

PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION AMONG DATING  
COLLEGE STUDENTS: THE INTERPLAY OF SOCIETAL, PARENTAL AND  
PERSONAL FACTORS

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## ABSTRACT

### PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION AMONG DATING COLLEGE STUDENTS: THE INTERPLAY OF SOCIETAL, PARENTAL AND PERSONAL FACTORS

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The aim of the current study is to investigate the role of personal cognitive (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) factors as mediators of the relationship between societal (patriarchy and gender socialization), perceived parental (witnessing interparental psychological aggression) factors and psychological aggression perpetration among dating college students.

The sample of the study was composed of 1015 dating college students from private and public universities in Ankara. Turkish versions of Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse, Sex Role Stereotyping Scale, Socialization of Gender Norms Scale, Conflict Tactics Scales–Adult Recall Version, Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale-Revised, Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, and Demographic

Information Form were used to gather data. A multi-sample structural equation modeling (SEM) was used primarily to test the proposed model.

The results of multi-sample SEM revealed that the proposed model did not vary according to gender and the model explained 31% of the variance in psychological dating aggression perpetration. In general, the associations between patriarchy, gender socialization, witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and psychological dating aggression perpetration were partially mediated by acceptance of psychological aggression.

Consequently, findings supported the significance of societal, perceived parental, and personal cognitive variables in psychological dating aggression perpetration. The theoretical and practical implications were discussed along with the recommendations for future research.

**Keywords:** psychological dating aggression perpetration, societal factors, perceived parental factors, personal cognitive factors, multi-sample structural equation modeling

## ÖZ

### FLÖRT İLİŞKİSİ OLAN ÜNİVERSİTE ÖĞRENCİLERİ ARASINDA PSİKOLOJİK SALDIRGANLIĞA BAŞVURMA: TOPLUMSAL, EBEVEYNE İLİŞKİN VE KİŞİSEL FAKTÖRLERİN ETKİLEŞİMİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, flört ilişkisi olan üniversite öğrencileri arasında, kişisel bilişsel değişkenlerin (psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme ve cinsiyetçi inançlar), toplumsal (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) ve ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenler (ebeveynler arası psikolojik şiddete tanıklık etme) ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmedeki rolünü incelemektir.

Araştırmanın örneklemini, Ankara’da devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerine devam eden, flört ilişkisi olan, 1015 üniversite öğrencisi oluşturmuştur. Bu çalışmada veri toplama araçları olarak Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği, Ataerkillik Ölçeği, Toplumsal Cinsiyet Oluşumu Ölçeği, Çatışma Yöntemleri Ölçeği-Yetişkin Hatırlama Formu, Yakın İlişkilerde Şiddete Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği-Gözden Geçirilmiş Formu, Çelişik



Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği ve Katılımcı Bilgi Formu kullanılmıştır. Önerilen modeli test etmek için çok örneklemlili yapısal eşitlik modellemesi kullanılmıştır.

Çok örneklemlili yapısal eşitlik modellemesi sonuçları, önerilen modelin cinsiyete göre değişmediğini göstermiştir ve model psikolojik flört saldırganlığına başvurmaya ilişkin varyansın % 31'ini açıklamıştır. Genel olarak, psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme, ataerkillik, cinsiyet toplumsallaşması ve anneden babaya psikolojik şiddete tanıklık etme ile psikolojik flört şiddetine başvurma arasındaki ilişkilere kısmi olarak aracılık etmiştir.

Sonuç olarak, bulgular, psikolojik flört saldırganlığına başvurmada toplumsal, ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan ve kişisel bilişsel değişkenlerin önemini desteklemektedir. Bulguların, kuramsal ve uygulamaya yönelik katkıları, daha sonraki araştırmalara yönelik önerilerle birlikte tartışılmıştır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** psikolojik flört saldırganlığına başvurma, toplumsal değişkenler, ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenler, kişisel bilişsel değişkenler, çok örneklemlili yapısal eşitlik modellemesi

To myself...  
and  
To the survivors of dating violence

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background to the Study

Articulated by Erikson (1968), the sixth psychosocial developmental stage is intimacy vs. isolation, in which the virtue is love, the psychological crisis is intimacy vs. isolation, and the existential question is “Can I love?” This stage covers the period of young adulthood from early to late twenties, and even thirties. At this stage, people establish significant relationships with friends; besides, they grow into being capable of forming romantic relationships and making commitments, sacrifices and compromises that the stage demands.

The period of young adulthood corresponds to the ages in which the people receive their undergraduate and graduate education. Therefore, initiating and maintaining romantic relationships is a significant developmental milestone in college students’ life. In the young adulthood, Connolly and Goldberg (1999) characterize romantic relationships as the four phases, in the last of which commitment becomes involved in passion, intimacy, and affiliation, and the dating relationship may evolve into marriage. Thus, as one of the most important decisions, mate selection may occur during college education.

Even not evolved into marriage, those -premarital- romantic relationships, may contribute to physical and mental health of college students. Braithwaite, Delevi, and Fincham (2010), with a sample of 1621 college students (mean age = 20.19) demonstrated that college students in a committed relationships compared to single ones reported fewer mental health problems (an index of alcohol use,

depression/anxiety disorder, seasonal affective disorder, drug use, eating disorder, relationship difficulties, stress), lower obesity, fewer risky behaviors (an index of alcohol, tobacco, and illicit drug use, binge drinking, and drinking and driving), and fewer sexual partners. Similar findings were highlighted in another study that investigated mental health of college students who are in committed dating relationships (Whitton, Weitbrecht, Kuryluk, & Bruner, 2013). Both study suggested that committed dating relationships in college may be protective to students' mental health.

Unfortunately but not surprisingly, not all dating relationships in the colleges are rosy. The incidence that happened in Samsun, a city in Turkey, may be illustrative: "The college student whose throat was slit: I will never forget that moment." A college student (18) filed charges against her college student ex-partner (19) with whom she argued, and then was stabbed. The suspect told that "He could not remember how to do" while the girl told "All through my life, I will never forget the moments that he couldn't remember, he said you are either mine or no one else's and then he did it". Very briefly, they were both college students dating for two years. The day of the event, they had an argument due to a jealousy attack. Then, the woman slapped the man in the face, and upon this, the woman was stabbed in back and throat. The woman indicated that she left her boyfriend several times before to the day of attack, but started the relationship over again since he threatened her to commit suicide. She further indicated that he was showing extreme jealousy, acting in a controller oppressive and restring manner, having the desire to control the places she went, the people she met, the clothes she wore, and decisions she made (Samsun kulis haber, 2013). The case presented was simply a perfect illustration of dating violence. It was newsworthy since it included a more visible form of dating violence, the physical one. The threats of committing suicide to make her back, the jealousy and controlling behaviors, and becoming angry enough to frighten her indicate the more invisible form of dating violence; the psychological one. As in the case, physical dating violence is often preceded by psychological aggression (O'Leary, 1999). Not in this case, but sexual assault may occur, as well.



Research on dating violence has evolved since its inception in the early 1980s and dating violence has gained an umbrella term which encompasses various forms of violence that occur within the context of non-marital and romantic relationships. Anderson and Danis (2007, p. 88) defined dating violence as “the threat or actual use of physical, sexual or verbal abuse by one member of an unmarried couple on the other member within the context of a dating relationship”. Physical form of dating violence includes minor acts such as throwing something, pushing, grabbing, slapping and severe acts such as using a knife or gun, hitting, choking, beating and kicking (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996). According to the pioneering study of Makepeace (1981) on courtship violence, 21.2% of the college students perpetrated physical form at some point in their dating relationships. Since then, a substantial number of studies have shown perpetration prevalence rates at averagely around 30% to 40% (Chan, Straus, Brownridge, Tiwari, & Leung, 2008; Straus, 2004; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011; White & Koss, 1991). Sexual form of dating violence includes minor acts such as making partner having sex without a condom, insisting on sex, insisting on oral or anal sex, and severe acts such as using force to have oral or anal sex, using force to sex, using threats to have oral or anal sex, using threats to have sex (Straus et al., 1996) and has perpetration prevalence rates at averagely around 20% to 30% (Chan et al., 2008; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Harned, 2001; Hines & Saudino, 2003; Murray & Kardatzke, 2007; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011; White & Smith, 2004).

Psychological aggression, also referred to as psychological abuse, emotional abuse, verbal abuse, psychological violence and psychological maltreatment in the literature, has gained attention as a separate research entity and been flourishing over the past two decades. Lawrence, Yoon, Langer, and Ro (2009, p. 20) defined it as “behaviors such as ridiculing, verbal threats, isolating one’s partner from family and friends, and attempting to control one’s partner, and are intended to degrade one’s partner and attack his or her self worth by making him or her feel guilty, upset, or inadequate”. Psychological aggression involves various acts such as isolating, restricting, monitoring and controlling the partner’s activities and social contacts (restrictive engulfment), calling names, criticizing, degrading in front of other

people, saying the partner is ugly and worthless, saying that else would be a better partner (denigration), sulking, refusing to talk, behaving cold (hostile withdrawal), and becoming angry enough to frighten, threatening to hit, and threatening to throw something (dominance/intimidation) (Murphy & Hoover, 1999). Compared to physical and sexual forms of dating violence, the prevalence rates of psychological aggression perpetration are alarmingly high at averagely around 70% to 80%, and reaching as high as 90% (Harned, 2001; Hines & Saudino, 2003; Jenkins & Aube, 2002; Leisring, 2013; Munoz-Rivas, Gomez, O'Leary, & Lozano, 2007; Neufeld, McNamara, & Ertl, 1999; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011). The terms psychological (dating) aggression, psychological (dating) aggression perpetration and use of psychological (dating) aggression are used interchangeably throughout this study unless otherwise stated.

Unbeknownst to many, psychological dating aggression has been shown to be a precursor and accompanier of physical and sexual assault, in the current or later dating relationships (Frieze, 2000; Murphy & O'Leary, 1989), and it has been a robust predictor of aggression in marital relationships (White, Merrill, & Koss, 2001). Psychological aggression has negative impacts on the mental health of both victims (Follingstad, 2009) and perpetrators (Shorey et al., 2012) and this impact, though less visible, is more profound (Follingstad, Rutledge, Berg, Hause, & Polek, 1990). Yet, college students do not perceive psychological aggression as serious, harmful and abusive; quite the contrary, they normalize it (Williams, South-Richardson, Hammock, & Janit, 2012), which, in the long term, may promote the use of it. Consequently, given the flourishing nature, high prevalence, precursor and accompanier effect, negative profound impacts, and lower noticeability in perceptions, psychological aggression perpetration in dating relationships among college students deserves further investigation.

The body of knowledge which has been collectively endorsed so far is of value; yet, to understand the etiology of psychological aggression, much systemic work is required. To date, there is no theory that addresses dating violence in general or psychological dating aggression in specific. Rather, the theories are adapted from

marital to dating grounds. Any single theory would be fall short to make sense of psychological dating aggression perpetration, which is why earlier studies proposed multifaceted models from different theoretical backgrounds (i.e., Alexander, Moore, & Alexander, 1991; Bell & Naugle, 2008; Follingstad, Bradley, Helff, & Laughlin, 2002; Karakurt, Keiley, & Posada, 2013; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001) such as Feminist Theory (Dobash & Dobash, 1979), Conflict (Power) Theory (Straus, 1979), Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1971), and Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1969). For example, Bell and Naugle's (2008) model integrated and expanded previous theories and models such as Social Learning Theory, and Background and Situational Model (Riggs & O'Leary, 1989) as well as Behavior Analytic Theory (Myers, 1995). Riggs and O'Leary (1989) incorporated the theories of Social Learning and Conflict while developing "Background and Situational" model. Follingstad et al. (2002) based their model on the Attachment and Feminist Theory. Karakurt et al. (2013) added Social Learning Theory on Follingstad et al. (2002).

The choice of theoretical framework in the present study has been guided by a number of criteria. The first one is the belief that science is nourished from the needs of the society. Dating violence in Turkey is a public -but preventable- concern with devastating consequences for individuals, families, and the society. The second one is the dominant values of Turkish culture shared by most of the individuals and families. Turkish culture has been regarded as largely patriarchal (Arat, 1994; Kağıtçıbaşı 1982; Okman-Fişek 1982; Sakallı, 2001) and accordingly the families (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982; Kandiyoti, 1995). The third one is the cumulative knowledge that psychological aggression research warranted thus far while studying multifaceted models. Based on these criteria, as the initial attempt, the researcher incorporated two prominent and influential theories; Feminist Theory (Dobash & Dobash, 1979) and Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1971) to propose a model. The former points to societal roots while the latter to parental as the etiology of psychological aggression (Woodin & O'Leary, 2009). Very broadly, according to Feminist Theory, people are born and socialized into a society with clear-cut gender roles and shared cultural beliefs such as patriarchal doctrines as the distal factors in aggression in intimate relationships (Dobash & Dobash, 1979). According to Social Learning Theory,

individuals learn how to act aggressively toward their partners by witnessing and experiencing aggression directly through classical/operant conditioning and observational learning or indirectly through cognitive-behavioral processes (Bandura, 1973).

In Turkey, patriarchy is highly valued as a cultural norm (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982). People are born into a society with clear cut gender roles and clear patriarchal ideologies. Hence, one cannot expect psychological aggression to keep out of societal influences of patriarchy. As the basic antecedent variable of Feminist Theory and societal variable of the proposed model, the association of patriarchy to use of psychological aggression among dating college students has recently awakened interest. Thus, research is limited but still revealing. Scholars have examined the association of use of psychological aggression with variables such as gender-related constructs (Jenkins & Aube, 2002), masculinity (Franchina, Eisler, & Moore, 2001), threat susceptibility (Hammock & O'Hearn, 2002), the need for controlling (Dye & Davis, 2003; Follingstad et al., 2002), dominance (Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013) and power (Hatipoğlu-Sümer & Toplu, 2011). Precisely, those studies highlighted positive associations between patriarchy and psychological aggression. Distinctly, gender differences appeared in some of them (Jenkins & Aube, 2002; Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012). To illustrate, Jenkins and Aube (2002) stated that college dating women with more and college dating men with less egalitarian gendered ideologies were more likely to engage in psychological aggression perpetration.

As the micro level of societies, families are not free from the influential impact of societal patriarchy and are founded on a patriarchal basis (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982). From the very early moments of life, from the birth and childhood particularly, individuals constantly receive messages regarding what behaviors and beliefs are gender appropriate or not from their parents and thus reinforce the behaviors and beliefs. Epstein (2008) wanted to know whether a conflict arises when the gendered messages from the family contradicts with individual's own gender beliefs. Thus, derived from Feminist Theory, gender socialization emerged as the second societal variable. Unfortunately, empirical research into the relation of gender socialization to

use of psychological aggression is absolutely scarce. This largely stems from the fact that available research conceptualized gender as individualistic rather than societal perspectives (Anderson, 2005) and relied on femininity-masculinity dimensions. Thus, inspired from Epstein (2008), the researcher conceptualized that gendered messages that college students received from their families while growing up might, in the long run, promote use of psychological aggression among dating college students.

Along with being born into a patriarchal society and socialized into a gendered being by the families, individuals may grow up in the families in which they learn how to act psychologically aggressive and/or accept acting psychologically aggressive by witnessing interparental psychological aggression. Witnessing interparental psychological aggression is one of the basic antecedents of Social Learning Theory and perceived parental variable of the proposed model. Contrary to patriarchy and gender socialization, witnessing father to mother and mother to father psychological aggression and their relations to use of psychological dating aggression have captured the attention of many researchers. Most of the findings (i.e., Avakame, 1998; Black, Sussman, & Unger, 2010; Cui, Durtschi, Donnellan, Lorenz, & Conger, 2010; Karakurt et al., 2013; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001; White & Humprey, 1994) have supported the notion that witnessing interparental aggression plays a vital role, which is direct. However, some other findings have bolstered the notion that the effect of witnessing interparental aggression is carried through mediators such as gender-related attitudes (Alexander et al., 1991; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001), acceptance of psychological aggression (Aloia & Solomon, 2013), and acceptance of dating aggression (Clarey, Hokoda, & Ulloa, 2010; O'Keefe, 1998; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). Gender was complicatedly influential.

The distal factors in psychological aggression research are often mediated through their influence on more proximal factors. As the micro-social expressions and reflections of broader society and family, proximal factors are also influential in the psychological dating aggression perpetration as mediators. The mediators answer the question unreciprocated; that is, why not every college student born into a patriarchal

society and aggressive families develop psychologically aggressive behaviors toward their dating partners. Other than the current theoretical frameworks of the study, research based on different theoretical approaches (e.g., Social Information Processing Model, the Theory of Planned Behavior, Cognitive Behavioral Theory) attempts to answer the above question by emphasizing the personal characteristics as well (i.e., cognitive processes, emotional processes, previous experiences, skills, values). These theories, in general, allege that individuals actively determine their behaviors and chose how to act according to those personal characteristics. For instance, Social Information Processing Model of dating violence perpetration puts great emphasis on personal cognitive factors (Murphy, 2013). Likewise, Kernsmith and Tolman (2011) applied the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985) to dating violence and proposed that aggressive behaviors are the function of intentions which are shaped by attitudes, and the beliefs behind the attitudes. The intentions, attitudes, and beliefs are considered as personal cognitive factors. More importantly, both the Feminist Theory and Social Learning Theory introduce mediating role of personal cognitive variables as the indirect reflections of societal and parental influences (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1993; O’Leary, 1988). Thus, investigating personal cognitive factors as mediators of proximal factors (societal and perceived parental) of psychological dating aggression perpetration seems merit to discover as potential pathways.

Depending upon a theoretical framework or not, there are a great number of personal cognitive factors studied as mediators in dating violence perpetration literature. Sexist beliefs (Archer & Graham-Kevan, 2003; Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013; Lisco, Parrott, & Teten Tharp, 2012; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001), egalitarian attitudes (Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013), justification of violence (Eriksson & Mazerolle, 2015), conservative attitudes (Alexander et al., 1991), acceptability of aggression (Aloia & Solomon, 2013; Capezza & Arriaga, 2008; Clarey, et al., 2010; O’Hearn & Margolin, 2000; O’Keefe, 1998; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001; Straus, 2004; White & Humprey), attitudes toward woman (Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001; Shook, Gerrity, Jurich, & Segrist, 2000), attitudes toward violence (Nabors & Jasinski, 2009), attitudes toward wife beating (Eriksson &

Mazerolle, 2015), and rape myth acceptance (Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). Given the number of studies, significant results emerged from those studies, and the outcome variable of interest, the variables of sexist beliefs and acceptance of aggression come to the forefront. Moreover, they are congruent and recommended by the theoretical frameworks of the study (i.e., DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1993; Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). Researchers that applied theories other than the current ones stress the importance of the choice of those variables, as well. Murphy (2013), for example, laid great emphasis on the acceptability of violence while integrating Social Information Processing Model of intimate partner violence perpetration. Kernsmith and Tolman (2011), on the other hand, highlighted the significance of beliefs, stating that behaviors might be the ultimate results of beliefs. Furthermore, considering the sexist nature of Turkish culture (Abadan-Unat, 1982; Hortaçsu, 2000; İmamoğlu, 1992; Sakallı, 2001), individually held sexist beliefs and acceptability of aggression correspond to the literature.

As the personal cognitive variable of the current study, the linkage of acceptance of psychological aggression to use of psychological aggression has been increasingly popular. Findings have consistently fostered the assertion that acceptability of psychological aggression may put the college students at increased risk of psychological aggression perpetration (Aloia & Solomon, 2013; Capezza & Arriaga, 2008; Fincham, Cui, Braithwaite, & Pasley, 2008; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). The mediating role of acceptability of psychological aggression between the relations of perceived parental and societal variables and psychological aggression perpetration was confirmed, as well (i.e., O'Hearn & Margolin, 2000; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001).

As the other personal cognitive variable, the connection of sexist beliefs to use of psychological aggression have not yet been clearly documented as in the one in physical and sexual assault; yet promising findings have recently emerged (Forbes, Adam-Curtis, Pakalka, & White, 2006; Forbes, Adam-Curtis, & White, 2004; Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013; Rojas-Solis & Raimundez, 2011;

Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001; Ryan & Kanjorski, 1993). Sexist beliefs research, to a great extent, utilizes the Ambivalent Sexism Theory posited by Glick and Fiske (1996). The theory conceptualizes sexism as bi-dimensional; hostile and benevolent sexism. Due to the interrelatedness of hostile and benevolent sexism, and lack of literature, researchers integrated both dimensions into their studies (Forbes et al., 2004; Forbes et al., 2006; Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013; Rojas-Solis & Raimundez, 2011). Rather than benevolent sexism, hostile sexism has explicitly been linked to use of psychological aggression, or the contribution of hostile sexism was moderate to strong while the contribution of benevolent sexism was weak or weak to strong (Forbes et al., 2004; Forbes et al., 2006; Rojas-Solis & Raimundez, 2011). The mediating role of sexist beliefs between the relations of perceived parental and societal variables and psychological aggression perpetration was confirmed, as well (i.e., Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001).

Consequently, as societal variables, derived from feminist theory, patriarchy and gender socialization, as perceived parental variables, derived from social learning theory, witnessing interparental psychological aggression, as personal cognitive variables acceptability of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs were blended to capture the complexity of psychological dating aggression perpetration in the current study. Witnessing interparental psychological aggression was regarded as “perceived parental” due to its retrospective design. The researcher asked the participants to recall their witnessing of interparental psychological aggression while growing up.

The role of gender in psychological dating aggression perpetration is seriously challenging. Some researchers have come up with gender differences on behalf of college women regarding prevalence (Gover, Kaukinen, & Fox, 2008; Munoz-Rivas et al., 2007; Perry & Fromuth, 2005) while most others have not (Dye & Davis, 2003; Forbes et al., 2004; Gormley & Lopez, 2010; Harned, 2001; Hines & Saudino, 2003; Jenkins & Aube, 2002; Shook et al. 2000). Regarding structural associations, again, much of the literature is polemical, which is in most part due to statistical analyses utilized. Separate analyses of males and females have undoubtedly revealed differences (Gormley & Lopez, 2010; Gover et al., 2008; Hammock & O’Hearn,



2002; Sharpe & Taylor, 1999). In order to ascertain if a true gender difference exist, a multi-sample structural equation modeling appears to be useful statistical approach to test the proposed model (Byrne, 2004; Kline, 2005; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Multiple sample modeling is considered when various subsamples of the overall sample exist. Each subsample -women and men subsamples in this case- is simultaneously evaluated. The purpose of the researcher is to seek whether the model proposed holds for each of the subsamples or some differences emerge among the subsamples. Additionally, Johnson's (1995) distinguished violence as intimate terrorism and common couple based on the social and cultural context, types of the violence, and motives of the perpetrators. According to this typology, psychological dating aggression might be regarded as common couple violence, which is gender-independent, more frequent but minor.

Unparalleled to international psychological dating aggression literature, research into use of psychological aggression has been rare in Turkey though there has been a growing interest. The available empirical evidence on psychological dating aggression has been limited to prevalence and correlational studies mostly. Psychological dating aggression has been linked to power perception and power satisfaction (Hatipoğlu-Sümer & Toplu, 2011; İnan-Arslan, 2002) and attitudes toward psychological dating aggression (Yumuşak, 2013). To meet the need for assessing psychological aggression, adaptation (Emotional Abuse Questionnaire, Karakurt, Ergüner-Tekinalp, & Terzi, 2009; Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse, Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013) and development (Romantic Relationship Assessment Inventory, Kılınçer & Tuzgöl-Dost, 2013) studies have been carried out. Besides these, efforts devoted to search for the prevalence of psychological aggression (İnan-Arslan, 2002; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011). Most importantly, there has been no study on the test of a proposed model, utilizing theoretical frameworks and on the development of prevention and intervention programs which are tailored to reflect unique characteristics of Turkish culture.

## **1.2 Purpose of the Study**

With the stream of research in mind, the purpose of the study is to investigate the role of societal, perceived parental, and personal cognitive variables in an effort to understand use of psychological dating aggression among Turkish college students based on Feminist and Social Learning theories. More specifically, the study examines the structural relationships among patriarchy, gender socialization (societal), witnessing mother to father and mother to mother psychological aggression (perceived parental), acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs (personal cognitive factors) and use of psychological dating aggression, and the extent to which the combination of those variables explain for use of psychological dating aggression among college students. Additionally, the study explores not only direct paths from societal, perceived parental, and personal cognitive variables but also the indirect paths through personal cognitive variables. Figure 1.1 presents the conceptual structure of the proposed model of the present study.

According to the proposed model, with the purpose in mind, the study addresses the following research questions.

1. To what extent do societal (patriarchy, gender socialization), perceived parental (witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, witnessing father to mother psychological aggression), and personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs) predict use of psychological dating aggression among college students?

- 1.1. To what extent do societal (patriarchy, gender socialization) variables directly predict use of psychological dating aggression among college students?

1.2. To what extent do societal (patriarchy, gender socialization) variables directly predict personal cognitive factors (acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs)?

1.3. To what extent do perceived parental (witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, witnessing father to mother psychological aggression) variables directly predict use of psychological aggression?

1.4. To what extent do perceived parental (witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, witnessing father to mother psychological aggression) variables directly predict personal cognitive factors (acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs)?

1.5. To what extent do personal cognitive factors (acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs) predict use of psychological aggression?

1.6. To what extent do personal cognitive factors (acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs) mediate the potential effect of societal (patriarchy, gender socialization) variables on use of psychological aggression?

1.7. To what extent do personal cognitive factors (acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs) mediate the potential effects of perceived parental (witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, witnessing father to mother psychological aggression) variables on use of psychological aggression?

2. Do the hypothesized relationships under the first question differ with regard to gender?

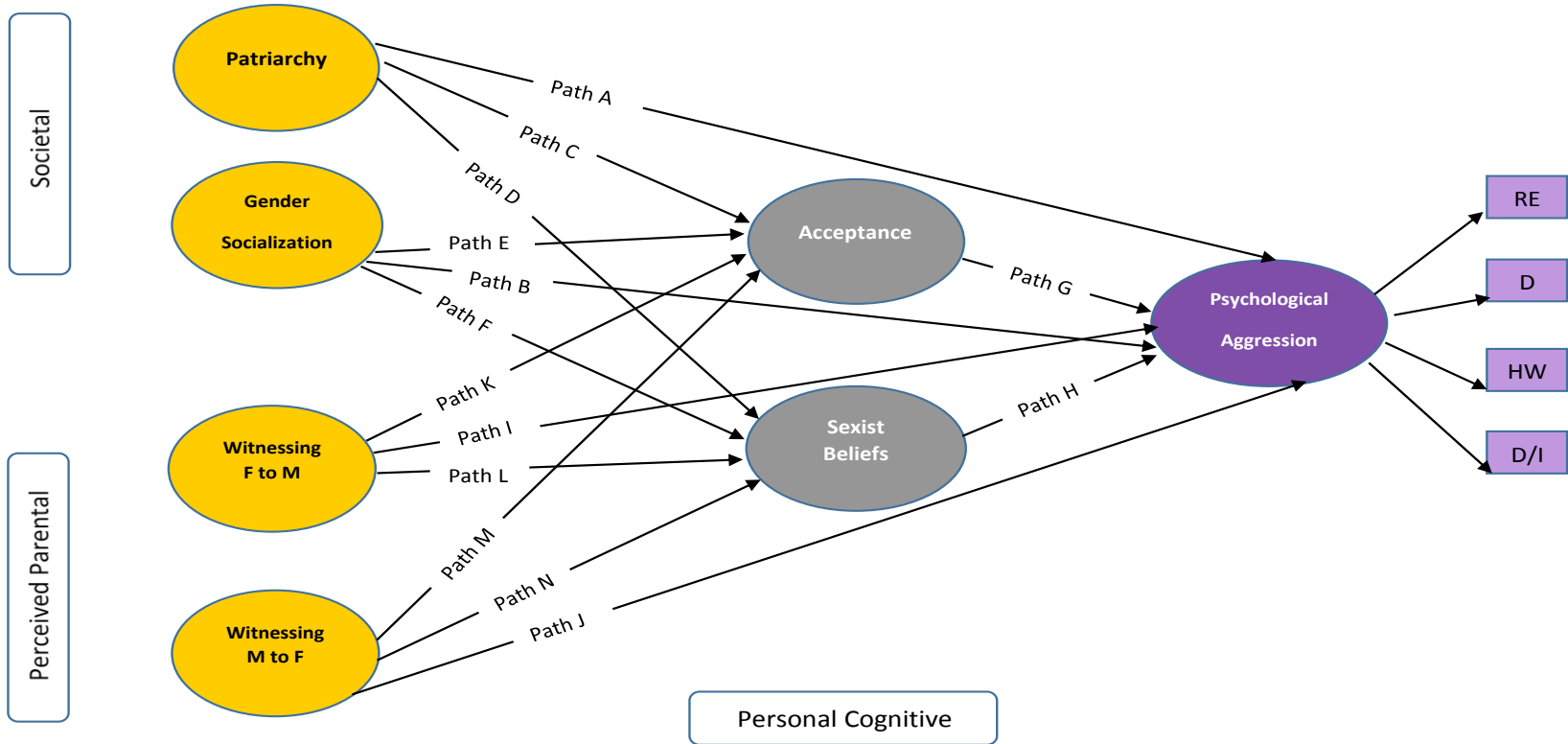


Figure 1.1 The conceptual diagram of the hypothesized model

### 1.3 Hypotheses

Based on the purpose and research questions, the following specific hypotheses are to be tested in the present study.

*Hypothesis 1* assumes that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) will significantly and directly be related to use of psychological aggression. Under the first hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis are formulated.

*Path A:* There will be a significant relationship between patriarchy and use of psychological aggression.

*Path B:* There will be a significant relationship between gender socialization and use of psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 2* assumes that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) will significantly and directly be related to personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs). Under the second hypothesis, four sub-hypothesis are formulated.

*Path C:* There will be a significant relationship between patriarchy and acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Path D:* There will be a significant relationship between patriarchy and sexist beliefs.

*Path E:* There will be a significant relationship between gender socialization and acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Path F:* There will be a significant relationship between gender socialization and sexist beliefs.

*Hypothesis 3* assumes that personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) will significantly and directly be related to use of psychological aggression. Under the third hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis are formulated.

*Path G:* There will be a significant relationship between acceptance of psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression.

*Path H:* There will be a significant relationship between sexist beliefs and use of psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 4* assumes that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) will significantly and directly be related to use of psychological aggression. Under the fourth hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis are formulated.

*Path I:* There will be a significant relationship between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression.

*Path J:* There will be a significant relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 5* assumes that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) will significantly and directly be related to personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs). Under the fifth hypothesis, four sub-hypothesis are formulated.

*Path K:* There will be a significant relationship between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Path L:* There will be a significant relationship between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and sexist beliefs.

*Path M:* There will be a significant relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Path N:* There will be a significant relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and sexist beliefs.

*Hypothesis 6* assumes that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through acceptance of psychological aggression. Under the sixth hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis are formulated.

*Hypothesis 6a:* Patriarchy will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 6b:* Gender socialization will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 7* assumes that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through acceptance of psychological aggression. Under the seventh hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis are formulated.

*Hypothesis 7a:* Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 7b:* Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 8* assumed that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs. Under the eight hypotheses, two sub-hypothesis are formulated.

*Hypothesis 8a:* Patriarchy will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs.

*Hypothesis 8b:* Gender socialization will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs.

*Hypothesis 9* assumes that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs. Under the ninth hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis are formulated.

*Hypothesis 9a:* Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs.

*Hypothesis 9b:* Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs.

#### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

The present study has a lot to add to the existing literature on several aspects by seeking to ameliorate the drawbacks inherent. The significance of the study discusses those drawbacks inherent and contributions accordingly.



Psychological aggression in dating relationships among college students has attracted less attention than physical and sexual assault paralleled to the trend in marital relationships (Follingstad, 2007; O’Leary, 1999). This has led to delays in comprehending and theorizing psychological dating aggression. Given the scant knowledge regarding the very crucial form of dating violence, the aim of the present study is to investigate the role of societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive factors in predicting use of psychological dating aggression among college students to provide empirical evidence for Feminist and Social Learning Theory. To the researcher’s knowledge, current study is the first of its kind in the international literature.

To be more specific, Feminist Theory has long been criticized for its lack of empirical evidence though conceptually well developed (Bell & Naugle, 2008). Applying a feminist lens to research on psychological aggression, the structural relationships investigated among societal variables -patriarchy, gender socialization- and psychological aggression through acceptability of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs help narrowing the gap between theory and research. In other words, the main significance arises from its contribution of empirical evidence to its theoretical claims. Furthermore, as part of feminist perspective, the present study represents one of the earliest attempts at investigating the role of early gendered messages received to obtain insight into psychological dating aggression.

As a growing interest for empirically driven theoretical models, much more research has been carried out on Social Learning Theory and psychological aggression. Yet, the findings have been somewhat blurred, which is in most part due to the statistical procedures used (separate analysis of female and male samples), the sample utilized (male only, female only), the inconsistency between antecedent and outcome variable (physical witnessing, psychological aggression), inability to distinguish witnessing from experiencing, and failure to separate witnessing father to mother and mother to father psychological aggression. In this sense, the present study responds to the needs of literature by examining the role of witnessing father to mother

psychological aggression and mother to father psychological aggression in predicting use of psychological aggression by utilizing a sample consisted of males and females. Moreover, with the help of multi-sample approach, it will genuinely reflect if there is a true gender difference in the structural model. By doing so, it will provide further evidence for the gender specific effects of witnessing psychological aggression among parents.

Along with the direct effects of societal and perceived parental factors on psychological aggression, the indirect effects via personal cognitive factors such as acceptability of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs are to be investigated, as well. As the distal and proximal antecedents of psychological aggression, societal and perceived parental factors, and personal cognitive factors have something to say in prevention and intervention efforts. In this regard, the findings attained in the current study may guide researchers and practitioners in designing such programs that will help college students. At colleges, mental health professionals have primary roles in the delivery of psychological services to the students. Therefore, the findings of the current study may provide useful information regarding the prevalence and contributing factors of psychological aggression, which might increase the awareness of mental health professionals on psychological aggression. Furthermore, a better understanding of the direct and indirect effects of a wide variety of factors on psychological aggression among college students will also help the campus policy makers in dealing with psychological dating aggression and the students' needs in Turkey.

Considering Turkish literature, the studies on psychological dating aggression are so limited, hardly any, and there has been no study regarding the structural associations among societal patriarchy, gender socialization, witnessing interparental aggression, acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs and use of psychological aggression among dating college students. The current study is the first to attempt to fill the lacuna in psychological dating aggression literature in Turkey.

Additionally, it is worth noting that most of the studies conducted in the field of psychological aggression reflect Western values. Culture is another factor in the investigation of the phenomenon. The question of “what characteristics of culture are associated with the tendency toward psychological aggression in Turkey?” has still remained unanswered. A closer look at psychological aggression and factors contributing in a different culture seems valuable. This would contribute to the literature in comprehending and theorizing psychological dating aggression in Turkey and developing prevention and intervention programs unique to Turkish culture, and to the global attempts exhibiting cultural aspects of psychological dating aggression.

The novel findings have depicted that psychological aggression might be prevalent among Turkish dating college students (Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011); yet, there has been no empirical study that directly explores the prevalence of types of psychological aggression in Turkey. Though not stated formally as the purpose and the major/minor research questions, the current study is the first to investigate the frequency of types of psychological aggression in order to present the preliminary findings which is thought to contribute to both national and international literature. For the prevalence, Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse Scale has been cited as promising scale to measure psychological aggression (Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013). Hence, the present study also intends to validate its use as a measure to gauge psychological aggression among dating college students.

No study has been encountered in the Turkish literature regarding the associations between witnessing interparental psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression, and acceptability of psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression. Lack of instruments might be one the possible reasons. This study has adapted Conflict Tactics Scales – Adult Recall Version (Form CTS2-CA; Straus, Hamby, Finkelhor, Bonney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1995) and Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale-Revised (IPVAS-R; Fincham et al., 2008) into Turkish language to measure witnessing interparental psychological aggression and acceptance of psychological aggression. This would stimulate researchers to further

investigate the issues, which in turn suggest new directions for further research. Additionally, with the adaptation of instruments, it would be possible to make cross-cultural research.

Multisample analyses are hardly employed in social sciences in Turkey. One of the possible reasons might be the lack of such kind of statistical analyses; yet, those analyses are perfectly available now and required to investigate the complex phenomena. As an advanced statistical analysis, a multi sample approach was applied in order to find the answer to the question whether the hypothesized structural model differs for gender. That is, the structural associations among variables in the model were not tested separately as samples of males and females. Thus, the type I error is to be avoided and gender differences are to be truly detected if exist.

### **1.5 Definitions of the Terms**

In the succeeding section, the definitions of the terms used throughout the study are presented.

*Psychological dating aggression perpetration* refers to “behaviors such as ridiculing, verbal threats, isolating one’s partner from family and friends, and attempting to control one’s partner, and are intended to degrade one’s partner and attack his or her self worth by making him or her feel guilty, upset, or inadequate” (Lawrence et al., 2009, p. 20). According to Murphy and Hoover (1999), psychological aggression embraces restrictive engulfment, denigration, hostile withdrawal, and dominance/intimidation.

*Restrictive engulfment* involves “tracking, monitoring, and controlling the partner's activities and social contacts, along with efforts to squelch perceived threats to the relationship” (Murphy & Hoover, 1999, p.49).

*Hostile withdrawal* involves “avoidance of the partner during conflict and withholding of emotional availability or contact with the partner in a cold or punitive fashion” (Murphy& Hoover, 1999, p.49).

*Denigration* involves “humiliating and degrading attacks on the partner's self-esteem” (Murphy& Hoover, 1999, p.49).

*Dominance/Intimidation* involves “threats, property violence, and intense verbal aggression” (Murphy & Hoover, 1999, p.49).

*Patriarchy* refers to “a system of social structures and practices in which men dominate, oppress, and exploit women” (Walby, 1990, p. 20).

*Gender socialization* refers to “differential treatment of boys and girls” (Epstein, 2008, p. 1) by the families in harmony with *gender roles* or *gender norms* and *gender stereotypes*.

*Gender role* or *gender norm* refers to “cultural expectations about what is normative and appropriate behavior for men and women” (Epstein, 2008, p. 1).

*Gender stereotypes* refer to individual’s beliefs about the characteristics associated with males and females (Epstein, 2008, p. 1).

*Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression* refers to one’s recalling behaviors of psychological aggression of from father toward mother while growing up (Straus et al., 1995).

*Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression* refers to one’s recalling behaviors of psychological aggression from father toward mother while growing up (Straus et al., 1995).

*Sexist beliefs (hostile sexism)* refer to “antipathy toward women who are viewed as usurping men’s power” (Glick &Fiske, 2001, p. 109) and aims to “justify male

power, traditional gender roles, and men's exploitation of women as sexual objects through derogatory characterizations of women" (Glick & Fiske, 1997, p. 121).

*Acceptance of psychological aggression* refers to how much a person approves that psychological aggression is an appropriate behavior to use toward a dating partner and breeds further psychological aggression (Capezza & Arriaga, 2008).

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This review of literature chapter included five main sections. The first section handled with definitions and prevalence of dating violence and psychological aggression. The second section discussed the theoretical perspectives for dating violence. The third section dealt with the role of gender in dating violence. The fourth section explained societal (patriarchy and gender role socialization), perceived parental (witnessing interparental psychological aggression) and personal cognitive factors (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) related to use of psychological aggression among dating college students. The fifth section critically reviewed the Turkish literature on dating violence and psychological aggression. The final section shortly summarized the chapter.

#### **2.1 Definitions of Dating and Dating Violence**

In the late 70s, two, now classic, books written by Walker (1979) and Straus, Gelles, and Steinmetz (1979) uncovered the hidden phenomenon of violence in marital relationships. It did not take long for researchers to investigate violence in dating relationships as a separate entity from marital violence. It was first Makepeace (1981) to carry out a study on “courtship” violence and to report that 21.2% of the sample of 202 college students experienced physical violence at some point in their dating relationships. Thenceforward, a great body of literature has been built on violence in dating relationships which both have advanced and confused our understanding of the issue. The confusion largely resulted from the lack of consensus on the definitions of the concepts despite thirty years of research. Thus, adequately

defined and validated concepts regarding the issue are of chief importance to accurately draw conclusions (Follingstad, 2007).

First definition to make clear is “dating”. Though the researchers in the field sensed what dating meant, the definition appeared notably long after. One of the early definitions of dating was proposed by Muehlenhard and Linton (1987, p.188) as “planned social activity with the opposite sex”. Shortly after, Sugarman and Hotaling (1989) came up with a more comprehensive definition of dating; “a dyadic interaction that focuses on participation in mutually rewarding activities that may increase the likelihood of future interaction, emotional commitment, and/or sexual intimacy” (p. 5). Harned (2001) defined dating as “having engaged in any type of dating behavior ranging from one-time dates to long-term relationships and included both same and opposite-sex dating partners” (p. 272). Strauss (2004) proposed a definition of dating as “a dyadic relationship involving meeting for social interaction and joint activities with an explicit or implicit intention to continue the relationship until one or the other party terminates or until some other more committed relationship is established (e.g., cohabiting, engagement, or marriage)”. A more recent definition belonged to Murray and Kardatzke (2007), “a relationship in which two individuals share an emotional, romantic, and/or sexual connection beyond a friendship, but they are not married, engaged, or in similarly committed relationship” (p.79). The later definitions by Harned (2001), and Murray and Kardatzke (2007) included both heterosexual and same sex dating couples, although the vast majority of studies carried out in the field of dating violence involved heterosexual couples unless otherwise specified, as in the current one. In this study, Murray and Kardatzke’s (2007) definition of dating was adopted since it (1) excluded married or similar relationships, (2) included emotional and/or sexual and (3) dyadic intimacy and (4) applied to same and opposite sex relationships.

Though tough, tremendous efforts have been put to define dating violence. Different definitions, which simply reflected themselves later in the manifestation and measurement of dating violence, have been suggested by several authors one of which was of Sugarman and Hotaling’s (1989, p. 5) as “the use or threat of physical



force or restraint carried out with the intent of causing pain or injury to another” within the context of dating or courtship. Quite a while, dating violence has been defined as physically aggressive behaviors such as “throwing something, grabbing, slapping, and kicking” measured by unrevised form of Conflicts Tactics Scales (Straus, 1979). As explicit, the first definitions visualized dating violence as only “physical”. One of new challenges emerged upon the advancement in the research was that dating violence included sexual and psychological forms, as well. Thus, the definitions were criticized due to the exclusion of various forms of violence and new and more contemporary definitions were offered as the umbrella term. One of them was that of Carr and VanDeusen (2002) as “sexual, physical and psychological aggression and stalking” (p.631). Recently, a more inclusive definition has been highly approved by Anderson and Danis (2007), who defined dating violence as “the threat or actual use of physical, sexual or verbal abuse by one member of an unmarried couple on the other member within the context of a dating relationship” (p.88).

Critical to definition of dating violence is the age of the population studied. Dating violence typically refers to adolescents (aged between 12 and 18) in middle school or high school and unmarried college students (undergraduate or graduate, aged 18 and more). The former has also been known as teen dating violence, while the latter as campus dating violence. In the current study, the focus is on dating violence which happens amongst college aged dating students. Research on campus dating violence, to a large extent, uses community based samples, rather than clinical ones.

### **2.1.1 Definition, measurement and prevalence of physical dating violence**

Until recently, the majority of research in dating violence has been carried out with the focus on physical dating violence (Jackson, 1999) referred also as physical abuse and physical aggression. The empirical studies, most and largely, adopted the definition of Sugarman and Hotaling (1989) and utilized the “Violence” subscale of first (Straus, 1979) and “Physical Assault” subscale of Revised (Straus et al., 1996) versions of Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) to operationalize, due to simplicity and

specificity. The older version of included minor acts such as throwing something, pushing, grabbing, slapping and severe acts such as using a knife or gun, hitting, choking, beating, kicking. The revised version added twisting arm or hair to minor acts, and slamming against a wall and burning or scalding on purpose to severe acts.

Due to the lack of agreement on definitions and operational definitions adopted, the prevalence rates broadly fluctuate. Yet, research built up over years gives us an understanding on the rates on average. A decade after Makepeace's pioneering study (1981), the studies with nationally representative samples yielded rates close to individual samples. To illustrate, White and Koss (1991) surveyed 4707 (2,602 women and 2,105 men) college students enrolled in higher institution across United States. 37% of the men and 35% of the women inhibited some form of physical dating violence during the last year of their dating relationships. The studies conducted in 2000s showed similar rates to the previous ones. Two worldwide studies concerning the incidence of physical dating violence amongst college students presented that even the lowest rates were still high. The first one was Straus's (2004) with 8,666 dating college students in at 31 universities in 16 countries. He revealed that, at the median, 29% of the students physically assaulted their dating partners in the last 12 months. The rates ranged between 17% and 45%. Nearly 16,000 college students from 21 countries participated into the second study (Chan et al., 2008). A median of 30% of students reported to have used physically violent acts toward a dating partner in the previous 12 months. The rates of students' physical assaults ranged from 17% to 44%, closely similar to Straus (2004). Taken collectively, the evidences from worldwide studies suggested that physical form of dating violence is not a problem limited to Western culture and it is widespread among college students.

Unfortunately, these two and any other worldwide studies did not include any samples from Turkey. On the other hand, we have a few prevalence rates available. To the researcher's knowledge, first attempt to investigate dating violence in Turkey belongs to Aslan, Vefikuluçay, Zeyneloğlu, Erdost, and Temel (2008). In their study, using a non-standardized measure, of 97 dating nursing students, %12.4 reported to

have experienced violence as perpetrators in the past 12 months of the relationship. There are also two recent studies which examined the incidence of dating violence within a sample of college students involved in heterosexual dating relationships using CTS-Revised. The first one found that of 337 dating women, 46.0% inflicted physical violence at least once in their dating relationships. Men's report for perpetration was 34.7% (Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011). In the second one, victimization and patterns of co-occurrence were explored only for women (Toplu-Demirtaş, Hatipoğlu-Sümer & White, 2013). Of 390 currently dating college women, 3.33% reported that they had been target of "only" physical violence. The rate for both physical and sexual but not psychological victimization was too low, 0.26%. The rates climbed up when psychological victimization was included into physical one, 17.18%. The rate of women who never experienced any type of victimization was 20.51%, which indicated that the rest (79.49%) experienced at least one form of physical, psychological or sexual dating violence. The rate of women who experienced all types of victimization was 13.85%.

### **2.1.2 Definition, measurement and prevalence of sexual dating violence**

Although sexual violence in dating relationships -also referred as sexual abuse, sexual aggression, sexual harassment, date rape- can take a variety of forms, there have been efforts to define it. Straus and colleagues (1996) defined sexual coercion as a "behavior that is intended to compel the partner to engage in unwanted sexual activity" (p. 290). Muehlenhard and Linton (1987, p.188) offered a definition of unwanted sexual activity as "when the female does not want to engage in some sexual activity, and she makes this clear to the male either verbally or nonverbally, but he does it anyway" and it could be "anything ranging from kissing to sexual intercourse". The original Sexual Experiences Survey-SES (Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss & Gidycz, 1985) referred to unwanted sexual experiences, sexual intercourse and sex acts. The revised version (Koss et al., 2007) extended the scope as unwanted sexual contact, sexual coercion, attempted rape and completed rape to define. Though the adopted definitions varied broadly, to operationalize sexual violence in dating relationships, scholars widely employed the "Sexual Coercion" subscale of

Revised CTS (Straus et al., 1996) and original and revised SES (Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss & Gidycz, 1985; Koss et al., 2007). The revised CTS involved minor acts such as making partner having sex without a condom, insisting on sex, insisting on oral or anal sex, and severe acts such as using force to have oral or anal sex, using force to sex, using threats to have oral or anal sex, using threats to have sex (Straus et al., 1996). The revised SES included acts (each with different tactics) such as fondling, kissing or rubbing up against the private areas of the body without consent, oral sex or attempt to oral sex without consent, anal sex or attempt to anal sex without consent, vaginal sex or attempt to vaginal sex without consent or attempted sex acts or sex acts (penetration by objects other than the penis) without consent (Koss et al., 2007).

