perceive experiencing dating violence is normal, the youth follow the same step with peers. However, adolescents may be search out friends who are also like themselves (e.g. victim, perpetrator) in the romantic relationship (Bauman & Ernett, 1996).

## 1.5 Psychological Distress

Young people do not report incidents of dating violence because of different reasons such as fear, guilt, self-blame, loyalty to dating partner, love, misinterpretation of event, lack of understanding (Howard & Wrang, 2005; Williams & Martinez 1990). Therefore parents, health care professional, friend needs to be active to see the sign of dating violence. Recognizing symptoms is the most helpful way to determinate psychological distress caused by dating violence (Hamberger & Ambuel, 1998). Thereby, at first the definition of psychological stress needs to be clarified. Kurdek (1990) defined psychological distress as a psychological symptomology that includes somatization, obsession-compulsion, depression, anxiety, hostility, paranoid ideation, phobias, psychotic.

Many studies investigated psychological problems within the light of dating violence. In a study it was found that adolescents who experience physical violence also experience depression, anxiety, anger, suicidal ideation, post traumatic stress disorder (Singer, Anglin, Song, & Lunghofer, 1995). Additionally, high number of symptomology is associated with the failure of school performance (O'Leary & Cascardi, 1998; Sugarman & Hotaling, 1989). In another study it was found that there is a relationship between somatization and dating violence. Young people who expose dating violence is also have somatic complaints such as headaches, insomnia, hyperventilation, pain in the check, back, pelvic area, gastrointestinal symptoms, choking sensations (Dutton, Haywood, & El-Bayoumi, 1997).

Banyard and Cross (2008) conducted a study to find the psychological consequences of dating violence. According to results victims of dating violence reported depression. Studies showed that depressed individuals tend to see negative feedbacks which causes tolerating dating violence. In other words, they accept

experiencing dating violence instead of solving the relationship problem (Pineles, Mineka, & Zinbarg, 2008). The association of seeking negative feedback and depression was also found related with the concept of learned helplessness which contributed dating and domestic violence (Bargai, Ben-Shakhar & Shalev, 2007). Based on the findings all of these factors play a role together within the dating violence concept (Alloy, Abramson, Peterson & Seligman, 1984).

Ackar and Nenumark-Stainer (2002) investigated the association between eating disorder and psychological distress as it relates to dating violence with a larger sample (N= 81,247). College students who were in first and last years participated to the study. Results displayed that youths who exposed dating violence had low level of self-esteem, eating disorder behaviors, suicidal ideation. Half of the participants reported past suicide attempt. Additionally, it was found that youths reported more using diet pills, vomiting, taking laxatives, binge eating when compared youths without dating violence experiences. In another study the consequences of dating violence were found to be related to post traumatic stress disorder, less self-esteem and self worth, depression and disruption in academic performance (Chase, Treboux & O'Leary 2002). Consisted with the previous findings it was revealed that victims of dating violence experience depression, low level of self-esteem, less life satisfaction (Zlotnick, Johnson, & Kohn, 2006). Furthermore there is no clear distinction about gender and experiencing psychological distress. However, it was found that women expressed their emotions more easily than men, in turn, they reported their psychological distress easily compared to men (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987; Wood, Rhodes, & Whelan, 1989).

To sum up psychological distress was reported by young people who had violent relationship. On the other hand many studies focus on victim's psychological

condition but within the scope of the present study also perpetrator's psychological condition will be examined.

### **1.6 The Present Study**

Most studies agreed that dating violence is one of the most important public health issue which can be resulted in serious psychological distress (Aguliar & Nightingale, 1994; Cascardi & O' Leary, 1992; Magdol et al., 1997; Ullman & Brecklin, 2002). Moreover, according to relevant literature there is a high prevalence of dating violence among youths (Black et al., 2011; Makepeace, 1981; Tjaden et al., 2000) but surprisingly little is known about dating violence in Turkey. Therefore the present study focus on to investigate underlying factors of dating violence. Specifically, it is hypothesized that childhood maltreatment and witnessing interparental conflict would predict being perpetrator and victim separately, in turn, they would predict psychological distress. In addition to that according to literature youths remains in an abusive dating relationship depending on approval or disapproval of peer group. Therefore it is also hypothesized that there would be a relationship between peer influence and dating violence.

## CHAPTER 2

### METHOD

#### 2.1 Participants

The present study conducted on 586 young people. 12 of them did not fill the entire questionnaire and 60 participants did not have dating experience. As a result of that they were excluded from the data set and the original sample size of 586 was reduced to 514. In addition to that 38 participants were omitted from the data set because of the high missing responses. Mean age of total sample was 20.18 ( $SD=2.29$ , Range=18-25). Of the participants, 251 were female (%52.6) and 226 were male (%47.4). The first dating mean age was 14.45 ( $SD= 8.29$ ). Participants were asked to report where they live the longest. Of the sample, 86.4% of them were living in big cities. Participants reported their level of educational. Majority of participants (55.1%) graduated from high school. Participants were asked to report whom they live. Of the sample 82.4 % of the participants were living with their family or relatives. Participants were asked to report their parents' relationship status. Majority of sample reported their parents were married (84.4%). Participants



reported the education level of their mother and father: majority of mothers (51.4 %) and majority of fathers (49.1 %) were graduated from secondary or high school. Participants rated their family income on a five point scale. Majority of the participants (67.1%) reported moderate level of income. Participants were asked to report their sexuality in the relationship. Majority of participants (61.8%) reported no sexual relationship with partners. Participants were asked to report the frequency of seeing their partners. Majority of the participants (36.7%) reported at least three times a week. Participants reported the issues that makes serious relationship. Majority of the participants (70.4%) reported being in love. Participants reported the discussion topics with their partners. Majority of the participants (63.1%) reported jealousy. Of the sample, 31.4 % of the participants reported that they received psychological support in the past. Finally, 39.2 % of the participants reported that they had sad events except relationship problems. The demographic characteristic of sample given below in Table 2.

**Table 2.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample**

Demographic Variables	M	SD	Range
<b>Age</b>	20.18	2.29	18-25
<b>Firs Dating Age</b>	14.45	8.29	
<b>Gender</b>			
Female		52.6%	
Male		47.4%	
<b>Where participants live the longest</b>			
Big city		86.4%	
Center of city		5.0%	
Country town		5.5%	
Village		1.3%	
Abroad		1.7%	
<b>Education Level</b>			
Primary School		3.1%	
High School		55.1%	
University		39.0%	
Postgraduate		2.5%	

<b>Living with</b>	
Parents/Relatives	82.4%
Dorm/Friends	12.4%
Alone	5.2%
<b>Family Status</b>	
Married	84.4%
Divorced	13.4%
Mother or father died	4.2%
<b>Mother's Education</b>	
Under/Primary	25.8%
Secondary /High school	51.4%
University/Above	19.5%
<b>Father's Education</b>	
Under/Primary	19.1%
Secondary/High school	49.1%
University/Above	31.4%
<b>Perceived Socioeconomic Status</b>	
Very low	2.3%
Low	4.4%
Moderate	67.1%
High	23.7%
Very high	2.5%
<b>Sexuality in the relationship</b>	
Yes	35.6%
No	61.8%
<b>The issues that makes serious relationship</b>	
Being just with one person	16.1%
Being in love	70.4%
Having sex	21.6%
Lasting over a month	12.6%
Sharing secrets	40.3%
Meeting the partner's family	22.0%
Spending time together on weekends	19.3%
Other	15.7%
<b>The Frequency of Seeing Each Other</b>	
Everyday	19.3%
At least 3 times in a week	36.7%
1 or 2 times in a week	26.4%
Less than once a week	4.8%
Less than a month	3.4%

### **Discussion Topics**

Jealusy	63.1%
Personal Apperance	7.1%
Schoolwork	9.0%
Friends	34.8%
Alcohol or drugs	10.7%
Entertainment	17.8%
When not keeping promises	39.8%
Clothing	19.7%
Not acting in a way that the partner wants	39.8.%
Doing thing that the partner doesn't approve	32.3%
Seeing other people	23.5%
Sex	9.6%
Someone's relative or family	3.8%
Other	13.6%

### **Psychological support in the past**

Yes	31.4%
No	68.3%

### **Having sad events except rationship problems**

Yes	39.2%
No	58.3%

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## **2.2 Instruments**

The instruments consist of three questionnaires and a demographic information form: firstly, participants filled out detailed demographic information form and then The Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationship Inventory-Short Form (CADRI-S), peer influence, The Conflict Tactic Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters, the childhood trauma questionnaire short form and Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI) were completed by participants.

### **2.2.1 Demographic Information Form**

The demographic information form was designed to obtain basic information about participants such as age, gender, the place they mostly live, education, family status, educational level of parents, perceived income of family.

Moreover it comprised the questions about relationship characteristic such as the age of first date, sexuality in the relationship, the issues that make relationship serious, the frequency of seeing each other, the subjects of discussion, having psychological supports and experiencing any sad events except relationship problems (Gonzalez et al., 2012; Uzgel, 2004).

### **2.2.2 The Conflict in Adolescents Dating Relationship Inventory-Short Form (CADRI-S)**

The Conflict in Adolescents Dating Relationship Inventory (CADRI) was developed to assess dating aggression among dating partners (Wolfe et al., 2001). The Conflict in Adolescents Dating Relationship Inventory-Short Form (CADRI-S) has five subscales like the original scale; physical violence, sexual violence, verbal-emotional violence, threatening behaviors and relational violence. Each subscales has two items, in the whole scale there are 10 items. Each item is asked twice to determinate perpetrator and victim status: perpetrator refers to when the participant report perpetrating aggression against the partner and not being the victim of any aggression by the partner; victim refers to when the participant report not perpetrating any aggression against the partner and being victim of aggression by the partner. It is a self-report questionnaire and measured 4-point Likert scale (0=never, 1=seldom; this has happened only 1-2 times in your relationship, 2=sometimes; this has happened about 3-5 times in your relationship, 3=often; this has happened 6 times or more). The low scores in the scale refer to less frequent of experiencing dating violence, high scores refer to experiencing more frequent dating violence.

The standardization of CADRI-S was done two times by using different samples and only perpetrator data was considered. The internal consistency

coefficients for CADRI-S is .85 in high school student sample and .81 in child protective service (CPS) youth sample (Wekerle et al., 2012).

