

S. E. DEDEKORKUT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PSYCHOLOGICAL
MALTREATMENT AND INVESTMENT MODEL

SENEM EZGİ DEDEKORKUT

MARCH 2015

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PSYCHOLOGICAL MALTREATMENT
AND INVESTMENT MODEL

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

SENEM EZGİ DEDEKORKUT

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

MARCH 2015

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Demir
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer (METU,EDS)

Prof. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri (METU,EDS)

Prof. Dr. Tuncay Ergene (HU,EDS)

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Senem Ezgi Dedekorkut

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PSYCHOLOGICAL MALTREATMENT AND INVESTMENT MODEL

Dedekorkut, Senem Ezgi

M. S., Department of Educational Sciences

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer

March 2015, 115 pages

This study aimed to adapt Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI) to Turkish and examine its relationship with Investment Model Scale (IMS) among married men and women. In addition to these two scales, demographic and relational information such as gender, age, occupational status, educational status, marriage duration, number of children, and break-up intentions were also analyzed in relation to PMWI and IMS variables. In addition to comparisons and correlations, a structural equation model of psychological maltreatment and investment model was tested for men and women. The results provided a valid and reliable PMWI adaptation as well as providing proof for the investment model. Furthermore, demographic and relational variables made significant differences in most of the PMWI subscales and IMS variables. Structural Equation Modeling results revealed that psychological maltreatment explained a significant amount of variance in

commitment; furthermore, their relationship was partially mediated by satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size. Findings were discussed in the light of related literature, implications for practice were stated, and recommendations were made for researchers, counselors, counselor educators, policy makers, and public.

Keywords: Psychological Maltreatment, Investment Model, Intimate Partner Violence, Marriage

ÖZ

PSİKOLOJİK ŞİDDET VE YATIRIM MODELİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Dedekorkut, Senem Ezgi

Yüksek Lisans, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer

Mart 2015, 115 sayfa

Bu çalışma, Psikolojik Şiddet Ölçeğini (PŞÖ) Türkçeye uyarlamayı ve bu ölçeğin evli kadın ve erkeklerden oluşan bir örnekleme İlişki İstikrarı Ölçeği (İİÖ) ile ilişkisini incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Bu iki ölçeğin yanı sıra, cinsiyet, yaş, çalışma durumu, eğitim durumu, evlilik süresi, çocuk sayısı ve boşanma kararı gibi demografik ve ilişkisel değişkenler de PŞÖ ve İİÖ değişkenleri bakımından analiz edilmiştir. Karşılaştırmalar ve korelasyonlara ek olarak bir yapısal eşitlik modeli ile de psikolojik şiddet ve yatırım modeli kadınlar ve erkekler için test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar geçerli ve güvenilir bir PŞÖ uyarlaması sağlamasının yanı sıra, yatırım modeli için de destek sağlamıştır. Ayrıca, demografik ve ilişkisel değişkenler PŞÖ alt boyutları ve İİÖ değişkenlerinin birçoğu açısından anlamlı farklılıklar göstermişlerdir. Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli sonuçları psikolojik şiddetin bağıllık düzeyindeki varyansın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir miktarını açıkladığını, üstelik bu ilişkide memnuniyet düzeyi, alternatiflerin kalitesi ve yatırım miktarının kısmen aracı rol oynadığını göstermiştir. Bulgular ilgili alanyazın ışığında tartışılmış, uygulama açısından çıkarımlara varılmış ve araştırmacılara, psikolojik danışmanlara, psikolojik danışman eğitimcilerine, politika yapıcılara ve kamuoyuna bazı önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Psikolojik Şiddet, Yatırım Modeli, Yakın İlişkilerde
Şiddet,Evlilik

To My Mother

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer for her guidance, patience, advice, criticism, encouragements and insights throughout the research. I think I am much more qualified now than when we first started working together. I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri and Prof. Dr. Tuncay Ergene for their faith in and contributions to the process. In addition these valuable people, I am indebted to all of my professors in the department for their efforts to raise me as a good counselor. I have always felt lucky to be a student of such distinguished faculty members.

I treasure the contributions of Ezgi Toplu Demirtaş who has always been willing to guide me out of both technical and motivational impasses. It was a relief to know that she would anytime answer my calls for help. I appreciate the time Özkan Çikrikci and Hatice Kumandaş spared me to share their knowledge, resources, and experiences with me. I am thankful to Can Vatandaşlar for being a caring companion as well as an exemplary academician. I am also deeply grateful to all my friends and colleagues who were by my side throughout the process, encouraged me during hard times and shared my joys and success.

I would like to thank Prof. Richard Tolman for granting me permission to adapt PMWI to Turkish. I appreciate the help of Özlem Erdem, Pınar Yaşar, and Nazlı Coşgun with the translations required for the adaptation.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my family who always believed in me and supported me. Without their confidence and encouragement, I believe that I would have accomplished much less in life. Especially my mother Nalan Soylu deserves all the credit for everything good I have done.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.....	iv
ABSTRACT	v
ÖZ.....	vii
DEDICATION	ix
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	x
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xvi
CHAPTER	
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1Background to the Study	1
1.2 Purpose of the Study.....	7
1.3 Problem Statements	8
1.4 Hypotheses.....	9
1.5 Significance of the Study.....	10
1.6 Definition of Terms	12
LITERATURE REVIEW	14
2.1 Intimate Partner Violence	14
2.2.1 The Issue of Gender	16
2.2.2 Theoretical Background for Intimate Partner Violence.....	19
2.2.3 Psychological Maltreatment.....	22

2.3 Relationship Maintenance in Abusive Relationships	24
2.3.1 Interdependence Theory	29
2.3.2 Investment Model.....	31
2.3.2.1 Empirical Examinations of the Investment Model	36
METHOD	43
3.1 Research Design	43
3.2 Participants.....	43
3.3 Instruments.....	45
3.3.1 Personal Information Form	45
3.3.2 Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI).....	45
3.3.2.1 Translation of PMWI	47
3.3.2.2 Validity and Reliability of Turkish PMWI	47
3.3.3 Investment Model Scale	53
3.3.3.1 Validity and Reliability of Turkish IMS.....	54
3.4 Data Collection Procedure	56
3.5 Description of Variables	56
3.5.1 Demographic Variables.....	56
3.5.2 Psychological Maltreatment Victimization.....	57
3.5.3 Investment Model Variables	58
3.6 Data Analysis	58
3.7 Limitations of the Study	58
RESULTS.....	60
4.1 Preliminary Analyses	60
4.2 Correlational Analyses.....	63

4.3 Results Regarding Demographic Variables.....	65
4.4 SEM Results of PMWI and IMS	66
4.4.1 SEM for Women	68
4.4.2 SEM for Men	70
4.5 Summary of the Results.....	73
CONCLUSIONS	74
5.1 Discussion of the Findings	74
5.1.1 Turkish PMWI	74
5.1.2 Turkish IMS	75
5.1.3 Psychological Maltreatment and Demographic Variables.....	76
5.1.4 Investment Model and Demographic Variables.....	78
5.1.5 PMWI and IMS	80
5.1.5.1 Correlations among PMWI and IMS Variables	80
5.1.5.2 Structural Equation Model of Women.....	81
5.1.5.3 Structural Equation Model of Men.....	82
5.2 Implications for Practice.....	82
5.3 Recommendations.....	83
5.3.1 Recommendations for Future Studies	83
5.3.2 Recommendations for Psychological Counselors.....	85
5.3.3 Recommendations for Counselor Educators.....	86
5.3.4 Recommendations for Policy Makers	86
5.3.5 Recommendations for the Public	87
REFERENCES	88
APPENDICES	

Appendix A: Personal Information Form.....	98
Appendix B: Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (Tolman, 1989) Sample Items	99
Appendix C: Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory Translation Sample Items	100
Appendix D: İlişki İstikrarı Ölçeği (Büyükşahin, Hasta, & Hovardaoğlu, 2005) Sample Items in Turkish	101
Appendix E: Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee Approval.....	102
Appendix F: Turkish Summary.....	103
Appendix G: Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu	115

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 3. 1. City, Age, Educational Status, Employment Status, and Collar of the Participants and Their Gender (n=505)	44
Table 3. 2. Comparison of eigenvalues from PCA and criterion values from parallel analysis	48
Table 3. 3. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of PMWI (N=505)	48
Table 3. 4. Percentages of Total Variance Explained and Eigenvalues of PMWI.....	51
Table 4. 1. Psychometric Properties of the Subscale Scores of PMWI and IMS (N=505)	62
Table 4. 2. Pearson r Correlation Coefficients among Subscale Scores	64
Table 4. 3. Maximum Likelihood Estimates for the Model for Women.....	68
Table 4. 4. Maximum Likelihood Estimates for the Model for Men.....	70

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 3. 1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of PMWI	52
Figure 3. 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of IMS	55
Figure 4. 1. SEM model of the relationship between PMWI and IMS	67
Figure 4. 2. SEM results for women	69
Figure 4. 3. SEM results for men	72

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Intimacy is a vital element of human psychology. Many aspects of people's experience of living can hardly be addressed without taking their relationships into account. Regan (2011) suggests that nearly all dimensions of human behavior and development happen as part of relationships with other people, and relationships deeply affect human health and well-being. It would not be an excess to claim that every means aimed at improving body or mind should pay regard to individuals' relationships; "healthy relationships are good for the body, mind, and soul" (Reis & Rusbult, 2004, p. 4). Research on intimate relationships occupies an important place in social science. Relationships affect individuals' behavior, cognitions, beliefs, feelings, maturation, involvement, and every issue they experience throughout their lives (Regan, 2011). Reis and Rusbult (2004) suggest that there are three popular theoretical orientations in studying relationships. The first one is *evolutionary orientation* which focuses on the biological foundations that determine the tendencies of relational behavior. The second one, *attachment orientation*, adds childhood experiences to genetic inheritance to form attachment styles that eventually contribute to interaction patterns in relationships. The third orientation, which is the one assumed in this study, is *interdependence orientation*. Interdependence orientation stresses the importance of the nature of relationships between people rather than the characteristics of people themselves (Reis & Rusbult, 2004).

Relationship orientation covers a range of processes and topics which include (1) attraction and initiating relationships, such as first impressions, affiliation, and attraction; (2) developing relationships, such as communication, intimacy, and love;

(3) maintaining relationships, such as interdependence, commitment and trust, and sustaining ongoing relationships; and (4) deteriorating relationships, such as communication, conflict, deception, jealousy, and betrayal (Reis & Rusbult, 2004). The current study examines conflict (specifically psychological maltreatment) and commitment (from an Investment Theory point of view) dimensions of relationships, specifically marital relationships.

An important dimension of intimate relationships is conflict. In the general sense, conflict is a situation that involves a controversy, discordance, or dissimilarity between at least two people; however, within the context of intimate relationships, it may become more than that and turn into a process of interaction that endures, persists, changes, and develops overtime (Cahn, 1992). It is possible to handle a conflict in constructive ways as well as destructive ways. When handled constructively, conflicts do not harm the partners; on the contrary, they may even be beneficial in the long term. On the other hand, negatively handled conflicts not only harm the relationship, but they may also turn into violence.

Violence is defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) as “the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation.” (WHO, n.d.). The concept of violence differs from culture to culture and from time to time; and it constitutes the root of various social problems (Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009).

Intimate partner violence can be defined as “any behavior within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship” (Krug, Dahlberg, Mercy, Zwi, & Lozano, 2002, p.89) and it constitutes a highly problematic and frightfully prevalent relationshipmatter (Regan, 2011). It involves a series of verbally or physicallyoffensive behaviors by one or both partners in a close relationship (Drijber, Reijnders, & Ceelen, 2013). Findings of some studies

suggest that violence takes place most commonly within family, and towards women (Doğanavşargil & Vahip, 2007; Erdoğan, Aktaş, & Bayram, 2009; Katz, Washington Kuffel, & Brown, 2006; Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009; Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006). According to Altınay and Arat (2007), 35% of women across Turkey are victimized and 40% of women living in eastern Turkey are victimized. Doğanavşargil and Vahip (2007) found the lifetime prevalence of violence victimization as 63% during childhood and 62% in marriages; in addition to the 51% perpetration of violence from parents to children. According to Plichta and Falik (2001), 44% of the women in the United States have been exposed to one or more types of violence in their lifetimes (N=1821), 19% of these women were exposed to intimate sexual violence as children and/or adults, 4% of them experienced sexual non-intimate abuse, and 21% of them experienced physical assault. Straus (2004) conducted a study with dating university students across 16 countries and found the rate of physical assault to be 29% and the rate of physical injury 7%. Violence can have several forms, it can be directed at various target populations, it can cause physical, psychological and social problems that may and may not result in wound, impairment, or death, and these outcomes can be immediate as well as latent (Krug et al., 2002). In this study, psychological maltreatment was studied because it is considered to be the most complicated and the least researched type of intimate partner violence (Barter, 2009; Mason et al., 2014).

Gender is a controversial issue in violence perpetration and victimization. Violence studies have generally been conducted with women. However, several studies point out that men are exposed to violence, too (Archer, 2000; Chan, 2011; Drijber et al., 2013; Dutton & Nicholls, 2005; Kasian & Painter, 1992; Kimmel, 2001; Hatipoğlu-Sümer & Toplu, 2011; Hughes, 2004; Rhatigan, Moore, & Stuart, 2005; The Mankind Initiative, 2008; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011). The literature has diversified findings regarding whether men and women are victims or perpetrators of violence to the same extent, or whether one is more victimized than the other. Some findings suggest mere equality (Hatipoğlu-Sümer & Toplu, 2011; Hughes, 2004;

Rhatigan et al., 2005); some imply that women are victimized more (Chan, 2011; Dutton & Nicholls, 2005); some say that men are victimized more (The Mankind Initiative, 2008). Some studies revealed that men are psychologically more victimized than women (Drijber et al., 2013; Kasian & Painter, 1992; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011).

Violence has been linked to several demographic and relational variables. Socio-economic status is related to violence prevalence (Altınay & Arat, 2007; Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009; Shorey, Cornelius, & Bell, 2008). Thompson and colleagues (2006) and Altınay and Arat (2007) suggest that physical violence decreases as educational level and income increases. Kocacık and Çağlayandereli (2009) state that psychological maltreatment is related to social and financial status. Hatipoğlu-Sümer and Toplu (2011) found that violence perpetration and victimization increased in time in dating relationships. Drawing on these findings, the current study explored the relationship between psychological maltreatment, gender, age, educational status, marriage duration, and number of children.

Psychological maltreatment, also referred to as psychological abuse or emotional violence, can be defined as iterant acts that are aimed to criticize or debilitate the victim in many aspects and cause him/her distress. Drijber et al. (2013, p. 175) defined psychological maltreatment as “exposing a person to behavior that may result in psychological trauma, including anxiety, chronic depression, or post-traumatic stress disorder” with the most common forms being bullying, ignoring, threatening, blackmailing, financial harm, using children as means of power. Psychological maltreatment has also been found to increase the tendency to end the relationship (Arias & Pape, 1999; Henning & Klesges, 2003; Marshall, 1996).

As explained by Follingstad (2007), abuse is not a fully operationalized scientific word, but it has gained meanings related to emotions, morality, social-reform, and politics recently. It implies a judgment that it harms the target has been made, and the target can be called a victim whereas terms like aggression and maltreatment can

range from tiny to terrifying behaviors (Follingstad, 2007). Emery and Laumann-Billings (1998) state a need to differentiate maltreatment and violence. They argue that maltreatment implies very little physical or sexual damage whereas violence involves severe physical, psychological, or sexual harm. In this study, although violence, abuse, and assault are used interchangeably, mainly the term ‘maltreatment’ is used because it is the original name of the scale used in the study: Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory.

Marshall (1996) stated that males and females can be psychologically disparaging without being physically or sexually assailant. It is not by itself directly physical, but may imply a threat of physical danger to the victim. The risk of psychological victimization increases with having experienced physical violence (Toplu-Demirtaş, Hatipoğlu-Sümer, & White, 2013). Walker (1984) describes some of the psychologically abusive behaviors as threats of physical harm, verbal expressions that disrespect the victim in terms of his/her character, functioning, etc. Dutton, Goodman, and Bennett (1999) suggest that some types of psychological abuse are controlling behaviors such as inhibition, jealousy, and mockery. Sackett and Saunders (1999) identify types of psychological abuse as mocking partner’s personal characteristics, judging partner’s behavior, disregarding partner, and dominating partner with the use of jealousy.

Exposure to psychological maltreatment decreases an individual’s motivation to remain in the abusive relationship; however, many victims actually stay in abusive relationships (Arias & Pape, 1999; Edwards et al., 2012; Henning & Klesges, 2003; Marshall, 1996; Sackett & Saunders, 1999). Among several theories attempting to explain this situation, Rusbult’s Investment Model is a widely used one. Investment model assumes some of the basic principles of Kelley and Thibaut’s interdependence theory. Like interdependence theory, investment model emphasizes the role of costs and rewards a relationship has to offer the individual. The basic assumption is that people are inclined to maximize the rewards of a relationship and minimize the costs, and the personal evaluation of the amount of these rewards and costs form

individual's attraction to and satisfaction with the relationship (Rusbult, 1980). Mainly, investment model suggests that relationship maintenance is determined to a great extent by commitment and commitment is the outcome of the interaction of an individual's satisfaction with, alternatives to, and investments in the current relationship (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult, 1983). Commitment is an individual's psychological attachment to a relationship or his/her will and intention to remain in the relationship. Satisfaction level is the extent to which individual feels happy and content about his/her relationship in terms of the fulfillment of needs such as intimacy, friendship, and sex. Alternatives can be described as everything except for being in the current relationship; it can be another relationship or being alone, depending on what the individual considers his/her options are and what it would be like if the current relationship were to end. Quality of alternatives is the person's perception of how desirable his/her alternatives are. Investments include all kinds of things that a person has put into the relationship and are available on the condition that the relationship continues. Investments can be time, money, memories, shared secrets, or mutual friends. Investment size is the amount of investments individual has put into the relationship. According to the investment model, higher satisfaction level, poorer quality of alternatives, and bigger investment size leads to higher level of commitment, which means higher probability of relationship maintenance (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult, Martz, & Agnew, 1998).

Investment model has been confirmed in dating and marital relationships as well as non-romantic relationships such as friendships and business associations (Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow 1986b). It was examined in abusive relationships such as physical, sexual, and psychological abuse (Katz et al., 2006; Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006; Rhatigan & Street, 2005). Psychological maltreatment has been found to be experienced as a relationship cost and decrease satisfaction and commitment among married battered women (Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006). On the other hand, satisfaction also mediated the relationship between psychological maltreatment and commitment (Impett, Beals, & Peplau, 2001; Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006).

Literature has shown differences in investment model variables across genders (Büyükşahin et al., 2005; Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007; Duffy & Rusbult, 1986; Fitzpatrick & Sollie, 1999; Hasta & Büyükşahin, 2006; Rusbult et al., 1998), age groups (Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007), educational status (Rusbult et al., 1986b), and marriage duration (Rusbult 1980, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1986b); therefore, they were examined in this study as well.

To sum up, violence is common among individuals in intimate relationships. Psychological maltreatment is an underrated dimension of intimate partner violence. Although there are several causes and consequences of it, some risk factors such as gender, education, and relationship duration have been identified. Although exposure to psychological maltreatment is expected to decrease the willingness of an individual to maintain his/her relationship, the assumption that psychological maltreatment must cause the relationship to end is challenged by the investment model which proposes several factors contributing to relationship maintenance. According to the investment model, people are committed to their relationships to the extent that they are satisfied with their relationships, have little quality alternatives to it, and have made big investments into it. Consequently, psychological maltreatment does not determine relationship commitment by itself; it should be accompanied by low satisfaction, high quality alternatives, smaller investment size and consequently low commitment to end the relationship.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The first purpose of the study was to adapt Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI; Tolman, 1989) to Turkish and examine its psychometric properties. To the best knowledge of the author, the only Turkish scale that measures psychological maltreatment is the adapted version of Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2) developed by Straus, Hamby, McCoy, and Sugarman (1996); and adapted to Turkish by Turhan, Guraksin, and Inandi (2006). CTS2 measures physical, psychological, and sexual abuse by asking the participants whether they or their

partner performed specific acts such as shouting, insulting, slapping, and using force to have sex. It has been criticized for neglecting the context in which the specified behaviors occur, who initiated the violence, motivation and intention, etc. (Kimmel, 2002). Therefore, a new Turkish scale was needed to measure psychological maltreatment.

Next, the study aimed to find out the relationship between psychological maltreatment and demographic variables such as gender, age, marriage duration, number of children, and educational status. Gender is a controversial variable in relation to violence because, as mentioned earlier, there are different findings as to whether genders differ in terms of exposure to psychological maltreatment. The relationship between victimization and other demographic characteristics have not been fully explored in the literature; therefore, further research is needed to confirm or challenge these relationships.

Another objective of the study was to find out the relationship between investment model variables and demographic variables. Satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, investment size, and commitment level are different across different groups and their relationship can also vary. This study was expected to compare individuals in terms of these variables and their interactions.

Finally, the relationship between psychological maltreatment and investment model was examined in this study. The correlations among psychological maltreatment types and investment model variables were identified and their structural relationships were assessed. Specifically, the predictive ability of psychological maltreatment on commitment with the mediation of satisfaction, alternatives, and investments was tested.

1.3 Problem Statements

Research questions of the study are as follows:

1. Is PMWI valid and reliable with a Turkish sample?
2. Is there a significant relationship between psychological maltreatment and demographic variables such as age, marriage duration, and number of children?
3. Is there a significant relationship between investment model variables and demographic variables such as age, marriage duration, and number of children?
4. Is the level of psychological maltreatment victimization significantly different across different demographic groups of gender and educational status?
5. Are the levels of investment model variables significantly different across different demographic groups of gender and educational status?
6. Is there a significant relationship between PMWI and IMS subscales?
7. How much of the variance in commitment is accounted for by psychological maltreatment?
8. Do satisfaction level, investment size, and quality of alternatives mediate the relationship between psychological maltreatment and commitment level?