The incidence rates of sexual dating violence among college aged students were unexpectedly high from the early studies until now. Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) asked 748 college students (380 women and 368 men) if they had ever had unwanted sexual activities. 65.1% of the women and 50.9% of the men indicated they did once in lifetime. Those unwanted sexual activities included behaviors varying from kissing without tongue contact to sexual intercourse without consent (rape). The research from 2000s revealed similar findings. To illustrate, Harned (2001) surveyed 874 dating college students on their use of sexually aggressive acts using SES. Of 489 women and 385 men, 8% and 26% reported engaging in sexual aggression. Using sexual assault subscale of CTS-R, Hines and Saudino (2003) found comparable rates, still high. Of 179 male college students, 29.0% admitted using sexual coercion in the previous year toward dating partners. The rate lowered among females, 13.5% of 302 college students. Results from longitudinal studies were very similar to cross sectional ones. White and Smith (2004) invited 835 college men to participate in a 5-year longitudinal study and found that 34.5% of the participants committed at least one acts of sexual assault, ranging from unwanted kissing to completed rape. Interestingly, specific acts of sexual assaults endorsed were pursued across the four years of college. For instance, the prevalence rates from freshmen to senior for unwanted sexual contact were 10.7%, 5.7%, 5.5%, 5.7% and 4.8%, respectively (White & Smith, 2004). Similarly, the international study of Chan et

al.'s (2008) with nearly 16,000 college students from 21 countries displayed that a median of 20% of students reported to have committed sexually violent acts toward a dating partner in the previous 12 months, ranging from 8% to 34%. Those studies consistently revealed that college men were more likely to commit sexual dating violence than college women in dating relationships.

Studies using Turkish samples of dating college students are very limited. Yet, limited evidence is in the support of existing literature. Using CTS-R, in a study with 834 dating college students, 23.1% of the women and 41.6% of the men reported perpetrating sexual violence at least one in their dating relationships (Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011). Men's report was nearly twice as much as women. In another study investigating the victimization of dating violence, of 390 currently dating college women, 2.82% reported that they had been victim of only sexual violence. The rates of victimization rose to 10.51% and 13.85% when psychological and physical victimization were included, respectively (Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013).

A relatively older research carried out with 591 undergraduates and 109 graduates found that 71.7%, 27.8%, and 44.8% of the participants experienced verbal, visual, and physical form of sexual assault, respectively (Kayı, Yavuz, & Arıcan, 2000). The most experienced acts were verbal harassment, such as obscene language (70.0%), unwanted sexual contact such as fondling, kissing, (39.4%), dirty talking on the phone (37.0%), and dirty talking (34.3%). The perpetrators, in this study, did not have to be dating partners, but as the sexual acts get more severe and physical (i.e., unwanted sexual contact, attempted oral, anal and vaginal sex, and completed oral, anal, and vaginal sex), the perpetrators were known to victims (i.e., boyfriend, engaged) (Kayı et al., 2000). The victimization reports of women in this study seem not to contradict with the perpetration rates of men in the previously mentioned study. Consequently, as the reviews of literature indicate, approximately 1 in 3 college women and 1 in 10 college men may be victims of sexual dating violence (Fisher et al., 2000; Murray & Kardatzke, 2007).

### **2.1.3 Definition, measurement and prevalence of psychological dating “aggression”, “abuse” or “violence”**

Psychological form of violence has recently been considered as a separate entity from dating violence and research on it is flourishing. Accordingly, there are so many debates on the definition of the construct. The terms psychological dating violence, psychological aggression, psychological/emotional abuse, verbal aggression/abuse, psychological/emotional maltreatment have been used interchangeably with no consensus on the definition. Such an ambiguity first stems from what violence, abuse and aggression literally mean. According to Emery (as cited in Jackson, 1999, p.234), “defining an act as abusive or violent is not an objective decision but a social judgment”. According to Archer (1994), aggression refers to “acts” while violence to “consequences” of acts, such as injury. Jackson (1999), referring to Emery and Archer (1994), concluded that aggression is a more proper use instead of violence and abuse. Correspondingly, Follingstad (2007) asserted that abuse is not a “scientific” word; it rather implies “judgment”. Follingstad (2007) took a step further and suggested that aggression rather than violence or abuse should be preferred since it “covers a range of behavior, does not require a threshold severity level, and can consider whether an impact has occurred, but does not have to require that a person has been harmed” (Follingstad, 2007, p. 443). Precursors of the field agreed as well (e.g., Murphy & Cascardi, 1993; Murphy & O’Leary 1989; O’Leary, 1999). Therefore, in this study, “psychological aggression” was used to refer to the construct as strongly suggested; yet already, researchers utilized a wide variety of definitions and operational definitions.

Straus (1979, p. 189) defined verbal aggression as “the use of verbal and nonverbal acts which symbolically hurt the other, or the use of threats to hurt the other”. Those verbal and nonverbal acts or threats composed the early version of “verbal aggression” subscale of CTS. In the revised version of CTS, Straus et al. (1996), renamed the subscale into “psychological aggression” since it included nonverbal acts (such as stomping out of room), but the definition remained unchanged. Tolman (1989) viewed psychological aggression as psychological maltreatment and defined

it as the use of the non-physical strategies to isolate, control, and hurt one's partner. Tolman (1989) thought similarly with Straus (1979) on definition of psychological aggression; something as "verbal and emotional" but he included a "domination and isolation" dimension, thus extended the conceptualization. Accordingly, Hamby (1996) offered a different conceptualization as "dominance" based on the premise of inequalitarian relationships. Defined dominance as "causes of violence, including physical and psychological aggression, not as violence in and of itself", she accepted that dominance had three aspects; authority, restrictiveness, and disparagement (Hamby, 1996, p. 200). Defined early on as "emotional abuse", Murphy and Hoover (1999) claimed that "psychological aggression" consisted of coercive or aversive acts intended to produce emotional harm or threat of harm and directed at the target's emotional well being or sense of self" (p. 40). Lately, as the efforts increased to find a widely agreed upon definition of psychological aggression, new definitions emerged in response to this need. One belonged to Follingstad (2007) who conceptualized psychological aggression as " behaviors engaged in by intimate adult partners which encompass the range of verbal and mental methods designed to emotionally wound, coerce, control, intimidate, psychologically harm and express anger" (p. 443). Another one was that of Lawrence et al.'s(2009), who assumed psychological aggression as "behaviors such as ridiculing, verbal threats, isolating one's partner from family and friends, and attempting to control one's partner, and are intended to degrade one's partner and attack his or her self worth by making him or her feel guilty, upset, or inadequate" (p. 20). In this study, Lawrence et al.'s (2009) definition was adopted due to its extensivity, simplicity and specificity. It captures (1) the explicit behaviors, (2) intentions behind (3) consequences, and (4) the multidimensionality of the construct.

Along with the issue of definition, the issue of sample (teen aged versus college aged and community versus clinical) and the issue of measurement cause widely varying rates in the reports of psychological aggression. The issue of sample was previously and briefly addressed. Thus, the issue of measurement needs a thorough review as follows.

Meanwhile the arguments on the definitions of construct continue, a substantial number of researchers have discussed that psychological aggression among dating college students is not a uni-dimensional concept as Straus et al. (1996) measures, it is rather multidimensional (e.g., Follingstad, Coyne, & Gambone, 2005; Hamby, 1996; Murphy & Hoover, 1999; Tollman, 1989) Based on the premise of uni-dimensionality and multidimensionality, to assess psychological dating aggression, numerous measures have been developed and used.

At first used to measure violence in marital relationship, researchers in the field of dating violence considerably utilized the “verbal aggression” subscale of first (Straus, 1979) and “psychological aggression” subscale of revised (Straus et. al., 1996) versions of Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS). The older version (4 items) included minor acts such as insulting, saying something to spite, and stomping out of room or house during a conflict and severe acts such as threatening to hit or throw something. The revised version added yelling to minor acts and calling the partner fat or ugly, destroying something belonging to partner, and accusing partner of being a lousy lover to severe acts. Though a widely used measure, the CTS has sharply been criticized since it gauges only specific acts of “verbal aggression” and ignore a large number of acts such as controlling, dominating, degrading, and isolating etc.

Developed by Shepard and Campbell (1992), 13 item “verbal abuse” subscale of Abusive Behavior Inventory (ABI), though targets both males and females with current and former partners, and has victimization and perpetration dimensions, takes also a one-dimensional approach to measure verbal aggression. Sample items of the scale are as following; screaming, using foul language, calling names, criticizing frequently, creating fear with voice, insulting, manipulating with lies etc. ABI’s focus was on verbal abuse ignoring other aspects of psychological aggression as in CTS and CTS-R.

The target group of 10 item Women’s Experiences with Battering (WEB; Smith, Earp, & DeVellis, 1995), 11 item “emotional abuse” subscale of Composite Abuse Scale (CAS; Hegarty, Sheenan & Schonfeld, 1999) and 33 item Index of



Psychological Abuse Scale (IPA; Sullivan & Bybee, 1999) was only females both in dating and marital relationships. That is, the scales, regardless of type of relationship status, were specifically designed to measure psychological aggression among females, not males. Though created as unidimensional, IPA identified four types of psychological abuse; ridicule, harassment, criticism and emotional withdrawal. However, only victimization scores could be utilized both for CAS and ABI. Unlike CAS and ABI, Partner Abuse Scale-Non Physical included perpetration form, but again excluded other aspects of psychological aggression (Hudson, 1997).

Moving towards multidimensionality, two dimensional measures were designed to assess psychological aggression. Measure of Wife Abuse has two subscales; psychological abuse (15 items) and verbal abuse (14 items) (Rodenburg & Fantuzzo, 1993). Yet, MWA targeted at females with current and former partners as sample and the items were not dating specific in context. Items such as imprisoning in house, locking out of house, locking in bedroom, harassing at work, taking wallet leaving stranded, threatening with kidnapping the children, threatening with killing the children, taking the keys of car, stealing the possessions telling that the one is a horrible wife implied marital relationship. The long and short forms of Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (PMWI; Tolman, 1989, 1999) take a two dimensional approach to psychological aggression. PMWI represented one of the earliest attempts to add “Dominance/Isolation” dimension to psychological aggression to the existing “Emotional/Verbal” dimensions. However, PMWI –at first- targeted only females in intimate relationships, which prevented its widespread usage for a long time. Moreover, similar to MWA, the items imply a more committed relationship like marriage. To illustrate, some sample items are “my partner put down my care of the children”, “my partner criticized the way I took care of the house”, “my partner became upset if dinner, housework, or laundry was not done when he thought it should be”, “my partner used our money or made important financial decisions without talking to me about it”, and “my partner demanded that I stay home and take care of the children”. Another female targeted only, yet multidimensional measure is 21 item Profile of Psychological Abuse (PAP; Hudson,

1997). PAP manifested four main forms of abuse; Criticize Behavior (3 items), Ignore (5 items), Ridicule Traits (5 items), and Jealous/Control (8 items).

The purpose of the scales of Safe Dates-Psychological Abuse (Foshee et al., 1998) and Abuse within Intimate Relationships Scale (Borjesson, Aarons, & Dunn, 2003) was to explore psychological aggression of adolescents (males and females in grades 8-9 and young adults, respectively).

Recently in literature, another widely used and empirically supported measure has been 28- item Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA; Murphy & Hoover, 1999). It specifically was designed to gauge psychological aggression amongst college-aged dating individuals and couples. Restrictive Engulfment (7 items) involved acts of isolating, restricting, monitoring and controlling the partner's activities and social contacts etc. Denigration (7 items) included acts and verbal attacks intended to humiliate partner, such as calling names, criticizing, degrading in front of other people, saying the partner is ugly and worthless, saying that else would be a better partner etc. Hostile Withdrawal (7 items) comprised of behaviors that avoid partner during conflict, withhold emotional availability in order to punish the partner, and increase anxiety or insecurity about the relationship such as sulking, refusing to talk, behaving cold etc. Dominance/Intimidation (7 items) incorporated acts and verbal attacks that destruct property and threat through intense verbal aggression to submit the partner. Independent efforts in gaining a sense of an effective instrument by comparing the psychometric properties of commonly used measures of psychological aggression in a sample of dating college students found MMEA to be more comprehensive when the psychometrics properties, easy scoring and administration procedures, multidimensionality and theoretical background were regarded (Ro & Lawrence, 2007; Shorey, Brasfield, Febres, Cornelius, & Stuart, 2012). Moreover, the Italian version of measure also demonstrated strong psychometrics, confirming the four factor structure in another culture (Bonechi & Tani, 2011). Thus, given the lack of a Turkish instrument for assessing psychological aggression in dating relationships with a multidimensional construct, MMEA (Murphy & Hoover, 1999) was adapted into Turkish and evaluated in terms of

psychometric properties. The four factor structure was verified on empirical grounds with promising psychometrics (Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013). In the current study, MMEA was used to assess psychological aggression due to (1) the sample group targeted (dating), (2) multidimensionality, (3) the theoretical background, (4) robust psychometrics across cultures, and (5) availability in Turkish.

In spite of difficulties in identifying and measuring the construct, a rapidly growing body of research has documented that psychological aggression occurs at an alarming rate. Raymond and Bruschi (1989) surveyed 90 college women and asked them to respond to a list of abusive behaviors they had experienced. Two of the abusive behaviors with higher incidence rates were: “When I see my boyfriend, he says very little and seems more interested in whatever he happens to be doing at the time than me (30.2%)” and “My boyfriend is so charming to others that people wouldn’t believe me if I told them about the way he treats me (16.7%)”. In a research with 861 dating college students at the age of 21, 94.6% of 425 women and 85.8% of 436 men indicated to have committed verbal aggression towards partners (Magdol et al., 1997). Harned (2001), in her survey with 874 dating college students, revealed that 85% of the women and 84% of the men performed psychologically aggressive acts in a year prior to the assessment. The most frequently performed type of aggression was emotional abuse (78% for women; 77% for men), followed by isolation (64% for women; 61% for men), intimidation and threats (58% for women; 63% for men), and economic abuse (8% for women; 12% for men).

Using psychological aggression subscale of CTS-R, Hines and Saudino (2003) found that of 179 male college students, 82.0% admitted perpetrating psychological aggression in the previous year toward dating partners. Employing the same instrument, and surveying 85 non married college couples, in Jenkins and Aube’s (2002) study, 88.2% of men and 90.6% of women reported psychological aggression perpetration. In surveying 1.886 Spanish university students aged between 18 and 27, Munoz-Rivas et al. (2007) discovered that 72.3% of women and 63.7% of men used jealous behaviors such as being suspicious of friends, being jealous other girl/boy, checking or demanding explanations about what your partner does and accusing the

partner of maintaining parallel relationships. Using MMEA, Leisring (2013) conducted a study with 348 heterosexual dating college women. 95%, 93%, 59%, and 35% of women said to perpetrate at least one acts of hostile withdrawal, restrictive engulfment, denigration, and dominance/intimidation, respectively against their partners. In short, the studies using non-Turkish samples state that psychological aggression seems to be more common than physical and sexual ones with rates reaching as high as 90% for both men and women.

The findings of the limited studies using Turkish samples are seemingly parallel. To name a few, Aslan et al. (2008) asked an array of psychologically aggressive acts - instead of using a standardized measure- to learn about the prevalence. The most frequently experienced acts of the college dating women from partners were jealousy (71.4%), shouting (42.9%), scolding (38.1%), disciplining (38.1%), neglecting (33.3%), and name calling (33.3%). Toplu and Hatipoğlu-Sümer (2011) reported a prevalence of 85.2% and 75.6% for dating women and men, respectively. The rates were comparatively high when the rates of physical and sexual perpetration were considered in the same research. Likewise, only psychological victimization report of dating women was considerably up (31.53%) compared to only sexual (2.82%) and only physical (3.33%) one (Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013). Though not a prevalence report but rather a mean statistics, the study of Toplu-Demirtaş and Hatipoğlu-Sümer (2013) gives a clear idea of which type of psychological aggression is common among Turkish dating college students. Of 147 women and 102 men, both announced that they primarily commit the behaviors of hostile withdrawal followed by restrictive engulfment, dominance/intimidation and denigration. The commonality is roughly same with that of Leisring (2013) except for the dominance/intimidation and denigration.

#### **2.1.4 Why study psychological aggression?**

Broadly, aggression in dating relationships is a precursor of the aggression later in adult relationships (e.g., Frieze, 2000; Murphy & O’Leary, 1989; White, Donat, & Bondurant, 2001) and strong robust predictor of aggression in marital relationships

(e.g., White et al., 2001). It is clear that, to large extent, dating violence show similarities to marital violence rather than differences (e.g., Shorey, Cornelius & Bell, 2008; White & Koss, 1991).

Specifically, psychological aggression is highly prevalent with alarming rates in college dating relationships and the prevalence rates are notably higher, reaching to 90% (Harned, 2001; Katz, Arias, & Beach, 2000; Neufeld et al., 1999; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011) compared to physical and sexual ones. It is considered to be more damaging than physical violence (Follingstad et al., 1990; Katz & Arias, 1999; Lawrence et al., 2009; O’Leary, 1999), and a precursor and accompanier of physical and sexual aggression (Murphy & O’Leary, 1989; Neufeld et al., 1999; O’Leary, 1999; Ryan, 1998). Psychological aggression does not have to lead to sexual and physical aggression; but, the literature explicitly points that multiple forms of aggression often co-occur (Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013; White, 2009).

A great many studies have well documented the effect of psychological aggression on the victims. The victims demonstrate symptoms including depression and anxiety (Harned, 2001; Katz & Arias, 1999; Lawrence et al., 2009; Pape & Arias, 1995). Alcohol (Parks, Hsieh, Bradizza, & Romosz, 2008) and substance abuse (Straight, Harper, & Arias, 2003) have been another negative consequences. Also noteworthy is the report of feelings in the presence of psychological aggression such as shame (Street & Arias, 2001), loss of self esteem, fear and humiliation (Follingstad et al., 1990). The visibility of psychological aggression may be less apparent but the impact of it is more profound compared to physical aggression. To illustrate, over 70% of both physically and psychologically battered women indicated that non-physical abuse were more damaging compared to physical one (Follingstad et al., 1990).

Though the severely affected victims perceive psychological aggression more abusive and its effects longer-lasting, college students do not. They perceive physical aggression to be more “serious”, “harmful”, “abusive”, and “more deserving of punishment” than psychological aggression (see Williams et al., 2012, for a review). Such perceptions may lead to not considering psychological aggression as a problem,

underreporting it, not engaging in help seeking behavior when experienced, and more accepting attitudes toward it, which, in the long term, may promote aggression. At this point, raising awareness of the growing issue among college students, researchers, and college counselors crucially matters and is non-ignorable.

Given the link between marital and dating violence and types of dating violence, high prevalence, the severity of its consequences, and lower noticeability in perceptions, psychological aggression itself warrants a further investigation within a sample of college students involved in heterosexual dating relationships for the development of later efforts for prevention and intervention programs.

## **2.2 Theories of Psychological Dating Aggression**

Any single theory fails to perfectly predict such a sophisticated issue; thus, in recent years, researchers have proposed several multifaceted models of aggression from different theoretical backgrounds (i.e., Bell & Naugle, 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Riggs & O’Leary, 1989, 1996; Dutton, 1995). These models were largely derived from more widely recognized theories seeking to understand intimate partner violence (IPV) in marital and dating relationships. Among those theories are Feminist Theory (Dobash & Dobash, 1979), Conflict (Power) Theory (Straus, 1979), Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1971), Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1969) and Behavioral Theories- Contextual Framework (Bell & Naugle, 2008). In this part, prior to reviewing the research studies on psychological dating aggression, the guiding theories are covered.

### **2.2.1 Feminist theory**

Very briefly, Feminist Theory (FT) asserts that patriarchy is the basis for intimate partner violence. Gender inequality within the society is at the very core and is the main cause (Dobash & Dobash, 1979; Yllo, 1988). People are born into a society in which gender roles are strictly defined and are socialized in a way that men somehow have power over women, thus leading to power inequality, which manifests itself as

male dominance and female dependency (Dobash & Dobash, 1979). In order to preserve and maintain the male privilege and power, men use a variety of tactics including violence (Dobash & Dobash, 1979). Depending on this conceptualization, proponents of feminist theory have long been criticized since they, traditionally, view males as perpetrators and females as victims (Dobash, Dobash, Wilson, & Daly, 1992). Other researchers claim that women may be more aggressive than traditionally they are thought to be (e.g., Archer, 2000; Straus, 2004). Nonetheless, who is more violent is still polemical when the motivations, context and consequences are considered. Feminists often argue women's perpetration of violence is due to self defense toward the violence perpetrated by men whose motives are mostly due to the desire to intimidate their partners (Walker, 1979). Besides, it is now largely presented that violence perpetrated by men seems to be more severe and more likely to result in injury when compared to the one perpetrated by women (Makepeace, 1986; Marcus & Sweet, 2002). Other than the "who's more aggressive and who uses violence why" criticisms, feminist theory has been criticized that it is conceptually well developed but not empirically.

Historically, feminist perspectives were first utilized to explain physical violence in marital and then dating relationships. Lately, the use of feminist approach to account for psychological aggression among married and dating couples have been used. To illustrate, based on the feminist approach, Marshall (1992) identified different clusters as isolation, dominance, control, withdrawal, criticisms and threats while investigating psychological aggression among married couples. Similarly, Murphy and Hoover (1999), with the feminist considerations in mind, confirmed his hypothesized 4 factor multifactorial construct which are restrictive engulfment, hostile withdrawal, denigration and dominance/intimidation among dating couples. Distinctively from physical aggression, feminist approaches are not so strict about the gender roles (males as perpetrators females as victims) while investigating psychological aggression. Rather, it proposes that the tactics/motives in use of psychological aggression differ.

In brief, patriarchy and gender role socialization (how we construct gender during childhood with the messages from our parents etc) were derived from feminist accounts in this study. These two variables were regarded as “societal” since Woodin and O’Leary (2009) discussed gender roles, power and control, and patriarchy under the sociocultural theories as the theoretical approaches to the etiology of partner violence.

### **2.2.2 Social learning theory**

Initially introduced by Bandura (1971), social learning theory posits that behaviors are learned through observation and imitation of others’ behavior. When reinforced directly as a result of classical and/or operant conditioning or indirectly through cognitive mediational processes, the behaviors are maintained (Bandura, 1971). Social Learning Theory has a widespread support in intimate partner violence literature as the intergenerational transmission of violence hypothesis. The basic tenet of the theory is early interparental interactions/relationships. Simply stated, it proposes that witnessing and/or experiencing interparental aggression in one’s family of origin results in later use and/or receipt of aggressive acts in adult relationships including dating (Bandura, 1973; O’Leary, 1988; Riggs & O’Leary, 1989). Witnessing and/or experiencing interparental aggression may teach the child that violence/aggression is somewhat functional to solve the problems and to handle the conflicts within the context of family and close relationships. Thus, the effect of witnessing/experiencing may manifest itself through cognitive processes such as greater acceptance of aggression, more sexist beliefs, and stricter attitudes toward violence on future perpetration and victimization of aggression (O’Keefe, 1998). In parallel with the trend as in Feminist Theory, Social Learning Theory was first used to explain physical type of aggression in marital relationships, and then in dating relationships. Follette and Alexander (1992) used the intergenerational transmission of violence hypothesis with psychological dating aggression. Moreover, Woodin and O’Leary (2009) categorized social learning theory under the interpersonal theories as the theoretical approaches to the etiology of partner violence.



Gender is highly controversial, as in Feminist Theory. Apart from gender, one difficulty with Social Learning Theory is its retrospective design (Woodin & O’Leary, 2009). Some scholars (i.e. Follette & Alexander, 1992) allege that it attracts researchers most due to its relative simplicity and utility, but it is not that much easy to explain violence/aggression. Evidence regarding the direct association from witnessing/experiencing interparental aggression to intimate partner violence is limited and mixed. Thus, the mediating role of cognitive variables has been highlighted (O’Keefe, 1998).

Riggs and O’Leary (1989) incorporated the theories of social learning and conflict from which “background situational” model was developed. The background part of the model was originated from social learning theory and the background variables were aggression in the family and acceptance of aggression. The model predicted 60.0% and 32% of variances in males’ and females’ use of physical dating violence, respectively (Riggs & O’Leary, 1996). White et al. (2001) supported further evidence for the model, with a sample of pre-military navy recruits. The model accounted 67% and 55% of male to female and female to male physical and verbal aggression, respectively.

In short, this paper derived witnessing mother-to-father and father-to-mother psychological aggression as perceived parental and sexist beliefs and acceptance as personal cognitive factors from Social Learning Theory. The former two variables were regarded as “perceived parental” due to the retrospective design. The participants were asked to recall their witnessing while growing up. The latter two variables were considered as “personal cognitive” due to the cognitive meditational role.

### **2.2.3 Attachment theory**

Bowlby (1969), the father of attachment theory, propounded that the infants are in the need of developing a secure relationship with the primary caregivers for the future emotional and social development. Those early relationship formation

experiences of infants with their caregivers are theorized to shape their sense of self, environment and close relationships. According to Bowlby (1969), if the early experiences are positive, individuals are more likely to develop secure close relationships in adulthood. If negative, then, individuals are inclined to form insecure attachment later in adult close relationships. Based on this conceptualization, the insecurely attached people may be particularly at high risk for violence (Dutton, 1995) since the early attachment patterns seem to be stable, though hard, new experiences may change them. Notwithstanding, the empirical support is limited and the results are mixed.

One harsh criticism directed toward attachment theory is that it cannot account why securely attached people perpetrate aggression toward their partner or vice versa (Shorey et al., 2008). Moreover, as a theory, the mediating and moderating role of other variables such as individual, situational, and cultural are unclear (Shorey et al., 2008). To illustrate a few, according to Dutton (1995), insecurely attached individuals may exhibit controlling behaviors due to the fear of rejection and/or abandonment. This fear, along with the difficulties in emotion regulation strategies may increase the likelihood of intimate partner violence. Using attachment theory with different variables, Follingstad et al. (2002) found that the relationship between insecure attachment and partner violence was mediated by angry temperament and attempts to control the partner. Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) proposed a developmental model of batterers and identified the causes of violence as distal and proximal, integrating genetics, early childhood experiences, attachment theory, peer effect, impulsivity, social skills and attitudes. As clear in the examples given, attachment is treated as a variable, rather than a theory itself.

#### **2.2.4 Power theory (conflict theory)**

Proposed to acquire a thorough understanding of the physical violence in marital relationships, Power Theory- also called as Conflict Theory- asserts that the power imbalance between men and women in the context of a (marital) relationship contributes to intimate partner violence (Straus, 1979). Developed the most widely

used measure of intimate partner violence –Conflict Tactics Scale- based upon the theory, Straus (1979) and power theorists believe that in the context of conflict within the family system, people tend toward aggression/violence as a way of dealing with it if they cannot find more healthy ways such as negotiation. Power theorists oppose to the view of feminists’ “males as perpetrates” positing that if the women have more power in a relationship, they perpetrate aggression. Along with conflict, acceptance of violence, beliefs about violence and gender inequality interact with each other and increase the risk of partner violence.

The power theory is largely criticized by feminists for ignoring the notion that the power imbalance between men and women is fundamentally related to gender and specifically patriarchy. Discussing about gender inequality, power imbalance, acceptance of violence but ignoring the “gendered” structure of violence is still hotly-debated issue between feminists and power theorists. Furthermore, Bell and Naugle (2008) added that power theory is limited in scope, has mixed empirical support, limited impact on prevention and treatment studies, and restricted flexibility in accommodating novel findings in research.

### **2.2.5 Behavioral theories - contextual framework**

Drew primarily upon behavioral principals of Myers (1995), the Contextual Framework (Bell & Naugle, 2008) is one of the latest efforts aimed at understanding partner violence. The Contextual Framework integrates and expands previous theories and models such as Social Learning Theory, and Background and Situational Model as well as Behavior Analytic Theory (Myers, 1995) and targets the partner aggression as behavior, both physical, psychological, and sexual and both victimization and perpetration (Bell & Naugle, 2008).

According to this framework, several contextual units are identified on macro and micro level perspective. The contextual units are framed as target behavior (physical, psychological and sexual violence), antecedents (distal-childhood abuse, psychopathology, demographics, attachment, relationship characteristics and genetic

background and proximal-partner demands, conflict, stressors), discriminative stimuli (presence of partner, presence of others, presence of child location, availability of weapons), motivating factors (drug and alcohol use, emotional and physical distress, relationship satisfaction), behavioral repertoire (coping skills, problem solving, emotion regulation skills, conflict resolution skills, anger management skills) verbal rules (beliefs about violence, relationship, women, non-violent conflict resolution strategies and alcohol/drugs expectancy) and consequences (reduce stress, avoid argument, partner compliance, praise from others, partner leaves the relationship, police involvement) (Bell & Naugle, 2008, p. 7). Each of the contextual units directly and indirectly may increase/decrease the likelihood of partner violence.

Though sounds promising and seems comprehensive, the model has not been empirically tested. Due to its complexity, it seems unlikely to test the entire model. Piece by piece testing of the model appears useless as the literature in hand has previously summarized most of the variables in the model.

### **2.2.6 Summary of the theories**

The most common theories to explain intimate partner violence were discussed in the theoretical framework part. Each of the theories has strengths and limitations in understanding the partner violence. The limitations that the theories share are mostly similar; lack of or limited empirical evidence, inconsistent results, one sidedness and limited efficacy in development of prevention and treatment programs.

It should also be noted that none of the aforementioned theories are dating-specific and there is no specific theory on psychological aggression. Almost all have been adapted from marital to dating grounds. Additionally, the association between physical and psychological aggression has made it possible to investigate the psychological aggression in a parallel trend to physical one.

Considering these, this study explicitly blends the variables from Feminist Theory and Social Learning Theory, sociocultural and interpersonal approaches, creating a unique perspective in dating violence literature in general and psychological aggression literature in specific. To capture the complexity of psychological aggression among dating college students, a model that simultaneously incorporates factors of patriarchy and gender roles socialization derived from Feminist Theory and witnessing interparental psychological aggression, sexist beliefs and acceptance of psychological aggression derived from Social Learning Theory was proposed.

### **2.3 The Role of Gender**

The debate over the two leading aforementioned theories (Feminist Theory and Family Conflict Theory) in intimate partner violence seems to stem largely from how they take a stand on gender. Very broadly, taking a stand on the “gender symmetry”, power theorist argues that the women may be equally aggressive or more aggressive than traditionally they are thought to be (Archer, 2000). Taking stand on the “gender asymmetry”, feminists perceive men as perpetrators and women as victims (Frieze, 2000, White, Smith, Koss & Figueredo, 2000).

This gender symmetry-asymmetry debate in the literature reflects itself on the issues such as the type, context, motives and consequences of dating violence, sampling, and measurement. Considering sampling, it is argued that the two prevailing theories utilize different samples- family theorists utilizing the community based samples while feminist theorists utilizing the clinical based samples (Archer, 2000). However, there are numerous studies that used community based samples, including college based ones, among feminist scholars (i.e. Graves, Sechrist, White, & Paradise, 2005; Humfrey & White, 2000; Smith, White, & Holland; 2003; Swartout, Swartout, & White; 2011). The second issue is type of violence. It is debated that the conflict theoretical researchers mostly investigate the physical type of dating violence and feminist ones investigate sexual type instead. The Conflict Tactics Scale (Straus, 1979)- the measure of family conflict theory that primarily focuses on physical type of dating violence- was reviewed and added sexual type upon the critics directed

towards. Yet, it is eye catching that the family conflict proponents insistently continue making research on physical type of violence which was also made apparent by Archer (2000) and White et al., (2000). Although sexual assault has been the major study area for the feminists, they genuinely have attempted to study the physical violence alone or sexual and physical violence together to catch the dynamics arising from the co-occurrence (Graves et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2003; White et al., 2001). Similarly, White, McMullin, Swartout, Sechrist and Gollehon (2008) criticized the separation of the studies as sexual vs. physical aggression and suggested the study of physical and sexual types together and went further suggesting the inclusion of psychological type into those. Though, at first, the investigation of psychological aggression separately or collectively with the other types seems to be neglected by both parties, psychological aggression has gained popularity and the inclusion of it into the other types of violence has been highly welcomed by feminist scholars.

Why and who initiated the violence and who got affected and injured due to the violent acts are in most part due to the sampling (as previously discussed) and measurement utilized. Family theorists commonly use data from large community based samples including college-aged ones. Thus, they, by and large, employ short scales such as 8 item Psychological Aggression, 12 item Physical Assault, and 7 item Sexual Assault subscales of Conflict Tactics Scale-Revised (Strauss et al., 1996). On the other hand, feminist scholars take a more comprehensive approach in terms of exploring the construct they are concerned. For example Koss et al. (2007) in the revised Sexual Experiences Survey (SES), investigates the unwanted sexual experiences from both 14 years old and in a year prior to the assessment. The SES assesses a wide range of the unwanted sexual experiences such as unwanted sexual contact, sexual coercion, attempted rape and completed rape. Further, it includes behaviorally specific questions and the context in which and how those acts happens such as threatening to end the relationship, criticizing sexuality or attractiveness, taking advantage of drunk, threatening to physically harm, using force etc for each acts individually. Similarly, Murphy and Hoover (1999) took a multifaceted approach to assess psychological aggression and developed Multidimensional

Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA), rooted in feminist principals. Gender differences found or not found, men scores higher on the subscales Dominance/Intimidation and Denigration subscales of MMEA, which are more closely correlated to physical aggression unlike Hostile Withdrawal (Murphy & Hoover, 1999; Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013). In short, counting on short-single measures influences the rates and limits our understanding of the complexity of dating violence.

Failure to examine adequately the motives of violence has also been controversial. Langhinrichsen-Rohling, McCullars, and Misra (2012) reviewed the literature of articles and book chapters published in 1990 and later in peer reviewed journals to shed light on the motives of people's to perpetrate violence/aggression and gender differences on those motives. The most commonly cited motives were self defense (61%) and power/control (76%) which are the cornerstones of the two prevailing theories. Though methodology (sampling, measurement, definition) made it difficult to interpret the results regarding gender differences, Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2012) concluded that the men's use of violence due to power/control and women's use of violence due to self defense was partially supported.

The cross cultural studies or studies in other cultures have raised the interesting question of over-reporting or under-reporting related closely to gender paradigm. Using a young adult samples and German translate of CTS-R, Krahe and Berger (2005) found several times that women report more perpetration and less victimization rates whereas men report less perpetration and more victimization. The pattern was also cited by Hamby (2005) in the United States and by Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer (2011) in Turkey. Two issues have been the focus; social desirability, and perceptibility of violence (McHugh, 2005). Men may report less perpetration and more victimization since it is socially undesirable or a "slapping" may not be perceived similarly by both parties.

The gender symmetry/asymmetry debate is as older as the phenomenon itself, but some researchers such as Anderson (2005) believes the controversy is more a matter

of how gender is viewed (theoretical) rather than measurement and sampling. In this continual debate, Anderson (2005) posits herself alternatively pointing that the neglected but central issue is the conceptualization of gender. She discusses that the underlying theoretical perspective in the debate of gender symmetry is due to the conceptualization of gender as an “individual” characteristics which she calls as individualistic approach. She further discusses two other emerging theoretical perspectives called as “interactionist” and “structuralist” gender theories, which recognize that gender is socially constructed. Her theorizing gender as individualistic, interactionist and structuralist brings up new ideas and addresses new issues in the further discussion of gender and its relations to dating violence theories. This also affected the researcher’s way of conceptualizing gender and tempted her to look for the underlying structure by integrating across different theories.

Accordingly, Johnson (1995) argued that feminists and family conflict theorist are theoretically and methodologically sound since there are two distinct forms of violence; patriarchal terrorism (later as intimate terrorism) and common couple violence (later as situational couple violence). According to Johnson (1995) patriarchal terrorism is “a product of patriarchal traditions of men's right to control "their" women, is a form of terroristic control of wives by their husbands that involves the systematic use of not only violence, but economic subordination, threats, isolation, and other control tactics” (p. 284). Common couple violence, on the other hand, is “less a product of patriarchy, and more a product of the less gendered causal processes” and leads usually to "minor forms of violence, and more rarely escalates into serious, sometimes even life-threatening forms of violence” (p. 285). The first type is highly “gendered” and mostly shows itself in shelters and law enforcement samples (hospitals, police departments); women are the victims and the consequences are so severe. The latter type is mainly “situational”, gender independent and largely manifests itself in community-based (survey) samples. It is more frequent but minor and the consequences are less likely to be severe.

In the light of feminist interpretations of dating violence, the current study analyzes psychological aggression, bridging theories and taking a multifaceted approach to



measure it rather than brief structured instruments. Taking a feminist perspective, the researcher is also aware of Anderson's (2005) conceptualization of gender and Johnson's (1995) typology of violence. This paper utilizes a college sample, and though the context, motives and consequences of psychological aggression and social desirability is off the focus, they are in mind while interpreting the results.

## **2.4 Psychological Aggression and its Relations to Societal, Perceived Parental and Personal Cognitive Variables**

The review of literature showed that the association of dating violence with patriarchy, gender role socialization, witnessing interparental violence, acceptance of violence, and sexist beliefs were verified by empirical or theoretical studies. However, the concept of psychological aggression among college students is relatively new than physical and sexual dating violence and the research on it is limited and findings are novel. In the following section, a basic outlook on the variables in the model in line with the purpose of the study was presented. Gender similarities and differences were disclosed in the associations, if existed.

### **2.4.1. Patriarchy**

Turkish culture is patriarchic, and consequently families are founded on a patriarchal basis (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982). In this study, the basic antecedent variable related to use of psychological aggression is patriarchy, though studies investigate directly the link between patriarchy and psychological aggression among dating college students are so limited, hardly any. Rather, the researchers have largely dwelled on patriarchy-sounded variables such as gender-related constructs (Jenkins & Aube, 2002), masculinity (Franchina et al., 2001), threat susceptibility (Hammock & O'Hearn, 2002), the need for controlling (Dye & Davis, 2003; Follingstad et al., 2002), and dominance (Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013).

Defined gender related constructs as "characteristics and ideology attached to one or other gender" (p. 1108), Jenkins and Aube (2002) explored its association to dating

aggression surveying 85 non married college couples (170 participants) aged averagely 20. They documented that gender-related constructs contributed significantly in the prediction of use of psychological aggression among dating couples (for males 29%, for females, 27% of the variance). To say more clearly, men with more and women with less traditional gendered constructs were more likely to commit psychologically aggressive acts toward their partners (Jenkins & Aube, 2002).

Franchina et al. (2001) designed a study with 72 college men, who were in a heterosexual relationship at least three months currently or in year prior to the assessment. At first, participants listened to eight audio-taped vignettes which illustrated an interaction between a dating man and woman. Four of the vignettes depicted gender relevant situations in which the masculinity of man was threatened. Before listening, participants were told to imagine that the man and woman in the audiotapes were themselves. After the vignettes, they were given Conflict Tactics Scale to see how they would resolve the conflict. Following, they filled out the measure of male gender role and using a previously determined cut off point, they were divided into two groups as low and high masculine gender role identity. Franchina et al. (2001) wanted to see whether men who adhered to masculine ideology and perceived that their masculinity was threatened by their girlfriends' behavior differed on the scores of verbal aggression. Indeed, men high on masculine gender ideology when faced with threatening partner behaviors as in gender relevant situations committed more psychological (verbal) aggression. Franchina et al. (2001) concluded that when man felt threatened, they were more likely to perpetrate aggressive acts to sustain power and control that they perceived to decrease due to strong gender role ideology.

In a parallel manner, Hammock and O'Hearn (2002) studied the association of threat susceptibility to psychological aggression among college students. Though they incorporated a few variables, such as self esteem, trait anger, neuroticism and perceptions of risk in intimacy to construct threat susceptibility, one of them was the need for control. They hypothesized that people who are more susceptible to threats

(real or imagined) in relationships are more likely respond to those threats with use of psychological aggression. Utilizing a sample of 113 and 101 currently dating female and male college students, they found that threat susceptibility was a significant predictor of psychological dating aggression with a correlation of .33 between them, regardless of gender. Despite how much variance belonged to the need for control was unknown; the finding is still worthy because exerting control to maintain the power has long been cornerstone of patriarchy in feminist arguments.

Regarding the need for control the partner, a clear body of literature has emerged. To illustrate, Dye and Davis (2003) found that the use of controlling tactics, such as need for control, directly ( $r = .66$ ) and indirectly through relationship satisfaction ( $r = -.11$ ) were related to the engagement in psychological aggression amongst dating college students. Clearly saying, college students who were in the need of more controlling and who were less satisfied with their relationships tended to commit more psychologically aggressive acts. No gender difference appeared. Accordingly, Follingstad et al. (2002) with a sample of college student (213 men and 199 women) examined a model integrating anxious attachment, angry temperament, and attempts to control one's partner to predict psychological aggression. As proposed, controlling one's partner mediated the association between anxious attachment, angry temperament and use of psychological aggression across gender. Again, the strong relationship between the need for controlling partner and psychological aggression was established.

Attributing dominance and egalitarianism to patriarchy has added a further dimension to the literature on psychological aggression (Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013). In the first study, Karakurt and Cumbie (2012) tested a model that blended the variables of dominance (authority, restrictiveness, and disparagement) and sexist attitudes (egalitarian attitudes, hostile and benevolent sexism) to understand aggression (physical and psychological) among currently dating 87 dyads using the actor partner interdependence model (APIM). The model accounted nearly same amount of variance across gender (female aggression, 63%; male aggression 64%). In both sexes, dominance contributed to the receipt of

psychological and physical aggression (female dominance to male aggression,  $r = .64$ ; male dominance to female aggression,  $r = .60$ ). In other words, for both males and females, partners' scoring high on dominance increased the likelihood of being target of physical and psychological aggression. Female egalitarian attitudes were related to males' victimization ( $r = .70$ ); that is, males were more likely to experience physical and psychological abuse when their partners had more egalitarian attitudes. On the contrary, the association between male egalitarian attitudes and female victimization was insignificant. To conclude, the strong relationship between psychological aggression and patriarchy- as a means of dominance- was proved regardless of gender. The egalitarian attitudes, on the contrary, meant different to college dating couples.

In a similar research, Karakurt et al., (2013) incorporated dominance, power differences, egalitarianism, and sexism variables to construct a latent variable -rooted in Feminist Theory- named as egalitarian attitude and analyzed its relationship to dating violence (physical, psychological, and sexual) with witnessing violence, attachment insecurity using the APIM with the same participants above. No direct relationship was observed between egalitarian attitude and dating violence across gender.

Considering power differences, Hatipoğlu-Sümer and Toplu (2011) investigated the role of power perceptions and power satisfaction in predicting dating violence perpetration (psychical, psychological and sexual) among currently or previously dating 535 college students (36.8% men, 63.2% women) averagely aged 21.50. The perception of power (2%) and satisfaction with that power (6%) together accounted for 8% of the variance after controlling for demographics and relationship variables. The associations of power perception and power satisfaction to the engagement in dating violence were positive and negative respectively. In other words, having more power and being less satisfied with that power enhanced the risk of committing violence toward dating partner regardless of gender. The researchers argued that the need or wish to have more power rather than the actual power one has might be more relevant to perpetration.

In short, though conceptually well explained, patriarchy bred further empirical support. Therefore, this study attempted to fill the lacuna in specifically in psychological aggression literature. Based on the theory and previous limited findings, we hypothesized that patriarchy would be directly or indirectly through acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs associated with the psychological aggression perpetration among Turkish dating college students.

#### **2.4.2. Gender socialization**

Having being brought up in -already existing- a patriarchal society, people also receive messages, most of which are from their families, regarding what behaviors and beliefs are gender-appropriate or not during childhood. The researcher alleged that conveying consistent and continuous, and explicit and implicit gender role-specific messages may, in the long term, directly or indirectly through gendered beliefs reinforce use of psychological aggression in dating relationships.

The researcher got inspired from the study of Epstein (2008), who asserted that gender socialization messages from parents might be related to adolescents' own gender beliefs and any inconsistency between messages and own gender beliefs could create gender conflict, which in turn might affect well-being. Defined gender socialization –very broadly- as “differential treatment of boys and girls” (p. 1), Epstein (2008) amazedly discovered that there were no measures that gauged direct gender socialization messages and developed Socialization of Gender Norms Scale to address this limitation. The scale reflected discourses from femininity and masculinity literature.

The literature is completely scarce regarding the link between gender socialization and dating violence and/or psychological aggression or the researcher did not encounter. This seems discouraging but not surprising. Scholars have often used traditionality-egalitarianism, femininity-masculinity or gender equality-inequality perspective to associate gender roles with dating violence /psychological aggression,

regarding gender as individualistic. Conceptualizing gender as societal rather than individualistic, the researcher, in this study, focused on the messages received from family while growing up. Thus, literature on traditionality-egalitarianism, femininity-masculinity or gender equality-inequality was not reviewed since reports of those, most probably, could differ from report of gender socialization messages.

A conceptually well developed but empirically not supported concept, a fuller investigation was required to document the hypothesized link; gender role socialization (how we construct gender during childhood with the messages from our parents etc) would be significantly related with psychological aggression perpetration in Turkish dating college students through personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs).

### **2.4.3 Witnessing interparental psychological aggression**

As previously mentioned, the perceived parental variables of this study have certainly been derived from Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1971) which simply states that growing up in an aggressive/violent family teaches individuals to act aggressively or to accept somebody's acting aggressively. In either case, aggression becomes normalized, which in turn, promotes perpetration or victimization. This growing up in an abusive family can happen in two ways; (1) witnessing and (2) experiencing interparental aggression. In the present paper, the researcher focused on witnessing. Moreover, witnessing aggression was divided into two and investigated individually as witnessing (1) father to mother and (2) mother to father aggression, since the researcher thought that gender-specific associations might appear; that is, father to mother aggression might be predictive of men's aggression.

Contrary to patriarchy and gender role socialization, there has been a great number of research on the direct and indirect (through mediators) associations between witnessing interparental aggression and later use of aggression in dating relationships. However, the rate of studies rapidly decreases when the issue particularly addressed is the link between interparental psychological aggression and

later use of psychological aggression in college students' dating relationships. Thus, flexibility was needed and appreciated, and the researcher did not limit the review of literature to witnessing interparental psychological aggression and psychological aggression.

Some researchers explored early experiences of aggression instead of witnessing (e.g., Edwards, Desai, Gidycz, & VanWynsberghe, 2009; Luthra & Gidycz, 2006) to provide empirical evidence for the proposition of Social Learning Theory (also used interchangeably with intergenerational transmission of violence, family of origin violence). Edwards et al. (2009) investigated the associations between childhood paternal and maternal victimization, adolescent/adulthood victimization and women's later use of psychological aggression utilizing a 10 week longitudinal design with a college sample of 374 dating college women. Maternal physical and psychological aggression, paternal physical and psychological abuse, childhood sexual victimization, adolescent/adulthood sexual, physical and psychological victimization were regressed on women's use of psychological aggression. According to retrospective results, women's use of psychological aggression in the current dating relationships was predicted largely by adolescent/adulthood psychological victimization (44%) and paternal physical abuse (2%). According to prospective results, women's reports of psychological aggression over interim were predicted by adolescent/adulthood psychological perpetration (9%, measured at the beginning of semester), psychological victimization over the interim (29%). As clear from the results, only paternal physical abuse emerged as a significant predictor-accounting for a very small amount of variance- among several childhood maternal and paternal victimizations. Rather, women's own psychological victimization history was the most robust predictor.