Gonzalez, Wekerle, and Goldstein (2012) developed a short form CADRI (i.e., CADRI-S). They tested only perpetrator part of the scale. They found interpretable 5-factor structure for CADRI-S ( $\chi^2(30) = 22.49, p = .84, NFI = .88, NNFI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00$ ). CADRI-S was also modified to Turkish via an appropriate translation process and validity and reliability research. The permission for using the scale was received from Christine Wekerle through an e-mail. Moreover, the approval for using university students as a sample was obtained from the author. The scale was translated into Turkish by two psychologist who are fluent in English. Three different psychologist with PhD rated the two different translated forms of scale. In the current study both victim and perpetrator data were considered for reliability and validity research, rather than only perpetrator subscale as used in Gonzalez, Wekerle, and Goldstein (2012) article. To conduct construct validity, CFA was run using Mplus 6.12 (Muthen, Muthen, 2011). We run 10-factor structure model in which 5-factor for perpetrator subscale and 5-factor victim subscale were tested. Each factor was represented with two items. CFA results yielded good fit to the data, ( $\chi^2(124) = 515.22, p < .01, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .08$  (90% CIs .07 - .09), SRMR = .05. All factor loadings were significant and ranged from .59 to .99 (see Figure 2.1). Structural correlations between latent variables were also significant. Internal consistency scores of the factors were satisfactor. Table 2.2 represents Cronbach alpha scores of the factors.

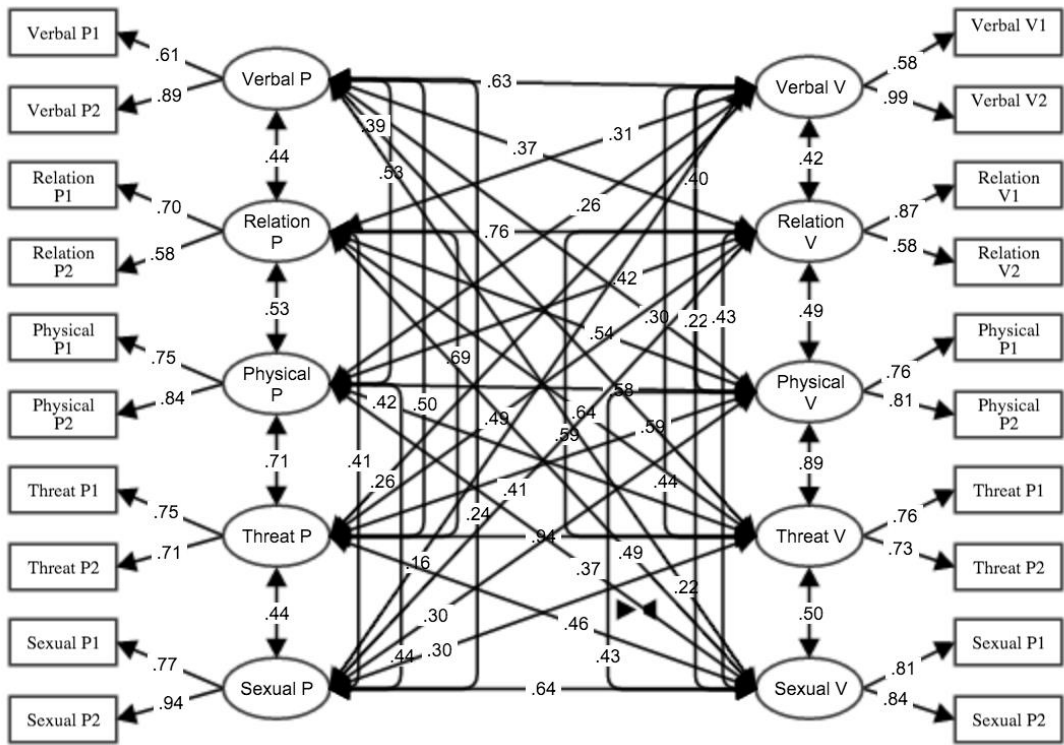


Figure 1. CFA Analysis and Factor Loadings of the Items

**Table 2.2. Cronbach Alpha Scores of the Factors and Correlations among Study Variables**

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
1. Verbal Perpetrator	<b><math>\alpha = .67</math></b>																						
2. Verbal Victim	.501**	<b><math>\alpha = .71</math></b>																					
3. Relational Perpetrator	.320**	.290**	<b><math>\alpha = .57</math></b>																				
4. Relational Victim	.253**	.340**	.484**	<b><math>\alpha = .66</math></b>																			
5. Physical Perpetrator	.467**	.239**	.434**	.357**	<b><math>\alpha = .77</math></b>																		
6. Physical Victim	.266**	.436**	.424**	.454**	.483**	<b><math>\alpha = .75</math></b>																	
7. Threatening Behavior Perpetrator	.397**	.243**	.466**	.366**	.580**	.441**	<b><math>\alpha = .69</math></b>																
8. Threatening Behavior Victim	.298**	.437**	.453**	.476**	.366**	.664**	.638**	<b><math>\alpha = .71</math></b>															
9. Sexual Perpetrator	.169**	.090*	.350**	.485**	.347**	.268**	.363**	.268**	<b><math>\alpha = .84</math></b>														
10. Sexual Victim	.143**	.125**	.349**	.472**	.306**	.310**	.352**	.374**	.725**	<b><math>\alpha = .81</math></b>													
11. Anxiety	.215**	.215**	.322**	.212**	.261**	.266**	.192**	.254**	.176**	.243**	<b><math>\alpha = .69</math></b>												
12. Depression	.231**	.243**	.225**	.153**	.224**	.218**	.167**	.221**	.162**	.197**	.848**	<b><math>\alpha = .71</math></b>											
13. Negative Self	.211**	.196**	.271**	.209**	.269**	.250**	.194**	.236**	.212**	.272**	.871**	.835**	<b><math>\alpha = .74</math></b>										
14. Somatization	.177**	.199**	.271**	.173**	.256**	.267**	.186**	.257**	.183**	.206**	.782**	.697**	.689**	<b><math>\alpha = .69</math></b>									
15. Hostility	.287**	.202**	.235**	.138**	.303**	.221**	.221**	.218**	.160**	.206**	.718**	.739**	.691**	.585**	<b><math>\alpha = .81</math></b>								
16. Emotional Abuse	.288**	.247**	.395**	.320**	.377**	.337**	.315**	.319**	.338**	.368**	.463**	.419**	.492**	.403**	.395**	<b><math>\alpha = .82</math></b>							
17. Physical Abuse	.207**	.187**	.391**	.289**	.317**	.328**	.274**	.293**	.387**	.409**	.347**	.236**	.342**	.353**	.234**	.631**	<b><math>\alpha = .75</math></b>						
18. Physical Neglect	.258**	.157**	.387**	.290**	.322**	.254**	.220**	.218**	.351**	.321**	.261**	.153**	.263**	.245**	.158**	.512**	.539**	<b><math>\alpha = .76</math></b>					
19. Emotional Neglect	.265**	.187**	.259**	.192**	.252**	.208**	.228**	.204**	.165**	.186**	.266**	.257**	.310**	.232**	.246**	.474**	.254**	.570**	<b><math>\alpha = .83</math></b>				
20. Sexual Abuse	.184**	.209**	.281**	.288**	.266**	.291**	.252**	.266**	.365**	.344**	.360**	.252**	.326**	.339**	.270**	.478**	.495**	.402**	.251**	<b><math>\alpha = .78</math></b>			
21. Minimization score	-.164**	-.133**	-.089*	-.069	-.060	-.120**	-.095*	-.137**	-.038	-.075	-.152**	-.179**	-.184**	-.125**	-.110*	-.250**	-.112*	-.278**	-.550**	-.082	<b><math>\alpha = .92</math></b>		
22. Interparental Conflict From Mom to Dad	.310**	.258**	.388**	.286**	.367**	.348**	.366**	.373**	.252**	.338**	.344**	.266**	.329**	.317**	.299**	.554**	.501**	.389**	.349**	.388**	-.204**	<b><math>\alpha = .87</math></b>	
23. Interparental Conflict From Dad to Mom	.382**	.262**	.401**	.265**	.431**	.353**	.415**	.366**	.239**	.278**	.317**	.298**	.338**	.301**	.308**	.521**	.346**	.391**	.492**	.323**	-.284**	.677**	<b><math>\alpha = .67</math></b>
24. Peer Influence	.359**	.300**	.320**	.224**	.398**	.287**	.369**	.292**	.132**	.197**	.264**	.230**	.231**	.204**	.265**	.322**	.162**	.257**	.335**	.241**	.335**	.377**	

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), \*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

### **2.2.3 Peer Influence**

There is no scale which directly assess peer influence on dating violence. The aim is to assess of participant's perceptions whether their peers experience dating violence. It was measured by selecting items from the dating violence scale which represent different types of violence such as "yelling at/insulting, threatening to hit or throw something at partner, pushing/shaking, pulling hair, kissing partner against their will, hitting/kicking something or partner" (Kinsfogel & Grych, 2004). Therefore, in the current study to measure peer influence on dating violence the items of CADRI-S was used. Participants were asked to answer a 4-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 4 (often) by thinking items of CADRI-S whether how often their friends experience dating violence in their relationship.

### **2.2.4 The Conflict Tactic Scale Adapted Form Italian Youngsters**

The Conflict Tactic Scale Adapted Form Italian Youngsters is the modified version of the Conflict Tactic Scale which was developed by the students in University of New Hampshire in 1971. The studies that were conducted between 1971 and 1979 contributed to the development of scale. The scale has received the final version by the studies of Straus (1979). The scale assesses the tactic choices of family members when there is a conflict. It contains 18 items and three subscales: 'reasoning' which is based on reasoning to resolve the conflict in family such as rational discussion and 'verbal aggression' includes verbal and non-verbal acts to resolve the conflict with family members and 'violence' involves physical acts against other family member to deal with conflict in family.

Baldry (2003) adapted the modified version of the CTS for Italian youngsters to assess witnessing interparental violence of youngsters with the age range of 9 to 17. The items related to intense violence such as threatening with the



gun or sexual violence have been excluded because of ethical concern. The adapted form consists two subscales; the subscales measures witnessing interparental conflict from mother father (MTV) and witnessing interparental conflict from father to mother (FTV). Whole scale has 10 items, 5 items for each subscales. The scale is a 5 point Likert type, ranging from 1 (never happened) to 5 (always happened). High scores indicated that witnessing more frequent interparental conflict. The internal consistency coefficient for the mother violence against the father .70 and for the father violence against the father .81 were found (Baldry, 2003).

