THE MEDIATOR ROLE OF PARENTING BEHAVIORS BETWEEN CHILDREN’S WITNESSING INTERPARENTAL VIOLENCE AND CHILDREN’S COPING WITH INTERPERSONAL AND ACADEMIC STRESSORS

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ABSTRACT

THE MEDIATOR ROLE OF PARENTING BEHAVIORS BETWEEN CHILDREN’S WITNESSING INTERPARENTAL VIOLENCE AND CHILDREN’S COPING WITH INTERPERSONAL AND ACADEMIC STRESSORS

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The study aims to investigate the role of parenting behaviors as a mediator, between children’s witnessing of interparental violence and coping ways of children with interpersonal and academic stressors. For the purpose of assessment, The Conflict Tactic Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters and The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children have been translated into Turkish and their psychometric properties therein were tested on 10-12 year-old children. With the same aged sample group which involved 343 elementary students, the relationship among witnessing interparental violence, perceived parenting behaviors, and coping ways with the interpersonal and academic stressors were tested through mediation analysis. After determination of the mediators, four path analyses were conducted in order to test the convergence between the mediation models and the data obtained in the study, via Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Results revealed that perceived emotional warmth, rejection and
comparison behaviors of parents have mediator roles between witnessing interparental violence and ways of coping with the interpersonal stressors. Additionally, perceived emotional warmth and rejection from parents also mediated the relationship between witnessing interparental violence and ways of coping with academic stressors. Lastly, the conducted Structural Equation Modeling indicated existence of a good fit between the model and the data. After findings were evaluated, the implications of the results were mentioned and limitations were discussed with an emphasis on recommendations for future research.

Keywords: Interparental violence, parenting behaviors, coping, children
ÖZ

ÇOCUKLARIN EBEVEYNLERARASI ŞİDDETE TANIKLIĞI İLE ÇOCUKLARIN KİŞİLERARASI VE AKADEMİK STRES KAYNAKLARIYLA BAŞ ETME YOLLARI ARASINDA EBEVEYNLİK DAVRANIŞLARININ ARACI ROLÜ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, ebevyn davranışlarının aracı değişken rolünü çocukların ebevynler arasındaki şiddetete tanıklığı ile kişilerarası ve akademik stres kaynaklarıyla baş etme yolları arasındaki ilişki içinde incelemektir. Bu incelemenin yapılması amacıyla İtalyan Gençleri için Uyarlanmış Çatışma Taktik Ölçeği (The Conflict Tactic Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters) ve Ebevyn İstismarı ile ilgili Soru Seti (The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children) Türkçe'ye çevrilmiş, 10-12 yaş arasındaki çocuklar üzerinde psikometrik özellikleri test edilmiştir. Aynı yaş grubundaki 343 ilköğretim öğrencisi 343 ilköğretim öğrencisinden oluşan bir örneklemde, ebevynlerarası şiddetete tanıklık, algılanan anne-baba davranışları ve kişilerarası ve akademik stres kaynaklarıyla baş etme yolları arasındaki ilişki, aracı değişken analizi yoluyla test edilmiştir. Aracı değişkenlerin

Anahtar kelimeler: Ebeveylerarası şiddet, ebeveylik davranışları, baş etme, çocuklar
To all children exposed to violence

and

my nonviolent family
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGARISM ...................................................................................................................... iii
ABSTRACT ......................................................................................................................... iv
ÖZ ...................................................................................................................................... vi
DEDICATION ...................................................................................................................... vii
ACKNOWLEDGMENT ......................................................................................................... viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS ....................................................................................................... ix
LIST OF TABLES ................................................................................................................ xv
LIST OF FIGURES ............................................................................................................. xvii

CHAPTERS

INTRODUCTION .................................................................................................................... 1
1.1 Purpose of the Study ..................................................................................................... 10
1.2 Overview of the Proposed Model ............................................................................... 11
1.3 Research Questions of the Study .............................................................................. 12
1.4 Significance and Implications of the Study ................................................................. 13

LITERATURE REVIEW ..................................................................................................... 16

2.1 Witnessing Interparental Violence ............................................................................. 16
2.1.1 Definition of Witnessing Interparental Violence ................................................. 16
2.1.2 Theories and Hypothesis about the Effects of Witnessing Interparental Violence on Children ................................................................. 17
2.1.2.1 Social Learning Theory ................................................................................. 17
2.1.2.2 Trauma Theory ............................................................................................. 19
2.1.2.3 Emotional Security Hypothesis ..................................................................... 20
2.1.3 Effects of Interparental Violence Witnessing on Children ................................. 21
2.1.3.1 Effects on Behavioral and Emotional Functioning ........................................ 21
2.1.3.2 Effects on Cognitive Functioning and Attitudes ........................................... 23
2.1.3.3 Effects on Physical Functioning ..................................................................... 24
2.1.3.4 Long-term Effects .......................................................................................... 25
2.2 Parenting Behaviors ........................................................................................................ 26
  2.2.1 Definition of Parenting Behaviors ................................................................. 26
  2.2.2 The Relation between Parenting Behaviors and Culture .................. 28
  2.2.3 Factors Influencing Parenting Behaviors ............................................. 29
  2.2.4 The Relation between Parenting Behaviors and Family Violence ...... 30
2.3 Coping ......................................................................................................................... 32
  2.3.1 Definition of Coping ...................................................................................... 32
  2.3.2 Stressors and Coping of Children .............................................................. 33
  2.3.3 Factors Influencing Coping of Children .................................................. 35
  2.3.4 The Relation between Children’s Coping and Witnessing Interparental Violence ................................................................. 37
  2.3.5 The Relation between Children’s Coping and Parenting Behaviors..... 38
2.4. The Connection between Literature Review and Purpose of the Study ..... 39
METHOD ......................................................................................................................... 40
3.1 Study 1 ......................................................................................................................... 40
  3.1.1 Participants ..................................................................................................... 40
  3.1.2 Instruments ...................................................................................................... 42
    3.1.2.1 The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters .... 42
    3.1.2.2 The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children ........ 44
    3.1.2.2 Demographic Information Form ......................................................... 45
  3.1.3 Procedure ......................................................................................................... 45
  3.1.4 Data Analysis ................................................................................................. 46
3.2 Study 2 ......................................................................................................................... 46
  3.2.1 Participants ..................................................................................................... 46
  3.2.2 Instruments ...................................................................................................... 48
    3.2.2.1 The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters .... 48
    3.2.2.2 The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children ........ 48
    3.2.2.3 Egna Minnen av Barndoms Uppfostran-My memories of Upbringing (EMBU) ................................................................. 49
    3.2.2.4 Adolescents Form of the Ways of Coping Inventory ................. 50
    3.2.2.5 Modified Demographic Information Form ......................................... 52
  3.2.3 Procedure ......................................................................................................... 52
3.2.4 Data Analysis ................................................................. 53
RESULTS .............................................................................. 54
4.1 The Results of Study 1 .......................................................... 54
  4.1.1 Testing the Psychometric Properties of Conflict Tactics Scale
      Adapted for the Italian Youngsters ............................................. 54
  4.1.2 Testing the Psychometric Properties of the Question Set about
      Parental Abuse towards Children.................................................. 57
4.2 The Results of Study 2 .......................................................... 58
  4.2.1 Coping with Interpersonal Stressors ..................................... 64
    4.2.1.1 Testing the Mediator Role of Maternal Behaviors between
            Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping with Interpersonal
            Stressors .................................................................................. 64
    4.2.1.2 Testing the Mediator Role of Paternal Behaviors between
            Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping with Interpersonal
            Stressors .................................................................................. 70
  4.2.2 Coping with Academic Stressors ....................................... 74
    4.2.2.1 Testing the Mediator Role of Maternal Behaviors between
            Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping with Academic Stressors.
    4.2.2.2. Testing the Mediator Role of Paternal Behaviors between
            Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping with Academic Stressors.
       DISCUSSION ........................................................................ 89
      5.1 Evaluation of the Results ..................................................... 89
      5.2 Clinical Implications for the Study ........................................ 95
      5.3 Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research .... 96
REFRENCES ........................................................................... 98
APPENDICES ........................................................................ 112
A. ORIGINAL FORM OF CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE ADAPTED
   FOR ITALIAN YOUNGSTERS ....................................................... 112
B. TRANSLATED FORM OF THE CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE
   ADAPTED FOR THE ITALIAN YOUNGSTERS ............................... 113
C. ORIGINAL FORM OF THE QUESTION SET ABOUT PARENTAL
   ABUSE TOWARD CHILDREN ...................................................... 114
D. TRANSLATED FORM OF THE QUESTION SET ABOUT PARENTAL ABUSE TOWARDS ................................................................. 115
E. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM........................................... 116
F. APPROVED PERMISSION LETTER FOR STUDY 1......................... 117
G. PARENTAL CONSENT FORM.......................................................... 118
H. MOTHER FORM OF EMBU............................................................. 119
I. FATHER FORM OF EMBU............................................................... 120
J. ADOLESCENTS FORM OF THE WAYS OF COPING INVENTORY FOR INTERPERSONAL STRESSORS.......................... 121
K. ADOLESCENTS FORM OF THE WAYS OF COPING INVENTORY FOR ACADEMIC STRESSORS............................................... 122
L. MODIFIED DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM.......................... 123
M. APPROVED PERMISSION LETTER FOR THE STUDY 2............... 124
N. THE SCALES LIST OF COUNTERBALANCED ORDER.................... 125
LIST OF TABLES

TABLES
Table 1. The Demographic Characteristics of Participants in Study 1 .............. 41
Table 2. The Demographic Characteristics of Participants in Study 2 .............. 47
Table 3. Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings, Percents of Variance, Eigenvalues and Alpha Values of the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters in a Turkish Sample ................................................................. 55
Table 4. Item Total Correlation Scores and Alpha Values for MTF and FTM Subscales .............................................................................................................. 56
Table 5. Mean, Standart Deviation, Correlation and PercentageValues and Alpha Coefficients for Variables of Study 1 ................................................................. 56
Table 6. Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings, Percents of Variance, Eigenvalues and Alpha Values of the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children in a Turkish Sample................................................................. 57
Table 7. Item Total Correlation Scores and Alpha Value for the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children ................................................................. 58
Table 8. Mean, Standart Deviation, Correlation Values and Alpha Coefficients for Variables of Study 2 ............................................................................................ 59
Table 9.The Regression Results for Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Coping with Interpersonal Stressors ................................................................. 65
Table 10. The Regression Results for (a) Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Maternal behaviors and (b) Role of Maternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors .............................................................................. 67
Table 11. The Regression Results for Testing the Roles of Witnessing Interparental Violence and Maternal Behaviors in Coping with Interpersonal Stressors .............................................................................. 68
Table 12. The Regression Results for (a) Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Paternal Behaviors and (b) Role of Paternal Behaviors in Coping with Interpersonal Stressors .............................................................................. 72
Table 13. The Regression Results for Testing the Roles of Witnessing Interparental Violence and Paternal Behaviors in Coping with Interpersonal Stressors……………………………………………………………………………………………………74
Table 14. Regression Results for Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Coping with Academic Stressors …………………………………………………………………………………………………77
Table 15. The Regression Results for (a) Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Maternal Behaviors and (b) Role of Maternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors ………………………………………………………………………………………………………79
Table 16. The Regression Results for Testing the Roles of Witnessing Interparental Violence and Maternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors……………………………………………………………………………………………………80
Table 17. The Regression Results for (a) Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Paternal Behaviors and (b) Role of Paternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………85
Table 18. The Regression Results for Testing the Roles of Witnessing Interparental Violence and Paternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………86
LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1. Model of the Proposed Relationships among Witnessing Interparental Violence, Parental Behaviors (Maternal/Paternal) and Coping (Interpersonal/Academic Stressors) .................................................. 12

Figure 2. Path Model for Mediator Role of Maternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence (MTF) and Coping with Interpersonal Stressors............................................................................................................ 70

Figure 3. The Path Model for Mediator Role of Paternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence (MTF) and Coping with Interpersonal Stressors............................................................................................................ 75

Figure 4. The Path Model for Mediator Role of Maternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence-MTF & FTM and Coping with Academic Stressors............................................................................................................ 82

Figure 5. The Path Model for Mediator Role of Paternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence (MTF) and Coping with Academic Stressos . 88
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Violence among partners is a part of family life for a very long time and occurs frequently (Holden, 1998). Children of these partners mostly become witness of this violence (Edleson, 1999). Such exposure is a risk factor for negative outcomes on physical development, cognitive/academic development and socioemotional functioning of these families’ children (Harden & Koblinsky, 1999); even for showing criminal behaviors in adulthood (McCord, 1983), and for being a violent partner in adulthood family life (Kalmuss, 1984). Moreover, children’s witnessing interparental violence has indirect effects on children’s life. It means the effects of witnessing interparental violence on children are mediated through some other variables such as, experienced parental attitudes, the social support, and the way children cope with the violence (Bedi & Goddard, 2007; Cummings, 1998; Edleson, 1999). In the light of information about extensive effects of witnessing interparental violence on children, it is hypothesised that being exposed to such violence also affects the ways children cope with other stressors. In consideration of all above, the current study aims to investigate the mediator role of perceived parenting behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and how they cope with interpersonal and academic stressors.

Intimate partner violence is violent behaviors between partners. It can occur as a behavior pattern which results in serious or lethal consequences (Cardarelli, 1997). Physical violence, sexual violence and a range of coercive, intimidating and controlling behaviors between partners are forms of Intimate partner violence (Harne & Radford, 2008). In the United States, 25.5% of women and 7.9% of men are victims of spouse/partner violence in their lifetime. While 22.2 million of women and 8.6 million of men are physically assaulted, 7.7 million of women and 0.2 million of men are raped by spouse/partner in their
lifetime (U.S. Department of Justice Office of Justice Programs National Institute of Justice, 2000). A comprehensive research about domestic violence against women in Turkey was conducted by Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü (KSGM) (2009). According to research results, 39% of women in Turkey are exposed to physical violence, 15% of them are exposed to sexual violence, 44% of them exposed to emotional violence/abuse and 72% of them exposed to economic violence of by husband or partner at least ones in their life times.

In addition to direct victims of violence in family, that is women and men, there are also indirect victims of this violence in the family; children (Edleson, 1999). Children are indirect victims of the violence between adults as witness. The violence between adults in the family is called ‘interparental violence’. The term which is used interchangeably with ‘domestic violence’, ‘marital violence’, ‘interparental violence’, and ‘intimate partner’ violence in the literature, refers to physical aggression between adults or parent figures in the family (Kitzmann, Gaylord, Holt, & Kenny, 2003; Owen, Thompson & Kaslow, 2006). On the other hand the term ‘Witnessing of children’, which can be used interchangeably with ‘exposure of children’ in the literature, defines violent behaviors of parents towards each other that children face with and are aware (Kitzmann, et al. 2003; Owen, et al., 2006).

Parallel to the prevalence ratings of women victimization, prevalence of child victimization through witnessing the violence between parents is considerable. The number of children who are under the risk of witnessing interparental violence was estimated as 3.3 million, in the United States (Carlson, 1984). Besides, the estimated number of teenagers witnessing interparental violence in the United States is 10 million every year (Straus, 1991). Unfortunately, prevalence of children witness of interparental violence is increasing year to year. In the report for, LOKK Statistics on Children, in the shelters of Denmark, the percentage of children who have witnessed/overheard violence against their mothers was mentioned as 84%, while in previous years this figure was 75% (Tilia & Hansen, 2007). Additionally, according to results of a study in Kütahya, Turkey 68% of children frequently witness violence in their families (Bayındır, 2010). These results partially explain the reason for increasing
attention on the deleterious effects of exposing intimate partner violence on children. Over the last 20 years researchers, clinicians and policymakers’ concerns about the children who witness of marital violence and serious impacts of this exposure on their life have been increasing (Osofsky, 1995; Levendosky, Bogat, Eye, 2007).

To sum up, large numbers of children are exposed to interparental violence around the world, several times during their childhood (Edleson, 1999). In spite of the prevalence of such exposure, in the literature there is a limited amount of study and the concern about the exposure of children to interparental violence is increasing (Kitzmann et al., 2003). Considering the prevalence of the issue and the limited number of studies thereabout, children’s witnessing interparental violence will be investigated in this study. In the frame of the current study, ‘Interparental violence’ refers to violent behaviors (e.g. hitting, throwing something, injuring, and use treatening words) between mothers and fathers of the children participated in the study (Baldry, 2003). In this study, ‘witnessing of children’ define situations (involving violent behaviors of parents towards each other) which children face with and have awareness about (Baldry, 2003; Kitzmann, et al. 2003; Owen, et al., 2006).

In the frame of domestic violence, varied permanent effects of intimate partner violence on children as witnesses and indirect victims of the violence have been studied by researchers. Psychological, emotional, behavioral, social and cognitive problems of children are most the commonly reported outcomes of being indirect victims of interparental violence (Harden & Koblinsky, 1999; Kitzmann et al., 2003). Additionally, long term effects of witnessing interparental violence on children have been studied (Somer & Braunstein, 1999).

The results of the studies related with the children’s witnessing domestic violence, are categorized under four groups by considering the outcomes regarding children (Edleson, 1999). These are outcomes related with behavioral and emotional functioning of children; cognitive functioning and attitudes of children; physical functioning of children; and long-term effects of witnessing interparental violence for children.
In terms of behavioral functioning; children, who observed violent behaviors of parents towards each other, have a tendency to behave in this way. The relation between children’s witnessing interparental violence and their juvenile delinquency was mention by Somer and Braunstein (1999). In the study of Lewis, Shanok, Pincus, and Glasser (1979) with children who show violent behaviors, it is indicated that 79% of these children were witness of violence between their parents, while just 29% of them were from nonviolent families. Heyman & Slep (2002) also mention that mothers’ probability of showing abusive behaviors towards their children and perpetration for partner abuse increase when parental abuse is added to witnessing interparental violence in childhood.

Emotional functioning problems of children turn out as traumatic stress symptoms, feelings of loss, sadness and guilt, low empathy, emotional intensity, withdrawal and aggression (Harden & Koblinsky, 1999), low self-esteem, depression, anxiety (Somer &Braunstein, 1999; Harden & Koblinsky, 1999), and suicidability (Somer &Braunstein, 1999).

Another category is the problem in cognitive functioning and attitudes of children. Effects of being exposed to interparental violence on children turn out as difficulties in cognitive/academic development of children (Harden & Koblinsky, 1999; Kitzmann et al. 2003). Children’s cognitive/academic development problems can occur as cognitive difficulties, verbal/language deficits and developmental delay (Harden & Koblinsky, 1999). Additionally, suffering from emotional and cognitive adjustment due to witnessing violence between parents, show effects on children as decrement in school performance (Somer & Braunstein, 1999).

Physical functioning of witnessing children is also negatively affected from violence, (Somer &Braunsein, 1999). As a witness of physical violence children also can be physically injured with violence among parents (Wolak & Finkelhor, 1998). Moreover, psychosomatic illnesses, eating problems are the effects of interparental violence in terms of physical development (Harden & Koblinsky, 1999).

The effects of being exposed to marital violence continue throughout children's entire life, in the form of violent behavior tendencies. Assaulting,
raping, attempting to rape, attempting to murder, kidnapping, and murdering are criminal behaviors which are more likely to be enacte by children who have been exposed to interparental violence (McCord, 1983).