Luthra and Gidycz (2006) evaluated the background-situational model of Riggs and O'Leary (1989) with a sample of 200 undergraduates, casually or seriously dating. As explained earlier (*please see* p. 18), two of the background variables of the model are exposure to parent-to-parent and parent-to-child aggression. Contrary to the model, the authors operationalized the latter only. The logistic regression analyses

showed a large gender difference (83.3% females, 30% males) in prediction of physical dating aggression. Exposure to parent to child physical violence was a significant predictor only for females. Saying explicitly, women who reported having physically violent fathers were three times more likely to act aggressively in their current relationships. This association did not emerge for males.

Some researchers added witnessing interparental aggression into exposure to parental aggression, but focused only on physical aggression rather than psychological (Eriksson & Mazerolle, 2015; Milletich, Kelley, Doane & Pearson, 2010); Murphy & Blumenthal, 2000)

Bolstering the idea that family of origin violence is gender specific, Eriksson and Mazerolle (2015) utilized a sample of men arrested due to a wide variety of offenses such as warrant, assault, and drug possession. Four waves of data were collected from those and the final sample composed of 303 arrestee men –mean age 31- who completed the measures of physical partner violence, childhood physical abuse, observing parental physical violence, and justification of wife beating from the first wave. According to the first logistic regression analysis, after controlled for demographics and substance abuse, not childhood abuse but observing interparental violence predicted the partner physical aggression. The second analysis investigated the gendered nature of witnessing and (after controlling for demographics, substance abuse and childhood abuse) indicated that observing bidirectional and paternal physical violence were associated a fivefold and threefold increase in perpetration, respectively. Though justification of violence was correlated to perpetration of violence, it did not mediate the relationship of witnessing; thus a direct relationship was observed.

A study by Milletich et al. (2010) explored whether witnessing and experiencing childhood violence were related to perpetration dating aggression. Researchers individually investigated witnessing mother to father and father to mother physical aggression and their relation to physical dating violence perpetration across gender. 703 (183 males and 475 females) heterosexual college students experienced in dating



relationships and resided with parents prior to the age of 16 composed the sample of the research. The results were in the expected direction; witnessing greater from father to mother and from mother to father physical aggression prior to the age of 16 increased the risk of perpetrating physical aggression toward their dating partners.

Using structural equation modeling, Murphy and Blumenthal (2000) examined physical dating aggression in a sample of 207 female college students aged between 18 and 25 with a mean of 20 years. They sought answer to the question of interpersonal problems (dominance, vindictiveness, and intrusiveness) fully or partially mediated the relationship between parent to child and parent to parent physical violence and physical dating aggression. Though associations between father to child, mother to child, mother to father and father to mother physical aggression and dating aggression appeared to be significant and positive, subsequent test comparing the full and partial mediation models supported the former. Consequently, the scholars argued that intergenerational patterns of aggression contributed to interpersonal problems which in turn resulted in aggression.

Some other scholars attempted to study psychological aggression, but did not distinguish the concept from physical aggression. To illustrate, Alexander et al. (1991) in a dating sample of 152 males and 228 females, incorporated social learning theory and feminist theory and predicted physical and verbal aggression perpetration with witnessing and experiencing physical violence and attitudes toward women variables. They reported that witnessing father to mother and mother to father physical aggression in family did not contribute to his/her own extending verbal (and physical) aggression for either gender. However, it was found that male students who observed physical interparental violence held more conservative attitudes and those attitudes were significantly related to perpetration of verbal and physical aggression. Briefly, they concluded that students who witnessed aggression in the family of origin receive gender related messages regarding power and hierarchy, which in turn, might affect their use and receipt of aggression later in adult relationships.

In a longitudinal study, with 213 married or in-relationship individuals followed from adolescence (age averaged 12) to adulthood (age averaged 32), Cui et al. (2010) investigated the association between interparental aggression and relationship aggression and the mediating role of parental aggression using a structural equation modeling approach. Data of interparental verbal and physical aggression (measured at 1989, 1990 and 1991), parental verbal and physical aggression to adolescent (measured at 1992 and 1994) to predict youth verbal and physical aggression toward spouse/partner (measured at 2003, 2005 and 2007) and control variables (parents education, target youth gender, marital status, and relationship duration) were used in the model. The direct relationships between interparental verbal aggression and relationship aggression, interparental verbal aggression and parent-to-child verbal aggression, and parent-to-child verbal aggression and relationship aggression, were all significant, indicating that experiencing parental verbal aggression partially mediated the relationship between witnessing interparental verbal aggression and relationship verbal aggression. That is, individuals who experienced and witnessed verbal aggression in the family committed verbal aggression toward their spouses and partners. Longitudinal nature of the design allowed for causal inferences. No gender differences were apparent.

There are some other studies, taking a more comprehensive approach, link family of origin to dating violence. In a study conducted with 228 college men averagely aged 19 years old, researchers examined a model in which the mediator role of hostile dominant interpersonal problems between (1) child psychological, physical and sexual abuse and (2) childhood physical and psychological exposure, and sexual, physical, and psychological dating aggression was proposed (Edwards et al., 2014). All of the variables were significantly and positively correlated to each other except for the one between exposure to witnessing parental violence and hostile dominant interpersonal problems. Since no direct relationships between exogenous and endogenous variables were proposed, witnessing interparental violence was directly and indirectly not related to dating aggression perpetration including psychological form, among college male students.

Using a dyadic perspective, Karakurt et al. (2013) tested a model that examined the interplay among family of origin (Social Learning Theory), attachment insecurity (Attachment Theory), egalitarian attitudes (Feminist Theory) and dating aggression among college students. Authors claimed that witnessing parent-to parent physical violence during childhood would be (1) directly or (2) indirectly -via attachment insecurity and egalitarian attitudes- related to dating aggression (measured by physical, psychological, and sexual). Indeed, a positive relationship was identified between family of origin and dating aggression, but only for females of the dyad. Specifically, females who witnessed interparental conflict during childhood were more prone to partners' aggression in adult relationships. Nonetheless, indirect effects were detected neither for females and males.

Some early research endeavored to bond the hypothesis to psychological aggression; yet the type of witnessed and experienced aggression in the childhood was different from type they investigated. For instance, Avakame (1998), based on a nationwide representative sample of 960 males and 1183 females, differentiated between witnessing and experiencing violence in the childhood and explored whether self control mediated the relationship between those variables and use of psychological aggression against wives. Though they inspected the effect of physical violence on psychological aggression, they found some evidences supporting family of origin hypothesis. Witnessing father to mother and experiencing father to child physical aggression in childhood were directly and positively related to sustaining psychological aggression in adulthood. No mediation effect was obtained. The relationship held for both gender.

In a study on women's verbal and physical dating aggression, in a sample of 702 college students, White and Humprey (1994) examined the witnessing and experiencing childhood parental aggression, accepting attitudes of aggression, aggressive/impulsive personality traits, psychopathology, prior use of aggression, prior receipt of victimization, and opportunity to aggress by utilizing a longitudinal design. Data collected at the first cohort (at the beginning of first year of college) was used to predict data collected in the second cohort (nine months later, at the end

of the first year of college). All factors contributed to the prediction of verbal aggression of females except for accepting aggression (58% of the variance). Witnessing physical interparental accounted for a small amount of variance (2%) and was positively related.

Gover et al. (2008) explored the link between witnessing interparental (father to mother and mother to father) physical aggression and current use of psychological aggression in a large sample of 2541 college students -39.8% of which was male- and found no relationship for both gender.

Research into the effect of witnessing (and/or experiencing) on use of psychological aggression has progressed lately. Using a sample of 572 dating college students (177 males, 395 females), the authors inquired into whether witnessing conjugal violence, experiences with parent child aggression, attitudes toward woman, general drinking patterns, attitudes toward woman, and drinking three hours prior to argument predicted verbal dating aggression (Shook et al., 2000). For women, the variables accounted 13% of the variance, and witnessing was not found to be significant variables. For men, accounted amount of variance for the acts of verbal aggression decreased to 5%. Again, the association was concluded to be insignificant.

Kennedy, Bolger, and Shrout (2002) designed a study in which they investigated the links between witnessing interparental psychological aggression and later reports of relationship conflict in adult relationships with 73 heterosexual couples. To avoid memory biases, they asked participants to keep a diary regarding their experiences of conflict twice a day over 28 days period. The numbers of conflicts were determined by combining the information from both parties of the relationship, thus an agreed-upon conflict index was created. Witnessing interparental psychological aggression was assessed on a retrospective basis. The results did not support the hypothesis. No relationship was found between witnessing and reports of agreed-conflict days both for females and males.

Contrary to the most research, Black et al. (2010) investigated the association of current witnessing of interparental aggression to dating aggression in emerging adulthood. The sample consisted of 292 undergraduate students aged between 18 and 27. They responded to a self report survey regarding their own and parents' current use of physical and psychological aggression. Although a small amount of variance for psychological (14%) and physical (12%) dating violence explained, observing parental psychological and physical aggression predicted psychological and physical perpetration of dating aggression, respectively. That is, participants who reported current observation of parental psychological aggression were at higher risk of exhibiting of psychological aggression towards their dating partners. The direction was same for physical type. The results of regression analyses revealed no differences in men and women.

As clear from the literature review, the link between early witnessing experiences and later use of dating has been conceptually established, but the findings are mixed, which is largely due to the type of aggression studied (physical/psychological), the sample utilized (male only, female only), the inconsistency between antecedent and outcome variable (physical witnessing, psychological aggression) and inability to separate witnessing (father to mother and mother to father). Taken together, investigating the association between witnessing psychological interparental aggression and the psychological aggression would add a further dimension to limited literature. Given this call, the researcher hypothesized that witnessing interparental psychological aggression would be directly or indirectly -through acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs- related with use of psychological aggression among dating college students across gender.

#### **2.4.4 Acceptance of psychological aggression**

As witnessing interparental aggression during childhood, another closely linked factor that may put dating college students at risk for the use of aggression is accepting attitudes toward violence. There is lots of evidence in support of assumption that higher endorsement of accepting attitudes toward violence may

increase aggression among dating college students. Yet again, paralleled to the marital violence research, first physical, sexual and then psychological, the research is limited in psychological aggression. Thus, to provide evidence for the linkage between acceptability and aggression, research including physical (e.g., Archer & Graham-Kevan, 2003; Clarey et al., 2010; Nabors, & Jasinski, 2009; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001; Deal & Wampler, 1986; Riggs & O'Leary, 1989) dating violence perpetration and utilizing subsamples of adolescents (O'Keefe, 1998; Orpinas, Hsieh, Song, Holland, & Nahapetyan, 2013) and adults (e.g., Eriksson & Mazerolle, 2015; O'Leary, Smith-Slep & O'Leary, 2007) were reviewed, as well.

Prior studies showed that witnessing interparental aggression may put the people at risk of accepting of their own or other's aggression due to desensitization. Considering psychological aggression, Aloia and Solomon (2013) studied this association in a sample of 74 females and 40 males, whose ages ranged 18 through 23 with a mean of 18.76 years. The perceptions of college aged students about acceptability of verbal aggression were associated with their exposure to verbal aggression in the family ( $r = .47$ ) and the association became strongest for students with higher motivational systems with aggression (Aloia & Solomon, 2013). Findings showed that students reported more positive accepting attitudes for verbal aggression when they recalled more interparental verbal aggression during childhood and they were more sensitive to possible conflict situations. Therefore, they concluded that the strength of people's motivational systems would be an agent in reducing acceptability of aggression in dating relationships.

In review of studies, the literature indicates extensive research on the relationship between acceptability and physical aggression. To illustrate, Nabors and Jasinski (2009) designed a longitudinal study in which they explored the gender role, and gendered violence attitudes before and after the use of aggression in order to decide if attitudes precede or follow the aggression, in a sample of 579 male and 1254 female college students with two waves of data (at the beginning and end of the first year). Though the variances explained were too low (at around 5%) in each hypothesis tested, subsequent logistic regression revealed that the attitude-aggression

relationship might be more complex than thought to be. Broadly, not the attitude-aggression but aggression-attitude predictions appeared significant. Specifically, for both males and females, none of the attitude related variables (endorsement of chivalry, acceptance of male violence, acceptance of traditional stereotypes) were associated to the acts of physical dating aggression. On the other hand, when prior use of physical violence (at the first wave) were regressed on chivalry (1), acceptance of male aggression (2) and acceptance of traditional gender roles (3), significant associations emerged for the latter two for males. For females, physical assaults predicted only acceptance of traditional gender roles. Taken collectively, the researchers concluded that attitudes might follow the behaviors, and gender differences were evident. In either way, further evidence was provided for the link of acceptance and use of aggression.

O’Kefee (1998) in a sample of 232 high school students aged between 14 and 19, tried to find out the differentiating risk and protective factors for adolescents who witnessed childhood aggression, and committed or did not commit aggression later in dating relationships when grew up. Acceptance of dating aggression was one of the four variables found significant, which differentiate students who witnessed interparental physical violence and used physical dating violence from those who did not, just for males not females.

Similarly, a study conducted by Clarey et al. (2010) in a sample of 204 high school (Mexican) students -129 females and 75 males- aged from 15 to 18 years, investigated the mediating role of acceptance of violence on the relationship between witnessing interparental aggression and use of physical aggression using Baron and Kenny’s mediation analysis. The researchers found a positive relationship between acceptance and perpetration of violence and the mediating role of acceptance was affirmed.

Orpinas et al. (2013) identified the trajectories of physical aggression using latent class growth analysis and investigated the match between these trajectories and acceptability of aggression using a sample consisting of randomly selected 588 sixth

graders at nine schools in the USA. Using a longitudinal design, students from six to twelve grades were yearly surveyed. The results of the study indicated two trajectories for boys and girls; low and increasing. Students who were in the low perpetration (and victimization) trajectory (65%) had the least acceptability. Consistently, students who were in the high perpetration (and victimization) trajectory (27%) had the most acceptability. Taken together, aggression and acceptability trajectories followed a perfectly similar pattern.

Eriksson and Mazerolle (2015) surveyed a sample of 303 male arrestees, 18.15% of who was arrested for assaults including partner aggression. Contrary to the researchers' hypothesis, justifying attitudes toward wife beating did not mediate the relationship between witnessing bidirectional physical parental aggression and acting physically aggressive toward partner, though a strong positive relationship between acceptance and aggression was salient.

In addition, Straus's (2004) International Dating Violence study (*please see* p. 4 for sample details) hypothesized that higher cultural acceptance of violence would increase the rates of physical aggression. Consistent with the hypothesis, he asked a question to see their agreement with the item, "I can think of a situation when I would approve of a husband slapping a wife's face." According to the results, 42% of the students (at the median) approved with a range of 26% to 79%. The correlation with the cultural approval and perpetration was .26; that is, students who culturally approved, assaulted more dating violence. Therefore, attitudes and behavior were interrelated. Parallel with this study, Archer and Graham-Kevan (2003) assessed beliefs about aggression and physical aggression among a sample of college students ( $N = 40$ ; 11 men and 29 women), shelter women ( $N = 40$ ), and male prisoners ( $N = 46$ ), who reported at least one acts of physical aggression to their current partner. Generally speaking, the relation between beliefs and self reported aggression was largely supported but the strength of the relation differed with regard to samples and gender.



Some other scholars used a “relationship abuse” term including both physical and psychological type. To illustrate, Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2001) tested a model that predicted relationship abuse using family violence (interparental and parent to child abuse), negative beliefs regarding gender and violence (attitudes toward women, acceptance of violence, rape myth acceptance and adversarial sexual beliefs) and negative peer experience as latent variables in a sample of 611 college men with a mean age of 19.65. The model explained 79% of the variance and all of the paths were significant, the strongest of which was the one between negative beliefs and relationship abuse ( $r = .50$ ). Family of origin directly and indirectly through negative beliefs predicted relationship abuse; that is witnessing and experiencing violence increased the likelihood of accepting violence, which in turn, further increased the likelihood of perpetrating dating abuse.

Similar to Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2001), O’Hearn and Margolin (2000) investigated whether experiencing physical abuse in the family during childhood and engaging in physically aggressive acts toward partner was moderated by acceptance of abuse in a sample of largely nonmarried men (77%) with the mean age of 30. Findings demonstrated that for men who kept favorable attitudes toward aggression, physical abuse in family and perpetration of physical and emotional abuse were strongly correlated. This finding did not emerge for men who were not in supportive of aggression toward partner. The authors remarked that abuse history in one’s life as a risk marker may function differently in the presence of more positive attitudes toward aggression.

There is a scarcity in the studies investigating the relationship between acceptability of psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression among college students (Capezza & Arriaga, 2008; Fincham et al., 2008; White & Humprey, 1994). Capezza and Arriaga (2008) examined the role of factors related to acceptance of psychological aggression against women on a sample including 189 college students from a large midwestern university in United States. Participants responded to hypothetical scenarios in which three different levels of aggression were assessed; baseline, verbal and emotional. Results of multivariate analyses pointed out that

compared to baseline conditions, in the hypothetical scenarios of verbal and emotional condition, the perpetrator's behavior was not perceived as unacceptable. Students who held more traditional beliefs and who used psychological aggression against their previous or current partners had more justifying and accepting attitudes toward psychological aggression. Psychological aggression was not perceived as abusive and negative among college students.

Fincham et al. (2008) specifically investigated the link between attitudes toward psychological aggression in a sample of 687 college students ( $M = 19.75$ ), half of which was currently in a dating relationship, utilizing a longitudinal design. Attitudes toward aggression (as the sub-constructs of violence, abuse and control) at first wave were used to predict use of psychological aggression at the first and second wave as the validation of the attitude scale. Findings indicated that violence control and abuse were positively correlated with psychological aggression gauged at time one. After the initial perpetration was controlled, attitudes toward violence and abuse (but not control) measured at time one predicted later use of psychological aggression at time two. The results did not vary by gender. Fincham et al. (2008) easily concluded that favorable attitudes of accepting aggression were related to immediate and later use of psychological aggression.

To the researcher's knowledge, the only finding contrary to the hypothesis for acceptability and aggression was that of White and Humprey's (1994). They utilized a variety of factors including abuse history, acceptance, aggressive/impulsive personality traits, psychopathology, prior use of aggression, prior receipt of victimization, and opportunity to aggress to predict verbal aggression among 702 female college students and found that all factors, except for accepting attitudes toward violence, contributed to the prediction of verbal aggression of females.

As supported by a huge amount of the research findings, acceptance of aggression is intensively associated with the use of aggression and functions as a mediator between witnessing and/or experiencing of interparental aggression and psychological aggression. On the basis of the often cited research previously

discussed, regarding link between acceptability and dating aggression, and preliminary findings, this study hypothesized that accepting of psychological aggression would be directly related with use of psychological aggression. It was further hypothesized that acceptance of psychological aggression would have a mediating effect on the link witnessing interparental psychological aggression and psychological aggression among dating college students. This mediating effect would also emerge for societal variables and psychological aggression though not studied in the literature.

#### **2.4.5 Sexist beliefs**

Posited by Glick and Fiske (1996), Ambivalent Sexism Theory argues that sexism has two dimensions; hostile and benevolent. Hostile and benevolent sexism represents negative and positive evaluations of gender, respectively. Hostile form of sexism denigrates women while benevolent one romanticizes. More specifically, hostile sexism can be described as the typical antipathy that is commonly associated with sexist prejudices, in contrast, benevolent sexism is characterized as a set of attitudes that are sexist in their prescription of stereotypical roles for women but are subjectively positive and affectionate towards women (Glick & Fiske, 1996). According to Glick and Fiske (1996), ambivalent sexists reconcile their hostile and benevolent attitudes by differentiating between "good" and "bad" women. Thus, benevolence is targeted at those women that conform to traditional roles, whereas hostility is reserved for women in nontraditional roles (Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner & Zhu, 1997). By means of this bi-dimensional conceptualization, they complement each other in reinforcing traditional gender roles, and thus preserve them (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

There is a body of research regarding how sexism is related to aggression, over again, mostly studied with sexual (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Lisco et al., 2012) and physical aggression (Allen, Swan, & Raghavan, 2008; Bookwala, Frieze, Smith, & Ryan, 1992).

Forbes and Adam-Curtis (2001) noticed the lack of theoretically guided research on sexual aggression and investigated the role of early familial aggression experiences, attitudinal explanations, and personality traits in predicting sexual coercion among 438 predominantly European American college students. For attitudinal explanations, they used Attitudes toward Women Scale, Hostility toward Women scale, Adversarial Heterosexual Beliefs Scale, Neo-Sexism Scale, Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, and Rape Myths Scale. Forbes and Adam-Curtis (2001) separately run hierarchical regression analyses and found that for males, mother's and father's use of verbal and physical aggression, and reasoning were positively and negatively associated to sexual coercion, respectively. For females, among early aggression experiences, only mother's use of physical aggression was significant predictor. For attitudinal variables, only neo-sexism and hostile sexism were related to men's use of sexual aggression. In contrast, none of the attitudinal variables were significant for women. Overall, the contribution of hostile sexism (rather than benevolent sexism) and perceived parental attributes were obviously clear, though only for males.

Lisco et al. (2012), building on heavy drinking and sexual aggression literature, argued that identifying the moderating role of sexism would be useful. They utilized a sample of 205 heterosexual in-relationship men, between the ages of 21 and 35. The researchers reasoned that heavy and episodic drinking would be positively related to engagement in sexually aggressive acts toward a female partner among men who adhere to higher hostile sexism. Consistent with the reasoning, they found that endorsement of hostile sexism moderated the previously established drinking and sexual assault relationship. The moderating effect for benevolent sexism was not significant statistically.

Compared to sexual aggression, relatively little research has been carried out on the role of sexism in physical aggression. In an overwhelmingly Latin American sample of 232 undergraduates, the majority of which were at the age of 18 and 19 years old, Allen et al. (2008) examined the relationships between gender symmetry, sexism and dating aggression using The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and physical assault subscale of Conflict Tactics Scale-Revised. While the Ambivalent Sexism Theory

that illustrated the bidirectional nature of sexism as hostile and benevolent was empirically affirmed in four of the hypothesized paths, no associations were noted for men and women's use of physical aggression (as self defense or initiator) and benevolent sexism.

Bookwala et al. (1992), based on the established links earlier in the marital grounds, used a multivariate approach and utilized a variety of variables –attitudes toward violence and sex roles, jealousy, use of interpersonal violence, and verbal aggression toward partner, and verbal and physical victimization from partner- to explain physical aggression among 305 dating college students (227 women and 78 men). Different patterns emerged for men and women. For men, receipt of more physical aggression from partner, use of more verbal aggression toward partner, more accepting violent attitudes, and less traditional sex role attitudes appeared as significant predictors. For women, receipt of more physical aggression from partner, use of verbal aggression, less accepting violent attitudes, more traditional sex role attitudes, feeling more jealous, and use of interpersonal violence were significant. Specifically speaking, for women more and for men less traditional attitudes toward sex roles predicted more physical aggression toward dating partner.

Although sexist beliefs literature has largely dwelled on the relationships between sexist beliefs and physical violence and sexual assault, researchers have investigated the relationship of sexist beliefs to psychological aggression, as well (Forbes et al., 2006; Forbes et al., 2004; Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013; Ryan & Kanjorski, 1993).

Forbes et al. (2006) compared the aggressive sports athletes to the non-athletes on the measures of sexism, misogyny, homophobia and aggression (including psychological, sexual and physical) in a sample of 182 college dating men, 78.2% of which reported participation in aggressive sports from a Midwestern private university. As allegedly proposed, the aggressive sport athletes had more benevolently and hostilely sexist attitudes, greater hostility of women, more acceptance of aggression toward women, and more negative attitudes toward

homosexuality than non-athletes. The effect sizes for attitudinal measures were moderate and high. The differences were stronger for hostile sexism than benevolent sexism. Accordingly, athletes compared to non-athletes, committed more psychologically, sexually and physically aggressive acts with small to medium differences. The findings were recognized as evidences to attitudes to behavior consistency.

Not directly observed, but defined egalitarian attitudes as a latent inferred through the measures of benevolent sexism, hostile sexism and egalitarian attitudes, Karakurt and Cumbie (2012), using an actor partner interdependence model in a sample of 87 dyads, reported a strong association ( $r = .69$ ) between women's egalitarian attitudes and dating aggression (latent variable of physical and psychological aggression). Women who held more egalitarian attitudes, engaged in more aggression. The association was not apparent in men's aggression. Likewise, parallel findings were evident in the Jenkins and Aube's (2002) study, college men with more and college women with less traditional attitudes perpetrated more psychological aggression. In a subsequent study, despite using only collegiate males' sample, Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2012) found that negative beliefs regarding gender and violence were positively related to relationship abuse (including psychological one). They further noted that those negative beliefs partially mediated the relationship between family violence and relationship abuse, as hypothesized in the current study.

Karakurt et al. (2013) tested a structural equation model for predicting relationship aggression among 174 dating college students with an average age of 22 years. 86% of the students were undergraduates and the rest was graduates. The model directly and indirectly through egalitarian attitudes assessed the relationship between history of abuse and relationship aggression. The authors defined the egalitarian attitudes as a latent construct measured by four scales: Dominance Scale, Sexual Relationship Power Scale, Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale, and Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. The relationship aggression was measured indirectly as latent variable using psychological, physical, and sexual subscales of Conflict Tactics Scale-Revised. Results revealed a direct relationship between witnessing interparental aggression

(physical) and relationship aggression and interparental aggression and egalitarian attitude but no direct relationship between egalitarian attitude and relationship aggression; that is egalitarian attitudes did not have a mediating role on the relationship between witnessing and relationship aggression. For men, no direct and indirect associations among variables were uncovered. Though the findings added greatly to feminist and social learning theory of dating aggression, the model did not assess psychological aggression as a separate construct. Furthermore, witnessing and aggression variables were not coherent.

Ryan and Kanjorski (1993) attempted to investigate the relation between enjoyment of sexist humor, sexist beliefs and dating aggression (including the psychological type) in a sample of 172 male and 227 female college students. They reported that engagement in psychological aggression and enjoyment of sexist humor was reasonably correlated for males but not for females. Given that enjoyment of sexist humor was strongly associated with sexist beliefs (rape myth acceptance, adversarial sexual beliefs, acceptance of interpersonal violence) for males (.47 through .54) and females (.52 through .57); it was not unlikely to infer that sexist beliefs and psychological aggression are interrelated.

Forbes et al. (2004) carried out a study to demonstrate the associations between first (traditional/blatant sexism) and second (modern/hidden sexism) generation measures of sexism, sexism supporting beliefs (such as rape myths, adversarial sexual beliefs) and all three forms of dating aggression among 107 men and 157 women college students, aged between 18 to 21. The results widely supported their hypothesis; for men and women, 7 of the 9 measures of sexism (except for the Modern Sexism Scale and Benevolent Sexism) were weakly or moderately related to reports of verbal aggression. Also noteworthy was the significant positive association between hostilely sexist beliefs and verbal aggression ( $r = .34$  and  $r = .29$ , for men and women, respectively). Benevolently sexist beliefs appeared to be non-significant for both gender. Overall, the findings substantiated the assertion that sexist beliefs and psychological aggression are closely linked to each other. Similar to Forbes et al. (2004), Rojas-Solis and Raimundez (2011) examined the associations of verbal-

emotional aggression to hostile and benevolent sexism among Spanish collegiate men and women, aged between 18 and 36 years old. The results indicated weak correlations among hostile and benevolent sexism and verbal-emotional aggression.

Thoughtful review of literature provided neither discouraging nor surprising findings. The contribution of hostile sexism is obviously more explicit compared to the benevolent sexism. Regarding the association between sexist beliefs and psychological aggression, novel findings have lately emerged. Given the documented link, and preliminary findings, this study hypothesized that (1) there would be a positive relationship between hostilely sexist beliefs and use of psychological aggression. The researcher further hypothesized that those sexist beliefs would mediate the relationship between (2) societal and (3) perceived parental variables and use of psychological aggression among dating college students.

## **2.5 Studies of Dating Violence in Turkey**

The available empirical evidence on dating violence has been very limited in Turkey. The limited studies focused on prevalence (Aslan et al., 2008; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011) and correlates of dating violence (Hatipoğlu-Sümer & Toplu, 2011; İnan-Arslan, 2002) and attitudes toward dating violence (Kaya-Sakarya, 2013; Yumuşak, 2013). Regarding psychological aggression, scale adaptation (Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013; Karakurt et al., 2009) and scale development studies (Kılınçer & Tuzgöl-Dost, 2013) have been identified. Recently, there has been growing interest in investigating psychological aggression among collegiate (Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013; Kılınçer & Tuzgöl-Dost, 2014). No longitudinal, experimental studies or prevention and intervention studies on dating violence and psychological dating aggression have existed.

İnan-Arslan (2002) concentrated on the correlations (seriousness of the relationship, religiousness, traditionality, power satisfaction, and attachment), and consequences (distress levels) of sexual, physical and psychological dating violence among 277 college students and concluded that the results varied with regard to type and agent



(victimization and perpetration) of dating violence. More specifically, men and women exhibited greater levels of sexually and physically violent acts, respectively. Considering demographics, the seriousness of the relationship was negatively linked to victimization experiences, but unlinked to perpetration experiences. The religiousness was negatively and positively related to physical and sexual dating violence victimization for women and men, respectively. Besides, more religious men perpetrated more sexual violence. Regarding correlates, more traditional men and women inflicted sexual violence and received sexual and physical violence. Power satisfaction was negatively associated to perpetration of psychological violence and victimization of sexual violence. College students with preoccupied attachment reported to have used more sexual violence. Considering consequences, women distressed more by physical victimization than men.

Like İnan-Arslan (2002), Hatipoğlu-Sümer and Toplu (2011) investigated the role of power perceptions and power satisfaction as predictors of physical, sexual and psychological dating violence perpetration and victimization among 535 college students who previously or currently had a dating relationship. They entered gender, age, and the seriousness (dating vs. cohabiting) and length of the relationship as control variables. For victimization, gender and age did not emerge as significant factors. On the contrary, the dating students reported more victimization as the length of the relationship increased and as the relationship turned into more serious, cohabiting, namely. Not the perception but the satisfaction of power in the relationship appeared to be significant. Students reported more victimization as the satisfaction with the power decreased. For perpetration, the role of the control variables did not change but the power did. Different from victimization, students who perceived more power but less satisfaction with that power behaved violently.

In review of correlational studies, the literature has indicated scarce research findings on the association between dating violence and related constructs. Regarding power satisfaction, some similarities have been detected, though. Yet, multiple types of violence, aspects of victimization and perpetration, and indiscrimination of types in the second study made it difficult to infer conclusions.

Addressing the need of research on attitudes toward dating violence, attempts have been made (Kaya-Sakarya, 2013; Kepir-Savoly, Ulaş, & Demirtaş-Zorbaz, 2014; Sezer, 2008; Yumuşak, 2013). Sezer (2008) adapted Acceptance of Couple Violence Scale, which measured acceptance of physical violence among couples. Using this scale, Kepir-Savoly et al. (2014) investigated the factors related to couple violence acceptance among 256 university students and found that the length of the relationship, and dysfunctional relationship beliefs (helplessness and unlovability beliefs) were positively associated with acceptance. Moreover, men reported more acceptability toward violence than women. Accordingly, Kaya-Sakarya (2013), -utilizing the aforementioned scale- investigated the attitudes toward physical violence with regard to some demographic variables with a sample of 1106 college students (679 women, and 427 men) and revealed students in Engineering compared to Literature, males compared to females, low socioeconomic status compared to middle and high, students from low educated families compared to high ones had more favorable attitudes.

Unlike the two other studies, Yumuşak (2013) examined the attitudes toward physical and psychological dating violence considering to demographic variables in a sample of 1171 college students. Though, he asked participants to simply rate their victimization and perpetration experiences on a yes/no categorical endpoint, Yumuşak (2013) broadly concluded that attitudes toward physical and psychological dating violence differed according to gender, relationship status, and dating violence experiences. Additionally, the attitudes were moderately and slightly related to sexist beliefs and narcissistic personality, respectively.

In the light of psychological aggression, due to lack of standardized measures for psychological aggression, researchers devoted considerable effort to adapting and developing instruments. In line with this purpose, Karakurt et al. (2009) and Toplu-Demirtaş and Hatipoğlu-Sümer (2013) adapted Emotional Abuse Questionnaire and

Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse, respectively. Synchronously, Kılınçer and Tuzgöl-Dost (2013) developed Romantic Relationship Assessment Inventory.

The 66-itemed Emotional Abuse Questionnaire (EAQ) asked participants' experiences with psychological aggression through four-point Likert type scale under the dimensions of isolation, degradation, sexual abuse and property damage. In the adaptation phase, the scale was administered to 95 college students and exposed to principal component analysis. While validating, the authors proved that EAQ was negatively connected to relationship consensus, relationship cohesiveness, and dyadic adjustment (Karakurt et al., 2009).

The validity evidences of Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA) verified that the sub-constructs of MMEA (Restrictive Engulfment, Denigration, Hostile Withdrawal, and Dominance/Intimidation) were moderately and slightly correlated to physical dating violence, and anxious and avoidant attachment, respectively. The associations between psychological aggression and relationship satisfaction were moderately negative (Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013). Kılınçer and Tuzgöl-Dost (2013) developed 70 itemed and single-factor Romantic Relationship Assessment Inventory utilizing a college sample and validated it through relationship satisfaction. They demonstrated that psychological aggression and relationship satisfaction were negatively linked to each other. However, the instrument has raised some concerns regarding its content validity. Though it largely included psychological aggression items, there are items reminding physical aggression such as slapping, throwing objects, destroying and damaging property. In short, the validity evidences of the available instruments have consistently signified negative association between relationship satisfaction and psychological aggression.

Apart from those studies, research on psychological aggression has remained rather scarce among collegiate (Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013; Kılınçer & Tuzgöl-Dost, 2014). The findings of a study conducted by Toplu-Demirtaş et al. (2013) suggested that relationship satisfaction fully mediated the relations between commitment and

psychological dating violence victimization. That is, being more committed into a relationship increased the likelihood of having greater satisfaction, which in turn decreased the risk of being psychologically victimized. Kılınçer and Tuzgöl-Dost (2014) predicted perceived abuse in romantic relationships through psychological and demographic variables and found a negative relation between self esteem and relationship abuse and a positive association between age, length of the relationship and gender (males).

To sum, research on psychological aggression among college students in Turkey is in its infancy and flourishing. A wide range of variables were included in limited research. The findings are novel and far from conclusive. Except for few (i.e., İnan-Arslan, 2002; Toplu-Demirtaş et al., 2013), the researchers did not base their research on theoretical arguments. Therefore, this study is an attempt to fill the lacuna in the psychological dating aggression literature. The researcher seeks to explore, support and extend the literature on the impact of societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive variables on use of psychological aggression among dating college students. To this end, the overall hypothesized, which would be tested separately for men and women, model was depicted in Figure 1 on page 14.

## **2.6 Summary of the Review of Literature**

In this chapter, the researcher presented the review of literature including definitions and prevalence of dating violence and psychological aggression, theoretical approaches to dating violence, the role of gender in dating violence, societal (patriarchy and gender role socialization), perceived parental (witnessing interparental psychological aggression) and personal cognitive factors (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) related to use of psychological aggression among dating college students and dating violence studies in Turkey. The review of definitions of dating, dating violence and psychological aggression helped conceptualization, operationalization and measurement. Among theoretical approaches, Feminist and Social Learning theories underlined the significance of exploring of societal and perceived parental variables on dating violence,

respectively. The thorough review of societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive variables with regard to gender provided mixed findings stressing the need of separate analyses across gender. The review genuinely addressed the lack and need of research on psychological aggression amongst dating college students in Turkey.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHOD**

In this chapter, methodological procedures followed in the present study were presented. The chapter initially started with the research design. Secondly, the sample characteristics were described. Thirdly, psychometric properties of the measures used in the data collection were provided in detail. Fourthly, data collection and ethical procedures were introduced. In the data analysis section, as the statistical technique used in the current study, structural equation modeling (SEM) with its basic concepts and issues were discussed. Penultimately, the variables were operationalized. Finally, the limitations of the study were addressed.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between societal (patriarchy, and role socialization), perceived parental (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and mother to father psychological aggression), and personal cognitive (sexist beliefs and acceptance of violence) variables on use of psychological aggression among dating college students. Depending upon the purpose of the study, a correlational research, a type of associational research, was designed. Correlational research, very simply, examines the associations between two or more variables with no attempt to manipulate them (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Huyn, 2012). The purpose of correlational research is twofold; explanatory and prediction (Fraenkel et al., 2012). In the current study, the researcher's general aim was also to predict a likely outcome among several variables, which requires more sophisticated statistical techniques. Therefore, structural equation modeling was employed as the primary analytic method.

### 3.2 Participants

In the current study, the main data were collected from the undergraduate and graduate students, who had a current dating relationship at the time of data collection, enrolled in the public and private universities in Ankara. 1176 dating college students attended the online survey. In data screening, 161 of them were excluded because of being enrolled at a public or private university in a city or country other than Ankara and Turkey, respectively. Thus, the remaining 1015 dating college students comprised the sample of the study. For sample selection, a convenient sampling method was utilized in order to increase the chances of reaching the dating sample, which was the most crucial inclusion criterion of the study along with being over 18 years old, voluntary, and being a college student in Ankara.

Of 1015 dating college students, 706 were female (69.6%) and 304 (30.0%) were male as illustrated in Table 3.1. Five (.04%) identified themselves as gender-other (genderless, queer etc.). The age of the students ranged between 17 and 35 with a mean of 23.18 (median = 23; mode = 21) and a standard deviation of 3.30. Participants represented public (69.2%) and private (30.8%) universities. Of 702 participants from public universities, 699 were students of four universities from which ethical permissions were granted. Only a notably small percentage (.03 %) of the participants was out of the four universities; three students. Of 313 participants from private universities, 280 were enrolled at four universities from which ethical permissions were asked. Again, a fairly small percentage of the participants (.05%) from four other private universities attended the survey. A total of 663 (65.3%) students was undergraduate and 329 (32.4%) was graduate. The undergraduate students were distributed as 64 (6.3%) preparatory, 120 (11.8%) freshmen, 171 (16.8%) sophomores, 131 (12.9%) juniors, and 177 (17.5%) seniors. Of 329 graduates, 189 (18.6%) were master's, and 140 (13.8%) were doctorate students. Twenty three identified as other (dismissed, repeat, sixth grade etc.).

Table 3.1

*Demographic Characteristics of College Students*

Variables	<i>f</i>	%
Gender		
Female	706	69.6
Male	304	30.0
Gender-other <sup>a</sup>	5	0.04
Type of the university		
Public	702	69.2
Private	313	30.8
Grade Level		
Undergraduate	663	65.3
Preparatory	64	6.3
Freshman	120	11.8
Sophomores	171	16.8
Junior	131	12.9
Senior	177	17.5
Graduate	329	32.4
Master	189	18.6
Ph.D.	140	13.8
Grade-other <sup>b</sup>	23	2.3

*Note.* N = 1015.

<sup>a</sup>5 participants identified as gender-other (genderless, queer, etc.). <sup>b</sup>23 participants identified as grade-other (dismissed, repeated, senior at medicine school, etc).

Along with demographics and university characteristics, relationship characteristics were also explored to obtain the dating college students' relationship profile (Table 3.2).

As seen in the Table 3.2, nearly one out of five college students reported to be cohabiting (18.7%). The rate was similar for females (18.3%) and males (19.7%). The rest defined their relationships as dating (81.3%). The relationship length was around two years ( $M = 22.47$  in month;  $SD = 22.81$ ) with a range of 125 months (min = 1 and max =126). Most of them (72.1%) defined their current relationship as stable and serious. 6.6% of the college students said that they had a casual relationship. 21.3% was uncertain or had no idea about the seriousness of relationship. Dating college students, in their current relationships, frequently contacted with their girlfriends/boyfriends. 33.9% of them had a face to face contact



several times a week, everyday (25.4%), and more than once a day (14.8%). The rest (26.3%) met with each other once a week or less than once a week.

Table 3.2

*Relationship Characteristics of College Students*

Variables	Gender <sup>a</sup>				Total	
	Female		Male		f	%
	f	%	f	%		
Type of the current relationship						
Flirting/Dating	577	81.7	244	80.3	825	81.3
Cohabiting	129	18.3	60	19.7	190	18.7
Seriousness of the relationship						
Don't know/Uncertain	147	20.8	67	22.0	216	21.3
Casual	36	5.1	30	9.9	67	6.6
Stable/Serious	523	74.1	207	68.1	732	72.1
Contact of face to face frequency						
Less than a month	40	5.7	20	6.6	61	6.0
Once a month	46	6.5	14	4.6	60	5.9
Once every two week	44	6.2	18	5.9	62	6.1
Once a week	54	7.6	29	9.5	84	8.3
Several times a week	230	32.6	113	37.2	344	33.9
Everyday	181	25.6	72	23.7	254	25.0
More than once a day	111	15.7	38	12.5	150	14.8
Future of the current relationship						
We'll get married	287	40.7	109	35.9	397	39.1
We'll stay together	84	11.9	32	10.5	117	11.5
I will break off	29	4.1	28	9.2	57	5.6
My partner will break off	12	1.7	4	1.3	17	1.7
No idea/Don't know	294	41.6	131	43.1	427	42.1
Previous relationship situation						
Never had before	104	14.7	52	17.1	158	15.6
Had one	158	22.4	44	14.5	205	20.2
Had more than one	444	62.9	208	68.4	652	64.2

Note. N = 1015.

<sup>a</sup>5 participants identified as gender-other.

A substantial percentage of dating students (39.1%) in college planned to get married with their current partners. 42.1% did not have any idea about the future of the relationship. The history of dating of college students tended to be varied by previous relationship situation. 84.4% of them had one or more dating relationship other than the current one. Only 15.6% reported that the current one was their first relationship.

### **3.3 Data Collection Instruments**

The present study involved the collection of quantitative data. An online survey package was designed to assess societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive factors in relation to perpetration of psychological aggression besides relationship characteristics and demographics. Demographic Information Form (*see Appendix G*) was used to obtain information about the participants' demographics and relationship characteristics. Turkish version of the Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA; Murphy & Hoover, 1999) (*see Appendix A*) was utilized to get data for the dependent variable of the study. For societal variables, to measure patriarchy, Sex Role Stereotyping Scale (SRSS; Burt, 1980) (*see Appendix B*), and to measure gender socialization, traditional gender roles subscale of Socialization of Gender Norms Scale (SGNS; Epstein, 2008) (*see Appendix C*) were employed. For perceived parental variables, to gauge participants' recalling of their parents psychologically aggressive acts toward each other during childhood, psychological aggression subscale of Conflict Tactics Scales– Adult Recall Version (Form CTS2-CA; Straus et al., 1995) (*see Appendix F*) was used. For personal cognitive variables, to assess sexist beliefs and acceptance of aggression, hostile sexism subscale of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996) (*see Appendix D*) and abuse subscale of Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale-Revised (IPVAS-R; Fincham et al., 2008) (*see Appendix E*) were utilized. All the scales were presented and described in a detailed way below.

#### **3.3.1 Demographic information form**

To gather basic demographics and relationship characteristics of the participants, a short demographic information form was developed. The form included questions to obtain the respondent's sex, age, name of the university, and grade level. Questions regarding relationship characteristics were also included such as length of the relationship in months, current relationship status (dating, living together), type of current relationship (don't know/no idea, casual, stable/serious), frequency of face to

face contact (less than a month, once a month, once every two week, once a week, several times a week, everyday, more than once a day), future of current relationship (we'll get married, we'll stay together, I will break off, my partner will break off, don't know/no idea) and former relationship status (never had a relationship before, had one, had more than one).

### **3.3.2. Multidimensional measure of emotional abuse (MMEA)**

Turkish version of the Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA; Murphy & Hoover, 1999) was used to collect data. There are several reasons to use the measure in the current study. First, it specifically was designed to assess psychological aggression among dating college students. Second, it multidimensionally measures psychological aggression contrary to the unidimensional perspectives, which allows assessing different destructive behaviors. Third, the multidimensionality of the instrument was derived from a theoretical background-feminist theory. Fourth, the psychometrics for the original scale were clearly documented and provided by confirmatory factor analysis. Fifth, its adaption to cultures other than American contributed well to the international psychological aggression research (Bonechi & Tani, 2011). Finally, it was adapted to Turkish and initial evaluation of the psychometric evidences were promising (Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013).

The MMEA (Murphy & Hoover, 1999) is a 28-item and multidimensional self report measure (56 items when twice asked, first for what the respondent did and then for what the partner did) designed to assess psychological aggression (perpetration and victimization) in dating relationships. The MMEA has four subscales; *Restrictive Engulfment* (1-7 items), *Denigration* (8-14 items), *Hostile Withdrawal* (15-21 items), and *Dominance/Intimidation* (22-28 items).

Restrictive Engulfment (RE), (7 items) involves behaviors which isolate, restrict, monitor and control the partner's activities and social contacts as a means of jealousy and possessiveness to increase partner's dependency and availability (e.g., item 2,

“Secretly searched through the other person’s belongings”; item 3, “Tried to stop the other person from seeing certain friends or family members. Denigration (D) (7 items) involves behaviors and verbal attacks which humiliate and degrade in order to reduce partner’s self esteem and self worth (e.g., item 12, “Called the other person a loser, failure, or similar term”; item 14, “Said that someone else would be a better partner). Hostile Withdrawal (HW) (7 items) involves behaviors that avoid partner during conflict, withhold emotional availability in order to punish the partner, and increase anxiety or insecurity about the relationship (e.g., item 17, “Refused to have any discussion of a problem”; item 20, “Sulked or refused to talk about an issue). Dominance/Intimidation (D/I) (7 items) involves behaviors and verbal attacks that destruct property and threat through intense verbal aggression in order to produce fear and submission (e.g., item 22, “Became angry enough to frighten the other person”; item 26 “Threw, smashed, hit, or kicked something in front of the other person) (Murphy & Hoover, 1999).

Each item is rated on an 8-point frequency scale (never, once, twice, 3-5 times, 6-10 times, 11-20 times and more than 20 times in the past 6 months and not in the past six months, but it has happened before). Scores are obtained by summing the response categories chosen by the participant. Before summing, the response category 7- not in the past six months, but it has happened before- is recoded as zero as suggested by Murphy and Hoover (1999) if the researcher is interested in use of psychological aggression only in the past six months. Scores range between 0 and 42 for each subscale. In addition to subscale scores, an index of overall psychological perpetration or victimization may be obtained by summing the subscale scores depending on the purpose of the research. The overall scores vary between 0 and 168. Higher scores indicate more psychological aggression. No reverse coding is necessary.

Murphy, Hoover and Taft (1999) provided the initial evidences of the psychometric properties of the original MMEA (Murphy & Hoover, 1999). The 4 factor structure accounted nearly 55% of the variance both for victimization and perpetration. The results of confirmatory factor analysis revealed a clear adequate model fit for the

reports of victimization,  $\chi^2/df = 1.98$ , GFI = .88, RMSEA = .05, PCLOSE = .50, PGFI = .74 and reports of perpetration,  $\chi^2/df = 1.95$ , GFI = .88, RMSEA = .05, PCLOSE = .62, PGFI = .75. The items were highly loaded to the each related construct (e.g., for Hostile Withdrawal, the standardized regression weights ranged between .52 and .80 for abuse by partner and .59 and .78 for abuse by self). The correlations between subscales were moderate to high and positive (e.g., the correlations between Restrictive Engulfment and Hostile Withdrawal were .42 and .59 for victimization and perpetration, respectively) (Murphy, Hoover, & Taft, 1999). With respect to validity, the subscales of MMEA showed differential correlations with variables of physical violence, attachment, and interpersonal problems. MMEA also displayed negative and significant associations with marital satisfaction and depression. In terms of social desirability, most of the correlations between subscales and social desirability were insignificant or low, thus indicating that MMEA was not affected or slightly affected from response bias. The reliability coefficients for victimization and perpetration, respectively, were .84, .85 for Restrictive Engulfment, .88, .91 for Hostile Withdrawal, .89, .92 for Denigration, and .83, .91 for Dominance/Intimidation in a sample of dating college students.