1.4 Hypotheses

Hypotheses for each of the research questions are as follows:

1. PMWI is valid and reliable with a Turkish sample.
2. Psychological maltreatment increases with age, marriage duration, and number of children.
3. Commitment, satisfaction, investments, and quality of alternatives increase with age, marriage duration, and number of children.

4. Men and university graduates are exposed to significantly lower levels of psychological maltreatment than women and below-university graduates.
5. Women and university graduates perceive significantly lower levels of satisfaction, quality of alternatives, investment, and commitment than men and below-university graduates.
6. PMWI subscales are positively correlated with the quality of alternatives, but negatively correlated with satisfaction level, investment size, and commitment level.
7. A statistically significant amount of variance in IMS variables is accounted for by PMWI subscales.
8. Satisfaction level, investment size, and quality of alternatives mediate the relationship between psychological maltreatment and commitment level.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Relationships form an important dimension human functioning; furthermore, conflict and relationship maintenance are important dimensions of relationships. Violence is widespread (Altınay & Arat, 2007; Bornstein, 2006; Doğanavşargil & Vahip, 2007; Erdoğan et al., 2009; Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009; Krug et al., 2002; Regan, 2011). Considering the findings that psychological maltreatment is the most common form of violence (Marshall, 1996; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011; Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013), it comes as a surprise to see that it is also the least studied one (Arias & Pape, 1999). This study is expected to contribute to the literature of psychological maltreatment. Furthermore, this study examines investment model and its relation to psychological maltreatment. This provides an opportunity to look closer into how the existence of psychological maltreatment may interact with investment model variables. It was suggested by Büyükşahin and Hovardaoğlu (2007) to conduct studies to explain the relationship between investment model variables and other variables such as jealousy, problematic relationships, and break-up intentions.

Participants of this type of research have been mostly university students or women residing at women's shelters (e.g., Arias & Pape, 1999; Choice & Lamke, 1999; Edwards et al., 2012; Erdoğan et al., 2009; Katz & Arias, 1999; Katz et al., 2006; Pico-Alfonso, 2005). However, this study will be different in that it is conducted with both men and women who are still married. In addition to providing more information about the dynamics of marriage, this study is also expected to reevaluate the gender paradigm in violence research by including the male perspective.

The study also attempts to provide evidence for the reliability and validity of PMWI and IMS (Investment Model Scale). Adaptation of PMWI will be especially beneficial in that it will provide an alternative way to measure psychological maltreatment, which is expected to be useful for other studies about the topic.

Physical violence at one point goes out of the area of psychological counseling in that it becomes more of a clinical and criminal issue. However, psychological maltreatment is not regarded as a clinical and criminal issue yet; therefore, counselors have an important responsibility in dealing with it. This new scale to measure psychological maltreatment is expected to provide counselors with a novel way to assess psychological victimization. Furthermore, findings of the current study regarding its relationship with other variables enable deeper understanding of the issue.

Findings about investment model are expected to help counselors understand the dynamics of a relationship. The clients may not be fully aware of what makes them committed to a relationship. For example, a victim of psychological maltreatment may be unwilling to end his/her relationship but may not know the reason, and this situation may challenge his/her self-esteem or pride. In such a situation, the counselor can help the client realize the factors contributing to his/her level of commitment and accept his/her feelings.

Consequently, this study is expected to provide a new measure of psychological maltreatment in Turkey and enhance a deeper understanding of psychological

maltreatment and its relationship with investment model of commitment in married women and men.

1.6 Definition of Terms

Violence: Deliberate use of, or threat of using, one's power to hurt, harm, or control another person physically, psychologically, or sexually (WHO, n. d.).

Intimate partner violence: Any kind of violent or harmful behavior performed by one partner of an intimate relationship towards the other partner (Krug et al., 2002).

Psychological maltreatment: Dominating the partner and isolating him/her from various resources as well as verbally attacking or emotionally depriving him/her (Tolman, 1989).

Emotional abuse: Nonphysical acts targeted at hurting or manipulating another individual emotionally on purpose (Barter, 2009).

Psychological aggression: A range of verbal or mental behaviors aiming at affectively harming, bullying, or threatening towards adult romantic partners (Follingstad, 2007).

Commitment: Feelings of attachment to a relationship and intention to remain in it in the future (Rusbult, 1980, 1983).

Satisfaction: The extent to which a person feels that his/her needs such as friendship or intimacy are fulfilled in the relationship (Rusbult, 1980, 1983).

Alternatives: The options of an individual other than remaining in his/her current relationship such as other relationships or spending time alone (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993).

Investments: Things that a person has put into his/her relationship or gained with the relationship that would be lost in case of a break-up, such as mutual friends, shared memories, shared house, etc. (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature related to the study. There are two main sections under this chapter. The first section is about intimate partner violence and it covers violence in general as well as the issue of gender in studying intimate partner violence, theoretical frameworks for explaining violence, types of violence, and psychological maltreatment. The second part is concerned with relationship maintenance and among theories of and approaches to relationship maintenance, it elaborates on Interdependence Theory and Investment Model.

2.1 Intimate Partner Violence

Intimate partner violence is a weighty problem around the world as well as in Turkey which was not handled until 1980s. Doğanavşargil and Vahip (2007) found that 62% of women are, at least once, exposed to physical abuse by their spouses. Kocacık and Çağlayandereli (2009) indicated that the person who resorts to violence is the husband with a percentage of 98.5%. It was stated by Altınay and Arat (2007) that one out of three women is subjected to violence by her partner. World Health Organization also revealed in the World Report on Violence and Health (Krug et al., 2002) that, the proportion of abused women all around the world is one out of three.

Intimate partner violence is a complicated issue which has more than one contributors and negative consequences (Bornstein, 2006). In the literature, it has been found to be related to social, financial, cultural, sexual, and psychological factors as well as individuals' relationships with their social environments (Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009).

Intimate partner violence has been examined in various types of relationships with dating and marital relationships being the most commonly examined types. There are

similarities as well as differences between dating violence and marital violence found in the literature. The similarities are spending a lot of time together on many activities, self-disclosure leading to emotional vulnerability, high degree of affective investment and involvement, a presumed right to affect the partner, reciprocal violence, and risk factors such as alcohol consumption, low communication skills, socioeconomic status, community, interpersonal violence, and jealousy (Shorey et al., 2008). The difference between dating and marital violence is basically the fact that marital relationships involve more familial and economic attachment, bigger size of investment, and legal binding etc. (Shorey et al., 2008). As stated by Hatipoğlu-Sümer and Toplu (2011), the risk for violence perpetration and victimization increase with the passage of time.

Intimate partner violence is more common than it is thought to be. Official records do not reflect the real prevalence of violence because a lot of people do not report it (Bornstein, 2006). As stated by Krug et al. (2002), using mortality rates as the reference for the prevalence of violence is an incorrect approach, because they are just a small proportion that fails to represent the bigger picture all around the world. National Research on Domestic Violence Against Women in Turkey (Turkish Republic Prime Ministry, 2008) reveals that spouse violence is a widely hidden problem because women find it hard to talk about. Altınay and Arat (2007) found that 49% of the people across Turkey and 63% of the people living in eastern Turkey told nobody about their victimization. According to Hendy, Eggen, Gustitus, McLeod, and Ng (2003), women are unwilling to bring out the fact that they are exposed to violence by their partners because of refusal or contempt of the risk, shame, guilt, not believing professionals can help, and fear that violence might increase upon reporting. Hughes (2004) suggests that men are less likely than women to report violence for a number of reasons including shame and the bias against them concerning this issue. Drijber et al. (2013) found that the percentage of men who talked to the police about their victimization was less than 32% and the percentage of those who officially reported it was only 15%. In the same study, the reasons for

talking or reporting violence to the police were stated as (1) hoping that police would stop the violence, (2) needing further help, (3) children, (4) thinking they would be better in case of divorce, and (5) wanting advice of police while the reasons for not talking or not reporting violence to the police were stated as (1) belief that police would not or could not do anything, (2) shame, (3) fear that violence would aggravate, (4) fear that they would not be taken serious, and (5) fear of revenge. When they did report victimization to the police, they were not taken seriously or they were accused themselves (Drijber et al., 2013). Social norms and pressures force victims to keep quiet about the experience (Krug et al., 2002). According to Chan (2011), factors that impact the reporting of intimate partner violence are social desirability, shame and guilt, blaming, need expression, fear of consequences, avoidance, excusing, normalizing as an expression of love, dependence, self-blaming, culture-specific factors, and measurement and sampling errors.

Despite the shame and hiding tendency associated with it, violence is known to be a widespread phenomenon which is transmitted from one generation to another and harms not only the victim, but also the witnesses (Doğanavşargil & Vahip, 2007).

2.2.1 The Issue of Gender

Research on domestic violence in Turkey, as well as around the world, is mostly conducted with women participants. There is a common belief that men are always perpetrators of violence and women are always the victims. While some people defend that violence against women is “a form of discrimination and deeply rooted in power imbalances and structural inequality between women and men” (Semahegn, Belachew & Abdulahi, 2013, p. 1), others assert that gender is irrelevant because the potential of male victimization is as high as that of females. Hughes (2004) harshly criticizes the prejudice about the gender of violence claiming that women are equally violent as men, a phenomenon Kimmel (2001) names “gender symmetry”. A charity in the United Kingdom called The Mankind Initiative published a bibliography that compiled 260 papers to prove that male victimization of female perpetrated violence

exists to a level that cannot be underestimated (The Mankind Initiative, 2008). According to Hatipoğlu-Sümer and Toplu (2011), gender is not a significant predictor of violence perpetration or victimization in dating relationships. In addition, males have been found to experience higher levels of psychological abuse than females (Kasian and Painter, 1992; Moreno-Manso, Blazquez-Alonzo, Garcia-Baamonde, Guerrero-Barona, & Pozueco-Romero, 2014). According to Drijber et al. (2013), men are exposed to domestic violence both physically and psychologically by their female (ex-)partners and there is a necessity to raise awareness among society about the victimization of men, their need to express themselves and get support about it. In Rhatigan and colleagues' (2005) study, women court-mandated to violence intervention programs reported that they were victimized to the same extent that they perpetrated violence, especially psychological aggression and physical assault, which suggests gender symmetry. Toplu and Hatipoğlu-Sümer (2011) found that women and men in dating relationships were victimized by physical violence to the same extent, and women reported perpetrating it more; on the other hand, women both perpetrated and were victimized by psychological violence more often than men. Chan (2011) noted in his review that most researchers are of the opinion that men and women are equal in their potential to use violence when the circumstances, motives, and outcomes are not taken into account; however, when the severity, incentives, and consequences are considered, men are found to be more violent than women.

According to Arnocky and Vaillancourt (2014), victimization is stigmatized for males more than females. They are exposed to more negative attitudes resulting from stereotypes. On the other hand, males evaluate fewer behaviors as being abusive, they minimize the violence they are exposed to, and keep silent about it more than females. The authors propose that these differences may be caused by social gender roles and stigma (Arnocky & Vaillancourt, 2014). Furthermore, male perpetrators are criticized more brutally than female perpetrators (Hammock, Richardson, Williams, & Janit, 2015).

According to Dutton and Nicholls (2005), the faulty assumption that violence is always male perpetrated and female directed is the result of two factors. First, the process of governments' dealing with violence resulted in women living in shelters and men attending court-mandated treatment groups. Therefore, research was conducted with these groups of female victims and male perpetrators, which led to faulty generalizations. Second, feminist activists focused on female victims when they tried to attract attention to violence which had long been neglected. Not only did most researchers study with only female participants, they also suspected and criticized studies that showed male victimization. As a result of these situations, research on violence remained biased in terms of gender. However, a review of studies examining violence reveals that although women are harmed more than men, men are harmed by violence, too, so men victims deserve as much care as women victims (Dutton & Nicholls, 2005). In order to resolve this bias issue, Dutton and Nicholls suggested that the feminist assumption that violence is patriarchy's way of oppressing women should be replaced with the view that intimate partner violence might have psychological causes unrelated to gender (Dutton & Nicholls, 2005).

Consequently, there are two directions in handling violence in terms of gender: some researchers hold that most of the time, men are perpetrators of intimate partner violence while others defend that both partners have the same amount of tendency of perpetrating violence (Archer, 2000; Chan, 2011). The direction is determined to a great extent by the theory adopted by the researchers while approaching violence; for example, feminist theory defends that violence is the consequence of patriarchy; therefore, researchers with a feminist orientation assume that men are always perpetrators of violence. Similarly, evolutionary approach asserts that conflict arises between partners because males coercively use their power, which makes females victims of violence. On the other hand, family conflict and social psychological perspectives focus on the factors that lead to violence independent of gender (Archer, 2000).

Archer's (2000) meta-analytic review of the literature shows that there are inconsistent findings regarding whether gender is a risk factor for perpetration and victimization. He points at two factors that might be responsible for this inconsistency. First, the scales used for measuring violence may be inaccurate in capturing different dimensions and consequences of violence. Second, samples included in the studies may lead to non-objective conclusions. For example, samples selected from women's shelters or clinical environments are likely to provide different results from community samples (Archer, 2000; Chan, 2011).

2.2.2 Theoretical Background for Intimate Partner Violence

Researchers have approached the subject of violence from several different perspectives, which resulted in different conceptualizations of violence and various models for explaining it. Some theories attribute violence to individual factors while others emphasize the socio-cultural contexts in which they occur.

Bandura's social learning theory is one of the most popular lenses through which violence has been approached. Social learning theory holds that behavior is learned by observing and imitating others who perform that behavior, and maintained through reinforcement or secondary gains. Violence is also a learned behavior that children observe in the interactions of their parents, learn as an appropriate behavior, and apply in their relationships when they grow up – in other words, violence is transmitted from a generation to the next through modeling (Bell & Naugle, 2008; Mihalic & Elliot, 1997; Shorey et al., 2008).

An expansion of social learning theory is the background/situational model (Riggs & O'Leary, 1996). The model suggests that violent behavior has two main contributors: background factors and situational factors. Background factors form the aggressive part of an individual's personality through past experiences, environmental characteristics and personality while situational factors are agents that lead up to the specific occasion of violence such as alcohol, conflict, expectations, or interaction types (Bell & Naugle, 2008; Riggs & O'Leary, 1996).

According to Bowlby's attachment theory, individuals form relationship schemas during their childhood based on the way they relate to their primary caregivers. When they grow up, they use these schemas as templates for their relationships and they tend to behave in ways that protect, serve, and maintain these schemas. These tendencies form attachment styles. Certain types of attachment styles may lead to patterns of victimization, perpetration, or dominance-subordination behaviors, which may cause relationships to preserve violence (Barter, 2009; Shorey et al., 2008).

Behavioral theories have only recently been used in explaining intimate partner violence when Myers (as cited in Shorey et al., 2008) suggested in 1995 that behavioral principles might be relevant to violent intimate relationships and reinforcement could be responsible for the increase of violence.

The evolutionary perspective to intimate partner violence towards women by men is explained by Goetz, Shackelford, Romero, Kaighobadi, and Miner (2008) through natural selection. They argue that first of all, ancestry skepticism is a key element of violence. Second, physical violence is a form of punishment and deterrent towards sexual disloyalty by females. Finally, sexual violence is a tactic to prevent being cheated (Goetz et al., 2008).

Socio-cultural approach to violence suggests that the source of violence is environmental factors (Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009). This approach emphasizes the contribution of cultural practices, poverty, gender roles, and religious beliefs to violence. For example, feminist theory is a rooted theory that attempts to explain violent relationships by referring to the sociocultural context hosting them (Bell & Naugle, 2008). Feminist theory suggests that violence is a consequence of the patriarchal societal system that puts women in a secondary status against the power of men (Özateş, 2009; Shorey et al., 2008). All the dynamics of this patriarchal system interact in a way that normalizes violence against women by integrating violence in traditional gender roles imposed on the individuals of both genders and internalizing it (Özateş, 2009). Accordingly, feminist theory asserts that violence is

always perpetrated by men towards women as a means of asserting power and control while women resort to violence only for self-defense. Although power and control has been found to be contributing to acts of violence, there is also evidence of non-defensive female perpetrated violence (Shorey et al., 2008). Feminist theory is limited in that it does not provide an explanation for violence between homosexual couples (Bell & Naugle, 2008) or dating couples (Barter, 2009).

Similar to the feminist theory, Straus's power theory suggests that domestic violence is maintained through the interaction of conflict inside family, collective admission of violence, and gender inequality (Bell & Naugle, 2008).

The ecological model to violence proposes that violence is rooted in several interactive layers of sociality and there are many different factors that may come out at different layers for every individual: The first level of the model representing individual factors is related to the biological and personal history factors affecting individual's behavior. For example, age and level of education are negatively correlated with violence perpetration among men; while level of education is negatively correlated with violence victimization among women (WHO, 2012). Other individual factors include self-esteem, neuroticism, impulse control, etc. (Emery & Laumann-Billings, 1998). The second factor deals with how the dynamics or an intimate relationship may contribute to violence. For example, conflict or discontentment in a relationship may lead to violence. A third factor examines the community contexts in which relationships take place. Finally, societal level of the model is about the broader characteristics, attitudes, values, beliefs, and norms that shape the society's contributions to violence (Emery & Laumann-Billings, 1998; Krug et al., 2002; WHO, 2012).

Ali and Naylor (2013) determined two perspectives of intimate partner violence: biological perspective and psychological perspective. The biological perspective is related to the genetic, innate, and bodily roots of aggressive behavior such as brain injury, brain infections, neuropathology, etc. whereas the psychological perspective

emphasizes several factors affecting either side of the violent act such as psychopathology, anger, substance abuse, self-esteem, etc. (Ali & Naylor, 2013).

2.2.3 Psychological Maltreatment

During the early studies of marital violence, victims of physical violence widely reported being exposed to non-physical assault which was experienced as more distressing and damaging than physical violence; therefore, researchers started to recognize this new type of violence (Follingstad, 2007). In addition to physical and sexual, violence has a psychological aspect, too. Although they appear simultaneously in most cases (Krug et al., 2002; Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013), they should be handled separately because they are still different. It is important to differentiate among types of violence because they all have their unique characteristics and conditions (Ferraro & Johnson, 2000). Without making this distinction, it is difficult to address and comprehend the implications caused by the unique dynamics of each type of abuse. As Ferraro and Johnson (2000) state, equating “a feminine slap in the face, a terrorizing pattern of beatings accompanied by humiliating psychological abuse, an argument that escalates into a mutual shoving match, or a homicide committed by a person who feels there is no other way to save her own life” (p. 959) is an erroneous way to handle the issue. It would be invalid to conduct research and make generalizations this way. Therefore, this study focuses on the psychological aspect of abuse in particular because it is the most prevalent and at the same time the most challenging type of violence in definition and in diagnosis (Follingstad, 2007; Rogers & Follingstad, 2014).

The literature on domestic violence in Turkey consists of studies mainly targeting physical violence. Psychological abuse does not get much attention probably because it is believed to have much less severe consequences. Arias and Pape (1999) suppose that the reason for this is because the immediate need to deal with physical violence is more visible than psychological violence, psychological violence has relatively less concrete outcomes that give the false impression that it is less important.

However, it exists more than physical violence and has more severe effects on its victims (Follingstad, 2007; Hortaçsu, Kalaycıoğlu, & Rittersberger-Tiliç, 2003). The study conducted by Marshall (1996) showed that 87% of the participants experienced physical abuse while 97% of them experienced psychological abuse. In a study conducted by Toplu and Hatipoğlu-Sümer (2011), 77% of female and 70% of male participants reported being victims of psychological maltreatment; in addition, 85% of female and 75% of male participants reported perpetrating psychological abuse. Toplu-Demirtaş et al. (2013) found that psychological violence is the most prevalent form of violence in dating relationships among university students in Turkey in that 67.5% of their participants whose relationship had lasted less than a year had been victims of psychological maltreatment while 79.3% of those whose relationship had lasted longer than a year had experienced it. In a study conducted with deaf undergraduate women, Anderson and Kobek Pezzarossi (2012) found the past year prevalence of psychological violence to be 87.5%, physical assault 39.6, injury 19.6, and sexual coercion 56.7%.

According to Kasian and Painter (1992) and Tolman (1999), psychological maltreatment is connected with and as seriously devastating as physical abuse. They cite several publications such as Stets (1990), Follingstad, Rutledge, Berg and Hause (1990), Martin (1981), Murphy and O'Leary (1989), Murphy and Cascardi (in press), Okun (1986), Tolman (1989), Tolman and Bhosley (1991), and Walker (1979) to illustrate that psychological maltreatment accompanies or predicts physical maltreatment. Henning and Klesges (2003) found that 80% of women who reported physical violence had previously been exposed to psychological violence by the same partner and that psychological abuse almost always accompanied physical abuse. Arias and Pape (1999) clearly state that women evaluate psychological abuse as worse than physical abuse; they found that their participants evaluated it as producing more dread, shame, loss of self-esteem, breakdown, and worry compared to physical abuse. Because psychological abuse is "psychological in nature" (Arias & Pape, 1999, p. 63), there is a danger that the victims may internalize the outcomes

and consequently dysfunction. According to Marshall (1996), psychological abuse may deeply affect its victim's self-esteem by attacking his/her judgments, cognitions, feelings, or behavior. Similarly, Sackett and Saunders (1999) found that psychological abuse contributed to depression and self-esteem independently of physical abuse. They concluded that it had a negative impact on victims' feelings and self-esteem (Sackett & Saunders, 1999). Dutton et al. (1999) claimed that psychological abuse was responsible for most of traumatic emotional consequences of abuse. In a study conducted with 127 physically abused women, Pico-Alfonso (2005) found that violence was strongly linked to Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), and the type of violence that best predicted PTSD was psychological maltreatment. In a longitudinal study conducted with 82 dating women, psychological abuse has been linked to depression (Katz & Arias, 1999).

In brief, intimate partner violence is a prevalent matter in Turkey and in the world. It is a complex issue that may have various causes and consequences. The common assumption is that violence is always perpetrated by men against women; however, this is not quite the case. There are many factors contributing to this assumption depending on the theory adopted and sample selected. Violence has different types such as physical, sexual, and psychological. This study focuses on psychological aspect only.