Indirect victims of marital violence are also affected in terms of their partner role. Relation between being exposed to interparental violence and being part of a violent couple is reported by Kalmuss (1984), Somer and Braunstein, (1999) and Tilia and Hansen (2007). Moreover being a witness to parental violence is a risk factor for men’s use of violence against their wives (Hotaling and Sugarman, 1986). The study (Kalmuss, 1984) further reported that the effect of being exposed to marital violence is even greater than that of parental abuse in terms of being involved in a violent couple in the future. Witnessing parental violence affects children’s future life independently from violent behavior tendencies. In the review of Hotaling and Sugarman (1986), being grown up while witnessing violence between parents/care givers was reported as a consistent risk factor for being victim of partner violence in adult life. The risk of adulthood violence of children increases among those who have been exposed to parental violence in the family of origin (Heyman & Slep, 2002). Additionally, while being exposed to parental violence in childhood was found to be related with depression and low self-esteem among women only; it is associated with trauma-related symptoms for both women and men in adulthood (Silvern, Karyl, Waelde, Hodges, Starek, Heidt & Min, 1995).

Furthermore, parental abuse, accompanied by children’s witnessing interparental violence is studied as one of the essential points for this topic. Children who are exposed to their mothers being victims of violence are more likely to be abused by their parents (McGee, Wolfe & Wilson, 1997; Silvern et al., 1995; Tilia & Hansen, 2007). Children from violent families who witnessed marital violence are at higher risk of being physically abused by parents when compared to children who are not from violent families and who have not witnessed marital violence (Appel & Holden, 1998; McCloskey, Figueredo, Koss, 1995; O’Keefe, 1994).

Moreover, domestic violence leads to different negative outcomes for children, depending on whether they are active or passive victims of violence.
Children who are affected from violence in two ways, both by witnessing and being abused, show worse outcomes than those being just physically abused (Carlson, 1991) those being just witness and those not affected from violence in any way (Hughes, Parkinson & Vargo, 1989). Additionally Baldry (2007) and Matud (2007) found that children who witnessing parental violence and experiencing parental abuse are more likely to face more serious problems.

A greater percentage of children with physical and psychological health problems consisted children whose of parents are abusive partners and abusive parents at the same time (Matud, 2007). Boden, Fergusson and Horwood (2010) report being exposed to both abuse and interparental violence in childhood as risk factors for conduct disorder and oppositional defiant disorder in early adolescent years. Moreover, having trauma related symptoms in adult life is related with co-occurrence of exposure to interparental violence and being abused by parents in childhood (Silvern et al., 1995). The close relation between witnessing interparental violence and parental abuse disclosed, it indicates that each of should be handled in the consideration of the other. Therefore parental abuse is involved the current study with the term ‘abusive behaviors of parents towards children’. The term refers injuring, neglectful attitudes, yelling from parents to children (Baldry, 2003).

Mediator factors between exposing interparental violence and its effects on children also have been studied. For instance, age is reported as mediator in the studies of Bedi and Goddard (2007) and Edleson (1999). Due to cognitive development with age, younger children such as preschool children, feel themselves responsible from violence, and give more emotional responses. On the other hand, older children with more sophisticated cognitive skills evaluate violence more realistically and respond in a more problem solving way (Wolak & Finkelhor, 1998).

Social support and cognitive appraisal about bad events like the intimate partner violence also have mediator roles (Bedi & Goddard, 2007). While the strong supportive relationships of children with significant adults contribute to their wellness, children’s pessimistic and self-blaming attitudes for interparental violence are risk factors for their wellness (Wolak & Finkelhor, 1998).
Furthermore, individual characteristics of children such as temperamental characteristics, feelings of self-worth, sociability, school competence also mediate the effects of interparental violence on children (Harden & Koblinsky, 1999). For instance, children who are more adaptable, intelligent or have strong interests or talents are more likely to overcome the interparental violence (Wolak & Finkelhor, 1998). The way children cope with being exposed to interparental violence is an other issue related with the effects of this stressor on children (Bedi & Goddard, 2007; Shelton & Harold, 2007). Children who prefer coping with violence by trying to stop violence more negatively affected when compared to children who give more passive responses like protecting themselves (O’Brien, Margolin & John, 1995).

In addition to effects on children, varied effects of Intimate partner violence on parents as direct victims in the violent family atmosphere have also been studied frequently. Experienced parental stress (Fosco, DeBoard, & Grych, 2007) and disturbed interaction with children (Bedi & Goddard, 2007) are two examples of said negative outcomes of violence on parents. Furthermore, family characteristics of children who are exposed to domestic violence (Harden & Koblinsky, 1999) and child–parent relationship characteristics (Fosco et al., 2007; Margolin & Gordis, 2000) are other significant factors reported in relation to negative consequences of being exposed to parental violence on children. Accordingly, parenting has a mediator role between being witness of inteparental violence and its effects on children (Margolin & Gordis, 2000).

On the basis of above mentioned two sided role of ‘parenting’, the term refers to the socialization ways of children which their parents use (Kağıtçibaşı, 2005), in the frame of family violence; ‘parenting behaviors’ is studied in terms of its mediator role in this current study. Children’s perception about their mothers’ and fathers’ behavior as a parent towards themselves refers to parenting behaviors. Parenting behaviors is involved in the study with regard to its four dimensions; two universal dimensions namely, emotional warmth and rejection; and two culturally relevant dimensions namely, overprotection and comparison (Sümer, 2008).
The effect of violence between parents on the parenting characteristics of mothers and fathers who are members of violent couples is reported in several studies (Wolfe, Jaffe, Wilson, & Zak, 1985; Holden & Ritchie, 1991; Levendosky & Graham-Bereman, 2001). For instance, the review of Bedi and Goddard (2007) mentions less positive child-mother interaction in families which involve intimate partner violence. Difficulties in emotional availability and being responsive to children are other impacts of marital violence on parents from violent families (Augustyn, Parker, Groves, & Zuckerman, 1995). Moreover, mothers from violent families reported to have a higher level of parenting stress (Fosco et al., 2007). As for male actors of intimate partner violence, they show irritable and uninvolved parenting (Holden & Ritchie, 1991).

The study of Margolin and Gordis (2000) comprises an evidence for the mediating role of parenting on the relation between marital aggression and adjustment of children. Additionally, the parenting stress has a mediator role between intimate partner violence and emotional and behavior problems of children (Owen & Thompson, 2006). In violent families, while parental warmth, nurturance and support within the family were reported as protective factors for children; problematic parenting practices, displayed conflictual interactions with children and being non-attentive to children, were reported as risk factors (Harden & Koblinsky, 1999). Association between parents’ supportive attitudes to children and fewer symptoms of children, in the marital violent families, was highlighted by Margolin and Gordis (2000). Less internalizing symptoms of children were reported as related with supportive relationship of parents by Boney-McCoy and Finkelhor (as cited in, Margolin, & Gordis 2000). Further, Wolfe et al. (1985) reported results which indicated the mediating role of maternal stress related factors for effects of marital violence on children of violent families. Behavioral problems and low social competence level of children are measured to be at considerable level when parental violence and maternal stress are combined. Moreover, regarding the male actors of intimate partner violence, it was found that they show irritable and uninvolved parenting, which results in behavioral problems in children (Holden & Ritchie, 1991).
As implied with the mentioned literature about interparental violence, witnessing this family problem is a stressor for children (Kitzmann, et al., 2003, Oral, 1994). Accordingly, coping of children with this stressor is also a concern of researchers (Bedi & Goddard, 2007; Shelton & Harold, 2007). Coping is “cognitive and behavioral efforts to master reduce or tolerate internal and/or external demands that are created by stressful transaction” (Folkman, 1984, p.843). The ways of coping is categorized as ‘emotion focused’ and ‘problem focused’ (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980).

In the literature of domestic violence, both effects of witnessing interparental violence on coping (Edleson, 1999, O’Brien, et al., 1995; Adamson & Tompson, 1998; Shelton & Harold, 2007) and the effect of the coping with violence on the results of the such witnessing on children have been studied (O’Brien, et al., 1995; Edleson, 1999; Bedi & Goddard, 2007; Fosco et al., 2007; Shelton & Harold, 2007). On the other hand, the significance of the social context in the coping of children was pointed out (Compas, 1987; Fields & Prinz, 1997; Skinner & Gembeck, 2007). Furthermore, parenting behaviors influence children’s coping (Baumrind, 1991; Cohen & Wills 1985; Fieldz & Prinz, 1997).

In consideration of above mentioned relations among coping strategies of children, interparental violence as a stressor, social context and parental behaviors; children’s coping was investigated in the current research. Children’s way of coping with interpersonal and academic stressors which are two other significant stressors for them (Oral, 1994) were studied under the effect of witnessing interparental violence and perceived parental behaviors. Coping refers to the given cognitive and behavioral response of children to reduce or tolerate the demands of stressful situations (Folkman, 1984). Interpersonal stressors refer to problematic and stressful situations that children experienced with people from their social enviroment, such as friends, teachers, and neighbors. Academic stressors refer to problematic and stressful situations that children experienced in relation to their courses or academic life, such as having a difficult exam, failing a course, scoring low in the exam (Oral, 1994).

With regard to the coping ways of the children with the interparental violence, children use ‘emotion focused’ and ‘problem focused’ coping according
to the coping style categorization of Folkman and Lazarus (1980). Children mostly use ‘emotion focused’ coping strategy, particularly as “wishing the violence away at the time of a fight, reframing and minimizing the violence, forgiving father, and refusing to talk about violence” (Peled, 1993) Actions directed to change events, which refer to ‘problem focused’ coping, were less often taken by the children in the face of domestic violence. These actions can be physically distancing children from violence or inserting them into the violence. Also, Fosco et al. (2007) mention in their review that, either children can feel responsibility to stop this violence and act in this way or they can chose avoidant coping to protect themselves from the violence.

Literature shows that the coping strategies children use for domestic violence affect the impact of violence on children (Edleson, 1999). Fosco et al. (2007) mentions the non-efficient coping of children with repeated expose to domestic violence among the reasons for depression or anxiety symptoms and their sense of inadequacy or helplessness. Additionally, children who cope with domestic violence with self-involved strategies show a higher level of maladjustment, such as more depression, anxiety, hostility and less self-worth. However, when avoidant/self-rely strategies are used children show less anxiety (O’ Brien et al., 1995).

1.1 Purpose of the Study

Taking the related literature into account, it can be proposed that children’s witnessing interparental violence and their coping with different stressors may be related to perception of parental behaviors in different ways. Therefore, the specific purpose of this study is to explore the possible relationships among children’s witnessing interparental violence, perceived parenting (maternal and paternal) behaviors by children and coping of children (with interpersonal and academic stressors). Children’s coping in families with interparental violence is mostly studied in terms of coping with the violence itself. The present study, however, focuses on the effects of witnessing familial violence on coping with other stressors such as interpersonal and academic with two sets of hypotheses; first, witnessing interparental violence will have a direct effect on coping of
children; second, witnessing interparental violence will indirectly influence the coping of children through the mediating role of perceived parenting behaviors. Based on these predictions, a path model defining the relationships among the variables of the study was proposed (see Figure 1). In detail, the proposed path model refers that there is a relation between witnessing interparental violence and coping ways of children through the mediation role of perceived parental behaviors.

As mentioned above, defined research variables have various relations with each other. Based on these relationships; this study was conducted with the purpose of investigating the relation between children’s witnessing interparental violence and coping of children with interpersonal and academic stressors, in the consideration of perceived parental behaviors by children as a mediator.

1.2 Overview of the Proposed Model

The possible relationships between children’s witnessing interparental violence, perceived parental behaviors by children and coping of children are displayed in Figure 1. This path model is proposed based on the review of the related literature and also by the researcher’s views enrolled in the study.

The model contains three main components: witnessing interparental violence, parental behaviors (maternal/paternal) and coping (interpersonal/academic stressors). All three components of the model were represented by a number of subcomponents in the model. Witnessing interparental violence was characterized by the violence from mother to father (MTF) and violence from father to mother (FTM). The second component of the model, namely parental behaviors, comprises emotional warmth, rejection, overprotection and comparison. The last component of the model; coping includes eight subcomponents: active coping, seeking refuge in fate, social support, helpless approach, optimistic approach, withdrawal, self blame and seeking refuge in supernatural forces.
Figure 1. Model of the Proposed Relationships among Witnessing Interparental Violence, Parental Behaviors (Maternal/Paternal) and Coping (Interpersonal/Academic Stressors)
1.3 Research Questions of the Study

Based on the proposed path model, in the process of accomplishment of testing the mediation role of parental behaviors between interparental violence and coping, the following four research questions were posed:

1. Is there a mediation role of perceived maternal behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping with interpersonal stressors?
2. Is there a mediation role of perceived paternal behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping with interpersonal stressors?
3. Is there a mediation role of perceived maternal behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping with academic stressors?
4. Is there a mediation role of perceived paternal behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping with academic stressors?

1.4 Significance and Implications of the Study

The current study concerning the children’s witnessing interparental violence, contributes the limited literature on children’s witnessing interparental violence (Kitzmann, et al. 2003).

Coping of children in the context of family violence has been mostly handled in two ways. Coping ways of children with family violence and effects of used coping strategies on the results of violence for children were researchers’ main concerns about coping of children (Edleson, 1999, Fosco et al., 2007, O’ Brien, 1995). Moreover, the role of perceived parental behaviors in the coping ways of children was studied (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). However, there is limited amount of studies concerning coping of children who witness interparental violence, with different stressors such as interpersonal and academic stressors (Goldblatt, 2003; Danish National Organization of Shelters for Battered Women and Their Children, 2007). Therefore, the study contributed the domestic violence and coping literature both with respect to the role of coping in the proposed path models and the concerned stressors.
Moreover, the study contributes to the literature on children’s witnessing to domestic violence in terms of methodology and used analyses. Studies related with interparental violence mostly used parent reported instruments in order to collect data about interparental violence (Chen & Rubin, 1994; Owen & Thompson, 2006). There are few studies which used child reported measurement tools (Baldry, 2003; 2007). This study has significance as it uses child reported measurement for witnessing interparental and hence contributes to the limited literature on child reported measurement tool used studies. Additionally, a frequently used method for sampling is selecting children of mothers who reside in a shelter (Kitzmann, et al. 2003; Ballif-Spanvill, Clayton, & Hendrix, 2007). The children participated the studies were assumed as witness of interparental violence, regardless of whether they were actually witnessed or not. In this study, sample consisted of student population and participants’ witnessing interparental violence was tested.

In this study, unlike most of the studies related to exposure of children to interparental violence (O'Keefe, 1994; Baldry, 2003; 2007; Boden et al., 2010) and as suggested in the meta-analytic review of child witnessing to domestic violence by Kitzmann et al. (2003), a multivariate statistical technique structural equation modeling (SEM) was used. Through used analysis this study makes contribution to complex modeled studies for effects of witnessing interparental violence on children.

The study, also, makes contribution to the Turkish literature on the effects of interparental violence on children through sample features and used measurement tools. Although the study of KSGM (2009) and Bayındır (2010) involved child related results of domestic violence, children’s witnessing interparental violence were not handled in detail in these studies. The current study with a sample consisting of that 10-12 aged children from İzmir, Turkey, investigates the relation among children’s witnessing interparental violence, perceived parental behaviors and coping of children with interpersonal and academic stressors.

As part of the study, in order to measure children’s witnessing interparental violence and abusive behaviors from parents to children;
respectively, Conflict Tactics Scale, which was adapted for the Italian youngsters (Baldry, 2003), and the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children (Baldry, 2003) were modified into Turkish. Then the psychometric quality (validity and reliability) testing of the scale and the question set were conducted. At the end of the process, a scale and a question set related with family violence for children has been available in Turkish. Therefore, the study had significance for the Turkish literature especially with respect to measurement tool contribution.

Furthermore, an exploration of the general coping pattern of the children, who are the witnesses of interparental violence, will have importance for the practitioners. Clinicians in therapy can assess the client children’s strength and resources, who are the witnesses of interparental violence, with respect to coping style in a more reliable way. Moreover, the development of an adult client’s coping style who has witnessed interparental violence in the early years of his/her life can be explained in a more detailed manner with the help of the current study’s results.

Additionally, understanding the relation between perceived parental behaviors and children’s coping style can lead to new implications. Parents can be informed about the significance of their parental behaviors towards their children, in cases where children are exposed to interparental violence. In this framework new training programs can be developed for parents of violent families. Besides, the role of children’s perception of parental behaviors can be emphasized with this training. Trained parents would be more sensitive towards their children and their consideration of their children’s thoughts and emotions about parental behaviors can be increased. By this way, negative effects of witnessing interparental violence on children can be buffered.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, literature regarding study variables is reviewed in detail. Previous findings about interparental violence witness in terms of definition, effects on children and, theories and hypothesis related with the effects on children are involved. The definition of parental behaviors’ definition, various effects on parental behaviors, the relation of parental behaviors with culture and family violence is also discussed. In addition, findings from previous studies focusing on the definition of coping, coping of children, various factors on coping, the relation between coping and interparental violence witnessing, and the relation between parental behaviors and children’s coping are reviewed.

2.1 Witnessing Interparental Violence

2.1.1 Definition of Witnessing Interparental Violence

The intimate violence in family life and between unmarried partners is not a recent issue, it goes back to B.C years as part of intimate relations and as a concern of societies, according to Radbill (as cited in Gelles, 1999) and 1970s it was a topic intensively studied by researchers (Edleson, 1999; Gelles, 1999). Despite the historical background of violence in intimate relations, there are still varied definitions of interparental violence as a subtopic of violence in family (Kitzmann et al., 2003, Wallace, 2008; Wolfe, Crooks, Lee, McIntyre-Smith & Jaffeof, 2003). Interparental violence is defined as “incidents of physical aggression (including slapping, pushing, punching, kicking, choking) between adults or parent figures in family” by Kitzmann et al. (2003). Another definition for interparental violence is, “…being the endorsement of at least one physical incident in the past year (in contrast with a chronic history of severe battering)”
(Wolfe et al. 2003). The term is also used in the literature to ‘domestic violence’ and ‘marital violence’ (Kitzmann et al., 2003; Owen et al., 2006). In the study of Fergusson and Horwood (1998) it is pointed out that there is a lack of a definition regarding the nature and extent of interparental violence and that clarifying the nature and extent of violence is significant for indications of research results.

As well as for the definition of interparental violence, there are also various definitions for children’s witnessing of violence (Wolfe et al. 2003). Witnessing is used interchangeably with exposure (Kitzman et al., 2003). The term mostly refers to seeing violence as it occurs, in other words eyewitnessing such crimes and its physical and emotional consequences (Edleson, 1999; Harne & Radford, 2008; Peled, 1993; Wolfe et al., 2003). Apart from eyewitnessing, children can also be exposed to violence by hearing without observing it (Harne & Radford, 2008; Peled, 2003), and by hearing stories of violence (Kitzmann et al., 2003). It is also mentioned by Ganley & Schechter, exposure of children also refers to forcing children to watch assault against mother or being involved in this assault, using children as a hostage for return of mother to the home and using of children in reporting activities of his/her mother as a spy (as cited in Edleson, 1999). As revealed with the mentioned variation in witnessing definition, children exposed violence in different natures and extents, clarification of this point is essential for studies of interparental violence witness of children (Fergusson and Horwood, 1998).