The adaptation of MMEA and evaluation of its psychometrics were conducted by Toplu-Demirtaş and Hatipoğlu-Sümer (2013). The 56 item (perpetration and victimization) scale was translated into Turkish by four experts competent in both language and back translated into English by a bilingual expert. After the translation process, it was evaluated by two Turkish Language experts for its language and expression in Turkish and by an expert for its age-appropriateness for college students. Two undergraduate and two graduate students also evaluated the items through interviews. The final version was administered to 254 volunteered dating graduates and undergraduates. The results of the confirmatory factor analyses regarding the construct validity of the scale supported the four factor structure of the original scale (for the reports of victimization,  $\chi^2/df = 2.11$ , GFI = .84, TLI = .82, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .07 and reports of perpetration,  $\chi^2/df = 1.95$ , GFI = .84, TLI = .82, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .07). The items were highly loaded to the each related construct (e.g., for Hostile Withdrawal, the standardized regression weights ranged

between .55 and .77 for abuse by partner and .39 and .77 for abuse by self. The correlations between subscales were moderate to high and positive (e.g., the correlations between Restrictive Engulfment and Hostile Withdrawal were .65 and .67 for victimization and perpetration, respectively). Results of concurrent validity studies yielded significant positive correlations between avoidant (Restrictive Engulfment,  $r = .09$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Denigration,  $r = .20$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Hostile Withdrawal,  $r = .20$ ,  $p < .01$ ; Dominance/Intimidation,  $r = .10$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and anxious attachment (Restrictive Engulfment,  $r = .28$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Denigration,  $r = .02$ ,  $p > .05$ ; Hostile Withdrawal,  $r = .19$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Dominance/Intimidation,  $r = .17$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and MMEA subscales. The associations between types of psychological aggression (Restrictive Engulfment,  $r = .24$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Denigration,  $r = .42$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Hostile Withdrawal,  $r = .22$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Dominance/Intimidation,  $r = .50$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and physical dating violence were significant and positive as expected. Similarly, all the sub dimensions of MMEA and relationship satisfaction were significantly and negatively correlated (Restrictive Engulfment,  $r = -.30$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Denigration,  $r = -.37$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Hostile Withdrawal,  $r = -.34$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Dominance/Intimidation,  $r = -.24$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The results were supported both for victimization and perpetration dimensions, separately. The internal consistency reliability coefficients for victimization and perpetration, respectively, were computed as .73, .74 for RE, .86, .83 for HW, .70, .68 for D, and .77, .73 for D/I. Based on these results, it was concluded that the preliminary findings of Turkish version of MMEA were consistent with the original one's. The MMEA was regarded as a valid and reliable scale to measure the psychologically aggressive acts in college students' dating relationships.

In the present study, 28 items of perpetration dimension was used to gather data to measure psychological aggression among dating college students. Cronbach's coefficient alpha ( $\alpha$ ) -as the index of reliability- for Restrictive Engulfment, Denigration, Hostile Withdrawal, and Dominance/Intimidation were found to be .79, .83, .88, and .81, respectively, for current use.

### **3.3.3. Sex role stereotyping scale (SRSS)**

The SRSS is a 9-item uni-dimensional self report measure designed to assess patriarchal beliefs (Burt, 1980). SRSS includes items such as “A woman should be a virgin when she marries”, “It is acceptable for a woman to have a career, but marriage and family should come first”, and “A man should fight when the woman he's with is insulted by another man.”

All the items make use of 6 point Likert scale with 1 indicating “disagree strongly” and 6 “agree strongly”. Of nine items, 7 are negatively and 2 are positively keyed. The total score is the total sum of all item after two items (item\_6 and item\_9) are reversed coded. The scores range between 9 and 54. Higher scores indicate more support for patriarchal beliefs.

The SRSS was first administrated by Burt (1980). In her study, she only reported item to total correlations. For SRSS, the item to total correlations ranged between .30 and .57. Burt (1980) reported the reliability coefficient as .80 for internal consistency.

The SRSS was adapted into Turkish by Beydoğan (2001). For construct validity, an explanatory factor analysis was conducted. The analysis yielded a two factor solution with one factor (6 items, eigenvalue = 2.7) explaining the 30.00% and the other one (3 items, eigenvalue = 1.41) explaining 15.70% of the variability. For the first and second factor, the loadings ranged between .53 and .94 and .38 to .61, respectively. Beydoğan (2001) offered the use of original factor structure as she did. The reported alpha coefficient was .83.

Categorized as first- and second-generation measures of sexism and related beliefs (Forbes et al., 2004), the correlation between Sex Role Stereotyping Scale and Hostile Sexism subscale of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory was found reasonably high ( $r = .57$ ) in the Beydoğan's (2001) study, as the validity evidence, which implies that

despite 35 years of history, nothing much has changed regarding sex role stereotyping.

In this study, the 9 items was used to gather data to measure patriarchy. Cronbach's coefficient alpha ( $\alpha$ ) -as the index of reliability- for Sex Role Stereotyping Scale was found to be .78 for current use.

#### **3.3.4. Socialization of gender norms scale (SGNS) - traditional gender roles**

SGNS (Epstein, 2008) is a 23-item five dimensional self report measure to developed to assess the gender roles messages that one receives from parents, friends etc. while growing through socialization in order to understand how people's beliefs about gender are formed. It includes 5 subscales related to gender role socialization, *the traditional gender roles*, *the acceptant and egalitarian*, *the nice and pleasant*, *the big and tough*, and *the body consciousness*.

The traditional gender role (6 items) includes the messages which reflect the belief that men are superior to women (e.g., A real man gets what he wants.). The acceptant and egalitarian (5 items) involves the messages which reflect the notion that genders are equal (e.g., People are people, gender doesn't matter.). The nice and pleasant (3 items) comprises of the messages that encourages submission and compliance (e.g., You need to go along what others want to get along.). The big and tough (6 items) implies the messages of power and strength (e.g., Never show fear.). The body consciousness (3 items) contains the messages that your body is never good enough (e.g., It is important to look good no matter how much time and energy it takes.).

Epstein (2008) examined the construct validity of the scale through Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation and Confirmatory Factor Analysis. In two different samples, the Cronbach alpha coefficients were .83 and .85 for the traditional gender roles, .64 and .78 for the acceptant and egalitarian, .62 and .63 for the nice and pleasant, .78 and .76 for the big and tough, and .63 and .51 for the body consciousness.



Aricı (2011) evaluated the reliability and validity of Turkish version of SGNS. The subsequent explanatory factor analyses yielded a-19 item two factor structure accounting for 32.88% of the variance. The subscales were named as “the traditional gender roles (14 items)” and “egalitarian gender roles (5 items)”. The other three subscales in the original scale (the nice and pleasant, the big and tough and the body consciousness) did not emerge as separate factors; rather they loaded under the factor of the traditional gender roles. Four items were deleted due to poor loadings (<.40) or loading on more than one factor. Confirmatory Factor Analysis also confirmed the new 19-item and two factor structure of the Turkish version with a mediocre fit,  $\chi^2/df = 3.47$ , GFI = .92, AGFI = .89, NFI = .87, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .06). The items were moderate to highly loaded to the each related construct (e.g., for traditional one, the standardized regression weights were .40 and .63 and for egalitarian one .43 and .74). The reported internal consistency coefficients are .79 and .63 for traditional and egalitarian gender roles messages. The test-retest stability coefficients were computed as .80 and .86, respectively.

Responses are rated on a four point scale with “0, none”, “1, a little”, “2, some” and “3, a lot”. A total score is obtained by summing the responses categories. For traditional and egalitarian gender roles subscales the scores range between 0-42 and 0-15, respectively. A higher score on each relevant subscale indicates more traditionalist or egalitarian messages. Reverse coding is not specified.

In this study, 14 item traditional gender role messages subscale was employed to measure the gender socialization while growing up. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha ( $\alpha$ ) -as the index of reliability- for traditional gender role subscale was found to be .87 for current use.

### 3.3.5. Ambivalent sexism inventory (ASI) - hostile sexism

ASI (Glick & Fiske, 1996) is a 22 item and two dimensional self report measure developed to assess two related but different constructs of sexist attitudes. The ASI has two subscales; *Benevolent Sexism* (11 item) and *Hostile Sexism* (11 item).

Benevolent Sexism (BS) assesses subjectively positive attitudes toward women/gender. What seems to lie behind all the positive attitudes are justification of gender inequality and patriarchy. The sub factors of BS are *Protective Paternalism* (4 items- e.g. “women should be cherished and protected by men”, “men should sacrifice to provide for women”); *Complementary Gender Differentiation* (3 items- e.g. women have a more refined sense of culture and taste”); *Heterosexual Intimacy* (4 items- e.g. “men are incomplete without women”, “every man ought to have a woman he adores”). Hostile Sexism (HS) assesses explicitly negative attitudes toward women/gender. Dominative paternalism, competitive gender differentiation, and heterosexual hostility fall under the negative attitudes. For HS, the three sub-factors were not found to be separate but loaded to one factor. These findings explained by the researchers that the three sub-factors are linked together so strongly that it is not possible to distinguish them as separate sub factors empirically (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Respondents indicates agreement or disagreement on a response set ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 6 (agree strongly). For each subscale, the scores one can get from the scale ranges between 11 and 66. In addition to subscale scores, an index of overall sexism score may be acquired by summing the subscale scores depending on the purpose of the research. The overall total score varies between 22 and 132. Higher scores reflect more adherences to sexist attitudes. No reverse coding is required.

The construct validity of the scale was examined via explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The results revealed that ASI has two sub-constructs as benevolent sexism and hostile sexism. The reported alpha coefficients

were between .83 and .92 for overall scale; between .73 and .85 for BS and between .80 and .92 for HS across 6 different samples (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Thus, ASI was proved to be strongly valid and reliable.

ASI was adapted to Turkish by Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002). Explanatory factor analysis revealed two factors, which were HS (variance 25.69%) and BS (variance; 25.37%) with BS having three sub-factors as further hypothesized by Glick and Fiske (1996). The Cronbach alpha coefficients were reported as .85, .87 and .78 for ASI, HS and BS, respectively. The overall results also proved that Turkish version of ASI was a valid and reliable instrument.

In this study, 11 item-Hostile Sexism was utilized to gather data to measure sexist beliefs. Cronbach's coefficient alpha ( $\alpha$ ) -as the index of reliability- for hostile sexism subscale was found to be .90 for current use.

### **3.3.6. Intimate partner violence attitude scale - revised (IPVAS-R).**

A revised version of Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale (IPVAS) (Smith, Thompson, Tomaka, & Buchanan, 2005), IPVAS-R is a 17 item and tridimensional self report measure designed to gauge attitudes toward psychological and physical aggression in dating relationships of college students (Fincham et al., 2008).

Abuse (8 items) factor of IPVAS-R involves accepting attitudes regarding threats, verbal attacks, blame, and hurt (e.g., item 6, "As long as my partner doesn't hurt me, "threats" are excused"; item 10, "It is no big deal if my partner insults me in front of others"). Control (5 items) factor of IPVAS-R involves endorsement of attitudes regarding controlling behaviors in the dating relationships (e.g., item 1, "I would be flattered if my partner told me not to talk to someone of the other sex"; item 2, "I think my partner should give me a detailed account of what he or she did during the day."). Violence (4 items) factor of IPVAS-R includes holding attitudes about the use of physical acts in a dating relationship (e.g., item 13, "I think it is wrong to ever damage anything that belongs to a partner.").

Participants code their responses using a 5-point Likert type scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Before scoring, 4 items are reverse coded (item2, item4, item5, and item8). The scores one could achieve range between 8 and 40, 5 and 25, and 4 and 20 for control, abuse and violence, respectively. Higher scores reflect more accepting attitudes toward psychological and physical aggression. An index of total acceptance (range = 17-85) is acquired by summing up the scores of each subscale. Single use of subscales is also possible.

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted by Fincham et al., (2008) with 687 college students ( $M= 19.75$ ,  $SD=2.2$ ) to examine the factor structure of revised version. The results supported the hypothesized three factor structure,  $\chi^2/df = 3.13$ ,  $CFI= .94$ ,  $RMSEA = .06$ ). For Abuse, Control and Violence, the standardized regression weights fall in the range of .68 and .72, .35 and .68, and .60 and .64, respectively. The reported internal consistency coefficients were sufficient for control (Time1 = .81, Time2 = .92), abuse (Time1 = .71, Time2 = .68) and violence (Time1 = .66, Time2 = .83). For stability, test-retest correlations were also computed over 14 week interval. The coefficients were found as .53, .58 and .39, for control, abuse and violence, respectively.

In the current study, 8 item Abuse subscale was planned to use in order to measure acceptance of psychological aggression among college students. However, the scale as a whole was not adapted to Turkish culture. Thus, to evaluate the psychometric properties of the scale to find out whether it is a valid and reliable scale to measure acceptance attitudes toward psychological aggression among Turkish university students, first, a pilot study was carried out.

Cronbach’s coefficient alpha ( $\alpha$ ) -as the index of reliability- for Abuse subscale was found to be .64 for the main study use.

### ***3.3.6.1 Translation and adaptation of the IPVAS-R – pilot study***

The adaptation of IPVAS-R pursued several steps. The process started by obtaining official permission from the first author of the scale to translate the IPVAS-R (*see* Appendix I for the permission emailing). A well established forward translation-back translation method was used. First, the 17 item scale was translated into Turkish by four academicians (two from psychological counseling field, one from English language teaching and one from curriculum and instruction field) who had proficiency in both languages. Secondly, the four translations were compared and for each item, the ones who best reflect the original meaning were chosen by the researcher and her supervisor. Following this, two academicians (one from English language teaching and one from psychological counseling) were asked to back-translated the items into English. Next, the back translated items were compared with the original items and evaluated by the researcher and her advisor. No difference was found in terms of wording, meaning. After the completion of back translation, two instructors from the Department of Turkish Language reviewed the Turkish version of the scale with regard to grammar, fluency, and intelligibility. Very minor mistakes were corrected upon the feedback. Then as final step of translation, an academician from psychological counseling evaluated the scale on cultural fit, content, wording and layout. No changes were requested and the instrument was concluded for cognitive interviewing which is a suggested way for adaptation studies (Collins, 2003). Cognitive interviewing allows the researcher to explore which cognitive process the participant undergoes while responding the instrument. Two college students, one male and one female, were asked separately to read loudly the items while completing IPVAS-R. Both the researcher observed and participants indicated that they did not have any difficulty. Then, the Turkish version of IPVAS-R was finalized for pilot study.

### ***3.3.6.2 Validity and reliability of Turkish IPVAS-R – pilot study***

To provide evidence for reliability and validity of the adapted IPVAS-R, a pilot study was carried out. 283 dating college students attended the pilot study. Three

cases were deleted due to subjects' completing the entire survey with the same value. The instrument was piloted with of 280 cases, then. Data of the pilot study was not merged with the data from the main study. Information about the collection of pilot data is available in the data collection part under the subheading of pilot study.

Participants were 195 women (69.6%) and 84 men (30.0%) who aged from 18 to 32 ( $M = 22.22$   $SD = 2.30$ ). One did not indicate gender (0.4%). Of 280 participants, 101 (36.1%), 86 (30.7%), 47 (16.8%), and 44 (15.7%) represented four major state universities in Ankara. A total of 261 (93.2%) participants were undergraduate students.

Table 3.3

*Relationship Characteristics of College Students (Pilot Study)*

	N	Percentage (%)
Type of the current relationship		
Flirting/Dating	246	87.9
Cohabiting	33	11.8
Seriousness of the current relationship		
Don't know/Uncertain	39	13.9
Casual	18	6.4
Stable/Serious	223	79.6
Contact of face to face frequency		
Less than a month	32	11.4
Once a month	27	9.6
Once every two week	22	7.9
Once a week	16	5.7
Several times a week	84	30.0
Everyday	57	20.4
More than once a day	42	15.0
Future of the current relationship		
We'll get married	155	55.4
We'll stay together	19	6.8
I will break off	8	2.9
My partner will break off	2	.7
No idea/Don't know	96	34.3
Previous relationship situation		
Never had before	73	26.1
Had one	58	20.7
Had more than one	149	53.2

*Note.* N varied due to missing cases.

Relationship characteristics of college students were also explored (*please see* Table 3.3). Only a small percentage of them reported to be cohabiting (11.8%). The rest had a dating relationship only. The relationship length was around two years ( $M = 24.71$ ,  $SD = 25.10$ ) with a range of 131 months (min = 1 and max = 132). Most of the (79.6%) college students defined their current relationship as stable and serious while 6.4% of them said they had a casual relationship.

Dating college students, in their current relationships, frequently contacted with their girlfriends/boyfriends. 65.4 % of them had a face to face contact several times a week (30.0%), everyday (20.4%), and more than once a day (15.0%). The rest met with each other (34.6%) once a week or less than once a week. A substantial percentage of dating students (55.4%) in college planned to get married with their current partners. 34.3% did not have any idea about the future of the relationship. College students were also experienced with romantic relationships. 73.9% of them had one or more dating relationship other than the current one. Only 26.1% reported that the current one was their first relationships.

#### *3.3.6.2.1 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of Turkish IPVAS-R*

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was chosen to test whether the original and hypothesized factor structure of IPVAS-R would be maintained among Turkish college students. 3-factor IPVAS-R was evaluated by using AMOS-18 (Analysis of Moment Structures) (Arbuckle, 2009).

Prior to the analysis of pilot study, the assumptions of CFA were examined; the accuracy of data, sample size, missing values, outliers, normality, linearity and multicollinearity (Ullman, 2001). The discussion of assumption checks of CFA was detailed below.

### *3.3.6.2.1.1 Assumptions of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of Turkish IPVAS-R*

Since the pilot data were entered manually by the researcher, the accuracy of data was assessed first. The inspection of maximum and minimum values, the means and standard deviations were checked for data accuracy. No mis-entry was detected.

Next step after the accuracy of data entry was to find out whether sample size is large enough for CFA. There are several arguments regarding minimum sample size. Kline (2005) recommends a ratio of cases to free parameters of 10:1 or 20:1. With 17 observed variables, the study had a total of 37 free parameters; 17 for factor loadings, 17 for error variances and 3 for the correlations among the latent variables. According to this criterion, the sample size of this study (280) is not sufficient ( $280 < 370$  or  $740$ ). Another approach for minimum sample size in CFA, which is not based on ratio-type suggestion, is assessing the power of model. A program called NIESEM (Dudgeon, 2003) based on the work of MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) estimates the sample size required by conducting power analysis for SEM. Power level and alpha level was chosen as .80 and .05, and the RMSEA value for the null hypothesized and alternative model were specified as .05 and .07, respectively. With degrees of freedom as 116 and number of groups in the model as 1, the estimated sample size for given power (.80) was 218. This indicated that the sample size of the study (280) was above the minimum required. For Hoelter (1983), known as Hoelter's critical N, any sample size above 200 produce sufficient power to analyze data. Taking all different approaches in mind, it was determined to continue with the current sample size.

Following sample size determination, data was screened for missing data. 10 of the measure items had no missing data (item\_1, item\_2, item\_3, item\_5, item\_7, item\_11, item\_12, item\_13, item\_15, and item\_17). 7 of the measure items had missing values, 6 of which did not exceed 1% (item\_8, item\_9, item\_10, item\_14 and item\_16, .04% and for att\_6 .07%) and one of which did not exceed 2% (item\_4, 1.1%). In order to decide how to handle with missing data, Little MCAR Test (Little &



Rubin, 1987) was conducted to see if the data is randomly missing or there is a pattern. Little's MCAR test was insignificant,  $\chi^2 = 104.11$  (df = 95;  $p = .25$ ). This indicated that the data indeed were randomly missing (no identifiable pattern). Therefore, an Expectation-Maximization (EM) algorithm was preferred to impute missing values since only a few data points are randomly missing (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

After the evaluation of sample size, univariate and multivariate outliers were examined. Univariate outliers, unusual values on a single variable, were checked using SPSS. PASW by detecting standardized z scores values exceeding the range between +3.29 and -3.29 ( $p < .001$ , two tailed test) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). No outliers were detected except for items item\_10 (6 cases) item\_12 (9 cases), item\_13 (10 cases), item\_14 (10 cases), item\_17 (8 cases). Multivariate outliers, a combination of extreme scores on at least two variables, were checked by calculating Mahalanobis distances. 16 cases were considered as outliers since the critical value was exceeded,  $\chi^2 (17) = 40.79$ , ( $p < .001$ ) in the data set. The researcher chose not to delete the cases with outliers because the items 12, 13, 14 and 17 measure attitudes toward physical aggression and item 10 measure attitudes toward denigration. Strict attitudes toward the use of physical violence and denigration conform to an expected pattern in the dataset. Rather than deleting, ways to reduce the influence of outliers discussed in the next section together with ways to handle non normal data.

Normality, both univariate and multivariate, was checked via AMOS 18. The skewness (symmetry of the distribution) and kurtosis (peakedness of the distribution) indexes were examined to see if there was a significant departure from normality.

Table 3.4 presents the means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis indexes for 17 Items of Turkish IPVAS-R. As exhibited, the indexes ranged between -3.47 and 2.93 for skewness, and -1.24 and 12.16 for kurtosis. In a normally distributed dataset, either of the indexes is close to zero. A quick look at the indexes of skewness and kurtosis implies nonnormality.

Table 3.4

*Descriptive Statistics for 17 Items of Turkish IPVAS-R: Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Item Mean</i>	<i>Item SD</i>	<i>Univariate Skewness</i>	<i>Univariate Kurtosis</i>
Item_1	Control	2.29	1.22	.62	-.68
Item_2	Control	3.83	1.90	-.92	-.18
Item_3	Abuse	2.34	1.10	.62	-.46
Item_4	Abuse	2.62	1.14	.34	-1.11
Item_5	Control	3.48	1.14	-.45	-.62
Item_6	Abuse	2.11	1.90	.76	-.63
Item_7	Abuse	2.29	1.22	.56	-.77
Item_8	Control	3.31	1.22	-.27	-.99
Item_9	Abuse	2.09	1.09	.80	-.24
Item_10	Abuse	1.34	1.34	2.93	8.73
Item_11	Control	2.87	1.31	-.01	-1.24
Item_12	Violence	4.74	.78	-3.47	12.16
Item_13	Violence	4.48	.96	-2.27	4.81
Item_14	Violence	4.53	.97	-2.37	5.03
Item_15	Abuse	2.57	1.27	.27	-1.02
Item_16	Abuse	2.35	1.24	.57	-.75
Item_17	Violence	4.67	.82	-3.13	9.99
Multivariate Kurtosis					103.35*

*Note.* \*  $p < .001$ .

Multivariate normality was tested through the use of Mardia's (1970) coefficient with Multivariate Kurtosis. A coefficient greater than 3 and 10 indicates minor and severe nonnormality, respectively (Bentler, 1990; Kline 2005; Ullman, 2006). In the current dataset, the Mardia's coefficient is 103.35, which means that a severe departure from normality was observed.

Since all items deviated somewhat from normal, ways how to handle properly were discussed thoroughly. Though data transformation can also be used to correct the problems of nonnormality, nonlinearity, and heteroscedasticity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), in the current situation, the transformation of items cannot be considered as an option. When transformation is not possible, another option is to use more robust estimation methods (Ullman, 2006), one of which is weighted least squares (WLS) (Browne, 1984). However, WLS estimation needs a large sample size, which is why it was not preferred. An alternative strategy for nonnormality is to use bootstrapping

when the sample size is small enough (Nevitt & Hancock, 1998) in AMOS. In this strategy, Bollen-Stine corrected p value is used instead of Maximum Likelihood (ML) based p value to assess whether the model fit (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999).

The linearity assumption, a straight-line relationship between two variables, was checked through the visual examination of bivariate scatterplots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Because the items (17 items) produce a large number of scatterplots, a random set of them was used for analysis of linearity. Bivariate associations between variables showed that the linearity assumption was met.

Defined as unacceptably high intercorrelations among the variables (items in this case), the assumption of multicollinearity was next assessed both univariately and multivariately. Univariately multicollinearity was tested by screening intercorrelations among the variables. Stevens (2002) suggests a cutoff of  $r \geq .80$ . That cutoff point can be as large as  $r \geq .90$  for Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007). Correlation matrix represented that bivariate correlations among the variables did not exceed the critical value for multicollinearity ( $r = .45$  max.). Through collinearity diagnostics, the variance inflation factors (VIF), tolerance values, condition index (CI) and variance proportion (VP) were employed to test multivariate multicollinearity. In the current dataset, the highest value for VIF was 1.681, which was far below the common cutoff value 5. The values of tolerance ranged between .60 and .86. Commonly, values close to zero are problematic for tolerance. For CI, though two items exceeded 30 (the rule of thumb) none of the items had variance proportion greater than .50 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Taken together, no multicollinearity was diagnosed.

As all assumptions were checked, confirmatory factor analysis was applied to determine the suitability of tridimensional factor structure of IPVAS-R among Turkish college students.

### 3.3.6.2.1.2 Model estimation for the Turkish IPVAS-R

There are several fit indices used in Confirmatory Factor Analysis to establish the proposed factor structure is acceptable. In this section, the choice of fit indices and their acceptable threshold levels were discussed.

Table 3.5

#### *Researchers and Their Suggestions for Fit Indices*

Researcher	Suggested Fit Index
Hu & Bentler (1999)	NNFI (TLI) + SRMR, RMSEA or CFI
Boomsma (2000)	$\chi^2$ , RMSEA, CFI, SRMR, $R^2$
Kline (2005)	df,p, RMSEA and 90% CI, CFI, SRMR,
Brown (2006)	Absolute fit indices ( $\chi^2$ and SRMR), parsimony fit indices (RMSEA), comparative fit indices(CFI, TLI)
Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham (2006)	$\chi^2$ +absolute fit indices (GFI, RMSEA or SRMR), incremental fit indices (CFI or TLI), goodness of fit indices (GFI, CFI, TLI) and badness of fit indices (RMSEA, SRMR)

Table 3.5 well summarizes suggested fit indices by several researchers. Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended the use of non-normed fit index (NNFI) or Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). Those indices compare the performance of the proposed model to null model (baseline). As residual-based indices, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) were proposed by Hu and Bentler (1999). Those indices look at the differences between observed and predicted covariances.

Kline (2005) argued that degrees of freedom (df) and p also be interpreted. He added on Hu and Bentler (1999) in the report of RMSEA with 90 % confidence interval (CI). Also recommended by Kline (2005) was comparative fit index (CFI) for baseline comparison.

Brown (2006) divided the fit indices into three categories as absolute, parsimony and comparative. He proposed chi square ( $\chi^2$ ) and SRMR as the absolute fit index to

evaluate the overall model fit.  $\chi^2$ , the most common index of fit, heavily depends on the sample size. With more participants, it becomes bigger, which results in rejection of null hypothesis. To adjust  $\chi^2$ , division of it by df is strictly recommended. Parsimony and comparative fit index by Brown (2006) were explained above, no need to repeat.

As Brown (2006), Hair et al. (2006) also made use of a classification. Hair et al. (2006) classified indices into four categories as absolute, incremental, goodness and badness. Different from other researchers, he introduced goodness of fit index (GFI). As an absolute and incremental index, GFI represent how much of the variance in the covariance matrix has been accounted for.

Brown's categorization included fit indices that were most commonly used and repeatedly suggested by the other researchers. Therefore, it was preferred for overall evaluation (2006). He utilized  $\chi^2$  and SRMR as the absolute fit indices. Also called the discrepancy function, the  $\chi^2$  is expected to be small in value for better fit. Zero indicates perfect fit. Aforementioned,  $\chi^2$  greatly affected by sample size (any sample size exceeding 200). Therefore, to correct it, normed chi square, got by division of  $\chi^2$  by degrees of freedom, is used. The criterion for  $\chi^2/df$  ratio varies across researchers, ranging from less than 2 and less than 5 (*see* Table 3.6 for fit indices and their acceptable thresholds).

Another absolute fit index is standardized root mean square residual, SRMR (also called RMR or RMSE). It represents the discrepancies between observed and predicted covariance matrix. The value for SRMR ranges between 0.00 and 1.00. Zero shows perfect fit but the maximum acceptable level is unbounded. Generally speaking, values  $<.08$  are considered adequate (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Browne & Cudeck, 1993).

Table 3.6

*Fit Indices and Acceptable Thresholds*

Fit Index	Acceptable Thresholds
$\chi^2$	Low $\chi^2$ with insignificant p value ( $p > .05$ )
$\chi^2/df$ ratio	$\chi^2/df < 5$ (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) $\chi^2/df < 3$ (Kline, 1998) $\chi^2/df < 3$ (Ullman, 2001)
SRMR	SRMR $< .08$ or less (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Browne & Cudeck, 1993) SRMR $< .05$ or less (Steiger, 1990) SRMR $< .08$ or less (with CFI above .92, when $N > 250$ and $12 < m < 30$ ) (Hair et al., 2010)
RMSEA	RMSEA $< .05$ , close fit; $.05 < RMSEA < .10$ , mediocre fit; RMSEA $> .10$ , poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993) RMSEA $< .05$ , close approximate fit; $.05 < RMSEA < .08$ , reasonable approximate fit; RMSEA $> .10$ , poor fit (Byrne, 2001; Kline, 1998) RMSEA $< .06$ , good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999) RMSEA $< .07$ (with CFI of .92 or higher, when $N > 250$ and $12 < m < 30$ ) (Hair et al., 2010) .08 $< RMSEA < .10$ , mediocre fit; RMSEA $> .10$ , poor fit (MacCallum et al., 1996)
CFI	CFI $\geq .95$ (Hu & Bentler, 1999) CFI $\geq .93$ (Byrne, 1994) CFI $\geq .90$ (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996) CFI $\geq .92$ , when $N > 250$ and $12 < m < 30$ ) (Hair et al., 2010)
TLI	CFI $\geq .95$ (Hu & Bentler, 1999) CFI $\geq .90$ (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996) CFI $\geq .92$ , when $N > 250$ and $12 < m < 30$ ) (Hair et al., 2010)

Note.  $N$ , sample size;  $m$ , number of variables.

Brown (2006) offered root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) as parsimony fit index. RMSEA evaluates how well the hypothesized model fit in the population. While the upper and lower bound for RMSEA is unarguably accepted (RMSEA  $> .10$ , poor fit, RMSEA  $< .05$ , good fit), the in between values are open to argument. Browne and Cudeck's (1993) suggestion for mediocre fit values are between is .05 and .10. Some others offer a .05 and .08 range for reasonable approximate fit (Byrne, 2001; Kline, 1998). According to MacCallum et al. (1996) the value between .08 and .10 indicate mediocre fit. Hair et al. (2010) discuss no in between values. For them, when the sample size is above 250 and the number of variables is in the range of 12 and 30, the RMSEA should be below .07 with CFI .92 and above.

The comparative or incremental fit indices (such as CFI and TLI) compare the target (proposed) models and null (independence or baseline) models. Basically, the CFI thus show to what extent the proposed model is better than the null model. It changes between 0.00 and 1.00 and roughly, values that approach 1 indicates acceptable fit (Brown, 2006). Still, there are researchers who proposes clear cut off values for acceptable fits, such as Hu and Bentler (1999) as  $>.95$ , Bryne (1994) as  $>.93$  and Hair et al. (2010) as  $>.92$ .

Another commonly used comparative index is Tucker-Lewis index TLI, sometimes called also as non-normed fit index (NNFI). This index functions and is interpreted similar to CFI. TLI ranges between 0.00 and 1.00 and values that approximate to 1.00 is considered acceptable (Browne, 2006). More specifically, Hu and Bentler (1999) recommend  $.95$  as a cutoff point, while for Hair et al. (2010) it is greater than  $.92$  with sample size more than 250 and variable number between 12 and 30.

In the current study, the selected criteria to decide for the model fit were as follows. For RMSEA, Browne and Cudeck's (2006) recommendation were taken (RMSEA  $<.05$ , close fit;  $.05 < \text{RMSEA} < .10$ , mediocre fit; RMSEA  $>.10$ , poor fit). For  $\chi^2/\text{df}$  ratio, Kline (1998) was preferred ( $\chi^2/\text{df} < 3$ ). For SRMR, CFI and TLI, Hu and Bentler (1999)'s suggestions were considered, a SRMR less than  $.08$ , a CFI greater than  $.95$  and a TLI greater than  $.95$ , respectively. With the above guidelines in mind, it should be noted that goodness of fit indices are useful yet not only one way for evolution of the model. The fit indices are fit step for overall evolution. The interpretability, strength and statistical significance of parameter significance test should also be interpreted for the acceptability of the model when the above mentioned fit indices are acceptable (Brown, 2006). Moreover, acceptable goodness of fit indices may sometimes hide key theoretical relationships when parameter estimates are not accurately analyzed.

### 3.3.6.2.1.3 The CFA results of the Turkish IPVAS-R

In order to test the three factor structure of IPVAS-R in Turkish culture, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted with AMOS 18. Since it was verified that the items were not distributed multivariately normal, to assess overall model fit, Bollen-Stine corrected p value was used. For parameter estimates standard errors of parameter estimates and significance tests for individual parameters, bootstrapping, which assumes multivariate normality, was performed as an aid to nonnormal data. Thus, bootstrapping (as a method of re-sampling) produced more accurate Type I error rates and power than single sample method that assumes a normal distribution. The number of bootstrap samples was set to 1000 (Cheung & Lau, 2008).

The chi square test of model fit was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(116, N = 280) = 335.81$ , Bollen-Stine corrected  $p = .00$ , which suggested that the model did not fit to the data very well (Table 3.7). As previously discussed,  $\chi^2$  is quite sensitive to sample size. To deal with this sensitivity, the normed chi square ( $\chi^2/df$  ratio) (Kline, 1998) rather than commonly used  $\chi^2$  statistic is proposed for the test of model fit. With  $\chi^2$  as 335.81 and df as 116, the obtained  $\chi^2$  over df ( $\chi^2/df$ ) ratio was 2.90, which was of or less than the recommended, value, 3 (Kline, 1998). The RMSEA value was .08 (90% CI= .07–.09) which indicates mediocre fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The standardized RMR (SRMR) was .08, equal to the suggested cutoff value (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The other fit index CFI had a value of .71 which is lower than recommendation. Muthen and Muthen (2007) argue that the good RMSEA with low CFI is caused by low correlations among the variables (items, in that case).



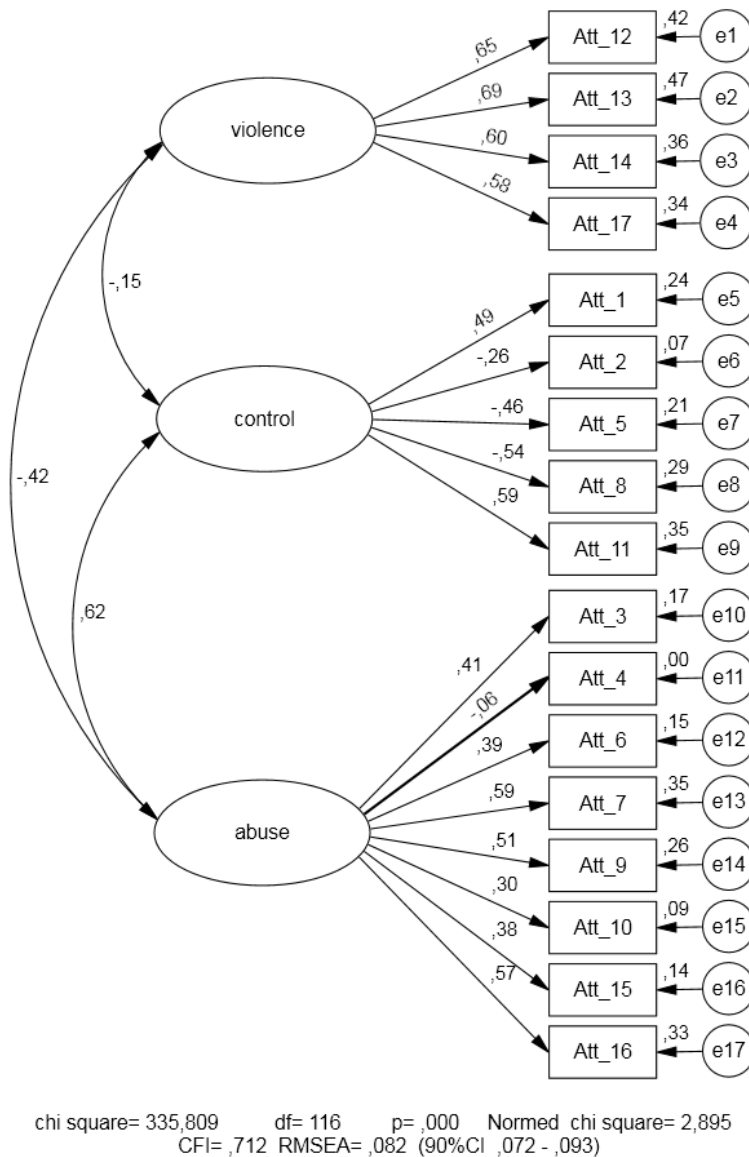


Figure 3.1 Estimates of parameters of confirmatory factor analysis for Turkish IPVAS-R

Though the model fit seemed to fit the data moderately, a quick view of the statistical significance of parameter significance test revealed that the t value for att\_4 was insignificant ( $p = .36$ ), which indicated that it was not indicator of that abuse factor.

Low modification index (-.06, <.30) for loading suggested that item Item\_4 did not load well on abuse factor. The inspection of modification indices showed that a large modification index appeared between Item\_4 and control factor. Such a result indicated that att\_4 belonged to control factor rather than abuse one. Jealousy (att\_4, I do not mind my partner doing something just to make me jealous), in Turkish culture, was perceived as a control behavior instead of abuse.

Table 3.7

*Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of CFA for IPVAS-R*

	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>	<i>CFI</i>
First model	335.81	116	2.90	.08	.08	.71
Item_4 to control model	311.50	116	2.68	.08	.08	.74

A new CFA was performed with att\_4 in control factor. A mediocre fit was obtained,  $\chi^2$  (116, N = 280) = 311.50 Bollen-Stine corrected  $p = .00$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.68$ ,  $CFI = .74$ ,  $RMSEA = .08$  (CI 90% = .07-.09),  $SRMR = .08$  (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Significant  $t$  values suggested that all the items were indicator of the relevant latent construct. When the modification indices were checked, no indices with high values were detected. The factor loading of att\_4 increased to .40 (from -.06), with a variance of 16% in construct control (Table 3.8). The overall fit indices indicated an adequate model fit to the data.

Table 3.8 presented constructs, related items, standardized regression weights and squared multiple correlations for 17 indicators of IPVAS-Revised. Standardized factor loadings ranges between .58 and .69 for violence, -.28 and -.61 for control, and .31 and .61 for abuse. Only one item, att\_2 had a factor loading lower than the suggested cutoff value .30.

$R^2$  explains how much variance is accounted for in each item. The criterion set is that each item will explain at least 20% of the variance with a significant  $t$ -value (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). The values varied between 34% and 47%, 8% and 37%,

and 10% and 37% for violence, control and abuse, respectively. The criterion was generally achieved. However, the loadings were relatively low in magnitude.

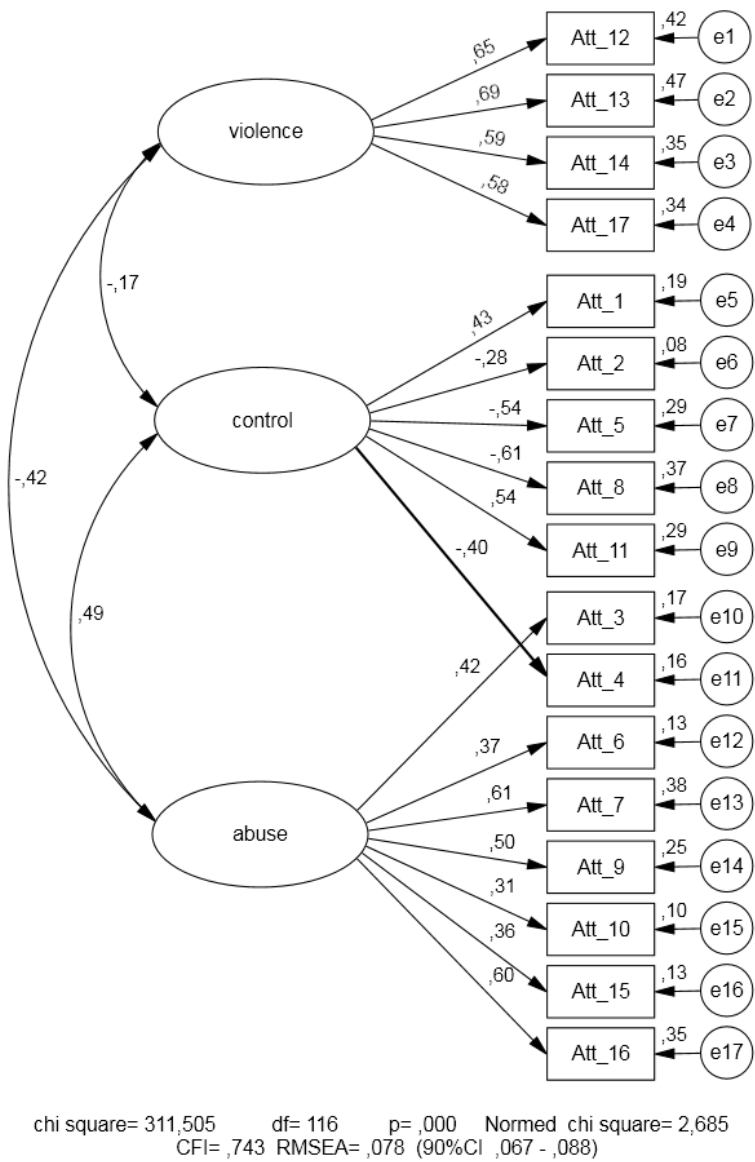


Figure 3.2 Estimates of parameters of confirmatory factor analysis for Turkish IPVAS-R

To more conveniently present the correlations among factors, a correlation table was constructed. The means, standard deviations and reliability coefficients were also provided. All correlations among variables were significant. As shown in the Table 3.9, the factor violence (attitudes toward physical violence) is negatively associated with the factors control (-.11) and abuse (-.28). The correlation between abuse and control, two sub-dimensions of attitudes toward psychological violence, was positive (.29).

Table 3.8

*Standardized Regression Weights and Squared Multiple Correlations of Turkish IPVAS-R*

Construct	Item	Standardized Factor Loadings	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
Violence	Att_12	.65		.42
	Att_13	.69	7.77	.47
	Att_14	.59	7.25	.35
	Att_17	.58	7.13	.34
Control	Att_1	.43		.19
	Att_2	-.28	-3.32	.08
	Att_5	-.54	-4.95	.29
	Att_8	-.61	-5.16	.37
	Att_11	.54	4.95	.29
Abuse	Att_4	-.40	-4.24	.16
	Att_3	.42		.17
	Att_6	.37	4.10	.13
	Att_7	.61	5.27	.38
	Att_9	.50	4.88	.25
	Att_10	.31	3.69	.10
	Att_15	.36	4.07	.13
	Att_16	.60	5.22	.35

*Note.* All *t* values are significant at  $p < .001$ .

#### 3.3.6.2.2 Internal consistency of the Turkish IPVAS-R

In order to assess internal consistency, the widely used Cronbach's alpha coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) was computed for each subscale. It tells to what degree the items are interrelated. A commonly accepted rule of thumb for alpha coefficient requires a value greater than .70 (Nunnally, 1978). In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for violence,

control and abuse were calculated as .72, .62, and .65, respectively (Table 3.8). Only the alpha for violence is above the minimum cutoff value. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) though approve the rule of thumb, discuss that the different values of alpha such as a .60 and .70 range might also be acceptable. The item-total statistics were also inspected to find out whether Cronbach's alpha increased if the item deleted. Deletion of any item did not improved reliability.

Table 3.9

*Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach's Alphas and Correlations among Constructs for Turkish IPVAS-R.*

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
1. Violence	.72	18.41	2.61	1.00	-.11*	-.28*
2. Control	.62	15.93	4.33		1.00	.29*
3. Abuse	.65	15.09	4.53			1.00

*Note.* \* $p < .01$ , two tailed.

### **3.3.7. Conflict tactics scales – adult recall version (Form CTS2-CA) – psychological aggression**

The CTS2-CA (Straus et al., 1995) is a 31-item self-report measure to assess adults' recalling behaviors of their parents toward each other during childhood including negotiation (6 items), psychological aggression (7 items), physical assault (12 items), and injury (6 items). Each item is rated on a 7-point scale (1 time in past year, 2 times in past year, 3-5 times in past year, 6-10 times in past year, 11-20 times in past year, more than 20 times in past year, and this has never happened-0). The total score for each subscale is obtained as the sum of the individual item scores. Scoring higher on the subscales is an indicative of recalling more aggressive behaviors of parents toward each other. Reversed coding is not performed.

The CTS2-CA makes use of the same items of Conflict Tactics Scales-Revised (Straus et al., 1996), which measures negotiation, psychological aggression, physical assault, sexual coercion, and injury in marital, cohabiting, or dating relationships.

Only, sexual coercion items are omitted in CTS2-CA (as one cannot witness their parents' sexual behaviors and/or violent sexual behaviors). Conflict Tactics Scales-Revised was translated and evaluated in terms of its psychometric characteristics by Turhan, Guraksin and Inandı. (2006) among Turkish married women and among college students by Toplu-Demirtaş et al. (2013) demonstrating a satisfactory evidence of validity and reliability.

In this study, the whole 7 items from adult recalling of “mother to father psychological aggression” (e.g., “mother insulted or swore at father”; “mother destroyed something belonging to father”) and the whole 7 items from adult recalling of “father to mother psychological aggression” (“father insulted or swore at mother”; “father destroyed something belonging to mother”) subscales were used.

As recommended by Straus et al. (1995) the researcher decided not to limit participants' recalling behavior of their parents to a specific age period. Rather, a more broad term was used as “while growing up”. The participants, who did not witness a parent relationship or a step-parent relationship while growing due to the following reasons, were asked simply to leave that part of the survey blank (*see* Appendix F for the instruction). The participants who were raised up by someone else other than the parents, or who were grown up at a orphanage, or who had always had a single parent from the very early ages due to loss, separation, and divorce. These cases were omitted from the further analysis.

As suggested by Straus et al. (1996) an index of degree of recalling psychological aggression was created, separately for mother-to-father and father-to- mother responses, by adding the midpoints for each response category. The midpoints are same for category 0 (never happened), 1 (once), and 2 (twice). For category 3 (3-5 times) it is 4, for category 4 (6-10 times) it is 8. For category 5 (11-20 times) and 6 (more than 20times), the midpoints are 15 and 25, respectively. Depending upon this recoding, scores one can get ranges between 0 and 175.

The items in Conflict Tactics Scales – Adult Recall version – Psychological Aggression, though translated before, had never been used as a separate construct to measure witnessing interparental psychological aggression with a Turkish sample. Thus, CFAs were performed separately to validate the proposed a single factor structure of CTS2-CA.