2.3 Relationship Maintenance in Abusive Relationships

Existence of psychological maltreatment is an important determinant in the victim's decision to continue or end the relationship. According to Marshall (1996), psychological abuse lessens the victim's satisfaction with the relationship and increases his/her tendency to end the relationship. Arias and Pape (1999) and Henning and Klesges (2003) found that regardless of the existence of physical abuse, psychological abuse plays a significant role in the perception of partner and the relationship as a threat for the victim, thus increasing the victim's determination to leave the relationship. As mentioned by Dutton et al. (1999), there have been many

studies examining the relationship between partner abuse and stay-leave behavior but most of them focused on the physical aspect of abuse. One of the few studies that did examine the psychological aspect (Gortner, Jacobson, Berns, & Gottman, 1997), on the other hand, found that psychological abuse predicted leaving the relationship more strongly than physical abuse, a finding supported by Arias and Pape (1999). Similarly, Edwards et al. (2012) stated that victims who ended their abusive relationships cited psychological abuse as the reason for ending the relationship even when other types of abuse were also present. In addition, Sackett and Saunders (1999) propose that psychological abuse can contribute to maintaining abusive relationships by lowering victims' self-esteem and perceived ability to form a new life. Dardis, Kelley, Edwards, and Gidycz (2013) indicate the possibility of victims' minimizing the abuse in order to save the relationship as well as the possibility that victims may be confused regarding the positive and negative aspects of the relationship. All in all, psychological abuse has been found to affect victims' stay/leave decisions.

Given the severity of the consequences of psychological violence and the fact that victims' intentions to leave the abusive relationship increases as a result of it, the number of marriages that continue despite abuse seems surprisingly high. Many victims continue their marriage with their abusers (Bauserman & Arias, 1992; Edwards et al., 2012; Kasian & Painter, 1992). Edwards et al. (2012) stated that many abused women preserve their relationships through justification by minimization of and excuses for abuse. According to Rusbult and Martz (1995), more than 40% of the victims living in spouse abuse shelters return to their partners. This comes as a surprise considering the common assumption that "any reasonable individual would attempt to avoid future victimization by leaving the abusive partner" (Rusbult & Martz, 1995, p. 558). In fact, it is hardly as simple as that. Individuals satisfied with their relationships are generally committed to their relationships; nevertheless, dissatisfied individuals, too, at times want to remain in

their relationships (Impett et al., 2001). That is to say, decision to remain in or end a relationship is not taken with regard to relationship satisfaction alone.

Stay/leave decisions are influenced by several factors. Rusbult, Zembrodt, and Gunn (1982) suggest that personal factors such as socio-economic, educational, and demographic features have an impact on stay/leave processes. Social factors also contribute to stay/leave decisions. According to Toplu-Demirtaş et al. (2013), social pressure is a deterrent factor for women to end an abusive relationship. Furthermore, women who have ended their marriages are more prone to violence than those who have not (Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013). Nevertheless, assuming that “personal dispositions” and social factors are the sole contributors to stay/leave process is to undermine the “nature of interdependence” that may be responsible for the process (Rusbult & Martz, 1995, p. 559). Commitment to the partner and the relationship, satisfaction with the relationship, rewards and costs of the relationship, alternatives to the relationship, and investments into the relationship are some of the structural factors predicting stay/leave decisions. This idea forms Rusbult’s investment model and has been proven to be valid by several studies (Bauserman & Arias, 1992; Impett et al., 2001; Le & Agnew, 2003; Marshall, 1996; Rusbult et al., 1982; Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986a; Rusbult & Martz, 1995; Stanley & Markman, 1992). According to the investment model, stay/leave decisions are mediated to a great extent by feelings of commitment (Le & Agnew, 2003); and commitment is influenced by satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size (Rusbult & Martz, 1995).

Consequently, as Rusbult and Martz (1995) state, remaining with a battering partner may be understandable in terms of a woman’s structural dependence on her relationship. Victims of psychological abuse may stay committed to abusive relationships because of a high level of investment even though they are not really satisfied with those relationships – a phenomenon that Bauserman and Arias (1992) name “psychological entrapment” (p. 287), Stanley and Markman (1992) name

“constraint commitment” (p. 595), and Rusbult and Martz (1995) name “nonvoluntary dependence” (p. 560).

Hendy et al. (2003) considered staying in an abusive relationship a health behavior problem because of the fact that it is associated with a potential of injury to the victim who insists on staying in the relationship. As a result, they employed health promotion theories that have been used in other health behavior problems such as smoking cessation to understand the stay/leave decision process in abusive relationships. For example they suggested that the stages in the Transtheoretical Model, which are precontemplation, contemplation, taking action, decision reversal, and maintenance of the behavior change, can be applied in this situation in that the behavior of actually leaving the abusive relationship occurs after a period of evaluating the advantages and disadvantages of staying or leaving. In addition, they used Rosenstock’s Health Belief Model that expresses that there are two factors that influence such stages of decision-making: “perceived benefits” and “perceived barriers” (p. 163). Therefore, they made use of the Traumatic Bonding Theory which suggests that individuals sometimes feel that they have to maintain their relationships even though they have to pay a price, because they need the relationship to define their self-identity; and the Investment Theory which suggests that the decision to leave is made through situational factors related to the evaluation of costs and benefits of the abusive relationship (Choice & Lamke, 1999; Hendy et al., 2003). According to Choice and Lamke (1999), the effect of rewards in relationship maintenance decisions is greater than the effect of costs. In other words, the intention to stay in a relationship due to high rewards cancels out the intention to leave a relationship because of its costs. Apart from the Traumatic Bonding Theory and the Investment Theory, Hendy et al. (2003) benefited from the experience of professionals from human service agencies who suggested that stay/leave decisions were influenced by both personal and situational factors, the personal factors being commitment, guilt, and hope for change; and the situational factors being parental, economic, social concerns and risk. Drawing on these theories, they developed a

scale to assess the reasons to stay in or leave an abusive relationship called Decision to Leave Scale composed of seven subscales: Fear of Loneliness, Childcare Needs, Financial Problems, Social Embarrassment, Poor Social Support, Fear of Harm, and Hopes Things Change. In addition to support for aforementioned theories, they also found that low self-esteem, having children, and high levels of victimization are factors that make leaving the relationship more difficult. However, they found no significant relationship between decision to leave and relationship duration.

Rhatigan, Street, and Axsom (2006) reviewed some theories that explain stay/leave processes in abusive relationships. One of them is learned helplessness which suggests that each unsuccessful attempt to leave an abusive relationship will make the victim of abuse feel more hopeless and incapable to actually end the relationship, thus preventing the victim from making any more attempts to end it. Another explanation is traumatic bonding theory and it asserts that the traumatic experience of being abused will cause the victim to develop deep emotional bonds to the perpetrator, resulting in increased dependence and attachment. Another model is a combination of reasoned action and planned behavior theories. Reasoned action proposes that behavioral intentions of abused people regarding relationship termination are dependent on their anticipation of outcome and collective norms. Planned behavior theory emphasizes the internal and external obstacles that deter the victim from ending the abusive relationship. The combination of these two theories implies that intentions to stay in or leave a relationship are planned and reasoned before actually being put into behavior. Another theory to explain stay/leave decisions is psychological entrapment which suggests that the victim attempts to improve the abusive relationship and get rid of the abuse; however, when the abuse persists, the previous attempts prevent the victim from leaving the relationship. The two-part decision-making model is another approach to stay/leave decisions and it puts forward two questions considered by the victims in making this decision: 'Will I be better off?' and 'Can I do it?' The first question evaluates the advantages and disadvantages of ending the relationship; and the second question examines the

personal and environmental factors that may enable or disable the victim in ending the relationship. A final theory stated by Rhatigan et al. (2006) is the investment model which will be detailed in the following sections.

2.3.1 Interdependence Theory

Before elaborating on the investment model, interdependence theory should be examined. Interdependence orientation was pioneered by Thibaut and Kelley in 1959 when they introduced interdependence theory (Reis &Rusbult, 2004). Rooted in social exchange theory, interdependence theory shares with other social exchange theories this basic assumption: individuals begin and continue relationships at least partly because of the benefits of interactions in a relationship (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). According to interdependence theory, the interaction between partners is the core of intimate relationships (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). Interdependence theory handles relationship behavior through interpersonal processes relying on the assumption that the experiences of a relationship cannot be separated from the nature of interdependence ingrained in the relationship (Kelley and Thibaut as cited in Rusbult & Arriaga, 1999). The theory suggests that individuals sharing a relationship are dependent on each other in terms of the outcome of their behavior in that the cognitive, affective, and behavioral activities of an individual influence the outcomes of his/her partner as well as his/her own outcomes. Therefore, each partner makes concessions moving away from personal best outcomes and getting closer to relational best outcomes in order to produce joint outcomes, a process called transformation (Regan, 2011). In addition to this, the theory emphasizes partners' exchanges, their sense of rewards and costs, and the mechanism through which they assess and shape their relationship (Holmes, 2000; Regan, 2011). Interdependence theory has contributed to the direction of relationship science in two main ways: First, it handles relationship satisfaction and relationship maintenance separately, explaining how unsatisfactory relationships may persist. Second, it suggests that the relationship outcomes are influenced not only by the interaction within the relationship, but also by outside factors that can strengthen or weaken the

relationship, such as other available alternatives (Regan, 2011). Before elaborating on these, some concepts need to be explained.

A key concept of interdependence theory, *outcome value* is an individual's subjective evaluation of the value of a relationship with regard to the positive and negative aspects associated with it. This concept is related to the first principle of social exchange theory: maximize rewards, minimize costs. Rewards are things that are valued and appreciated by the individual. Costs are things that are perceived as unrewarding or that require time, endeavor, concession, and missed chance (Regan, 2011).

Interdependence theory suggests that there are two criteria that individuals ground on while evaluating the quality of the outcomes of their relationships: *comparison level* (CL) and *comparison level for alternatives* (CL-alt). CL is the standard that an individual uses to evaluate the attractiveness or satisfactoriness of a relationship. It represents the average quality of outcomes the individual expects in a relationship drawing on former relationship experiences and social comparison. CL can be thought of as the neutral point of the satisfaction-versus-dissatisfaction dimension of an individual's ongoing relationship. CL is concerned with the level of attraction to and satisfaction with an ongoing relationship (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult & Arriaga, 1999). CL-alt is the standard that an individual uses to decide whether or not to maintain a relationship. CL-alt can be defined as the lowest level of outcome qualities that an individual can access and accept as an alternative to his/her current relationship (Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007; Regan, 2011; Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult & Arriaga, 1999). CL-alt is related to the concept of dependence. Dependence can be described as the extent to which a person needs his/her partner. It is formed by comparing current relationship outcomes with CL-alt. If current outcomes are greater than CL-alt, the individual is dependent on the current partner (Rusbult & Arriaga, 1999). According to interdependence theory, these internal (satisfaction) and external (alternative quality) factors contribute to the maintenance or termination of a relationship.

To sum up, in terms of interdependence theory, dependence is the key ingredient of interdependence, and it is formed as a result of an interaction between satisfaction and quality of alternatives (Rusbult et al., 1998). From the interdependence theory point of view, “the most stable relationships will be those in which partners do not expect a great deal (have a low CL) but actually get quite a lot (receive many positive outcomes) from the relationship (and consequently experience high levels of satisfaction) and have very few attractive alternatives to the relationship (have a low CL-alt)” (Regan, 2011, p. 101). These factors concertedly function to reveal a high level of dependence in the relationship because the outcomes of the relationship are relevant to the partners’ needs and they have no other available alternatives to meet those needs; as a result, this dependence turns into stability.

2.3.2 Investment Model

Rusbult’s Investment Model emerged from the interdependence theory and adopted many principles of the theory. Like interdependence theory, investment model treats satisfaction and relationship maintenance separately (Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult, et al., 1986b) and holds that more rewards and fewer costs in a relationship along with lower expectations make individuals more satisfied and attracted (Bornstein, 2006; Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult et al., 1986b). Investment model agrees with the interdependence theory in that satisfaction and alternatives are good predictors of commitment; yet, it asserts that there is a third factor contributing to commitment: investments (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult, 1983). All in all, the investment model suggests that relationship stability is determined by commitment level which has three determinants: satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult, 1983). According to Rusbult (1980), investment model primarily aims to predict the level of commitment to and satisfaction with several types of relationships of different durations (e.g. intimate relationships, friendships, business relations). Investment model is considered to be today’s most effective model of relationship development (Regan, 2011).

For the investment model, the concepts of *outcome level*, *comparison level*, and *satisfaction* are taken directly from interdependence theory with no change in meaning; the term *comparison level for alternatives* is changed to be called *quality of alternatives* with no change in meaning, and the concept of *dependence* is replaced with *commitment* with some change in meaning. In addition to these, a new concept of *investment size* is introduced with the investment model.

Commitment level is the extent to which a person feels attached to a relationship and it is a many-sided and blended phenomenon that is formed by the integration of factors that attract an individual to a relationship and factors that draw him/her away from the relationship (Le & Agnew, 2003). *Dependence* was described above as an individual's indigence to his/her partner for the fulfillment of some needs. *Commitment* is the "psychological experience of that state" (Le & Agnew, 2003, p. 38). Commitment is different from dependence in that it is the product of a subjective evaluation of the characteristics of the relationship. Commitment is about the probability that an individual will terminate a relationship and implies feelings of psychological attachment (Rusbult, 1980, 1983). Commitment level harbors three interrelated ingredients including conative (about the intent to persist), affective (e.g. psychological attachment), and cognitive (long-term orientation) features (Rusbult, Olsen, Davis, & Hannon, 2004).

Satisfaction level is the level of positive emotions concerning a relationship (Rusbult, 1980, 1983). Individuals compare the outcome value of their current relationships with their CL to define the satisfaction level and attractiveness of the relationship. If current outcomes are greater than CL, the relationship is regarded as satisfying. Satisfaction level can also be defined as the extent to which a person is happy with a relationship. Relationships that bring high rewards and low costs are generally rated as satisfying (Impett et al., 2001). For a period in relationship science, researchers focused on positive affect in relationships to explain persistence (Rusbult et al., 1998). It was a common assumption that relationships would continue as long as partners felt happy about it. However, as stated by Rusbult et al. (1998, p.358), "it

may be somewhat simplistic to assume that happiness tells the whole story in explaining persistence.” Contrary to the common belief, satisfaction level does not determine by itself whether a person is committed to a relationship or not; it is rather one of the factors that contribute to commitment (Rusbult et al., 2004; Rusbult & Martz, 1995). As Rusbult and Buunk (1993) mentioned, when commitment is weak, satisfactory relationships can end, and people can be very dependent on a relationship they are not satisfied with. Satisfaction level is the strongest predictor of commitment among other variables of investment model (Macher, 2013; Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013).

Quality of alternatives refers to the quality of individual’s options that can replace the relationship. If an alternative is likely to provide better outcomes than the relationship does, it is rated as more quality and more desirable, thus decreasing the will to remain the current relationship. The options are not necessarily other relationships or people, spending time alone may as well be a quality alternative to a relationship. As Rusbult and Buunk (1993) state, in addition to a specific attractive alternative, friends or recreational activities can predict the quality of alternatives; “in a general sense, quality of alternatives refers to the strength of the forces pulling an individual away from a relationship, or the degree to which an individual believes that important needs could be effectively fulfilled outside the relationship” (p.182). Like interdependence theory, investment model, too, defends that individuals become more committed to a certain relationship as they believe that they have poorer alternatives (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993).

If the only factors affecting commitment were satisfaction and alternatives, an unsatisfactory relationship would easily end when an attractive alternative came up. However, there are times that relationships go through unsatisfying processes and available alternatives are perceived as desirable but people continue to be involved in their current relationships. In order to explain this, investment model offers the concept of investment size (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993).

Investment size refers to the intrinsic or extrinsic resources that the individual has put into a relationship and will lose if the relationship ends. Investments can be direct, such as time, emotional energy, and personal sacrifice as well as indirect, such as mutual friends, common memories, activities or possessions specifically connected to the relationship. The previously mentioned transformation process of becoming ‘we’ can also serve as an investment because it links the individual’s personal identity to the relationship (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). Rusbult and Buunk (1993) suggest that social norms and moral prescriptions can also be conceptualized as investments because they also force an individual to stay in a relationship even when the relationship is dissatisfying (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). Investments increase commitment by trapping the person into the relationship (Rusbult, 1983) because having invested a lot into a relationship means that ending the relationship will be costly. After all, to terminate a relationship is to sacrifice the resources invested in it. As stated by Stanley and Markman (1992), “today’s dedication is tomorrow’s constraint” (p. 597). Investments can increase even after the relationship has ended in the form of trying to get back together etc. (Rusbult, 1983). Some similar concepts used by other scholars in the literature are Becker’s “side bets”, Levinger’s “barrier forces”, or Rubin, Blau, and Staw’s entrapment and investment related issues (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult, 1983).

These concepts of satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size are the precedents of commitment (Le & Agnew, 2003). They need not be all present; yet, the presence of each of these antecedents influences commitment. While quality of alternatives is negatively correlated to commitment, satisfaction level and investment size are positively correlated to commitment. According to Macher (2013), commitment level is positively correlated with investment size regardless of the effect of marital status and relationship duration and commitment level is negatively correlated with quality of alternatives regardless of gender.

To conclude, the decision to stay in or leave a relationship is most directly mediated by commitment level because the other more specific factors contributing to

dependence discussed above are represented by commitment which is a subjective summary of the nature of an individual's dependence on a partner (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). Although not all individuals with low commitment end their relationships, most of those, if not all, who end their relationships have low levels of commitment (Impett et al., 2001). Commitment level is not only about positive factors that attract an individual to the relationship, but also negative factors that deter the individual from leaving. Investments and lack of quality alternatives are barriers to ending a relationship and they can cause entrapment (Impett et al., 2001; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993).

There are some other models similar to the Investment Model (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). Levinger (as cited in Rusbult & Buunk, 1993) offers three factors that affect cohesiveness: attractions, barriers, and alternative attractions. These three concepts are similar to rewards, costs, and quality of alternatives, respectively. Another similar model is suggested by Johnson (as cited in Rusbult & Buunk, 1993) stating that three factors contribute to the motivation to maintain a relationship: personal commitment, moral commitment, and structural commitment. Personal commitment indicates the individual's own desire to maintain a relationship; moral commitment refers to the feeling when the person thinks that s/he must maintain the relationship; and structural commitment is the feeling of having no choice other than maintaining the relationship. As cited in Rusbult (1980), Becker and Schelling referred to extrinsic investments in 1960 and 1956, respectively; Rubin introduced the concept of entrapment in 1975, a concept very similar to commitment; and Blau covered almost all concepts of investment model in 1967 by referring to the role of alternatives and investments in increasing commitment. As it is seen here, despite being introduced in 1980s, investment model has its roots deep in the previous literature (Rusbult, 1980).

2.3.2.1 Empirical Examinations of the Investment Model

Investment Model has been proven to be valid in several types of relationships such as romantic relationships, friendships, and business affairs (Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1986b). Although it is successful in various topics, it fits romantic relationships best (Le & Agnew, 2003).

Investment model was initially tested in dating relationships in college. Rusbult (1980) conducted a study with two experiments with 282 university students. The first experiment involved a role-playing activity with 82 male and 89 female students who were given relationship scenarios that they were to imagine themselves in. Then, they were asked to complete a questionnaire which assessed their satisfaction and commitment. Participants of the second experiment were 58 male and 53 female students involved in a real ongoing or past relationship. They were asked to fill in a survey form which assessed rewards, costs, alternatives, investments, satisfaction, and commitment regarding the ongoing or past relationship. The results suggested that commitment level was positively correlated with intrinsic and extrinsic investment size and rewards while it was negatively correlated with the quality of alternatives and, although not significantly, costs. Satisfaction was related to rewards and costs.

Rusbult (1983) conducted a longitudinal study that lasted for 7 months (N=34) and provided strong evidence for the main assumption of the investment model: Commitment increased with increased satisfaction, decreased quality of alternatives, and increased investments. Commitment was also a significant predictor of stay/leave behavior, predicting it better than the other investment model variables. The study also provided information about the changes in investment model over time. As time passed, rewards, costs, satisfaction level, investment size, and commitment level increased while quality of alternatives decreased. Increased rewards were related to increased satisfaction and commitment; however, changes in costs did not change satisfaction or commitment. Another finding of the study

concerned relationship termination and investment model. At the end of the study, there were three groups of participants: (1) stayers, whose relationships persisted, (2) leavers, who initiated break-up, and (3) abandoned, whose partner initiated break-up. For stayers, rewards, costs, satisfaction, investments, and commitment increased and alternatives decreased in quality. For leavers, rewards almost remained the same, costs and quality of alternatives increased a lot, and satisfaction and commitment decreased. When compared with stayers, abandoned individuals experienced less increase in rewards and satisfaction, and more increase in costs. On the other hand, they reported decreasing quality of alternatives and increasing level of investment.

Later, Rusbult et al. (1986b) assessed the generalizability of the investment model to adults by including married people in their study (N=130) and they found that the model applied well to adults, too. They concluded that the investment model, a powerful model, can be generalized across various demographic groups. Impett et al. (2001) also found support for the suitability of the model for married people (N=7254).

Investment model was also associated with infidelity in university students' dating relationships by Drigotas, Safstrom, and Gentilia (1999). They conducted two two-wave studies. For the participants of Study 1, (N=74), they collected demographic information and assessed investment model variables at Time 1, and they applied an infidelity scale two months later at Time 2. Participants of Study 2 (N=37) had the same questionnaire at Time 1 as in the first study, and for the following 9 days, they were asked to fill in an interaction sheet for each interaction with an opposite-sex that lasted at least 10 minutes. At the end of both studies, it was found that Time 1 commitment level strongly predicted emotional and physical infidelity at Time 2.

Rhatigan et al. (2005) examined investment model factors, stay/leave decisions, and violence among women court-mandated to violence intervention programs. They found that "the investment model predicted a large and significant percentage of variance in court-mandated women's intentions to leave their current relationships.