2.1.2 Theories and Hypothesis about the Effects of Witnessing Interparental Violence on Children

2.1.2.1 Social Learning Theory

One of the most popular explanatory perspectives in the marital violence literature is social learning theory (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). The theory which is suggested by Bandura and Walters (1963) indicates that behavioral patterns in society are gained through observation of exemplified responses by society (Bandura, 1969). According to the theoreticians, observational learning, direct experience and influences on self-regulation play role in acquirement and
sustainment of aggressive behavior. In this regard, Bandura says that “people are not born with performed repertoires of aggressive behavior”, they must learn them (as cited in Osofsky, 1998). Furthermore, with respect to family Bandura suggests with the theory that that people take behaviors they have been exposed to in childhood as models. Through role modeling of family members (parents, siblings, relatives, and boyfriends/girlfriends) violence is learned both in direct or in direct ways (as cited in Mihalic & Elliott, 1997).

However, Bandura (1969) also mentions that exposure to violence does not ensure observational learning. The observational learning is composed of the following four processes: attentional process, retention process, motor production process, and incentive and motivational process. All these processes affect the translation of observational learning to behavior. The behavior can not be learned due to the passage of time, limited physical capacity and learned behavior can be failed to express due to having no functional value for people and being not reinforced (Bandura 1969). Therefore, violent behaviors which were reinforced in childhood can be shown as a coping response to stress and the way to deal with conflict in adulthood, according to Bandura (as cited in Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). Children learn to use aggression tactics by observing their loved relatives (Patterson, Dishion & Bank, 1984) and being from a family with violent origin was mentioned as a risk factor for handling stresses and frustrations with anger and aggression (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). To sum up, social learning theory proposes that all observations effect children’s behavior repertoire, when observed behaviors are performed by significant relatives and they are reinforced with violence and trauma (Graham-Bermann, 1998).

According to Bandura, children coming from violent families through modeling process learn that such aggressive responses are appropriate in stressful and that frustrated situations and behaving in aggressive way towards family members is acceptable. As a result, children exposed to violence develop aggression and violence as a way of expressing anger, responding to stress or controlling the behavior of others (as cited in Kalmuss, 1984).
2.1.2.2 Trauma Theory

The trauma theory offers explanations for behaviors of family violence exposed children, such as traumatic arousal, avoidance of people or places associated with the violence and intrusive memories or flashbacks of the traumatic events (Graham-Bermann, 1998). The theory suggested by Herman (1992) relates to traumatizing issues of violence and traumatic symptoms suffered by female victims of violence, and battered women. The theory indicates that most of the battered women exhibit a complex traumatic syndrome. The proposed syndrome comprises depression, anxiety, idealization of the perpetrator, and dissociation, due to the chronic nature of the trauma; as well as symptoms of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). In other words, trauma syndrome involves all aspects of psychological distress seen in trauma survivors in a continuous manner rather than a single disorder like PTSD. In the frame of trauma theory traumatic symptoms are discussed with more broadly when compared to DSM-IV (Herman, 1992).

Similar to victim women, children who are silent victim of marital violence are also traumatized by witnessing harm of their mothers. Children also suffer from similar cognitive and affective responses to the trauma (Levendosky & Graham-Bermann, 2001). Association between witnessing parental abuse and PTSD symptoms of children is also reported in several studies (Rossman, 1994; Lehmann, 1997; Kilpatrick & Williams, 1997; Levendosky & Graham-Bermann, 2001). Almost all witnessed participants of Kilpatrick and Williams (1997) have PTSD scores higher than the cutoff point for PTSD diagnosing. In parallel, witnessing children have higher PTSD scores than non-witnessing ones. Increased PTSD scores of children with witnessing to violence also depend on the age of children, and duration and frequency of witnessing (Lehmann, 1997). In addition to PTSD symptoms, witnessing children also suffer from intrusive and unwanted memories of the traumatic event, traumatic avoidance, and hyper arousal symptoms like battered women suffer from traumatic symptoms in a continuous way (Graham-Bermann and & Levendosky, 1998).

The repeated nature of domestic violence trauma is also focused by Herman (1992). Trauma of battered women occurs in a chronic way, it means most of the
partner abused women experience trauma and psychological and physiological responses to trauma over and over again. Possible affective, cognitive and even personality changes are experienced by victimized women, with this repeated nature as well its continuity and unpredictability of violence trauma is also mentioned within trauma theory. These changes occur as women victims lose of control and show impaired functioning in their lives with dominance and control of abusive partner. As a result, women who live in violent homes while remaining in these physically and/or psychologically abusive environments may never have the chance to recover (Herman, 1992).

The above mentioned chronic nature of violence trauma of battered women is also applicable to children who witness parental abuse (Graham-Bermann, 1998). Children can be repeatedly traumatized in any time by exposing such remainders of traumatic events. Eron et al. reported violent images in television as reminder of previous battering event in family (as cited in Graham-Bermann, 1998). Children’s posttraumatic plays involving family members can also be a reminder for children. In the chronically threatening family atmosphere children’s traumatic memory could be stimulated during their play with toy figures which were involved in violent scen (Davies, 1992; Terr, 1981). As a consequence of this repeated pattern of exposing to violence, children’s possible attribution is determined as follows; children may perceive themselves too powerless to behave in order to stopping domestic violence (Fosco et al., 2007; Graham-Bermann, 1998). This feeling of inability to respond effectively was reported as one of the possible effects on their continuing emotional problems (Fosco et al., 2007).

2.1.2.3 Emotional Security Hypothesis

In the previous two sections theories that directly explain ‘marital violence’ exposure effects on children were discussed. In this section a hypothesis which deals with marital ‘conflict’ was discussed in terms of effects of marital conflict on children. The link between the concerns of the current hypothesis, that is ‘marital conflict’ and ‘marital violence’ is proposed to be “at a negative
extreme of continuum of marital conflict” (Cummings, 1998, p.56). This proposition suggests that marital conflict may result in marital violence.

The relatively new theory of emotional security hypothesis (Cummings & Davies, 1996) which is based on attachment theory indicates that children in marital conflict mainly consider the meaning of marital conflict for themselves and the family, in terms of their assessment of emotional security. The theory focuses on the significance and mediator role of emotional security for children’s reaction to marital conflict. The significance and mediator role is mentioned by scholars (1996) as follows;

Children’s concerns about emotional security play a role in their regulation for emotional arousal and organization and motivation to respond in the face of marital conflict. Over time these response processes have implications for children’s long-term adjustment. Emotional security is seen as a product of past experience and primary influence on future responding (p. 387).

The response process of children when they are confronted with the marital conflict involve specific regulatory systems as emotion regulation, internal representation of family relations and regulation of exposure to family affect (Cummings & Davies, 1996; Cummings, 1998).

Moreover the emotional security theory has importance in terms of marital conflict schema. In the proposed hypotheses of Cummings and Davies, (1996) marital conflict is handled as a continous structure from constructive to destructive. As mentioned by Cummings (1998), while violence refers to destructive conflict, problem solving refers to constructive conflict style. In this way not only extreme behaviors in marriage which leads to negative conswquences as violence are dealt but also constructive conflict styles are dealt with their positive effects on children.

2.1.3 Effects of Interparental Violence Witnessing on Children

2.1.3.1 Effects on Behavioral and Emotional Functioning

The literature regarding domestic violence and its silent victims involves large amount of information about children’s behavioral and emotional
functioning problems related with witnessing family violence (Edleson, 1999). When witnessed children are compared with the non-witness children, it can be seen that children with the history of domestic violence had more behavior problems than others (Mathias, Mertin and Murray; 1995). In the study of McFarlane, Groff, O’Brien and Watson (2003) reports of mothers in shelter about their children with the age range between 6 years and 18 years is evaluated. When results are compared with the non abused mothers’ reports, it can be seen that children of abused mothers have higher internalizing, externalizing and total behavior problem scores. Furthermore, children who both witness interparental violence and are abused by their parents show more behavioral problems than non-witnessed ones and only witnessed ones (Hughes, 1988). Moreover, the severity of behavior problems increases as the period between exposing to violence and measurement point get shorter (Wolfe, Zak, Wilson & Jaffe, 1986). In line with the research results from; America and Australia, in Turkey, children of mothers who has experienced violence from their husbands or partners show more behavioral problems than children whose mother have not experienced violence, (KSGM, 2009).

Externalizing problems such as aggressive and delinquent behaviors of children are also related with the exposure to domestic violence. Particularly, linear correlation was reported between exposing to violence from mother to father and externalizing problems of children (Baldry, 2007). Similarly externalizing behavior problems are predicted with the amount of witnessed violence for girls (O’Keefe, 1994a). Furthermore, the link between marital violence witnessing and increased externalizing behaviors of children is supported by the literature (Graham-Berman &, Levendosky, 1998). In accordance with mentioned relations, children from violent families show more externalizing behavior problems than non-violent family children (O’Keefe, 1995). Results of the study conducted by Fantuzzo, DePaola, Lambert, Martino, Anderson and Sutton (1991), with 3.5-6.4 years old children indicates that children exposed to verbal and physical violence, either from home or shelter show a higher level of conduct problems than those exposed to just verbal violence and non exposed. Moreover, children from violent families were reported to be more likely to
choose aggressive response than children who were from non-violent families (Mathias et al., 1995).

Witnessing interparental violence has also been related with emotional problems in children (Fantuzzo et al., 1991; Singer, Anglin, Song, Lunghofer, 1995). The study (Fantuzzo et al., 1991) compares children exposed only to verbal violence, exposed to verbal and physical violence, exposed to both types of violence and from shelter and exposed to any type of violence. Results indicate that, children who are exposed to both types of violence and from shelter show a higher level of emotional problems than others.

As proposed in trauma theory, Singer et al. (1995) reports positive and significant relation between witnessing domestic violence and posttraumatic stress and total trauma symptoms. PTSD was found to be more prevalent among domestic violence witnessed children when compared to children who did not witness; hence, being witness of domestic violence is significant predictor of PTSD (Kilpatrick and Williams, 1997; Rossman, 1998). Additionally, Singer et al. (1995) points out a significant and positive relation between exposing to interparental violence and depression, anger, anxiety, dissociation, posttraumatic stress symptoms of adolescents. Depression and anxiety levels of children are also related with witnessing interparental violence. Higher depression (McCloskey et al., 1995) and anxiety (Hughes, 1988) levels of witnessed children, in comparison to that of non-witnessed ones has also been mentioned. Moreover, emotional effects in relation with being observer of the parental violence occur as feeling of loss, sadness and guiltiness of children of violent families (Jaffe, Hurley & Wolfe, 1990).

### 2.1.3.2 Effects on Cognitive Functioning and Attitudes

Another domain in which the reflection of exposing to family violence is observed in the cognitive features of children (Carlson, 2000; Rossman, 1998). Being witness to family violence is a risk factor for children with respect to having difficulties in cognitive area (Goodman & Rosenberg, 1987).

Delayed cognitive development in children was found to be related with violence exposure (Hurley & Jaffe, 1990). Kérouac, Taggart, Fortín and Lescop,
(1986) conducted a study with women in shelter concerning children of battered women. It was reported that 24.6% of the children in shelter are slow learners. Rossman (1998) reported that children exposed to domestic violence have poorer levels of cognitive functioning than non-exposed ones; they also show poorer performance in perspective taking and working memory tasks than non-abused ones.

It was found that the level of parental violence exposed children at was significantly lower in terms of their school performance by Osofsky (1999) and Pepler and Moore (as cited in Rossman, 1998) and reading and mathematical achievement scores when compared to non-exposed children (Westra & Martin, 1981). Additionally, the study of Wildin, Williimson and Wison (1991) with the women in shelter focused on the academic problems of children. The study pointed out that 46% of 46 school aged children had academic problems; such as grade repetition, failing grades and need for special education.

Koenen, Moffitt, Caspi, Taylor and Purcell (2003), through a genetic effect eliminated twin study, indicates that high level parental violence exposed children had lower IQ score than unexposed ones. More specifically, domestic violence witnessed children’s significantly poorer verbal abilities (Huth-Bocks, Levendosky & Semel, 2001; Westra & Martin, 1981) and verbal IQ scores also are pointed out when compared with non-witnessing children (Rossman, 1998).

2.1.3.3 Effects on Physical Functioning

Physical functioning of children is also affected from being witness of parental violence (Edleson, 1999). Headaches, bed wetting, disturbed sleeping, failure to thrive, vomiting, and diarrhea are mentioned as among the physical symptoms which witnessed children suffer from in the review of Campbell and Lewandowski (1997). Children are concerned also in the extensive and explanatory research about the women’s family violence experiences of KSGM (2009). The research report pointes out that bedwetting behavior and ill-tempered crying are problematic behaviors of children of battered women.

The witnessed children experience physical problems more frequently when compared with non-witnessed children is a common finding in various
studies. It was found that Swedish silent victims of parental violence had twice as much as admission than the control group and mostly at pre-school age (Larson and Andersson, 1988). Similarly, children from Montreal shelter were found to be twice as often absent from school due to health problems than general population of Canadian and American children (Kérouac, et al., 1986). In the study (Wolfe et al., 1986), children of women who are from former residents of shelter group, current residents of shelter group and non-violent group were compared, and health difficulties were reported mostly for current resident children. Psychosomatic problems were also related with being exposed to interparental violence (Stagg, Wills, Howell; 1989). According to report of LOKK statistics (Tilia & Hansen, 2007) children from shelters in Denmark experience insomnia, stomach aches and concentration problems as somatic disorders due to being witness of interparental violence. Additionally, witnessed children more often suffer from such psychosomatic problems than non-witnessed ones (Larson and Andersson, 1988).

2.1.3.4 Long-term Effects

Being exposed to interparental violence has long-term effects on secondary victims’ life as short term effects (Edleson, 1999). The longitudinal study of Boden et al. (2010) points out in adolescents the relation of being exposed to interparental violence with showing conduct disorder (CD) and oppositional defiant disorder (ODD), symptoms. The long term effects of exposing parental partner abuse in childhood is also reported by Silvern et al., (1995). The retrospective study pointed out that while childhood exposures are related with depression, trauma-related symptoms, and low self-esteem of women, the exposure just relates to the trauma-related symptoms of men.

The effects of witnessing to parental violence were studied retrospectively also by Kalmuss (1984) based on the social learning theory. It was found that there is a relation between observing parental aggression in childhood and being involved in severe marital aggression. Witnessing violence both as a boy and as a girl increases the likelihood of being victims and perpetrators of severe marital aggression (Kalmuss, 1984). The study of Straus (1990) which was conducted
with partner abuser adults is also based on the social learning theory (Bandura, 1969). In this study, it is reported that participants who were observer of violence between their parents abused their partner three times more than non-observer ones.

In the study of Henning, Leitenberg, Coffey, Turner and Bennett (1996) parental violence witnessing and non-witnessing college women are compared. Results indicate that women who witnessed parental violence in childhood showed higher levels of distress and lower levels of social adjustment (Henning et al., 1996). When the characteristics of violent people’s families are examined (Rosenbaum and O’Leary, 1981) it is found that batterer men are more likely to be grown up in a violent family as a witness of violence.

2.2 Parenting Behaviors

2.2.1 Definition of Parenting Behaviors

A group of functions with the purpose of socialization of children in the family is defined as parenting (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). This Parent-child relationship based aspect is also labeled as a major tool for socialization (Sümer, Selçuk & Günaydın; 2006) which is an intergenerational transmission process of cultural values of societies (Baumrind, 1980; Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Parent behaviors -parenting behaviors- towards children takes part in the literature of socialization with several labels such as child rearing attitudes, parenting styles, parenting attitudes and several explanations (Sümer, 2008). Baumrind (1980) proposed three different categories for parenting attitudes, namely authoritative, authoritarian and permissive styles. These styles are explained based on two dimensions. The first dimension is society’s expectations of from children and it is explained with the discipline and control towards children. The second dimension is related with what is given to children from society and it is explained with the warmth, sensitivity and acceptance towards children in the family (Baumrind, 1980). In authoritative parenting, while parents control their children in a discipline; they also behave in a sensitive way to their individuality. On the other hand, authoritarian parents have absolute control on their children without
emotional sensitivity and warmth. Children of authoritarian parents are expected to obey harsh rules of their parents. Other parenting category proposed by Baumrind (1980) permissive style is characterized with acceptance and warmth of parents towards children and with flexible expectations from and control on children.

As reorganization of Baumrind proposed parenting styles, Maccoby and Martin (1983) proposed four category parenting. This categorization was based on level of acceptance/responsiveness which refers to parents attending level to the needs and demands of the child and control/demandingness which refers to the level of demandingness of the parent to restrict child’s conduct. Parenting categorization of Maccoby and Martin (1983), involves authoritative and authoritarian parenting as in the Baumrind’s model (1980). In the former categorization low control permissive style is divided in two categories. The first is labeled indulgent parenting which refers to low control/high acceptance combination and the second is neglectful parenting with a combination of low control and low acceptance.

Furthermore, Darling and Steinberg (1993) proposed a more complex model for parenting styles in the frame of socialization studies. This model focuses on three parenting issues: goal of socialization process, parental practices which are used for this goal and, parenting style or emotional climate in which socialization occur. In other words, parenting styles and parenting practices (behaviors) are differentiated. While parenting style refers to general emotional climate in family, parental behavior refers to tools used for the purpose of socialization in the specific situation or context. Moreover, indirect effect of parenting style rather than direct effect on children, between parenting behaviors and children’s openness to socialization was pointed out by Darling and Steinberg (1993). To sum up, while parenting behavior and parenting style was used interchangeably in the earlier socialization literature, later they have been handled as related but different terms.
2.2.2 The Relation between Parenting Behaviors and Culture

As mentioned in section 2.2.1 Definition of Parenting behaviors, parenting styles are socialization tool for intergenerational transmission of cultural values and expectations (Sümer et al., 2006; Sümer, 2006). Parenting attitudes and behaviors reflect culture and value systems of parents through synthesis (Sümer et al., 2006). In this context, parenting attitudes, behaviors (practices), expectations from children and parents’ approach to children change from culture to culture (Sümer, 2006). The explanation of Darling and Steinberg (1993) for this variety is that each parenting style can be seen across cultures; however parenting behaviors (practices) can be different across cultures due to goals, values or beliefs. In other words, culture specific values and beliefs affect parental attitudes and practices (Sümer, 2006).

Studies focusing on parenting and culture revealed that parenting styles and behaviors’ frequency and effects can change depending on the culture and cultural features of a sample group. While in the studies with American sample it was reported that authoritative and permissive-neglectful parenting is the most frequent styles as compared to authoritarian and permissive-indulgent parenting (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994); in the Turkish sample studies authoritarian and permissive-indulgent parenting styles were reported as most frequent parenting style as opposite to US parents (Sümer & Güngör, 1999). Moreover, the study of Steinberg et al. (1994) which was conducted with four different ethnic groups, reported significant ethnicity and parenting style interaction effect on children. Results pointed out that authoritarian parenting style has higher level relation than authoritative parenting with adjustment and academic competence of Asian-American children.

Parenting styles and behaviors gain cultural differences based on the culture specific values, expectations (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Parents’ behavioral control in the frame of authoritarian parenting was reported to be related with negative results on children, whereas positive results were pointed out as a result of control behaviors (Sümer, 2008). The study which was focused on protection behavior of parents as sub-title of controlling behavior on Chinese
children pointed out such effect. Controlling behavior in China and other East Asian countries are not perceived as negative either by children or parents according to Chen et al. (as cited in Sümer, 2008).