Cronbach's coefficient alpha ( $\alpha$ ) -as the index of reliability- for Psychological Aggression subscale for mother to father and father to mother forms were found to be .82 and .86, respectively, for the main study.

### ***3.3.7.1 Validity and reliability of Turkish CTS2-CA– pilot study***

The data from pilot study was used to validate the single factor structure of Turkish CTS2-CA. In the previous analyses, the sample size of the pilot study was 280. In current study, 5 cases were omitted due to the aforementioned reasons (i.e., being raised up by someone else other than the parents, being grown up at an orphanage, or always having a single parent from the very early ages due to loss, separation, and divorce). Therefore, the sample consisted of 275 dating college students. Of 275 participants, 191 (69.5%) were females and 83 (30.2%) were males. One did not report gender. Four the deleted cases were women and one of them was male, then. The prevalence rates were not affected with the deletion of cases; therefore, the researcher did not report them again (*please see* Table 3.3 for the demographics).

The participants answered the same items both for their mother and father which means that two separate constructs emerged for the same scale. Hence, the evaluation of the assumptions and the CFA analyses were done twice. In the following section, the assumptions of CFA were checked as the first step before the analyses.

#### ***3.3.7.1.1 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of Turkish CTS2-CA***

Prior to CFA analyses, the assumptions of CFA -accuracy of data entry, sample size, missing values, outliers, normality, linearity and multicollinearity- were verified. The

assumption checks were repeated as explained above. First the mother-to father form and as the second step, father-to-mother form were evaluated in terms of assumptions.

*3.3.7.1.1.1 Assumptions of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of Turkish CTS2-CA for father-to-mother form*

First, the data was assessed in terms of accuracy to make sure that no mistake was made through manual data entry. The observation of maximum and minimum values and the calculation of the means and standard deviations revealed that data entry was successful. Second, after data accuracy, the size of sample was determined. With 7 observed variables, the study had a total of 14 free parameters; 7 for factor loadings, 7 for covariance errors among the latent variables. The sample size ( $N = 275$ ) was obviously sufficient according to Kline's (2005) common rule of thumb; a ratio of cases to free parameters of 10:1 or 20:1. A missing value analysis was then performed. Of seven measure items, four and three of the items did not exceed 2%, and 3%, respectively. EM algorithm was employed to fill the missing data in this case (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Following sample size evaluation, univariate and multivariate outliers were identified computing standardized  $z$  scores and Mahalanobis distances, respectively. No univariate outliers (the standardized  $z$  scores less than -3.29 or greater than 3.29) were discovered except for two items; Item\_2 and Item\_3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Multivariate outliers were also detected,  $\chi^2(14) = 29.41$ , ( $p < .001$ ) in the dataset. Only three cases exceeded the critical value, so they were not dropped. Next, normality, both univariate and multivariate, was assessed. The skewness and kurtosis indexes were broadly larger than zero. The indexes ranged between -.27 and 2.78 for skewness, and -1.81 and 6.80 for kurtosis. The Mardia's coefficient was 35.64 (greater than 10), which means significant deviation from normality. Due to the nonnormality, Bollen-Stine corrected  $p$  value instead of Maximum Likelihood (ML) was selected to evaluate model fit (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999).



To screen for nonlinearity, randomly selected bivariate scatterplots across variables were examined and no departure from linearity was apparent. Finally, the assumption of multicollinearity was tested through intercorrelations among the variables, collinearity diagnostics, the variance inflation factors (VIF), tolerance values, condition index (CI) and variance proportion (VP). No bivariate correlations appeared above .80 ( $r = .68$  max.) (Stevens, 2002). The highest value for VIF was 2.84, which did not exceed the common cutoff value 5. The values of tolerance varied between .35 and .80, most of which were close to one rather than zero. For CI, none of the components were greater than the recommended value (30). Considering all indicators together, multicollinearity was not an issue (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As all assumptions, except for outliers and normality, were met, the data was ready for CFA among Turkish college students.

#### *3.3.7.1.1.2 Assumptions of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of Turkish CTS2-CA for mother-to-father form*

The assumptions for Turkish CTS2-CA for mother-to-father form were checked with the data comprised of 275 dating college students as the assumptions check of Turkish CTS2-CA for father-to-mother form. Specifically, accuracy of data entry, sample size, missing values, outliers, normality, linearity and multicollinearity were tested.

The accuracy of data entry was ensured. The sample size ( $N = 275$ ) was above the minimum required (Kline, 2005) for running CFA. The missing values were less than 2% for all item measures; therefore EM algorithm was preferred for the values missing (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Univariate outlier assumption was not met for Item\_2, Item\_3, and Item\_7. Nine cases were identified multivariate outliers, but they were not removed since outliers are very common in samples of aggression studies. Test of univariate and multivariate normality clearly demonstrated mild to severe deviations. As the estimation method, Bollen-Stine corrected  $p$  value was chosen to assess overall model fit in order to deal with nonnormality (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999). Bivariate analyses of randomly selected scatterplots displayed that

linearity was not violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The assumption of univariate and multivariate multicollinearity was adequately met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Finally, the data was ready for CFA since the assumptions met and corrections were made in the case of violation.

#### *3.3.7.1.2 Model estimation for Turkish CTS2-CA*

The selected fit indices and their cutoff values to evaluate the goodness of fit of the hypothesized single factor structure of Turkish CTS2-CA for father to mother and mother to father forms were presented in this section. As discussed before, Brown's (2006) categorization was utilized. The fit indices in this categorization were  $\chi^2/df$  ratio, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) –also recognized as non-normed fit index (NNFI)- and comparative fit index (CFI). A  $\chi^2/df$  ratio less than 3 (Kline, 1998), a RMSEA less than .05 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993) and a SRMR close to .08, a CFI and TLI greater than .95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) were chosen as the acceptable cutoff values (*please see* Table 3.5 and 3.6 for more detailed information).

#### *3.3.7.1.3 The results of CFA for Turkish CTS2-CA*

Two CFAs were performed separately for the father-to-mother and mother-to-father forms in order to see whether the proposed factor structure of CTS2-CA was supported in Turkish culture. First, the results of father-to-mother form of CTS2-CA were presented.

##### *3.3.7.1.3.1 The results of CFA for Turkish CTS2-CA father to mother form*

In order to test the single factor structure of Turkish version of CTS2-CA father to mother form, a CFA was employed with AMOS 18. As reported in the assumption check, due to nonnormality of data, Bollen-Stine corrected p value was reported for the evaluation of overall model fit. Bootstrapping, which assumes normality, was

performed as an aid to nonnormal data. The number of bootstrap samples was set to 1000 (Cheung & Lau, 2008).

Table 3.10

*Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of CFA for Turkish CTS2-CA Father to Mother Form*

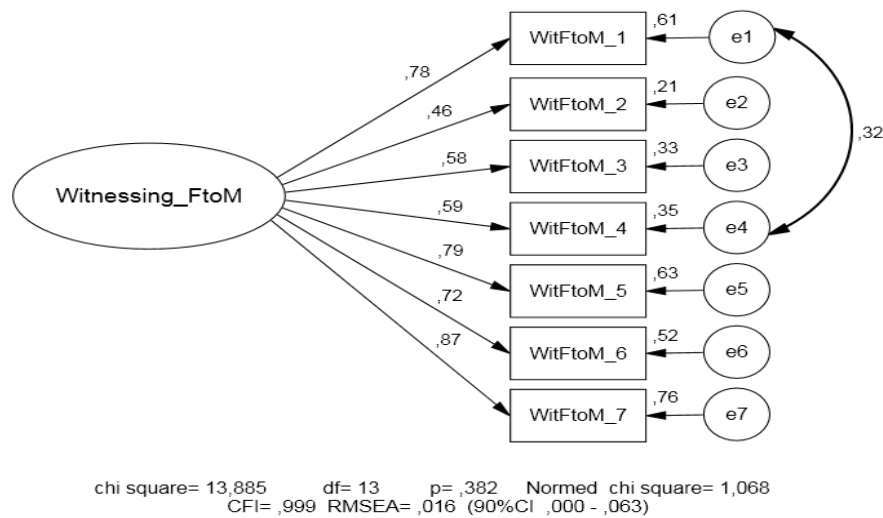
	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
First model	35.68	14	2.54	.08	.04	.97	.96
WitFtoM_1 and WitFtoM_4	13.89	13	1.07	.02	.02	1.00	1.00

The chi square test of model fit was statistically significant,  $\chi^2 (14, N = 275) = 36.69$ , Bollen-Stine corrected ( $p = .03$ ), which suggested a poor fit (Table 3.10). One of the reasons for this is  $\chi^2$ 's sensitivity to sample size. Thus, the normed chi square ( $\chi^2/df$  ratio) (Kline, 1998) is generally reported to assess the model fit. With  $\chi^2$  as 35.68 and df as 14, the obtained  $\chi^2$  over df ( $\chi^2/df$ ) ratio was 2.54, less than the proposed value 3 (Kline, 1998). The RMSEA value was .08 (90% CI = .05–.11) which indicates mediocre fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The standardized RMR (SRMR) was .04, below than the suggested cutoff value (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The other fit index CFI and TLI had values of .97 and .96, respectively which were higher than the suggested (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Parameter estimates, standard errors of parameter estimates and significance tests for individual parameters were analyzed next. It seemed that the individual parameters were appropriate. The inspection of modification indices revealed an error with a high value between items Item\_1 (Father insulted or swore at mother) and Item\_4 (Father shouted or yelled at mother). After the inspection of modification indices and evolution of items, the researcher decided to add an error correlation between Item\_1 and Item\_4 due to content similarity and to run the analysis again to see what changed.

The results of second analysis after the connection of errors- since they belonged to the same construct- indicated a perfect fit (Table 3.10). The chi square test of model fit was statistically insignificant,  $\chi^2 (14, N = 275) = 13.89$ , Bollen-Stine corrected  $p$

= .59. The normed chi square ( $\chi^2/df$  ratio) was 1.07, below than 3 (Kline, 1998). The RMSEA value was .02 (90% CI= .00–.06), (RMSEA< .05, close fit, Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The standardized RMR (SRMR) was .02, below than the suggested cutoff value (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The other fit indices CFI and TLI had values of 1.00 and 1.00 (CFI  $\geq$  .95, Hu & Bentler, 1999).



*Figure 3.3* Estimates of parameters of confirmatory factor analysis for Turkish CTS2-CA father to mother form

Table 3.11 showed the construct, related items, standardized regression weights and squared multiple correlations for 7 items of Turkish version of CTS2-CA father to mother form. Standardized factor loadings ranged between .46 and .87. No item had

a factor loading lower than the suggested cutoff value .30. The values for  $R^2$  varied between 21% and 76%. The criterion- at least 20% of the variance with a significant  $t$ -value - was achieved for all items.

Table 3.11

*Standardized Regression Weights and Squared Multiple Correlations of Turkish CTS2-CA Father to Mother Form*

Construct	Item	Standardized Factor Loadings	$t$	$R^2$
Witnessing	WitFtoM_1	.78		.61
	WitFtoM_2	.46	7.46	.21
	WitFtoM_3	.58	9.48	.33
	WitFtoM_4	.59	11.50	.35
	WitFtoM_5	.79	13.69	.63
	WitFtoM_6	.72	12.26	.52
	WitFtoM_7	.87	15.11	.76

*Note.* All  $t$  values are significant at  $p < .001$ .

Taken as a whole, the results of CFA provided empirical evidence for the construct validity of CTS2-CA father to mother form among Turkish college students (Figure X).

*3.3.7.1.3.2 The results of CFA for Turkish CTS2-CA mother to father form*

Following father-to-mother form, in order to obtain evidence for construct validity of proposed single factor for mother-to-father form of Turkish CTS2-CA, a CFA was carried out with AMOS 18. As remembered, normality assumption was seriously violated. To correct problems of normality, bootstrapping was applied and Bollen-Stine bootstrap was calculated.

The statistically significant chi square value,  $\chi^2 (14, N = 275) = 46.54$ , Bollen-Stine corrected  $p = .03$  indicated a poor fit (Table 3.12). To handle with sensitivity  $\chi^2$ , the normed chi square ( $\chi^2/df$  ratio) (Kline, 1998) was reported to assess the model fit,

( $\chi^2/df= 3.32$ ). The value was above the proposed value 3 (Kline, 1998). The RMSEA value was .09 (90% CI= .06 –.12) which indicated reasonable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The standardized RMR (SRMR) was .05, below than the suggested cutoff value (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The other fit index CFI and TLI had values of .94 and .91, respectively which were close to the suggested values (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

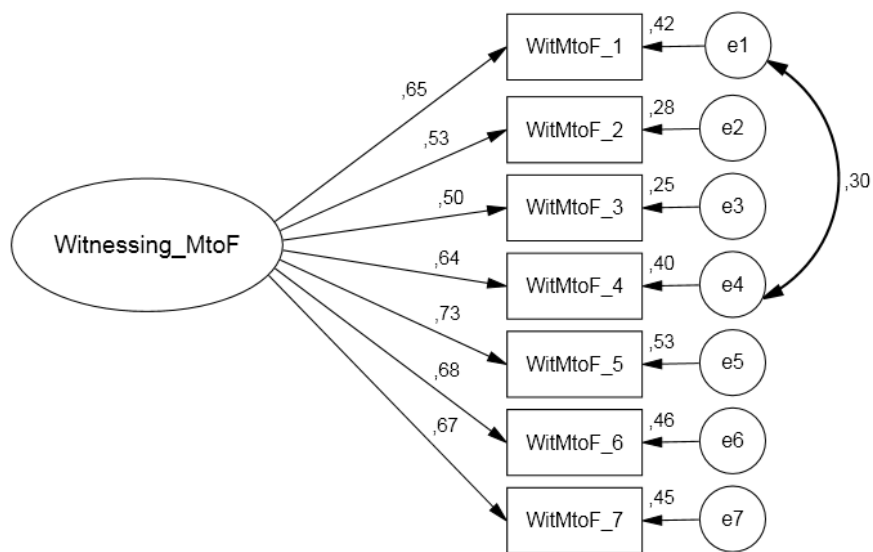
Table 3.12

*Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of CFA for Turkish CTS2-CA Mother to Father Form*

	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI
First model	46.54	14	3.32	.09	.05	.94	.91
WitMtoF_1 and WitMtoF_4	28.65	13	2.20	.07	.04	.97	.96

Parameter estimates, standard errors of parameter estimates and significance tests for individual parameters were also checked. There seemed no problem with the individual parameters. Once again, the inspection of modification indices revealed an error with a high value between items Item\_1 (Mother insulted or swore at father) and Item\_4 (Mother shouted or yelled at father). After the inspection of modification indices and evolution of items, the researcher realized that the connection of errors would improve the model fit as in father to mother form. Thus, a correlation between Item\_1 and Item\_4 were added due to content similarity and the analysis was repeated.

The results of the repeated analysis after the connection of errors- since they belonged to the same construct- showed a better, yet not perfect fit (Table 3.12). The chi square test of model fit was statistically insignificant,  $\chi^2 (13, N = 275) = 28.65$ , Bollen-Stine corrected  $p = .36$ . The normed chi square ( $\chi^2/df$  ratio) was 2.20, below than 3 (Kline, 1998). The RMSEA value was .07 (90% CI= .03–.10), (.05 <RMSEA< .10, medicore fit, Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The standardized RMR (SRMR) was .04, below than the suggested cutoff value (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The other fit indices CFI and TLI had values of .97 and .96 (CFI  $\geq$  .95, Hu & Bentler, 1999).



chi square= 28,654    df= 13    p= ,007    Normed chi square= 2,204  
 CFI= ,972    RMSEA= ,066 (90%CI ,033 - ,099)

*Figure 3.4* Estimates of parameters of confirmatory factor analysis for Turkish CTS2-CA father to mother form

Table 3.13 showed the construct, related items, standardized regression weights and squared multiple correlations for 7 items of Turkish version of CTS2-CA mother to

father form. Standardized factor loadings ranged between .50 and .73. No item had a factor loading than the suggested cutoff value .30. The values for  $R^2$  varied between 25% and 53%. The criterion- at least 20% of the variance with a significant  $t$ -value - was achieved for all items.

Table 3.13

*Standardized Regression Weights and Squared Multiple Correlations of Turkish CTS2-CA Mother to Father Form*

Construct	Item	Standardized Factor Loadings	$t$	$R^2$
Witnessing	WitMtoF_1	.65		.42
	WitMtoF_2	.53	7.34	.28
	WitMtoF_3	.50	6.97	.25
	WitMtoF_4	.64	10.35	.40
	WitMoF_5	.73	9.31	.53
	WitMtoF_6	.68	8.91	.46
	WitMtoF_7	.67	8.85	.46

*Note.* All  $t$  values are significant at  $p < .001$ .

Taken as a whole, the results of CFA provided empirical evidence for the construct validity of CTS2-CA mother to father form among Turkish college students.

### **3.3.7.2. Internal consistency of the Turkish CTS2-CA**

In order to assess internal consistency of Turkish version of CTS2-CA, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated. A value greater than .70 (Nunnally, 1978) is the broadly accepted rule of thumb for alpha coefficient. In the current dataset, Cronbach's alpha for father to mother and mother to father forms were found to be .87 and .83, respectively. The item-total statistics were also explored to see whether Cronbach's alpha increased if any item was deleted. It appeared that all items contributed to overall reliability of the scales. No deletions were considered necessary.



### **3.4 Data Collection Procedure**

The data, for this study, were gathered by the researcher during the spring semester of 2013-2014 academic year through multiple ways. In the pilot study phase, paper survey, and in the main study, web-based survey hosted by MetuSurvey, were used. Different procedures were followed for the different ways of data collection.

#### **3.4.1 Data collection procedure for pilot study**

In the pilot study, the four campus state universities were chosen. The first administration was conducted at Middle East Technical University (METU). Before implementing the instruments, an ethical permission was granted from the Human Subjects Ethics Committees of METU (*see* Appendix X for the permission). After granting the ethical approval, the instructors at METU were contacted through e-mails in order to ask their collaboration for in-class administration. In the e-mails, the purpose and procedure of the study was explained. A survey package was then prepared including demographics and standard measures in the following order: Demographic Information Form, Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse, Sex Role Stereotyping Scale, Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale-Revised, Socialization of Gender Norms Scale, and Conflict Tactics Scales– Adult Recall Version (Form CTS2-CA). In the very beginning of in-class administration, the candidates of the survey were explicitly identified (currently dating college students). The remaining was cautiously asked to leave the class. Clear instructions for the purpose of the study, conditions of participation (volunteering, confidentiality, anonymity), risks (recalling abuse), and benefits (expanding the knowledge on psychological dating aggression) were provided both verbally and on the inform consent. Participants were specifically instructed not to include partners/friends in the activity. No incentives were offered. It took approximately 15 to 20 minutes for the participants to complete. Sincere thanks were expressed to the participants upon taking the survey.

Synchronously, Ankara University Ethics Committee, Gazi University Clinical Research Ethics Committee, and Hacettepe University Ethics Boards and Commissions were contacted and asked whether they needed additional approval to gather data even the researcher had one from METU. The ethics applications were submitted to the relevant ethics committees both for online and paper-pencil surveys. In the applications, ways to invite students to online survey were also explored. Meanwhile,, the instructors in these three universities were communicated via e mails for their cooperation with the ethical permission from METU attached. The procedure remained same as explained above.

### **3.4.2 Data collection procedure for main study**

Issues such as inclusion of partner/friend in the activity though instructed not to do, the climate at the class during the activity (laughs, discussions, questions etc.), and the negative reactions -when told that participation into study required having a current dating relationship- raised in the pilot study were problematic due to the sensitivity of the topic investigated. Therefore, in order to increase the response rates and to reach more dating students, more convenient ways of data collection were considered. Online survey, consequently, was decided for the main study.

Upon the completion of pre-data collection, for the main study, four private campus universities were also applied for ethical consent. Only Bilkent University Ethics Committee for Research with Human Participant did not request for additional approval. The other three, Ethics Committees of Başkent University, Ufuk University and TED University did. Below is a brief summary for the applications and approvals (Table 3.14).

For the web-based online surveys, the following steps were taken. First, an online survey was designed using MetuSurvey. Then, for Bilkent University, students were asked to participate through the personalized student e mail invitations in which the link of online survey was provided. To increase response rates, a follow-up email reminder with the survey link was sent a week after the first invitation. No

identifying information was collected separately such as student name, student number since no incentives were given for participation. Students first read the consent form and agree to participate if they were over 18 and had a current dating relationship.

Table 3.14

*Applications to and Approvals from Relevant Ethics Committees*

	Application for Ethics	Approval for paper survey	Approval for online survey	Ways for invitation
METU	Yes	Yes	Yes	Flyers/Social Media
Hacettepe	Yes	Yes	Yes	Social media
Gazi	Yes	Yes	Yes	Social media
Ankara	Yes	Yes	Yes	Social media
Bilkent	No need	No	Yes	Student e mails
Ufuk	Petition only	No	Yes	Website announcement
Başkent	Yes	Yes	No	-
TED	Yes	No answer	No answer	-

For Ufuk University, an announcement on the official website was made public just for one week. The link of the survey, with the aim and targeted sample was posted to invite students. Başkent University did not permit for online survey. The reason stated for this was that the e mails of students were confidential and private. For METU, flyers with a QR code to direct student to visit MetuSurvey link were posted around campus. For the other universities permitted for online survey, multiple (official and unofficial) social media accounts (Facebook, Twitter, etc.) were used to promote the survey to capture more diverse sample. Regardless of ways for invitation, the aim and targeted population of the study was clearly announced. The average time for a participant to complete the survey was 18 minutes and 59 seconds (median = 16 min. 47 sec.).

For online survey, data was downloaded from MetuSurvey and stored in password protected files on a METU server that was only accessible to the researcher. Only

those given direct permission by the primary investigator could reach data file; in this case, no one.

### **3.5 Description of Variables**

In this section, the variables investigated in the study were described and operationalized. Aforesaid, the proposed model explores the relationship between societal and perceived parental variables and psychologically aggressive behaviors among dating college students in conjunction with personal cognitive variables. The variables included are all latent variables, no total scores were computed. Variables were discussed under three categories; exogenous variables (patriarchy, gender socialization, witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and witnessing father to mother psychological aggression), mediator variables (sexist beliefs, and acceptance of aggression) and endogenous variables (psychological aggression perpetration). Exogenous variables are identical to independent variables while endogenous variables are identical to dependent variables. Exogenous variables affect endogenous variables directly or indirectly through the mediator variables.

#### **3.5.1 Exogenous variables (societal and perceived parental)**

Societal and perceived parental variables were identified as exogenous variables. As societal variables, patriarchy and gender socialization, and as perceived parental variables, witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and witnessing father to mother psychological aggression were used (*see* Table 3.15 for operational definitions of study variables).

*Patriarchy* was measured by 9 item Sex Role Stereotyping Scale (SRSS).

*Gender Socialization* was measured by 14 item the Traditional Gender Roles subscale of Turkish Socialization of Gender Norms Scale (SGNS).

*Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression* was measured by 7 item Psychological Aggression subscale of Conflict Tactics Scales – Adult Recall Version (Form CTS2-CA).

*Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression* was measured by 7 item Psychological Aggression subscale of Conflict Tactics Scales – Adult Recall Version (Form CTS2-CA).

Table 3.15

*Operational Definitions of the Variables*

Variable	Scale	Description	Range
<i>Endogenous Variables</i>			
Psychological Aggression			
Restrictive Engulfment	MMEA	7 item; 7 point	Continuous; min-max = 0-42
Denigration	MMEA	7 item; 7 point	Continuous; min-max = 0-42
Hostile Withdrawal	MMEA	7 item; 7 point	Continuous; min-max = 0-42
Dominance/Intimidation	MMEA	7 item; 7 point	Continuous; min-max = 0-42
<i>Mediator Variables</i>			
Personal Cognitive			
Sexist Beliefs	ASI-HS	11 item; 6 point	Continuous; min-max = 11-66
Acceptance of Aggression	IPVAS-R-Abuse	6 item; 5 point	Continuous; min-max = 6-30
<i>Exogenous Variables</i>			
Societal			
Patriarchy	SRSS	9 item; 6 point	Continuous; min-max = 9-54
Gender Socialization	SGNS-TGR	17 item; 4 point	Continuous; min-max = 0-42
Perceived Parental			
Witnessing F to M PA	CTS2-CA-PA	7 item; 7 point	Continuous; min-max = 0-42
Witnessing M to F PA	CTS2-CA-PA	7 item; 7 point	Continuous; min-max = 0-42

*Note.* Witnessing F to M PA = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression; Witnessing M to F PA = Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression.

### **3.5.2 Mediator variables (personal cognitive)**

Personal cognitive variables were identified as mediator variables. As personal cognitive variables, sexist beliefs and acceptance of psychological aggression were used (*see* table 3.14 for operational definitions of study variables).

*Sexist beliefs* were measured by 11 item Hostile Sexism subscale of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)

*Acceptance of psychological aggression* was measured by 6 item Abuse subscales of Turkish version Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale-Revised (IPVAS-R).

### **3.5.3 Endogenous variable (psychological aggression)**

Psychological aggression was identified as endogenous variable. To measure *psychological aggression*, 7 item Restrictive Engulfment, 7 item Denigration, 7 item Hostile Withdrawal, and 7 item Dominance/Intimidation subscales of Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse (MMEA) was used (*see* Table 3.15 for operational definitions of study variables).

## **3.6 Data Analyses**

The main purpose of this study was to develop a model of psychological aggression and test it. Specifically, the study investigated personal cognitive factors as mediators of the association between societal and perceived parental factors and psychological aggression among dating college students in Ankara. For this purpose, as the primary analysis, multi sample Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to test the model through the use of AMOS software. There until, several analyses were carried out for various purposes in the following order.

Prior to data analysis, initial procedures (data screening) on the raw data were completed. After data screening, assumptions testing (missing data, sample size, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity) was performed using SPSS. PASW. Secondly, descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, etc) were run to describe participants' demographic and relationship characteristics through the use of SPSS. PASW. Thirdly, Confirmatory Factor Analyses were conducted in order to obtain support for the identified factor structures of Turkish Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale-Revised and Conflict Tactics Scales – Adult Recall Version among college students. Fourthly, item parceling was employed prior to SEM analysis. Finally, the measurement and structural models were specified and evaluated as the primary analyses. For evaluation of measurement and structural models, a ten-factor confirmatory factor analysis and a structural equation modeling were performed, respectively, with a multi-sample approach using AMOS. 18.

### **3.7 Limitations of the Study**

The present study had, of course, some limitations. The findings should be evaluated by remembering those limitations. First, the obtained data was entirely self report. Mono-method bias might be a possible threat for construct validity due to the use of only self report measures (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1992). Participants were asked to remember psychological aggression occurrence within the six months and recall their parents' psychologically aggressive acts during childhood with the risk of some memory distortion. Accordingly, recollection of early gender socialization messages might be challenging. Moreover, there was the risk of participants' hiding certain information and giving socially desirable responses.

Secondly, the sampling comprised of currently dating college students from conveniently selected private and public universities in Ankara. Therefore, findings may be generalizable only to this population. Furthermore, some of the ethical committees of the universities did not respond or responded late to the requests for

ethical permission and access to students via e mails, which might decrease the representativeness of intended population.

Thirdly, it should be kept in mind that the study is correlational and cross-sectional in nature. Therefore, one cannot infer causality from the findings to establish temporal ordering.

Fourthly, the current study was limited to the theories (Feminist Theory and Social Learning Theory) and variables (societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive) included to capture use of psychological aggression among dating college students. However, there are a great number of theories and models, and variables relevant to those theories/models introduced in the literature.

Finally, participation rates were higher for females (69.6%) than males (30.0%), which could create a gender bias in sampling since females are generally more likely to voluntarily participate into relationship surveys. Consistently,



## **CHAPTER IV**

### **RESULTS**

This chapter presents the results of the study. Basically, the results were demonstrated as preliminary and primary. The preliminary analyses started with the assumption checks including data screening, missing data, sample size, outliers, normality, linearity and homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity. Following this, the descriptive statistics in terms of gender were described. Afterwards, the bivariate correlations among study variables were provided. The primary results initiated with the decision of item parceling and the procedure was demonstrated. Then, the measurement model was estimated and hypothesized structural model was introduced. Next to last step illustrated the proposed model in addition to direct and indirect associations and the specific hypothesis using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Finally, the chapter ended with the summary of the results.

#### **4.1 Preliminary Analyses**

As the preliminary analyses, the assumptions were first investigated. Secondly, the descriptive statistics were presented with regard to gender. Thirdly and finally, the inter-correlations among all variables were computed separately for men and women. The results were comprehensively presented below.

##### **4.1.1 Assumption checks**

As the pre-SEM analysis, as in any other statistical analyses, the assumption checks play a crucial role in the interpretation of the results. Therefore, in the current study, the data were mindfully scanned for assumptions beginning with data screening.

#### ***4.1.1.1 Data screening***

Though the data screened were downloaded from MetuSurvey- not entered manually- the researcher first assessed the accuracy of data through the inspection of maximum and minimum values for data accuracy. No mis-entry was observed. As the part of the data screening, then, negatively worded items were reversed to ensure the consistency of the data for the subsequent analyses. So, the dataset was ready for further assumption checks.

#### ***4.1.1.2 Sample size***

To decide how to treat data in the case of missing data and presence of outliers, the sample size was determined. There are suggestions instead of specific sample size requirements for SEM. Those suggestions are broadly based on ratio of cases to free parameters of at least 5:1 (Hair et al., 2006) or 10:1 and 20:1 (Kline, 2005). In the hypothesized model, the study had a total of 188 free (unlabeled) parameters. According to this criterion, the sample size of this study (1015) was sufficient enough. For Hoelter (1983), known as Hoelter's critical N and provided automatically by Amos, any sample size above 200 produce sufficient power to analyze data.

#### ***4.1.1.3 Missing data***

Because SEM requires a complete dataset, the discussion of missing data and handling it is valued. By September 2014, 5157 people attended online survey, 3968 of them discontinued due to some possible reasons (not meeting the requirements of the participation, the length of the survey, boredom, design of the online survey, sensitivity of the topic and/or items, and saving and not returning back to the survey) and the remaining (1176) completed the survey. Due to the ratio of discontinue to complete was so large, -three out of four- only the completed cases were considered as data. Accordingly, missing data was not an issue for the main study. One could

find how the researcher dealt with missingness in pilot study in the part of assumptions of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Turkish IPVAS-R (p.96).

#### 4.1.1.4 Influential outliers

Following missing data, influential outliers were examined. An outlier is “a case with such an extreme value on one variable (a univariate outlier) or such a strange combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate outlier)” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p.72). Univariate outliers were checked using SPSS.PASW by detecting standardized z scores values exceeding the range between +3,29 and -3,29 ( $p < .001$ , two tailed test) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Potential outliers were detected for the sub-constructs of psychological aggression (Restrictive Engulfment, Denigration, and Dominance/Intimidation) and constructs of witnessing interparental psychological aggression. Table 4.1, briefly summarized the minimum and maximum values of z-scores and the number of univariate outliers if detected.

Table 4.1

*Minimum and Maximum Values and Number of Cases for Z-Scores (N=1015)*

Z-scores	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i># of Cases</i>
Zscore(Restrictive Engulfment)	-1.00	5.11	11
Zscore(Denigration)	-.56	7.52	19
Zscore(Hostile Withdrawal)	-1.38	3.32	4
Zscore(Dominance)	-.59	7.82	12
Zscore(Patriarchy)	-1.70	3.24	-
Zscore(Gender Socialization)	-1.97	2.65	-
Zscore(Witnessing to F to M)	-1.23	2.62	-
Zscore(Witnessing to M to F)	-1.18	3.45	6
Zscore(Acceptance)	-1.68	5.09	3
Zscore(Sexist Beliefs)	-2.14	2.46	-

*Note.* Witnessing to F to M = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression; Witnessing M to F PA = Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression; Acceptance = Acceptance of psychological aggression.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) assert that extremeness of standardized score depends on the size of the sample size, that is to say, with very large sample sizes it is not extraordinary to catch univariate outliers (p. 73). Furthermore, SEM is a multivariate analysis, multivariate outliers, rather than univariate, thus considered. Multivariate outliers were identified using AMOS 18 by calculating Mahalanobis distance (Mahalanobis  $D^2$ ). Mahalanobis  $D^2$  measures the observations farthest from the centroid. 69 cases were considered as outliers since the critical value was exceeded,  $\chi^2(3291) = 140.169$ , ( $p < .001$ ) in the data set. The researcher repeated the analyses with and without outliers and noticed no difference between the model fit indices except for  $\chi^2/df$  ratio, which is sensitive to sample size. Moreover, removal of cases with outliers caused new outliers. So, no cases were deleted and the analyses proceeded with the current dataset with multivariate outliers.

#### ***4.1.1.5 Normality***

Univariate and multivariate normality assumption were assessed via AMOS 18. For univariate normality, the indexes of skewness (symmetry of the distribution) and kurtosis (peakedness of the distribution) were inspected. The indexes ranged between -1.453 and 5.980 for skewness, and -1.301 and 42.687 for kurtosis. When stated that the sample is normally distributed, one expects either of the indexes to be close to zero. The indexes, in the current dataset, pointed out a non-symmetrical distribution. For multivariate normality, Mardia's test was run. A coefficient greater than 3 and 10 indicates minor and severe nonnormality, respectively (Kline 2005; Ullman, 2006). The result of Mardia's test was found to be significant; 1320.25,  $p < .001$ . This indicated a nonnormal multivariate distribution. Clearly speaking, the normality assumption was violated. As a remedy, in the first place, item parceling was considered to be appropriate.

#### ***4.1.1.6 Linearity and homoscedasticity***

The linearity assumption -a straight-line relationship between variables- and the homoscedasticity assumption - dependent variable's exhibition of similar amounts of

variance across the range of independent variables- were tested through the visual examination of bivariate scatterplots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The graphical evaluation of pairs of scatterplots ended in linear associations and homogeneously distributed variances between variables, which meant the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were met.

#### ***4.1.1.7 Multicollinearity***

Assumption of multicollinearity was checked out univariately and multivariately. Evaluation of assumption was produced in SPSS. For univariate multicollinearity, inter-correlations were screened to view if any exceeded the cutoff value of .80 (Stevens, 2002) or .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In the correlation matrix, no unsatisfactorily strong bivariate correlations were encountered ( $r = .69$  max.). For univariate multicollinearity, -through collinearity diagnostics- the variance inflation factors (VIF), tolerance values, condition index (CI) and variance proportion (VP) were explored. The highest value for VIF was 1.949, which was far below the common cutoff value 5. The values of tolerance ranged between .86 and .51. Commonly, values close to zero are problematic for tolerance. For CI, none of the components (max. 16.774) exceeded 30 (the rule of thumb) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Taken together, no multicollinearity was evident.

#### **4.1.2 Descriptive statistics and gender differences**

In this part, means, standard deviations were computed for predictor, outcome and mediator variables in order to describe dating college students' characteristics. Gender differences were explored among study variables for the decision of multi-sample analysis (simultaneous analysis of independent samples). In other words, if gender difference was observed on psychological aggression variables, the model would have been tested for male and female college students simultaneously not separately to reduce the probability of Type I error, false positive. In depth gender differences were also provided for the psychological aggression measures to see whether male and female participants differentiated in their use of specific

psychologically aggressive behaviors. Bonferroni correction was applied to reduce the Type I error due to multiple comparisons. Thus, p values were adjusted appropriately. SPSS.PASW was used to carry out the descriptive statistics analyses.

#### *4.1.2.1 Descriptive statistics for study variables*

As descriptive statistics, the means, standard deviations of the study variables for the total sample and by gender were computed as the first step. P value was adjusted as .005 (.05/10) Then a series of independent t tests were conducted to analyze the possible differences between males and females. Prior to the analyses, homogeneity of variances between groups was assessed by Levene's test. One should report that equal variances among groups are assumed, if the significance value for Levene's test is larger than .05. Cohen's ds were also calculated to ensure that the differences among groups were not by chance. An accepted rule is to interpret a Cohen's *d* of 0.2 as small, 0.5 as medium, and 0.8 as large (Cohen, 1988).

Except for gender socialization construct, Levene's tests were non-significant,  $p > .05$ , homogeneity of variances was assumed. SPSS provides an alternative t value when the assumption is violated. For gender socialization, this value was reported. The alpha level was set to .001.

As presented in the Table 4.2., the means obtained from dating college students for hostile withdrawal ( $M_{\text{Hostile}} = 12.38, SD = 6.91$ ) were highest which were followed by the mean scores of restrictive engulfment ( $M_{\text{Restrictive}} = 6.87; SD = 6.87$ ) and dominance/intimidation ( $M_{\text{Dominance}} = 2.97, SD = 4.98$ ). Denigration had the lowest scores ( $M_{\text{Denigration}} = 2.91, SD = 5.19$ ). The means were low when compared to maximum scores one can obtain. This pattern was repeated in males and females. Separate independent sample t tests were conducted to compare the psychological aggression variables for males and females. According to the results, there were no significant differences between the scores of females and males on denigration [ $t(1008) = -.45, p = .65$ ], hostile withdrawal [ $t(1008) = 1.36, p = .17$ ] and dominance/intimidation [ $t(1008) = .02, p = .98$ ]. Only the scores of restrictive

engulfment differed between females ( $M_{\text{female}} = 6.87, SD = 6.87$ ) and males ( $M_{\text{male}} = 7.33, SD = 6.99$ ), [ $t(1008) = 3.24, p = .00, \text{Cohen's } d = .23$ ]. Females used more controlling behaviors to their partners than males. The difference was small to medium according to Cohen (1988).

The results of male and female comparisons revealed no differences in gender socialization [ $t(537, 05) = .43, p = .68$ ], witnessing father to mother [ $t(1008) = .98, p = .33$ ] and mother to father [ $t(1008) = -.14, p = .89$ ] psychological aggression. On the other hand, patriarchy differed, [ $t(1008) = -8.98, p = .000, \text{Cohen's } d = .59$ ] and the magnitude of the difference was medium to large. Male ( $M_{\text{male}} = 26.17, SD = 9.13$ ) college students compared to females counterparts ( $M_{\text{female}} = 21.38, SD = 7.12$ ) had higher patriarchy scores.

In terms of mediator variables, there were significant differences in scores of acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs for males and females. Males ( $M_{\text{male}} = 14.83, SD = 4.42$ ) got higher scores than females ( $M_{\text{female}} = 13.57, SD = 3.95$ ) in the acceptance of aggression, [ $t(1008) = -4.48, p = .000, \text{Cohen's } d = .30$ ]. In other words, male participants were more accepting of psychologically aggressive behaviors toward a dating partner than their female counterparts. The difference was small to medium. For sexist beliefs, the magnitude of the difference increased to medium to large in favor of males ( $M_{\text{male}} = 41.82, SD = 11.46$ ). Females ( $M_{\text{female}} = 34.40, SD = 11.41$ ) held less hostile sexist beliefs, [ $t(1008) = -9.46, p = .000, \text{Cohen's } d = .65$ ].

To conclude, only one of the endogenous and exogenous variables, and two of the mediator variables resulted in significant differences. For endogenous variable the strength of the difference was small. It seemed that gender might distort the results of model testing.

Table 4.2

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Gender Differences for Study Variables*

Variables	Possible Range	Total (N=1015)		Females (N=706)		Males (N=304)		<i>t</i> <sup>a</sup>	<i>p</i> <sup>b</sup>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Restrictive Engulfment	0-42	6.87	6.87	7.33	6.99	5.81	6.48	3.24	.001	.23
Denigration	0-42	2.91	5.19	2.86	4.78	3.02	6.05	-.45	.650	.01
Hostile Withdrawal	0-42	12.38	6.91	12.61	8.55	11.78	9.58	1.36	.174	-.03
Dominance/Intimidation	0-42	2.97	4.98	2.98	4.76	2.97	5.51	.02	.982	-.00
Patriarchy	9-54	22.80	8.08	21.38	7.12	26.17	9.13	-8.98	.000	.59
Gender Socialization	0-42	31.95	11.92	32.00	8.85	31.74	9.55	.43	.668	-.00
Witnessing to F to M**	0-42	13.41	10.89	13.59	10.92	12.86	10.66	.98	.326	-.01
Witnessing to M to F**	0-42	10.72	9.05	10.71	9.95	10.80	9.05	-.14	.886	.00
Acceptance of Aggression	7-35	13.95	4.13	13.57	3.95	14.83	4.42	-4.48	.000	.30
Sexist Beliefs	6-66	36.61	8.91	34.40	11.41	41.82	11.46	-9.46	.000	.65

*Note.* Witnessing to F to M = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression; Witnessing to M to F = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression.

Five college students identified themselves as gender-other. Total *N* is 1015. Total *N* for females and males is 1010.

<sup>a</sup>Two tailed, *df*=1008.

<sup>b</sup>*p*=.05/10=.005)



#### 4.1.2.2 Descriptive statistics for psychological aggression variables

The researcher also looked for prevalence for psychological aggression in the last six months regarding gender. To determine the percentage of college students' perpetrating psychological dating aggression, a dichotomous 0/1 scoring was created. To categorize "yes" at least an act of psychological aggression occurred during the last six months on each dimension. Table 4.3 presented a list for the frequency of each type of perpetration for women and men. Of 706 women, 606 (85.2%) reported Restrictive Engulfment, 387 (54.85%) reported Denigration, 680 reported (96.3%) Hostile Withdrawal and, 398 (43.6%) reported Dominance/Intimidation. A great majority of women indicated to perpetrate isolating, restricting, monitoring and controlling behaviors (Restrictive Engulfment) and withholding emotional availability behaviors (Hostile Withdrawal). Slightly more than half of them committed humiliating and degrading acts (Denigration) and dominating and intimidating acts (Dominance/Intimidation). The pattern was evident within the subsample of men. The percentages marginally changed. Hostile Withdrawal (91.1%) and Restrictive Engulfment (80.3%) were the most common types of psychological aggression followed by Dominance/Intimidation (52.3%) and Denigration (50%). The next step proceeded by comparing women and men on particular psychological behaviors they engaged.

Table 4.3

#### *Percentage of Types of Psychological Aggression Perpetration*

Type of Perpetration	Women (N=706)				Men (N=304)			
	Yes <sup>a</sup>		No		Yes		No	
	<i>f</i> (%)	<i>N</i>	<i>f</i> (%)	<i>N</i>	<i>f</i> (%)	<i>N</i>	<i>f</i> (%)	<i>N</i>
Restrictive Engulfment	85.2	606	14.2	100	80.3	244	19.7	60
Denigration	54.8	387	45.2	319	50	152	50	152
Hostile Withdrawal	96.3	680	3.7	26	91.1	277	8.9	27
Dominance/Intimidation	56.4	398	43.6	308	52.3	159	47.7	145

*Note.* <sup>a</sup>For percentage a 0/1 dichotomy was created. Category 7 (not in the past year but did happen before) was coded as suggested by the author of the scale, since the researcher wanted perpetration scores for the past six months, not lifelong. For yes, at least an act of psychological aggression occurred during the last six months.

### 4.1.3 Bivariate correlations among study variables

The main goal of this study is to build a structural equation modeling to better understand the relationships among societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive variables. Preliminary to structural model, bivariate correlations were computed to depict the associations among the exogenous (patriarchy, gender role socialization, witnessing interparental psychological aggression), mediator (acceptance of psychological understanding, sexist beliefs) and endogenous (psychological aggression) variables among man and women college students.

For this purpose, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated separately for men and women. For the interpretation of correlations, different researchers suggest different guidelines; however, Cohen's guideline is the one strictly followed. According to Cohen (1998, pp. 79-81), correlations from .10 to .29, .30 to .49 and .50 to 1.00 are considered as small (weak), medium (moderate) and large (strong), respectively. The results of the Pearson correlations were presented in Table 4.4. The top and bottom half of the matrix referred to correlations of women and men, correspondingly. The correlations were interpreted independently for men and women participants.

For women, thirty seven out of forty five bivariate correlations were statistically significant. As theoretically, the sub-constructs of psychological aggression were significantly and positively associated with each other. This meant different types of psychological aggression co-occurred. Among psychological aggression variables, the weakest correlation was between Restrictive Engulfment and Denigration ( $r = .36, p < .01$ ) and the strongest was among Denigration and Dominance/Intimidation ( $r = .59, p < .01$ ). The remaining correlation coefficients ranged between the lowest and highest values. Sexist beliefs and acceptance of psychological aggression (moderator variables) were positively and significantly correlated,  $r = .35, p < .01$ . That is to say, college students with higher scores on sexist beliefs tended to get higher acceptance scores. Inconsistent with the expectations, associations among

exogenous variables were insignificant or weak except for the witnessing mother to father and father to mother psychological aggression, ( $r = .69, p < .01$ ). Participants who witnessed mothers' psychological aggression to fathers were also more prone to witnessing fathers' psychological aggression to mothers. No significant correlations were found between patriarchy and witnessing mother to father ( $r = .05, p > .05$ ) and father to mother ( $r = -.02, p > .05$ ) psychological aggression. Gender socialization's relation to patriarchy ( $r = .28, p < .01$ ) and recalling mother to father ( $r = .12, p < .01$ ) and father to mother ( $r = .17, p < .01$ ) psychological aggression were significant and positive though weak.

The relationship between endogenous and mediator variables were positive and moderate for acceptance of psychological aggression ( $r = .35, p < .01, r = .30, p < .01, r = .28, p < .01, r = .24, p < .01$ ) and insignificant or positive but weak for sexist beliefs ( $r = .16, p < .01, r = .06, p > .05, r = .10, p < .05, r = .09, p < .05$ ), which was unwelcomed. Just to clarify, students' with more sexist beliefs and accepting of psychological aggression in relationships were more inclined to use psychological aggression. The mediator variables' (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) relations to exogenous variables were significant and positive as predicted for patriarchy ( $r = .32, p < .01$ , and  $r = .50, p < .01$ , respectively) and gender socialization ( $r = .23, p < .01$ , and  $r = .27, p < .01$ , respectively), but were surprisingly insignificant for witnessing interparental psychological aggression. Honestly, perceived parental variables -witnessing mother to father and father to mother psychological aggression- were unreasonably not connected or poorly connected to other exogenous, mediator and endogenous variables, contrary to the expectations.

Table 4.4

*Intercorrelations among Study Variables for Women and Men College Students*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Restrictive Engulfment	-	.36**	.47**	.48**	.13**	.17**	.07	.09*	.35**	.16**
2. Denigration	.51**	-	.43**	.59**	.04	.13**	.08*	.11**	.30**	.06
3. Hostile Withdrawal	.52**	.48**	-	.49**	.06	.10*	.12**	.17**	.28**	.10*
4. Dominance/Intimidation	.57**	.59**	.46**	-	.08*	.15**	.13**	.15**	.24**	.09*
5. Patriarchy	.36**	.16**	.15**	.27**	-	.28**	.05	-.02	.32**	.50**
6. Gender Socialization	.26**	.15*	.08	.18**	.29**	-	.17**	.12**	.23**	.27**
7. Witnessing F to M	.03	.10	.11	-.02	-.00	.10	-	.69**	.04	.00
8. Witnessing M to F	.06	.18**	.14*	.05	-.05	.04	.71**	-	.08*	-.02
9. Acceptance of Aggression	.40**	.45**	.33**	.40**	.33**	.21**	.07	.09	-	.35**
10. Sexist Beliefs	.27**	.16**	.19**	.22**	.62**	.32**	.04	-.02	.33**	-

*Note.* Intercorrelations for women participants ( $N = 706$ ) are presented above the diagonal, and intercorrelations for men participants ( $N = 304$ ) are presented below the diagonal. Witnessing F to = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression, Witnessing M to F = Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression.

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , two tailed.