The standardization of the Conflict Tactic Scale Adapted Form Italian Youngsters was done two times with different samples (Sariot, 2011 & 2014). In the first adaptation process, 214 primary school students involved in the study. The internal consistency coefficient was found .88 for MTV subscale and .85 for FTV subscale. In the second adaptation process, 418 university students participated in the study (M=21.7 years) Results of the second adaptation study indicated that cronbach's alpha for MTV .79 and for FTV .89 were found.

### **2.2.5 The Childhood Trauma Questionnaire Short Form (CTQ-28)**

The Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ; Berstein et. al, 1994) was developed in order the asses childhood or adolescent abuse and neglect before the age of 20. Although the original scale contains 70 items, the number of items of CTQ has been reduced to 54 by the same researcher in 1995. The scale re-arranged in 1998 and it consists of 28 items which is a self-report questionnaire and measured 5-point likert scale, ranging from 1 (never happened) to 5 (always happened). Like the original scale the short form of CTQ-28 has five subscales; physical abuse, emotional abuse, sexual abuse, emotional neglect and physical neglect. Apart from

the subscales of it also gives a minimization score which assess the denial of the trauma of participants.

The scale was adapted into Turkish by Şar, Öztürk and İkikardeş (2012). The scale was found internally consisted with cronbach's alpha coefficient of .90 for pyhsical abuse and .85 for emotional abuse subscales, .73 for sexual abuse subscale, .85 for emotional neglect subscale, .77 for pyhsical neglect subscale, and .71 for minimization score.

### **2.2.6 Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI)**

Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI) was developed by Deragotis (1992) to assess psychological symptoms of adolescents and adults. It's the short form of SCL-90-R (Symptom Checklist-90 Revised). The scale involves 53 items and 9 subscales which are somatization; obsessive-compulsive; interpersonal sensivity; depression; anxiety; hostility; phobic anxiety; paranoid ideation; and psychoticism. Responses are given 5 level of likert type scale ranged from 0 (never) to 4 (extremely).

The scale was adapted into Turkish by Şahin and Durak (1994). Factor analysis found 5 factors namely; anxiety, depression, negative self, somatization and hostility. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were found to be between .93 and .96. Moreover scores for alpha coefficient ranged from .63 to .86 for subscales.

### **2.3 Procedure**

Initially, the permission was taken from The Ethical Committiee of Bahçeşehir University. The instruments were presented to participants online and a classroom setting. The teachers from Department of Psychology, Child Development and Cinema in Bahçeşehir University and Uğur Education Institution were informed about the study. Participants were informed about the aim of study and assured the confidentiality of responses. Participation to the study based on voluntarily. They

were also informed that if they found the questions disturbing they could quit the questionnaires any time. It took approximately 20 minutes to complete questionnaires.

#### **2.4 Data Analytic Strategy**

In order to examine our research questions, we conducted a series of analysis. Firstly, independent sample t test and ANOVAs were run to examine demographic differences in the study variables. Secondly, Pearson correlation coefficients calculated to understand relationships among the study variables. Thirdly, a structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to test hypothesized model in which the relationships between childhood maltreatment, witnessing interparental conflict and psychological distress via dating violence (i.e., perpetrator and victim). The same model was tested for female and male participants by using multigroup comparisons.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESULTS

#### 3.1 Descriptive Differences in the Study Variables

Independent sample t test were conducted to calculate gender differences in terms of dating violence, childhood maltreatment, witnessing interperantal conflict and psychological distress (see Table 3.1). The results displayed that women ( $M = 1.14$ ,  $SD = .80$ ),  $t(475) = 3.32$ ,  $p < .05$  were reported higher level of verbal violence victim compared to men ( $M = .90$ ,  $SD = .70$ ). Gender difference was also found to be significant  $t(475) = -3.51$ ,  $p < .05$ , suggested that men ( $M = .41$ ,  $SD = .70$ ) experienced being victim of relational violence more than women ( $M = .21$ ,  $SD = .52$ ). The results also showed that men ( $M = .30$ ,  $SD = .67$ ),  $t(475) = -3.601$ ,  $p < .05$ , reported higher level of sexual violence perpetrator compared to women ( $M = .11$ ,  $SD = .43$ ).

Gender differences of participants were also investigated in terms of childhood maltreatment. The results showed that men reported higher level of experiencing physical abuse ( $M_{men} = 1.21$ ,  $SD = .60$ ;  $M_{women} = 1.11$ ,  $SD = .39$ ),

$t(475) = -2.25, p < .05$ , physical neglect ( $M_{men} = 1.64, SD = .66; M_{women} = 1.40, SD = .53$ ),  $t(475) = -4.28, p < .05$ , and emotional neglect ( $M_{men} = 2.31, SD = .99; M_{women} = 2.04, SD = 1.03$ ),  $t(475) = -2.87, p < .05$ , compared to women. The results also displayed that women ( $M = .86, SD = 1.06$ ) denied their trauma compared to men ( $M = .57, SD = .87$ ),  $t(475) = 3.17, p < .05$ . Furthermore, women reported experiencing high level of anxiety ( $M_{women} = 1.21, SD = .83; M_{men} = .98, SD = .79$ ),  $t(475) = 3.04, p < .05$ , depression ( $M_{women} = 1.65, SD = .95; M_{men} = 1.25, SD = .90$ ),  $t(475) = 4.67, p < .05$  and somatization ( $M_{women} = .98, SD = .75; M_{men} = .77, SD = .73$ ),  $t(475) = 3.02, p < .05$  compared to men. The results also showed that there was no significant difference between gender and witnessing interparental conflict. Moreover, the relationship between study variables and demographic characteristics was found non-significant.

**Table 3.1. Gender Differences on Main Study Variables**

	Total		Women		Men		t
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Verbal Perpetrator	1.11	.76	1.12	.74	1.10	.78	.22
Verbal Victim	1.03	.80	1.14	.85	.90	.70	3.32**
Relational Perpetrator	.31	.60	.32	.59	.28	.61	.71
Relatioanal Victim	.31	.62	.21	.52	.41	.70	-3.51**
Physical Perpetrator	.52	.75	.57	.75	.45	.74	1.80
Physical Victim	.40	.68	.42	.63	.37	.72	.80
Theratening Behavior Perpetrator	.52	.75	.47	.70	.56	.80	-1.27
Theretening Behavior Victim	.42	.69	.43	.67	.39	.70	.67
Sexual Perpetrator	.20	.57	.11	.30	.43	.67	-3.60
Sexual Victim	.32	.67	.28	.60	.36	.74	-1.39
Emotional Abuse	1.52	.72	1.49	.71	1.55	.73	-.89
Physical Abuse	1.16	.50	1.11	.39	1.21	.60	-2.25*
Physical Neglect	1.51	.61	1.40	.53	1.64	.66	-4.28**
Emotional Neglect	2.17	1.02	2.04	1.03	2.31	.99	-2.87**
Sexual Abuse	1.30	.64	1.27	.58	1.33	.70	-.90
Minimization Score	.72	.99	.86	1.06	.57	.87	3.17**
Interperantal Conflict from mother to father	1.49	.70	1.47	.73	1.49	.66	-.25

**(Table 3.1 continued)**

Interperantal Conflict from father to mother	1.69	.83	1.67	.85	1.70	.81	-.44
Anxiety	1.10	.82	1.21	.83	.98	.79	3.04**
Depression	1.46	.96	1.65	.95	1.25	.90	4.67**
Negative Self	1.11	.90	1.19	.92	1.03	.85	1.91
Somatization	.89	.76	.98	.75	.77	.73	3.02**
Hostility	1.54	.87	1.61	.85	1.47	.88	1.79
Perpetrator	.53	.50	.52	.44	.54	.56	-.44
Victim	.49	.50	.50	.47	.49	.53	.20

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

### 3.2 Relations among the Study Variables

Pearson correlation was conducted to assess the pattern and strength of associations between variables. Table 2.3 summarize correlations between physical perpetration and victimization, verbal perpetration and victimization, relational perpetration and victimization, sexual perpetration and victimization, threatening behavior perpetration and victimization measured by CADRI-S, physical abuse and neglect, emotional abuse and neglect, sexual abuse measured by CTQ-28, depression, somatization, negative self, anxiety, hostility measured by IBS, violence from mother to dad and violence from father to mother measured by the conflict tactic scale adapted for Italian youngster.

As expected all correlations between variables were significant. The results of the correlation analysis showed that interperantal conflict from mother to father was positively correlated with verbal victim ( $r = .26, p < .01$ ) and perpetrator ( $r = .31, p < .01$ ), relational perpetrator ( $r = .39, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ), physical perpetrator ( $r = .37, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .35, p < .01$ ), threatening behaviour perpetrator ( $r = .37, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .37, p < .01$ ), sexual perpetrator ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .34, p < .01$ ). Similarly, interperantal conflict from father to mother was positively correlated with verbal victim ( $r = .26, p < .01$ ) and perpetrator ( $r = .38, p < .01$ ), relational perpetrator ( $r = .40, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .26, p < .01$ ), physical perpetrator ( $r = .43, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .35, p < .01$ ), threatening behaviour perpetrator ( $r = .41, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .37, p < .01$ ), sexual perpetrator ( $r = .24, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .28, p < .01$ ).

The childhood maltreatment was associated with dating aggression. According to that emotional abuse was positively correlated with verbal victim ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ) and perpetrator ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ), relational perpetrator ( $r = .40, p < .01$ )



and victim ( $r = .32, p < .01$ ), physical perpetrator ( $r = .38, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .34, p < .01$ ), threatening behaviour perpetrator ( $r = .32, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .32, p < .01$ ), sexual perpetrator ( $r = .34, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .37, p < .01$ ). Similarly, emotional neglect was positively correlated with verbal victim ( $r = .19, p < .01$ ) and perpetrator ( $r = .27, p < .01$ ), relational perpetrator ( $r = .26, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .19, p < .01$ ), physical perpetrator ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .21, p < .01$ ), threatening behaviour perpetrator ( $r = .23, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .20, p < .01$ ), sexual perpetrator ( $r = .17, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .19, p < .01$ ). Moreover physical neglect was positively correlated with verbal victim ( $r = .16, p < .01$ ) and perpetrator ( $r = .26, p < .01$ ), relational perpetrator ( $r = .39, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ), physical perpetrator ( $r = .32, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ), threatening behaviour perpetrator ( $r = .22, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .22, p < .01$ ), sexual perpetrator ( $r = .35, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .32, p < .01$ ). Furthermore physical abuse was positively correlated with verbal victim ( $r = .19, p < .01$ ) and perpetrator ( $r = .21, p < .01$ ), relational perpetrator ( $r = .39, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ), physical perpetrator ( $r = .32, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .33, p < .01$ ), threatening behaviour perpetrator ( $r = .27, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ), sexual perpetrator ( $r = .39, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .41, p < .01$ ). Finally, sexual abuse was positively associated with verbal victim ( $r = .21, p < .01$ ) and perpetrator ( $r = .18, p < .01$ ), relational perpetrator ( $r = .28, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ), physical perpetrator ( $r = .27, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ), threatening behaviour perpetrator ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .27, p < .01$ ), sexual perpetrator ( $r = .37, p < .01$ ) and victim ( $r = .35, p < .01$ ).