In this context, Kağıtçıbaşı (2005) proposes a similar pattern, nonnegative perception of children, for control behavior perception for Turkish culture. In this model, parental control and warmth were proposed as complementary dimensions rather than as opposite. Parallel with this point, it was proposed and demonstrated that ‘over’-protection does not have negative effects on children as in the Western cultures. Since protective behaviors depends on the cultural context and may refer to culturally different functions, it is not perceived as a negative behavior by children (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005, Sümer, 2008).

2.2.3 Factors Influencing Parenting Behaviors

The socialization literature that focuses on parenting demonstrates supportive and impediment effects on positive parenting. In this manner, life experiences of parents as physical (inadequate capital resources, poor housing conditions) and psychological (unavailable social support system, negative marital conditions) stressors are reported as effective factors on parenting (Chen & Rubin, 1994).

In the study of Elder, Nguyen and Caspi (1985) significant negative effect of economic hardship of family on father’s parenting behavior is mentioned. Under the conditions of economic hardship fathers show significantly more rejection behaviors towards their children. Additionally, it is pointed out, that perceived father rejection had significant and negative relations with being goal oriented and significant and positive relations with feeling of self-inadequate for girls (Elder et al., 1985). Similarly, Lempers, Clark-Lempers & Simons (1989) focused on economic hardship, parenting, and distress on adolescents. They points out that effects of economic hardship on parenting occur as less parental nurturance and more inconsistent discipline, these lead higher levels of distress in adolescents (Lempers et al., 1989).

Marital quality is one of the psychological stressors which effect parenting behaviors. The study reveals that mothers from close/confiding marriages behave
in a warmer and more sensitive way to their infants; additionally fathers of these marriages hold more positive attitudes towards their children (Cox, Owen, Lewis and Henderson, 1989). Furthermore, the study of Buehler and Gerard (2002) gives evidence for negative effects of marital conflict as marital quality related issues. The findings of this study indicate that with marital conflict parents behave in harsh discipline towards their children, and their parental involvement reduces with marital conflict.

Received social support of parents is another psychological factor related with parenting behaviors. The study of Crnic, Greenberg, Ragozin, Robinson, & Basham, (1983) examine the effectss of social support and stress of mothers on their maternal attitudes and early mother-infant interactive behaviors. It was stated that both social support and stress significantly predicted maternal attitudes and mother-infant behavior. Specifically, while mothers who receive greater support show more positive attitudes and behaviors, greater stressed mothers show less positive attitudes and behaviors towards their children (Crnic et al., 1983). The positive effect of social support on parenting behaviors is also demonstrated with the meta-analytic review of Andresen and Telleen (1992). With an analysis of 66 studies researchers indicated that perceived emotional and material support by mothers generally positively related with the mothers’ parenting behaviors, e.g. frequency and quality of play, responsiveness to children’s needs, and quality of verbal interactions.

2.2.4 The Relation between Parenting Behaviors and Family Violence

Violence in the family between parents effects parenting behaviors as well as children’s and parents psychological and physiological health; children’s, cognitive development etc. (Edleson, 1999). In the literature (Holden, Stein, Ritch., Harris & Jouriles, 2008), studies about relation between being a part of family violence as a victim partner and parenting indicate mainly two effects on parenting; parents’ more aggressive behaviors towards children and less warmth, emotional availability, and consistency in parenting behaviors.

Interparental violence reflects to children as aggression and child abuse through parenting behaviors (Holden et al., 2008). It is mentioned by Easterbrooks
and Emde (1988) that marital violence show effects on child rearing and parents behave in a harsh and aggressive way towards their children. Moreover, parents from violent marriages are reported to be more likely to behave in punitive, harsh, and negative ways towards their children (Jouriles, Barling & O’Leary, 1987; McLoyd, 1990). Straus and Gelles (1990) reportes five times more risk for battered women’s children being abused by parents, with their American families study. Additionally, the studies conducted in the United States reportes high ratings for overlap of partner violence and child abuse in families from 34% to 100% (Edleson, 1999; Ross, 1996). Similarly, participants reported both partner violence and child abuse in their family in the study of Vahip and Doğanavşargil (2006) which was conducted in Turkey with female participants. The rate of this overlap of partner violence and child abuse in the families was revealed as 12%.

Another negative effect of interparental violence on parenting behaviors occurs as less warmth, emotional availability, parental involvement and inconsistency (Grych & Fincham, 1990). When parents from violent and nonviolent families were compared, it is revealed that violent fathers are more irritable and less involved parents. Moreover, both violent fathers and battered women show fewer positive and more negative child rearing responses when compared to nonviolent family parents (Holden & Ritchie, 1991). The negative association of interparental violence with parenting behaviors is also mentioned in the study of Burman, John and Margolin (1987). Mothers from violent marriages show less parental support, responsiveness and monitoring behaviors towards their children. Additionally, the relation between being part of interparental violence and parenting behaviors is demonstrated by Fauber, Forehand, Thomas and Wierson (1990). Researchers point out the positive association between being a violent parent (towards each other) and perceived parental rejection/withdraw and psychological control by children of these parents.
2.3 Coping

2.3.1 Definition of Coping

Coping is defined as, “cognitive and behavioral efforts to master, reduce or tolerate internal and/or external demands that are created by stressful transaction” by Folkman and Lazarus (1985). The cognitive appraisal is evaluation of the threatening situation, well being of self in the situation, possible responses and available resources of the self for handle the stressful situation. In a stressful situation, the person experience coping with two stage cognitive appraisal processes for stressful situation. The two stages of this model are named as primary and secondary appraisal (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985).

In the primary appraisal, the person evaluates the event in terms of its relevance, negativity (or positivity) and stressfulness. Irrelevant and positive events are not important for well being of a person and the person does not need any response and resources to handle it. Thus this situation is not stressful for person according to Folkman and Lazarus, 1985. However, as they defined harm (loss), threat and challenge are stressful situation for a person. For instance, loss of a friend (loss), possibility of losing money (threat), and getting a job promotion as expectation of personal gain or growth (challenge) are stressful situations in the primary appraisal (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985).

In the secondary appraisal process, a person evaluates possible coping options and likelihood of success with these options. Therefore this is process is more of an intellectual exercise than the first appraisal. These possible options can be social, physical or personal resources of the individual. Emotional supports from the family or from friends is an example of social resources; education, wealth, status in society are examples of physical resources, and problem solving skills, social functioning and self-confidence are examples of personal resources (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984).

The explained model of Lazarus & Folkman (1984) consists of two types of coping; problem-focused and emotion-focused coping. Problem focused coping refers to management or alteration of the sources of stress with cognitive and behavioral efforts such as defining problem, generating alternative solutions,
weighting cost and benefit of alternatives, choosing best option, and acting upon accordingly. Besides, the emotion-focused coping is the regulation of the distressing emotion, which is experienced with stressful event and refers to responses like avoidance, minimization, distancing, and positive comparison.

In addition to the model of Folkman and Lazarus (1984) which was developed in consideration of adults, child focused models were also proposed in literature (Fields & Prinz, 1997). When coping of children is compared with that of adults, it is pointed out that difference of children from adults in terms of their developmental (social, cognitive, affective) and environmental aspects (dependence on adults) and life experience and resource level have a significant role in the coping process (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen & Wadsworth, 2001). Therefore, in order to understand the coping process (coping resources, styles and efforts) of children not only skills and resources of children but also social context of children in other words, the relation between the child and his/her environment should be considered (Compas, 1987).

When coping strategies for children are studied in literature five main dimensions can be identified. These are problem solving (including approach and problem-focused strategies), support seeking (including instrumental as well as emotional support from others), avoidance (including efforts to disengage from the stressor), distraction (including a wide variety of alternative pleasurable activities), and emotion regulation (Compas et al., 2001; Skinner et al., 2007).

2.3.2 Stressors and Coping of Children

Children differ from adults in terms of their stressor reports as well as their coping ways (Fields & Prinz, 1997). Major life events, accumulation of minor life events, situations outside the control of individuals are mentioned as stressors in adult life. However, children frequently report fear of negative evaluation by peers and adults, parental conflict or loss, conflict with an adult, and feeling excluded socially as stressors (Atkins, 1991; Brown, O’Keefe, Sanders, & Baker, 1986). Furthermore with several studies literature points to medical (e.g. medical procedures), social (e.g. peer relationship arise situations) and academic (e.g. receiving bad grade) stressors as significant stressors for children (Fields & Prinz,
In a survey (Oral, 1994), 10-21 age old, Turkish children report nine stressor categories as follows, in frequency order; relationships with friends (e.g. separation from girl/boyfriend), academic problems (e.g. failure in school/courses), death of family members or friends (e.g. death of mother/father), health problems (e.g. having an operation), family problems (e.g. divorce of parents), school problems (e.g. teaching style of teachers), self-related expectations and thoughts (e.g. thoughts about personal beliefs, values), self-related specific events (e.g. death of bird/dog), extra-ordinary events (e.g. death of stranger).

In the study (Burgess et al., 2006), it is revealed that children frequently use adult intervention strategies like seeking social support to deal with problems with their friends. Moreover, avoidance coping is frequently preferred strategy by shy/withdrawn children among the 5th and 6th grade students. Additionally, in the review of Fields and Prinz (1997) coping of children from different age groups with social stressors (e.g. arguments with friends) are compared. It is revealed that while pre-school and secondary school children use more problem-focused coping, adolescents use more emotion-focused coping styles for social stressors.

To deal with academic stressors 7-12 aged children’s use of problem focused coping was reported by Fields and Prinz, (1997) and as well as 7-12 aged children, adolescents also frequently use problem focused coping for social stressors. Besides, adolescents’ use of emotion focused coping strategies in the face of academic stressors such as included anxious anticipation, positive self-talk, focusing on the task, seeking support, tension reduction, and wishful thinking are reported as a result of another study (Stern & Zevon, 1990).

Moreover, the coping ways of children with academic and interpersonal stressors are compared in the literature (Eschenbeck, Kohlmann and Lohaus, 2007). On the basis of self control effect on coping of children (Bandura, 1982) and other research results, it is assumed that whereas interpersonal stressors which are perceived more uncontrollable elicit more emotion focused coping; academic stressors which are perceived more controllable elicit more problem focused coping (Causey and Dubow, 1992; Compas Malcarne and Fondacaro., 1988). While this assumption is supported with some research results, there are also
contradictory results in the literature. For instance, in the study of Compas et al. (1988) it is mentioned that junior high school age youngsters use more problem focused coping more than emotion focused coping in order to deal with academic stressors. On the other hand, the study of Eschenbeck et al. (2007) with 3-8 grade level children reveals that children and adolescents used problem solving, avoidant coping, and anger-related emotion regulation more frequently for the social stressor compared to the academic stressors.

Researches (Peled, 1993; Goldblatt, 2003) also focus on family problems as a stressor for children. Children prefer both emotion-focused and problem focused coping while dealing with family violence (Edleson, 1999). In the study of Peled (1993) in which family problems are defined with interparental violence coping of preadolescents is studied. The results of the study indicate that children’s emotion focused coping occurs as wishing to stay away from violence, for giving father, and refusing to talk about violence. They show problem focused coping, which means event changing behaviors, by distancing themselves from or involving themselves to the violence. The sample of the study shows less problem focused coping for interparental violence. Moreover, using aggressive control as a coping strategy is mentioned for children who witnessed serious violence between parents such as weapon used violence (Spaccarelli, Coatsworth & Bowdwn, 1995).

2.3.3 Factors Influencing Coping of Children

The factors effective on coping of children can be dealt under three main titles (Compas, 1987). Firstly, in the consideration of dependence of young children to adults, social context of children is significant for their coping process; the environment of children plays a critical role for children (Compas, 1987; Fields & Prinz, 1997; Skinner & Gembeck, 2007).

Secondly, children’s psychological and biological preparedness can be mentioned as an effective factor on coping of children. For instance temperament of children which refers to a range of responsivity to stress with motivational and attentional factors, influence the coping response of children (Compas 1987; Derryberry, Redd & Taylor, 2003). In other words, children’s level of sensitivity
to environment determines frequency, severity and way of coping response
(Skinner & Gembeck, 2007).

Thirdly, cognitive and social developments of children are essential points
in their coping patterns (Compas, 1987, Skinner & Gembeck, 2007). In terms of
cognitive development child self perception (Asarnow, Carlson & Guthrie,
1987), self-efficacy beliefs, (Bandura, 1981), self-control and inhibitory
mechanisms (Harter, 1983), and causal attribution to situation (Burgess,
Wojslawowicz, Rubin, Rose-Krasnor & Booth-LaForce, 2006) are significant
features which are associated with coping response of children. As mentioned
before, social sources of children have a critical role in their coping process. In the
consideration of this point related with their social development, friendship
(Burgess et al., 2006) and parental relationships of children are also significant
predictors of children’s coping response (Maccoby and Martin, 1983).

The age of children also affects their coping as with all other
developments. Various studies have been conducted with primary, secondary
school children and adolescents and varied results of these studies give evidence
for the age effect (Fields & Prinz, 1997). Preschool and primary school children
show similar coping patterns both for social and academic stressors. These two
groups prefer problem focused coping to emotion focused coping strategies. On
the other hand, adolescents show emotion focused coping for social stressors and
they use both types of strategies for academic stressors. Decrease in use of social
support and increase of using cognitive strategies, like cognitive reconstruction,
cognitive decision-making are other changes observed in the coping patterns of
children as the age increases (Fields & Prinz, 1997).

Additionally, gender can be evaluated as another significant factor on
children’s coping. Studies in which differentiation of coping responses between
girls and boys are demonstrate the gender effect on coping of children (Fields &
Prinz, 1997; Hampel & Petermann, 2005). Gender is revealed as a significant
effect by Hampel and Petermann (2005), on the emotion focused coping type
minimization and distraction/reaction; and problem focused coping type positive
self-instruction and support seeking. In detail it was revealed with the study that
girls use less adaptive strategies (minimization and distraction/reaction, and
positive self-instruction.), and they have higher scores on the support seeking and maladaptive coping strategies when compared to boys.

2.3.4 The Relation between Children’s Coping and Witnessing Interparental Violence

Child-environment relation in terms of social context and social resources of children is mentioned as a critical issue for coping of children (Compas, 1987). Also the perception of children about violent family environment that includes interparental violence is mentioned as threatful, fearful and unsecure in the literature (Edleson, 1999). Moreover, the effects of witnessing violence on children’s social relations have evidence in the literature (Sternberg, Lamb, Breenbaum, Cicchetti, Cortes, Krispin & Lorey, 1993). These points indicate the effects of witnessing to being interparental violence on used coping style of children.

Coping of children with interparental violence is mentioned in various studies (Kitzmann et al., 2003; Edleson, 1999; Fosco et al., 2007). However, coping of interparental violence witnessed children with other stressors in their lives, does not take part as large as coping with interparental violence (Goldblatt, 2003).

One of the limited resources for coping of witnessed children’s coping with other stressors is the report of Tilia and Hansen (2007), which about sheltered women in Denmark and their children. According to the statistics children in shelter in 2006 had the following age distribution; 57% of the children were between 0 and 6 years old, 31% were between 7 and 12 and 12% were between 13 and 17. Two thirds of these children were reported as witness of physical abuse of their mother. More critically, these children strongly increased risk of coping more poorly in a number of areas compared with other children pointed out as a result of this witnessing experience (Tilia & Hansen, 2007).

Furthermore, the qualitative study of Goldblatt, (2003) involves statements of 13-18 aged adolescents about their experiences, perceptions about interparental violence. Participants were asked about both specific violent situations and gains for further life. Despite, mostly reported negative effects participants also reported
empowerment in their life. In other words, they reported learnt coping with other stressors they faced. The part of statement one of the participants explained this in these: “. . . Let’s say, [through violence] you learn to cope with life; that’s obvious…” (Goldblatt, 2003, p.543).

In sum, being exposed to interparental violence leads to poor coping in early ages, however in older ages this stressor may be perceived as a root of maturity, empowerment to cope with stressors in life. This difference makes sense with regard to the age effect on coping responses (Compas, 1987).

2.3.5 The Relation between Children’s Coping and Parenting Behaviors

One of the significant factors on children’s coping is parenting behaviors (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The relation between these two issues, coping of children and behaviors of their parents towards them, was involved in several studies (Baumrind, 1991; Cohen & Wills 1985; Fields & Prinz, 1997). Positive parental relationships refer to social support for adolescents as a psychological resource and enable them to response in coping behavior to stressful events (Cohen & Wills 1985; Baumrind, 1991). On the other hand, low coping of children is triggered by overprotective, anxious/aggressive, disapproving, parents (Fields & Prinz, 1997). Similarly but more specifically DuRant, Cadenhead, Pendergrast, Slavens and Linder (1994) report that adolescents who lived in more stable and socially connected households cope better with domestic and community violence than who do not live (DuRant et al., 1994). As well, Osofsky (1999) mentioned the importance of parenting relationship as that “The most important protective resource to enable a child to cope with exposure to violence is a strong relationship with a competent, caring, positive adult, most often a parent” (Osofsky, 1999, p.38).

The effect of parenting behaviors specifically on active coping responses is one of the common finding of researchers. The study of Dusek and Danko (1994) with high school children indicates that students with highly permissive and authoritative parents use active coping behavior more frequently than children of authoritarian parents (Dusek & Danko, 1994). Furthermore, the positive relation between both maternal and paternal warmth and active coping is reported by
Wolfradt, Hempel and Miles (2003). Based on this relation it is also reported, children of authoritative and permissive parents use more active coping when compared with children of authoritarian parents’ (Wolfradt et al., 2003).

2.4. The Connection between Literature Review and Purpose of the Study

The review of literature demonstrated that witnessing interparental violence affects children in different ways. Such as children’s behavioral, emotional, cognitive, physical functioning are negatively affected from interparental violence. Additionally, children’s age, parents behavior towards children, children’s coping with violence were reported as mediator factors between children’s witnessing interparental violence and effects of witnessing interparental violence on children. However, coping of witnessed children with other stressors such as interpersonal and academic stressors was not studied detailly. Moreover, studies regarding interparental violence effects on children mostly were conducted with parent reported measurements. Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate the mediator role of parenting behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping of children with interpersonal and academic stressors, based on the child reports.
CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter involves the instruments, the procedure and the data analysis of the two studies.

3.1 Study 1

Study 1 was conducted in the purpose of testing the psychometric properties (validity and reliability) of the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) and ‘the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children’, in a Turkish sample.

3.1.1 Participants

The participants of the study were non-clinic children and they all were from intact families. The age of the participants was changed between 10 and 12. Additionally, all were the 5th, 6th and 7th grade students of primary schools in İzmir.

The number of children who were recruited through purposive sampling (Kerlinger, 1986) was 219. However, 5 of the participants were not including in the analysis for several reasons like being out of the age range of the study, not completing the questionnaire, the high rate of the missing data and being the member of broken homes. Children were gathered from five different schools. These schools were from three different districts of the city and the students of these schools were from different socio-economic levels.