Satisfaction, alternatives, and investments uniquely predicted women's commitment level, and commitment fully mediated associations between two of these factors and intention to leave" (Rhatigan et al., 2005, p. 319). Furthermore, they found a negative correlation between violence victimization and feelings of satisfaction; however, they found no relations between violence perpetration and other relationship factors such as satisfaction, intentions to leave, etc. Inconsistent with the Investment Model, Rhatigan et al. (2005) found a positive correlation between investment size and the desire to end the relationship; however, they believe that this finding is erroneous and represents a statistical issue called suppressor effect. On the other hand, they found negative correlations between physical assault and commitment; and between sexual abuse and investment size. Other than these, not many associations were found between violence victimization and investment model factors. As a result, they concluded that "violence exposure appears to affect women's 'wanting to' remain in their relationships (i.e., their satisfaction), but may have little to no effect on their 'having to' remain (i.e., alternatives or investments)" (Rhatigan et al., 2005, p. 320). In addition, they found no direct relationships between violence victimization and intentions to leave.

Rhatigan and Street (2005) examined the effect of violence victimization on investment model factors among college women and found that violence has a negative impact on satisfaction and commitment; and a positive correlation with break-up intentions. Surprisingly, they also found that investment size increased as the frequency of psychological violence increased.

Investment model variables were examined by Katz et al. (2006) among 180 female undergraduate students involved in sexually coercive dating relationships. They found that sexual victimization was associated with bigger investment size, but surprisingly not lower satisfaction level, and that sexually victimized women did not differ from non-victimized women in terms of commitment level and stay/leave decision making. On the other hand, they confirmed the predictions of the investment model.

Rhatigan and Axsom (2006) tested investment model with 51 women whom they contacted through battered women's service organizations. Using CTS2 to assess violence, and IMS to assess commitment, they found that battered women experienced commitment in the same way that non-battered women did. Another study that used these two scales is Dardis, Kelley, Edwards, and Gdycz (2013) who compared abused and non-abused college women (N=102) with regard to investment model variables in a mixed methods study. They found that the two groups of women did not differ in terms of commitment, investments, and alternatives; however, abused women were significantly less satisfied with their relationships and identified their relationships as having more costs.

Etcheverry, Le, Wu, and Wei (2013) explored the relationship between investment model variables and attachment. In a study they conducted with 334 undergraduates of both genders, they found that anxiety and avoidance predicted commitment and satisfaction, alternatives, and investments partially mediated their relationship. In additional studies, they found that commitment mediated the relationship between relationship maintenance and satisfaction, investments and alternatives among university students in romantic relationships (N=205); as well as the relationship between persistence and satisfaction, investments, and alternatives in a longitudinal study with a community sample (N=395).

Macher (2013) conducted a study with 77 dating, cohabiting, and married couples (N=154) in an attempt to earn a dyadic perspective to the investment model and formed a new model called actor-partner-interdependence-investment model (API-IM). In addition to the assumptions of Rusbult's investment model, API-IM emphasizes the effect of partner's satisfaction level on commitment. Basically, it suggests that one's satisfaction, investments, and alternatives as well as the partner's satisfaction, investments, and alternatives have an impact on commitment level. In an additional study, Macher (2013) used a different sample to test the same thing. This time, participants had a wider range of age and relationship duration and they were married couples (N=324). Results of the first study provided support for the known

individualistic perspective of investment model while the second study confirmed Macher's hypothesis that partner effects had an influence in actor effects.

Investment model has also been examined experimentally in hypothetical relationships. Carter, Fabrigar, Macdonald, and Monner (2013) conducted two studies with university students. Participants were selected according to their attachment styles. In the first study, they provided participants (N=180) with relationship scenarios with various costs and rewards stated and they found that individuals with different attachment styles used rewards and costs differently in evaluating satisfaction. In the second study, participants (N=178) were provided with scenarios that included information about the investments they had put into the relationship and an alternative partner. Results of the second study suggested that people with different attachment styles use investments, quality of alternatives, and satisfaction level differently to assess commitment.

In Turkey, Büyükşahin, Hasta, and Hovardaoğlu (2005) tested the validity and reliability of a Turkish IMS with data gathered from 325 university students who were currently in a relationship. They found that the Turkish IMS was valid and reliable with the sample of university students.

Later, Büyükşahin and Hovardaoğlu (2007) conducted two separate studies with the investment model. The first one aimed to explore the variables predicting university students' (N=271) relationship attachment and to compare individuals with divergent attachment styles with regard to investment model variables. They found that investment model variables significantly predicted relationship satisfaction, positive regard for relationship, feeling safe in relationship, commitment to relationship, and future orientation. They concluded that investment model variables were good at predicting attachment in Turkish culture, and that it was a robust model that functions well in different cultures. The second study compared individuals with various relationship types (e.g., married, engaged, dating) from the point of investment model variables. They found that individuals in dating

relationships(n=100) had lower levels of satisfaction and investment than those who were engaged (n=74) or married (n=76). On the other hand, individuals who perceive the quality of alternative highest were those in a dating relationship. Additionally, they found that men appraised the quality of their alternatives higher than women and that married women perceive least quality of alternatives among other groups. They concluded that as relationships get more official, satisfaction level and investment size increase and quality of alternatives decreases.

Investment model has been examined through participants with different demographic characteristics. Rusbult and colleagues (1986b) found that married people perceived less quality alternatives and higher commitment level than unmarried people. In addition, people with higher level of education perceived better quality alternatives and higher level of satisfaction (Rusbult et al., 1986b). Relationship duration has been found to be positively correlated with investment size and commitment level (Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1986b) and negatively correlated with the quality of alternatives (Rusbult, 1980). Women and men have also been compared in terms of investment model variables. It was found that men perceive better quality alternatives when compared with women (Büyükşahin et al., 2005; Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007; Fitzpatrick & Sollie, 1999; Hasta & Büyükşahin, 2006). Married women had the least quality alternatives (Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007). In Duffy and Rusbult's (1986) study, women were found to be more invested and committed than men. Rusbult and colleagues (1998) found women to be more satisfied with their relationship. According to Fitzpatrick and Sollie (1999), women were more committed than men. On the other hand, Le and Agnew (2003) and Impett and colleagues (2011) found no significant difference between men and women in terms of investment model variables. In a study where they compared homosexual and heterosexual individuals, Duffy and Rusbult (1986) found that heterosexuals perceived bigger size of costs and investments; and that gender was more predictive of investment model constructs than sexual orientation. According to Büyükşahin and Hovardaoğlu (2007),

investment level is predicted by commitment, relationship duration, and future orientation. In addition, as relationships become more official, satisfaction level and investment size increase and quality of alternatives decreases (Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007).

To conclude, victimization of psychological maltreatment is a relationship expense and it decreases an individual's happiness with a relationship even more than physical violence victimization does. However, it does not lead every relationship to end. Although there may be several reasons for this, it can roughly be said that characteristics of a given relationship other than the abusive aspect are evaluated before taking a decision to maintain the relationship or not. These characteristics can be categorized in two as costs and rewards, forming the core concepts of interdependence theory which then inspired investment model. According to the investment model, commitment level, satisfaction level, and investment size should be low and quality of alternatives should be high for an individual to end a relationship. Furthermore, satisfaction level and investment size should be low and quality of alternatives should be high for commitment level to be low. Thus, being victimized in terms of psychological maltreatment is not enough to take the decision to end a relationship especially if the individual has made huge investments in the relationship and has low quality alternatives. It is therefore concluded that the relationship between psychological maltreatment and commitment is mediated by satisfaction level, investment size, and quality of alternatives.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter describes the methodological aspect of the study under seven sections. The first section of the chapter describes the design of the study. The second section is related to the sample of the study and their demographic features. The third section describes the instruments used in the study. The forth section is about the procedure of data collection .In the fifth section, variables of interest to the study are defined. The sixth section gives information about data analysis. Limitations of the study are explained in the final section.

3.1 Research Design

The study has a cross-sectional correlational design that uses the screening model in order to find out the characteristics of the sample in terms of the variables of interest. Non-probability sampling was used while selecting the participants. Specifically, judgment sampling was used such that the researcher decided whether or not an individual was appropriate to take part in the study using the criteria which were being at least 18 years old and being married for at least a year. Convenience sampling was used when determining where to find the individuals appropriate for the study. Certain organizations where the researcher would be able to collect data were determined such as universities, schools, and other governmental and nongovernmental institutions. Finally, snowball sampling was used by asking the participants whether their partner or friends would like to join the study as well and asking how to reach them.

3.2Participants

Participants of the study consisted of 505 married people living in two districts of Turkey. The reason for choosing two different districts was to increase external

validity by diversifying the sample. 46% of the participants were female (n=234) and 54% were male (n=271). The age range of the participants was between 18 and 65 (M = 37.30, SD = 8.66). Table 3.1 illustrates the distribution of the participants in terms of age, educational status, and gender.

Table 3. 1. Age and Educational Status of the Participants According to Their Gender (n=505)

Variables	Gender					
	Female		Male		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Age						
18-32	87	18	79	16	166	34
33-40	79	16	86	18	165	34
41-65	62	13	97	20	159	32
Educational status						
Below university	58	13	90	21	148	34
University and above	138	32	150	34	288	66

7% of the participants were primary school graduates (n=35), 4% of them were middle school graduates (n=18), 13% were high school graduates (n=67), 16% were upper-secondary school graduates (n=80), 50% were university graduates (n=250), and 11% were postgraduates (n=54). Education was recoded into two categories: ‘below university’ and ‘university and above’. As seen in Table 3.1., most of the participants were university or graduate school graduates (n=288, 66%) and others were primary school, middle school, high school, or upper-secondary school graduates (n=148, 34%).

91% of the participants were currently employed (n=457) while 9% of them were unemployed or retired (n=47).

78% of the participants had one or more children (n=393) and 22% of them had no children (n=112). Marriage duration ranged between 1 and 43 years (M = 12.32, SD = 9.36).

In terms of stay/leave decisions, 8% of the participants were considering ending their marriages (n=39) while 92% of them were not (n=465). Among those people who were considering breaking up, 64% were women (n=25) and 36% were men (n=14). 82% of the people who were considering break-up were currently employed (n=32) while 18% of them were unemployed or retired (n=7). In terms of marriage preservation and educational level, the highest number of the people considering break-up were university graduates (33%, n=13) and the lowest number of people considering break-up was middle school graduates (3%, n=1) followed by postgraduate education graduates (8%, n=3). 80% of the people who were considering break-up had at least one child (n=31) and 21% of them had no children (n=8).

3.3 Instruments

A questionnaire that included Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI) and Investment Model Scale (IMS) as well as a personal information form was used.

3.3.1 Personal Information Form

The first section of the questionnaire is the Personal Information Form developed by the researcher. Items of this section seek information about the participant's gender, age, educational status, employment status, job, length of marriage, and number of children as well as a yes/no question to assess stay/leave decisions: "Are you considering divorce?" (Appendix A).

3.3.2 Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI)

PMWI is a 58-item questionnaire developed by Tolman (1989) to assess the psychological maltreatment women experience perpetrated by their male partners and validated by Tolman (1999). PMWI has been proven to be good at identifying psychologically abusive relationships (Kasian & Painter, 1992).

There are two subscales in the original inventory: Dominance/Isolation (D/I) and Emotional/Verbal (E/V). The dominance-isolation subscale includes behaviors related to “isolation from resources, demands for subservience, and rigid observances of traditional sex roles” and the emotional-verbal subscale measures “verbal attacks, behavior that demeans the women, and withholding of emotional resources” (Tolman, 1989, p.166). The D/I subscale consists of 26 items and the E/V subscale has 22 items. The remaining 10 items were excluded from the scale due to low factor loading (Tolman, 1989). An example D/I item is “My partner monitored my time and made me account for my whereabouts.” and an example E/V item is “My partner called me names.” Responses to the items are scaled from 1 (never) to 5 (very frequently); in addition, an NA (not applicable) option is available. The scale is scored by calculating the total scores of the items in the two subscales (Tolman, n.d.). The NA option is treated as a missing value. In terms of the reliability of these subscales, Tolman (1989) found that the internal consistency coefficients were high (D/I, $\alpha=0.95$; E/V, $\alpha=0.93$). In order to assess the construct validity of PMWI, Tolman (1999) checked the correlations of the subscales with other instruments such as Conflict Tactics Scale, Index of Marital Satisfaction, Index of Spouse Abuse, and Brief Symptom Inventory. All of these scales significantly correlated with PMWI, thus confirming the discriminant validity of the scale.

There is also a shorter version of the scale developed by Tolman (1999) with seven items in each subscale. Tolman (1999) reported the shorter version to have stronger content validity and excellent reliability (D/I, $\alpha=.88$; E/V, $\alpha=.92$); however, he also warned that its construct validity might be exaggerated by type 1 error. Therefore, longer version of the scale was used in this study.

Although the scale is called the Psychological Maltreatment of *Women* Inventory, in this study it was applied to *men* as well because, as stated by Kasian and Painter (1992), there is no proof that men perceive psychologically abusive behaviors different than women (Appendix B).

3.3.2.1 Translation of PMWI

As part of this study, the inventory was adapted to Turkish. After permission was granted from the developer of the scale, Professor Richard M. Tolman, it was translated to Turkish by three English language teaching professionals from Turkey. Next, these translations were reviewed and the translations that seemed most appropriate were selected by the researchers. Later, back-translation was done by a bilingual speaker of Turkish and English. Finally, back-translation of the inventory was compared to the original one by the researchers to find that the translated items possess the same meaning as the original scale.

3.3.2.2 Validity and Reliability of Turkish PMWI

The whole set of data (N=505) was used in order to assess the validity and reliability of Turkish PMWI. Confirmatory factor analysis is used to test whether a construct that has previously been defined and classified can be confirmed as a model (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu, & Büyüköztürk, 2010). Because Tolman (1989) previously determined that PMWI had two factors, confirmatory factor analysis was used to find out whether the two-factor structure of the scale was compatible with the Turkish sample. In other words, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to find out whether the items confirmed the existing structure. The obtained results revealed that the model was not compatible with the structure of this sample ($\chi^2=5908.79$, $p=.000$, $df=1079$, $GFI=.63$, $AGFI=.60$, $RMSEA=.09$, $CFI=.72$, $IFI=.72$, $NFI=.68$).

Because of the inconsistency between the results of confirmatory factor analysis and the theoretical background, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to discover what factors were formed by the current data. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (.96) and Barlett's Test of Sphericity ($\chi^2= 17593.239$, $df=1128$, $p=.000$) suggested that the structure of current data is appropriate for conducting exploratory factor analysis. MonteCarlo PCA for Parallel Analysis was used in order to determine the number of constructs (Table 3.2). The exploratory factor analysis results of PMWI were presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3. 2. Comparison of eigenvalues from PCA and criterion values from parallel analysis

Component number	Actual eigenvalue from PCA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
1	20.858	1.6529	Accept
2	2.512	1.5805	Accept
3	1.827	1.5349	Accept
4	1.507	1.4944	Accept
5	1.351	1.4583	Reject
6	1.277	1.4210	Reject
7	1.156	1.3905	Reject
8	1.128	1.3597	Reject

Table 3. 3. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of PMWI (N=505)

	F1	F2	F3	F4
Item 17	.830	-	-	-
Item 13	.773	-	-	-
Item 12	.761	-	-	-
Item 20	.727	-	-	-
Item 4	.719	-	-	-
Item 51	.663	-	-	-
Item 14	.655	-	-	-
Item 28	.654	-	-	-
Item 15	.639	-	-	-
Item 50	.626	-	-	-
Item 18	.618	-	-	-
Item 25	.591	-	-	-
Item 8	.585	-	-	-

Table 3.3. (Continued) Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of PMWI (N=505)

	F1	F2	F3	F4
Item 30	.557	-	-	-
Item 46	.546	-	-	-
Item 22	.545	-	-	-
Item 52	.525	-	-	-
Item 19	.520	-	-	-
Item 49	.486	.361	-	-
Item 55	.485	-	-	-
Item 3	.484	-	-	-
Item 11	.462	.337	-	-
Item 27	.454	.409	-	-
Item 9	.441	-	-	.362
Item 2	.421	-	-	.404
Item 1	.406	-	-	.384
Item 16	.367	-	-	-
Item 42	-	.676	-	-
Item 31	-	.664	-	.385
Item 40	-	.592	-	-
Item 47	-	.569	-	-
Item 44	-	.528	-	-
Item 39	-	.505	-	-
Item 48	.462	.504	-	-
Item 43	-	.503	.325	-
Item 41	-	.497	-	-
Item 38	-	.479	-	-
Item 34	-	.437	.331	-
Item 36	-	.430	.358	-
Item 33	-	-	.793	-

Table 3.3. (Continued) Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of PMWI (N=505)

	F1	F2	F3	F4
Item 32	-	-	.700	-
Item 26	-	-	.669	-
Item 35	-	-	.506	-
Item 45	.323	-	.488	-
Item 21	-	-	-	.628
Item 5	-	-	-	.590
Item 7	-	-	-	.486
Item 10	-	.344	-	.434

It can be seen in Table 3.3 that some items have mixed factor loading. These items were examined in terms of two properties in deciding how to deal with them: consistency of meaning and difference between loading scores. If the item had a meaning similar to the factor on which it had a higher loading and the difference between the loading scores exceeded .1, it was preserved in the construct on which it scored higher (Büyüköztürk, 2010). As a result, items 27, 48, 36, and 45 were excluded from the scale because of the dissonance in meaning and/or low difference in factor loadings. The analysis started with 48 items and 4 items were deleted because of mixed factor loading. Cut off point for factor loading was determined as .32 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As a result, a 44-item scale with 4 factors accounting for 55.63% of total variance was obtained (Table 3.4). In the final version of the scale, factor loadings range between .37 and .83. Reliability tests revealed good internal consistency for F1 ($\alpha=.96$), F2 ($\alpha=.90$), F3 ($\alpha=.85$), F4 ($\alpha=.70$), as well as the whole scale ($\alpha=.97$).

Table 3. 4. Percentages of Total Variance Explained and Eigenvalues of PMWI

Subscales	Eigenvalues	% of Variance
F1	20.86	43.46
F2	2.51	5.23
F3	1.83	3.81
F4	1.51	3.14

Another confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to confirm the structure of the final four-factor scale (See Figure3.1). The results showed that the four-factor structure is consistent with the data on an acceptable level ($\chi^2=3574.75$, $p=.000$, $df=888$, $\chi^2/df=4.03$; RMSEA=.08, NFI= .78, CFI=.82, IFI=.82, SRMR=.06, GFI=.75).

The four factors obtained were examined in terms of their meaning and they were named accordingly. The first factor consisted of items indicating belittling behavior such as ‘acted like I was servant’, ‘treated me as stupid’, and ‘insulted in front of others’; therefore, this factor was named mistreatment ($\alpha=.96$). The second factor revealed restrictive and isolating items such as ‘restricted use of the phone’, ‘tried to turn family against me’, and ‘did not allow to work’; so this factor was named inhibition ($\alpha=.90$). The third factor represented jealous behavior such as ‘acted jealous of other men/women’, ‘monitored time and made me account for my whereabouts’, and ‘acted jealous and suspicious of friends’; thus it was named jealousy ($\alpha=.85$). The fourth factor including items such as ‘was upset if house chores were not done’, ‘told I couldn’t manage on my own’, ‘criticized the way I took care of the house’, and ‘called me names’ was named criticism ($\alpha=.70$; Appendix C).

As a result, PMWI was found to be valid and reliable in the Turkish sample with different number of factors from the original inventory. The original inventory

provided two subscales of psychological maltreatment while the current one involves four constructs.