In addition, psychological distress was related with dating aggression. According to correlation results anxiety was positively correlated with verbal victim

$(r = .22, p < .01)$  and perpetrator  $(r = .22, p < .01)$ , relational perpetrator  $(r = .32, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .21, p < .01)$ , physical perpetrator  $(r = .26, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .27, p < .01)$ , threatening behaviour perpetrator  $(r = .19, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .25, p < .01)$ , sexual perpetrator  $(r = .18, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .24, p < .01)$ . Depression was positively associated with verbal victim  $(r = .24, p < .01)$  and perpetrator  $(r = .23, p < .01)$ , relational perpetrator  $(r = .23, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .15, p < .01)$ , physical perpetrator  $(r = .22, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .22, p < .01)$ , threatening behaviour perpetrator  $(r = .17, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .22, p < .01)$ , sexual perpetrator  $(r = .16, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .20, p < .01)$ . Negative self was positively correlated with verbal victim  $(r = .20, p < .01)$  and perpetrator  $(r = .21, p < .01)$ , relational perpetrator  $(r = .27, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .21, p < .01)$ , physical perpetrator  $(r = .27, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .26, p < .01)$ , threatening behaviour perpetrator  $(r = .19, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .24, p < .01)$ , sexual perpetrator  $(r = .21, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .27, p < .01)$ . Somatization was positively correlated with verbal victim  $(r = .20, p < .01)$  and perpetrator  $(r = .18, p < .01)$ , relational perpetrator  $(r = .27, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .17, p < .01)$ , physical perpetrator  $(r = .26, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .27, p < .01)$ , threatening behaviour perpetrator  $(r = .19, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .26, p < .01)$ , sexual perpetrator  $(r = .18, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .21, p < .01)$ . Finally, hostility was positively correlated with verbal victim  $(r = .20, p < .01)$  and perpetrator  $(r = .29, p < .01)$ , relational perpetrator  $(r = .24, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .14, p < .01)$ , physical perpetrator  $(r = .30, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .22, p < .01)$ , threatening behaviour perpetrator  $(r = .22, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .22, p < .01)$ , sexual perpetrator  $(r = .16, p < .01)$  and victim  $(r = .21, p < .01)$ .

To assess the association between peer influence and dating violence pearson correlation was conducted. Table 3.2 also displayed that peer influence was

correlated with verbal perpetrator ( $r = .36, p < .01$ ), verbal victim ( $r = .30, p < .01$ ), relational perpetrator ( $r = .32, p < .01$ ), relational victim ( $r = .22, p < .01$ ), physical perpetrator ( $r = .40, p < .01$ ), physical victim ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ), threatening behaviour perpetrator ( $r = .37, p < .01$ ), threatening behaviour victim ( $r = .30, p < .01$ ), sexual perpetrator ( $r = .13, p < .01$ ) and sexual victim ( $r = .20, p < .01$ ).

### **3.3 Testing the Hypotesized Model: The link between childhood maltreatment history, interparental conflict and psychological distress via dating violence**

#### **3.3.1 The Measurement Model**

To examine the potential meditational models, a structural model was run. As an analytical strategy, initially, a measurement model was run, in which 5 latent variables were represented by 22 observed variables (see Figure 2). Specifically, the childhood maltreatment latent variable was comprised of 5 indicators from different subscales of CTQ-28 (i.e., emotional abuse, physical abuse, physical neglect, emotional neglect, and sexual abuse). Witnessing interparental conflict latent variable had two different indicators, namely violence from mother to father and violence from father to mother. In the hypothesized model, dating violence included two different latent variables: being perpetrator and being victim. Being perpetrator is represented by items obtained from CADRI-S scale's sub dimensions (i.e., verbal, relational, physical, and threatening behavior and sexual violence). Similarly, being victim in the relationship was also comprised of subscales of CADRI-S's sub dimensions indicating reports on the being victim in the relationship context (i.e., verbal, relational, physical, and threatening behavior and sexual violence). Finally, as an outcome variable, psychological distress consisted of anxiety, depression, negative self-evaluations, somatization, and hostility subscale of BSI. Figure 2 depicted factor loadings of indicators representing latent variables and structural

correlations between latent variables. Measurement model results yielded an adequate fit to the data and all indicators significantly represented latent variables ( $\chi^2$  (199) = 1054.82,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .86, RMSEA = .09 (90% CIs .08 - .10), SRMR = .07). Modification indices suggested to adding error covariance between being victim and perpetrator in threatening and verbal behaviors would increase model fit significantly. Thus, two correlated error were freed in the measurement model. The resulting model fit to the data good ( $\chi^2$  (197) = 830.92,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .90, RMSEA = .08 (90% CIs .07 - .09), SRMR = .06; see Figure 2).



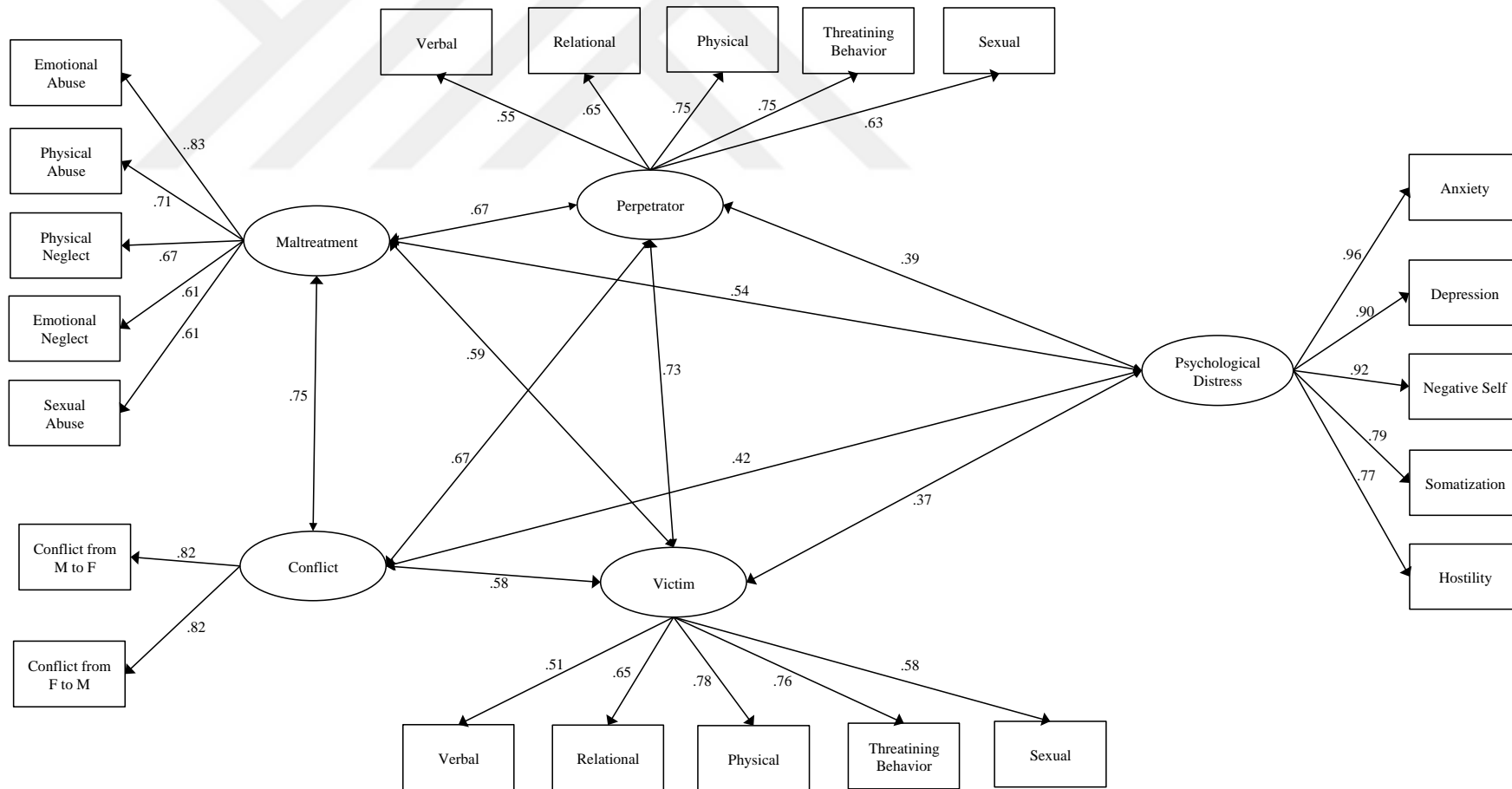


Figure 2. Measurement Model for the Proposed Mediation Model

### 3.3.2 The Structural Model

The proposed model examined the relationship between childhood maltreatment, witnessing interparental conflict and psychological distress via being perpetrator and victim in the relationship violence context. Specifically, it was hypothesized that childhood maltreatment and witnessing interparental conflict would predict being perpetrator and victim separately, in turn they would predict psychological distress (see Figure 3). Then, the hypothesized model was run using maximum likelihood as an estimator and covariance matrix as an input using MPlus 6.12 (Muthen & Muthen, 2011). The bias-corrected bootstrapping (1000) results yielded an acceptable fit to the data,  $\chi^2(231) = 930.62$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .88, RMSEA = .08 (90% CIs .07 - .09), SRMR = .08. The modification indices also suggested that adding error covariance between interparental conflict from father to mother and from mother to father (1); and sexual violence in the relationship as a victim and perpetrator (2) would increase model fit significantly. Considering theoretical consistency, regarding the measurement error between these observed variable could be correlated; thus, error covariances were added to the equations. The resulting structural model showed a good fit to the data,  $\chi^2(198) = 790.16$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .90, RMSEA = .08 (90% CIs .07 - .09), SRMR = .08.