The demographic characteristics of the participants were summarized in Table 1. 117 of the participants were girls (54.70%), 87 of the participants were boys (40.70%) and 10 of the participants did not mentioned their gender (4.60%). The age mean (M) of the participants was 10.76 years and the standard deviation
(SD) is .83. 106 of the participants were the 5th grade students (49.53%), 55 of them were the 6th grade students (25.70%), 49 of them were the 7th grade students (22.90%) and 4 of the participants (1.90%) did not mentioned their school grade. Most of the participants had one sibling (44.90%), some of them had two or more (maximum 10) siblings (31.20%) and some of them had no sibling (22.00%). 1.90% of the participants did not report their sibling number. The education levels of the parents were similar.

Table 1. The Demographic Characteristics of Participants in Study 1

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<tr>
<td>Were Secondary School Degree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Degree</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>22.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Degree</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>28.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post graduate Degree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.2 Instruments

In this section The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) and The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children (Baldry, 2003) are introduced.

3.1.2.1 The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters

The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) was used to assess children’s witnessing interparental violence. The first draft of the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) was developed by the students of the University of New Hampshire in 1971 (Straus, 1979). The studies that used this scale from 1972 until 1979 also contributed to the development of it. With the help of the modifications the scale was clarified in terms of its theoretical rational, acceptability to respondents, scoring, factor structure, reliability, validity and norms with the research of Straus (1979).

The tactic choices of family members to deal with the conflict in the family were measured with the modified version of CTS. The scale that is self-reported and administrated to adults has three subscales. ‘Reasoning’ is the one of which refers to the tactics such as rational discussion, argument and reasoning to deal with the conflict in family. The subscale has 3 items. ‘Verbal Aggression’ is another subscale that includes items related to the use of verbal and nonverbal acts which symbolically mean to hurt to the other member used while dealing with conflict with family members. It has 6 items. The last subscale is ‘Violence’. It refers to physical force against the other member to resolve the conflict. Item number of it is 9. Items in the scale ranked from 0 “Never” to 6 “More than 20 times”.

The reliability coefficient values of subscales, which were computed for child to child, parent to child, child to parent, husband to wife, wife to husband and couple scores, range between .50 and .88 (Straus, 1979). The validity of the scale was also studied and CTS was reported as ‘concurrently valid’ in the study of Bulcroft and Straus (1975). In this study, researchers compared the answers of the students about their parents’ behavior to each other and the parents’ answers for the same items. Reasonable correlation was found between the answers of the
students and their parents. The study of Straus (1979) demonstrated the content validity of the scale since all items of the scale related with the acts of actual physical force of family members that they used towards each others. The studies that used various correlated results of the CTS used studies demonstrated the construct validity of the scale. The CTS data showed correlated violence pattern from one generation to other (Steinmetz, 1977; Straus, Suzanne & Richard., 1979) and CTS scores were correlated with variables in different studies (Bulcroft & Straus, 1975, Straus et al., 1979). These results are considered as an evidence for the construct validity of the scale.

The modified version of the CTS (Straus, 1979) (see in Appendix A) was adapted for the Italian youngsters by Baldry (2003) in order to measure the exposure to interparental violence of youngsters by reports of youngsters, with the age range of 9 to 17 (M = 12.1 years). There were not only verbal, physical and emotional violence related questions in the scale, but also the question about harm given by one partner to the other was included. In the adaptation process of the scale, the items related to more severe forms of the violence (e.g. threatening with gun, killing or sexual violence) were omitted due to the ethical concerns. The adapted form was 5 point Likert type scale and the answers ranged from 1 ‘never happened’ to 5 ‘always happened’. The higher scores on the scale, therefore, would refer to the more frequent exposure to interparental violence. The scale consisted of 10 items with two dimensions; mother’s violence against the father (MVF) (5 items) and the father’s violence against the mother (FVM) (5 items).

The internal consistency coefficients for the mother violence against the father is .70 and for the father violence against the mother is .81 (Baldry, 2003). The principle component analysis that was revealed two dimensions provided an evidence for the construct validity of the adapted scale.

Within the scope of this study the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters was modified to Turkish through an appropriate translation process and validity and reliability investigation with appropriate statistical techniques. The permission to use the scale was obtained from Anna Constanza Baldry via personal e-mail. The scale was translated into Turkish with translation-back translation process in five steps as mentioned by Brislin, and
Campell and Russo (as cited in Akbaş & Korkmaz, 2007). During this translation process, additionally the essential points for translation process that were mentioned by Savaşır (1994) were considered. Therefore, four different people who are fluent in Italian and have life experience in Italy involved in the translation-back translation process of the items. Three different translated forms were compared. After the discussion of the differently formed items with psychology experts; the most proper forms of the items were chosen. The back translation procedure was done for the last form of scale. Before testing the psychometric properties of the scale, the similarity of the original Italian form and the back translated form was checked. The latest version of the translated form of the scale was given in Appendix B. For the results related to the validity and the reliability of the scale see section 4.1.1 Testing the Psychometric Properties of Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters on page 55.

3.1.2.2 The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children

The question set was used by Baldry (2003, 2007) (see in Appendix C) in the aim of measuring frequency of mother and father abuse against children. The set includes eight questions. Four of them for the mothers’, the other four are for the fathers’ behaviors towards children. The questions related to abusive behaviors such as hitting, harming, saying swearing etc. to children. The question set is indicated as a 5-point Likert type scale, the items of which ranged from never (1) to always (5). The low scores in the scale refer to more frequent parental abuse and high scores refer to the less frequent parental abuse.

Internal consistency coefficients for the’ abusive behaviors of mother to child is .58 and for the father’s to the children is .65.

Within the scope of this study the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children, used by Baldry (2003, 2007) was also modified to Turkish by using same steps as in the modification of Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters. The permission to use the scale was again obtained from Anna Constanza Baldry via e-mail by personal. The translated form of the set was given in Appendix D. for the results related to the validity and the reliability test
of the question set see section 4.1.2 Testing the Psychometric Properties of the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children on page 57.

3.1.2.2 Demographic Information Form

Additionally, in the frame of the Study 1 ‘Demographic Information Form’ (see in Appendix E) was also administrated to the participants in order to collect information about the demographic variables. ‘Demographic Information Form’ was included questions about gender, birthday date, school name, grade, student id number, number of siblings, the status of the parents’ whether they were living together or not, and the’ education level of parents

3.1.3 Procedure

In the Study 1 the permission for the applications of the introduced instruments to the participants was granted both from The Applied Ethics Research Center of Middle East Technical University and Izmir Provincial National Education Directorate of the Ministry of Education. The approved Permission Letters for the Study 1 was given in Appendix F.

Before the applications, Parent Consent Form (see in Appendix G) was given to the schools in order to get the permission of children’s participation from their parents. The forms were distributed by the guidance counselors of the schools to the parents and gathered from the children. Parent Consent Form was reached as possible as parents of children who met characteristics of the study’s sample.

Through assigned appointments with guidance counselors of schools, applications of the study were carried on between 31st November 2010 and 7th December 2010. The students, who have permission to participate this application, were called from their lessons in groups of 7 to 15. The groups were participated the application in a convenient room in the school (e.g. computer room, library) rather than their own classes. Participants’ interaction during the application was tried to be minimized by seating order plan. At the beginning of each group session, the participants were informed about anonymity and confidentiality of their answers, and they were informed that the results would be used for research
purposes only by the researcher. In addition, it was mentioned that they were free to leave the application any time they wanted. Before children started to answer the questions, explanation about how they would answer the questions was given with the help of the 4th question of the Likert type scale. During the applications the researcher was the only person accompanying the participants in each session. All the explanations were provided; the questionnaires were distributed and collected from participants. All through the session and questions of the participants were answered by the researcher. Each session took approximately 20 minutes.

3.1.4 Data Analysis

For the Study 1, data analyses were conducted with several functions of SPSS v.15.0. After the data screening, SPSS commands were used to obtain descriptive characteristics of the sample. The data was used to test psychometric properties of the Turkish translated version of the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) and the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children. Principal components analysis was also used to revealing the factor structures of the Turkish translated form of the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) and the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children (Baldry, 2003). In other words construct validity of the scales were tested. The reliability of the scale and the question set was tested through internal consistency procedure and Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were calculated both for the scale and for the factors of the scale.

3.2 Study 2

3.2.1 Participants

The participants of the second study were non-clinic children and they were all from intact families. The age of the participants ranged between 10-12. Additionally, they were all the 5th, 6th and the 7th grade students of primary schools in Izmir as in the Study 1.
In Study 2, the number of the children through purposive sampling (Kerlinger, 1986) was 434 however, not all of them were included the analyses. The participation of 60 children was not taken into consideration due to the reasons as in the Study 1 and since they were clinical students. Additionally, 31 frequent parental abuse reported participants were eliminated in order to control the effect of being abused by their parents. The participants were from twelve different schools. These schools were from four different districts of the city which had different socio-economic levels.

As summarized in Table 2, 213 of the participants were girls (62.50%), and 128 of the participants were boy (37.54%). The age mean (M) of the participants was 11.61 years average and the standard deviation (SD) is .85. 124 of the participants were the 5th grade students (36.40%), 127 of them were the 6th grade students (37.24%), 80 of them were the 7th grade students (23.50%) and 10 of them (2.93%) did not mention their school grade. 52.80% of the participants had one sibling 44.50% of them had two or more (maximum 9) siblings and 10.00% of them had no sibling (10.00%). 2.93% of the participants did not report their sibling number.

### Table 2. The Demographic Characteristics of Participants in Study 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>37.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>36.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>37.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>23.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Number of Siblings</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>52.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 or more</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>44.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td><strong>The Education Level of the Mothers</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
<td>15</td>
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Table 2. (cont’d)

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<th>Father’s Education Level</th>
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<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>117 34.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>45 13.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>80 23.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Degree</td>
<td>5 1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Degree</td>
<td>25 7.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post graduate</td>
<td>2 0.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The Education Level of the Fathers**

| Illiterate       | - -                     |
| Lettered         | 15 4.40                 |
| Primary School   | 88 25.80                |
| Were Secondary School| 60 17.60          |
| High School      | 92 27.00                |
| Associate Degree | 8 2.40                  |
| University Degree| 37 10.90                |
| Post graduate    | 5 1.50                  |

3.2.2 Instruments

In this section The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003), The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children (Baldry, 2003), Egna Minnen av Barndoms Uppfostran-My memories of Upbringing (EMBU) (Perris, Jacobsson, Lindström, von Knorring, and Perris, 1980) and Adolescents Form of the Ways of Coping Inventory (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980) were introduced.

3.2.2.1 The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters

The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters which was used to assess children’s witnessing interparental violence can be seen in the section 3.2.1.1. The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters.

3.2.2.2 The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children

For information regarding The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children which was used to assess parental abuse towards children, see in the section 3.2.1.2. The Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children.
3.2.2.3 Egna Minnen av Barndoms Uppfostran-My memories of Upbringing (EMBU)

The original form of the Egna Minnen av Barndoms Uppfostran-My memories of Upbringing (EMBU) was developed by Perris et al. (1980) in order to assess adult’s perception of their parents’ rearing behavior. The scale has fifteen subscales and two additional questions about parental behaviors’ consistence and strictness.

In 1999, Arrindell, Sanavio, Aguilar, Sica, Hatzichristou, Eisemann and Ende constructed a short form of EMBU (s-EMBU) by a cross cultural study with adolescence. The s-EMBU has three subscales; Emotional Warmth (6 items), Rejection (7 items), and (Over) Protection (9 items) and these are answered for both mother’s and father’s child rearing behavior. In the 4-Likert type scale, responses ranged from 1 ‘No, never’ to 4 ‘Yes, most of the time.

In the cross cultural study of Arrindell et al. (1999) the reliability coefficient scores of father form of s-EMBU, ranged from .79 to .85 for Emotional Warmth; from.72 to .77 for Rejection; and from .74 to .80 for Protection. The reliability coefficient scores of the mother form of s-EMBU ranged from .79 to .81 for Emotional Warmth, from .74 to .79 for Rejection, and from .74 to .82 for Protection. As a conclusion, the findings confirmed the cross-national validity of the factor structure underlying the s-EMBU.

In this study perceived parental rejection and emotional warmth of the 4th and 5th grade primary school children were measured with s-EMBU which was adapted for Turkish culture (Sümer et al., 2006). Furthermore, through the cultural adaptation process some of the items were saved, some of them were omitted and the new ones added to the scale. The wording of the items in the scale was also modified for the children who were from age group of the study sample.

In the mother form s-EMBU, the reliability coefficient of Emotional Warmth was .69, Rejection was .49, (Over) Protection was .54 and Comparison was .60; in the adapted father form of s-EMBU, the reliability coefficient of Emotional Warmth was .82, Rejection was .52, (Over) Protection was .43 and Comparison was .60. Through item changes, factor structure of adapted form of the s-EMBU composed as Emotional Warmth (saved as before adaptation),
Rejection (saved as before adaptation), (Over) Protection (new items were added) and Comparison (all items new) subscales. Mother and father form of the EMBU were given in Appendix H and Appendix I respectively.

3.2.2.4 Adolescents Form of the Ways of Coping Inventory

Folkman & Lazarus developed the original form of the Ways of Coping Inventory (WCI) in 1980 to assess behavioral and cognitive coping strategies of individuals used in stressful situations. The original form of the scale is a self report, binary, yes-no checklist for adults. It is always answered for a stressful event in mind. The original form of the inventory includes 68 items, two sub-categories as problem focused (27 items) and emotion focused (41 items).

The internal consistency scores of the original form are .80 for the problem focused scale and .81 for the emotion focused scale. Addition to the conducted principal factor analyses for the inventory which revealed two factor structure as emotion focused and problem focused, the 91% agreement of 10 people evaluation on this two factor structure is also evidence for validity of the inventory (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980).

In 1985, the original form of the WCI was revised by the constructor. The items of the revised WCI described strategies that were used in managing specific stressful encounters by individuals as in the original form of the WCI. During the revision process, redundant and unclear items were deleted and new ones were added, and response format was changed from yes-no to 4 point Likert scale (0 = does not apply and/or not used; 3 = used a great deal). As a result of these changes, factor analyses revealed eight factor structures for the scale. One of them was Problem-Focused Coping (11 items), six of them were Emotion-Focused Coping: Wishful Thinking (5 items), Distancing (6 items), Emphasizing the Positive (4 items), Self-Blame (3 items), Tension-Reduction (3 items), Self-Isolation (3 items) and one of them was Mixed Problem- and Emotion-Focused Coping: Seeking Social Support (7 items). The scores in scales were calculated by summing all the ratings.

In terms of reliability, the scores were .85 for Problem-Focused Coping, .84 for Wishful Thinking, .71 for Distancing, .65 for Emphasizing the Positive,
.75 for Self-Blame, .56 for Tension Reduction, .65 for Self-Isolation and .81 for Seeking Social Support.

Later in 1991, the revised WCI was adapted to Turkish by Siva (as cited in Oral, 1994). In the adaptation process, new items were added, related with the fatalism and superstition. With these new items, the 4 point Likert type (0–little to 4-too much ), Turkish version had 74 items and seven subscales; problem solving approach, seeking refuge in fate, seeking social support, helpless approach, optimistic approach, face saving approach and seeking refuge in supernatural forces.

For the total scale, by Siva the Cronbach’s alpha level was found to be .90 for the subscales the alpha level changed between .63 and .88. Additionally, Turkish adaptation of the inventory had reasonable validity (as cited in Oral, 1994).

In 1994 Oral conducted a study with adolescents, whose age range varied from 10 to 25, by using the Turkish adapted form of the WCI and the Adolescence form of the WCI was composed. 4 point Likert scale (1= Never, 4= Always) measured the degree of using of each coping response. After the pilot study was conducted, the wordings of unclear two items were changed. 74 items of the scale were categorized in different 8 subscales; active coping (19 items), seeking refuge in fate (9 items), social support (11 items), helpless approach (12 items), optimistic approach (8 items), withdrawal (7 items), self blame (3 items) and seeking refuge in supernatural forces (4 items). The scores in the Adolescence form of the WCI scales were calculated by the summing of their ratings, the sub- scales which get higher score were responses that more likely to be given in stressful situation.

When the reliability coefficients for the subscales of the Adolescent form of the WCI were calculated, it was found that they were between .84 and .53, and the Cronbach alpha for the total scale was found to be as .87. The used Adolescent Form of Ways of Coping Inventory (WCI) for both interpersonal and academic stressors was given in Appendix J and Appendix K respectively.
3.2.2.5 Modified Demographic Information Form

In addition to the scales, Modified Demographic Information Form was given to the participants to collect information about demographic variables. The used Demographic Information Form which was used in this section was almost the same as in the Study 1. However, student id number was omitted since this item caused to doubt in participants about the confidentiality of the answers. Different from the Study 1, in this section ‘associated degree’ choice added to question about parental education. Additionally, information about the age of the mother and the father and their job were added to the Demographic Information Form to make the identification of the reported children easier for the school counselor. The modified Demographic Information Form was given in Appendix L.

For the purpose of catching the possible recovery about traumatic experience of children due to family violence, the participants answering the question after answered The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters and the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children (Turkish modified forms). The question was ‘How did you feel yourself after answered these questions?’ with ‘There is no difference in my feelings’ an ‘I felt myself bad’ choices.

3.2.3 Procedure

Study 2 was conducted through same procedure with Study 1. The permission for study was granted from Izmir Provincial National Education Directorate of the Ministry of Education. Approved Permission Letters for Study 2 were given in Appendix M. Different from the Study 1 applications of Study 2 were carried on between the 1st March 2011 and the 25th April 2011. The group size of the students who attended each application session was larger; changed between 7 and 25. After the general explanation about the application, instructions were given for each scale. The duration of the sessions changed between 40 and 90 minutes. During the sessions some children took short breaks due to the long lasting application.
As mentioned in the section 3.2.2 Instruments in Study 2 participants were administrated more than one scale. What is more, these four similar to each other two by two; EMBU for mother & EMBU for father and WCI for interpersonal stressors & WCI for academic stressors. Therefore, in order to prevent the order effect on the children’s answers, the order of scales was counterbalanced (Graziano & Raulin, 2004). Forty five different order were used and in any of them EMBU for mother and EMBU-C for father; WCI for interpersonal stressors & WCI for academic stressors followed each other. Ten scale sets were prepared for each order. These orders were assigned by using Permutations Generator Program and Random Number Generator & Checker Program (http://users.telenet.be/vdmoortel/dirk/Maths/permutations.html, http://www.psychicscience.org/random.aspx). Firstly all 120 possible orders were listed by the permutation program with an order number. Secondly, these orders in that EMBU for the mother and EMBU-C for the father; WCI for interpersonal stressors & WCI for academic stressors that followed each other were chosen randomly by random number generation program. The scales list of counterbalanced order was given in Appendix N.

3.2.4 Data Analysis

For testing the research question the data analyses were conducted with several functions of SPSS v.15.0. and LISREL 8.8. (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006). With SPSS commands demographic characteristics of the participants of the Study 2 were obtained. The relation between the interparental violence witness of children and the coping ways of children with interpersonal and academic stressors and the role of the perceived parental behaviors in this relation as a mediator was tested in four different path models through LISREL 8.8. (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006).
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In this chapter, the results for Study 1 and Study 2 will be mentioned respectively.

4.1 The Results of Study 1

In the frame of Study 1 psychometric properties of the Conflict Tactics Scale, which was adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003), and the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children (Baldry, 2003) were tested in a Turkish sample. Psychometric properties of the scale and the question set were reported in this section.

4.1.1 Testing the Psychometric Properties of Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters

In order to test the psychometric properties of the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) in a Turkish sample the data collected from 214 primary school children was used.