For men, thirty out of forty five bivariate correlations were statistically significant. Theoretically, as in the women participants, the sub-constructs of psychological aggression were significantly and positively associated with each other. Among psychological aggression variables, the weakest correlation was between Restrictive Engulfment and Dominance/Intimidation ( $r = .46, p < .01$ ) and the strongest was among Denigration and Dominance/Intimidation ( $r = .59, p < .01$ ). The rest of the correlation coefficients ranged between the lowest and highest values. Sexist beliefs and acceptance of psychological aggression (moderator variables) were positively and significantly correlated,  $r = .33, p < .01$ . Inconsistent with the expectations, associations among exogenous variables were insignificant or weak except for the witnessing mother to father and father to mother psychological aggression, ( $r = .71, p < .01$ ). No significant correlations were found between patriarchy and witnessing mother to father ( $r = -.05, p > .05$ ) and father to mother ( $r = -.00, p > .05$ ) psychological aggression. Gender socialization's relation to patriarchy ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ) and recalling mother to father ( $r = .04, p > .05$ ) and father to mother ( $r = .10, p > .01$ ) psychological aggression were insignificant.

The relationship between endogenous and mediator variables were positive and moderate for acceptance of psychological aggression ( $r = .40, p < .01, r = .45, p < .01, r = .33, p < .01, r = .40, p < .01$ ) and positive but weak for sexist beliefs ( $r = .27, p < .01, r = .16, p > .05, r = .19, p < .05, r = .22, p < .05$ ). Different from women, for acceptance of aggression, the correlations in magnitude and for sexist beliefs, correlations in significance increased. The mediator variables' (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) relations to exogenous variables were significant and positive as predicted for patriarchy ( $r = .33, p < .01$ , and  $r = .62, p < .01$ , respectively) and gender socialization ( $r = .21, p < .01$ , and  $r = .32, p < .01$ , respectively), but were surprisingly insignificant for witnessing interparental psychological aggression. As in the women's, perceived parental variables - witnessing mother to father and father to mother psychological aggression- were not connected or poorly connected to other exogenous, mediator and endogenous variables, contrary to the expectations.

No propositions were made concerning the link among exogenous and endogenous variables. A rapid check on the results in the correlation matrix displayed weak or no correlations both for women and men participants. This further supported the role of mediators between exogenous and endogenous variables. Overall, the results of the correlations provided tentative but promising evidences for the hypothesized relationships among societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive variables in predicting psychological aggression.

## **4.2 Primary Analyses**

As the primary analyses, item parceling was first discussed and applied. Secondly, the measurement model was established and tested. Thirdly, structural model was developed and tested. The model was trimmed as the fourth step and the direct and indirect associations were estimated. Following, hypotheses testing were provided. Finally, the results were summarized.

### **4.2.1 Item parceling**

An Item Parceling procedure was employed prior to model testing. As Little, Cunningham, Shahar, and Widaman (2002) stated “Parceling is a measurement practice that is used in multivariate data analysis approaches, particularly for use with latent variable analysis techniques “(p. 152). Parcels are constructed simply by summing or averaging two or more items within a factor which is an alternative to the use of individual items (Bandalos, 2002; Bandalos & Finney, 2001; Little et al., 2002).

Parceling items attracts researchers since it is a remedy for non-normality, small sample sizes, cases to indicators ratio, and unstable parameter estimates (Bandalos & Finney, 2001; Little et al., 2002). Though the sample size is not small in the current dataset, the researcher considered adopting item parceling due to the following reasons; the get a more normality distributed data (the present is severely skewed and kurtoic) and to reduce the number of model parameters. Thus, more stable parameter

estimates and better model fit would obtain (Bandalos & Finney, 2001; Little et al., 2002; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong, 1999; Nasser & Takahashi, 2003). The procedure is highly recommended when the unidimensionality of the factors to be parceled is strictly verified (Bandalos & Finney, 2001; Hall, Snell, & Foust, 1999; Little et al., 2002).

Referring to the previous point, in order to decide to parcel or not to parcel, the unidimensionality was ascertained as the first step. According to Hair et al. (2006), unidimensionality is “a characteristic of a set of indicators that has only one underlying trait or concept in common (p. 584). To assay unidimensionality, principal component analysis was applied as the extraction method. The eigenvalue greater than one criteria was used to establish unidimensionality for the all constructs used in the study.

From the Table 4.5 as can be seen, except for gender socialization, the unidimensionality of the constructs was demonstrated. For the concerned construct, the items were subjected to a factor analysis using principal component, in which the number of factors was fixed to one. The items loaded well on a single factor, accounting for 37.75% of the variance. The factor loadings range between .73 and .38. Thus, the researcher regarded this as sufficient evidence for unidimensionality along with the original single factor structure.

After determining unidimensionality, as the next step, the number of indicators and the technique for building parcels was settled. As Little et al. (2002) suggested, three parcels per construct were chosen to represent the latent constructs. A random assignment technique was applied while building the parcels (Hall et al., 1999; Hair et al., 2006; Little et al., 2002). An empirical basis was attempted for the random assignment. Depending on factor loadings, from the highest to lowest, each item was simply and successively assigned to parcels groupings (Hall et al., 1999). The average, rather than sum, of the items was preferred. The Table 4.6 clearly depicted the parceling, name of the parcels, and aggregated items in the latest step. To illustrate, for construct *Restrictive Engulfment*, three parcels, named as *Restrictive\_1*,

*Restrictive\_2* and *Restrictive\_3* were created. The parcel *Restrictive\_1* was comprised of averaging the items of *Psy1*, *Psy3* and *Psy7*. The procedure was repeated for the all study constructs. Merely, the number of items per parcels altered relying on the item numbers of the constructs.

Table 4.5

*Evidence of Unidimensionality and Cronbach's Alphas for Item Parceling*

Construct	Item #	Component	Eigenvalue	Variance %	Factor Loadings		$\alpha$
					Min	Max	
Restrictive Engulfment	7	1	3.13	44.70	.52	.76	.79
		2	.85	12.20			
Denigration	7	1	3.76	53.71	.62	.82	.83
		2	.72	10.28			
Hostile Withdrawal	7	1	4.08	58.30	.66	.85	.88
		2	.90	12.93			
Dominance/ Intimidation	7	1	3.47	49.52	.58	.80	.81
		2	.95	13.65			
Patriarchy	9	1	3.53	39.18	.78	.28	.78
		2	.97	11.66			
Gender Socialization	14	1	5.28	37.75	.80	.50	.82
		2	1.27	9.04	.80	.39	
Father to Mother	7	1	3.82	54.60	.85	.56	.86
		2	.80	11.53			
Mother to Father	7	1	3.43	49.03	.80	.54	.82
		2	.90	12.97			
Acceptance of Agg	7	1	2.25	32.19	.72	.33	.64
		2	.97	17.60			
Sexist Beliefs	11	1	5.61	50.97	.78	.64	.90
		2					

*Note* Father to Mother = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression; Mother to Father = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression; Acceptance of Agg = Acceptance of psychological aggression.



Table 4.6

*Parceling, Name of the Parcels, and Aggregated Items*

Name of Construct	Name of Parcels	Aggregated Items
Restrictive Engulfment	Restrictive_1	Psy_1+ Psy_3+ Psy_7
	Restrictive_2	Psy_4+ Psy_6
	Restrictive_3	Psy_5+ Psy_2
Denigration	Denigration_1	Psy_12+ Psy_8+ Psy_14
	Denigration_2	Psy_9+ Psy_13
	Denigration_3	Psy_10+ Psy_11
Hostile Withdrawal	Withdrawal_1	Psy_20+ Psy_16+ Psy_19
	Withdrawal_2	Psy_21+ Psy_15
	Withdrawal_3	Psy_17+ Psy_18
Dominance/Intimidation	Dominance_1	Psy_26+ Psy_22+ Psy_27
	Dominance_2	Psy_25+ Psy_24
	Dominance_3	Psy_23+ Psy_28
Patriarchy	Patriarchy_1	Pat_3+ Pat_1+ Pat_5
	Patriarchy_2	Pat_7+ Pat_2+ Pat_8
	Patriarchy_3	Pat_4+ Pat_6+ Pat_9
Gender Socialization	Gen_Soc_1	Soc_14+ Soc_13+ Soc_1+ Soc_3+ Soc_2
	Gen_Soc_2	Soc_12+ Soc_11+ Soc_10+ Soc_8+ Soc_6
	Gen_Soc_3	Soc_5+ Soc_9+ Soc_4+ Soc_7+ Soc_6
Father to Mother	Wit_Psy_FtoM_1	Wit_FtoM_7+ Wit_FtoM_6+ Wit_FtoM_2
	Wit_Psy_FtoM_2	Wit_FtoM_1+ Wit_FtoM_4
	Wit_Psy_FtoM_3	Wit_FtoM_5+ Wit_FtoM_3
Mother to Father	Wit_Psy_MtoF_1	Wit_MtoF_1+ Wit_MtoF_6+ Wit_MtoF_2
	Wit_Psy_MtoF_2	Wit_MtoF_7+ Wit_MtoF_4
	Wit_Psy_MtoF_3	Wit_MtoF_5+ Wit_MtoF_3
Acceptance of Aggression	Acceptance_Abuse_1	Att_7+ Att_9+ Att_15
	Acceptance_Abuse_2	Att_16+ Att_6
	Acceptance_Abuse_3	Att_3+ Att_10
Sexist Beliefs	Sexist_Beliefs_1	Sex_16+Sex_21+Sex_7+Sex_4
	Sexist_Beliefs_2	Sex_11+Sex_15+Sex_2+Sex_10
	Sexist_Beliefs_3	Sex_12+Sex_20+Sex_6

*Note* Father to Mother = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression; Mother to Father = Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression.

The multivariate assumptions of outliers, normality and reliability were checked after item parceling. For the identification of multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis  $D^2$  were calculated via AMOS 18. With a degrees of freedom 376, only two cases were detected as outliers since the critical value was exceeded,  $\chi^2(376) = 146.169$ , ( $p < .001$ ) in the data set and they were kept for further analysis. The number of outliers dramatically decreased. Means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis values of parcels were portrayed in Table 4.7. Indexes ranged between -.45 and 5.00 for skewness, and -1.33 and 28.98 for kurtosis. The inspection of indices showed that normality was improved by the use of item parceling. Half of the men and women reported not to perpetrate psychologically aggressive acts for denigration and dominance/intimidation. The means for denigration and dominance/intimidation were also low. This resulted in a data skewed toward low values with sharp peakedness, which is very common in aggression studies. Thus, the analysis proceeded with the parcels.

Tough the numbers of items decreased (three indicators per parcel) the reliability coefficients did not suffered (*please see* Table 4.5 and Table 4.7 for a comparison). For psychological aggression variables -Restrictive Engulfment, Denigration, Hostile Withdrawal, Dominance/Intimidation-, witnessing father to mother psychological aggression the reliability coefficients slightly decreased. On the contrary, coefficients for patriarchy, gender socialization, witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and acceptance of psychological aggression slightly increased. The Cronbach alpha for sexist beliefs was not affected, it remained same. All the values were above .70, except for acceptance of psychological aggression, ( $\alpha = .69$ ), which is hardly below the accepted rule of thumb (Nunnally, 1978).

Table 4.7

*Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis Values of Parcels*

Parcels	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>	<i>Cronbach <math>\alpha</math></i>
Restrictive_1	.84	1.00	1.60	3.02	.77
Restrictive_2	1.20	1.44	1.27	1.07	
Restrictive_3	.98	1.15	1.48	2.53	
Denigration_1	.43	.87	2.96	10.42	.81
Denigration_2	.24	.66	4.28	24.08	
Denigration_3	.58	1.02	2.36	6.70	
Withdrawal_1	1.88	1.32	.69	-.04	.87
Withdrawal_2	2.05	1.54	.58	-.29	
Withdrawal_3	1.32	1.44	1.08	.56	
Dominance_1	.51	.83	2.40	7.31	.79
Dominance_2	.18	.70	5.00	28.98	
Dominance_3	.54	.98	2.30	6.13	
Patriarchy_1	2.34	1.07	.63	-.14	.79
Patriarchy_2	2.94	1.01	.76	.61	
Patriarchy_3	2.32	1.12	.72	-.15	
Gen_Soc_1	2.53	.72	-.14	-.75	.88
Gen_Soc_2	2.24	.72	.20	-.75	
Gen_Soc_3	2.03	.72	.38	-.64	
Wit_Psy_FtoM_1	1.47	1.69	1.08	.23	.84
Wit_Psy_FtoM_2	3.37	2.09	-.13	-1.33	
Wit_Psy_FtoM_3	1.13	1.57	1.41	1.20	
Wit_Psy_MtoF_1	1.49	1.50	.92	.07	.85
Wit_Psy_MtoF_2	2.22	1.55	.49	-.15	
Wit_Psy_MtoF_3	.90	1.34	1.63	2.32	
Acceptance_Abuse_1	2.24	.73	.36	-.08	.69
Acceptance_Abuse_2	2.01	.85	.66	.06	
Acceptance_Abuse_3	1.60	.66	1.60	3.90	
Sexist_Beliefs_1	3.14	1.20	.06	-.58	.90
Sexist_Beliefs_2	3.20	1.18	-.01	-.68	
Sexist_Beliefs_3	3.74	1.19	-.45	-.23	

*Note* Restrictive = Restrictive engulfment; Withdrawal = Hostile withdrawal; Dominance = Dominance/Intimidation; Gen\_Soc = Gender socialization; Wit\_Psy\_FtoM = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression; Wit\_Psy\_MtoF = Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression; Acceptance\_Abuse = Acceptance of psychological aggression.

#### **4.2.2 Model testing**

For model testing, the analyses continued as follows. Initially, the measurement model was specified and estimated after item parceling. Secondly, the structural model was identified and evaluated. For estimation of measurement model, in the first place, a ten-factor confirmatory factor analysis was performed. In the second place, for the evaluation of structural model, a structural equation modeling was conducted.

Since the current study was interested in finding the answer to the question whether the hypothesized structural model differed for gender, a multi sample approach was applied both for measurement and structural model. For measurement model, test of measurement equivalence across gender and for structural model, test of structure according to gender were intended (Reise, Widaman, & Pugh, 1993).

Though item parceling significantly improved nonnormality, the data was still mildly nonnormal due to as previously stated reasons. Hence, maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was chosen, which is robust to nonnormality in order to test measurement and structural model. 18<sup>th</sup> version of AMOS was used for the analyses.

##### ***4.2.2.1 Measurement model***

A ten-factor confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to see the relationships among latent variables and to determine if the parcels were created properly. To interpret the results of confirmatory factor analysis, the researcher made use of multiple criteria; overall fit, parameter estimates, latent factor correlations, and standardized residuals, which provided in detail onwards.

A multi sample confirmatory factor analysis was applied to see that the measurement model differed with regard to gender. If one desires to compare groups (in SEM), the measurement invariance is to be tested first (Byrne & Watkins, 2003; Chen, Sousa & West, 2005). Measurement invariance includes the test of the equivalency of the

constructs gauged in two or more independent groups. The aim is to make sure that the same constructs are measured across groups. Thus, it can be concluded that the differences are due to the groups, not the measures.

Brown (2006) suggested the following steps for testing a multi group confirmatory factor analysis to test the equivalence across groups; loose cross validation (test of the model separately in each group), configural invariance (simultaneous test of groups for equivalency), metric invariance (test of the equivalency of factor loadings), scalar invariance (test of the equivalency of indicator intercepts) and strict invariance (test of the equivalency of indicator residual variances). Hair et al. (2006), on the other hand, argued that suggested minimum levels of invariance depend on the research questions. For measurement model comparisons, if the aim is to compare the basic structure (i.e., Is the construct perceived and use in a similar manner?) a full configural and (at least) partial metric invariance is required (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthen, 1989; Hair et al., 2006, pp.742-743).

The researcher conducted the CFA for the test of measurement model as prerequisite for the test of structural model and was interested in the invariance of factor measurement and variance-covariance structures. Thus, she merely followed the first three steps to test the model's equivalency across gender. For that matter, for the full-sample data, for women-sample data, for men-sample data preliminary single group analyses and a multi group analysis were utilized. The measurement model was summarized in Figure 4.1.

With the aforementioned discussion in mind (pp.102 to evaluate the overall model fit, several fit indices were inspected. Briefly, for RMSEA, Browne and Cudeck's (2006) recommendation were taken ( $RMSEA < .05$ , close fit;  $.05 < RMSEA < .10$ , mediocre fit;  $RMSEA > .10$ , poor fit). For  $\chi^2/df$  ratio, Kline (1998) was preferred ( $\chi^2/df < 3$ ). For SRMR, CFI and TLI, Hu and Bentler (1999)'s suggestions were considered, a SRMR less than .08, a CFI greater than .95 and a TLI greater than .95, respectively.

#### 4.2.2.1.1 Preliminary single-group CFA for the full sample data

First, a preliminary single group CFA was conducted for the full sample data to determine if any modification was needed in the hypothesized model. As presented in the Table 4.8, the chi square test of model fit was significant,  $\chi^2(360, N = 1015) = 1164.86$   $p = .00$ , which indicated that the model did not fit to the data. To correct the sensitivity of chi square to sample size, the normed chi square ( $\chi^2/df$  ratio) was used. With  $\chi^2$  as 1164.86 and  $df$  as 360, the obtained  $\chi^2$  over  $df$  ( $\chi^2/df$ ) ratio was 3.24, which was slightly higher than the recommended, value, 3 (Kline, 1998). The RMSEA value was .05 (90% CI = .04–.05) which suggested close approximate fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The standardized RMR (SRMR) was .03, lesser than suggested cutoff value (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The other fit indices CFI and TLI had values of .95 and .94 which were equal to the recommended ones. Hoelters  $N$  was 371 ( $p = .00$ ), the sample size large enough to detect the differences from the null hypothesis. Overall, the values of selected fit indices consistently represented a closely fitted measurement model, for that reason, no improvements were considered.

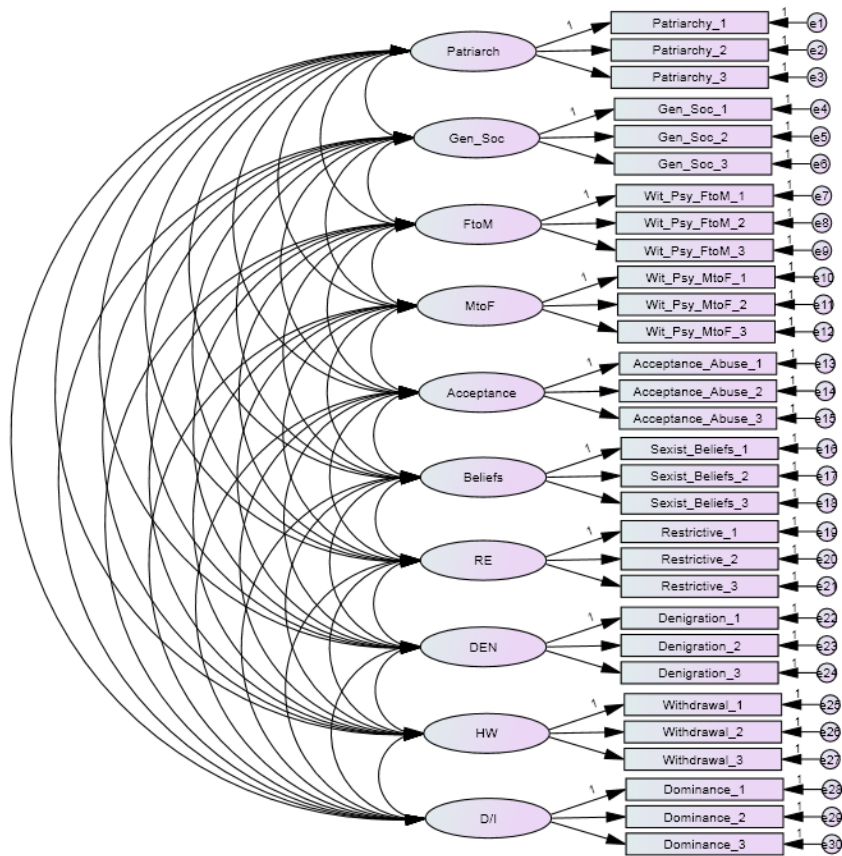


Figure 4.1 Measurement model

Note: Acceptance\_Abuse\_1-Acceptance\_Abuse\_3: Acceptance of Psychological Aggression, Denigration\_1-Denigration\_3: Denigration item parcels, Dominance\_1-Dominance\_3: Dominance/Intimidation item parcels, Gen\_Soc1- Gen\_Soc3: Gender Socialization item parcels, Patriarchy1-Patriarchy3: Patriarchy item parcels, Restrictive\_1- Restrictive\_3: Restrictive Engulfment item parcels, Sexist Beliefs1-Sexist Beliefs3: Sexist Beliefs item parcels, Wit\_Psy\_FtoM\_1-Wit\_Psy\_FtoM\_3: Witnessing Father to Mother Psychological Aggression, Wit\_Psy\_MtoF\_1-Wit\_Psy\_MtoF\_3: Witnessing Mother to father Psychological Aggression, Withdrawal\_1-Withdrawal\_3: Hostile withdrawal item parcels

Table 4.8

*The Results of Single Group and Multi Group Confirmatory Factor Analysis:  
Measurement Model*

	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA (90% CI)	$\Delta$ CFI
Single Group Full Sample	1164.86	360	3.24	.95	.94	.03	.05(.04-.05)	
Loose Cross Validation								
Women	904.18	360	2.51	.95	.94	.03	.05(.04-.05)	
Men	707.17	360	1.96	.95	.94	.05	.06(.05-.06)	
Configural Invariance	1748.07	729	2.40	.94	.92	.06	.04(.04-.04)	
Metric Invariance	1809.29	749	2.42	.93	.92	.06	.04(.04-.04)	.002
Factor V.C. Invariance	1924.81	799	2.41	.93	.92	.04	.04(.03-.04)	.007

*Note.* Factor V.C.Invariance = Factor Variance Covariance Invariance.

*4.2.2.1.2 Preliminary single-group CFA for the women sample data: Loose cross validation*

Next, the hypothesized –unmodified- model was fitted using the women-sample data only ( $N=706$ ). Table 4.8 presented the summary of the results of CFA. The fit indices for the hypothesized measurement model were,  $\chi^2 = 904.18$ ,  $df = 360$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.51$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .95, NFI = .94, SRMR = .03, RMSEA = .05 (90% CI of .04 to .05), which suggested an approximate close fit. That is, the model sufficiently well explained the relationships in the data obtained from women sub-sample.

*4.2.2.1.3 Preliminary single-group CFA for the men sample data: Loose cross validation*

Subsequently, the above hypothesized model was fitted using the men-sample data only ( $N=304$ ) Table 4.8 presented the summary of the results of CFA. The fit indices for the hypothesized measurement model were,  $\chi^2 = 707.17$ ,  $df = 360$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.96$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .95, NFI = .94, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .06 (90% CI of .05 to .06),



which suggested a reasonable fit. That is, the model sufficiently well explained the relationships in the data obtained from men sub-sample.

#### *4.2.2.1.4 Multi group CFA: Configural invariance*

Configural invariance is the first level of measurement invariance (Horn, McArdle, & Mason, 1983). It means that latent factors are equivalent across groups. The test of configural invariance allows the researcher to specify a baseline (unconstrained) model in which the groups compared have the same factor structure. To test the configural invariance (to construct a baseline model), a multi group CFA was employed. The results were summarized in Table 4.8,  $\chi^2 = 1748.07$ ,  $df = 729$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.40$ ,  $p < .000$ , CFI = .94, TLI = .92, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .037 (90% CI of .035 to .039). They indicated that the model displayed close approximate fit; the configural invariance was fully met. That is, a reliable baseline model was constructed and the constructs in the measurement model were invariant across gender. In other words, similar latent variables were present in men and women data.

#### *4.2.2.1.5 Multi group CFA: Metric invariance*

Metric invariance is the second level of measurement invariance. It means that the factor loadings between the indicators and their corresponding factor are equivalent across groups (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1999). The test of metric invariance allows the researcher to ascertain that the unit of measurement of the factors is identical across groups. To test the metric invariance, a multi group CFA was employed. The results were summarized in Table 4.8,  $\chi^2 = 1809.29$ ,  $df = 749$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.42$ ,  $p < .000$ , CFI = .93, TLI = .92, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .037 (90% CI of .035 to .040). The results indicated that the model displayed close approximate fit, but to compare the fit for the configural and metric models, chi-square difference test is employed (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). One expects chi-square difference test to be non-significant to say that metric invariance is achieved. It was not,  $\chi^2_{\Delta} (\Delta df = 20) = 61.22$  in this case. However, the chi square difference test is too sensitive to non-normality and large sample size. Given that that the data was not normal and the sample size was large,

the guideline offered by Cheung and Rensvold (2002) was followed instead. They asserted that a difference of larger than .01 in the CFI would indicate a meaningful change in model fit for testing measurement invariance. It was smaller than .01 in the current study,  $\Delta\text{CFI} = .936 - .934 = .002$ . The metric invariance was fully met. That is, factor loadings between the indicators and their corresponding factor in the measurement model were invariant across gender. In other words, similar factor loadings were present in men and women data.

To summarize, the results of single group CFA with full sample data, two separate single group CFAs for men and women and multi group CFA demonstrated that the latent constructs in the model and factor loadings of those latent constructs were equivalent across gender.

#### *4.2.2.1.6 Multi group CFA: Factor variance covariance invariance*

Based on the previous analyses, it was concluded that the model across gender had measurement invariance. For more complex models, as in the structural models, to compare the different groups, one should test structural invariance, as well. Structural invariance further tests whether the links among the latent variables in two or more independent groups are properly drawn.

The following steps for testing a structural invariance is required in addition to metric invariance if one intends to find out if the certain paths in a specified structural model and variances in the latent variables are equivalent across gender; invariance of factor covariance (test of the equivalency of factor correlations), invariance of factor variance (test of the equivalency of factor variances) and invariance of error terms (test of the equivalency of error terms; optional) (Byrne et al., 1989; Hair et al., 2006, pp. 742-743; Pedhazur, 1982). AMOS concomitantly computes invariance of factor variance and covariance.

In addition to metric invariance, factor variance covariance invariance is required first to compare the standardized measures of association (Pedhazur, 1982). It means

that the factor variances and covariances among latent variables are equivalent across groups. To test the factor variance covariance invariance, a multi group SEM was employed. The results were summarized in Table 4.8,  $\chi^2 = 1924.81$ ,  $df = 799$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.41$ ,  $p < .000$ , CFI = .93, TLI = .92, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .037 (90% CI of .035 to .040). The results indicated that the model fitted, but to compare the fit for the configural and factor variance covariance invariance models, chi-square difference test is employed (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). One expects chi-square difference test to be non-significant to say that metric invariance is achieved. It was not,  $\chi^2_{\Delta} (\Delta df = 70) = 176.74$ . However, the chi square difference test is too sensitive to non-normality and large sample size. Given that that the data was not normal and the sample size was large, the guideline offered by Cheung and Rensvold (2002) was followed instead. They asserted that a difference of larger than .01 in the CFI would indicate a meaningful change in model fit for testing measurement invariance. It was smaller than .01 in the current study,  $\Delta CFI = .936 - .929 = .007$ . The factor variance covariance invariance was met. That is, correlation coefficients and multiple squared correlation coefficients were invariant across gender. In other words, similar correlation coefficients (paths) and squared correlation coefficients were present in men and women data. To conclude, the model did not vary across gender, a single-sample structural equation modeling would be enough.

In addition to model fit indices, as the second criteria, parameter estimates were identified to validate the measurement model. To ascertain the significance of indicators' loading on latent variables and to interpret the loadings, the unstandardized and the standardized regression weights were utilized. The standard regression coefficients less than .10, around .30 and greater than .50 pointed small, medium and large effect, respectively (Kline, 2005). As depicted in Figure 4.2, the standardized regression weights were all above .50, and a great majority of them were above .70, ranging between .51 and .94 for women and .59 and .99 for men. The item parcels were thoroughly loaded on their respective construct. This indicated that item parcels were properly created, well estimated and plausible. Correspondingly, the squared multiple correlations were over 30% in some and 50% in most cases both for men and women.

Table 4.9

*The Standardized Regression Weights (SRW), Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) in Measurement Model*

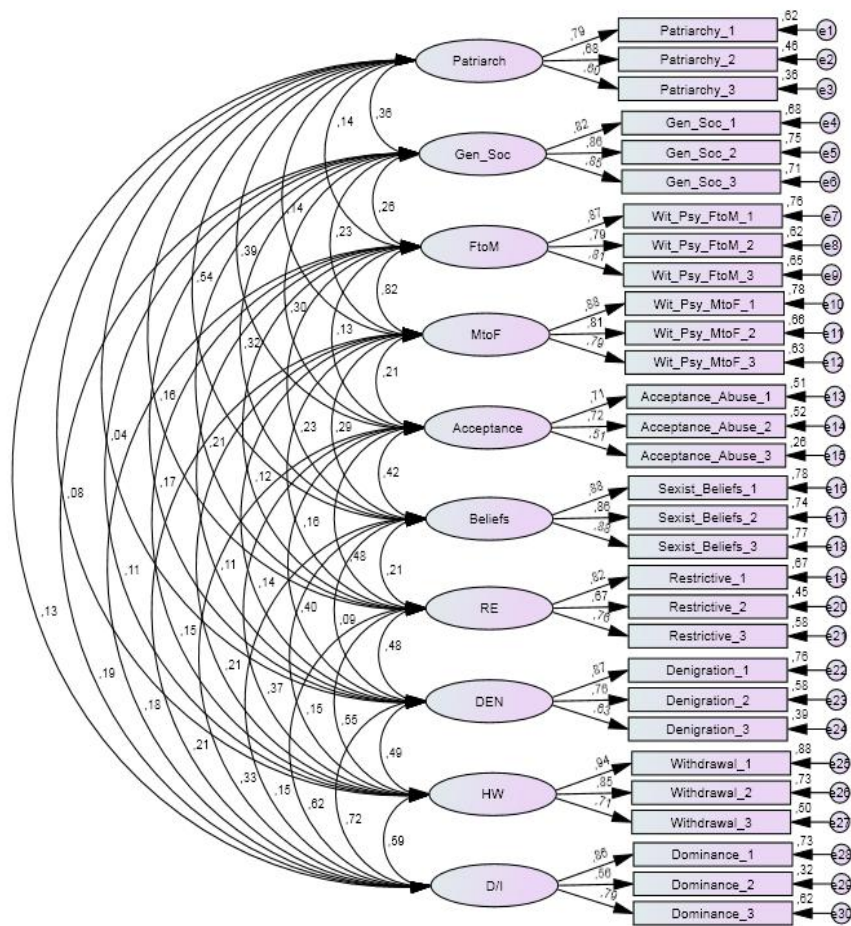
Parcels	Women			Men		
	SRW	SMC	AVE	SRW	SMC	AVE
Restrictive_1→ Restrictive Engulfment	.82	.67	.57	.83	.69	.55
Restrictive_2→ Restrictive Engulfment	.67	.45		.59	.35	
Restrictive_3→ Restrictive Engulfment	.76	.58		.78	.61	
Denigration_1→ Denigration	.87	.76	.58	.93	.86	.71
Denigration_2→ Denigration	.76	.58		.84	.70	
Denigration_3→ Denigration	.63	.39		.76	.58	
Withdrawal_1→ Hostile Withdrawal	.94	.88	.70	.99	.98	.75
Withdrawal_2→ Hostile Withdrawal	.85	.73		.83	.69	
Withdrawal_3→ Hostile Withdrawal	.71	.50		.77	.59	
Dominance_1→ Dominance/Intimidation	.86	.73	.56	.82	.68	.65
Dominance_2→ Dominance/Intimidation	.56	.32		.72	.51	
Dominance_3→ Dominance/Intimidation	.79	.62		.87	.76	
Patriarchy_1→ Patriarchy	.79	.62	.48	.82	.67	.55
Patriarchy_2→ Patriarchy	.68	.46		.70	.49	
Patriarchy_3→ Patriarchy	.60	.36		.71	.50	
Gen_Soc_1→ Gender Socialization	.82	.68	.71	.81	.65	.71
Gen_Soc_2→ Gender Socialization	.86	.75		.80	.64	
Gen_Soc_3→ Gender Socialization	.85	.71		.91	.83	
Wit_Psy_FtoM_1→ Wit FtoM Psy Agg	.87	.76	.68	.89	.79	.68
Wit_Psy_FtoM_2→ Wit FtoM Psy Agg	.79	.62		.78	.61	
Wit_Psy_FtoM_3→ Wit FtoM Psy Agg	.81	.65		.79	.63	

Table 4.9 (Continued)

Wit_Psy_MtoF_1→ Wit MtoF Psy Agg	.88	.78	.69	.90	.81	.66
Wit_Psy_MtoF_2→ Wit MtoF Psy Agg	.81	.66		.83	.60	
Wit_Psy_MtoF_3→ Wit MtoF Psy Agg	.79	.63		.75	.56	
Acceptance_Abuse_1→ Acc of Psy Agg	.71	.51	.43	.64	.41	.45
Acceptance_Abuse_2→ Acc of Psy Agg	.72	.52		.75	.56	
Acceptance_Abuse_3→ Acc of Psy Agg	.51	.26		.61	.37	
Sexist_Beliefs_1→ Sexist Beliefs	.88	.78	.76	.90	.80	.74
Sexist_Beliefs_2→ Sexist Beliefs	.86	.74		.81	.66	
Sexist_Beliefs_3→ Sexist Beliefs	.88	.77		.88	.77	

*Note.* Wit FtoM Psy Agg = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression; Wit MtoF Psy Agg = Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression; Acc of Psy Agg = Acceptance of psychological aggression.

Average value extracted (AVE) values were also calculated manually as the evidence of convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As in the Table 4.9, both for males and females, AVEs were all above .50 except for acceptance of psychological aggression. Thus, convergent validity of the parceled constructs was further supported (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).



kikare=1748,074 sd= 729 P= ,000 CFI= \CFI

Figure 4.2 Standardized regression weights, squared multiple correlations and latent factor correlations in measurement model for women

Latent factor correlations were inspected as the third criterion to interpret the results of measurement model. Results revealed that forty out of forty five correlations were statistically significant both in women and men sub-samples. For women, the links between patriarchy and denigration, and patriarchy and hostile withdrawal were insignificant. The insignificant links were the ones between gender socialization and hostile withdrawal, and witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and dominance/intimidation for men. The significant correlations were mostly weak and medium according to Cohen (1988) except for correlations among psychological aggression variables, which were moderately large. This demonstrated that latent variables in the measurement model were related but empirically distinct, which assumed discriminant validity. The only inconsistency with this was the notably strong correlation between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, ( $r = .82, p < .001$  for women,  $r = .85, p < .001$  for men), which was not surprising. Psychological aggression among partners is argued to be largely mutual, particularly among non-clinical samples (Johnson, 1995; Ryan & Kanjorski, 1998). Moreover, the reports were perceived rather than actual. The tendency toward reporting similar rates of interparental psychological aggression is reasonable. Statistically, .82 and .85 does not cause multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Consequently, witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression were recognized as distinct but related variables. Table 4.10 and Figure 4.3 briefly summarized of inter-correlations among latent variables for measurement model.

Table 4.10

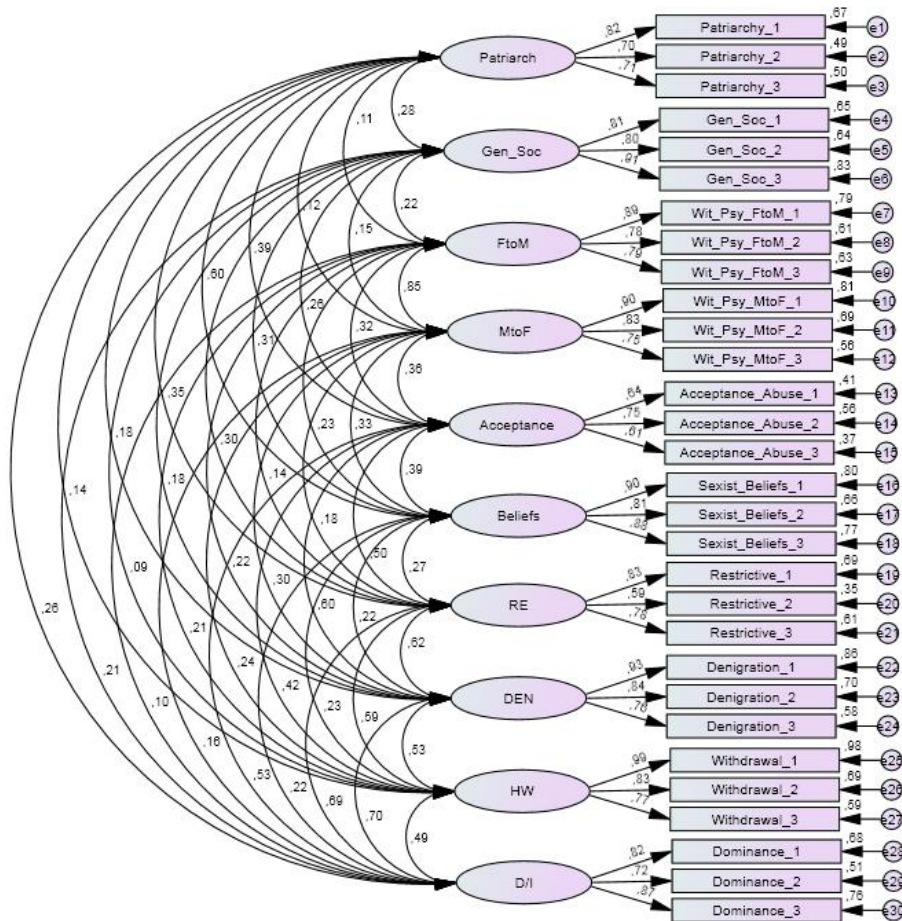
*Intercorrelations among Latent Variables for Measurement Model*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Restrictive Engulfment	-	.48**	.56**	.62**	.16**	.21**	.12**	.16**	.48**	.21**
2. Denigration	.62**	-	.49**	.72**	.04	.17**	.11*	.14**	.40**	.09*
3. Hostile Withdrawal	.59**	.53**	-	.59**	.09	.11**	.15**	.21**	.37**	.15**
4. Dominance/Intimidation	.69**	.70**	.49**	-	.11**	.19**	.18**	.21**	.33**	.15**
5. Patriarchy	.35**	.18**	.14*	.26**	-	.36**	.14**	.14**	.39**	.54**
6. Gender Socialization	.30**	.18**	.09	.21**	.28**	-	.26**	.23**	.30**	.32**
7. Witnessing to F to M	.14*	.22**	.21**	.11	.11**	.22**	-	.82**	.13**	.23**
8. Witnessing to M to F	.18**	.30**	.24**	.17*	.12**	.15*	.85**	-	.21**	.29**
9. Acceptance Aggression	.50**	.60**	.42**	.53**	.39**	.26**	.33**	.36**	-	.42**
10. Sexist Beliefs	.27**	.21**	.23**	.22**	.60**	.31**	.23**	.33**	.39**	-

*Note.* Witnessing to F to M = Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression, Witnessing M to F PA = Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, Acceptance = Acceptance of psychological aggression. Inter-correlations for women participants ( $N = 706$ ) are presented above the diagonal, and inter-correlations for men participants ( $N = 304$ ) are presented below the diagonal.

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , two tailed.





kikare= 1748,074 sd= 729 P= ,000 CFI= \CFI

Figure 4.3 Standardized regression weights, squared multiple correlations and latent factor correlations in measurement model for men

Finally, standardized residual covariances were examined to see any discrepancies existed between the proposed and estimated measurement model. Standardized residuals that fall between -2.5 and +2.5 are accepted as usual. Values larger than -4.00 and +4.00 are considered cause for concern. Not many cases fell out of  $\pm 2.5$  and fairly few cases greater than of  $\pm 4.0$  were observed both for women and men sub-samples. For very large samples, however, it is not unusual to observe standardized residuals outside  $\pm 2.5$  (Field, 2009).

#### ***4.2.2.2 Structural model***

A single-sample Structural Equation Modeling was employed to see the direct and indirect associations among the dating college students' societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive variables and psychological aggression perpetration. To interpret the results of structural equation modeling, the researcher made use of multiple criteria; overall fit, parameter estimates, and squared multiple correlation coefficients. To analyze overall model fit, chi-square, normed chi-square, RMSEA, CFI, TLI, and SRMR were used. To analyze direct, indirect and total effects, parameter estimates were applied. To find out how much variance in the mediator and outcome variables were accounted for by the model, squared multiple correlation coefficients latent factor correlations were utilized.

To evaluate the overall model fit, fit indices inspected were as follows. For, RMSEA, Browne and Cudeck's (2006) recommendation were taken (RMSEA < .05, close fit; .05 < RMSEA < .10, mediocre fit; RMSEA > .10, poor fit). For  $\chi^2/df$  ratio, Kline (1998) was preferred ( $\chi^2/df < 3$ ). For SRMR, CFI and TLI, Hu and Bentler (1999)'s suggestions were considered, a SRMR less than .08, a CFI greater than .95 and a TLI greater than .95, respectively.

##### ***4.2.2.2.1 Hypothesized model***

The hypothesized model, depicted in the Figure 4.4, tested the direct and indirect effects of societal (patriarchy and gender socialization), perceived parental

(witnessing interparental psychological aggression), and personal cognitive (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) variables as determinants of use of psychological aggression among dating college students.

Within the model, the direct associations of patriarchy, gender socialization, father to mother and mother to father psychological aggression (exogenous variables), on acceptance of aggression and sexist beliefs (mediator variables) and use of psychological aggression (endogenous variable) and the direct associations of acceptance of aggression and sexist beliefs (mediator variables) on use of psychological aggression (endogenous variable) were intended to be analyzed.

Moreover, within the model, the indirect associations of patriarchy, gender socialization, father to mother and mother to father psychological aggression (exogenous variables) on use of psychological aggression (endogenous variable) via acceptance of aggression and sexist beliefs (mediator variables) were intended to be analyzed.

#### *4.2.2.2.2 Model testing*

The hypothesized model was tested with structural equation modeling using the single-sample data as the measurement and structural invariance were met. The results were as shown in the Table 4.11. The chi square was significant,  $\chi^2(384) = 1279, 17, (p < .001)$ . As stated earlier, normed chi square was interpreted instead to handle with the sensitivity of  $\chi^2$  statistics to sample size. The normed chi square was 3.33, slightly higher than the recommended value. With such a large sample size, the value was assumed as reasonable. Consistently, the CFI (.94) and TLI (.94) suggested reasonably good fit of the model to the data. The SRMR = .04 and RMSEA = .048 (90 CI = .045-.051) values demonstrated close approximate fit. In short, the results revealed that the hypothesized structural model fitted considerably well.

Table 4.11

*Summary of the Model Fit Statistics for the Hypothesized Model*

	Goodness of Fit Indices						
	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA (90% CI)
Proposed Model	1279,17	384	3,33	.94	.94	.04	.048 (.045-.051)

In the measurement part of the model, all of the factor loadings were statistically significant. The loadings ranged between .53 and .96, all large in effect size magnitude (*see* Appendix J). In other words, the indicators were unquestionably well-described by their corresponding latent variables.

In the structural part of the model, 10 out of 14 regression coefficients (paths) were statistically significant. In other words, 10 of the 14 proposed direct effects from exogenous to mediator, from exogenous to endogenous and from mediator to endogenous variables were significant. The significant coefficients ranged between .09 and .67, small to large in effect size magnitude. Of the 10 paths three were from exogenous (societal and perceived parental) to endogenous (psychological aggression), five were from exogenous (societal and perceived parental) to mediator (personal cognitive) and two were from mediator (personal cognitive) to endogenous variables (psychological aggression). The statistically non-significant paths were the direct paths from (a) witnessing father to mother psychological aggression to acceptance of psychological aggression (b) witnessing father to mother psychological aggression to sexist beliefs (c) witnessing mother to father psychological aggression to sexist beliefs and (d) witnessing father to mother psychological aggression to use of psychological aggression. The standardized parameter estimates were portrayed in Figure 4.4, with non-significant path in red arrows and significant paths in black arrows.

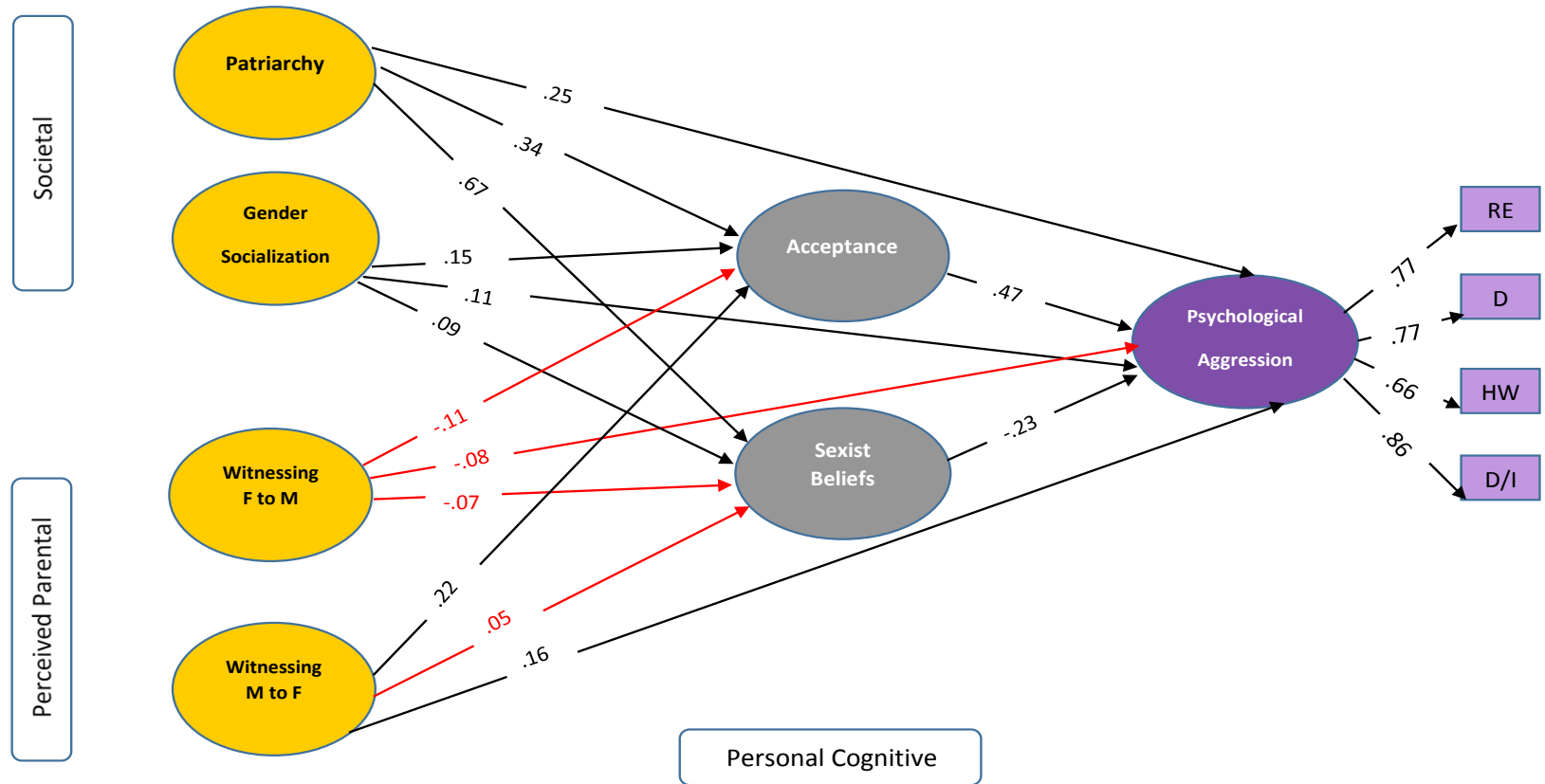


Figure 4.4 The hypothesized model with standardized estimates and significant and nonsignificant paths

In order to find out how much variance in each latent variable in the model was accounted for, the squared multiple correlation coefficients ( $R^2$ ) were inspected. The  $R^2$  values for the mediator and endogenous variables in the model were listed in Table 4.12. The societal (patriarchy and gender socialization) and perceived parental (witnessing interparental psychological aggression) variables explained 18% of the variance in acceptance of psychological aggression and 49% of the variables in sexist beliefs. Together with the societal, perceived parental and personal-cognitive variables, the overall model explained 31% of the variance in psychological aggression.