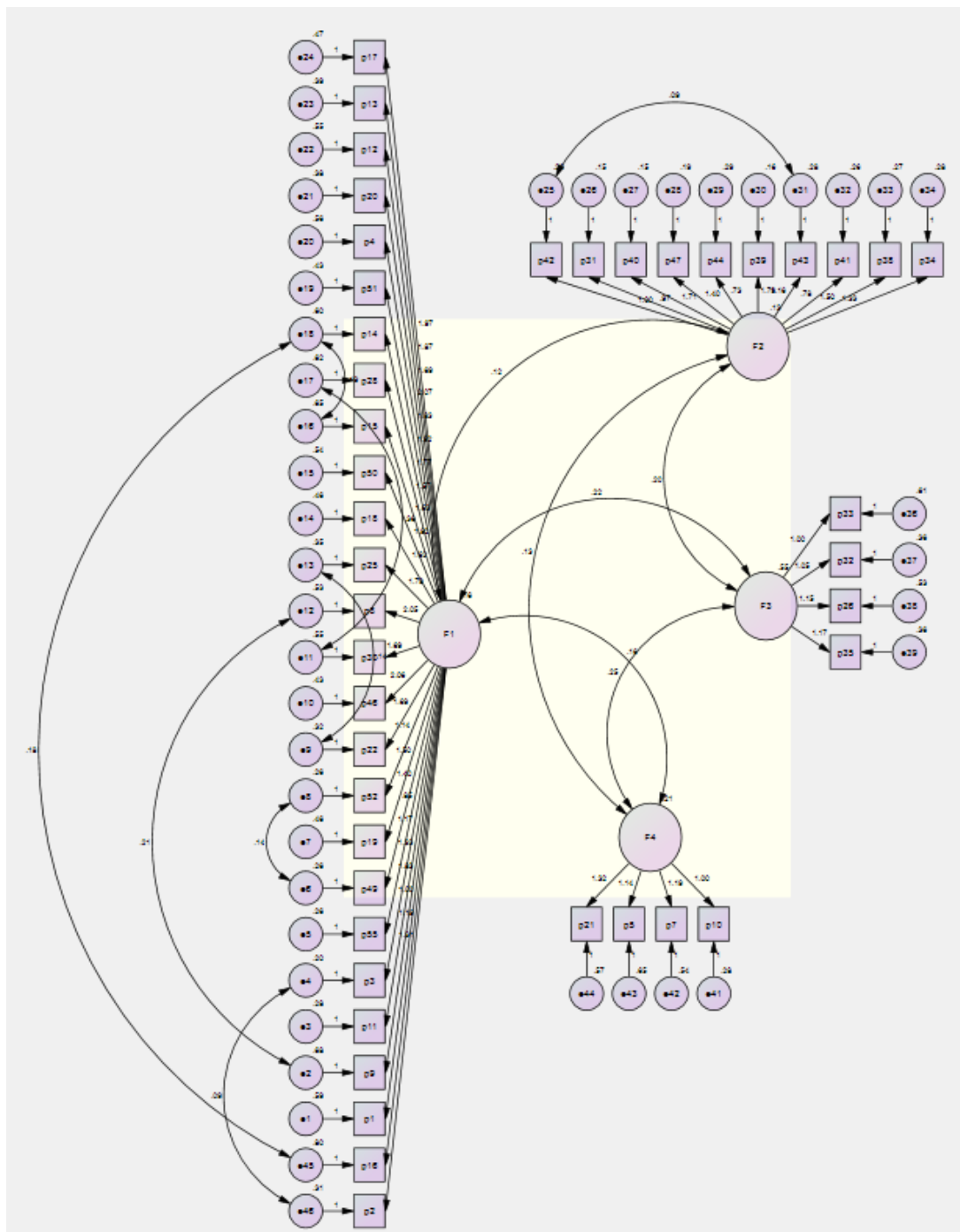


Figure 3. 1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of PMWI

3.3.3 Investment Model Scale

IMS was developed by Rusbult, Martz, and Agnew (1998) and it is rooted in Rusbult's (1980) Investment Theory. The scale has four dimensions that aim to measure four basic predictors of persistence: commitment and three bases of dependence, which are satisfaction, alternatives, and investments. Under each dimension, except for commitment level dimension, there are two types of items: facet measures and global measures. In the original study, facet items were used for the purpose of clarifying the meaning of global items; and only global items were analyzed. Some example items are as follows: "My relationship is close to ideal." (satisfaction level), "My alternatives to our relationship are close to ideal." (quality of alternatives), "I have put a great deal into our relationship that I would lose if the relationship were to end." (investment size), and "I want our relationship to last for a very long time." (commitment level). Responses are collected through 9-point Likert scales (1=do not agree at all; 9=agree completely). Many studies have examined and proved the usefulness and power of IMS in terms of many relational aspects (i.e., stay/leave decisions, perceived quality of alternatives, etc.) within a variety of participants (i.e., diverse ethnicities, various sexual orientations, abusive and non-abusive relationships, friendships, etc.) as well as non-relational contexts (i.e., organizational, communal, medical, etc.) (Le & Agnew, 2003). The reliability was found by Rusbult, Martz, and Agnew (1998) to be good (commitment level $\alpha=.91$ to $.95$, satisfaction level $\alpha=.92$ to $.95$, quality of alternatives $\alpha=.82$ to $.88$, and investment size $\alpha=.82$ to $.84$). The scale is scored by calculating the mean scores of each dimension, using only global items. Recently, Rodrigues and Lopes (2013) adapted IMS to Portuguese and developed a shorter version of the scale (IMS-S) at the same time. They found that the short version was also valid and reliable.

IMS was adapted to Turkish by Büyükşahin et al. (2005; Appendix D). They gathered data from 325 university students who were currently in a relationship. In their study, construct validity of the scale was assessed through factor analysis. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses showed that items of the scale were

consistent with those in the original scale. Criterion validity was confirmed by checking the correlation between the scores of IMS and Love Attitudes Scale (Hendrick, Dicke, & Hendrick, as cited in Büyükşahin et al., 2005). As for reliability, Büyükşahin et al. (2005) examined Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient and split-half reliability of the subscales of IMS. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales were as follows: satisfaction .90, quality of alternatives .84, and investment size .84. Split-half reliability scores of the subscales were .84, .71, and .78 respectively. In addition, the correlation of each item with the total score ranged between .45 and .90 (Büyükşahin et al., 2005).

3.3.3.1 Validity and Reliability of Turkish IMS

The adapted version of IMS by Büyükşahin et al. (2005) was used in this study after granting the permission of one of the adapters of the scale.

Within the scope of this study, construct validity and reliability of IMS was examined again. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the construct validity of the scale (See Figure 3.2). The results suggested that the four-factor model is consistent with the current data ($\chi^2 = 914.39, df = 203, p = .00; \chi^2/df = 4.50, RMSEA = .08, NFI = .89, CFI = .92, IFI = .92, RFI = .88, SRMR = .07, GFI = .86, AGFI = .83$). Besides, the internal consistency coefficient was found to be $\alpha = .85$. Internal consistency coefficients of the subscales are .97, .85, .84, and .87 for satisfaction, alternatives, investments, and commitment respectively. These coefficients reveal that the subscales and the scale as a whole are reliable (Creswell, 2011).

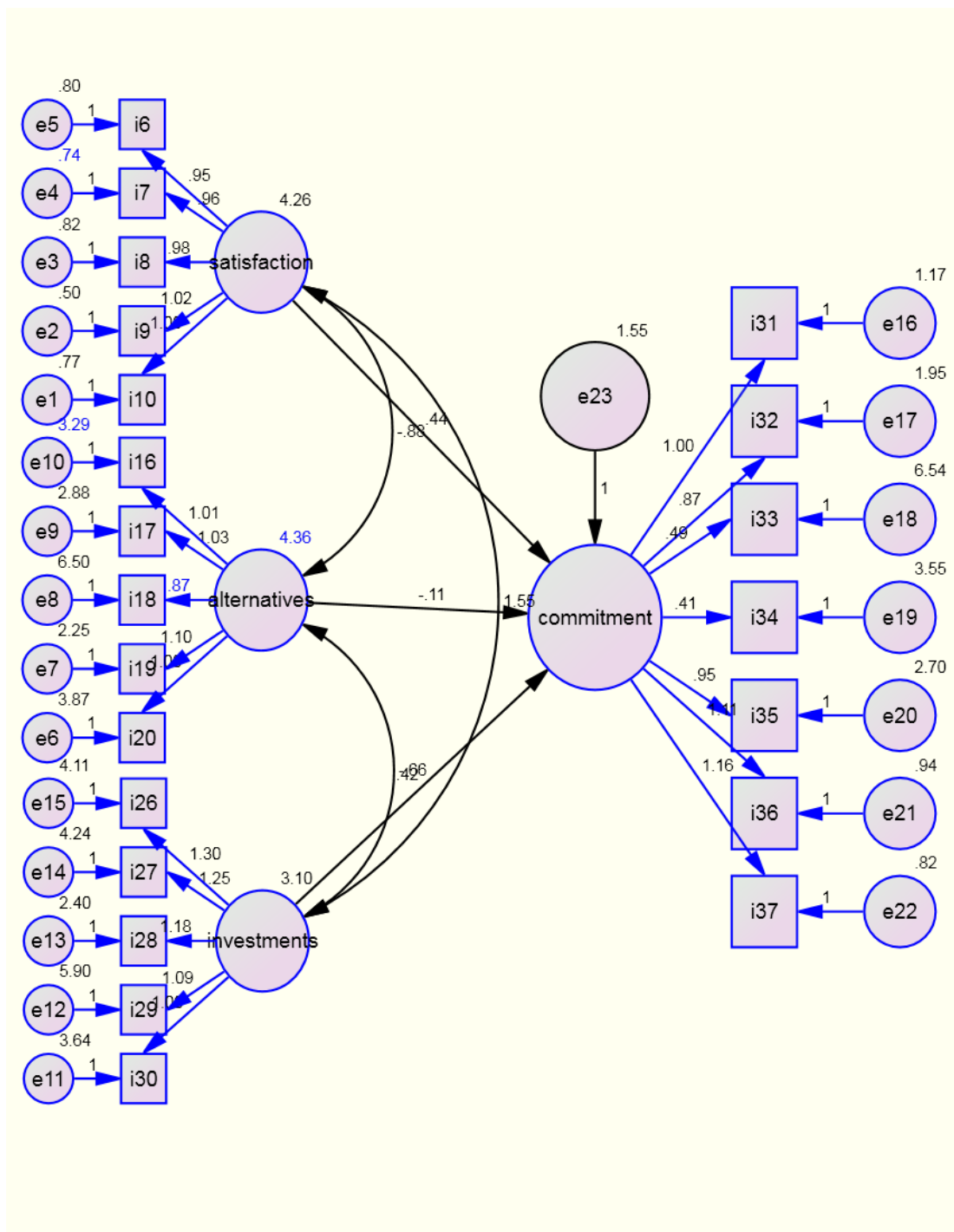


Figure 3. 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of IMS

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

Before collecting data, ethical board approval was received from the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (Appendix E). Data were collected between April 2013 and August 2013 from people working at universities, schools, and other governmental and nongovernmental institutions as well as from people the initial participants referred the researcher to. Participants were informed about the study, reassured about privacy, and were asked to fill the questionnaire if they were voluntary. Inclusion criteria were being married for at least 1 year and being 18 or more years old. They were also informed that they could leave the questionnaire unfinished if they felt uncomfortable. The questionnaire took approximately half an hour to fill. The researcher was present for any questions and for reliability purposes during that time.

3.5 Description of Variables

There are three basic types of variables included in the study: demographic variables, psychological maltreatment victimization, and investment model variables.

3.5.1 Demographic Variables

Demographic variables initially included in the study were gender, age, educational status, employment status, marriage duration, number of children, and intention to break-up.

The first and foremost demographic variable, gender had two options (female and male) and was used to find out the difference of several variables across gender.

Age was binned into three groups using the Visual Binning option of SPSS so that 33% of the participants were aged 32 or less ($n=166$), 33% of them were aged between 33 and 40 ($n=165$), and 32% were aged 41 or more ($n=159$). For analyses that required a continuous variable, the originally coded (non-binned) format of age

was used whereas for others that required a categorical variable, the binned version was used.

Educational status had six categories: primary school, middle school, high school, upper-secondary, university graduate, and post-graduate. It was collected under two categories: below university and university and above.

91% of the participants were currently employed (n=457) while 9% of them were unemployed or retired (n=47). This variable was excluded from the analyses because of a lack of comparable sample size.

Marriage duration was a continuous variable stated as years.

Number of children was coded in two ways. First, it is regarded as a categorical variable representing two groups: (1) individuals who have no children and (2) individuals who have at least one child. Second, it is treated as a continuous variable with a true zero included, indicating the actual number of children.

Intention to break-up (also referred to as stay/leave decision) was the participant's statement of whether or not s/he was considering divorce. It was initially considered to be a part of main analyses; however, very few people (8%, n=39) responded with "I am considering breaking up". As a result, it had to be excluded from the analyses due to a lack of comparable sample size.

3.5.2 Psychological Maltreatment Victimization

Psychological maltreatment victimization was assessed using PMWI and it had four dimensions: mistreatment, inhibition, jealousy, and criticism. Each of these dimensions provided a score calculated by summing the item scores belonging to that particular dimension, namely the total score. The scores did not imply anything on their own; they were only used with other variables to produce relationships. As stated by Tolman (1999), there was no cutting score to indicate the clinical existence of psychological maltreatment.

3.5.3 Investment Model Variables

Investment Model variables were the scores obtained by calculating the average of each of the subscales included in IMS: satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, investment size, and commitment level. In addition to being separate variables on their own, they also formed a model in such a way that commitment level was an outcome of high satisfaction level, low quality of alternatives, and high investment level (Rusbult, 1980, 1983).

3.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis began with preliminary analyses such as accuracy check, reverse coding, missing value analysis, and assumption check. Next, factor analyses described previously in the instruments section were conducted in order to make sure that the scales used in the study are valid and reliable. After that, demographic variables were examined in order to reveal the differences between groups. Later, correlational analyses were conducted to find out the relationships among scale scores. Finally, structural equation modeling (SEM) was used in order to examine the relationship between psychological maltreatment and commitment

Preliminary analyses, correlational analyses, and exploratory factor analysis were conducted with SPSS Statistics 17.0 while confirmatory factor analysis and SEM analyses were conducted with Amos 18.

3.7 Limitations of the Study

There are some issues that can serve as limitations to the study. First of all, generalizability of the study is of concern because it was conducted only in two districts. In addition, data had a non-normal distribution, requiring that findings be interpreted with caution. On the other hand, it is unlikely for any violence data to be normally distributed; therefore, this is an acceptable situation (Pallant, 2007).

Another issue may be confounding variables not controlled for in the study. For example, only one type of violence, namely psychological violence, was examined in this study. Other types of violence such as physical or sexual violence might have a confounding effect and this could challenge the reliability of the findings.

The fact that this study requires self-report is likely a limitation in that some of the feelings and intentions queried in the questionnaire may be difficult to answer for some people. For example, some participants may not be willing to express their intention to leave their partner even if they actually intend to do so, or they may be undecided as to whether they want to end their marriage or not. Some others may find it hard to admit that they find other people attractive. Still others may be uncomfortable to reveal details of their relationship. Moreover, social desirability bias may manipulate the answers.

Participants of the study are mostly young, highly educated, and employed. This limits the generalizability of the study. Findings of the study can only be generalized to young adults with a university degree and stable income.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter demonstrates the results of the study. First, preliminary analyses are detailed. Secondly, results of the correlational analyses among PMWI and IMS are provided. Thirdly, results regarding demographic variables are given. Finally, SEM results are explained.

4.1 Preliminary Analyses

First of all, data were checked for errors and accuracy was ensured. Later, reverse scoring was done for two items in the commitment subscale of IMS: “I would not feel very upset if our relationship were to end in the near future.” and “It is likely that I will date someone other than my partner within the next year.” as suggested by Rusbult, Martz, and Agnew (1998). Later, age was binned into three groups: 18-32, 33-40, and 41+.

Missing value analysis was conducted to find that no variable had more than 5% missing items. As a result, no further analysis (e.g. randomness test or t-test) regarding the pattern or cause of missing items was needed to be done before estimating missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In order to estimate missing values, Expectation Maximization (EM) method was used because Tabachnick and Fidell(2007) assert that it is a wise choice considering the ease it is done with and the advantages of producing reasonable matrices, preventing overfitting, and providing realistic estimates of variance. EM was conducted separately for all scales and for both cities separately in order to increase the strength of estimation. As mentioned earlier in the instruments section, the NA option in the PMWI was also treated as a missing value. Frequency of NA responses were noted down before recoding them as missing values. The items with the most frequent NA responses are as follows: “My partner accused me of having an affair with another man/woman” (10%, n=51), “My

partner was stingy in giving me money to run our home” (8%, n=39), “My partner restricted my use of the car” (8%, n=39), and “My partner was jealous of other men/women” (6%, n=31).

After estimating missing values, a full data set with no missing values was achieved, enabling the calculation of total scores. As stated in the instruments section, PMWI requires that the scores of the subscales be summed (Tolman, n.d.), so four scores are obtained for each person: mistreatment, inhibition, jealousy, and criticism. On the other hand, IMS requires that the items of each variable be averaged to create a single measure of each construct (Rusbult, Martz, & Agnew, 1998) providing four scores for each person: satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, investment size, and commitment level.

Data had been collected from two different districts in order to increase power. In order to avoid any uncontrolled factors confounding the results, the data collected from each district were treated as different sets of data for the initial analyses. After all the missing values had been replaced and total or mean scores had been calculated where necessary, the subscale scores of participants from each district were compared in order to find out whether they could be treated as one set of data. Results of the independent sample t-test suggested that no significant difference between subscale scores of participants from two districts was found in terms of mistreatment ($p=.48$), inhibition ($p=.44$), jealousy ($p=.46$), satisfaction ($p=.08$), alternatives ($p=.76$), investments ($p=.28$), and commitment ($p=.22$); however a significant difference was found in criticism ($p=.01$). After calculating the effect size, magnitude of this difference was found to be small ($\eta^2=.013$). On this basis, it seemed that the data collected from two different districts could be treated as one set of data. Therefore, the rest of the analyses were conducted using this single data set. Descriptive statistics regarding this data set in terms of PMWI and IMS subscales are provided in Table 4.1.

As seen in Table 4.1, all eight variables for both districts are skewed and kurtotic. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk normality tests reveal that normality is violated for all of the variables ($p=.00$). According to Pallant (2007), this is acceptable for several measures used in social sciences because of the underlying nature of the construct being measured. Given that the sample size is large enough and the variables are not expected to have a normal distribution by their nature, this violation of normality can be ignored on the condition that interpretation of the results is tentative (Pallant, 2007).

Table 4. 1. Psychometric Properties of the Subscale Scores of PMWI and IMS (n=425)

Variable	Mean	SD	Range		Skewness	Kurtosis
			Potential	Actual		
Mistreatment	39.24	14.70	26-130	26.00-104.57	2.11	4.91
Inhibition	11.88	4.15	10-50	9.44-37.12	3.46	13.35
Jealousy	6.51	3.15	4-20	4.00-19.00	1.57	2.00
Criticism	5.82	2.39	4-20	4.00-20.00	2.09	5.55
Satisfaction	7.73	1.65	1-9	1.00-9.00	-1.99	4.16
Alternatives	3.39	2.22	1-9	1.00-9.00	.86	-.18
Investments	6.25	2.14	1-9	1.00-9.00	-.67	-.36
Commitment	8.07	1.44	1-9	2.86-9.00	-1.84	2.71

When the mean scores of the IMS are compared to the original study (Rusbult et al., 1998), it is seen that item means possess a similar structure. In the original study, mean scores for satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, investment size, and commitment level are 7.16, 4.69, 5.83, and 7.29, respectively. PMWI scores cannot be compared with the original study because they have different factor structures.

4.2 Correlational Analyses

In order to examine the correlations among PMWI and IMS variables, Pearson product-moment correlation test was conducted. Table 4.2 illustrates correlations among subscale scores.

All of the correlations among the subscales of PMWI and IMS were significant except for the correlation between criticism and investments, inhibition and alternatives, and mistreatment and investments.

All subscales of PMWI were positively correlated with each other. In addition, all of them were negatively correlated with satisfaction level, investment size, and commitment level; and positively correlated with the quality of alternatives. The strongest correlation was between mistreatment and inhibition ($r=.72$) and the weakest correlation was between jealousy and criticism ($r=.50$).

As for investment model variables, satisfaction level, investment size, and commitment level correlated positively with each other while they all correlated negatively with quality of alternatives. On the other hand, satisfaction level, investment size, and commitment level were negatively correlated with all PMWI subscales while quality of alternatives was positively correlated with all of them. The strongest correlation was between satisfaction and commitment ($r=.52$) and the weakest correlation was between alternatives and satisfaction ($r= -.11$).

Table 4. 2.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients among Subscale Scores

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Mistreatment	-	.722**	.588**	.654**	-.543**	.107*	-.077	-.381**
2. Inhibition		-	.583**	.602**	-.463**	.089	-.112*	-.421**
3. Jealousy			-	.498**	-.308**	.216**	-.101*	-.325**
4. Criticism				-	-.364**	.168**	-.079	-.345**
5. Satisfaction					-	-.108*	.333**	.521**
6. Alternatives						-	-.135**	-.289**
7. Investments							-	.473**
8. Commitment								-

**; Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*; Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.3 Results Regarding Demographic Variables

In order to find out whether some variables were related to other variables and whether participants with certain characteristics differed from others with different characteristics in terms of PMWI and IMS variables, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and independent samples t-test were conducted.

First of all, age was found to be significantly correlated with mistreatment ($r=.16$, $p=.00$) and satisfaction ($r= -.12$, $p=.02$). Insignificant correlations of age were with inhibition ($r= .05$, $p=.32$), jealousy ($r= -.06$, $p=.27$), criticism ($r= .08$, $p=.13$), alternatives ($r= .07$, $p=.15$), investments ($r= -.01$, $p=.87$), and commitment ($r= -.08$, $p=.09$).

Marriage duration correlated significantly with mistreatment ($r=.15$, $p=.00$) and satisfaction level ($r= -.12$, $p=.02$) but insignificantly with inhibition ($r= .03$, $p=.56$), jealousy ($r= -.08$, $p=.09$), criticism ($r= .05$, $p=.28$), alternatives ($r= .05$, $p=.28$), investments ($r= .04$, $p=.37$), and commitment level ($r= -.08$, $p=.12$).

Number of children was significantly correlated with mistreatment ($r= .10$, $p= .04$) and satisfaction level ($r= -.14$, $p=.00$); however, it was insignificantly correlated with inhibition ($r= .02$, $p=.73$), jealousy ($r= -.07$, $p=.16$), criticism ($r= .04$, $p=.37$), quality of alternatives ($r= .05$, $p=.35$), investment size ($r= -.03$, $p=.50$), and commitment ($r= -.09$, $p= .06$).

According to independent samples t-test results, there was no significant difference between women ($n=234$) and men ($n=271$) in terms of mistreatment, inhibition, satisfaction level, and investment size. On the other hand, women and men significantly differed in terms of jealousy ($p=.01$, $\eta^2=.015$), criticism ($p=.00$, $\eta^2=.022$), quality of alternatives ($p=.00$, $\eta^2=.128$) and commitment level ($p=.00$, $\eta^2=.023$). Men were exposed more to jealousy ($M=6.86$, $SD=3.29$) and criticism ($M=6.13$, $SD=2.41$) than women ($M=6.06$, $SD=2.90$ and $M=5.40$, $SD=2.30$ for jealousy and criticism respectively). Men ($M=4.05$, $SD=2.38$)

perceived the quality of their alternatives higher than women ($M=2.52$, $SD=1.60$). Women ($M=8.31$, $SD=1.27$) were more committed than men ($M=7.88$, $SD=1.53$). Effect sizes for jealousy, criticism, and commitment are small, with gender explaining only 2% of the variance, whereas effect size for the quality of alternatives is large, meaning that gender explains 13% of the variance in the quality of alternatives (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Another independent samples t-test was conducted to find out any differences between the participants who had below-university degrees ($n=126$) and those who had university degrees and above ($n=280$) in terms of IMS and PMWI variables. Results revealed that educational status displayed significant differences in terms of jealousy ($p=.02$, $\eta^2=.014$) and commitment level ($p=.02$, $\eta^2=.013$). An examination of the mean plots revealed the direction of these differences. According to the mean plots, below-university graduates ($M=7.10$, $SD=3.36$) are exposed to significantly more jealousy than university-and-above graduates ($M=6.25$, $SD=3.06$). On the other hand, below-university graduates ($M=7.84$, $SD=1.69$) are significantly less committed than university-and-above graduates ($M=8.20$, $SD=1.29$). However, effect sizes for these differences are small, indicating that education status explains only 1% of the variance in jealousy and commitment (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

4.4 SEM Results of PMWI and IMS

Structural Equation Modeling was conducted to find out the relationship between psychological maltreatment victimization and commitment level and the mediating effect of satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size on this relationship (Figure 4.1). Since gender was previously found to make significant differences in some of the variables included in the model, the model was tested separately for women and men. Maximum Likelihood Estimation was used to test the model. Maximum Likelihood Estimation is a technique of SEM that is robust to non-normality (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000).