The construct validity of the scale was tested (Graziano & Raulin, 2004) in this study. In order to assess the construct validity of the translated scale, factorial structure was examined by principal component analysis with varimax rotation for the scale to 214 primary school students (for characteristics of the sample, see Table 1.)

The analysis for the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) indicated two factor structures which had eigenvalues larger than 1 and explain 71.32% of total variance. When items were evaluated considering the factor loadings and theoretical contents, it was seen that factors both include five items, which were named similarly in the original form. The first
factor, was named as ‘Violence from Mother to Father (MTF)’ and the second factor was named as ‘Violence from Father to Mother’ (FTM). While MTF factor explained 37.50% of the total variance, FTM factor explained 33.90% of the total variance. Varimax rotated factor loadings were given in the Table 3.

**Table 3. Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings, Percents of Variance, Eigenvalues and Alpha Values of the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters in a Turkish Sample**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>Factor Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MTF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother harming father</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother threatening father</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother hitting to father</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother throwing things to father</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother verbally insulting father</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father hitting to mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father verbally insulting mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father hitting to mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father threatening mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father harming mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percent of Variance</strong></td>
<td>37.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eigenvalue</strong></td>
<td>5.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of reliability, through the used internal consistency procedure, coefficient alpha values were calculated for each subscale. Additionally, item-total correlation values were calculated. Internal consistency value of the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) was calculated as .88 for MTF subscale, .85 for FTM subscale. In addition, calculated item-total correlation scores for each subscale were given in the Table 4.
Table 4. Item Total Correlation Scores and Alpha Values for MTF and FTM Subscales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>MTF Subscale</th>
<th>FTM Subscale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother hitting to father</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother threatening father</td>
<td>.80</td>
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<td>Mother harming father</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother throwing things to father</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mother verbally insulting father</td>
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<td>Father hitting to mother</td>
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<td>.73</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Father harming mother</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Alpha Value</strong></td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, mean (M), standard deviation (SD), correlation (r), percentage values (%) and Alpha coefficients (α), for variables involved in Study 1 were reported in Table 5.

Table 5. Mean, Standard Deviation, Correlation and Percentage Values and Alpha Coefficients for Variables of Study 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Witnessing Interparental Violence (WIPV)</th>
<th>Parental Abuse (PA)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MTF</td>
<td>FTM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witnessing Interparental Violence (WIPV)</td>
<td>Parental Abuse (PA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIPV MTF $\alpha = .88$</td>
<td>FTM $r = .75**$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIPV FTM $r = -.51**$</td>
<td>PA $r = -.55**$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Abuse (PA)</td>
<td>$\alpha = .80$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level**
4.1.2 Testing the Psychometric Properties of the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children

The psychometric properties of the Question Set about Parental Abuse toward Children (Baldry, 2003) in a Turkish sample was tested through the same procedure which was followed for the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) with the data gained from 214 primary school children.

In order to investigate the factor structure of the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children (Baldry, 2003) principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed for each scales for 214 primary school students as for the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) (for characteristics of the sample, see Table 1.)

The analysis of the Question Set about Parental Abuse toward Children (Baldry, 2003) indicated two factor structures which had eigenvalues larger than 1 and explain 58.13% of total variance. Furthermore, varimax rotation was conducted and items were evaluated. Cross loaded and low factor loading valued items were realized. Considering this pattern, which did not fit in two factor structure, and theoretical contents of items principal component analysis was conducted again, and the number of factors for the question set was forced one. This structure which had eigenvalue larger than one, explained 43.98% of the total variance with reasonable item factor loading values. Varimax rotated factor loadings for one factor structure was given in the Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father behave in good way to child</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother behave in good way to child</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father shout to child</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father help to child for problems</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father harming child</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother shout to child</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6. (cont’d)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother help to child for problems</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father harming to child</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of Variance</td>
<td>43.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering the reliability of the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children calculated internal consistency value was .88 for the question set. In addition, calculated item-total correlation scores for the question set were given in the Table 6.

Table 7. Item Total Correlation Scores and Alpha Value for the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>Item-Total Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father behave in good way to child</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father shout to child</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother behave in good way to child</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother shout to child</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father help to child for problems</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father harming child</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother help to child for problems</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father harming to child</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Alpha Value</strong></td>
<td><strong>.80</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 The Results of Study 2

In Study 2 research questions were tested. Before results related with research questions Moreover, mean (M), standart deviation (SD), correlation and Alpha coefficients, for variables involved in Study 1 was reported in Table 8.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parenting Behavior</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MTF</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FTM</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EW</td>
<td>31.37</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>10.66</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>10.03</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Mean, Standard Deviation, Correlation Values and Alpha Coefficients for Variables of Study 2
<p>|       | M      | SD | 1  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5  | 6  | 7  | 8  | 9  | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
|-------|--------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| EW    | 29.75  | 5.44| .48| .35| .41| .39| .39| .36| .35| .32| .31| .31| .30| .28| .26| .25| .23| .22| .21| .20| .19| .18| .17| .16| .15|    |
| R     | 3.20   | 2.72| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54| .54|    |
| O     | 3.03   | 2.63| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34| .34|    |
| C     | 3.75   | 3.01| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41| .41|    |
| AC    | 57.40  | 9.93| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07| .07|    |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8 (cont'd)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academia Española</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

61
Table 8. (cont'd)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>22.02</td>
<td>5.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HA</td>
<td>28.83</td>
<td>4.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OA</td>
<td>17.45</td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SB</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SF</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Numbers in the first row from 1 to 26 refer to variable names in the right column respectively. **Note 2:** Bold correlations are significant at the 0.05 level. **Note 3:** Diagonals are alpha coefficient. **Note 4:** M = Mother, F = Father, PM = Parental Maternal, PW = Parental Paternal, WA = Warmth, WA = Warmth, RA = Rejection, OA = Overprotection, O = Comparison, AC = Active Coping, SRF = Seeking Refuge in Fate, SS = Social Support, HA = Helpless Approach, OA = Optimistic Approach, W = Withdrawal, SB = Self-Blame, SF = Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces.
Each research question was tested in four different steps via Lisrel (Jöreskog, K. G. & Sörbom, D., 2006). In the first three steps, mediator variables were investigated and the last step was conducted to test mediator variables via SEM. Through the first three steps presumed mediator variables were tested in the consideration of four conditions which had to be met for having mediator role as a variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

In the first step, relations between the independent variable (witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM) and the dependent variables (coping with interpersonal/academic stressors- Active Coping, Seeking Refuge in Fate, Social Support, Helpless Approach, Optimistic Approach, Withdrawal, Self Blame, and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces) were tested. Independent and dependent variables were involved in the second step, which were revealed as significantly related as a result of the first step. Insignificant subscale pairs were not involved in the further steps. In the second step, the relation of presumed mediators (parental-maternal and paternal- behaviors- Emotional Warmth, Rejection, Overprotection and Comparison) with the independent variable and the dependent variables were tested. After the second step, the presumed mediator variables which have significant relationship with both an independent variable and a dependent variable, were involved the the next. The presumed mediator variables were not involved the the further step which did not meet this condition. In the third step, the relationship among the independent variables, the dependent variables and presumed mediators were tested. Significantly related independent and dependent variables were tested with the effect of presumed mediator variables in the third step. As a result of the third step, independent and dependent variable pairs which had less powerful or insignificant relationship and effective mediator variable in this result were identified. Parallel to this identification, mediator variables and related independent and dependent variables were involved in the path model or in other words in the last step. In the last step, the mediator role of variable between independent variable and dependent variables were tested via SEM.
4.2.1 Coping with Interpersonal Stressors

4.2.1.1 Testing the Mediator Role of Maternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping with Interpersonal Stressors

First of all, the relations between witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM and coping with interpersonal stressors were tested. As summarized in Table 9 which involves unstandardized, standardized solutions and t-values for parameter estimates, there are two significant relations between witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM and coping with interpersonal stressors. Structural correlations (.21 and .22 respectively) indicated significant relations between witnessing MTF violence and using helpless approach for coping with interpersonal stressors ($t = 2.41, p < .05$); between witnessing MTF violence and using self blame for coping with interpersonal stressors ($t = 2.55, p < .05$). It means there were two relations that met the first condition for mediation role of parenting behaviors between witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM and coping with interpersonal stressors.

As a second step of testing the first research question, the relation between interparental violence witness and maternal behaviors, maternal behaviors and coping with interpersonal stressors were examined. This step also covered the second and the third condition testing of mediator variable. In terms of relation between witnessing interparental violence and maternal behaviors, as summarized in Table 10, results indicated that there was a significant relation between witnessing MTF violence and perceived emotional warmth from mother ($t = -4.20, p < .05$), between witnessing MTF violence and with perceived rejection ($t = 9.07, p < .05$) and, between witnessing MTF violence and perceived comparison
Table 9. The Regression Results for Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Coping with Interpersonal Stressors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping</th>
<th>Unstandardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>Standardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>t-values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Active Coping</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Seeking Refuge in Fate</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Social Support</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MTF and Helpless Approach</strong></td>
<td><strong>.35</strong></td>
<td><strong>.21</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.41</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Optimistic Approach</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Withdrawal</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MTF and Self Blame</strong></td>
<td><strong>.16</strong></td>
<td><strong>.22</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.55</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Active Coping</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Seeking Refuge in Fate</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Social Support</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Helpless Approach</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Optimistic Approach</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Withdrawal</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Self Blame</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05
With respect to the relation between maternal behaviors and coping with interpersonal stressors, the results showed that there was a significant relation between emotional warmth and helpless approach \((t = 3.27, p < .05)\). Additionally, the relation between rejection and helpless approach \((t = 4.10, p < .05)\), between rejection and self blame \((t = 5.86, p < .05)\), had significance. Moreover, the relation between overprotection and helpless approach \((t = 2.90, p < .05)\), between overprotection and self blame \((t = 2.21, p < .05)\); and the relation comparison and helpless approach \((t = 2.14, p < .05)\) had significance. To sum up, the second and the third conditions were met for mediator role of emotional warmth, rejection and comparison between MTF and helpless approach. The second and the third conditions for mediator role were also met for rejection between MTF and self blame.

In the third step, the relation among witnessing interparental violence - MTF & FTM, maternal behaviors and coping with interpersonal stressors were tested in order to compare the relation between interparental violence witness and coping with interpersonal stressors without and with the effect of presumed mediators. When the results for MTF and helpless approach relation were compared, the relation was also significant \((t = 2.27, p < .05)\) with the effect of presumed mediators. However structural correlation of the relation decreased from .21 (see in Table 9) to .13 (see in Table 11) with the effect of presumed mediators emotional warmth, rejection and comparison. When evaluated considering the first three conditions which were met for being a mediator variable, this change showed the partial mediation role of emotional warmth, rejection and comparison between MTF and helpless approach (Şimşek, 2007). Furthermore, while the relation between MTF and self blame without the effect of presumed mediators was significant \((t = 2.55, p < .05)\), the effect of presumed mediator rejection was non-significant \((t = 1.52, p > .05)\). The first three conditions which were met for being a mediator variable and the change with the effect of presumed mediator indicated that rejection had full mediation role between MTF and self blame (Şimşek, 2007).
Table 10. The Regression Results for (a) Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Maternal behaviors and (b) Role of Maternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a) Witnessing Interparental Violence and Maternal Behaviors</th>
<th>Unstandardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>Standardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>t-values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Emotional Warmth from Mother</td>
<td>-.35</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>-4.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Rejection from Mother</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>9.07*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Overprotection from Mother</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Comparison from Mother</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>4.10*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Maternal Behaviors and Coping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Warmth from Mother and Helpless Approach</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>3.27*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Warmth from Mother and Self Blame</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection from Mother and Helpless Approach</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>4.10*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection from Mother and Self Blame</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>5.86*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overprotection from Mother and Helpless Approach</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>2.90*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overprotection from Mother and Self Blame</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>2.21*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison from Mother and Helpless Approach</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>2.14*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison from Mother and Self Blame</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Unstandardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>Standardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>t-values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Witnessing Intergenital Violence and Coping</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Helplessness Approach</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>2.27*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Self Blame</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Witnessing Intergenital Violence and Maternal Behaviors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Emotional Warmth from Mother</td>
<td>-.35</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>-4.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Rejection from Mother</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>9.07*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTF and Comparison from Mother</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>4.10*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Maternal Behaviors and Coping</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Warmth from Mother and Helplessness Approach</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>4.19*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection from Mother and Helplessness Approach</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>3.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection and Self Blame</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>5.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison from Mother and Helplessness Approach</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>2.85*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05
In the last step, the mediator role of maternal behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping with interpersonal stressors was tested in a path model. The results revealed that the fit was not good enough ($\chi^2 (8) = 143.89, p < .001, NC = 17.99, CFI = .66, SRMR = .14, RMSEA = .10$). After the modification indices investigation; post hoc model modifications were conducted based on conceptual correlations between the variables. Thus the errors of emotional warmth, rejection and comparison among each other; and the errors of helpless approach and self blame with each other were allowed to correlate and this path model was tested again.

The results indicated existence of a good fit between this path model and the data ($\chi^2 (4) = 9.12, p > .058, NC = 2.28, CFI = .99, SRMR = .033, RMSEA = .061$). In addition, in the model 10% of the variance on helpless approach was explained with the mediation effects of emotional warmth, rejection and comparison; and with the mediation effect of rejection 13% of variance of self blame was explained. The path model was shown in Figure 2 with standardized solutions. In sum, the figure means that being a witness to violence from mother to father has positive relation with perceived emotional warmth, rejection and comparison from mother. These perceived behaviors also have positive relations with using helpless approach for interpersonal stressors. Perceived rejection also has positive relation with using self blame as a coping strategy for interpersonal stressors.
4.2.1.2 Testing the Mediator Role of Paternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping with Interpersonal Stressors

The first step of second research question testing, test of the relation between witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM and coping with interpersonal stressors was similar with the first step of the first research question testing. The results can be seen in Table 9.

In the second step of second research question testing, the relation between interparental violence witness and paternal behaviors, paternal behaviors and coping with interpersonal stressors were examined. This step also covered the second and third condition testing of the mediator variable. The relation between witnessing interparental violence and paternal behaviors are summarized in Table 12. The results indicated that there is a significant relation between witness to MTF violence and perceived emotional warmth from father ($t = -8.74, p < .05$), between witnessing MTF violence and with perceived rejection ($t = 11.88, p < .05$) and, between witnessing MTF violence and perceived comparison ($t = 6.02, p < .05$). With respect to the relation between paternal behaviors and coping with interpersonal stressors the results showed that there is a significant relation between rejection and helpless approach ($t = 3.99, p < .05$) and between rejection and self blame ($t = 4.61, p < .05$). Additionally, the relation between comparison and helpless approach ($t = 4.38, p < .05$), between comparison and self blame ($t = 4.24, p < .05$), have significance. To sum up, the second and third conditions were met for the mediator role of rejection and comparison between MTF and helpless approach and between MTF and self blame.

As the third step of the second research question the relation among witnessing interparental violence -MTF & FTM, paternal behaviors and coping with interpersonal stressors were tested in order to compare relation between witnessing interparental violence and coping with interpersonal stressors without and with the effect of presumed mediators. The compared results showed that, significant relations between MTF and helpless approach ($t = 2.41, p < .05$); and between MTF and self blame ($t = 2.55, p < .05$) without the effect of presumed mediators, become non-significant relations as (see in Table 13) as in between
Table 12. The Regression Results for (a) Role of Witnessing Intervational Violence in Paternal Behaviors and (b) Role of Paternal Behaviors in Coping with Interpersonal Stressors

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<th>Standardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>t-values</th>
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<td>MTF and Comparison from Father</td>
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<td><strong>(b) Paternal Behaviors and Coping</strong></td>
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<td>Emotional Warmth from Father and Helpless Approach</td>
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<td>Comparison from Father and Self Blame</td>
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<td>.22</td>
<td>4.24*</td>
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</table>

*p < .05
MTF and helpless approach \((t = .48, p > .05)\); and between MTF and self blame \((t = .43, p > .05)\); with the effect of presumed mediator rejection and comparison. These changes with the effect of presumed mediator and met first three conditions for having mediator role indicate that rejection and comparison have full mediation role between MTF and self blame (Şimşek, 2007).

In the last step, the mediator role of paternal behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping with interpersonal stressors was tested in a path model. The results revealed that the fit was not good enough \((\chi^2 (4) = 66.83, p < .001, \text{NC} = 16.71, \text{CFI} = 84, \text{SRMR} = .11, \text{RMSEA} = .22)\). After modification indices investigation; post hoc model modifications were conducted based on the conceptual correlations between the variables. Thus the errors of rejection and comparison; and errors of helpless approach and self blame were allowed to correlate with each other and the path model was tested again.

The results indicated existence of a good fit between this path model and the data \((\chi^2 (2) = .35, p > .839, \text{NC} = .18, \text{CFI} = 1.00, \text{SRMR} = .01, \text{RMSEA} = .00)\). In addition, in the model 13% of the variance on helpless approach and 17% of variance of self blame were explained with the mediation effects of rejection and comparison. The path model was shown in Figure 3 with standardized solutions. In sum, the figure means that witnessing to the violence from mother to father has positive relation with perceived rejection and comparison from father. Perceived rejection has positive relation with using self blame and comparison has positive relation with using helpless approach as a coping strategy for the interpersonal stressors.
<table>
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<td><strong>Witnessing Interparental Violence and Maternal Behaviors</strong></td>
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<td>MTF and Rejection from Father</td>
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<td>.54</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTF and Comparison from Father</td>
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<td>6.02*</td>
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<td>Comparison from Father and Helpless Approach</td>
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*p<.05
Figure 3. The Path Model for Mediator Role of Paternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence (MTF) and Coping with Interpersonal Stressors.
4.2.2 Coping with Academic Stressors

4.2.2.1 Testing the Mediator Role of Maternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping with Academic Stressors

The relations between witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM and coping with academic stressors were tested. As summarized in Table 14 which involves unstandardized, standardized solutions and t-values for parameter estimates, there are three significant paths between witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM and coping with academic stressors. Structural correlations (.22, .28, -.18 respectively) indicated the significant relation between witnessing MTF violence and using withdrawal for coping with academic stressors ($t = 2.53$, $p < .05$); between witnessing MTF violence and using seeking refuge in supernatural forces for coping with academic stressors ($t = 3.29$, $p < .05$) and between FTM violence witness and using optimistic approach for coping with academic stressors ($t = -2.11$, $p < .05$). It means there were three relations that met the first condition for the mediation role of parenting behaviors between witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM and coping with academic stressors.