The proposed model showed that maltreatment positively predicted being perpetrator and being victim in relationship violence ( $\beta = .46$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $\beta = .41$ ,  $p < .001$ , *respectively*). Similarly, witnessing interparental conflict positively predicted being perpetrator and being victim in relationship violence ( $\beta = .38$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $\beta = .34$ ,  $p < .001$ , *respectively*). Being perpetrator and victim also predicted psychological distress positively ( $\beta = .29$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $\beta = .24$ ,  $p < .001$ , *respectively*).

1000 samples were drawn to estimate the bias-corrected bootstrap standard

errors and obtain CIs for the estimates. Results confirmed the presence of the mediations, the indirect associations of maltreatment to psychological distress via being perpetrator and victim in dating violence (95% CI = -.032, -.002; 95% CI = -.436, -.022; *respectively*). The relationships between witnessing interparental conflict and psychological distress via being perpetrator and victim in dating violence were also significant (95% CI = -.446, -.349; 95% CI = -.556, -.122; *respectively*).

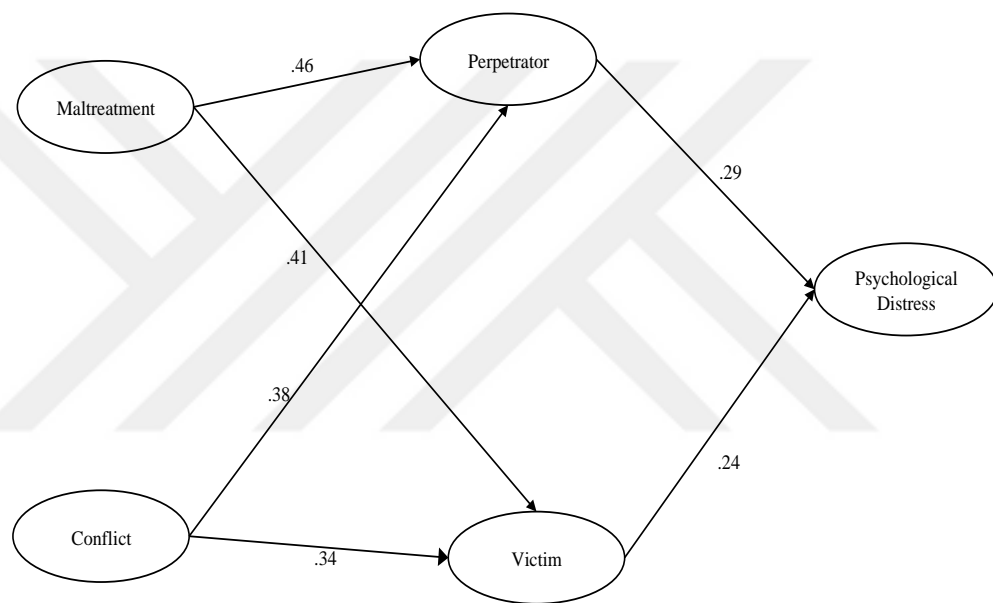


Figure 3. The Structural Model for the Proposed Mediation Model

Overall, the estimated model showed that increased childhood maltreatment witnessing interparental conflict reports of the participants predicted increased rate of being perpetrator and victim in dating violence, in turn, these experiences predicted psychological distress reported by the participants.

### 3.4 Multigroup Comparison: Testing Group Invariance

To compare female and male participants on the proposed model, a multigroup structural equation modeling approach was used. To test factor loading, means, and intercepts invariance, these parameters were set equal across groups (constrained model), and then compared this model with unconstrained model. Chi square difference test yielded that constrained model was significantly different from unconstrained model, indicating female and male participants had different factor loadings, means, and intercepts in the latent variables ( $\Delta\chi^2(9) = 22.53, p < .01$ ). Following these results, to test if there was a different pattern in the meditational model across female and male participants', no means or intercepts were estimated in these models (see Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006 for similar procedure). Results indicated an acceptable fit to the data,  $\chi^2(434) = 1459.22, p < .001, CFI = .86, RMSEA = .10$  (90% CIs .08 - .10), SRMR = .09.

The estimated model for female participants ( $N = 251$ ) showed that childhood maltreatment predicted being perpetrator and victim in the relationship violence ( $\beta = .74, p < .001; \beta = .63, p < .001, respectively$ ), in turn, they predicted psychological distress ( $\beta = .27, p < .01; \beta = .38, p < .001, respectively$ ). Witnessing interparental conflict, however, did not predicted being perpetrator (see Figure 3). Besides, witnessing interparental conflict predicted marginally being victim in the relationship violence ( $\beta = .23, p = .06$ ). The estimated model for male participants proposed a slightly different pattern from the model for females. Specifically, childhood maltreatment and witnessing interparental conflict predicted both being perpetrator ( $\beta = .28, p < .01; \beta = .62, p < .001, respectively$ ) and victim ( $\beta = .30, p < .01; \beta = .35, p < .01, respectively$ ) in the relationship violence, in turn, only being



perpetrator (but not being victim) predicted psychological distress ( $\beta = .34, p < .001$ ;  
(see Figure 4).



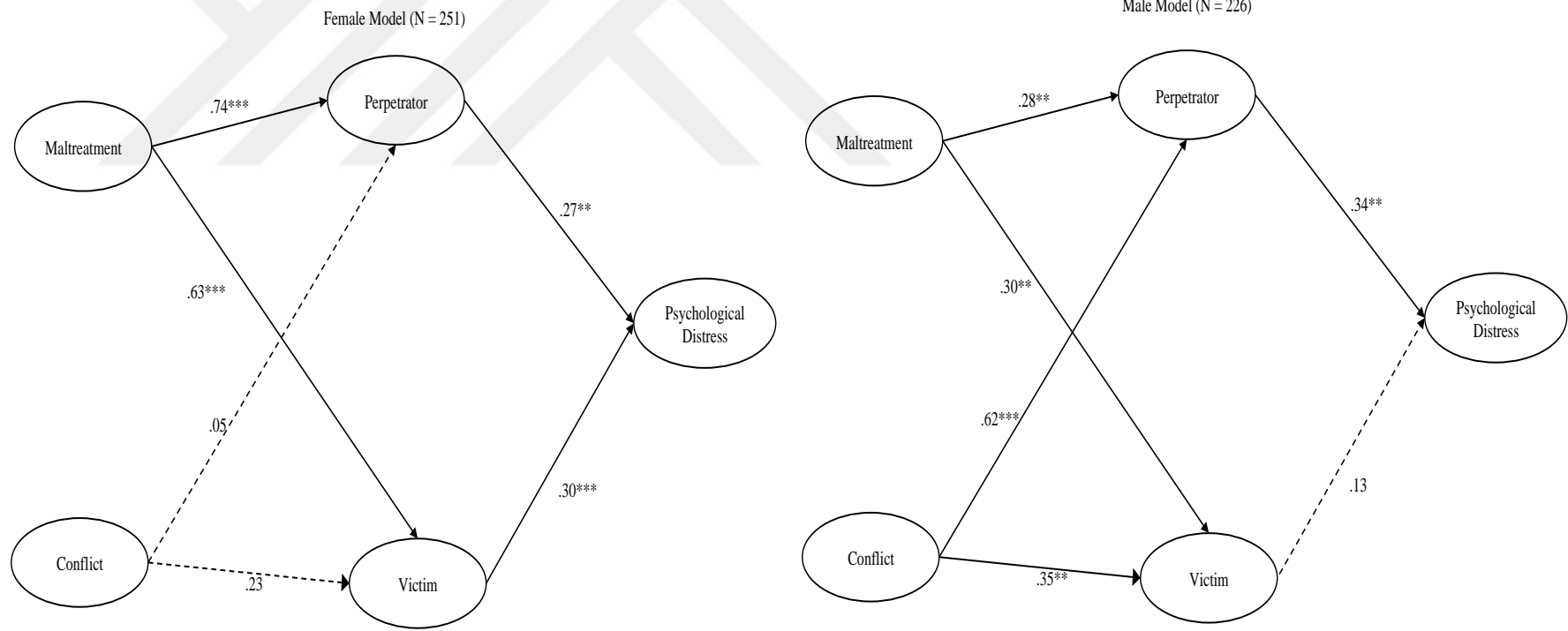


Figure 4. The Structural Model for Multigroup Comparison

Overall, multigroup comparisons in the proposed model, maltreatment and witnessing interparental conflict had different mechanisms for female and male participants. The association between maltreatment and being perpetrator was stronger for female participants, compared to male counterparts. Similarly, maltreatment was also stronger predictor of being victim in dating violence for female than male participants. Witnessing interparental conflict had also different pattern in which interparental conflict experiences were strong predictor of dating violence as manifested being perpetrator or victim in dating violence. However, this link was not significant for female participants in this study. Finally, dating violence, especially being perpetrator, predicted psychological distress. Although both being perpetrator and victim significantly predicted increased psychological distress for female participants, being victim for males did not significantly predicted psychological distress. This unexpected finding may be due to the shared variance of being perpetrator and victim in predicting psychological distress and probably most of the explained variance in the psychological distress came from being perpetrator rather than victim among male participants.

## CHAPTER 4

### DISCUSSION

The primary goal of the study was to examine underlying factors of dating violence and its consequences. First, childhood maltreatment and witnessing interparental conflict were assessed for being victim and perpetrator separately in the dating violence concept, in turn, they would predict psychological distress. Second, the relationship between peer influence and dating violence was investigated. The results of the current study will be discussed below considering the relevant literature and then limitations of the study and suggestions for future research will be presented.

#### **4.1 Descriptive Information about the Study Variables**

The results demonstrated that the gender was not significant for being perpetrator and victim in the relationship. In contrast, there was a gender difference in the dating violence literature. In the literature, despite the contradictory findings regarding gender, there is common point which is females and males have a status (i.e, being perpetrator and victim) in the relationship. According to some studies males were in perpetrator status whereas females were in victim status (Foshee, 1996 & Coker et. al., 2000). Consistent with that finding females reported high level of

being victim (Landfield, 2006). Conversely, females also reported being perpetrator in another study (Straus, 2004). Therefore the findings of literature were not supported by this study. At this point, it can be concluded that gender may not alone a significant factor to determinate being perpetrator and victim. Moreover, males reported being perpetrator of sexual violence which was consistent with literature findings (Holtzworth-Munroe, 2005; Williams et al., 2008). In addition to that females reported being victim of verbal violence which was also consistent with literature (Roberto A.J et al. & Roberto H.L., 2003) and as expected males reported being victim of relational violence. Consistently with literature, relational violence was related with females (Crick, 1996). As previously mentioned females prefer to damage social relations of their partners. Because when there is a conflict in the dating relationship, having close relationship with peers is more important for females than males (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995).