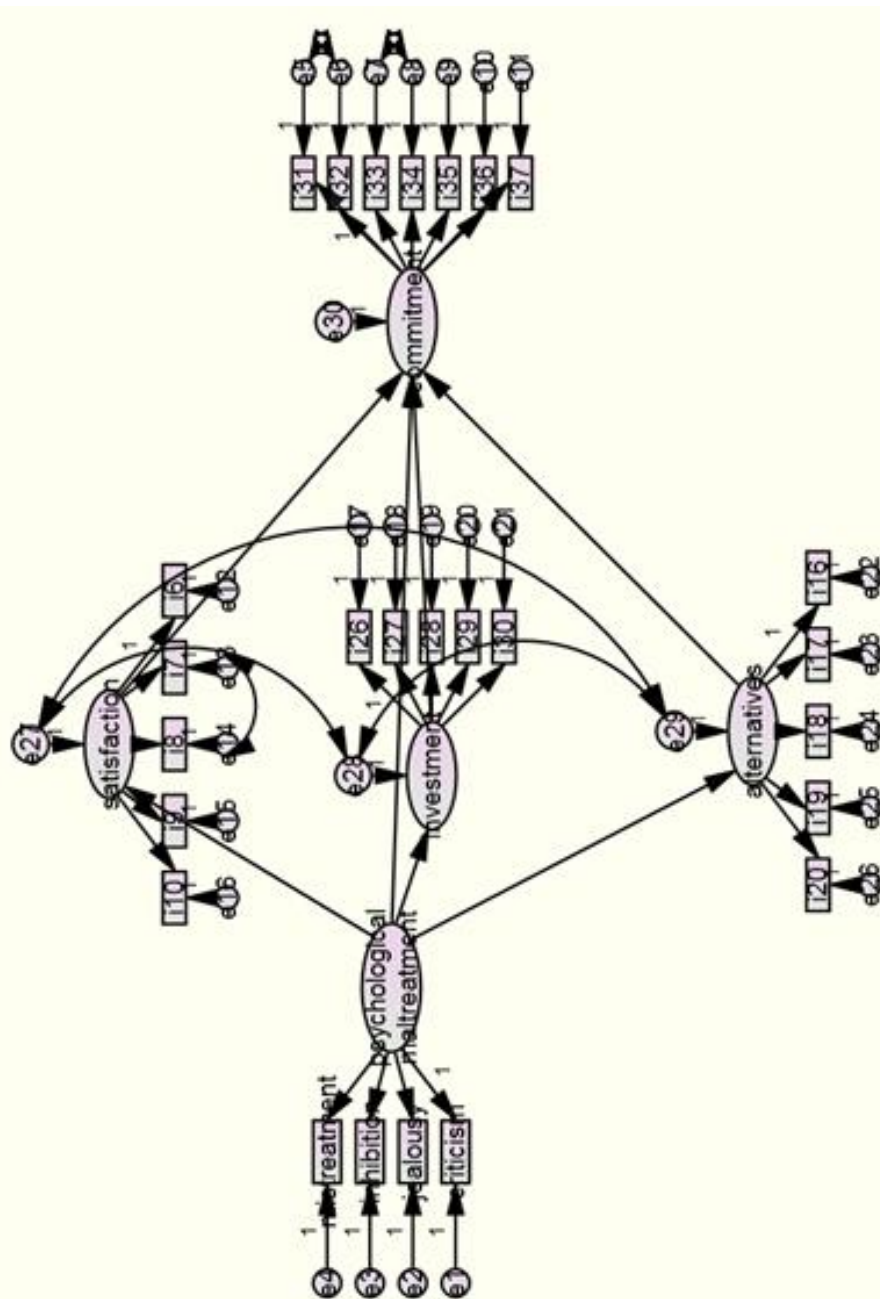


Figure 4. 1. SEM model of the relationship between PMWI and IMS

4.4.1 SEM for Women

First, the model was tested for women (Figure 4.2.). Fit indices of the contribution of manifest and latent variables of the theoretical model to the current model were as follows: $\chi^2=696.40$, $df=286$, $p=.00$, $\chi^2/df=2.44$, CFI=.89, IFI=.89, NFI=.82, RFI=.80, GFI=.81, AGFI=.76, RMSEA=.08, SRMR=.06. Normed chi square indicated that there are differences between observed and expected matrices of covariance ($\chi^2/df=2.44$). In addition, chi square was significant in the model ($p=.00$). Normally, a significant chi square implies that the model does not fit; however, as stated by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), a large sample size may be the reason for this significance, and there are several fit indices that minimize the effect of sample size. Most of the other fit index values show an acceptable level in this model and it can be concluded that the model has mediocre fit (Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Table 4. 3. Maximum Likelihood Estimates for the Model of Women

Parameter	Unstandardized	SE	Standardized
PM → Satisfaction	-.66*	.06	-.77*
PM → Investments	-.26*	.10	-.21*
PM → Alternatives	.09	.05	.13
Satisfaction → Commitment	.07	.08	.08
Investments → Commitment	.17*	.04	.29*
Alternatives → Commitment	-.19*	.07	-.16*
PM → Commitment	-.42*	.08	-.57*

Note. PM: Psychological Maltreatment, *: Significant at $p<.05$

As can be seen in Table 4.3, psychological maltreatment explains 77% of the variance in satisfaction, 21% of the variance in investments, and 57% of the variance in commitment. Investments explain 29% of the variance in commitment and it partially mediates the relationship between psychological maltreatment and commitment. Finally, alternatives explain 16% of the variance in commitment.

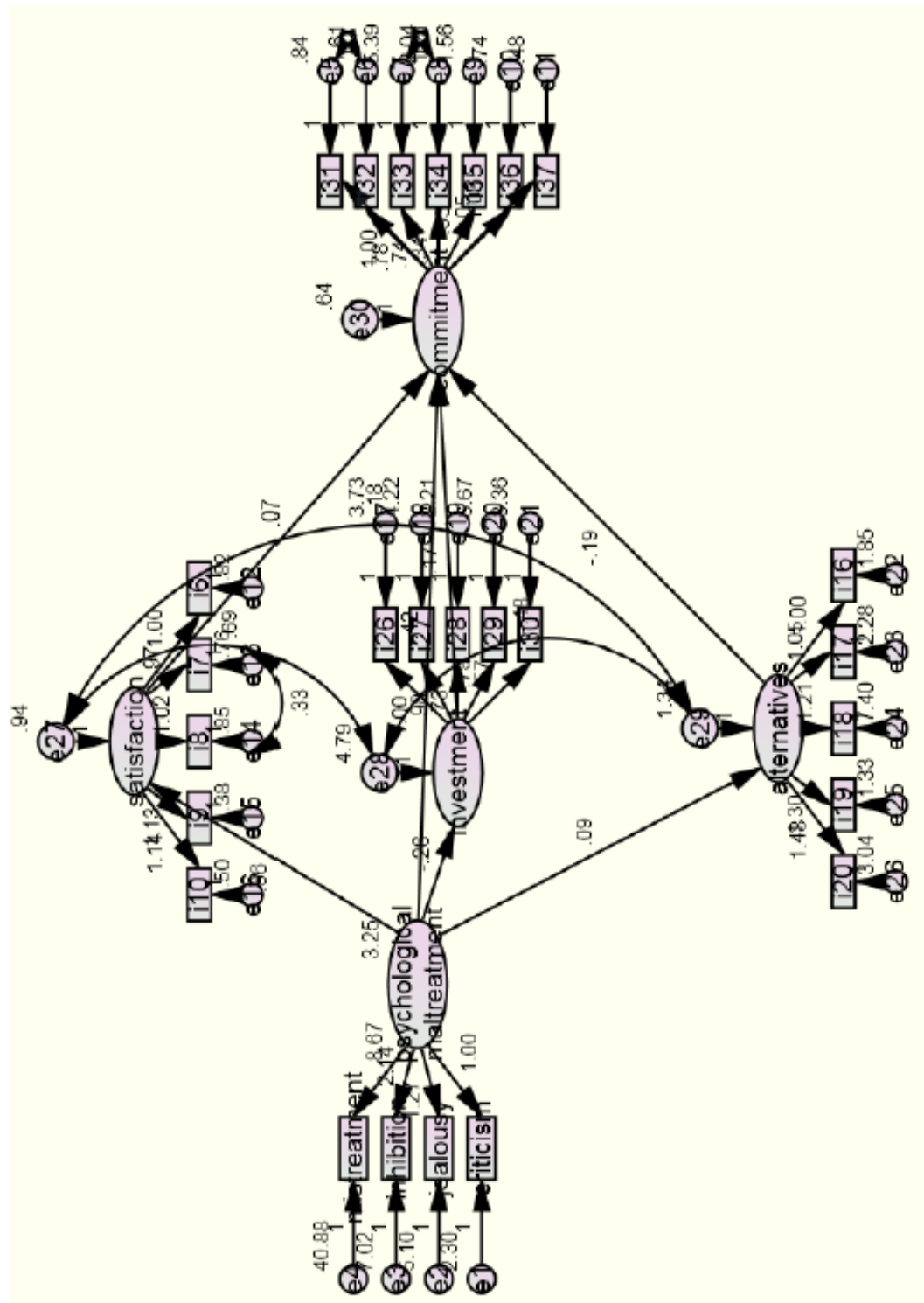


Figure 4. 2. SEM results for women

According to the squared multiple correlation coefficients, the model estimated 86% of mistreatment, 68% of inhibition, 64% of commitment, 60% of satisfaction, 59% of criticism, 51% of jealousy, 4% of investments, and 2% of alternatives. As for the correlations among paths, the only insignificant correlation was between satisfaction and quality of alternatives (-.16) while investment size was significantly correlated with satisfaction level (.32) and quality of alternatives (-.19).

4.4.2 SEM for Men

Later, the model was tested for men ($\chi^2=798.00$, $df=286$, $p=.00$, $\chi^2/df=2.79$, $CFI=.89$, $IFI=.89$, $NFI=.84$, $RFI=.82$, $GFI=.82$, $AGFI=.77$, $RMSEA=.08$, $SRMR=.07$) (Figure 4.3.). Similar to the indices of women, most of them show an acceptable level of fit in this model and the conclusion is that the model has mediocre fit (Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Table 4. 4. Maximum Likelihood Estimates for the Model of Men

Parameter	Unstandardized	SE	Standardized
PM → Satisfaction	-.36*	.07	-.37*
PM → Investments	-.09	.10	-.07
PM → Alternatives	.22*	.09	.17*
Satisfaction → Commitment	.32*	.06	.32*
Investments → Commitment	.33*	.05	.46*
Alternatives → Commitment	-.04	.04	-.06
PM → Commitment	-.14*	.05	-.15*

Note. PM: Psychological Maltreatment, *: Significant at $p<.05$

Table 4.4 displays the regression values of the model. According to Table 4.4, psychological maltreatment explains 37% of the variance in satisfaction, 17% of the variance in alternatives, and 15% of the variance in commitment. In addition, 32% of the variance in commitment is explained by satisfaction level and 46% is explained

by investments. Satisfaction level partially mediates the relationship between psychological maltreatment and commitment.

According to the squared multiple correlation coefficients, this model estimated 81% of mistreatment, 56% of inhibition, 53% of commitment, 52% of criticism, 42% of jealousy, 14% of satisfaction, 3% of alternatives, and 1% of investments. As for the correlations among paths, the only significant correlation was between satisfaction and investments (.44) while quality of alternatives was insignificantly correlated with satisfaction level (-.05) and investment size (-.13).

Figure 4. 3. SEM results for men

4.5 Summary of the Results

Results of the study indicated that data collected from two different districts were not statistically different in the variables of interest and could be handled as one set of data. Scores obtained from the subscales PMWI and IMS were not normally distributed; however, this did not interfere in the analyses because non-normality was acceptable due to the nature of psychological maltreatment and investment model variables. Correlations among PMWI and IMS variables were as expected, almost all of them being significantly so. Demographic and relational variables were significant in some of their relationships with PMWI and IMS variables; and some demographic groups were different from others in relation to PMWI and IMS variables. A structural equation model was tested for women and men, and it was found to fit the data of both samples although the results are different for men and women. According to the model, psychological maltreatment explains an important amount of variance in commitment; and their relationship is mediated by satisfaction level, investment size, and quality of alternatives.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter consists of three parts. First, findings of the current study were discussed with reference to related literature. Second, implications of the current study to the field were examined. Finally, suggestions were made to prospective researchers on the topic.

5.1 Discussion of the Findings

In this section, findings of the study were discussed in terms of the possible explanations and related literature. First of all, adaptation of PMWI to Turkish and validity of Turkish IMS were discussed; next, demographic variables in relation to PMWI and IMS were deliberated; later, correlation and structural equation model findings were examined.

5.1.1 Turkish PMWI

First of all, the study indicated that the original factorial design of PMWI is not valid in the same way when applied to the Turkish sample. This finding is understandable considering the fact that although psychological maltreatment exists in all cultures, it takes place in different ways because of the variety caused by the dynamics of each specific culture. In addition to the differences between cultures, the concept of abuse can also change from time to time (Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009), which may constitute an explanation as to why the original structure did not match the current data. The original subscales were dominance-isolation and emotional-verbal whereas the subscales acquired from the current study are mistreatment, inhibition, jealousy and criticism. Mistreatment subscale consists of almost all items of emotional-verbal subscale. Items of the other three subscales of the current inventory are almost completely derived from only dominance-isolation subscale. Emotional-verbal and

mistreatment seems to be experienced very similarly across people in the USA and Turkey. However, dominance-isolation subscale has three separate dimensions experienced differently by different people in Turkey. This may be because the social structure in Turkey is much more patriarchal than the USA. People in the USA may experience restriction and jealousy as part of the same phenomenon; but in Turkey, they may constitute different interaction styles stemming from cultural norms or perpetrator characteristics.

Items that were excluded from the Turkish version of the inventory are Item 27 (My partner was stingy in giving me money to run our home), Item 48 (My partner blamed me for causing his/her violent behavior), Item 36 (My partner accused me of having an affair with another man/woman), and Item 45 (My partner told me my feelings were irrational or crazy). During the preliminary analyses, Items 36 and 27 had been found to have the highest ratios of NA response (10%, n=51; 8%, n=39; respectively). The reason that these two items did not have precise factor loadings may have partly been affected by this. Another reason Item 27 had low factor loading may be the fact that the majority of participants (91%, n=457) were employed at the time; therefore, they did not take money from their partners, which might have made the item invalid for them.

All in all, despite the items deleted and subscales changed, considering the psychometric properties of the adapted version of PMWI, Turkish PMWI seems valid and reliable for married men and women.

5.1.2 Turkish IMS

Before this study, Turkish version of IMS had been used by Büyükşahin et al. (2005), Büyükşahin and Hovardaoğlu (2007), and Toplu-Demirtaş et al. (2013) in university students' dating relationships. The scale was valid and reliable in all of these studies, and this study once again confirms the validity and reliability of the scale in a Turkish sample consisting of married men and women. Findings of this

study confirm the structure of investment model in that satisfaction level, investment size, and commitment level all correlate positively with each other while the quality of alternatives correlate negatively with all of them. Not surprisingly, this finding is consistent with a great number of studies in the literature (Impett et al., 2001; Regan, 2011; Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult et al., 2004; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993; Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013).

5.1.3 Psychological Maltreatment and Demographic Variables

Psychological maltreatment was found to have differences across different demographic and relational variables. Mistreatment victimization increased with age, marriage duration, and number of children. In addition, people with different educational statuses showed significant differences in terms of jealousy victimization. Jealousy and criticism was experienced more by men as compared to women. Only inhibition was not significantly related to any demographic or relational variable.

Age, marriage duration, and number of children were found to be positively correlated with mistreatment victimization. Older people with longer marriage duration and more children report higher levels of being exposed to mistreatment. These variables did not make a difference in the level of inhibition, jealousy, and criticism victimization. In other words, older people with longer marriage duration and more children experience such behavior as withdrawing attention, yelling, etc. than younger people whereas the amount of restriction, jealousy, and criticism experienced are statistically equal across older and younger people no matter how long they have been married and how many children they have. It should be cautioned, however, that the sample is mainly composed of young people and the word ‘old’ refers to the elder people as compared to other people in the sample rather than ‘geriatric’.

The reason mistreatment makes a difference in terms of age while other types of psychological maltreatment do not make a difference could be that the tendency to perform inhibition, jealousy, and criticism may be stable characteristics in an individual or in a relationship while mistreatment involves more volatile behaviors that depend on instances. Still, literature lacks empirical evidence to support this finding.

The finding that marriage duration is positively correlated with mistreatment victimization is in part consistent with Hatipoğlu-Sümer and Toplu (2011) who found an increase in violence perpetration and victimization as relationship duration increased. However, other types of psychological maltreatment did not increase with marriage duration; therefore, it cannot be concluded here that all forms of psychological maltreatment increase with marriage duration.

The finding that mistreatment victimization increases with the number of children may be caused by the increase in responsibility. As new components are added to the marriage, individuals may be less tolerant towards their partners.

Women and men did not differ significantly in the amount of mistreatment and inhibition they are exposed to by their spouses while they differed in terms of jealousy and criticism. Men were significantly more likely to be victims of jealousy and criticism in their marriages. It can be concluded here that men are victimized not only by at least the same amount of psychological maltreatment as women, but also more in some aspects. This finding supports partly the notion of gender symmetry (Hughes, 2004; Kimmel, 2001; Rhatigan et al., 2005) and partly the fact that men are psychologically more victimized than women (Drijber et al., 2013; Kasian & Painter, 1992; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011).

Jealousy was experienced differently by people with different educational statuses. Participants with below university degrees were exposed to more jealousy than university graduates and postgraduates while educational status did not predict other types of psychological maltreatment such as mistreatment, inhibition, and criticism.

The reason that people with higher level of education are exposed to lower levels of jealousy may be related to the social environment individuals become part of as they go through stages of education and a possible increase in their self-esteem. This may also be due to socio-economic status. Risk of intimate partner violence has previously been reversely linked to educational status and income level (Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009;Thompson et al., 2006; WHO, 2012).

5.1.4 Investment Model and Demographic Variables

Investment model variables were significantly related to some demographic and relational variables except for investment size which did not show any significant relationships or differences with demographic and relational variables included in the study. Satisfaction decreased as age, marriage duration, and number of children increased. Commitment level was significantly higher among women than men and among university graduates than participants without university degree. On the other hand, quality of alternatives was perceived higher by men than women. Investment size did not provide any significant relationships with or differences across any of the demographic and relational variables included in the study.

First of all, age, marriage duration, and number of children were negatively correlated with satisfaction level. In other words, older people of the sample with longer marriage duration and more children were less satisfied with their marriages.

The decrease in satisfaction level with age can be explained by what is expected of individuals at certain ages, as well as what tasks they feel compelled to perform. Younger people may appreciate their relationships more than older people do, while older people may take their relationships for granted.

The negative correlation between marriage duration and satisfaction in this study contradicts the findings of of Rusbult (1980, 1983), and Rusbult and colleagues (1986b) who found the opposite. However, this contradiction may have been caused by the characteristics of the samples. Rusbult's (1980,1983) sample contained dating

undergraduates while the sample of the current study consists of married adults. Furthermore, Rusbult (1980, 1983), and Rusbult and colleagues (1986b) found that investment size increased and the quality of alternatives decreased in time; however, this study found no significant relationship between those and marriage duration.

In the current study, it was found that individuals who had more children were less satisfied with their marriages. Considering the claim that having children is an example of investments (Rusbult et al., 1998), this finding is surprising. Investment size was found to have positive correlations with satisfaction level in the current study; however, number of children provided the opposite results. Investments include several other aspects other than children; at the same time, this stark contrast raises questions about whether children should ever be regarded as investments. In fact, as stated previously, having children may be a relationship cost because of increasing responsibility and making the marriage more difficult.

In this study, gender was not predictive of satisfaction level and investment size, although literature has contrary findings (Duffy & Rusbult, 1986; Rusbult et al., 1998). Married male and female participants of this study did not differ in terms of satisfaction level and investment size; however, dating participants of Duffy and Rusbult (1986) and Rusbult et al. (1998) had differed in that women were respectively more invested in and satisfied with their relationships than men. Still, the inconsistency may have been caused by the relationship type because as Büyükşahin and Hovardaoğlu (2007) stated; married, engaged, and dating individuals are different with respect to investment model variables. On the other hand, men perceived higher quality of alternatives, and women were more committed, consistent with literature (Agnew, Van Lange, Rusbult, & Langston, 1998; Büyükşahin et al., 2005; Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007; Duffy & Rusbult, 1986; Fitzpatrick & Sollie, 1999; Hasta & Büyükşahin, 2006; Le & Agnew, 2003). The difference in the quality of alternatives may be caused by real better quality alternatives, or it might be that men are more attentive to women other than their wives. Furthermore, this difference in the perceptions of the quality of alternatives is

likely to be the reason why women are more committed to their marriages as the effect size of the difference between men and women in the quality of alternatives was large.

People with different educational statuses were different in terms of commitment level. Below university graduates were less committed than above university graduates. This finding is contradictory to that Rusbult and colleagues (1986b) in that they associated lower education level with higher reward value, which would be expected to link to higher commitment. The explanation for this contradiction may be related other factors such as higher victimization to jealousy, which was discussed earlier.

5.1.5 PMWI and IMS

It was hypothesized in the current study that psychological maltreatment explained a significant amount of variance in commitment. First, correlations among PMWI and IMS variables were examined. Later, the hypothesized model was tested separately for men and women and it was confirmed for both samples with different results. Therefore, investment model, which is rooted in Kelley and Thibaut's interdependence theory, has been supported in this study; meaning that satisfaction level, quality of alternatives and investment size predict commitment in Turkish samples, too.