Table 4.12  
*Squared Multiple Correlations for Latent Variables*

	$R^2$	SE
Mediator variables		
Acceptance of psychological aggression	18*	.02
Sexist beliefs	49*	.04
Endogenous variable		
Psychological aggression	31*	.03

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ .

#### 4.2.2.2.3 Direct and indirect associations

In this part, the direct and indirect associations among exogenous (societal and perceived parental), mediator (personal cognitive) and endogenous (psychological aggression) variables were widely investigated. For the direct and indirect effects and their statistical significance, bootstrapping (set at 2000) was used due to its robustness to normality (Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). Bias corrected (BC) percentile intervals with 95% confidence were also reported (Bollen & Stine, 1990). The bootstrapped results of direct, indirect and total estimates without and with mediators were provided in Table 4.13.

According to bootstrapped results, the direct effects from exogenous variables to endogenous variable were statistically significant, except for witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression ( $\beta = -.08$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Specifically, the direct effects of patriarchy ( $\beta = .25$ ), gender socialization ( $\beta = .11$ ), witnessing mother to father psychological aggression ( $\beta = .16$ ) on psychological aggression were significant, but small in effect. That is, dating college students who internalized societal patriarchy, and socialized in gender stereotypical ways, engaged in more psychological aggression towards their dating partners. Speaking for societal variables, patriarchy contributed more than gender socialization in understanding psychological aggression. Speaking for perceived parental variables, dating students who witnessed mother to father psychological aggression were more likely to use psychological aggression toward their partners. Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression did not directly contributed to use of psychological aggression. This also demonstrated that perceptions were different for participants with witnessing interparental aggression.

Five out of eight direct effects of exogenous variables on mediator variables were statistically significant. Specifically, the direct effects of patriarchy ( $\beta = .34$ ), gender socialization ( $\beta = .15$ ), and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression ( $\beta = .22$ ) on acceptance of psychological aggression were significant. Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression ( $\beta = -.11$ ,  $p > .05$ ) did not have a direct effect on the acceptance of psychological aggression. The direct effect of patriarchy on psychological aggression was moderate, while the others were weak. The results indicated that students with more internalized patriarchy and gender stereotypical messages accepted more psychological aggression. Similarly, those who witnessed mother to father psychological aggression were more prone to acceptance of psychological aggression.

The direct effects of patriarchy ( $\beta = .66$ ) and gender socialization ( $\beta = .09$ ) on sexist beliefs were statistically significant and positive. The former effect was large, while the latter one small. Dating people with internalized patriarchal values and socialized gender held more sexist beliefs. That is, societal variables were closely related to

personal cognitive variables. As opposed to this, perceived parental and personal cognitive variables were not statistically linked.

The direct effects between mediator and endogenous variables were all statistically significant. Particularly, the direct effects of acceptance of psychological aggression ( $\beta = .47$ ) on psychological aggression were positive and moderate. Surprisingly, the direct effect of sexist beliefs ( $\beta = -.23$ ) on psychological aggression were negative and small. To be more precise, dating college students with accepting more psychological aggression and endorsing less sexist beliefs perpetrated more psychological aggression.

The indirect effects of exogenous variables on the endogenous variable via acceptance of psychological aggression were all significant, except for witnessing father to mother psychological aggression on use of psychological aggression via acceptance of psychological aggression. Specifically explaining, the indirect effect of patriarchy on psychological aggression through acceptance of psychological aggression was significant and positive, ( $\beta = .10$ ). That is, acceptance of psychological aggression mediated the relationship between patriarchy and psychological aggression. College students with more internalized patriarchal thoughts had a tendency towards acceptance of aggression and thus committed more psychological aggression. The mediation was partial. Similarly, the indirect effect of gender socialization on psychological aggression through the acceptance of aggression was significant and positive, ( $\beta = .05$ ). Mediation effect, which was partial, was found. Participants who received messages promoting traditional gender roles were more accepting of aggression which, in the end, increased the risk of perpetrating it. In brief, the acceptance of psychological aggression as one of the personal cognitive variables partially mediated the relationship between societal variables and psychological aggression.



Table 4.13

*Bootstrapped Results of Direct, Indirect and Total Effects*

Path	$\beta$	<i>p</i>	BC Interval
Direct Effects			
Patriarchy → Aggression	.246	.001	(.188, .305)
Patriarchy → Acceptance	.335	.001	(.257, .411)
Patriarchy → Beliefs	.667	.002	(.610, .717)
Gender → Aggression	.107	.001	(.061, .154)
Gender → Acceptance	.146	.001	(.085, .205)
Gender → Beliefs	.092	.004	(.029, .156)
Witnessing F to M → Aggression	-.083	.062	(-.184, .004)
Witnessing F to M → Acceptance	-.114	.061	(-.247, .006)
Witnessing F to M → Beliefs	-.065	.280	(-.196, .057)
Witnessing M to F → Aggression	.159	.001	(.075, .257)
Witnessing M to F → Acceptance	.217	.001	(.105, .342)
Witnessing M to F → Beliefs	.050	.416	(-.067, .179)
Acceptance → Aggression	.465	.001	(.376, .551)
Beliefs → Aggression	-.233	.001	(-.320, .139)
Indirect Effects			
Patriarchy → Acceptance → Aggression	.102	.000	(.077, .131)
Patriarchy → Beliefs → Aggression	.034	.392	(-.043, .110)
Gender → Acceptance → Aggression	.054	.001	(.030, .084)
Gender → Beliefs → Aggression	.005	.270	(-.005, .020)
Witnessing F to M → Acceptance → Aggression	-.043	.065	(-.094, .003)
Witnessing F to M → Beliefs → Aggression	-.003	.286	(-.024, .003)
Witnessing M to F → Acceptance → Aggression	.085	.001	(.042, .138)
Witnessing M to F → Beliefs → Aggression	.002	.329	(-.003, .023)
Total Effects			
Patriarchy → Aggression	.382	.001	(.178, .418)
Gender → Aggression	.166	.001	(.081, .222)
Witnessing F to M → Aggression	-.129	.074	(-.266, .013)
Witnessing M to F → Aggression	.246	.001	(.126, .393)

*Note.* Reported BC intervals are the bias corrected 95% confidence interval of estimates resulting from bootstrap analysis

For perceived parental variables, a similar pattern was observed. The indirect effect of witnessing mother to father psychological aggression on use of psychological aggression via acceptance of aggression was significant and positive, ( $\beta = .09$ ). Again, a partial mediation was suggested. Participants who witnessed psychological aggression from mother to father in the family while growing were more prone to accepting it, thus were more likely to inflict psychological aggression towards their dating partners. Contrary to this, no mediation was detected for the indirect effect of witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and psychological aggression through acceptance of violence ( $\beta = -.04$ ,  $p > .05$ ). The effect was negative and insignificant interestingly. That is, witnessing father to mother psychological aggression throughout childhood had neither direct nor indirect effect on use of psychological aggression. In sum, the acceptance of psychological aggression as one of the personal cognitive variables mediated the relationship between one of the perceived parental variables and psychological aggression. Once to say, witnessing interparental aggression had different effects on the use of aggression via acceptance.

The indirect effects of exogenous variables on the endogenous variable via sexist beliefs were all non-significant. Specifically, holding sexist beliefs did not mediate the relationship between patriarchy ( $\beta = .03$ ,  $p = .392$ ), gender socialization ( $\beta = .01$ ,  $p = .270$ ), and witnessing interparental psychological aggression ( $\beta = -.00$ ,  $p = .286$  for father to mother;  $\beta = .00$ ,  $p = .329$  for mother to father) on use of psychological aggression.

#### *4.2.2.2.4 Hypotheses testing*

In this part, the specific hypotheses stated earlier in introduction part were separately discussed. Considering the direct effects (paths), ten out of fourteen hypotheses were supported. Considering the indirect effects (mediation), three out of eight hypotheses were supported.

*Hypothesis 1* assumed that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) would significantly and directly be related to use of psychological aggression.

*Path A: There will be a significant relationship between patriarchy and use of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was supported. The relationship was significant and positive,  $\beta = .25$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% CI [.188, .305].

*Path B: There will be a significant relationship between gender socialization and use of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was confirmed. The relationship was significant and positive,  $\beta = .11$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% CI [.061, .154].

*Hypothesis 2* assumed that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) will significantly and directly be related to personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs).

*Path C: There will be a significant relationship between patriarchy and acceptance of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was accepted. The relationship was significant and positive,  $\beta = .34$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% CI [.257, .411].

*Path D: There will be a significant relationship between patriarchy and sexist beliefs.* The hypothesis was verified. The relationship was significant and positive,  $\beta = .67$ ,  $p = .002$ , 95% CI [.610, .717].

*Path E: There will be a significant relationship between gender socialization and acceptance of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was approved. The relationship was significant and positive,  $\beta = .15$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% CI [.085, .205].

*Path F: There will be a significant relationship between gender socialization and sexist beliefs.* The hypothesis was validated. The relationship was significant and positive,  $\beta = .09$ ,  $p = .004$ , 95% CI [.029, .156].

*Hypothesis 3* assumed that personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) will significantly and directly be related to use of psychological aggression.

*Path G: There will be a significant relationship between acceptance of psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was justified. The relationship was significant and positive,  $\beta = .47$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% CI [.376, .551].

*Path H: There will be a significant relationship between sexist beliefs and use of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was confirmed. The relationship was significant and negative,  $\beta = -.23$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% CI [-.320, -.139].

*Hypothesis 4* assumed that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) will significantly and directly be related to use of psychological aggression.

*Path I: There will be a significant relationship between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was rejected. The relationship was nonsignificant,  $\beta = -.08$ ,  $p = .062$ , 95% CI [-.184, .004].

*Path J: There will be a significant relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was supported. The relationship was significant and positive,  $\beta = .16$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% CI [.075, .257].

*Hypothesis 5* assumed that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) will significantly and directly be related to personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs).

*Path K: There will be a significant relationship between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and acceptance of psychological aggression.* The

hypothesis was refuted. The relationship was nonsignificant,  $\beta = -.11$ ,  $p = .061$ , 95% CI  $[-.247, .006]$ .

*Path L: There will be a significant relationship between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and sexist beliefs.* The hypothesis was disapproved. The relationship was nonsignificant,  $\beta = -.07$ ,  $p = .280$ , 95% CI  $[-.196, .057]$ .

*Path M: There will be a significant relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and acceptance of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was supported. The relationship was significant and positive,  $\beta = .22$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% [CI  $.105, .342$ ].

*Path N: There will be a significant relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and sexist beliefs.* The hypothesis was not supported. The relationship was non significant,  $\beta = .05$ ,  $p = .416$ , 95% [CI  $-.067, .176$ ].

*Hypothesis 6* assumed that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 6a: Patriarchy will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was verified. The mediation effect was significant and positive,  $\beta = .10$ ,  $p = .000$ , 95% [CI  $.077, .131$ ], but partial.

*Hypothesis 6b: Gender socialization will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was approved. The mediation effect was significant and positive,  $\beta = .05$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% [CI  $.030, .084$ ], but partial.

*Hypothesis 7* assumed that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) will significantly and indirectly be related to psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 7a: Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was rejected. The mediation effect was nonsignificant,  $\beta = -.04$ ,  $p = .065$ , 95% [CI -.094, .003].

*Hypothesis 7b: Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was validated. The mediation effect was significant and positive,  $\beta = .09$ ,  $p = .001$ , 95% [CI .042, .138], but partial.

*Hypothesis 8* assumed that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs.

*Hypothesis 8a: Patriarchy will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs.* The hypothesis was rejected. The mediation effect was nonsignificant,  $\beta = .03$ ,  $p = .392$ , 95% [CI -.043, .110].

*Hypothesis 8b: Gender socialization will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs.* The hypothesis was refuted. The mediation effect was nonsignificant,  $\beta = .01$ ,  $p = .270$ , 95% [CI -.005, .020].

*Hypothesis 9* assumed that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression)

will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs.

*Hypothesis 9a: Witnessing father to mother psychological aggression will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs.* The hypothesis was disapproved. The mediation effect was nonsignificant, negative and full,  $\beta = -.00$ ,  $p = .286$ , 95% [CI -.024, .003].

*Hypothesis 9b: Witnessing mother to father psychological aggression will significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression.* The hypothesis was not supported. The mediation effect was nonsignificant,  $\beta = .00$ ,  $p = .329$ , 95% [CI -.003, .023].

#### **4.3 Summary of the Results**

Descriptive analyses revealed that majority of dating college students surveyed inflicted or sustained psychological aggression toward their dating partners in the last six months. Though the prevalence was high, the means were relatively low. The most experienced type was hostile withdrawal followed by restrictive engulfment, dominance/intimidation and denigration. The gender difference emerged only in restrictive engulfment. Dating women committed more controlling behaviors. Conversely, dating college men compared to women reported more internalized patriarchy, acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs. Bivariate associations indicated that the study variables were mostly inter-correlated. Generally speaking, dating college students, who internalized more patriarchy, received more traditional gender messages and witnessed interparental psychological aggression while growing were more prone to endorse sexist beliefs and accept psychological aggression, thereby committed more psychologically aggressive acts toward their dating partners.

Multi sample confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the model did not differ with regard to gender; factor loadings, factor variance and factor covariance were

equivalent. The factor loadings in the measurement were well explained by their corresponding factors and the average variance extracted by the measures were quite high. The measurement and structural model fitted the data well. Acceptance of psychological aggression –as one of the personal cognitive variables- did partially mediate the relationship between societal and perceived parental variables and use of psychological aggression. Sexist beliefs, on the other hand, did not. The hypothesized model, overall, accounted 31% of the variance in psychological aggression.



## **CHAPTER V**

### **DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The present chapter involves four sections. In the first section, a brief overall discussion regarding prevalence and gender differences is provided. In the second section, the hypothesized model and specific hypothesis are discussed considering the relevant literature. Thirdly, implications for practice are highlighted. The last section focuses on recommendations for further studies to address the gaps identified.

#### **5.1 Discussion Regarding the Prevalence and Gender Differences**

Though not stated as one of the aims, the study tried to find an answer to the question of whether college students commit psychological aggression in their relationships. Unfortunately, they do. 96.3% of the college dating women indicated to have withheld emotional availability (hostile withdrawal) to punish the dating partner. 85.2% of the women reported to have used isolating, restricting, monitoring and controlling acts (restrictive engulfment). 56.4% and 54.8% of them admitted to have dominated (domination/intimidation) and degraded (denigration) their partners, respectively. The finding was roughly in line with Leisring (2013), as she reported 95%, 93%, 35%, and 59% of acts of hostile withdrawal, restrictive engulfment, denigration, and domination/intimidation, respectively. For women, the difference for denigration and dominance/intimidation might be subtle at first look or it might be due to cultural grounds. It could be speculated that in collectivistic Turkish culture, the acts of dominance/intimidation might be perceived as sign of love/affection, while more overt acts of denigration such as yelling, ridiculing, and name calling (in front of others) might be discouraging and thus be avoided. In

individualistic US culture, the acts of dominating/intimidating partner might be undesirable and thus be avoided due to the excessive emphasis on interdependence in relationships (Hortaçsu, 2015). For men, the prevalence rates were 91.1%, 80.3%, 52.3%, and 50% for hostile withdrawal, restrictive engulfment, domination/intimidation, and denigration, respectively. The same trend was observed for the order of percentage for dating college men. Unfortunately, no data for men is available to compare cross culturally. However, the results revealed consistent findings regarding the commonality of psychological aggression reaching the rates as high as 90% for males and females utilizing Turkish and non-Turkish samples with different measures (Harned, 2001; Hines & Saudino, 2003; Jenkins & Aube, 2002; Leisring, 2013, Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011). In sum, psychological dating aggression appears to be reciprocal (Ryan & Kanjorski, 1998).

Considering means, hostile withdrawal (12.61) was highest followed by restrictive engulfment (7.33), dominance/intimidation (2.98), and denigration (2.86) for females. The pattern was repeated in males; hostile withdrawal (11.78) was highest followed by restrictive engulfment (5.81), dominance/intimidation (3.02), and denigration (2.97). The present findings regarding means were found consistent with previous psychological aggression studies conducted with dating college students in Turkey (Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013) but inconsistent in Italia (Bonechi & Tani, 2011). Similar to Leisring's (2013) study in US, Bonechi and Tani (2011) presented that acts of denigration were inflicted more than acts of domination/intimidation. The lack of mean statistics in the original and later studies (Murphy & Hoover, 1999; Murphy et al., 1999) made it difficult to compare and draw conclusions. Yet, it appears that previous cultural explanation could be one explanation that fits.

In the current study, gender difference on the means of types of psychological aggression was investigated, as well. Overall, results demonstrated no gender differences except for restrictive engulfment. Dating women, to a small extent, engaged in more controlling behaviors to their partners than males. This result regarding gender difference was inconsistent with previous psychological aggression

research conducted with only METU students. In that study, none of the types differed between males and females, though the same instrument was utilized (Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013). However, the finding is neither surprising nor stunning. The literature, theoretically and empirically, is contradictory regarding the issue of gender on psychological aggression perpetration. Some empirical studies have found gender differences on the behalf dating college women (Gover et al., 2008; Munoz-Rivas et al., 2007; Perry & Fromuth, 2005) while some others did not (Dye & Davis, 2003; Forbes et al., 2004; Gormley & Lopez, 2010; Harned, 2001; Hines & Saudino, 2003; Jenkins & Aube, 2002; Shook et al., 2000). As Johnson (1995, 2005, 2006) have argued, research with community based samples including colleges (sampling), using brief structured instruments (measurement) points out “common couple violence” (situational couple violence), which is widespread but minor and less gendered. On this matter, the empirical findings of the present study may support the theoretical perspective of Johnson (1995). Yet obviously, it is too early to draw conclusions.

The theoretical and empirical inconsistencies have triggered the author’s interest in examining the gender differences on the proposed model of the use psychological dating aggression for further evidence to defend. The proposed model of psychological aggression was based on Feminist and Social Learning Theory and was initially analyzed via multisampling structural equation modeling, which intended to test of structure according to gender. The results of the multisampling analyses suggested that the model did not vary across gender. Consequently, the model solely tested for the entire sample. The literature has conflicting evidences regarding gender differences in psychological aggression models depending on scoring methods, dyadic data, and statistical analysis. To name a few, Karakurt et al. (2013) in the test of the model of family of origin, egalitarian attitudes and attachment using couple data found a large (49%) and small (16%) amount of variances in females and males, respectively. The pathways differed across gender, as well. Likewise, utilizing same sample and design with different variables, similar findings were reported (Karakurt & Cumbie; 2012). Using couple averaged scores rather than individuals, Jenkins and Aube (2002) encountered no gender difference in

gender related constructs in psychological aggression perpetration. In separate analyses of males and females Gover et al. (2008) -using logistic regression- and Gormley and Lopez (2010), Hammock and O’Hearn (2002) and Sharpe and Taylor (1999) –using multiple regression- demonstrated differences in the significance and magnitude of variables interested. The use of structural equation models with individual samples, revealed no gender-related differences (Cui et al., 2010; Dye & Davis, 2003). It is not unusual to find gender differences in separate analyses of samples in regression and structural models since it increases type I error. Bearing the previous empirical findings, Johnson’s (1995) typology and advanced multisampling structural modeling in mind, gender difference does not appear to be unlikely.

## **5.2 Discussion Regarding the Hypothesized Model and Specific Hypothesis**

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the predictors of psychological aggression perpetration within a hypothesized model based on feminist and social learning theory. In particular, the study examined the role of societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive variables and how they interact to affect use of psychological aggression among Turkish dating college students. Correspondingly, a mediational model was tested in which patriarchy, gender socialization, and witnessing interparental psychological aggression were proposed to become useful tools to predict the engagement in psychologically aggressive acts mediated with acceptance of psychological aggression, and sexist beliefs. Structural equation modeling was utilized to test the proposed model depicted in the Figure 1.1 (p. 14) and the results were previously presented in chapter four.

Multiple factors have been identified as the underlying causes of psychological aggression perpetration among dating college students including patriarchy, gender socialization, witnessing interparental psychological aggression, acceptance of psychological aggression, and sexist beliefs. However, no study has been found to assess the multiple associations among those variables based on a conceptual model in national and international literature. The lack of literature regarding psychological

aggression in Turkey and absence of such research that coupled feminist arguments with social learning theory in international literature made it difficult to compare the findings with the previous ones. Moreover, sampling (high school students, college students, and dating non college people or men only-female only), scoring (individual vs. couple averaged), statistical (multi sampling, single sampling, and actor-partner interdependence models), victimization and perpetration, and separate and together analysis of aggression forms (physical, sexual, psychological, stalking) are the issues that hinder comparing and contrasting. Henceforth, the findings were compared with limited parts of the preceding studies conducted in international literature, predominantly in Europe and the United States.

The results of the single-group structural equation modeling displayed that the proposed relationships were well supported by the data. The analyses recommended no modifications such as including additional relationships but a few modifications such as removing witnessing father to mother interparental psychological aggression. Yet, the author decided to keep the variables. Any finding would merely be valuable and advisory due to being first. Consistent with the decision, the model was statistically sound and almost perfectly described the data. The proposed model accounted 18%, 49%, and 31% of the variance in acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs, and psychological aggression perpetration, respectively.

The findings gathered from the current study theoretically supported the significance of societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive factors in use of psychological dating aggression. Derived from Feminist Theory, societal factors -internalization of patriarchy and socialization of gender messages- directly and indirectly via personal cognitive factor –acceptance of psychological aggression- contributed to use of psychological aggression among college students. The society they live in affected college students’ cognitions and behaviors regarding aggression in dating relationships (Dobash & Dobash, 1979); that is, societal variables seem to set the stage for aggression. Derived from Social Learning Theory, perceived parental factor –mother to father psychological aggression- directly and indirectly via personal cognitive factor –acceptance of psychological aggression- contributed to use of

psychological aggression among college students. Observation of parents' aggressive behaviors directly or indirectly through cognitive mediational processes influenced college students' aggressive behaviors against their dating partners (Bandura, 1971). A picture of key theories of dating violence was initially shaped in Turkish culture in the present study. However, a cursory glance brought out some provocative findings. No links between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression, acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs and psychological aggression were established. That is, witnessing father to mother psychological aggression was not directly or indirectly related to psychological dating aggression, witnessing mother to father psychological aggression was, though. Very broadly, witnessing aggression from parents was perceived differently for participants. Another not provocative but accordingly interesting finding to note is the uncorrelation of sexist beliefs to witnessing interparental aggression. Very broadly, perceived parental factors appeared to have less explanatory power than societal factors and acceptance of psychological aggression had a mediating role as a personal cognitive factor.

The present study was depended on the premise that psychological aggression, as a measure, is multidimensional (Bonechi & Tani, 2011; Murphy & Hoover, 1999; Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013) and, as a model, is multifaceted. To briefly conclude, the findings supported the premise. College students' engagement in psychologically aggressive behaviors was highly affected by societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive factors.

In a nutshell, the preliminary findings announced weak to strong relationships between the exogenous, mediator and endogenous variables. Specifically, the associations between patriarchy and sexist beliefs, and acceptance of psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression were the most strongest. In the prediction of psychological aggression, acceptance of psychological aggression was the most salient factor. The associations between gender socialization and sexist beliefs, and gender socialization and use of psychological aggression were the weakest. In the prediction of psychological aggression, gender socialization was the most ambiguous factor.

In the remaining part, the specific hypotheses stated earlier in the introduction were separately discussed. Considering the direct effects (paths), 10 out of 14 hypotheses were supported. Considering the indirect effects (mediation), three out of eight hypotheses were supported.

*Hypothesis 1* assumed that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) would significantly and directly be related to use of psychological aggression. Under the first hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis were formulated.

Path A predicted a significant direct relationship would exist between patriarchy and use of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was supported and the direction was positive. That is, college students with higher internalized patriarchy tended to perpetrate more psychological aggression against their dating partners. Though defined and measured patriarchy differently, this finding was mainly supportive of previous ones in literature, regardless of gender (Dye & Davis, 2003; Follingstad et al., 2002; Hammock & O'Hearn, 2002; Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Hatipoğlu-Sümer & Toplu, 2011). That is, patriarchy is not associated with male-only psychological aggression. When gender differences emerged, the findings contradicted (Jenkins & Aube, 2002). Defining patriarchy as traditionality, Jenkins and Aube (2002) found that for males being more traditional and for females being more egalitarian increased the risk of perpetration of psychological aggression. In other words, being patriarchal was associated with only men's aggression. Yet, the researchers further found that, for both genders, being hostile and in the need of controlling were best predictors of engagement in psychologically aggressive acts (Jenkins & Aube, 2002). To put it differently, egalitarian dating women are expected to commit psychological aggression while traditional ones are not. The women participants of the current study were averagely patriarchal and thus they can be considered either traditional or egalitarian. In either ways, they committed psychological aggression. The men participants were, to a large extent, patriarchal compared to women. Though seems complicated, combining the present finding with previous literature, the right question to ask might be what motives those traditional/patriarchal women to be

hostile and controlling in their dating relationships; is it self defense (Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2012) or resentment (Jenkins & Aube, 2002; Hammock & O'Hearn, 2002) as feminist have argued? The literature is clear about men's best motive; it is power and control (Franchina et al., 2001; Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2012). Considering resentment, Jenkins and Aube (2002) and Hammock and O'Hearn (2002) alleged that women when continuously concede to "the good girl" image, the demands of partner and relationship may be more prone to feel resentment in the long term, and thus use psychological aggression against partners. Overall, though it is beyond the scope of the present study and sounds speculative, the findings might allude to the possibility that college dating women and men both aggress to their partners, but for different reasons.

Path B proposed a significant direct relationship between gender socialization and psychological aggression. The hypothesis was confirmed and the direction was positive. That is, college students who were bombarded with strict gender-related messages while growing up from parents were more prone to use psychological aggression toward their dating partners. Sad to say, the association between gender socialization and psychological aggression has been a neglected area. Despite to this possible hypothetical association, there is no empirical finding investigated to compare and contrast. The finding told the readers the lack of gender difference, which might be confusing, but it is not. In dating relationships, in our culture, college men and women evaluate relationships differently; women constantly worry about their relationships, while men do when they have conflict in the relationship (Hortaçsu, 2015); that is, women are more relationship-oriented. The messages (i.e., "Women are naturally just more nurturing than men" and "Women are happiest when they are in a relationship") they receive while growing up also support this as measured by socialization of gender norms scale (Epstein, 2008) in the present study. Consistent with being relationship-oriented, when conflict arises in the relationships, women try to handle it, while men avoid (Hammock & O'Hearn, 2002) and the mismatch distress women more than men (Rusbult, Johson, & Morrow, 1986). This distress and disappointment in the end might result in psychological aggression perpetration. Men, on the other hand, receive messages such as "no man wants a



woman to boss him around” and “a real man gets what he wants” while growing up (Epstein, 2008), which automatically facilitates their use of aggression, psychological or not. For women, on the other hand, only way to aggress seems psychological rather than sexual and physical. It should be noted that as a conceptually well developed yet empirically poorly supported concept, more evidence is needed for the aforesaid theoretical link between gender socialization and psychological aggression. It is difficult to discuss evidently with such insufficient evidences. In sum, the society related variables assessed in the current study favorably predicted psychological aggression in college students’ dating relationships.

*Hypothesis 2* assumed that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) would significantly and directly be related to personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs). Under the first hypothesis, four sub-hypothesis were formulated. Since findings regarding specific hypotheses were too limited, a general discussion was held, after the sub-hypotheses were briefly and individually summarized.

Path C forecasted a significant direct relationship would exist between patriarchy and acceptance of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was accepted and the direction was positive. In other words, college students with higher internalized patriarchy were more inclined to accept psychological aggression against their dating partners.

Path D hypothesized a significant direct relationship between patriarchy and sexist beliefs. The hypothesis was verified. The relationship was significant and positive. In other saying, dating college students with more internalized societal patriarchy were more likely to have sexist beliefs.

Path E predicted a significant direct relationship would exist between gender socialization and acceptance psychological aggression. The hypothesis was approved. The relationship was significant and positive. To put it different way,

dating college students who were exposed to traditional gender role messages from parents while growing up had a tendency to accept psychological aggression against their partners.

Path F proposed a direct significant relationship between gender socialization and sexist beliefs. The hypothesis was validated. The relationship was significant and positive. Namely, dating college students who received specific messages promoting gender inequality from their families during childhood were more vulnerable to exhibit sexist beliefs.

Regarding four sub-hypotheses, the finding mainly displays similarities with the previous ones in the literature (Capezza & Arriaga, 2008). Capezza and Arriaga (2008) stated that compared to less patriarchal college students, more patriarchal ones perceived psychological aggression as more “acceptable”, “positive”, and less “blameworthy” and “abusive”. Remembering that Turkish culture is largely patriarchic and accordingly the families are (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982), it is not plausible to infer that societal patriarchy is translated into individual beliefs, attitudes and acceptance of aggression. As an answer to how this translation occurs, Capezza and Arriaga (2008) introduced “attributions”; patriarchal people attribute aggression to victims, not to the perpetrators.

Considering the societal patriarchy and sexist beliefs link, the finding was supported by earlier studies (Forbes et al., 2004; Franchina et al., 2001; Karakurt et al. 2013; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). Moderate to strong positive associations between dominance and egalitarian attitudes and moderate to strong negative associations between egalitarian attitudes and sexism was demonstrated by Karakurt et al. (2013) as the current study did. The robust negative relation between egalitarianism and specifically sexism was made apparent among Japanese and American (Yamawaki, Ostenson, & Brown, 2009) and Turkish college students (Sakalli, 2001). Though studied with only males, Franchina et al. (2001) acknowledged that college students when perceived that their masculinity (the power that think they spontaneously have)

was threatened by their female dating partners, cognitive and affective negative attributes –such as sexism- against partners augmented.

No earlier study has attempted to investigate the connections between gender socialization and acceptance of psychological aggression, and gender socialization sexist beliefs, so there are no findings to compare with our results. Taking the four sub-hypotheses together under the second hypothesis, it is possible to state that the findings supported the proposed direct role of societal factors on personal cognitive factors. Societal patriarchy and families delivering patriarchal messages through gender socialization foster aggression-supportive attitudes and beliefs such as acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist belief; that is, personal cognitive factors might be micro-social expressions of broader patriarchy and family (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1993).

Hypothesis 3 assumed that personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) will significantly and directly be related to use of psychological aggression. Under the third hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis were formulated.

Path G forecasted a significant direct relationship between acceptance of psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was justified. The relationship was significant and positive. Dating college students who were more accepting of psychological aggression engaged in more psychological aggression toward their partners. The finding obtained in the present study paralleled with the previous ones that acceptance of psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression is closely linked regardless of gender (i.e., Aloia & Solomon, 2013; Capezza & Arriaga, 2008; Fincham et al., 2008; Forbes et al., 2006; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). As the only exceptions, Forbes et al. (2004) reported large gender differences -the association was significant only for males, and White and Humprey (1994) found no association for females. Supporting the theory of planned behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), the relations between beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviors are possibly proved. One possible explanation for the

aforementioned gender difference and/or insignificance might be the “intentions” mediating the link between attitudes (acceptance of psychological aggression) and behavior (use of psychological aggression). As Forbes et al. (2004) also suggested as reason, college females could use psychological aggression as self defensive in those studies. In that sense, according to the theory of Fishbein and Azjen (1975), college students who used psychological aggression as a self defense may neither have positive attitudes nor intend to aggress. The correlational/cross-sectional design of the current study does not allow us to make inferences that which one comes first (acceptance or aggression) or which causes which but some scholars, with the help of longitudinal designs, asserted that attitudes (acceptance) might follow the behaviors (psychological aggression) (Nabors & Jasinski, 2009; Orpinas et al., 2013). Consequently, it is possible that acceptance of psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression reinforce each other, which has crucial influence on the prevention and intervention efforts of psychological aggression at college campuses.

Path H foresaw a significant direct relationship between sexist beliefs and use of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was agreed. The relationship was significant but surprisingly negative. Dating college students who held more sexist beliefs perpetrated less psychological aggression against their partners. The literature revealed contradictory evidence on the proposed link. Most of the studies found positive associations (Forbes et al., 2004; Forbes et al., 2006; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001; Rojas-Solis & Raimundez, 2011) while the remaining a few studies found insignificant associations (Karakurt et al., 2013). Furthermore, there was somewhat inconsistent evidence regarding whether gender had an impact on the link. For example, Karakurt and Cumbie’s (2012) study presented the positive connection between sexism and psychological aggression only for females. The connection was evident only for males in Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe’s (2012) study. Distinctively, more sexist men and less sexist women perpetrated more psychological aggression in Jenkins and Aube’s (2002) research. The “motives” (self defense vs. power/control) were referred for interpretation. Keeping this in mind, it was suggested that some variables at the societal (and/or familial) variables might function as a “suppressor variable” by masking or reducing a “true” association between a criterion and

predictor variable, between sexism and use of psychological aggression in this case. The researcher did not investigate which variable acted as a suppressor, but it warrants further investigation. One possible explanation is that such hostilely sexist college students might decrease involvement in psychologically aggressive acts since they have alternative ways to behave aggressively such as physical and sexual; that is, psychological aggression may act as a precursor of sexual and physical assault (i.e., Murphy & O'Leary, 1989; O'Leary, 1999). Alternatively, hostilely sexist students may not perceive psychological aggression as abusive; thus, underreported it. Consistent with the explanation, Yamawaki et al. (2009) represented that hostile sexism and perceived seriousness of aggression were considerably and reasonably correlated for Japanese and American college students, respectively. The associations were negative. Maybe, hostile sexism functions differently in Turkish culture for any unclarified points here. Any further discussion would be speculative rather than interpretative. Additional research is called to grasp the meaning of sexist beliefs and psychological aggression amongst dating college students.

*Hypothesis 4* assumed that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) would significantly and directly be related to psychological aggression. Under the fourth hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis were formulated.

Path I predicted a significant direct relationship would exist between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was rejected. The relationship was non-significant; in a word, college students' witnessing their fathers' use of psychological aggression to their mothers' was unrelated. The finding was consistent with some of the findings (Alexander et al., 1991; Edwards et al., 2014; Shook et al, 2000; White & Humphrey, 1994) and inconsistent with most of the other findings (Black et al., 2010; Cui et al., 2010; Edwards et al., 2009; Karakurt et al., 2013; Kennedy et al., 2002; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). For example, Cui et al. (2010) demonstrated a moderate association among interparental verbal aggression and partner verbal aggression regardless of gender. Though weak, Edwards et al. (2009) also reported that paternal verbal abuse

was related to verbal perpetration among college women. In Kennedy et al.'s (2002) study, for both males and females, witnessing interparental psychological aggression was independent of daily relationship conflict, but a more intriguing pattern, in which gender differed, was observed. For males witnessing father, for females witnessing mother psychological aggression contributed greater daily anger. Congruently, witnessing male and female parental conflict had a direct effect on male and female relationship aggression, respectively, in Karakurt et al.'s (2013) study. Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2001) stated the direct effect as well, but only for males. Black et al. (2010), taking a step further, identified that current witnessing of interparental psychological aggression had an effect upon use of psychological aggression among emerging adults.

Path J proposed a significant direct relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was supported and the direction was positive. That is, college students who witnessed their mothers' use of more psychological aggression toward their fathers' were more liable to perpetrate acts of psychological aggression toward partners in their current dating relationships. Still, the literature is confusing and contradictory. There are some studies finding significant and positive association between witnessing interparental aggression and psychological aggression (Black et al., 2010; Edwards et al., 2009; Karakurt et al., 2013; Kennedy et al., 2002; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001; White & Humphrey, 1994). For example, witnessing parental aggression was a predictor for female college students' psychological aggression (White & Humphrey, 1994). Specifically speaking, Edwards et al. (2009) pointed that witnessing maternal verbal use contributed to the females' use of verbal aggression. Likewise, witnessing male and female parental conflict had a direct effect on male and female relationship aggression, respectively, in Karakurt et al.'s (2013) study. Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2001) declared the direct effect as well, but only for males. Additionally, Black et al.'s (2010) finding –the relationship between not retrospective but current witnessing of interparental psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression- was also significant regardless of gender. Some other studies found no significant relationship (Edwards et al., 2014; Shook et al, 2000).

As fairly clear, the literature indicated mixed results for the relationship between witnessing interparental aggression and psychological aggression perpetration. Those variations were mostly related to the issues such as gender (male only vs. female only or both), sampling (adolescents, college students, adult daters), instrumentation, statistical procedures (manifest vs. latent variables), in-separation of variables (witnessing vs. experiencing or witnessing interparental vs. witnessing father to mother and mother to father) and the inconsistency between antecedent and outcome variable (physical witnessing but psychological aggression). Due to such variations, findings seem far from being conclusive. Even so, finding that witnessing mother to father and father to mother psychological aggression operates differently is worthy of discussion. Given the mutuality -high correlation between witnessing mother to father and father to mother psychological aggression in the current study- it is intriguing that only witnessing mother to father psychological aggression emerged as significant predictor for both gender. This difference might stem from a couple of reasons. The first one might be the widespread perception that psychological aggression is identified with women perpetrators and physical aggression is with men perpetrators (Williams et al., 2012). The second might be related to the theoretical arguments; social learning theorists assert that women are more tended to model mothers' behaviors, while men are fathers' ones (Mischel, 1966). Consistent with these explanations, Eriksson and Mazerolle (2015) found that for males – father only and bidirectional observation (not mother only) predicted males' physical aggression, but all associations were non-significant for females. Males, in the current study, seemed to ruin the modeling argument; but the intense relationship between boys and their mothers in our culture (Hortaçsu, 2015) may operate similarly as the one between girls and their mothers. Taken together, dating college students could be more likely to imitate psychological aggression from their mothers to fathers, and thus committed more psychological aggression. The next hypothesis of the study (Hypothesis 5, path K and N) would also be helpful to interpret this result. Participants who witnessed more mother-to-father psychological aggression were more acceptive of psychological aggression. The path was non-significant for father to mother psychological aggression; that is witnessing father-to-mother

psychological aggression was related neither to acceptance of psychological aggression nor use of psychological aggression in the current study. The intensive relationship as a caregiver between mother and child compared to the one between father and child (Hortaçsu, 2015) might be third reason. Witnessing mothers' psychological aggression toward fathers, yet abusive, may be tolerable. According to the finding, first attempts to understand whether transmission of psychological aggression is role specific (males-father to mother and females-mother to father psychological aggression) remained unclear; yet, it obviously appears that witnessing mother to father and father to mother psychological aggression function differently for both gender. This highlights the significance of further investigation of witnessing interparental psychological aggression.

*Hypothesis 5* assumed that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) would significantly and directly be related to personal cognitive variables (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs). Under the first hypothesis, four sub-hypothesis were formulated. Due to the quite limited literature, a general discussion was held, after the sub-hypotheses were briefly and individually summarized.

Path K forecasted a significant direct relationship would exist between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and acceptance of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was refuted, the relationship was non-significant. In other words, witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and acceptance of psychological aggression were unrelated.

Path L hypothesized a significant direct relationship between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and sexist beliefs. The hypothesis was disapproved, the relationship was non-significant. In other saying, dating college students' witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and sexist beliefs were unconnected.



Path M predicted a significant direct relationship would exist between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and acceptance of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was supported. The relationship was significant and positive. To put it different way, dating college students who were exposed to mother to father psychological aggression while growing up had a tendency to accept psychological aggression against their partners in their current relationships.

Path N proposed a direct significant relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and sexist beliefs. The hypothesis was unsupported, the relationship was non-significant. Namely, dating college students' recalling of mother to father psychological aggression and sexist beliefs were not related.

Regarding four sub-hypotheses, there is more literature on acceptance of psychological aggression and witnessing interparental psychological aggression. Frankly speaking, literature on the association between sexist beliefs and witnessing interparental psychological aggression is nearly absent. Previous studies broadly reported either a significant positive relationship (Clarey et al., 2010; Eriksson & Mazerolle, 2015; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe (2012) or no relationship between acceptance of psychological aggression and witnessing interparental psychological aggression (Carr & Vandeußen, 2002; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe (2012). The findings of the present study were literally in line with that of Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2012). Witnessing mother to father aggression was positively related to acceptance while witnessing father to mother was not. As previously discussed (Hypothesis 4, Path J), several arguments might be raised for the difference such as perceptions and modeling. The findings suggest that witnessing mother to father psychological aggression rather than witnessing father to mother may put college students at greater risk of acceptance of psychological aggression they witnessed.

Considering the association between witnessing interparental psychological aggression and sexist beliefs, a similar aforementioned pattern was identified, but the nonsignificant associations (Carr & Vandeußen, 2002; Karakurt et al., 2013) outweighed the significant positive ones (Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2012). The findings

in the current study supported the former. Only Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2012) found a significant correlation between witnessing wife to husband aggression and sexist beliefs and witnessing husband to wife and sexist beliefs. More interestingly, the strongest path in the model was the one between negative beliefs regarding gender, and violence and negative peer associations (Reitzel Jaffe & Wolfe, 2012). The negative beliefs mediated the relationship between family of origin aggression and relationship aggression, and the negative peer associations did further mediate the relationship between negative beliefs and relationship aggression (Reitzel Jaffe & Wolfe, 2012). Given (1) the mostly non-significant associations between witnessing interparental aggression and sexist beliefs, and (2) the peer influence on the attitudes (DeKeseredy, 1990; Reitzel Jaffe & Wolfe, 2012; Ryan & Kanjorski, 1998), it might not be bizarre to infer that sexist beliefs might be affected from peers rather than families. More precisely, it is possible that there is not a direct effect between witnessing interparental aggression and sexist beliefs; possible mediating effect needs to be tested such as peer effect or other personal cognitive (justifications of the psychological aggression), situational (threat susceptibility) and skill related (anger management, communication, emotion regulation skills) variables.

*Hypothesis 6* assumed that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) would significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression. Under the sixth hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis were formulated.

Hypothesis 6a forecasted a significant indirect relationship would exist between patriarchy and use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was verified. The mediation effect was significant, positive, but partial. That is, college students with higher internalized societal patriarchy were more inclined to accept psychological aggression, and thus engaged in more psychologically aggressive behaviors toward their dating partners.

Hypothesis 6b hypothesized a significant indirect relationship between gender socialization and use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of

psychological aggression. The hypothesis was approved. The mediation effect was significant, positive, but partial. In other words, dating college students who received more gender specific messages while growing up were more likely to accept psychological aggression, which in turn contributed to use of more psychological aggression toward their partners.

The literature has been scarce regarding the associations between patriarchy, acceptance of psychological aggression, and use of psychological aggression, presumably in part due to the belief that patriarchy and psychological aggression is irrelevant. This is true for gender socialization, acceptance of psychological aggression, and psychological aggression perpetration literature, as well. Conversely, the findings in the present study made it evident that patriarchy and gender socialization had both direct and indirect effects on use of psychological aggression. Findings suggest that acceptance of psychological aggression places college students, who internalized societal patriarchy and received gender stereotypical messages in their families while growing up, at relatively higher risk for psychological aggression in their current dating relationships. Though patriarchy in the society and gender stereotypical messages received cannot be altered in the short term with individual efforts, cognitions could be. The findings, very concisely, illustrate the significance of investigating the co-influence of societal and personal cognitive (more particularly acceptance of psychological aggression) variables on the prediction, and eventually, the prevention and intervention for psychological aggression among dating college students.

*Hypothesis 7* assumed that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) would significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression. Under the seventh hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis were formulated.

Hypothesis 7a predicted a significant indirect relationship would exist between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and use of psychological

aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was rejected. The mediation effect was non-significant. That is, the association between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression was not mediated by acceptance of psychological aggression amongst dating college students.

Hypothesis 7b proposed a significant indirect relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression through the acceptance of psychological aggression. The hypothesis was validated. The mediation effect was significant and positive, but partial. That is, college students who were exposed to mother to father psychological aggression while growing up were more prone to accept psychological aggression against dating partners, which in turn, led to use of more psychological aggression toward their dating partners.

The hypotheses regarding the mediational role of acceptance of psychological aggression were partially supported. But yet, at large, the mediation effect for witnessing interparental aggression and psychological aggression was in line with the previous findings (Aloia & Solomon, 2013; Alexander et al., 1991; Clarey et al., 2010; O'Hearn & Margolin, 2000; O'Keefe, 1998; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001). Alexander et al. (1991), for example, -though not separated as mother and father- demonstrated that students witnessing aggression in the family and holding accepting attitudes perpetrated more verbal aggression. Further, Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2001), just like in the current study, reported both direct and indirect effect between family of origin violence and relationship abuse, and through negative beliefs regarding gender and acceptability of aggression, respectively. One unique finding of the present study was the parental differences in mediation. The mediating effect was affirmed only for mother-to-father psychological aggression, not for father-to-mother. The findings suggested that witnessing mother to father psychological aggression rather than witnessing father to mother may put college students at risk of acceptance of psychological aggression they witnessed, which in turn, may further increase the risk of use of psychological aggression. Theoretical and cultural

explanations, -the author does not find it necessary to repeat- were offered for the difference. The most common issue raised by the researchers who found such a mediating role was the necessity of prevention/intervention programs with a focus on challenging acceptability of (psychological) aggression among college students as the author did in the previous discussion.

*Hypothesis 8* assumed that societal variables (patriarchy and gender socialization) would significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs. Under the eighth hypothesis, two sub-hypothesis were formulated.

Hypothesis 8a forecasted a significant indirect relationship would exist between patriarchy and use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs. The hypothesis was rejected. The mediation effect was non-significant. In other words, sexist beliefs did not mediate the relationship between patriarchy and use of psychological aggression among dating college students.

Hypothesis 8b hypothesized a significant indirect relationship between gender socialization and use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs. The hypothesis was refuted. The mediation effect was non-significant. In other saying, sexist beliefs did not mediate the relationship between gender socialization and use of psychological aggression among dating college students.

As aforementioned previously as one of the gaps, the literature has been dearth of studies investigating the associations between patriarchy and gender socialization and use of psychological aggression via sexist beliefs, which makes comparisons impossible. Though literature regarding the associations between patriarchy and sexist beliefs (Forbes et al., 2004; Franchina et al., 2001; Karakurt et al. 2013; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001; Yamawaki et al., 2009), and sexist beliefs and psychological aggression (Forbes et al., 2004; Forbes et al., 2006; Reitzel-Jaffe & Wolfe, 2001; Rojas-Solis & Raimundez, 2011) have been built, in the present study, the mediating role of sexist beliefs was not supported. That is, sexist beliefs did not

increase or decrease the likelihood of perpetrating psychological aggression among dating college students who internalized societal patriarchy and received traditional gender role messages. One possible explanation might be measurement. Based upon the burgeoning literature, the researcher utilized Hostile Sexism subscale of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996) to gauge the endorsement of sexist beliefs as a personal cognitive variable. Forbes et al. (2004) evidently argued that Hostile Sexism involves not only “cognitive schemas” but also “affective components” thus, interpretation of the scale is often “confounding” (p.252). They further argued that in the sexism and aggression association, it is the affective component, which is closely related to psychological aggression. Moreover, specific manifestations of cognitive schemas such as acceptance of aggression were suggested (Forbes et al., 2004). Second possible explanation might be lack of such an indirect relationship; that is, broader societal and cultural contexts might be directly tied to use of psychological aggression as in the current study or sexist beliefs, themselves, may not be sufficiently enough to commit psychological dating aggression. More intense cognitive tendencies such as acceptance of psychological aggression and intentions to psychologically aggress may be required. If the reason is not Forbes et al.’s (2004) cognition-affection distinction, the lack of indirect-association seems to make the role of sociocultural perspectives (patriarchy and gender socialization in this case) appear to be considerably larger (Burt, 1980; Forbes et al., 2004).