The result indicated that males reported higher level of experiencing physical abuse and neglect, emotional neglect than females. This result was supported by the literature findings indicating that particularly, boys were more physically maltreated than girls (Dibble & Straus, 1990; Straus, 1994). Likewise, Straus, Gelles, Steinmentz (1980) found that especially, physical punishment used for boys to “toughen up”. Because boys were perceived as troublemakers. Based on that explanation, physical punishment can also be seen as a disciplinary technique in Turkey. The result also showed that females had a resistance to their trauma. In other words they denied that they were maltreated by their caregivers. This finding supported Beal’s (1994) idea which was girls were thought as a fragile which can be concluded suppression of trauma.

This study found that female participants had higher level of psychological distress (i.e, depression, anxiety, somatization). Conversely, victims experienced psychological distress (Chase, Treboux & O’Leary 2002) but in the present study neither females nor males were in victim or perpetrator status. Therefore, females can experience psychological distress not in the context of dating violence but it can be as a result of childhood maltreatment.

Correlational analysis demonstrated that the relationships between variables were mostly in expected direction. Dating violence which was measured by CADRI-S (i.e, verbal perpetrator and victim, relational perpetrator and victim, sexual perpetrator and victim, physical perpetrator and victim, threatening behaviour perpetrator and victim) was positively correlated with childhood maltreatment (i.e, physical neglect, physical abuse, emotional neglect, emotional abuse) measured by CTQ-28. This finding was consistent with previous studies. Wekerle and Wolfe (1998) showed that maltreatment increased the risk for being perpetrator and victim in the relationship. Because the idea that when the using aggression was appropriate shaped during childhood. Therefore, when it was established it would stay stable over time (R.B, Cairns, B.D, Cairns, Neckerman, Ferguson, & Dariepy, 1989; Dodge, Bates, & Petit, 1990; Huesmann, Eron, Lefkowitz, & Walder, 1984; Olweus, 1979). Additionally, Crawford and Wright (2007) demonstrated that particularly, emotional abuse and neglect predicted dating violence. Because maltreated children experienced inadequate emotional sharing with caregivers. As a result of that they couldn’t end the abusive relationship and found themselves as a sexual victim. The relevant study was conducted with a clinical sample. Although the current study included non-clinical sample, the relationship between sexual victim and emotional

abuse and neglect was found. Therefore, if the current study is conducted with a clinical sample, the strength of correlations may be higher than this study.

Dating violence was positively correlated with witnessing interperantal conflict (i.e, conflict from mother to father, conflict from father to dad) from The Conflict Tactic Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters. The positive relationship between dating violence and witnessing interperantal conflict corresponded to the findings of Deborah (1999). Correlation also indicated that dating violence was positively correlated with psychological distress (i.e, depression, anxiety, somatization, negative self, hostility). It was consistent with the literature that specifically depression, anxiety somatization were reported as a consequences of dating violence (O'Leary & Cascardi, 1998; Singer, Anglin, Song, & Lunghofer, 1995; Sugarman & Hotaling, 1989; Banyard & Cross, 2008).

Additionally, peer influence was positively correlated with dating violence. This result supported the literature finding (Arriaga & Foshee 2004; DeKeserdy & Kelly 1995; Sousa, 1999). According to that if members of a peer group experienced dating violence young people normalized the violence and remained in abusive relationship. Because how peers solved their own relationship problems modeled for other members of group (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999; Simon, Eder, & Evans, 1992). Based on the findings in literature it can be concluded that peers have a significant effect on young people. Furthermore, peer influence was positively correlated with interperantal conflict. This result corresponded to the findings of Huth- Bocks and Semel (2002).

#### **4.2 Evaluation of Main Analysis**

The structure equation model revealed that childhood maltreatment, witnessing interperantal conflict predicted being perpetrator and victim separately in

the dating violence concept also they predicted psychological distress. This finding was consistent with previous studies (Callahan et al., 2003; Foshee, Ennett, Bauman, Benefield & Suchindran, 2005; Kalmus 1994; Singer, Anglin, Song, & Lunghofer, 1995; Wekerle & Wolfe, 1998). The literature indicated that there was a common point among results which was the aggression had a circle. In other word, it was shaped in childhood and continued further time. Consequently, young people learned that the violence was a part of romantic relationship (Cairns, Cairns, Neckerman, Ferguson, & Dariepy, 1989; Dodge, Bates, & Petit, 1990; Huesmann, Eron, Lefkowitz, & Walder, 1984; Olweus, 1979). Therefore, it can be concluded that the violence can a familiar tool for expressing emotions and love according to that youths. Because they can learn in what condition they need to be aggressive from their family in the context of maltreatment and interperantal conflict. Moreover the caregivers of youths in the present study can model in a wrong way regarding how love should express. Thus, they can normalize the violence and remain in the abusive relationship.

Furthermore, the multi group comparison in structural equation model demonstrated that the association between childhood maltreatment and being perpetrator and victim were stronger for female compared to male participants. According to literature there were contradictory findings about the relationship between gender and childhood maltreatment. Based on that findings specifically, physical abuse determined the positions of youths (i.e, victim and perpetrator) in the relationship (Follette & Alexander, 1992; Follingstad, Wright, Lloyd, & Sebastian, 1991). On the contrary, both female and male participants experienced physical abuse in this study. Therefore it can be concluded that physical abuse may have more influence on females than males about the position within the relationship.



Furthermore, the results indicated that witnessing interperantal conflict was a strong predictor of being perpetrator and victim for male participants. This result was partially consistent with literature (Breslin et al., 1990; DeMaris, 1987; Follete & Alexander, 1992; Gwartney-Gibbs et al., 1987; Malik et al., 1997; Marshall & Rose, 1988; Tontodonato & Crew, 1992). Because surprisingly, this relationship was not significant for female participants. As previously mentioned, the appropriateness of using aggression in the dating relationship was learned by witnessing caregivers' romantic relationship. Therefore, young people had two expectation from the dating relationship. First one was using violent act toward dating violence, second one was inflicted violence by dating partner. As it can be seen from the results, this inference is only valid for males. It can be also concluded that the status of being perpetrator and victim come from only childhood maltreatment for females whereas both maltreatment and witnessing interperantal conflict have an influence of for males. Moreover, girls have better verbal relations with their mother than boys. As a result of that their verbal abilities develop better than boys. In addition to that girls are used to conflict within the context of the relationship with their mothers. In other words, the conflict can be a familiar tool for females and they cannot perceive it as a sign of problem. Furthermore, females prefer to discuss to solve the relationship problems. However, discussing a problem can be seen as a grumble for males so they can avoid from that situation. As it can be seen males and females can have different perception about discussing a problem. As a result of that they can normalize the conflict. Therefore witnessing interperantal conflict cannot create problem for females. Because of these reasons the interperantal conflict cannot be effective factor to predict dating violence for women. Gender roles can be another reason to understand why interperantal conflict strongly predict being perpetrator for males.

Because there is an idea that the father can beat the mother in patriarchal society as in Turkey. Moreover, gender roles learn at an early age. As a result of that if the boy witnessed an aggressive father figure in the family he can internalize his father as a role model. Therefore boys can normalize that idea and can be aggressive in the dating relationship.

Finally, the results displayed that both being perpetrator and victim significantly predicted psychological distress for females but surprisingly, being victim did not predict psychological distress for male participants. These findings partially supported the literature. Especially, several studies found that victims of dating violence experienced psychological distress (Zlotnick, Johnson, & Kohn, 2006). According to results both perpetrators and victims in this study experienced maltreatment and interperantal conflict in the context of trauma. Therefore it can be concluded that the participants are victims of childhood trauma without considering the distinction of being perpetrator or victim in their dating relationship. Hence, apart from the being victim also perpetrators in the romantic relationship can be perceived as a trauma victim. From this perspective, the association between being perpetrator and psychological distress can be seen as understandable. Moreover, only a few studies found that females had different perception toward stressors without considering the number of stressors compared to males. They were comfortable about expressing their emotions as well as reporting their psychological distress (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987; Wood, Rhodes, & Whelan, 1989). Therefore, it can said that males may not want to report their psychological distress as a result of being victim. Furthermore, men generally present themselves stronger than females. Therefore reporting psychological distress in the victim status can be perceived as weakness. To clarify that it should be tested in further studies.

### **4.3 Contribution of the Study**

This study contributed to the current literature by examining the relationship between peer influence and dating violence also investigating childhood maltreatment and witnessing interparental conflict for being victim and perpetrator separately, in turn, they predicted psychological distress. This research is the one of the first study which directly investigated the underlying factors of dating violence among young people in Turkey. Because most studies focused to examine marital violence as a result of that the importance of dating violence was ignored. However, dating violence provides a basis for marital violence. Results displayed that individuals who exposed marital violence reported experiencing dating violence in their past relationships (O’Leary, Malone & Tyree 1994; Roscoe & Benaske, 1985). Therefore, to draw attention to the importance of dating violence more studies should be conducted.

The findings of the study indicated that there was a positive relationship between peer influence and dating violence (i.e, verbal victim and perpetrator, physical victim and perpetrator, relational victim and perpetrator, threatening behavior victim and perpetrator, sexual victim and perpetrator). Therefore, the importance of peers on dating violence were empirically tested.

Moreover, findings showed that childhood maltreatment witnessing interparental conflict were the first tested and the results showed that they predicted increased rate of being perpetrator and victim in dating violence and these experiences predicted psychological distress. This finding supported previous studies (Kalmus 1994; Callahan et al., 2003; Foshee, Ennett, Bauman, Benefield & Suchindran, 2005; Singer, Anglin, Song, & Lunghofer, 1995; Wekerle & Wolfe, 1998). Specifically, it was found that the association between childhood

maltreatment and being perpetrator and also being victim was stronger for female counterparts compared to male participants. Previous studies found that physical abuse has a strong effect on gender about being perpetrator and victim (Follette & Alexander, 1992; Follingstad, Wright, Lloyd, & Sebastian, 1991). Although both females and males physical abused in this study, it has a stronger influence on females than males.