5.1.5.1 Correlations among PMWI and IMS Variables

First of all, all subscales of PMWI showed positive correlations with each other; and satisfaction level, investment size, and commitment level were positively correlated with each other while they were negatively correlated with quality of alternatives. This finding shows that PMWI is consistent across subscales and IMS constructs are consistent with the original model.

Not surprisingly, psychological maltreatment was negatively correlated with satisfaction level and commitment level. This is an expected result because being victimized by psychological maltreatment is a relationship cost, and costs are known to decrease satisfaction and commitment as confirmed by several studies (Impett et al., 2001; Marshall, 1996; Rhatigan et al., 2005; Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006; Rhatigan & Street, 2005). Considering the fact that investment model explains relationship maintenance through commitment, with satisfaction being the best predictor of commitment (Impett et al., 2001; Macher, 2013; Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006; Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013), this finding may imply that the more psychological maltreatment an individual is exposed to, the less likely s/he is to maintain the relationship. However, the literature makes it clear that psychological maltreatment victimization is not the only determinant of relationship termination (Bauserman & Arias, 1992; Edwards et al., 2012; Impett et al., 2001; Kasian & Painter, 1992; Rusbult & Martz, 1995). On the other hand, the fact that the participants of this study are still married confirms the literature in that respect.

5.1.5.2 Structural Equation Model of Women

Psychological maltreatment explains a significant amount of variance in commitment level; and satisfaction level, investment size, and quality of alternatives partially mediate their relationship. The existence of higher levels of psychological maltreatment is accompanied by lower levels of commitment among women. This finding is in line with the findings of Marshall (1996), Henning and Klesges (2003), Arias and Pape (1999), Gortner et al. (1997), and Edwards et al. (2012). Furthermore, satisfaction level, investment size, and quality of alternatives partially mediate the relationship between psychological maltreatment and commitment. The best predictor of commitment is psychological maltreatment, but satisfaction level and investment size decrease the effect of psychological maltreatment on commitment while the quality of alternatives increases it. This means that women's commitment to their marriages is mostly determined by the level of psychological maltreatment they

experience among these variables. In addition, high correlations among the subscales of both scales reveal that the scales are well developed.

5.1.5.3 Structural Equation Model of Men

For the male sample, psychological maltreatment explains a significant amount of variance in commitment level, too, with the partial mediation of satisfaction level, investment size, and quality of alternatives. Higher level of psychological maltreatment is accompanied by lower level of commitment among men; however, satisfaction level and investment size decreases the effect of psychological maltreatment on commitment while the quality of alternatives increases it. The best predictor of commitment is investment level. In other words, men's commitment level is determined mostly by the size of investments they have made into the relationship. This model also serves as a proof that PMWI is applicable and functional with male samples.

5.2 Implications for Practice

PMWI seems to have four dimensions when applied to a Turkish sample: mistreatment, inhibition, jealousy, and criticism. These can be identified as separate constructs of the same type of violence. These constructs are related to investment model variables. An individual exposed to any of these types of psychological maltreatment perceives higher quality alternatives and is less satisfied with, invested in, and committed to his/her relationship. In counseling practice, this inventory is expected to help counselors find out psychological maltreatment victimization because psychological maltreatment does not always have concrete evidences and clients may not be aware of the fact that what they are experiencing is psychological maltreatment. Therefore, PMWI will provide some kind of an operational assessment of psychological maltreatment. Furthermore, each dimension may help develop specific intervention and coping plans.

The current study also provides information about the risk factors for psychological maltreatment victimization. Increase in age, marriage duration, and number of children seem to be risk factors for being exposed to mistreatment. On the other hand, being male could be a risk factor for being subjected to jealousy and criticism. Consequences of psychological maltreatment are not visible; furthermore, it is difficult to admit being victimized for some people. Knowledge about these risk factors can help professionals and practitioners identify psychological maltreatment victimization.

Investment model is widely used for deducing relationship maintenance behavior. Information about the factors that are related to investment model variables provides a better understanding of relationship termination and divorce. For example, drawing on the findings of the current study, older age, longer marriage duration, higher number of children, being male, and being exposed to mistreatment, inhibition, jealousy, and criticism are known to be associated with lower commitment; thus they may be linked to break-up intentions by referring to the literature; however, this is a general and tentative implication not based on the findings of the current study since participants of the current study are not considering divorce. This knowledge about the risk factors related to psychological maltreatment and investment model variables could be used at couples counseling in ways that might help determining the target population to include in preventive counseling and couple relationship enrichment programs.

5.3 Recommendations

Recommendations for future researchers, psychological counselors, counselor educators, policy makers, and public are provided in this section.

5.3.1 Recommendations for Future Studies

Turkish PMWI has been used for the first time within this study. Although it has been found to be valid and reliable, further research is necessary to confirm the

validity and reliability of the scale. In addition, the factorial structure should also be tested with data collected from different populations.

An important finding of the study is the fact that men are exposed to psychological maltreatment at least as much as women do. The general trend to exclude men from violence research should be abandoned and the assumption that women are the only victims of violence should be challenged. This study examined the psychological aspect of violence. Future studies should investigate other types of violence across genders as well as psychological maltreatment.

Future researchers may conduct a similar study with participants considering break-up. Although investment model is widely associated with relationship maintenance, literature does not have a sufficient number of studies conducted with people with break-up intentions.

The current study was conducted in quantitative tradition, which has certain limitations by nature along with its strengths. It is obviously practical to use questionnaires with the advantages of saving time and a greater number of people that can be reached; however, qualitative research is more beneficial in that it is a dynamic method that enables the researcher to build rapport with the participant, observe the nonverbal responses of the participant, and focus on details specific to the participant (Doğanavşargil & Vahip, 2007). Antecedents and results of the phenomena being measured cannot be wholly understood through only quantitative data. As stated by Edwards et al. (2012), further qualitative research should be conducted to get a clearer understanding of the participants' situations in their own words. On the other hand, mixed methods design could also be useful by integrating the advantages of both quantitative data and qualitative data. It is recommended for future researchers who intend to adapt an instrument to another culture that mixed methods research could be much more useful than only quantitative research for a better understanding of why some constructs are irrelevant and what constructs could

be added. A new instrument to measure psychological maltreatment can be developed with the help of qualitative research instead of adaptation.

A current and efficient trend in relationship research is the inclusion of both members of the dyad in the study. It is important to see the dynamics of the relationship from both points of view in order to get sounder information. It is recommended to use dyadic data in upcoming research.

5.3.2 Recommendations for Psychological Counselors

Counselors have an important role in handling psychological maltreatment victimization due to the lack of a general awareness of it, as well as criminal and clinical frameworks to deal with it.

Psychological maltreatment is a complex phenomenon to identify and fully understand. Clients may not always be aware of the fact that they are being psychologically abused, so counselors should know the risk factors, be alert to signs of psychological maltreatment, and deeply explore the symptoms. They should be aware of the seriousness and possible consequences of it.

Counselors should be able to help both victims and perpetrators of psychological maltreatment. First of all, they need to understand what causes maltreatment in the relationship and work on the causes to the extent that they are related to the client. If the client is the victim, they can aim at improving the client's coping skills. If the client is the perpetrator, they can integrate anger management strategies to the sessions.

Counselors should be aware of the hardship of leaving an abusive relationship. They should recognize the factors contributing to the decision to stay or leave a relationship, help their clients understand these factors, and help with the process of decision-making.

5.3.3 Recommendations for Counselor Educators

Counselor educators should be sensitive to the importance and destructiveness of all types of violence and they should convey this sensitivity to their students. Educational curricula should cover violence enough for the students to have comprehensive knowledge and understanding of the definition, types, risk factors, consequences, and signs of violence. Counselor educators should make sure their students are aware of the issue of gender in violence and give attention to male victimization as well as female victimization.

5.3.4 Recommendations for Policy Makers

First of all, policy makers should revise criminal sanctions and renew the laws to be based on human rights. Clear and concrete policies regarding what happens to the victim and the perpetrator are needed. All forms of violence should be acknowledged as an offense, and legal actions should be taken depending on the type and severity of violence. For example, minor acts of violence can be referred to weekly counseling and major acts of violence can be treated with inpatient rehabilitation. Victims should be supported so that they have better options than continue being abused. Policy makers should work together with mental health professionals to define concrete lines of violence type, severity, and intervention. An independent supervising mechanism should closely examine the application of these policies.

Prevention programs should be organized to increase broad awareness of violence and risk factors. Young and old alike should be educated through various means such as school curricula and media. Civil society organizations should be encouraged to take part in and contribute to such programs and campaigns. Hospital and school personnel should be educated and equipped with qualifications to detect violence.

5.3.5 Recommendations for the Public

Public should challenge relationship norms and gender roles that lead to violence. They should think about how cultural conventions, beliefs, and values may rationalize violence. They should be attentive to the sources of violence and they should not tolerate or reinforce them. They should acknowledge that men can be victimized as well and stop stigmatizing them.

The importance of psychological maltreatment and its impact on commitment should be recognized by the public, so that the most common type of violence can decrease and more marriages can be maintained in peace.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Personal Information Form

Bu kısımda sizinle ilgili genel bilgiler sorulmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıdaki soruları eksiksiz yanıtlayınız.

Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın () Erkek ()

Yaşınız: _____

Eğitim düzeyiniz: İlkokul () Yüksekokul/Önlisans ()

Ortaokul () Lisans/Üniversite ()

Lise () Lisansüstü/Doktora ()

Çalışıyor musunuz? Evet () Hayır ()

Çalışıyorsanız ne iş yapıyorsunuz? _____

Kaç yıldır evlisiniz? _____

Çocuğunuz var mı? Var () Yok ()

Çocuğunuz varsa kaç tane? _____

Aşağıdakilerden hangisi evliliğinizi sürdürmeye ilişkin görüşünüzü yansıtır?

() Eşimden ayrılmayı düşünüyorum.

() Eşimden ayrılmayı düşünmüyorum

**Appendix B: Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (Tolman,
1989) Sample Items**

Dominance-Isolation Subscale:

My partner put down my physical appearance.

My partner ordered me around.

My partner tried to turn my family against me.

Emotional-Verbal Subscale:

My partner insulted me or shamed me in front of others.

My partner withheld affection from me.

My partner demanded obedience to his whims.

Appendix C: Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory Translation

Sample Items

Mistreatment Subscale:

Partnerim benden ilgisini esirgedi.

Partnerim bana emirler yağdırdı.

Partnerim bana küfretti.

Inhibition Subscale:

Partnerim ailemi bana düşman etmeye çalıştı.

Partnerim çalışmama izin vermedi.

Partnerim arabayı kullanmamı kısıtladı.

Jealousy Subscale:

Partnerim diğer erkekleri kıskandı.

Partnerim arkadaşlarımı kıskandı veya onlardan şüphelendi.

Partnerim ne zaman nerede olduğumun hesabını sordu.

Criticism Subscale:

Partnerim bana onsuz yapamayacağımı ya da kendime bakamayacağımı söyledi.

Partnerim evi çekip çevirme yöntemimi eleştirdi.

Partnerim bana hoşlanmadığım lakaplar taktı.

**Appendix D: İlişki İstikrarı Ölçeği (Büyüksahin, Hasta, & Hovardaoğlu,
2005) Sample Items in Turkish**

Satisfaction:

İlişkimiz benim için doyum verici.

İlişkim başkalarının ilişkilerinden çok daha iyi.

Alternatives:

Birlikte olduğum kişi dışında bana çok çekici gelen insanlar var.

Bir başkasıyla flört etme, kendi kendime ya da arkadaşlarımla zaman geçirmek gibi seçeneklerim de var.

Investments:

İlişkimize öyle çok yatırım yaptım ki, eğer bu ilişki sona erecek olursa çok şey kaybetmiş olurum.

Boş zaman etkinlikleri gibi yaşamımın pek çok yönü, şu anda birlikte olduğum kişiye çok fazla bağlı ve eğer ayrılacak olursak bunların hepsini kaybederim.

Commitment:

İlişkimizin çok uzun bir süre devam etmesini istiyorum.

Birlikte olduğum kişiyle olan ilişkiye bağlıyım.

Appendix E: Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee Approval

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

DUMLUPINAR BULVARI 06800
ÇANKAYA ANKARA / TÜRKİYE
T: +90 312 210 22 81
F: +90 312 210 79 59
ueam@metu.edu.tr
www.ueam.metu.edu.tr

Sayı: 28620816/ 177

17 Mayıs 2013

Gönderilen: Yrd.Doç.Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer
Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
IAK Başkanı

İlgili : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Senem Ezgi Dedekorkut'un "Bağlılığın Aile İçi Psikolojik Şiddet Kurbanlarının Ayrılma/Kalma Kararları Üzerindeki Arabulucu Etkisi" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

17/05/2013

Prof.Dr. Canan ÖZGEN
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
(UEAM) Başkanı
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

Appendix F: Turkish Summary

PSİKOLOJİK ŞİDDET İLE YATIRIM MODELİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Yakın ilişkiler insan hayatında hayati öneme sahiptir ve sosyal bilimlerde araştırma alanı olarak önemli bir yer edinmiştir. İlişkiler, kişinin hayatını birçok açıdan etkiler. Örneğin, bir kişinin davranışları, düşünceleri, inançları, duyguları, büyümesi, gelişmesi ve hayatı boyunca karşılaştığı meseleler önemli ölçüde ilişkileri tarafından etkilenir; dolayısıyla insanların yaşam deneyimlerini ele alırken ilişkilerini göz ardı etmek doğru değildir (Regan, 2011).

Reis ve Rusbult (2004) ilişki araştırmalarına hakim olan üç temel teorik yaklaşımdan söz etmiştir. Bunlardan birincisi, ilişki davranışını belirleyen eğilimlerin biyolojik kökenlerini temel alan *evrimsel yaklaşım*dır. İkinci yaklaşım, bir bireyin çocukluktaki deneyimleri ve kalıtım yoluyla oluşturduğu ve ilişkilerindeki davranış örüntülerini belirleyen bağlanma stillerinden yola çıkan *bağlanma yaklaşımı*dır. Üçüncü yaklaşım ise insanların bireysel özelliklerinden ziyade ilişki içerisindeki partnerlerin iletişim dinamiklerine odaklanan *karşılıklı bağlılık yaklaşımı*dır. Bu çalışma üçüncü yaklaşımı benimsemiştir. Kişilerarası ilişkilerde araştırmalara konu olan alanlar ilişkiyi başlatmaktan geliştirmeye, sürdürmeye ve bitirmeye kadar birçok boyutu içermektedir (Reis & Rusbult, 2004). Bu çalışma yakın ilişkilerde çatışma ve bağlanma boyutlarına odaklanmaktadır. Özellikle psikolojik şiddet ve yatırım modeli bu çalışmanın temel değişkenlerindendir.

Yakın ilişkilerde çatışma yaygın görülen bir olgudur. Genel anlamda çatışma, en az iki kişi arasında oluşan anlaşmazlık, uyuşmazlık veya benzeşmezlikten doğan bir durum olarak tanımlanabilir; fakat yakın ilişkiler bağlamında bu çatışma zaman içerisinde uzayan, değişen ve gelişen bir iletişim sürecine dönüşebilir (Cahn, 1992). Çatışma yapıcı veya yıkıcı bir şekilde ele alınabilir. Yapıcı bir şekilde ele alındığında, çatışmalar partnerlere zarar vermeyerek tam aksine uzun vadede olumlu

sonuçlara yol açabilirler. Diğer yandan yıkıcı bir şekilde ele alınan çatışmalar ilişkiye zarar verebilir ve şiddete dönüşebilirler.

Dünya Sağlık Örgütü şiddeti, bir kişinin gücünü fiziksel ya da psikolojik olarak kendine, bir başkasına veya bir grup ya da topluluğa zarar vermek için kullanması ya da kullanmakla tehdit etmesi olarak tanımlamaktadır (WHO, tarihsiz). Şiddet her kültürde ve her çağda farklılık gösterebilen ve birçok toplumsal sorunun kaynağını oluşturan bir kavramdır (Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009).

Eş şiddeti, bir ilişkide partnerlere fiziksel, psikolojik veya cinsel olarak zarar veren her türlü davranış olarak tanımlanabilir (Krug ve ark., 2002). Fiziksel veya sözel saldırı içeren, süregelen bu tür davranışlar partnerlerin biri veya her ikisi tarafından gerçekleştirilebilir (Drijber vd., 2013). Birçok çalışma şiddetin en sık aile içinde ve çoğunlukla kadına yönelik olduğunu göstermektedir (Doğanavşargil & Vahip, 2007; Erdoğan ve ark., 2009; Katz ve ark., 2006; Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009; Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006). Dünyada ve Türkiye’de şiddet oranları oldukça yüksektir. Plichta ve Falik (2001) 1821 katılımcıyla gerçekleştirdiği çalışmada, ABD’de yaşayan kadınların %44’ünün şiddet türlerinden en az birine maruz kaldığını bulmuştur. Krug ve arkadaşları (2002) dünya genelinde şiddete maruz kalan kadınların oranının 1/3 olduğunu belirtmektedir. Straus (2004) 16 ülkede flört ilişkisi olan üniversite öğrencileri ile yaptığı çalışma sonucunda fiziksel taciz oranını %29 ve fiziksel yaralanma oranını ise %7 olarak bulmuştur. Altınay ve Arat (2007) Türkiye genelindeki kadınların %35’inin, Türkiye’nin doğusunda yaşayan kadınların ise %40’ının en az bir kere şiddete maruz kaldığını belirtmiştir. Doğanavşargil ve Vahip (2007) kadınların %63’ünün çocukken ve %62’sinin evliliklerinde şiddete maruz kaldıklarını, ayrıca %51’inin çocuklarına şiddet uyguladığını bulmuştur.

Alanyazın şiddetin birçok demografik değişkenle ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir (Altınay & Arat, 2007; Hatipoğlu-Sümer & Toplu, 2011; Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009; Shorey ve ark., 2008; Thompson ve ark., 2006). Bunlardan en önemli ve tartışmalı olanı cinsiyettir. Şiddetle ilgili çalışmalar daha çok kadın katılımcılarla

yürütülmüştür ancak erkeklerin de kadınlar kadar, hatta bazen daha fazla şiddet kurbanı olduğunu gösteren çalışmalar da mevcuttur (Archer, 2000; Chan, 2011; Drijber ve ark., 2013; Dutton & Nicholls, 2005; Hatipoğlu-Sümer & Toplu, 2011; Hughes, 2004; Kasian & Painter, 1992; Kimmel, 2001; Rhatigan ve ark., 2005; The Mankind Initiative, 2008; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011). Şiddetle ilgili olduğu bilinen bir diğer değişken sosyo-ekonomik statüdür (Altınay & Arat, 2007; Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009; Shorey ve ark., 2008). İlişki süresi şiddet uygulama ve şiddet kurbanı olma ile doğru orantılıdır (Hatipoğlu-Sümer & Toplu, 2011). Son olarak, psikolojik şiddet kurbanı olmak, ilişkiyi bitirme eğilimini artırmaktadır (Arias & Pape, 1999; Henning & Klesges, 2003; Marshall, 1996). Şiddet birçok türeayrılmaktadır, birçok risk faktörüyle ilişkilidir, çeşitli popülasyonları etkilemektedir ve gözle görülebilen ve görülemeyen birçok fiziksel, sosyal ve psikolojik sorunlara neden olmaktadır (Krug ve ark., 2002). Bu bulgular ışığında, bu çalışmada psikolojik şiddet ile cinsiyet, yaş, eğitim düzeyi, çalışma durumu, evlilik süresi, çocuk sayısı ve ayrılma/kalma kararı gibi değişkenler arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir.

Psikolojik şiddet, kurbanı eleştirmek ve birçok yönden zayıflatmak amacıyla yapılan ve onu rahatsız eden tekrarlanan davranışlar olarak tanımlanabilir. Kadınlar ve erkekler, fiziksel ya da cinsel açıdan hiçbir istismarda bulunmadan psikolojik olarak aşağılayıcı olabilirler (Marshall, 1996). Psikolojik şiddet doğrudan fiziksel değildir ancak fiziksel bir tehdit içerebilir. Fiziksel şiddet görmüş olmak, psikolojik şiddet görme riskini artırmaktadır (Toplu-Demirtaş ve ark., 2013).

Psikolojik şiddete maruz kalmak bireyin ilişkiyi sürdürme eğilimini azaltmaktadır, ancak birçok kurban ilişkisine devam etmektedir (Arias & Pape, 1999; Edwards ve ark., 2012; Henning & Klesges, 2003; Marshall, 1996; Sackett & Saunders, 1999). Bu durumu açıklamaya yönelik birçok teori vardır ve en çok kullanılanlardan biri Rusbult'ın yatırım modelidir. Yatırım modelinin temelleri karşılıklı bağlılık kuramına dayanmaktadır ve ana varsayımı bireylerin bir ilişkiden elde edecekleri kazançları en fazla düzeye çıkarmak ve ilişkinin bedellerini en aza indirmektir

(Rusbult, 1980). Yatırım modeline göre bir ilişkinin sürdürülüp sürdürülmeyeceği, ilişkideki bireyin ilişkiye bağlılık derecesine bağlıdır ve bağlılık derecesi kişinin memnuniyet düzeyi, alternatiflerinin kalitesi ve yatırım miktarının bir sonucudur (Rusbult, 1980, 1983). Bağlılık, bireyin ilişkiyi sürdürme isteği ve niyetidir. Memnuniyet düzeyi, kişinin ilişkide ne kadar mutlu olduğu ve yakınlık, arkadaşlık ve cinsellik gibi ihtiyaçlarının ne derecede karşılandığını düşündüğüdür. Alternatifler kişinin mevcut ilişkisi dışındaki her şeyi kapsayabilir, örneğin başka bir ilişki veya yalnız olmak; alternatiflerin kalitesi ise kişinin bu alternatifleri mevcut ilişkisiyle kıyasladığında ne kadar çekici bulduğudur. Yatırımlar bireyin ilişkiye koyduğu veya ilişkiyle birlikte kazandığı ve ilişkinin bitmesi durumunda kaybedeceği şeylerdir, örneğin ortak arkadaşlar, birlikte alınmış bir ev, çocuklar veya anılar. Yatırım miktarı da bireyin ilişkisine ne kadar yatırım yaptığıdır. Yatırım modeline göre, memnuniyet seviyesi ne kadar yüksekse, alternatiflerin kalitesi ne kadar düşükse, ve yatırım miktarı ne kadar fazlaysa ilişkiye bağlılık o kadar yüksek olacaktır ve ilişkiyi sürdürme eğilimi o ölçüde artacaktır (Rusbult 1980, 1983; Rusbult ve ark., 1998).