In the second step, the relation between witnessing interparental violence and maternal behaviors were examined as well as the relation between maternal behaviors and coping with academic stressors. This step covers the second and the third conditions for testing the effect of mediator variables. In terms of relation between witnessing interparental violence and maternal behaviors, as summarized in Table 15 the results indicated that there is a significant relation between witnessing MTF violence and perceived rejection from mother ($t = 4.73$, $p < .05$), between witnessing FTM violence and with perceived emotional warmth ($t = -2.36$, $p < .05$) and, between witnessing FTM violence and perceived comparison ($t = 2.06$, $p < .05$). With respect to the relation between maternal behaviors and coping with academic stressors, the results showed that there is a significant relation between emotional warmth and optimistic approach ($t = 3.30$, $p < .05$) between rejection and withdrawal ($t = 2.37$, $p < .05$). Additionally, between
Table 14. Regression Results for Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Coping with Academic Stressors

<table>
<thead>
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<td>MTF and Social Support</td>
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<td><strong>.22</strong></td>
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<td>-.32</td>
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<td>FTM and Self Blame</td>
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<td>.46</td>
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<tr>
<td>FTM and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-1.89</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05
overprotection and seeking refuge in supernatural forces ($t = 3.10, p < .05$) and between comparison and withdrawal ($t = 3.02, p < .05$) there is a significance. To sum up, the second and the third conditions were met for the mediator role of rejection between witnessing MTF violence and using withdrawal, for the mediator role of emotional warmth between witnessing FTM violence and using optimistic approach. Moreover the comparison also met the second and the third conditions for having a mediator role between witnessing FTM violence and withdrawal for coping with academic stressors. However the first condition for the mediator role of comparison in this relation was not met; thus the comparison will not be involved in the further steps.

As the third step the relation among witnessing interparental violence - MTF & FTM, maternal behaviors and coping with academic stressors were tested in order to compare the relation between witnessing interparental violence and coping with academic stressors with and without the effect of presumed mediators. When the results for MTF and withdrawal relation compared the relation was also significant ($t = 2.06, p < .05$) with the effect of presumed mediators. However structural correlation of the relation decreased from .22 (see in Table 14) to .12 (see in Table 16) with the effect of presumed mediator rejection. This change in the structural correlations and the first three conditions which were met for being a mediator variable indicates the partial mediation role of rejection from mother the relation between MTF and withdrawal (Şimşek, 2007). Furthermore, while the relation between FTM and optimistic approach without the effect of presumed mediators was significant ($t = 2.11, p < .05$), with the effect of presumed mediator rejection the relation was non-significant ($t = - .89, p > .05$). This change in the significance with the effect of presumed mediator of the relation and the first three conditions which were met for being a mediator variable indicate that rejection has full mediational role between MTF and self blame (Şimşek, 2007).

In the last step, mediator role of maternal behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping with academic stressors was tested in a path model. The results revealed that the fit was not good enough ($\chi^2 (10) = 53.67, p < .001$, $NC = 16.71$, $CFI = 90$, $SRMR = .08$, $RMSEA = .11$). After modification
Table 15. The Regression Results for (a) Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Maternal Behaviors and (b) Role of Maternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors

<table>
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*p < .05
Table 16. The Regression Results for Testing the Roles of Witnessing Interparental Violence and Maternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors

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<tr>
<th>Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping</th>
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</table>

* p < .05
indices investigation; post hoc model modifications were conducted on the basis of conceptual correlations between variables. Thus, the errors of warmth and rejection; and the errors of withdrawal and optimistic approach were let freely correlated with each other and the path model was tested again.

The results indicated existence of a good fit between this path model and the data ($\chi^2$ (8) = 11.40, $p > .179$, NC = 1.43, CFI = .99, SRMR = .033, RMSEA = .035). In addition, in the model 4% of the variance on withdrawal was explained with the mediation effect of rejection and 4% of variance of optimistic approach was explained with the mediation effect of comparison. The path model was shown in Figure 4 with standardized solutions. In sum, the figure means that witnessing violence from mother to father has positive relationship with perceived rejection from mother, while being a witness to FTM has negative relationship with perceived emotional warmth from mother. There is a positive relation between perceived emotional warmth and using optimistic approach; and perceived rejection and using withdrawal as a coping strategy for academic stressors.
Figure 4. The Path Model for Mediator Role of Maternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence-MTF & FTM and Coping with Academic Stressors.
4.2.2.2. Testing the Mediator Role of Paternal Behaviors between Witnessing Interparental Violence and Coping with Academic Stressors

The first step of fourth research question testing, test of the relation between witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM and coping with interpersonal stressors was similar with the first step of the third research question testing. The results can be seen in Table 14.

In the second step of testing the fourth research question, the relation between witnessing interparental violence and paternal behaviors, paternal behaviors and coping with academic stressors were examined. This step also covered the second and the third condition testing of mediator variable. In terms of the relation between witnessing interparental violence and maternal behaviors, as summarized in Table 17, the results indicated that there is a significant relation between witnessing MTF violence and perceived emotional warmth from father ($t = -5.07, p < .05$), between witnessing MTF violence and rejection ($t = 7.17, p < .05$), between witnessing FTM violence and with overprotection ($t = 2.60, p < .05$) and, between witnessing FTM violence and comparison ($t = 3.19, p < .05$). With respect to the relation between paternal behaviors and coping with academic stressors, the results showed that there is a significant relation between emotional warmth and optimistic approach ($t = 5.15, p < .05$) between rejection and withdrawal ($t = 5.12, p < .05$) and between rejection and seeking refuge in supernatural forces ($t = 3.24, p < .05$). Additionally, in the relations between overprotection and seeking refuge in supernatural forces ($t = 3.82, p < .05$) and between comparison and withdrawal ($t = 2.21, p < .05$) there is a significance. To sum up, the second and the third conditions were met for the mediator role of rejection between witnessing MTF violence and using withdrawal and between witnessing MTF violence and using seeking refuge in supernatural forces. Moreover, emotional warmth between MTF and optimistic approach, overprotection between witnessing FTM violence and using seeking refuge in supernatural forces, and finally comparison between FTM and withdrawal also meet the second and the third conditions for having a mediator role for coping with academic stressors. However the first condition for mediator role of these
potential mediators (emotional warmth, overprotection, comparison), in these relations were not met. Thus emotional warmth, overprotection, comparison were not be involved in the further steps.

The relation among witnessing interparental violence-MTF & FTM, paternal behaviors and coping with academic stressors were tested in order to compare the relation between witnessing interparental violence and coping with academic stressors without and with the effect of presumed mediators. When the results were compared, the relation between MTF and withdrawal \( (t = 2.53, p < .05) \) and the relation between MTF and seeking refuge in supernatural forces \( (t = 3.29, p < .05) \) were significant. However, with the effect of rejection as a mediator both relations between MTF and withdrawal \( (t = .21, p > .05) \), MTF and seeking refuge in supernatural forces \( (t = .80, p > .05) \) were non-significant (see Table1). This change in the significance with the effect of presumed mediator of the relation and the first three conditions which were met for being a mediator variable indicates that rejection has a full mediation role between MTF and withdrawal, MTF and seeking refuge in supernatural forces (Şimşek, 2007).

In the last step, the mediator role of paternal behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping with academic stressors was tested in a path model. The results revealed that the fit was not good enough \( (\chi^2 (3) = 51.46, p < .001, NC = 17.15, CFI = 77, SRMR = .11, RMSEA = .22) \). After modification indices investigation; post hoc model modifications were conducted on the basis of the conceptual correlations between variables. Thus the errors of withdrawal and seeking refuge in supernatural forces were let freely correlated with each other and another path model was tested.

The results indicated existence of a good fit between this path model and the data \( (\chi^2 (2) = 0.66, p > .720, NC = 0.33, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .012, RMSEA = .00) \). In addition, in the model 10% of the variance on withdrawal and 5% of the variance on seeking refuge in supernatural forces were explained with the mediation effects rejection. The path model was shown in Figure5, with standardized solutions. In sum, the figure means that being a witness to the violence from mother to father has positive relation with perceived rejection from father. The perceived rejection from father is positively related with withdrawal.
Table 17. The Regression Results for (a) Role of Witnessing Interparental Violence in Paternal Behaviors and (b) Role of Paternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors

<table>
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<th>Standardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>t-values</th>
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<td>FTM and Emotional Warmth from Father</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.51</td>
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<td>.02</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Overprotection from Father</td>
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<td>.22</td>
<td>2.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTM and Comparison from Father</td>
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<td>.26</td>
<td>3.19*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Paternal Behaviors and Coping</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Warmth from Father and Optimistic Approach</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>5.15*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional from Father Warmth and Withdrawal</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.76</td>
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<tr>
<td>Emotional Warmth and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces</td>
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<td>.03</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection from Father and Optimistic Approach</td>
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<td>.05</td>
<td>.84</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rejection from Father and Withdrawal</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>5.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>3.24*</td>
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<td>Overprotection from Father and Optimistic Approach</td>
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<td>.06</td>
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<td>.07</td>
<td>1.27</td>
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<td>Overprotection and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces</td>
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<td>.20</td>
<td>3.82*</td>
</tr>
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<td>.00</td>
<td>.08</td>
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<td>.12</td>
<td>2.21*</td>
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<td>Comparison and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>1.06</td>
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</table>

*p<.05
Table 18. The Regression Results for Testing the Roles of Witnessing Intercouple Violence and Paternal Behaviors in Coping with Academic Stressors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Witnessing Intercouple Violence and Coping</th>
<th>Unstandardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>Standardized Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>t-values</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>MTF and Withdrawal</td>
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<td>.21</td>
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<td>MTF and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces</td>
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<td>.80</td>
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<td>Witnessing Intercouple Violence and Paternal Behaviors</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTF and Rejection from Father</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>11.88*</td>
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<td>Paternal Behaviors and Coping</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Rejection from Father and Withdrawal</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>5.09*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rejection and Seeking Refuge in Supernatural Forces</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>3.06*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05
and seeking refuge in supernatural forces as a strategy for coping with academic stressors.
Figure 5. The Path Model for Mediator Role of Paternal Behaviors between Witnessing Inteparental Violence (MTF) and Coping with Academic Stresses
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this section, the findings obtained through statistical analyses were evaluated in the light of the previous findings reported in the literature. In addition, the implications of these findings for the clinicians working in the field were discussed and the limitations of the study were presented with an emphasis on recommendations for further research.

5.1 Evaluation of the Results

In order to measure the children’s witnessing interparental violence level, the Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters and the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children were translated into Turkish by using translation back translation method (Campell & Russo, 2001; as cited in Akbaş & Korkmaz, 2007) and then the psychometric properties of the scale and the question set in a Turkish population were examined. The validity and reliability findings supported the usage of the Turkish version of the scale and the question set on the basis of the total scores. In the light of the adaptation study, it might be asserted that the witnessing interparental violence pattern of children and components of interparental violence are mostly similar in the both Turkish and Italian samples.

The research questions were tested in Study 2, after the determination of psychometric properties of The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for the Italian Youngsters and the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children. The mediator role of maternal behaviors between children’s witnessing interparental violence-both from MTF and FTM- and their ways of coping with interpersonal stressors were examined in the first research question. The findings showed that children’s perceived emotional warmth, rejection and comparison from their
mothers had mediator role between witnessing violence between parents and their coping ways with the interpersonal stressors. It was revealed that as a result of the mediator analysis for the first path model, there was an indirect relation between witnessing violence from MTF and the children’s ways of coping with interpersonal stressors, through perceived maternal behaviors; emotional warmth, rejection and comparison.

It was also revealed that as a result of the mediator analysis for the first path model witnessing MTF, not FTM have direct relation with children’s perceived maternal behaviors. The literature indicates the effects of partner violence on parental behavior as showed less warmth to children (Holden et. al., 2008). The results of the current study related with the first research question, support this relation. Children’s witnessing MTF negatively related with perceived emotional warmth from mother, in other words increased MTF which was observed by children led to decrease in the perceived emotional warmth. Additionally, Fauber et al. (1990) mentioned the positive relation between being a violent parent (towards each other) and perceived parental rejection by children. In this study the revealed positive relation between witnessing MTF and perceived rejection from mother supported this pattern; children’s perceived rejection increase with increasing amount of witnessing MTF. Witnessing MTF was also pointed out as a direct predictor for perceived comparison from mother. The path model also suggested that perceived emotional warmth, rejection and comparison from mother were positive predictors to use helpless approach to cope with interpersonal stressors. Moreover, as another way of coping with interpersonal stressors, self blame was positively predicted also by perceived rejection from mother. This finding might support the less frequent active coping use of children exposed to authoritarian parenting style which refers to high control and low emotional warmth of parents towards their children (Dusek and Danko, 1994).

The path analysis which was conducted for second research question indicated that witnessing MTF positively predict perceived rejection and comparison from father, similar to the first path analysis. However, there is not significant relation between witnessing MTF and perceived emotional warmth from father. Mothers’ more involved parenting pattern than fathers’ which was
pointed out in the study of Lamb, Fordi, Froji and Hwang (1982) might be support of this finding. For this result, due to the fathers’ less involved parenting pattern emotional warmth perceived from father is not affected from being witness of interparental violence, could be mentioned as a speculation. Additionally, helpless approach and self blame behaviors of children who were witnesses of their mother to their father, as a way of coping with interpersonal stressors were predicted through perceived rejection and comparison from their father. Different from the relation of perceived mother behaviors with the ways of coping, perceived comparison from father positively predicted self blaming of children as a coping way in the face of interpersonal stressors. On the base of this result, it can be speculated that perception of being compared with others by fathers as a parenting behavior effects self of children. The mentioned effect is expressed in stressful situations regarding interpersonal stressors as self blaming. Moreover, the effect of perceived paternal comparison rather than maternal comparison on the self blame of children can be speculated as positive effect or protective effect of perceived maternal emotional warmth on the coping ways of children.

To sum, the first and the second mediator models revealed that children who are witness of MTF and perceive less emotional warmth; more rejection and more comparison from their parents behave in helplessness and self blaming in the face of interpersonal stressors.

The research question about the coping with the academic stressors in the consideration of witnessing interparental violence and perceived maternal behaviors was tested in the third path analysis. The results indicated that witnessing FTM, addition to MTF violence was predictor of perceived maternal behaviors. The comparative study of Holden and Ritchie (1991) indicates that battered women show fewer positive and more negative child rearing responses than nonviolent family parents. Parallel to this finding, while witnessing MTF positively related to perceived rejection from mother, witnessing FTM is negatively related to perceived emotional warmth. These relations might also be supported with the finding such of Burman et al. (1987); mothers who are brought up in violent marriages show less parental support, responsiveness and monitoring behaviors towards their children. This path model also suggests that witnessing
MTF is a positive predictor to show withdrawal in facing with academic stressors through perceived rejection from mother. Moreover emotional warmth is a positive predictor for optimistic approach coping in the face of academic stressors for children who are witness of FTM. This similarity regarding role of emotional warmth both in the coping with interpersonal and academic stressors pointed out significance perceived maternal emotional warmth. In sum, the third path model revealed that perceived rejection from mother increase with increase in witnessing MTF, increased rejection predict withdraw behavior as coping strategy in the face of academic stressors. Moreover, it is pointed out that increase in witnessing FTM result in decrement of perceived maternal emotional warmth, decreased emotional warmth perception leads decreased optimistic approach in the face of academic stressors.

The last path analysis was conducted for the fourth research question, which involves the relationship among witnessing interparental violence, perceived paternal behaviors and the ways of coping with academic stressors. The results indicated that witnessing MTF is a positive predictor for perceived rejection from father, similar to the other path analysis results. It might be a confirmation for such finding of Holden and Ritchie (1991). When parents from violent and nonviolent families were compared, it was revealed that violent fathers were more irritable and less involved parents than non-violent fathers. In addition to the relation of rejection with witnessing interparental violence, it is also a positive predictor for withdrawing and seeking refuge in supernatural forces, as in the behaviors of children who witness of from MTF violence, in the face of academic stressors. It can be speculated that perceived as rejected leads mistrustfulness to self and others therefore children who perceive rejection behave in effortless way and show withdraw, and believe something other than people and seek refuge in supernatural forces.

When the results of all four path model analyses were evaluated, it was seen that witnessing interparental violence, witnessing MTF, not from FTM had an indirect effect on the coping ways of children both with interpersonal and academic stressors through perceived parental behaviors. This pattern is supported with the study (Baldry, 2007) which focused on the effects of FTM violence,
MTF on children’s aggressive behaviors. It reveals that exposed MTF, not FTM violence, independently predict aggressive behaviors of children. Moreover, Sümer et al. (2006) suggested similar pattern with their study in which mediator role of parental behaviors between maladaptive spousal communication and children’s problem behaviors were involved. The results of the study indicated that maladaptive communication patterns of mothers, rather than fathers had an indirect effect on the behavior problems of children. Additionally, results of mentioned studies regarding aggressive behaviors of children support the effect of behaviors of parents to each other and parenting behaviors towards children on the behaviors of children such as coping ways.

In terms of perceived parenting behaviors, the results reveal that witnessing MTF predicts rejection positively. Additionally, witnessing MTF is a more powerful predictor for perceived father rejection both in interpersonal and academic stressors regarded models. This pattern might be explained with a finding of the study focusing on marital conflict and child adjustment (Grych & Fincham, 1990). In this particular study, it was found that, fathers were more likely than mothers to emotionally withdraw from their children. Furthermore, Krishnakumar and Buehler (2000) suggest that negative relations of interparental conflict with parenting are stronger for fathers’ parenting than mothers’ parenting. Furthermore, perceived emotional warmth from mother, not from father is negatively predicted from witnessing interparental violence. Mother’s more involved and affection displayed parental behaviors than fathers might also explain this pattern (Lamb et al., 1982). Additionally, there are more constant and powerful relations between witnessing interparental violence and universal dimensions of perceived parenting behaviors, namely emotional warmth and rejection. Perceived comparison as culture-specific parenting behavior is also predicted, however this dimension only involves interpersonal stressors regarded models and less powerful.

When the results are evaluated concerning the ways of coping, there are different and common patterns for interpersonal and academic stressors. The results reveal that witnessing interparental violence indirectly predicts preference of coping ways which do not involve active managing or acts to
change stressful situation, via perceived parental behaviors. Consistently all models involve emotional responses to stressors as coping way; helpless approach, self blaming, optimistic approach, withdrawing and seeking refuse in supernatural forces. However, Fields and Prinz (1997) point out that children in middle childhood mostly use problem focused coping to deal with interpersonal and academic stressors. In spite of this contradictory finding, this revealed relation with the current study was supported by study of Stern and Zevon (1990). The study focused on the family environment and coping responses of the adolescence, and indicated that adaptiveness of the family functioning is negatively associated with using emotion-based strategies. Moreover, this pattern of the current study also supports that; family cohesion is a positive predictor of problem focused coping of children with an medical stressor Spina Bifida (McKernon, Holmbeck, Colder, Hommeyer, Shapera & Westhoven, 2001). To sum problematic family environment positively related with emotion focused coping. This result might be speculated as children in the negative family environment do not learn to cope in problem focused way with stressors such as interpersonal and academic stressors.

Moreover, perceived rejection both from mother and father has a predictor role for children’s emotional response involved ways of coping with both interpersonal and academic stressors. This consistent pattern reveals that rejection perception of children is sensitive to violent family atmosphere. Moreover, this point supports the finding of McKernon et al (2001) when the coping ways are considered which predicted by perceived rejection; maternal and paternal responsiveness are also positive predictors of problem focused coping of children with the same stressors. In addition to common patterns regarding the ways of coping, models involve interpersonal and academic stressors show difference in terms of predictors. Perceived comparison from parents is a predictor for the ways of coping with interpersonal stressors, not with academic stressors. Moreover, while helpless approach and self blame are predicted coping ways from witnessing interparental violence for interpersonal stressors, via perceived parental behaviors; optimistic approach, withdrawal and seeking refuge in supernatural forces are predicted as a coping way of with academic stressors. In
regard to stressors, the literature pointed out that children feel more self control in the face of academic stressors than interpersonal stressors to cope with stressors. In the consideration of this literature finding this results indicate that children who are witness of interparental violence behave as in helpless way and self blaming in the face of uncontrollable situations. Beside they behave in passive way as withdrawing and believing supernatural forces in the face of more controllable stressors.