Witnessing interperantal conflict and dating violence was also the first tested and the results yielded that the association between being victim and perpetrator was significant for only male participants. This unexpected result was inconsistent with previous findings. Because there was no gender differences regarding witnessing interperantal conflict and being perpetrator or victim. However, this result provided a new insight into the relationship between gender and witnessing interperantal conflict in the dating violence context. Consequently, the appropriateness of using aggression can learn from observing caregivers' relationship, supported for only males with this finding.

Finally, the result also indicated that although both being perpetrator and victim significantly predicted increased psychological distress for female participants, but being victim did not significantly predicted psychological distress for males. This gender difference was unexpected for this study so the literature finding was partially supported. However, as previously mentioned women were more comfortable about reporting their psychological distress compared to men (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1987; Wood, Rhodes, & Whelan, 1989). This can be a reason why the relationship between being victim and psychological distress couldn't find among male participants. Most importantly, the inference which is both perpetrators and victims are also victim of childhood trauma in the context of maltreatment and

witnessing interperantal conflict can be revealed from this study.

Consequently, in the light of those findings dating violence among young people was clarified for the first time. Although some inconsistent results with literature findings such as the relationship between gender and witnessing interperantal conflict, psychological distress the related variables with dating violence was tested empirically. Therefore, it can be said experiencing childhood maltreatment, witnessing interperantal conflict increase the risk for being perpetrator and victim also these status in the relationship significantly increase experiencing psychological distress. That's why it can be suggested that education programs can be developed for parents to give information about the negative outcomes of childhood maltreatment, witnessing interperantal conflict and education programs can also developed for young people to define what the dating violence is and its consequences.

#### **4.4 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for the Future**

Despite the contribution of the study there are some important limitations and they should be taken into consideration while interpreting results. First, the participation to the study based on voluntarily which means participants were not selected randomly. In addition to that the majority of participants in the sample graduated from high school. Therefore, it may not represent all Turkish young people with the age range of 18 to 25 which affect the generalizability of the results.

Second, the self-report measures were used in the current study that may cause to occur bias while reporting perpetration and victimization. Thus, the accuracy of self-reports might be affected. Moreover, despite the confidentiality was assured participants might not report the interperantal conflict, childhood maltreatment and dating violence. Hence, the findings might not represent the real

strength of the association among variables. In order to overcome this limitation future research can use additional methods.

Third, the psychological distress may be underreported because of the feeling such as fear, guilt, self-blame, loyalty to dating partner, love, misinterpretation of event, lack of understanding (Howard & Wrang, 2005; Williams & Martinez 1990). Thus, the participants can minimize their symptoms which might cause an undervaluing the strength of the relationship between variables. As a result of that apart from the self reports, interview measures can be used for future studies.

Lastly, although there was a large sample size, the analysis of demographic characteristic with study variables was found non-significant. Therefore, there should equal participants for each demographic characteristic in future studies.

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## APPENDIX A

### INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma, devam etmekte olduğum Bahçeşehir Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü, Klinik psikoloji yüksek lisans programı kapsamında yürüttüğüm tez çalışmasının bir parçası olarak yapılmaktadır. Araştırmanın amacı gençlerin yaşadığı flört şiddeti hakkında bilgi toplamaktır.

İlişikte yer alan soruların yanıtlanması yaklaşık 20 dakika sürmektedir. Anketlerde isminiz sorulmamakta ya da kimliğinizi ortaya çıkaran herhangi bir soru yer almamaktadır. Bu ankette vereceğiniz her türlü bilgi tamamen **gizli** kalacaktır. Araştırmanın objektif olması ve elde edilen sonuçların güvenilirliği açısından soruları içtenlikle yanıtlamanız çok önemlidir.

Araştırmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanır. 18-25 yaş aralığındaki herkes bu çalışmaya katılabilir. Şayet, cevaplamak istemediğiniz sorularla bunları atlayabilir veya anketi doldurmayı bırakabilirsiniz. Ancak hiç bir maddeyi boş bırakmamanız sonuçların daha sağlıklı değerlendirilmesini sağlayacaktır. Eğer araştırma anketlerini yanıtladıktan sonra herhangi bir sorunuz olursanız araştırmacının verdiği e-posta adresinden ulaşabilirsiniz.

Araştırmaya katıldığınız için teşekkür ederim.

Psikolog Yaprak Salman  
Bahçeşehir Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji  
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**APPENDIX B**  
**DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM**

1. Yaşınız: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Cinsiyetinizi: Kadın  Erkek

3. Hayatınızı en uzun süre geçirdiğiniz yer:

a. Büyük Şehir (İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir vb.)

b. İl merkezi

c. İlçe merkezi

d. Köy

e. Yurtdışı

4. Eğitim durumunuz:

a. İlkokul mezunu

b. Lise mezunu

c. Lise mezunu

d. Üniversitesi öğrencisi/mezunu

e. Yüksekokul(master-doktora) öğrencisi/mezunu

5. Şu anda yaşadığınız ortam hangisine uyuyor?

a. Ailemle birlikte yaşıyorum

b. Yurtta kalıyorum

c. Tanıdıklarım veya akrabalarım ile kalıyorum

d. Tek başıma yaşıyorum

e. Arkadaşlarımla evde kalıyorum

6. Anne ve babanızla ilgili uygun olan yere çarpı işareti (X) koyunuz.

a. Evliler

b. Boşandımlar

c. Ayrı yaşıyorlar

d. Annem öldü

e. Babam öldü

f. Hem annem hem babam öldü

7. Anne ve babanızın öğrenim durumunu belirtiniz.

Öğrenim Durumu	Anneniz	Babanız
Okur-yazar değil		
Okur-yazar		
İlkokul mezunu		
Ortaokul mezunu		
Lise mezunu		

Üniversite mezunu		
Lisansüstü mezunu(Master, doktora)		

**8. Anne ve babanız gelir getiren bir işte çalışıyor mu?**

- a. Hem annem hem babam çalışıyor  b. Sadece annem çalışıyor   
c. Sadece babam çalışıyor  d. İkisinden biri ya da ikisi de emekli   
e. İkisi de çalışmıyor

**9. Ailenizin gelirinin/maddi olanaklarının ne düzeyde olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?**

- a. Çok düşük  b. Düşük  c. Orta  d. Yüksek  e. Çok Yüksek

**10. Daha önceden flört ilişkiniz oldu mu?**

- a. Hayır, olmadı  (Anket tamamlanmıştır katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz.)  
b. Evet, oldu

**11. İlk flört ilişkinizi kaç yaşında yaşadınız? \_\_\_\_\_**

**12. Birlikte olduğunuz kişiyle cinsel birliktelik kurdunuz mu?**

- a. Evet  b. Hayır

**13. Sizin için ilişkiyi ciddi yapan nedir? Uygun olan bir ya da birden fazla maddeye çarpı (X) işareti koyunuz.**

- a. Sadece biriyle beraber olmak  b. Aşık olmak  c. Seks yapmak   
d. Bir aydan uzun sürmesi  e. Sır paylaşmak  f. Ailesiyle tanışmak   
g. Hafta sonları beraber zaman geçirmek   
h. Diğer  \_\_\_\_\_

**16. Sevgilinizle ne sıklıkta görüşüyorsunuz? Uygun olan yere çarpı işareti (X) koyunuz.**

- a. Her gün  b. En az haftada 3 kez  c. Haftada 1 ya da 2 kez   
d. Haftada birden daha az-2 haftada bir ya da ayda 1 kez-  
e. Ayda birden daha az

**17. Flört ilişkinizdeki tartışmalarınızda, en sık tartışma nedeniniz nedir? (Birden fazla şık işaretlenebilir)**

- a. Kıskançlık  b. Kişisel görünüm   
c. Ekonomik nedenler  d. Okulla ilgili işler   
e. Arkadaşlar  f. Uyuşturucu ya da alkol

g. Eğlence

ı. İstemediđi şekilde giyinmek

j. Başka insanlarla görüşmek

l. Birisinin ailesi ya da akrabası

n. Diğer

h. Sözünü tutmadığında

i. İstediđi şekilde davranmamak

k. Cinsellik

m. İstemediđi şeyleri yapmak

**18. Daha önce bir psikolog, psikolojik danışman ya da psikiyatri uzmanı ile görüştünüz mü?**

a. Evet

b. Hayır

**19. Cevabınız “Evet” ise nedeni ne idi?**

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**20. Son 1 yıl içerisinde, sevgilinizle yaşadığınız sorunlar dışında sizi çok üzen bir olay yaşadığınız mu?**

a. Evet

b. Hayır

**21. Cevabınız evet ise, olaydan kısaca bahseder misiniz?**

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## APPENDIX C

### THE CONFLICT IN ADOLESCENTS RELATIONSHIP INVENTORTORY- SHORT FORM (CADRI-S)

**AÇIKLAMA:** Aşağıda sevgiliniz ile tartışırken olabilecek durumlar yer almaktadır. Soruları dikkatlice okuyunuz ve cevaplandırırken son 12 ay içindeki **eski sevgilinizle** olan ilişkinizi ya da **şu an ki sevgilinizle** yaşadığınız ilişkiyi düşünün ve size en uygun olan kutucuğun içine carpi (X) işareti koyunuz.

- 1. Hiçbir zaman:** bu durumu ilişkinizde **asla** yaşamadınız.
- 2. Nadiren:** bu durumu ilişkinizde sadece **1** ya da **2 kez** yaşadınız.
- 3. Bazen:** bu durumu ilişkinizde **3** ya da **5 kez** yaşadınız.
- 4. Sık sık:** bu durumu ilişkinizde **6** ya da **daha fazla kez** yaşadınız.
- 5. Bu bana uygun değil:** Yanıtlamak istemediğiniz sorularda bu seçeneği işaretleyebilirsiniz.

		Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Bu bana uygun değil
<b>1.</b>	Sevgilimle saldırgan ya da kaba bir tonla konuştum.					
	Sevgilim benimle saldırgan ya da kaba bir tonla konuştu.					
<b>2.</b>	Sevgilimi hakaret ederek aşağıladım.					
	Sevgilim hakaret ederek beni aşağıladı.					
<b>3</b>	Ona karşı cephe almalarını sağlamak amacıyla sevgilimin arkadaşlarına onunla ilgili şeyler anlattım.					
	Sevgilim, bana karşı cephe almalarını sağlamak amacıyla arkadaşlarıma benimle ilgili şeyler anlattı.					
<b>4.</b>	Sevgilime tekme attım, vurdum, yumruk attım.					
	Sevgilim bana tekme attı, vurdu, yumruk attı.					

		Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Bu bana uygun değil
5.	Sevgilime tokat attım ya da saçını çektim.					
	Sevgilim bana tokat attı ya da saçımı çektirdi.					
6.	Sevgilimi, onun canını yakmakla tehdit ettim.					
	Sevgilim beni canımı yakmakla tehdit etti.					
7.	Sevgilimi ona bir şeyle vurmaya ya da (bir şey) fırlatmak ile tehdit ettim.					
	Sevgilim bana bir şeyle vurmaya ya da (bir şey) fırlatmak ile tehdit etti.					
8.	Sevgilimin dedikodusunu çıkardım.					
	Sevgilim dedikodumu çıkardı.					
9.	Sevgilimin istememesine rağmen ona cinsel temasta bulundum.					
	Sevgilim, istemememe rağmen bana cinsel temasta bulundu.					
10.	Sevgilim istememesine rağmen onu seks yapmaya zorladım.					
	İstemememe rağmen, sevgilim beni seks yapmaya zorladı.					

### PEER INFLUENCE

Yukarıda yer alan maddeler arkadaşınızın sevgilisiyle tartışırken olabilecek durumlardır. Aşağıdaki soruyu cevaplarken **arkadaşlarınızın eski sevgilisiyle** ya da **şu an ki sevgilisiyle** olan ilişkisini düşünün. Yukarıda yer alan maddelerden herhangi birini ya da birden fazlasını arkadaşlarınızın/tanıdıklarınızın ilişkilerinde ne sıklıkla gözlemliyorsunuz?

Hiçbir zaman ( )

Nadiren ( )

Bazen ( )

Sık sık ( )

## APPENDIX D

### THE CONFLICT TACTIC SCALE ADAPTED FORM ITALIAN YOUNGERSTERS

**AÇIKLAMA:** Aşağıda anne ve babanızın size karşı ve birbirlerine karşı olan bazı davranışlarını soru şeklinde sorduk. Sizden sorulan durumlarla, hangi sıklıkla karşılaştığınızı belirtmenizi istiyoruz. Soruları dikkatlice okuyunuz, beş seçeneği de düşün ve sizin için en uygun olanın yanına carpı (X) işareti koyunuz.

		Hiçbir zaman	Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
1.	Baban annene kötü söz söyler miydi?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.	Baban annene vurur muydu?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3.	Baban annene bir şeyler fırlatır mıydı?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4.	Baban annene zarar verici şekilde davranır mıydı?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5.	Baban anneni tehdit eder miydi?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6.	Annen babana kötü sözler söyler miydi?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7.	Annen babana vurur muydu?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8.	Annen babana bir şeyler fırlatır mıydı?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9.	Annen babana zarar verici şekilde davranır mıydı?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10.	Annen babanı tehdit eder miydi?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

## APPENDIX E

### CHILDHOOD TRAUMA QUESTIONNAIRE-SHORT FORM (CTQ-28)

**AÇIKLAMA:** Bu sorular **çocukluğunuzda ve ilk gençliğinizde (20 yaşından önce)** başınıza gelmiş olabilecek bazı olaylar hakkındadır. Soruları dikkatlice okuyun, beş seçeneği de düşünün ve sizin için en uygun olan kutucuğun içine çarpı(X) işareti koyun.

Çocukluğumda ya da ilk gençliğimde....	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Zaman zaman	Sık sık	Çok sık
1. Evde yeterli yemek olmadığından aç kalırdım.					
2. Benim bakımımı ve güvenliğimi üstlenen birinin olduğunu biliyordum.					
3. Ailemdelikler bana“salak”,“beceriksiz” ya da “tipsiz” gibi sıfatlarla seslenirlerdi.					
4. Anne ve babam ailelerine bakamayacak kadar sıklıkla sarhoş olur ya da uyuşturucu alırlardı.					
5. Ailemde önemli ve özel biri olduğum duygusunu hissetmeme yardımcı olan birisi vardı.					
6. Yırtık, sökükle ya da kirli giysiler içersinde dolaşmak zorunda kalırdım.					
7. Sevildiğimi hissediyordum.					
8. Ana-babamın benim doğmuş olmamı istemediklerini düşünüyordum.					
9. Ailemden birisi bana öyle kötü vurmıştu ki doktora ya da hastaneye gitmem gerekmişti.					
10. Ailemde başka türlü olmasını istediğim bir şey yoktu.					
11. Ailemdelikler bana o kadar şiddetle vuruyorlardı ki vücudumda morartı ya da sıyrıklar oluyordu.					
12. Kayış, sopa, kordon ya da başka sert bir cisimle vurularak cezalandırılıyordum.					
13. Ailemdelikler birbirlerine ilgi gösterirlerdi.					
14. Ailemdelikler bana kırıcı ya da saldırganca sözler söylerlerdi.					
15. Vücutça kötüye kullanılmış olduğuma (dövülme, itilip kakılma vb.) inanıyorum.					



Çocukluğumda ya da ilk gençliğimde....	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Zaman zaman	Sık sık	Çok sık
<b>16.</b> Çocukluğum mükemmeldi.					
<b>17.</b> Bana o kadar kötü vuruluyordum ki, öğretmen, komşu ya da bir doktorun bunu fark ettiği oluyordu.					
<b>18.</b> Ailemde birisi benden nefret ederdi.					
<b>19.</b> Ailemdelikler kendilerini birbirlerine yakın hissederlerdi.					
<b>20.</b> Birisi bana cinsel amaçla dokundu ya da kendisine dokunmamı istedi.					
<b>21.</b> Kendisi ile cinsel temas kurmadığım takdirde beni yaralamakla ya da benim hakkımda yalanlar söylemekle tehdit eden birisi vardı.					
<b>22.</b> Benim ailem dünyanın en iyisiydi.					
<b>23.</b> Birisi beni cinsel şeyler yapmaya ya da cinsel şeylere bakmaya zorladı.					
<b>24.</b> Birisi bana cinsel tacizde bulundu.					
<b>25.</b> Duygusal bakımdan kötüye kullanılmış olduğuma (hakaret, aşağılama vb.) inanıyorum.					
<b>26.</b> İhtiyacım olduğunda beni doktora götürecektir birisi vardı.					
<b>27.</b> Cinsel bakımdan kötüye kullanılmış olduğuma inanıyorum.					
<b>28.</b> Ailem benim için bir güç ve destek kaynağı idi.					

## APPENDIX F

### BRIEF SYMPTOM INVENTORY (BSI)

**AÇIKLAMA:** Aşağıda insanların bazen yaşadıkları sorunların ve yakınmalarının bir listesi verilmiştir. Listedeki her maddeyi lütfen dikkatle okuyunuz. Daha sonra o durumun **sizde bugün dahil, son bir ay** içinde sizi ne ölçüde huzursuz ve tedirgin ettiğini göz önüne alarak aşağıda yer alan kutucuklara çarpı işareti (X) atınız.

	Hiç	Çok az	Orta derece	Oldukça fazla	İleri derecede
1. İçinizdeki sinirlilik ve titreme hali	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
2. Baygınlık, baş dönmesi	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
3. Bir başka kişinin sizin düşüncelerinizi kontrol edeceği fikri	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
4. Başınıza gelen sıkıntılardan dolayı başkalarının suçlu olduğu duygusu	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
5. Olayları hatırlamada güçlük	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
6. Çok kolayca kızıp öfkelenme	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
7. Göğüs (kalp) bölgesinde ağrılar	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
8. Meydanlık (açık) yerlerden korkma duygusu	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
9. Yaşamınıza son verme düşüncesi	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
10. İnsanların çoğuna güvenilemeyeceği hissi	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
11. İştahta bozukluklar	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
12. Hiçbir nedeni olmayan ani korkular	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
13. Kontrol edemediğiniz duygu patlamaları	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
14. Başka insanlarla beraberken bile yalnızlık hissetme	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
15. İşleri bitirme konusunda kendini engellenmiş hissetme	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
16. Yalnızlık hissetme	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
17. Hüzünlü, kederli hissetme	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
18. Hiçbir şeye ilgi duymamak	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
19. Kendini ağlamaklı hissetme	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
20. Kolayca incinebilme, kırılma	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
21. İnsanların sizi sevmediğini, size kötü davrandığına inanma	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
22. Kendini diğer insanlardan daha aşağı görmek	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

	Hiç	Çok az	Orta derece	Oldukça fazla	İleri derecede
23. Mide bozukluğu, bulantı	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
24. Diğer insanların sizi gözlediği ya da hakkınızda konuştuğu duygusu	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
25. Uykuya dalmada güçlük	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
26. Yaptığınız şeyleri tekrar tekrar doğru mu diye kontrol etmek	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
27. Karar vermede güçlükler	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
28. Otobüs, tren, metro gibi umumi vasıtalarla seyahatlerden korkma	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
29. Nefes darlığı, nefessiz kalma	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
30. Sıcak, soğuk basmaları	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
31. Sizi korkuttuğu için bazı eşya yer ya da etkinliklerden uzak kalmaya çalışmak	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
32. Kafanızın bomboş kalması	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
33. Bedeninizin bazı bölgelerinde uyuşmalar, karıncalanmalar	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
34. Hatalarınız için cezalandırılmanız gerektiği düşüncesi	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
35. Gelecekle ilgili umutsuzluk duyguları	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
36. Dikkati bir şey üzerine toplamada güçlük	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
37. Bedenin bazı bölgelerinde, zayıflık, güçsüzlük hissi	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
38. Kendini gergin ve tedirgin hissetme	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
39. Ölme ve ölüm üzerine düşünceler	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
40. Birini dövme, ona zarar verme yaralama isteği	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
41. Bir şeyleri kırma, dökme isteği	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
42. Diğer insanların yanında iken yanlış bir şey yapmamaya çalışmak	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
43. Kalabalıklardan rahatsızlık duymak	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
44. Başka insanlara hiç yakınlık duymamak	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
45. Dehşet ve panik nöbetleri	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
46. Sık sık tartışmaya girmek	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
47. Yalnız kaldığında sinirlilik hissetme	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
48. Başarılarınıza rağmen diğer insanlardan yeterince takdir görmemek	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
49. Kendini yerinde duramayacak kadar tedirginlik hissetmek	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
50. Kendini değersiz görme duygusu	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
51. Eğer izin verirsiniz insanların sizi sömüreceği duygusu	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
52. Suçluluk duyguları	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
53. Aklınızda bir bozukluk olduğu fikri	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)