Yatırım modeli flört ilişkilerinde, evliliklerde ve arkadaşlık ya da iş ilişkileri gibi romantik olmayan ilişkilerde de test edilmiş ve geçerli bulunmuştur (Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult ve ark., 1986b). Ayrıca fiziksel, cinsel ve psikolojik şiddet içeren ilişkilerde de incelenmiştir (Katz ve ark., 2005; Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006; Rhatigan & Street, 2005). Psikolojik şiddet ilişkide bir bedel olarak algılandığı için şiddet mağduru evli kadınların memnuniyet ve bağlılık düzeylerini azaltmıştır (Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006). Diğer yandan, memnuniyet, psikolojik şiddet ile bağlılık arasındaki ilişkide aracı rol oynamaktadır (Impett ve ark., 2001; Rhatigan & Axsom, 2006).

Yatırım modeli değişkenleri alanyazında cinsiyet (Büyükşahin ve ark., 2005; Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007; Duffy & Rusbult, 1986; Fitzpatrick & Sollie, 1999; Hasta & Büyükşahin, 2006; Rusbult ve ark., 1998), yaş (Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007), eğitim durumu (Rusbult ve ark., 1986b) ve evlilik süresi (Rusbult 1980, 1983; Rusbult ve ark., 1986b) gibi birçok demografik değişkenle ilişkilendirilmiştir; bu nedenle bu çalışmada da bu değişkenler incelenmiştir.

Özetlemek gerekirse, yakın ilişkilerde şiddet yaygın bir olgudur. Psikolojik şiddet, daha az görünür belirtilerine rağmen çok yaygın ve ciddi bir şiddet türüdür. Psikolojik şiddetin birçok nedeni ve sonucu olabileceği gibi önceki çalışmalarda belirlenmiş bir takım risk faktörleri bilinmektedir. Psikolojik şiddet bir ilişkiyi sürdürme isteğini azaltmasıyla bilinse de, yatırım modeli ilişki sürdürmeyi etkileyen başka faktörleri de öne sürmektedir. Yatırım modeline göre, bir kişi psikolojik şiddete maruz kalıyorsa bile, ilişkisini bitirme kararını değerlendirirken ilişki memnuniyeti, alternatiflerin kalitesi, yatırım miktarı ve dolayısıyla bağlılık düzeyi gibi başka faktörlerden de etkilenmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın amaçlarından ilki kadınlara yönelik psikolojik şiddeti ölçmeye yarayan PMWI'ı (Tolman, 1989) Türkçeye uyarlamak (Psikolojik Şiddet Ölçeği – PŞÖ) ve Türkiye örneklemindeki psikometrik özelliklerini incelemektir. Yazarın bildiği kadarıyla bugüne kadar Türkiye’de psikolojik şiddeti ölçebilen tek ölçek olan Türkçeye uyarlanmış CTS2, ölçülen davranışların gerçekleştiği bağlamları, şiddeti kimin başlattığı, ölçülen davranışlardaki motivasyon ve niyeti göz ardı ettiği için birçok eleştiri almaktadır (Kimmel, 2002). Bu nedenle psikolojik şiddeti ölçmek için yeni bir Türkçe ölçeğe ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır.

Çalışmanın bir diğer amacı psikolojik şiddet ve yatırım modeli değişkenlerini, yukarıda bahsedilmiş olan cinsiyet, yaş, evlilik süresi, çocuk sayısı ve eğitim düzeyi açısından incelemek ve risk faktörlerini belirlemektir. Özellikle şiddet ile ilgili çalışmaların daha çok üniversitede okuyan veya sığınma evlerinde yaşayan kadınlarla yapıldığı düşünülürse, bu çalışmanın evli kadın ve erkeklerle yapılması psikolojik şiddet kurbanı olmada cinsiyetin risk faktörü olup olmayışının yanı sıra evliliğin bağlılık açısından dinamikleri ve boşanma hakkında da ufkumuzu genişletecektir. Böylece henüz klinik ve yasal olarak hak ettiği önemi görmeyen psikolojik şiddet, danışma alanında daha iyi tanınıp ele alınabilir.

Son olarak, psikolojik şiddet ile yatırım modeli değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek için bir yapısal eşitlik modeli kurmak bu çalışmanın hedeflerinden biridir.

Bu iki ölçeğin değişkenleri arasındaki korelasyonların; ve psikolojik şiddetin bağlılığı yordadığı ve bu ilişkiye memnuniyet, alternatifler ve yatırımların aracılık ettiği modelin, alana önemli bir katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Bu yolla, örneğin, psikolojik şiddet kurbanı olup ilişkiyi sürdürme konusunda tereddütleri olan, ama yine de kendini ilişkiye bağlı hissettiği için çelişki yaşayan bir danışana, ayrılma/kalma kararını etkileyen diğer faktörlerin farkına varması konusunda yardımcı olunabilir.

Çalışmanın araştırma soruları şu şekilde sıralanabilir:

1. PŞÖ Türkiye örnekleminde geçerli ve güvenilir midir?
2. Psikolojik şiddet ile yaş, evlilik süresi ve çocuk sayısı gibi demografik değişkenler arasında anlamlı bir ilişki var mıdır?
3. Yatırım modeli değişkenleri ile yaş, evlilik süresi ve çocuk sayısı gibi demografik değişkenler arasında anlamlı bir ilişki var mıdır?
4. Psikolojik şiddete maruz kalma düzeyi cinsiyet veya eğitim durumu bakımından farklı gruplarda anlamlı bir şekilde farklı mıdır?
5. Yatırım modeli değişkenlerinin seviyeleri cinsiyet veya eğitim durumu bakımından farklı gruplarda anlamlı bir şekilde farklı mıdır?
6. PŞÖ ve İİÖ değişkenleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki var mıdır?
7. Bağlılıktaki varyansın ne kadarı psikolojik şiddet ile açıklanmaktadır?
8. Memnuniyet düzeyi, yatırım miktarı ve alternatiflerin kalitesi psikolojik şiddet ile bağlılık düzeyi arasındaki ilişkide aracı rol oynamakta mıdır?

Yukarıdaki soruların cevaplarını bulmak amacıyla kesitsel korelasyonel tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. Tesadüfi olmayan örnekleme yöntemlerinden yargısal örnekleme, kolayda örnekleme ve kartopu örnekleme yoluyla 18-65 yaş arası ($M=37.30$, $SD=8.66$) 505 evli katılımcıya ulaşılmıştır. Bu katılımcılardan %46'sı

kadın (n=234), %54'ü erkektir (n=271). Katılımcılara kişisel bilgi formu, kadınlara yönelik psikolojik şiddet ölçeği ve ilişki istikrarı ölçeğini içeren bir anket dağıtılmıştır.

Kişisel bilgi formu cinsiyet, yaş, eğitim düzeyi, çalışma durumu, evlilik süresi, çocuk sayısı ve ayrılma niyeti ile ilgili sorulardan oluşmaktadır. Ancak, karşılaştırılabilir sayı yetersizliği nedeni ile çalışma durumu ile ayrılma niyeti ile ilgili bilgiler analizlere dahil edilmemiştir.

Psikolojik Şiddet Ölçeği (PŞÖ) Tolman (1989) tarafından geliştirilen ve mevcut çalışmada Türkçeye uyarlanan dört alt boyutlu bir ölçektir: (1) kötü davranma, (2) kısıtlama, (3) kıskançlık ve (4) eleştiri. Her bir alt boyutun güvenirlik değeri sırayla $\alpha=.96$, $\alpha=.90$, $\alpha=.85$, $\alpha=.70$ ve ölçeğin genel güvenirliği $\alpha=.97$ 'dir.

İlişki istikrarı ölçeği (İİÖ) Rusbult ve arkadaşları (1998) tarafından geliştirilmiş ve Büyükşahin ve arkadaşları (2005) tarafından Türkçeye uyarlanmıştır. Memnuniyet derecesi, alternatiflerin kalitesi, yatırım miktarı ve bağlılık düzeyi olmak üzere dört alt boyutu vardır ve ilk üç alt boyut hep birlikte bağlılık boyutunu etkilememektedir. Ölçeğin Türkçe versiyonunun bu çalışmada bulunan güvenirlik değerleri şu şekildedir: memnuniyet ($\alpha=.97$), alternatiflerin kalitesi ($\alpha=.85$), yatırım miktarı ($\alpha=.84$), bağlılık ($\alpha=.87$).

Ön analizler yapıldıktan ve ölçeklerin psikometrik özellikleri incelendikten sonra araştırma sorularının cevaplarını bulmak amacıyla temel analizler yapılmıştır.

Öncelikle PŞÖ'nin Türkiye'de orijinal haliyle kullanılamayacağı bulunmuştur. Psikolojik şiddetin kültürden kültüre, ve hatta zamandan zamana farklılıklar gösterdiği dikkate alındığında bu anlaşılabilir bir bulgudur (Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009). Bazı maddeler çıkarıldığında ve faktör yapısı yeniden değerlendirildiğinde Türkçe PŞÖ'nin kullanılabileceği bulunmuştur. Altboyut sayısı artırılmış ve madde sayısı azaltılmış haliyle PŞÖ hem kadınlarda hem de erkeklerde geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçek olarak bulunmuştur.

Mevcut çalışma, daha önce üniversite öğrencilerinin flört ilişkilerinde kullanılan İİÖ'nin (Büyüksahin ve ark., 2005; Büyüksahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007; Toplu-Demirtaş ve ark., 2013) evlilik ilişkisinde de geçerli ve güvenilir olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca ölçeğin altboyutları arasındaki ilişki modeli doğrular niteliktedir: memnuniyet derecesi, yatırım miktarı ve bağlılık derecesi birbiriyle pozitif korelasyon gösterirken bu üç alt boyut alternatiflerin kalitesi ile negatif korelasyon göstermektedir. Bu, alanyazında birçok çalışmayı destekleyen bir bulgudur (Impett vd., 2001; Regan, 2011; Rusbult 1980, 1983; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993; Rusbult vd., 2004; Toplu-Demirtaş vd., 2013).

Psikolojik şiddet birçok demografik değişken ile istatistiksel olarak anlamlı ilişkiler göstermiştir. Kötü davranışa maruz kalma yaş, evlilik süresi ve çocuk sayısı arttıkça artmaktadır. Yaşça daha büyük, daha uzun süredir evli ve daha fazla sayıda çocuk sahibi olan insanlar, daha fazla kötü davranışa maruz kalmaktadırlar, fakat kısıtlama, kıskançlık ve eleştiri altboyutları bakımından daha genç, daha kısa süredir evli, ve daha az sayıda çocuk sahibi olan insanlarla istatistiksel olarak aynı düzeyde psikolojik şiddete maruz kalmaktadırlar. Burada dikkat çekilmek istenen bir nokta, genç/yaşlı kelimelerinin kullanımıyla ilgilidir. Bu çalışmanın örneklemini büyük oranda genç insanlar oluşturmaktadır, dolayısıyla 'yaşça büyük' ifadesinin temsil ettiği kişiler genel anlamıyla 'yaşlı' değil, örneklem içerisindeki diğer katılımcılara göre daha yaşlı anlamına gelmektedir. Yaş ile kötü davranma arasında pozitif korelasyon varken diğer psikolojik şiddet alt boyutları açısından bir ilişkinin olmamasının nedeni, diğer alt boyutların aksine kötü davranmanın belli durumlara bağlı olarak gerçekleşen değişken bir davranışlar dizisi olması olabilir. Yine de literatürde bu bulguyu destekleyecek ya da reddedecek ampirik bulgular yoktur.

Evlilik süresi arttıkça kötü davranmanın artması, Hatipoğlu-Sümer ve Toplu'nun (2001) ilişki süresi arttıkça şiddetin arttığı bulgusuyla tutarlıdır. Ancak diğer psikolojik şiddet türleri evlilik süresi ile anlamlı ilişki göstermemişlerdir, dolayısıyla bu bulgudan yola çıkarak evlilik süresi arttıkça psikolojik şiddetin arttığı sonucuna

varmak mümkün gözükmemektedir.Çocuk sayısı ile kötü davranma arasındaki pozitif korelasyon, evliliğe yeni bir ögenin eklenmesiyle sorumluluğun artmasının bir sonucu olabilir. Sorumluluktaki bu artışla eşler birbirine karşı daha az toleranslı olabilirler.Cinsiyetin psikolojik şiddet alt boyutlarından yalnızca kıskançlık ve eleştiri açısından fark yaratması ve erkeklerin bu şiddet alt türlerine daha fazla maruz kalması erkeklerin de en az kadınlar kadar, hatta kadınlardan daha çok, psikolojik şiddet mağduru olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu bulgu kısmen şiddette cinsiyet eşitliğini (Hughes, 2004; Kimmel, 2001; Rhatigan ve ark., 2005) ve kısmen de erkeklerin psikolojik şiddete kadınlardan daha fazla maruz kaldığı savını (Drijber ve ark., 2013 Kasian & Painter, 1992; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011) desteklemektedir.Kıskançlık, farklı eğitim düzeyindeki insanlarda farklılık göstermektedir. Üniversite mezunu olmayan katılımcılar, en az üniversite mezunu olanlara oranla daha fazla kıskançlığa maruz kalmaktadır. Eğitim seviyesi arttıkça kıskançlığın azalması, insanların farklı eğitim aşamalarından geçtikçe farklı sosyal grupların parçası olması ve özgüven artışıyla ilgili olabilir. Bu durum sosyo-ekonomik durumla ilgili de olabilir. Geçmiş çalışmalar sosyo-ekonomik statü ile şiddete maruz kalma arasında pozitif bir ilişki bildirmişlerdir (Kocacık & Çağlayandereli, 2009; Thompson ve ark., 2006; WHO, 2012).

Yatırım modeli ile demografik değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiye bakıldığında yatırım miktarının hiçbir değişkenle anlamlı bir ilişki göstermediği anlaşılmaktadır. Yaş, evlilik süresi ve çocuk sayısı arttıkça memnuniyet düzeyinin azaldığı bulunmuştur. Kadınlar ve üniversite mezunları ilişkilerine daha bağlıyken erkekler alternatiflerinin kalitesini daha yüksek algılamaktadırlar. Yaşın memnuniyet düzeyi ile negatif korelasyon göstermesinin nedeni insanların yaşam görevleri gereği gençken ilişkileri daha ciddiye almaları ve ilişkilerinin değerini bilmeleri; yaşlandıkça da ilişkilerini kanıksamaları olabilir. Mevcut çalışmadaki bir başka bulgu ise evlilik süresi arttıkça memnuniyetin azalmasıdır. Bu bulgu Rusbult (1980, 1983) ve Rusbult ve arkadaşlarının (1986b) bulgularıyla çelişmektedir ancak bunun nedeni de söz konusu çalışmalardaki örneklemin flört ilişkisi yaşayan bireylerden oluşmasından

kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Son olarak, çocuk sayısı arttıkça memnuniyet düzeyi azalmaktadır. Çocuk sahibi olmak Rusbult ve arkadaşlarına göre (1998) ilişkiye yapılan yatırımlardan biridir, ancak bu çalışmada yatırımlar memnuniyet ve bağlılık düzeyleriyle pozitif korelasyon gösterdiği halde çocuk sayısı tam tersini göstermiştir. Bu bulgu çocuk sahibi olmanın bir ilişki yatırımı olarak ele alınmaması gerektiğini gösteriyor olabilir, veya çocuk sayısı belli bir rakama ulaştıktan sonra bu ilişki değişiyor olabilir.

Literatürün aksine (Duffy & Rusbult, 1986; Rusbult ve ark., 1998), cinsiyet, memnuniyet düzeyi ve yatırım miktarı ile ilişkili bulunmamıştır. Fakat bunun nedeni bahsi geçen çalışmaların flört ilişkisinde olan bireylerle, mevcut çalışmanın ise evli katılımcılarla gerçekleştirilmiş olması olabilir, çünkü Büyükşahin ve Hovardaoğlu'nun da (2007) belirttiği gibi, flört ilişkisi, nişanlılık ve evlilik yatırım modeli değişkenleri açısından farklılık göstermektedir. Diğer yandan, literatürle uyumlu olarak erkekler alternatiflerini daha kaliteli olarak görmekte ve kadınlar ilişkilerine daha yüksek düzeyde bağlılık göstermektedirler (Agnew ve ark., 1998; Büyükşahin ve ark., 2005; Büyükşahin & Hovardaoğlu, 2007; Duffy & Rusbult, 1986; Fitzpatrick & Sollie, 1999; Hasta & Büyükşahin, 2006; Le & Agnew, 2003). Alternatiflerin kalitesindeki farklılığın nedeni erkeklerin gerçekten daha kaliteli alternatiflere sahip olması olabileceği gibi, erkeklerin eşleri dışındaki kadınlara daha fazla dikkat etmesi de olabilir. Bağlılık düzeyindeki farklılık ise etki büyüklüğü yüksek çıkan alternatiflerin kalitesindeki farklılıktan kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Üniversite mezunlarının üniversite mezunu olmayanlara oranla daha az kıskançlığa maruz kalması, insanların farklı eğitim aşamalarından geçtikçe farklı sosyal grupların parçası olması ve özgüven artışıyla ilgili olabilir.

PŞÖ alt boyutları ile İİÖ alt boyutları arasındaki korelasyonlar beklendiği gibi çıkmıştır: Psikolojik şiddetin alt boyutları kendi içinde pozitif korelasyon gösterirken hepsi memnuniyet düzeyi, yatırım miktarı ve bağlılık düzeyi ile negatif, alternatiflerin kalitesi ile ise pozitif korelasyon göstermiştir. Yani psikolojik şiddet

ölçeği kendi içinde uyumlu olmanın yanı sıra yatırım modelinin varsayımlarını da doğrular niteliktedir. Aynı şekilde yatırım modeli değişkenleri de kendi içinde uyumlu çıkmıştır. Memnuniyet düzeyi, yatırım miktarı ve bağlılık düzeyi kendi arasında pozitif korelasyon gösterirken, bu üç değişken alternatiflerin kalitesiyle negatif korelasyon göstermiştir.

Psikolojik şiddetin bağlılıktaki varyansı anlamlı ölçüde açıkladığı ve ikisi arasındaki ilişkide memnuniyet, yatırım miktarı ve alternatiflerin kalitesinin aracı rol oynadığı hipotezi hem erkekler hem de kadınlar için ayrı ayrı doğrulanmıştır. Kadınlardan oluşan örnekleme bağlılığı en iyi yordayan değişken psikolojik şiddettir. Erkeklerden oluşan örnekleme bağlılık en iyi yatırım miktarı tarafından yordanmaktadır. Sonuç olarak, Kelley ve Thibaut'un karşılıklı bağlılık kuramına dayalı olan yatırım modeli bu çalışmanın sonuçlarınca desteklenmiştir.

Bu bulgular ışığında gelecekte bu konuda çalışacak olan araştırmacılara farklı popülasyonlarla çalışmaları, erkekleri de şiddet çalışmalarına dahil etmeleri, benzer bir çalışmayı ayrılmayı düşünen katılımcılarla tekrarlamaları, nitel araştırmadan yararlanmaları ve diyardik çalışmalar yapmaları önerilmiştir. Psikolojik danışmanlara ise psikolojik şiddetin karmaşık yapısının farkına varmaları, risk faktörlerini bilmeleri, belirtileri fark etmek için çaba göstermeleri, hem kurbanlara hem de şiddet uygulayanlara yardım edebilecek oturumlar planlamaları ve şiddet içeren bir ilişkiyi bitirmenin zorluklarını ve bu kararı etkileyen etmenleri anlamak için çaba göstermeleri önerilmiştir. Psikolojik danışman eğitmenlerine tüm şiddet türlerine karşı duyarlı olmaları ve bu duyarlılıklarını öğrencilerine aktarmaları ve ders programlarını öğrencileri bu konuda kapsamlı olarak donatacak şekilde düzenlemeleri önerilmiştir. Politika yapıcılara tüm şiddet türleriyle ilgili açık ve somut kanunlar ve yürütmeler düzenlemeleri ve şiddeti önleme programları oluşturmaları önerilmiştir. Son olarak kamuoyuna bazı önerilerde bulunulmuştur. Bunlar şiddete neden olan ilişki normları ve cinsiyet rollerine eleştirel yaklaşımları,

erkeklerin de şiddete maruz kalabileceğini kabul etmeleri ve şiddete tolerans göstererek onu teşvik etmemeleridir.

Özetlemek gerekirse, bu çalışma sonucunda psikolojik şiddeti ölçmek için yeni bir Türkçe ölçek kazanılmış, psikolojik şiddet ve yatırım modeli değişkenleri demografik değişkenler açısından incelenmiş, psikolojik şiddet ile yatırım modeli arasındaki ilişki doğrulanmış ve bulgular ışığında araştırmacılara, politika yapıcılara, psikolojik danışmanlara, psikolojik danışman eğitmenlerine ve kamuoyuna bazı önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Appendix G: Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu

TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü ☐

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü ☐

Enformatik Enstitüsü ☐

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

YAZARIN

Soyadı :

Adı :

Bölümü :

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) :

.....

.....

.....

.....

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora ☐

1. Tezimin tamamı dünya çapında erişime açılsın ve kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla tezimin bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisi alınsın. ☐
2. Tezimin tamamı yalnızca Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi kullanıcılarının erişimine açılsın. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.) ☐
3. Tezim bir (1) yıl süreyle erişime kapalı olsun. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi ya da elektronik kopyası Kütüphane aracılığı ile ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.) ☐

Yazarın imzası

Tarih