When the maternal and paternal behavior’s powers of effects on the ways of coping prediction are compared there is no large difference. Perceived rejection from mother has more powerful relation with helpless approach and self blaming than perceived rejection from father in the frame of coping responses for interpersonal stressors. Besides, there is more powerful relation between perceived comparison from father and helpless approach, than perceived from mother. In regard with academic stressors it is revealed that perceived comparison from father is more powerful predictor than perceived rejection from mother, for withdrawal responses. Sümer (2009) reports larger prediction power of maternal parenting behaviors than paternal behaviors, according to the results of the study which focused on the relation between perceived parental behaviors and problematic behaviors of Turkish children. Sümer (2009) also suggests that having less powerful predictor effect does not mean that paternal behaviors have no effect. This revealed homogeneity between mother and father predictor effects on dependent variables with current study, might indicate that witnessing interparental violence increase the predictor effect of perceived paternal behaviors for behaviors of children.

5.2 Clinical Implications for the Study

Increased numbers of children who suffer from exposing interparental violence also increase the likelihood of clinicians to deal with such children. The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters (Baldry, 2003) and ‘the Question Set about Parental Abuse towards Children’ have been convenient into Turkish with this study. The Turkish forms of the scale and the question set would help clinicians to get measurement regarding witnessing interparental violence and
parental abuse.

Moreover, the study suggests the significant role of parenting behaviors between witnessing interparental violence and coping ways of children. Considering this finding with the negative outcomes of the family violence on children and the role of coping on the outcomes of the stressors; it can be suggested that programs for reducing the risk of negative outcomes of witnessing interparental violence on children may be developed by experts. Furthermore, an education program for parents may also be developed which with an emphasis the role of parenting behaviors on outcomes related with their children. Through these programs negative effects of interparental violence might be reduced.

5.3 Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

The overall findings of the current study provide evidence that witnessing interparental violence predicts children’s ways of coping with interpersonal and academic stressors via perceived maternal and paternal behavior. Nevertheless, there are some limitations of the present study that require elaboration.

Firstly, although results revealed that some perceived parental behaviors have mediator roles between witnessing interparental violence and coping with interpersonal and academic stressors, the extent to which the findings generalize to a broader population is unknown. In this the study the sample is from 7-12 aged children and they are all from intact families. Most parents of the participants have high school degree at most. Participants are also from only four different regions of Izmir, attrition to begin from Izmir only. Since this is a heterogeneous sample, whether these findings apply to populations with different characteristics is not clear and it is probable that these findings are only generalizable to populations having similar characteristics. Future studies can include younger and older children, children of booken families, children of parents with higher education grade, and children from more varied parts of a city even from different cities in order to increase generalizability of the findings.

Secondly, all samples are from intact families and all participants are from schools, and they are children of intact families. Parallel with this feature, perceived parental behaviors were mostly predicted with small prediction power
scores and mostly through witnessing MTF. The pattern suggested with this current study may change with a sample from booken families. Moreover, reports of children might no represent the reality. Although participants were assured about confidentiality, reports of children might not represent reality in terms of reported witnessed violence and parental behaviors. In the present study, sample size was adequate in order to reliably run statistical analyses and it compared favorably with other studies of interparental violence witness. However, future studies can investigate witnessing interparental violence in larger sample sizes or with different sampling method to obtain greater statistical power to reveal more detailed findings and to ensure reliability of suggested path models.

Thirdly, the data of the study was obtained only from children. The literature indicates that child reports provide reliable and accurate information about their exposed violence (Grych, Seid, & Fincham, 1992) and the strongest association is revealed with child reports regarding the relation between interparental conflict and parental behaviors, when compared with mother’s report or multiple reporters (Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000). However, the effect size of the mother reported studies for violence witnessing are reported to be larger than child reported ones and a significant difference between parent and child reports about parenting behaviors (Sümer, 2008) is also reported. To sum, further studies may use multiple resources for measurement of witnessing violence and parental behaviors to corroborate findings.

Lastly, physical condition of applications is another limitedness of the study. Applications of the study which was conducted to test research questions were mostly carried in small rooms with large sample groups. Additionally, large number of the used measurement tools and the long duration of application time for some children are also limitedness for the study which may have affected the responses of the participants. Therefore, further studies may be conducted in more convenient physical conditions in the consideration of childrens’ duration of attention to ensure healthy responses from children.


*Of Clinical Child Psychology, 21*(1), 47-59.


APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
ORIGINAL FORM OF CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE ADAPTED FOR ITALIAN YOUNGSTERS

Sample Items

Tuo padre ha mai detto delle parolacce a tua madre?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Tuo padre ha mai messo le mani addosso a tua madre?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Tuo padre ha mai lanciato delle cose contro tua madre?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Tuo padre ha mai fatto del male a tua madre?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Tuo padre ha mai minacciato tua madre?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Development


Translation/Adaptation


Contact Address

Anna C. Baldry, University of Rome “La Sapienza, Italy.
APPENDIX B
TRANSLATED FORM OF THE CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE ADAPTED FOR THE ITALIAN YOUNGSTERS

Sample Items
Baban annene hiç kötü sözler söyledi mi?
☐ Hiçbir zaman ☐ Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Sık sık ☐ Her zaman
Baban annene hiç vurdu mu?
☐ Hiçbir zaman ☐ Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Sık sık ☐ Her zaman
Annen babana hiç kötü sözler söyledi mı?
☐ Hiçbir zaman ☐ Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Sık sık ☐ Her zaman
Annen babana hiç vurdu mu?
☐ Hiçbir zaman ☐ Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Sık sık ☐ Her zaman

Development

Translation/Adaptation

Contact Address
Özge Sarıot. İzmir Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, İzmir, Türkiye.
APPENDIX C
ORIGINAL FORM OF THE QUESTION SET ABOUT PARENTAL
ABUSE TOWARDS CHILDREN

Sample Items

Tua madre è gentile con te?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Tuo padre è gentile con te?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Tuo padre ti ha mai sgridato?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Tua madre ti ha mai sgridato?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Tua madre ti aiuta quando hai dei problemi?
Mai  Quasi mai  A volte  Spesso  Sempre

Development

Contact Adress
Anna C. Baldry, University of Rome “La Sapienza, Italy.
APPENDIX D
TRANSLATED FORM OF THE QUESTION SET ABOUT PARENTAL ABUSE TOWARDS CHILDREN

Sample Items

Annen sana iyi davranıyor mu?
☐ Hiçbir zaman ☐ Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Sık sık ☐ Her zaman

Baban sana iyi davranıyor mu?
☐ Hiçbir zaman ☐ Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Sık sık ☐ Her zaman

Baban sana hiç bağırdı mı?
☐ Hiçbir zaman ☐ Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Sık sık ☐ Her zaman

Annen sana hiç bağırdı mı?
☐ Hiçbir zaman ☐ Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Sık sık ☐ Her zaman

Sorunun olduğunda annen sana yardım ediyor mu?
☐ Hiçbir zaman ☐ Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Sık sık ☐ Her zaman

Development


Translation/Adaptation


Contact Address

Özge Sarıot. İzmir Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, İzmir, Türkiye.
Merhaba,

Aşağıda annen, baban ve seninle ilgili bazı sorular sıralanmıştır. Hiçbir sorunun doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Bu nedenle her soruyu iyice okuyup anladıktan sonra sana en doğru gelen cevap için uygun olan yere çarpi (X) koy. Şimdi aşağıdaki sorularından başlayarak lütfen tüm sayfalardaki soruları cevaplandır.

Lütfen hiçbir soruyu atlama.

1. Cinsiyetin: O Kız O Erkek
2. Doğum Tarihin: gün/ ay / yıl:……………..
3. Okulun :…………………………….…..
4. Sınıfin/ Okul numaran:............./ ............... 
5. Sen dahil kaç kardeşiınız?………..
6. Annen ve baban beraber mi yaşiyor? O Evet  O Hayır
   Cevabın ‘Hayır’ ise ne kadar zamandır ayrılar?…………………
7. Annenin eğitim durumu nedir?
   O Okuma-yazma bilmiyor  O Okur-yazar  O İlkokul mezunu
   O Ortaokul mezunu  O Lise mezunu  O Üniversite mezunu
   O Lisansüstü
8. Babanın eğitim durumu nedir?
   O Okuma-yazma bilmiyor O Okur-yazar O İlkokul mezunu
   O Ortaokul mezunu O Lise mezunu O Üniversite mezunu
   O Lisansüstü
9. Şu anda anne ve babanla birlikte mi yaşıyorsun?   O Evet  O Hayır
   Cevabın ‘Hayır’ ise kiminle yaşıyorsun?…………………..
APPENDIX F
APPROVED PERMISSION LETTER FOR THE STUDY 1

VALILIK MAKAMINA
IZMİR

T.C.
IZMIR VALILİĞİ
Il Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : B.08.4.MEM.4.35.00.29: 8955
Konu : Öze SARIOT’un
Araştırma İzni

VALİLIK MAKAMINA
IZMİR

İlgi: a) 28/02/2007 tarihli ve B.08.4.EDG.03.03.311/1084 sayılı Makam Onaysı.

Orta Doğa Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji ABD Klinik Psikoloji Yüksekok Lisans Programı Öğrencisi Özge SARIOT’un “Cocukların Ebeveynler Arası Şiddete Tanıklık ve Cocukların Akademik ve Kızılderilari Stres Karmakları ile Bağlar Etemleri Arasındaki İlişki; Bu İlişkide Ann-Baba Karsh-Reddinin Aracı Değişiklik Rolü” konulu tez çalışması için kullanacağı ölçüleri, elde listedeki Bağlama, Karşılaşmalar ve Konak İplerinde başlı eğitim öğretim okullarının 10-12 yaş aralığında öğrencilerine uygulamak istediğini belirtmişidir.

Siz konusunda ölçülerin uygulanmasına, elde listedeki İplerin eğitim öğretim kurumlarında, 2010-2011 eğitim-öğretim yılında eğitim-öğretimini aksatmadan yapmaması, araştırma sonuçunun bir önemini Müdürlüğümüzle verilmesi koşuluyla uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarımızda da uygun görüldüğü takdirde Oturmanın uygulanması talep edilir.

OLUR

M. Ergül ÜYE
Müdür

EKLER:
1) Araştırma Değerlendirme Formu (1 Sayfa)
2) Okul listesi (1 Sayfa)

31/10/2010 Memur : M.ÇEVİKER
31/10/2010 Şef : P. KARADAYSİ
31/10/2010 Md. Yrd. : Y. KARACA

117
Sayın Veli,


Saygılarımla,

Psikolog Özge Sarıot
Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü
ANKARA
e-posta adresi: egzo426@gmail.com

Lütfen çocuğunuzun bu araştırmaya katılmak konusundaki tercihiniz aşağıdaki seçeneklerden size en uygun gelenin altına imzanızı atarak belirtiniz ve bu formu çocuğunuzla okula geri gönderiniz.

A) Bu araştırmaya çocuğum .................................................. ’nin katılmacağı olmasına izin veriyorum. Çocuğunun çalışmaya istediği zaman yardımı birakabileceği biliyorum ve verdiği bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı olarak kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.
Veli Adı-Soyadı........................................................... İmza

B) Bu çalışmaya çocukum .................................................. ’nin katılmacağı olmasına izin vermiyorum.
Veli Adı-Soyadı........................................................... İmza

.................................................................
APPENDIX H
MOTHER FORM OF EMBU

Sample Items

Annen üzüntülü olduğunu sen söylemeden anlar mı?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Annen seni ödüllendirir mi (örnek: aferin diyerek, hediye alarak, öperek, sarılarak)?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Eğer kardeşi̇n, ağȧbeyin/ȧblan varsa, annen onları senden daha çok sever mi?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Annen sana herkesin içinde kötü sözler söyler mi?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Annenin yaptıkların konusunda daha az endişelenmesini ister miydin?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Development

Translation/Adaptation

Contact Address
Nebi Sümer, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, Ankara, Türkiye
APPENDIX I

FATHER FORM OF EMBU

Sample Items

Baban üzüntülü olduğunu sen söylemeden anlar mı?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Baban seni ödüllendirir mi (örnek: aferrin diyerek, hediye alarak, öperek, sarılarak)?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Eğer kardeşin, ağabeyin/ablan varsa, baban onları senden daha çok sever mi?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Baban sana herkesin içinde kötü sözler söyler mi?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Babının yaptıkların konusunda daha az endişelenmesini ister miydin?
☐ Hayır  ☐ Evet, bazen  ☐ Evet, çoğu zaman  ☐ Evet, her zaman

Development

Translation/Adaptation

Contact Adress
Nebi Sümer, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, Ankara, Türkiye
APPENDIX J
ADOLESCENTS FORM OF THE WAYS OF COPING INVENTORY FOR INTERPERSONAL STRESSORS

Sample Items

Aklımı kurcalayan şeylerden kurtulmak için değişik işlerle uğraşırım.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Genellikle ☐ Her Zaman

Bir sıkıntı olduğunu kimsenin bilmesini istemem.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Genellikle ☐ Her Zaman

Bir mucize olmasını beklerim.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Genellikle ☐ Her Zaman

İyimser olmaya çalışırım.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Genellikle ☐ Her Zaman

Bunu da atlatırsam sırtım yere gelmez diye düşünürüm.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman ☐ Bazen ☐ Genellikle ☐ Her Zaman

Development

Translation/Adaptation

Contact Address
Atiye Oral Müftüler, atiyemuftuler@gmail.com
APPENDIX K
ADOLESCENTS FORM OF THE WAYS OF COPING INVENTORY FOR ACADEMIC STRESSORS

Sample Items

Çözüm için kendim bir şeyler yapmak isterim.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman  ☐ Bazen  ☐ Genellikle  ☐ Her Zaman

Hep benim yüzümden oldu diye düşünürüm.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman  ☐ Bazen  ☐ Genellikle  ☐ Her Zaman

Mutlu olmak için başka yollar ararım.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman  ☐ Bazen  ☐ Genellikle  ☐ Her Zaman

Hakkımı savunabileceğime inanırım.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman  ☐ Bazen  ☐ Genellikle  ☐ Her Zaman

Bir kişi olarak iyi yönde değiştığımı ve olgunlaştığımı hissedirim.
☐ Hiçbir Zaman  ☐ Bazen  ☐ Genellikle  ☐ Her Zaman

Development

Translation/Adaptation

Contact Address
Atiye Oral Müftüler, atiyemuftuler@gmail.com
APPENDIX L
MODIFIED DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Aşağıda seninle ilgili bazı bilgiler istenmiştir. Lütfen bu bilgileri eksiksiz doldurmayı çalış. Cevaplarınızı bilmediğin soruları boş bırakabilirsin.

Teşekkürler…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cinsiyetin: Kız ☐ Erkek ☐</th>
<th>Doğum Tarihini (gün/ ay/ yıl):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Okulun: Sınıfın:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kaç Kardeşin var? Sen kaçınıncı çocuksun?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annen ve baban beraber mi yaşıyorsun? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annenin Yaşı: Annenin Mesleği:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Babının Yaşı: Babının Mesleği:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Annenin eğitimine ilgili uygun seçeneği işaretle.

☐ Annem okuma yazma bilmiyor
☐ Annem okuma-yazma bilir; ancak bir okuldan mezun olmamış
☐ Annem ilkokul mezunu
☐ Annem ortaokul mezunu
☐ Annem lise mezunu
☐ Annem 2 yıllık yüksekokul mezunu
☐ Annem 4 yıllık üniversite mezunu
☐ Annem lisansüstü eğitimi (yüksek lisans/ master veya doktora) tamamlamış.

Babının eğitimine ilgili uygun seçeneği işaretle.

☐ Babam okuma yazma bilmiyor
☐ Babam okuma-yazma bilir; ancak bir okuldan mezun olmamış
☐ Babam ilkokul mezunu
☐ Babam ortaokul mezunu
☐ Babam lise mezunu
☐ Babam 2 yıllık yüksekokul mezunu
☐ Babam 4 yıllık üniversite mezunu
☐ Babam lisansüstü eğitimi (yüksek lisans/ master veya doktora) tamamlamış.

Şu anda anne ve babanla birlikte mi yaşiyorsun? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐
APPENDIX M

APPROVED PERMISSION LETTER FOR THE STUDY 2

T.C.
IZMİR VALİLİĞİ
II Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı: B.08.4.MEM.4.35.00.29-020/1244
Konu: Öğre SARIOT’un
Araştırma İzin

VALİLİK MAKAMINA
IZMİR

İlgi: a) 28/02/2007 tarihli ve B.08.4.EDG.03.03.31/1084 sayılı Makam Onayı,
   b) Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı’nın 14/02/2011 tarih
   ve 420-480 sayılı yazısı.

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji ABD Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans
programı öğrencileri Özge SARIOT’un “Çocukların Ebeveynler Arasında Sözlü
Tanıklıkları ve Çocukların Akademik ve Kişisel Stres Kaynakları ile Baş Etkileri
Arasındaki İlişki: Bu İlişkide Anne-Baba Sevgi-Kısitlamaların Aracılığıyla Rolü”
konusunu tez çalışması için kullandığı özkıtlere, Ekli listedeki Balço, Karabağlar,
Narlıdere ve Konak ilçelerinde bağlı İlköğretim okullarının 10-12 yaş arasındaki öğrencilerine uygulanan estudio belirttilmektedir.

Sözlük konusu özkıtların uygulanmasının, ekli listedeki beliren okul kurumunda, 2010-
2011 eğitim-öğretim yılından 2. döneminde eğitime-öğretimini aksatmadan yapması, araştırma
sonuçunun bir örneğinin Müdürlüğümüzüze verilmesi kaydıyla uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarımıza da uygun görüldüğü takdirde Onlarınımız arz ekeriniz.

M. Yaşiş ÜYE
Müdür

OLUR
....02/2011
Şahin ASLAMI
Vefa a.
Vali Yardımcısı

EKLER:
1) Araştırma Değerlendirme Formu (1 Sayfa)
2) Okul Listesi (1 sayfa)
APPENDIX N
THE SCALES LIST OF COUNTERBALANCED ORDER

A: The Conflict Tactics Scale Adapted for Italian Youngsters &
    The Question Set about Parental abuse towards Children

B: Mother Form of EMBU

C: Father Form of EMBU

D: Adolescents Form of the Ways of Coping Inventory for Interpersonal Stressors

E: Adolescents Form of the Ways of Coping Inventory for Academic Stressors

ORDERS


16. ADCEB  22. AECDB  29. BAECDB  37. BDACE  38. BDAEC

39. BDCAE  40. BDCEA  43. BEACD  44. BEADC  45. BECAD

46. BECDA  51. CADBE  61. CDABE  62. CAEBD  63. CDBAE

64. CDBEA  67. CEABD  68. CEADB  69. CEBAD  70. CEBDA

74. DABEC  76. DACEB  79. DBACE  80. DBAEC  83. DBEAC

84. DBECA  85. DCAEB  86. DCAEB  89. DCEAB  90. DCEBA

97. EABCD  98. EABDC  100. EACDB  104. EBADC  103. EBACD

105. EBCAD  107. EBDAC  108. EBDCA  109. ECABD  110. ECADB