*Hypothesis 9* assumed that perceived parental variables (witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression) would significantly and indirectly be related to use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs. Under the ninth hypothesis, two subhypothesis were formulated.

Hypothesis 9a predicted a significant indirect relationship would exist between witnessing father to mother psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs. The hypothesis was disapproved. The mediation effect was non-significant. That is, the association between witnessing father to

mother psychological aggression and psychological aggression perpetration was not mediated by sexist beliefs amongst dating college students.

Hypothesis 9b proposed a significant indirect relationship between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and use of psychological aggression through sexist beliefs. The hypothesis was unsupported. The mediation effect was non-significant. That is, the association between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and psychological aggression perpetration was not mediated by sexist beliefs amongst dating college students.

In the light of mediational role of sexist beliefs in the relations between witnessing interparental psychological aggression and the use of psychological aggression, the literature has more to say beyond direct relationships, and, the findings seems somewhat consistent on the matter (Karakurt et al., 2013; Eriksson & Mazerolle, 2015). For example, Karakurt et al. (2013) found no mediational association for egalitarian attitudes across gender. Likewise, in Eriksson and Mazerolle's (2015) study, mediator of attitudes toward wife beating was insignificant, as well. The present finding supported the existing ones. To put it differently, sexist beliefs did not increase or decrease the likelihood of perpetrating psychological aggression among dating college students who witnessed interparental psychological aggression. The study found such a (partial) mediation for the relation between witnessing mother to father psychological aggression and psychological aggression via acceptance of psychological aggression (Hypothesis 7b). This brought the cognitive-affective component discussion (Hypothesis 8a) into mind. Both Karakurt et al. (2013) and Eriksson and Mazerolle (2015) utilized a battery of scales including sexism and attitudes to measure sexist beliefs. Keeping Forbes et al.'s (2004) argument about hostile sexism in mind, it is well-accepted that attitudes have cognitive (beliefs), affective (feelings) and behavioral (past experience) components (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). More explicitly, specific expressions for cognitive schemas such as acceptance of aggression were offered (Forbes et al., 2004). For witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, a direct association is evident in the present study; thus, the role of witnessing appears to be relatively noticeable.

The associations between sexist beliefs, peer effect, and psychological aggression have fairly been documented by Reitzel-Jaffe and Wolfe (2001). It is likely that there are some other dynamics to shape sexist beliefs, one of which might be peer effect. Taken hypotheses eight and nine together, the answer to how the relationship mechanism occurs between societal and perceived parental variables have become clearer; through acceptance of aggression, not sexist beliefs.

### **5.3 Implications for Theory, Research, and Practice**

The present study investigated the associations between societal and perceived parental variables and psychological aggression perpetration via mediating personal cognitive factors among a large sample of undergraduate and graduate dating students enrolled at major state and private universities in Ankara. Therefore, the study has the capacity to produce useful information in order to understand use of psychological aggression of dating college students in Turkey, and the results of the study have the potential to offer insights for future efforts either to prevent or intervene psychological dating aggression perpetration. In the section that follows, the implications were identified.

#### **5.3.1 Implications for theory**

Theoretically, this study once more confirmed that psychological aggression is multidimensional -rather than unidimensional- including related but different aspects as suggested by Murphy and Hoover (1999). Therefore, exploring psychological aggression through Murphy and Hoover's (1999) Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse can not only enhance the understanding of psychological dating aggression among college students in Turkey but also allow cross-cultural research since it has English and Italian (Bonechi & Tani, 2011) versions, as well. Cross culture comparisons are informative regarding what is culture specific and culture general (universal). Furthermore, the present study supported and enhanced the premise that psychological dating aggression is a complex, rather than a simple phenomenon. The model derived from Feminist and Social Learning Theory



provided evidence that both societal, perceived parental and personal cognitive variables are important in gaining insight into psychological aggression among dating college students. Societal variables displayed more explanatory power than perceived parental and personal cognitive factors. In that sense, the findings of the current study can considerably contribute to the efforts in developing a psychological dating aggression theory on the national and international basis.

### **5.3.2 Implications for research**

Along with theoretical contributions, the results of the current study presented significant empirical findings concerning the predictive role of variables on psychological aggression perpetration. Firstly, patriarchy, as the key variable of societal variables, was the second strongest predictor of psychological aggression with a direct and indirect effect via acceptance of psychological aggression. Though not strongest as patriarchy, gender socialization had a direct and indirect effect, as well. That is, the society/culture in which a person lives, and the messages a person receives, not surprisingly, seem to set the stage for psychological aggression. The evidence on the behalf of the premise that intimate partner violence is rooted in society challenges Dutton and Nicholl's (2005) narrower premise that intimate partner violence is rooted in psychopathology. The theoretical and empirical implications, in the long term, reflect themselves in practical ones, which were discussed in the next section.

The perceived parental variables, did not contribute to the predictive power of psychological aggression as much as hypothesized, yet, an intriguing finding emerged. Only witnessing mother to father psychological aggression directly increased the likelihood of engaging in psychological aggression. The indirect effect via acceptance of psychological aggression was evident, as well. This provided partial support for social learning perspective of psychological aggression perpetration (Follette & Alexander, 1992). Yet, the finding might be worthwhile for national psychological aggression literature while developing prevention and

intervention programs. The researchers are suggested to keep parent specific patterns in mind and plan the content accordingly.

As the strongest predictor of the personal cognitive variables and the model, and as the consistent mediator in the relation between societal and perceived parental variables, the contribution of acceptance of psychological aggression is substantially valuable. Exposure to psychological aggression in the intimate relationships through society, family -and media, as well- seems to desensitize college students to psychological aggression, and thus increases the likelihood of acceptance of it, which in turn, promotes use of psychological aggression. Concordantly, the role of acceptance of psychological aggression is beyond argument although which one precedes which one is not free from controversy. According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) attitudes come first. Contrary to theory, Nabor and Jasinski (2009) challenge attitude-behavior cycle, proving evidence from longitudinal data. In either situation, acceptance of psychological aggression is empirically and practically influential.

### **5.3.3 Implications for practice**

Practically, the findings have quite a lot to inform program developers, psychological counselors, counselor educators, university administrators and policy makers. Implications were discussed in detailed in the following paragraphs.

The present study produced valuable information for understanding prevalence, psychological dating aggression, and associated contributing factors such as internalized patriarchy, early gender socialization messages, witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, and acceptance of psychological aggression. All those contributing factors give cues for practitioners whose purpose is to develop programs to prevent psychological dating aggression. The prevention programs, very broadly, are divided into two as primary and secondary (Cornelius & Resseguie, 2006). The former aims to prevent before dating violence occurs while the latter one aims to prevent already occurring violence in dating relationship but both target the entire population within high schools and college settings and/or risk groups

(Cornelius & Resseguie, 2006). As the variables of the current study, internalized patriarchy, early gender socialization messages, witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, and acceptance of psychological aggression may contribute to both types of prevention programs. More specifically, as the societal and perceived parental variables, patriarchy, gender socialization, and witnessing mother to father psychological aggression reflect themselves in the personal cognitive variables such as acceptance of the psychological aggression. Personal cognitive variables such as attitudes toward justifying aggression (Avery-Leaf, Cascardi, O'Leary, & Cano, 1997), power issues and gender inequality (Avery et al., 1997), gender-based expectations (Foshee & Langwick, 2004), gender role stereotyping (Schwartz, Magee, Griffin, & Dupuis, 2004), justification of dating aggression (Macgowan, 1997), knowledge and norms regarding dating violence (Foshee & Langwick, 2004; Jaycox et al., 2006) have been at the core of those programs. In this regard, designing prevention programs that include challenging and altering acceptability of psychological aggression will, in the long term, be effective in reducing psychological aggression perpetration and victimization, as well. Keeping this in mind, Hendy et al. (2003) suggests that the success of aggression/violence prevention programs will increase provided that they stay focused on changing the aspects of cognition, affection and behaviors of aggressors rather than victims. Thus, for secondary prevention programs, the author recommends that aggressors be targeted, rather than victims.

Furthermore, considering the inconsistencies regarding gender differences in the previous research, the proposed model was tested via multi sample structural equation modeling, the results revealed that the associations did not vary across gender; that is gender specific patterns did not emerge. The finding demonstrates that the programs aiming at preventing and intervening should target men and women dating college students together rather than separate.

The findings of the present study suggest that efforts to prevent psychological aggression perpetration among college students should include parents as active participants, as well since the parents have effect on college students' thinking and

behaving. Though witnessing father to mother psychological aggression did not directly or indirectly contributed to use of psychological aggression, the high correlation between perceived parental variables make it evident that both parents engage in psychological aggression. Further, the results in the current study highlighted partial support for the assumptions of Social Learning Theory, which state that witnessing mother to father psychological aggression directly and indirectly via acceptability of psychological aggression is related to use of psychological aggression. More specifically, it seems reasonable that for primary prevention, the individual –for challenging the acceptability of psychological aggression-, for secondary prevention, the parents should be targeted, as well. For intervention, attempts to challenge cognitions such as acceptance of the psychological aggression, attitudes toward justifying aggression power issues and gender inequality, gender-based expectations, gender role stereotyping, justification of dating aggression, knowledge and norms regarding dating violence might teach the college students how to filter perceived parental factors (witnessing mother to father psychological aggression in this study) and thus might help diminishing psychological dating aggression. Nevertheless, the attempts may be insufficient for secondary prevention. The parental interventions might focus on their acceptability of psychological aggression and the negative influence of their psychologically aggressive behaviors on their children.

The findings of the current study may inform college counselors of psychological dating aggression, as well. Though the researcher has not come up with any information on availability of college students seeking help specifically for psychological dating aggression, it is clear that they ask help for “romantic relationships”, “communication problems”, and “ending the relationship” (Yerin-Güneri, 2006; Yerin-Güneri, Aydın, & Skovholt, 2003). Moreover, it is evidently known that college students are not aware of the seriousness, harmfulness, and abusiveness of psychological dating aggression (Capezza & Arriaga, 2008; Williams et al., 2012). Coupled with the unawareness of psychological aggression of college counselors, the secrecy surrounds, which makes psychological aggression kept hidden and unspoken. Therefore, it is essential for college counselors to be aware of

psychological dating aggression and common presenting problems that co-occur with psychological dating aggression (Murray & Kardatzske, 2007). Thus, to raise the knowledge and awareness of counselors and/or mental health professionals in the campus regarding psychological aggression and dating violence is one of the first attempts to utilize. Taking it as a step further, university health and counseling centers should integrate dating violence screening procedures into regular checks. Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse Scale (Murphy & Hoover, 1999) may operate as the assessment of psychological aggression during regular checks. If the counselor gets the sense of psychological aggression/dating violence in the dating relationship of the client, s/he needs to explore the severity and the aforementioned risk factors (internalized patriarchy, early gender socialization messages, witnessing mother to father psychological aggression, acceptance of psychological aggression, sexist beliefs). More specifically, in intervention, a discussion of how college students in the patriarchal culture with early traditional gender role messages received and with witnessing mother to father psychological aggression in the family would be at higher risk of acceptability and thus use of psychological aggression might be included. Support groups might be formed for perpetrators. Furthermore, for college students, psycho-educational group counseling programs designed to enhance healthy and dating violence free relationships sound great. Challenging myths regarding relationship expectations, dating norms, gender roles, dating violence/psychological aggression, acceptability of aggression, sexist beliefs as the personal reflections of patriarchal ideologies of the society may be the focus of the psycho-educational group counseling programs. Peer counseling run by undergraduates or graduates should be instituted to make sure that psychological backup help available.

Counselor educators, first of all, should be knowledgeable and sensitive about dating violence in general and psychological aggression in specific. Then, conveying this knowledge and sensitivity to psychological counselor nominees is the next step. Counselor educators can integrate issues related to the gender, definition, types, motives, risk markers, consequences, prevention and intervention, and resources available to seeking help into educational curriculum. This may be achieved in the

courses offered or through reading lists, panels, seminars, etc. For the ones who are interested in intimate partner violence/dating violence, psychological counselor nominees may be guided to non-governmental organizations and educations/trainings available. Above all, developing awareness into gender, patriarchy, gender role socialization, and dating violence/psychological aggression would be exceptionally valuable.

University administrations have a lot to do, as well. It is crucial to develop campuswide awareness through events, posters, flyers, talks, seminars, etc to inform students regarding dating violence/psychological aggression, prevention/intervention efforts and resources available. University health and counseling services, offices providing services to the students or university student clubs may collectively take the responsibility to enhance awareness. The clubs, for example, may institute a “no tolerance to dating violence/psychological aggression” policy. The perpetrators of dating violence/psychological aggression are often reluctant to seek help due to the unawareness (Smith & Donnelly, 2001). Thus, special emphasis on the awareness-enhancing and help seeking facilities should be placed. An agent or office may be founded in order to assist college students in trouble with psychological aggression or efficient intercampus referrals should be provided. In sum, dating violence free campus should be the policy of university administration.

The results of the study may inform the policy makers, as well. The Ministry of Family and Social Policies should incorporate psychological aggression in intimate relationships, including dating ones, into their policies, as well as physical, and sexual violence. Dating violence such as domestic violence and violence against women should be treated as a separate entity. The public should be reached and educated through targeted messages that psychological aggression is not “normal” rather “abusive” to increase broad awareness. This might be done both at the community level and in the educational system. At the community level, non-governmental organizations such as Mor Çatı should be encouraged to involve in and carry out such campaigns since they draw attention to dating violence and psychological aggression for years. Media might be utilized for awareness raising

through public service announcements. Dating violence in general and psychological dating aggression in specific occurs as early as the preteen ages. Thus, Ministry of Education should integrate dating violence/psychological aggression into curriculum of middle and high schools. Awareness through events, posters, flyers, talks, seminars should be part of every middle and high schools. Likewise, the Council of Higher Education should integrate a must course regarding intimate partner violence and/or dating violence into university curriculum. Considering the legal system, first of all, the laws should be revised and renewed based on international human rights treaties signed by Turkish state such as “İstanbul Sözleşmesi” (Mor çatı, 2014). Clear and concrete sanctions are needed regarding the perpetrator of psychological (dating) aggression depending upon the severity and psychological help should be one of those sanctions. Mental health professionals, nongovernmental organizations, law makers, and policy makers should collaborate to define the clear and concrete sanctions. The implementation of the sanctions should be closely monitored by independent agents.

#### **5.4 Recommendations for Future Research**

The current study was the first attempt to address the mediational role of personal cognitive factors in the relation between societal and perceived parental factors and use of psychological aggression among dating college students in Turkey. Therefore, the findings should be considered as clearly preliminary. Yet, research on psychological aggression is still in its infancy, and additional research is necessary to build upon those preliminary findings. Thus, specific recommendations for future research are presented in this section.

Derived from Feminist and Social Learning Theory, the study proposed and tested a model in which the associations among societal (patriarchy, gender socialization), perceived parental (witnessing interparental psychological aggression), personal cognitive factors (acceptance of psychological aggression and sexist beliefs) and psychological aggression were explored. However, patriarchy and gender socialization are not single, unique indicators of societal factors, though gender

socialization deserves the attention of further research. There are alternative societal factors such as power and control (Woodin & O’Leary, 2009) and dominance (Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012). Patriarchy-sounded variables such as masculinity (Franchina et al., 2001) and threat susceptibility (Hammock & O’Hearn, 2002) are also noteworthy to investigate. Considering Social Learning Theory, a whole lot more research is needed. First and foremost, to shed light on the issue whether witnessing interparental psychological aggression is gender specific, replications should be attempted in the future research. Replications will further help ensure whether witnessing mother to father, and father to mother psychological aggression operate differently or not in Turkish culture. Moreover, family of origin (international transmission of aggression) hypothesis derived from Social Learning Theory includes not only “witnessing” but also “experiencing” aspect (Bandura, 1971; O’Leary, 1988; Riggs & O’Leary, 1989), which is also in the need of research. Furthermore, a fuller understanding of the role personal cognitive factors requires variables that are freed from affective components such as acceptance of psychological aggression, justifications of psychological aggression, and intentions for psychological aggression (Forbes et al., 2004).

Incorporated the theories of Feminist and Social Learning, the proposed model explained 31% of the variance in psychological aggression. However, there are a large number of multifaceted models of aggression from different theoretical perspectives (i.e., Bell & Naugle, 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Riggs & O’Leary, 1989; Dutton, 1995), which have included several risk factors such as demographics (gender, age, length of the relationship, seriousness of the relationship), relational (satisfaction, investment, quality of alternatives, commitment, attachment), intrapersonal (acceptance, sexism, beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, perceptions, skill related-anger management, problem solving, communication, emotion regulation– and personality related-The Big Five), interpersonal (peer effect), and situational (use of alcohol and drugs, the role of stress). Attempts to build new models with aforementioned variables or to test the existing models would undoubtedly be insightful. Moreover, Turkish culture has been regarded as collectivistic (Göregenli, 1997; Hortaçsu, 2015; İmamoğlu, 2003)



and to reflect Turkish culture's contribution to psychological aggression and the related issues could be seemingly seminal. Additionally, on the basis of the often cited antecedent in discussion, "motives" warrants further investigation to acquire a thorough understanding of psychological aggression.

As a personal cognitive variable, acceptance of psychological aggression consistently emerged as a significant mediator between societal and perceived parental variables and psychological aggression. Promoting psychological dating aggression, research into acceptability of psychological aggression would advance our knowledge. However, some researchers, relying on longitudinal design, asserted that attitudes follow aggression (Nabor & Jasinski, 2009). The design of the present study is correlational and cross-sectional in nature, which limits causality. Therefore, longitudinal research is needed to have a deeper understanding of acceptability-aggression association. Longitudinal design will be helpful in testing the stability of results for the other study variables such as witnessing interparental aggression and sexist beliefs, as well.

The results of the multi-sample structural equation modeling indicated that the structural model did not vary by gender. Though gender is a controversial issue, the finding was largely in line with the psychological aggression literature (i.e., Cui et al., 2010; Dye & Davis, 2003; Hammock & O'Hearn, 2002), if the model was not analyzed individually. In future studies, the researcher recommends multi-sample approaches rather than separate analysis of the model according to gender to avoid type one error. Moreover, common couple violence type of aggression is mostly reciprocal (Johnson, 1995) and is affected by partner's attitudes, behaviors etc. in the relational context (Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013). Thus, utilizing dyads as data and actor-partner interdependence model (APIM) as a statistical method is highly advisable.

Self report and retrospective data was utilized in the current study. College students were asked to remember psychological aggression within the six months and to recall their parents' psychological aggression and early gender role messages during

childhood. Thus, mono-method (Heppner et al., 1992) and social desirability (Hamby, 2005; Krahe & Berger, 2005; Toplu & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011) biases have been of concern. To overcome the mono-method bias, in future studies, multi-methods may be included such as using couple samples (Karakurt & Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt et al., 2013) and couple averaged scores (Jenkins & Aube, 2002). Furthermore, using partner report data might be particularly beneficial. To prevent socially desirability bias, social desirability might be added as a control variable. Prior to this, the associations among gender, psychological aggression and social desirability should be established in future research. Gathering reports from both partners of the couple would also be helpful for social desirability, as in the mono-method bias (Hendy et al., 2003).

In terms of the sample, there are some recommendations to consider. At first, the present study was conducted with a sample of dating college students (graduate and undergraduate) from private and public universities in Ankara, which may limit generalizability (Fraenkel et al., 2012). Though majority of research on psychological dating aggression was carried with undergraduate and graduate samples, there are dating people at the similar ages that do not receive college education. Research into this population is less extensive. Nevertheless, love is the virtue of young adulthood as stated in Erikson's (1968) psychosocial development theory. Therefore, larger and more diverse populations such as samples from different universities and cities in Turkey, and samples from different age groups and subcultures would strengthen the novel findings in this research. Secondly, convenience sampling –most prevalent yet least desirable sort of sampling- was applied in this research, which may limit representativeness (Fraenkel et al., 2012). Hence, random sampling procedures would facilitate representativeness in future research. Yet, the researcher cautiously recommends this due to specific inclusion criteria –currently dating, at least one month of relationship, being over 18 years old and voluntary.

Lastly, the pilot and main data in the present study were collected through in-class administration and online survey, respectively. The researcher did not statistically

compare the pilot and main data in terms of similarities and differences due to large differences in sample size. Another reason for no comparison was the intended use of the data. The pilot data was used to adapt the scales, while the main data to test the hypothesized model. Still, the findings in the main study (in which the data was collected online) were discussed with the findings in the adaptation study (in which the data was collected in class) of Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse scale (Toplu-Demirtaş & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2013) with regard to similarity and dissimilarity. The findings were almost identical. Furthermore, Brock et al. (2014) suggested that online administration performed better than written one in terms of validity and reliability specifically for psychological aggression perpetration measures. They highlighted “the utility of collecting aggression data online” due to “perceived anonymity afforded” (Brock et al., 2014, p.1). The researcher prioritizes the need for such a research in Turkish literature to ensure that online administration of psychological aggression measures can be valid and reliable as the further evidence.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix A: Sample Items of Multidimensional Measure of Emotional Abuse

#### Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği Örnek Maddeleri

Aşağıda, **partnerlerin (kız ya da erkek arkadaş/sevgili/flört)** bir tartışma ya da anlaşmazlık anında yaşayabilecekleri/gösterebilecekleri davranışlar yer almaktadır. Lütfen, **son altı ay içinde** her bir davranışı **kaç defa** gösterdiğinizi aşağıdaki derecelendirmeyi kullanarak işaretleyiniz. Eğer bu davranışlardan birini son altı ay içinde göstermediyseniz ama daha önceden yaptıysanız 7'yi işaretleyiniz.

- (1) Bir kere (4) 6-10 kere (7) Son altı ayda olmadı ama daha önce oldu  
(2) İki kere (5) 11-20 kere (0) Hiçbir zaman olmadı  
(3) 3-5 kere (6) 20 kereden fazla

	Bir kere	İki kere	3-5 kere	6-10 kere	11-20 kere	20 + kere	Son 6 ayda olmadı	Hiç olmadı
1. Partnerime şüpheli bir tavırla nerede veya kimlerle birlikte olduğunu sordum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2. Partnerimin kişisel eşyalarını gizlice karıştırdım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
3. Partnerimin aptal olduğunu söyledim ya da ima ettim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
4. Partnerime onun değersiz olduğunu söyledim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
5. Konuşamayacak ya da konuşmayı istemeyecek kadar sinirlendim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
6. Kızdığımda partnerime soğuk ya da mesafeli davrandım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
7. Partnerimi korkutacak kadar öfkelen dim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
8. Partnerime fikirlerimi saldırganca belirtmeye çalıştım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Note Only two sample items per dimensions were illustrated.

## Appendix B: Sample Items of Sex Role Stereotyping Scale

### Ataerkillik Ölçeği Örnek Maddeleri

Lütfen verilen derecelendirmeyi kullanarak ifadelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

- (1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (2) Katılmıyorum (3) Biraz Katılmıyorum  
(4) Biraz Katılıyorum (5) Katılıyorum (6) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

	Kesinlikle <u>Katılmıyorum</u>	<u>Katılmıyorum</u>	Biraz <u>Katılmıyorum</u>	Biraz <u>Katılıyorum</u>	<u>Katılıyorum</u>	Kesinlikle <u>Katılıyorum</u>
1. Bir kadın toplum içinde kocasına ters düşecek davranışları asla <u>yapmamalıdır.</u>	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Evlenmek ve aile kurmak istemeyen kadında bir sorun var demektir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Kadınların kariyer sahibi olması kabul edilebilir, fakat evlilik ve aile önce gelmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6

## Appendix C: Sample Items of Socialization of Gender Norms Scale

### Cinsiyet Oluşumu Ölçeği Örnek Maddeleri

Büyürken insanların nasıl davranması, hissetmesi ve etkileşimde bulunması gerektiği konusunda pek çok mesaj alırız. Bu mesajlar farklı şekillerde olabilir; bazılarını duyarız, bazılarını ise sormadan biliriz. **Siz büyürken anne-babanızdan/çevrenizden ne tür mesajlar aldınız?** Aşağıda, toplumda var olan bazı düşünce ve inançlar listelenmiştir. Her mesaj için, anne-babanızdan ne kadar duyduğunuzu ya da aldığınızı, aşağıda verilen “Hiç”, “Çok az”, “Biraz” ya da “Çok” ifadelerinden birini işaretleyerek belirtiniz. **Mesajla aynı düşüncede olabilir ya da olmayabilirsiniz;** biz sadece **o mesajı alıp almadığınızla** ilgileniyoruz.

(1) Hiç

(2) Çok az

(3) Biraz

(4) Çok

	Hiç	Çok az	Biraz	Çok
1. Gerçek bir erkek, istediğini elde eder.	1	2	3	4
2. Duygularını kontrol altında tutmak önemlidir.	1	2	3	4
3. Mutlu olmasan bile mutluymuş gibi görünmek, iyi olmanın bir parçasıdır.	1	2	3	4
4. Kadınlar en çok bir ilişki yaşarken mutludurlar.	1	2	3	4
5. Asla korktuğunu belli etme.	1	2	3	4



## Appendix D: Sample Items of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

### Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeđi Örnek Maddeleri

Lütfen her bir ifadeyle ne derece hemfikir olduđunuzu verilen derecelendirmeye uygun olarak belirtiniz.

- (1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (2) Katılmıyorum (3) Biraz Katılmıyorum  
(4) Biraz Katılıyorum (5) Katılıyorum (6) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

	Kesinlikle <u>Katılmıyorum</u>	<u>Katılmıyorum</u>	Biraz <u>Katılmıyorum</u>	Biraz <u>Katılıyorum</u>	<u>Katılıyorum</u>	Kesinlikle <u>Katılıyorum</u>
1. Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Kadınlar çok çabuk alınırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6

## Appendix E: Sample Items of Intimate Partner Violence Attitude Scale-Revised

### Yakın İlişkilerde Şiddete yönelik Tutum Ölçeği- Gözden Geçirilmiş Formu Örnek Maddeleri

Lütfen her bir ifadeyle ne derece hemfikir olduğunuzu verilen derecelendirmeyi kullanarak belirtiniz.

- (1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum                      (2) Katılmıyorum                      (3) Kararsızım  
(4) Katılıyorum                                      (5) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Partnerimin bana karşı cinsten biri ile konuşmamamı söylemesi gururumu okşar.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Partnerimin günün her dakikası ne yaptığımı sorması hoşuma <u>gitmez.</u>	1	2	3	4	5
3. Partnerim beni incitmediği sürece “tehditlerini” mazur görürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Partnerimin başkalarının önünde beni aşağılamasını çok büyük bir sorun olarak <u>görmem.</u>	1	2	3	4	5
5. Partneri bıçak ya da tabancayla tehdit etmek asla uygun <u>değildir.</u>	1	2	3	4	5
6. Partnerime ait herhangi bir şeye zarar vermenin yanlış olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

Note Only two sample items per dimensions were illustrated

## Appendix F: Sample Items of Conflict Tactics Scale – Adult recall Version

### Çatışma Yöntemleri Ölçeği-Yetişkin Hatırlama Formu Örnek Maddeleri

Ne kadar iyi geçinirse geçinsin ebeveynlerin uyuşmazlık yaşaması, birbirine kızması, birbirlerinden farklı beklentilerinin olması, herhangi bir nedenden dolayı ağız dalaşına girmesi ya da kavga etmesi olasıdır. Ebeveynlerin uyuşmazlık durumlarında gösterdikleri davranışlar da farklıdır. Aşağıda, ebeveynler uyuşmazlık yaşadığında olabileceklerin bir listesi yer almaktadır. Lütfen siz **büyürken** her bir davranışı **babanızın annenize kaç defa** gösterdiğini ve siz **büyürken** her bir davranışı **annenizin babanıza kaç defa** gösterdiğini aşağıdaki derecelendirmeyi kullanarak işaretleyiniz.

Burada ebeveyn ile anne-baba (üvey anne ya da baba dâhil) kastedilmektedir. Şu anda ebeveynlerinizden **biri ya da ikisi hayatta olmayabilir, ayrı ya da boşanmış** olabilir. Bizim için önemli olan siz **büyürken, kayıp, ayrılık, boşanma** gerçekleşinceye kadar geçen sürede hatırladıklarınızdır. Hatırlıyorsanız lütfen cevaplamaya devam edin. **Anne-baba** dışında biri tarafından büyütüldüyseniz (dede, babaanne/anneanne, hala, dayı, amca, teyze vb.) ya da bir aile ortamı dışında büyüdüyseniz (yetiştirme yurdu/sevgi evi vb.) bu kısmı cevaplamadan geçiniz.

#### Bu davranışlar ne sıklıkta oldu?

- (1) Bir kere (3) 3-5 kere (5) 11-20 kere (0) Hiçbir zaman olmadı  
(2) İki kere (4) 6-10 kere (6) 20 kereden fazla

<i>Babam Anneme</i>							<i>Annem Babama</i>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	0	1. Hakaret veya küfür etti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	0	2. Şişko ya da çirkinsin diye alay etti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
1	2	3	4	5	6	0	3. Ona ait bir eşyayı kasıtlı olarak kırdı.	1	2	3	4	5	6	0

## Appendix G: Sample Items of Demographic Information Form

### Katılımcı Bilgi Formu Örnek Maddeleri

Bu kısımda sizinle ilgili genel bilgiler sorulmaktadır. Lütfen her bir maddeyi okuyup durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği işaretleyiniz ya da boşlukları doldurunuz.

**1. Cinsiyetiniz**

- Kadın  
 Erkek

**2. Yaşınız**.....

**3. Üniversiteniz**.....

**4. Fakülteniz**.....

**5. Sınıfınız**

- Hazırlık     1. sınıf     2. sınıf     3. sınıf     4. sınıf     Y. Lisans     Doktora

**6. Aşağıdakilerden hangisi şu anki flört ilişkinizin durumunu en iyi tanımlar?**

- Flört /Çıkma  
 Birlikte yaşama

**7. Şu anki flört ilişkiniz ne kadar zamandır devam ediyor?(Lütfen ay olarak belirtiniz) ----- Ay**

**8. Aşağıdakilerden hangisi şu anki flört ilişkinizi en iyi tanımlar?**

- Bilmiyorum/Kararsızım  
 Geçici/Öylesine  
 Düzenli/Ciddi

**9. Aşağıdakilerden hangisi şu anki flört ilişkinizde yüz yüze görüşme sıklığınızı en iyi tanımlar?**

- Ayda bir defadan az     Ayda bir defa     İki haftada bir     Her hafta     Haftada birkaç kez     Her gün     Gün içinde birden çok

**10. Aşağıdakilerden hangisi şu anki flört ilişkinizin geleceğini en iyi tanımlar?**

- Evleneceğiz.  
 Evlenmeden, böyle, birlikte devam edeceğiz.  
 Bitecek, ben ayrılmak istiyorum/ayrılacağım.  
 Bitecek, partnerim ayrılmak istiyor/ayrılacak.  
 Geleceğimiz hakkında bir fikrim yok/bilmiyorum.

**11. Aşağıdakilerden hangisi geçmiş flört ilişkinizin/ilişkilerinizin durumunu en iyi tanımlar?**

- Daha önce hiç ilişkim olmamıştı, bu ilk ilişkim.  
 Daha önce başka bir ilişkim olmuştu.  
 Daha önce birden fazla ilişkim olmuştu.

**Appendix H: Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics  
Committee Approval Letter**

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ  
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ  
06460 06460 06460  
+90 312 261 29 29  
www.ietm.mta.tu.az.tr

Sayı: 28620815/ 458 -- 307

31.03.2014

Gönderilen : Y.Doç. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer  
Eğitim Bilimleri

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Caran Özgen  
IAK Başkanı

İlgi : Etik Orayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğumuz Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü öğrencisi Ezgi Toplu Deminaş'ın "Flört Eden Üniversite Öğrencileri Arasında Psikolojik Şiddete Giden Yollar: Toplumsal Değişkenler, Algılanan Aile Değişkenleri ve Kişisel Bilişsel Değişkenlerin Etkileşimi" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Orayı

Uygundur

31/03/2014

Prof. Dr. Caran Özgen  
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi  
(UEAM) Başkanı  
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

## Appendix I: Intimate Partner Attitude Scale- Revised Permission Letter

----- ffincham@fsu.edu tarafından iletilen ileti -----

Tarih: Fri, 8 Nov 2013 17:44:18 +0000

Kimden: "Fincham, Francis" <ffincham@fsu.edu>

Konu: RE: Attitudes toward Intimate Partner Violence Scale -IPVAS-revised

Kime: Ezgi Toplu Demirtas <ezgi@metu.edu.tr>

Please do translate it. And good wishes for your research. Below is scale and here is URL: <http://fincham.info/ipvas-r.jpg>

[<http://fincham.info/ipvas-r.jpg>]

-----Original Message-----

From: Ezgi Toplu Demirtas [mailto:ezgi@metu.edu.tr]

Sent: Friday, November 08, 2013 7:23 AM

To: Fincham, Francis

Cc: ezgi@metu.edu.tr

Subject: Attitudes toward Intimate Partner Violence Scale -IPVAS-revised

Dear Dr. Fincham

I am a Research Assistant at Middle East Technical University, Department of Educational Sciences, Ankara-Turkey. I am also involved in my graduate study; my major is Psychological Counseling and Guidance. Currently, I am working on my doctoral dissertation regarding the predictors of dating violence among Turkish university students.

During my literature review, I found your 17-item Attitudes toward Intimate Partner Violence Scale (IPVAS-Revised) which measures attitudes toward IPV in a dating relationship. However, I could not come up with the Turkish version of it. Therefore,

I am writing to ask if you could give permission to carry out the translation and adaptation process of the IPVAS-Revised and employ the total 17-item IPVAS-Revised in my dissertation study. I will also appreciate if you send the format of the scale in order to stick to the original format.

Thank you in advance.

Yours Sincerely,

Ezgi Toplu Demirtaş

Research Assistant

METU

Faculty of Education

Department of Educational Sciences

Ankara, TURKEY

(Office) +903122104045

----- İletilen iletinin sonu -----

## Appendix J: Ankara University Ethics Committee Approval Letter

ANKARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
ETİK KURULU  
KARAR ÖRNEĞİ

Karar Tarihi : 22/04/2014

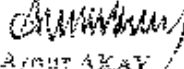
Toplantı Sayısı : 167

Karar Sayısı : 1159

**1159-Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü doktora öğrencisi Ergi Toplu Demirtaş'ın "Fürt Fden Üniversite Öğrencileri Arasında Psikolojik Saldırganlığa Giden Yollar: Toplumsal Değişkenler, Algılanan Aile Değişkenleri ve Kişisel Bilişsel Değişkenlerin Etkileşimi" başlıklı tezine ait ölçekleri Üniversitemiz öğrencilerine uygulanabilmesine izin verilmesine ilişkin 09/04/2014 tarihli "İnsan Üzerinde Yapılan Klinik Dışı Araştırmalar Başvuru Formu" Etik Kurulumuzca incelenmiştir.**

Yapılan görüşmeler ve incelemeler sonucunda, **Ergi Toplu Demirtaş'ın** sözkonusu başvurusunu araştırma yapacak Üniversitemiz fakülte/enstitü/yüksekokuluna yapılması gerektiğine oybirliği ile karar verildi.

ASLININ AYNI DİR  
22/04/2014

  
AYKUT AKAY  
Genel Sekreterlik  
0312 311 00 00



## Appendix K: Hacettepe University Ethics Committee Approval Letter



T.C.  
**HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ**  
Genel Sekreterlik



Yazı İşleri Birimliğine

Sayı : 88600825 / 240 - 2107

22 Haziran 2014

Konu :

### ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE (Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi : 02.05.2014 tarih ve 54850036-300-2374/005144 sayılı yazınız.

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Anabilim Dalı doktora öğrencisi ve araştırma görevlisi **Ezgi TOPLU DEMİRTAŞ**'ın "Flört Eden Üniversite Öğrencileri Arasında Psikolojik Saldırganlığa Giden Yollar: Toplumsal Değişkenler, Algılanan Aile Değişkenleri ve Kişisel Bilişsel Değişkenlerin Etkileşimi" konulu tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun 13 Haziran 2014 tarihinde yaptığı olduğu toplantıda incelemiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Gereğini bilgilerinize arz ederim.

  
Prof. Dr. Ç. Selim HARPUR  
Rektör a.  
Rektör Yardımcısı

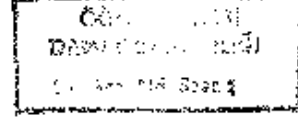
27. 06. 2014 10101

Hacettepe Üniversitesi Genel Sekreterlik, Yazı İşleri Birimliği, 0606 Sıhhiye-Ankara  
Telefon: 0 (312) 505 1008 - 1009 - Faks: 0 (312) 210 5552  
E-posta: yazimud@hacettepe.edu.tr

Ayrıntılı bilgi için:

## Appendix L: Başkent University Ethics Committee Approval Letter

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BAŞKENT ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
AKADEMİK DEĞERLERİNİRDİRME KOORDİNATÖRLÜĞÜ

30.05.2014

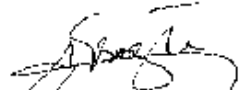
Sayı : 17162298-600-102  
Konu : Araştırma Projesi h.k.

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Rektörlüğüne,

İlgi: 02.05.2014 tarih 54850036-300-2375 sayılı yazınız

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesinin ilgi yazı gereğince, Üniversitemize gönderilen üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Anabilim Dalı Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Bölümü Doktora öğrencisi ve araştırmaya görevlisi Ezgi Toplu Demirtaş'ın doktora tezi kapsamında "Türkiye'de Üniversite Öğrencileri Arasında Psikolojik Sağdayanlık Giden Yollar: Toplumsal Değişkenler, Algılanan Aile Değişkenleri ve Kişisel Bilişsel Değişkenlerin Etkileşimi" başlıklı çalışması Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler ve Sanat Araştırma Kurulu tarafından görüşülmüş ve onaylanmıştır. Öneriler ile birlikte ekte iletilmektedir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

  
Prof. Dr. Abdülkadir VAROĞLU  
Rektör Yardımcısı

### Eklere:

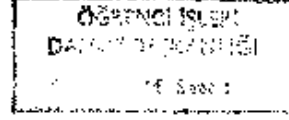
1. Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler ve Sanat Araştırma Kurulu Onayı
2. Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler ve Sanat Araştırma Kurulu Görüş ve Öneriler

05.06.2014- 9080



## Appendix M: Gazi University Ethics Committee Approval Letter

Yazın Tarihi ve Sayısı: 13/05/2014-15225



T.C.  
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
Öğrenci İşleri Dairesi Başkanlığı

Sayı : 17311665-644-  
Konu : Evgi Toplu DEMİRTAŞ'ın tez arketi izni

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE  
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi : 02/05/2014 tarihli ve 5146 sayılı yazı,

İlgi yazınız ile, Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Araştırma Dışı Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Bölümü Doktora Öğrencisi ve açılışına görevlisi Evgi Toplu DEMİRTAŞ'ın, doktora tezi kapsamında hazırladığı arketi internet üzerinden uygulayabilmesi için Üniversitemiz Öğrencilerinin e-posta adreslerinin bildirilmesi istenilmektedir.

4982 sayılı Bilgi Edinme Hakkı Kanunu'nun "Özel Hayatın Gizliliği" başlıklı 21. maddesinde "Kişinin izni verdiği haller sakı kalmak üzere, özel hayatın gizliliği kapsamında açıklanması halinde kişinin sağlık bilgileri ile özel ve aile hayatına, serisi ve haysiyetine, mesleki ve ekonomik değerlerine baksız müdahale oluşturacak bilgi veya belgeler, bilgi edinme hakkı kapsamı dışındadır" hükmünü yer almaktadır.

Kişisel Bilgilerin Gizliliğini Koruma Kanunu çerçevesinde, kişilerin açık rızası olmadan söz konusu bilgilerin verilmesi uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinize arz ederim.

Prof. Dr. İbrahim USLAN  
Rektör Yardımcısı

Sayı: 17311665-644-  
Bilgi İşleri Dairesi Başkanlığı

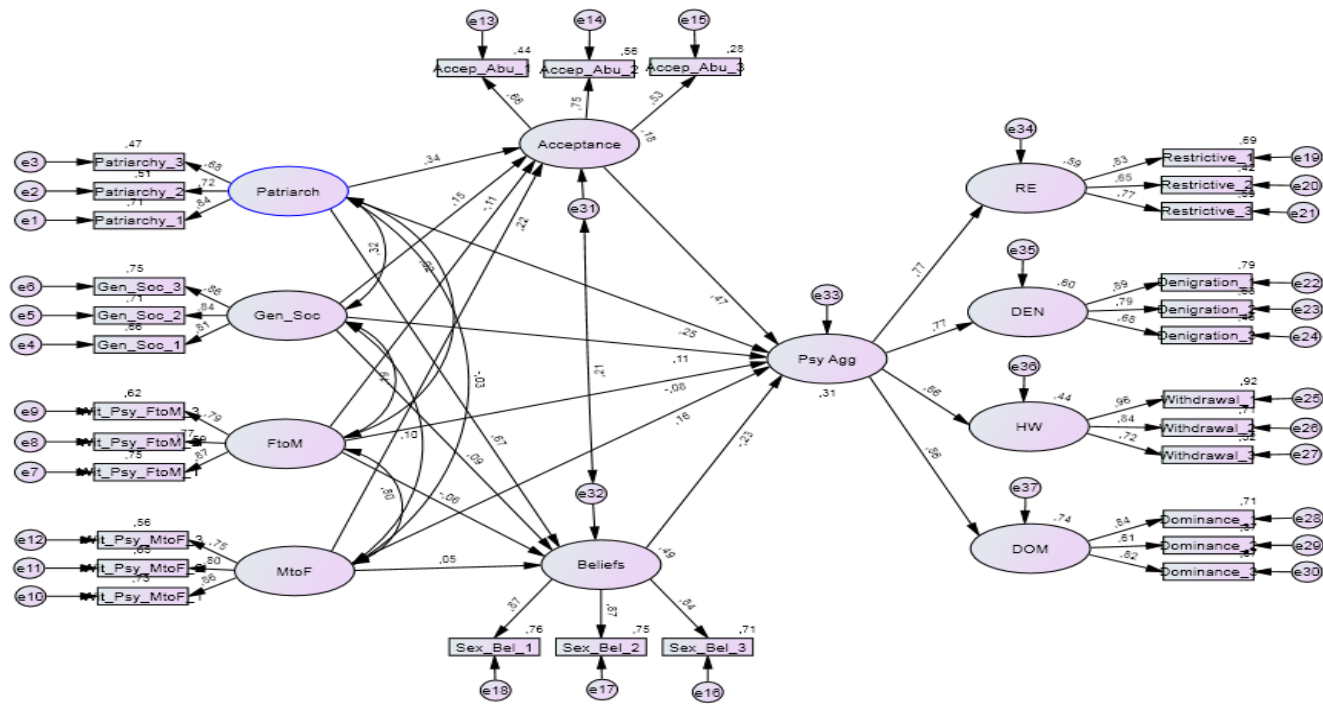
20.05.2014-817-3

15.5.2014

Rektör Yardımcısı: İbrahim Uslan  
Gaz. Ü. Öğrenci İşleri Dairesi Başkanlığı, B. Adres: Konya 06090 Beşevler Çarşısı  
Tel: 0312 212 03 22 - Faks: 0312 211 32 42  
E-Posta: ogis@gauni.edu.tr Web: www.gaziuniv.edu.tr

Not: Belge, BÖYGE'nin Çökertme İzni Kararına göre BÖYGE'nin izni ile yayımlanmıştır. (15/05/2014)

## Appendix N: Hypothesized Structural Model with Standard Estimates



## Appendix O: Turkish Summary

### TÜRKÇE ÖZET

#### FLÖRT İLİŞKİSİ OLAN ÜNİVERSİTE ÖĞRENCİLERİ ARASINDA PSİKOLOJİK SALDIRGANLIĞA BAŞVURMA: TOPLUMSAL, EBEVEYNE İLİŞKİN VE KİŞİSEL DEĞİŞKENLERİN ETKİLEŞİMİ

##### 1. GİRİŞ

Erikson'ın (1968) Psikososyal Gelişim Kuramı'na göre genç yetişkinliği kapsayan altıncı dönem, yakınlığa karşı yalıtılmışlık olarak adlandırılır ve bu dönemde “sevgi” ön plandadır. Bireylerin bağlılığa dayalı romantik ilişkiler kurması ve sürdürmesi bu dönemin en temel beklentilerinden biridir ve bu dönemde başlayan flört ilişkileri evlilikle sonuçlanabilir.

Evlilikle sonuçlanmasa da, flört ilişkisinin üniversite öğrencilerinin beden ve ruh sağlığına olumlu ve koruyucu bir etkisinin olduğu düşünülmektedir. Braithwaite, Delevi ve Fincham (2010) tarafından, 1621 üniversite öğrencisi ile yürütülen bir çalışmada, bağlılık içeren bir ilişkisi olan bireylerin ilişkisi olmayan bireylere göre daha az ruh sağlığı ve yeme bozukluğu problemi yaşadıkları, daha az riskli davranış gösterdikleri ve daha az sayıda cinsel partner belirttikleri bulunmuştur. Benzer bulgular üniversite öğrencilerinin ruh sağlığını inceleyen diğer araştırmalarda da ortaya konmaktadır (örn; Whitton, Weitbrecht, Kuryluk ve Bruner, 2013).

Ne yazık ki, bu dönemdeki bütün flört ilişkilerinin etkisi yukarıda ifade edildiği gibi her zaman iyimser bir tablo ortaya koymayabilir. Samsun kulis haber adlı bir internet gazetesinde yayınlanan “Boğazı kesilen öğrenci: O anı hiç unutmuyacağım” başlıklı bir haber bu bağlamda aydınlatıcı olabilir. Yaklaşık iki yıldır flört eden biri 18 diğeri

19 yaşındaki iki üniversite öğrencisi kıskançlık sebebiyle tartışır; tartışma sırasında kadın öğrenci sevgilisine bir tokat atar ve bunun üzerine erkek onu sırtından ve boğazından bıçaklar. Eski erkek arkadaşından şikâyetçi olan kadın öğrenci, duruşmada olay gününden önce defalarca eski erkek arkadaşından ayrıldığını ancak, onun kendisini intihar etmekle tehdit etmesi üzerine her defasında ilişkiye yeniden başladığını ifade eder. Kadın öğrenci, eski erkek arkadaşının çok kıskanç olduğunu, giyimine, gezmesine, kararlarına karıştığını belirtir. Erkek öğrenci ise, eski kız arkadaşının onu aldattığını düşündüğünü, bu nedenle kıskandığını, tartışmaya başladıklarını ve tokat sonrası ne yaptığını hatırlamadığını söyler. Bu haber flört şiddetinin oldukça iyi bir örneğidir. Haber değeri taşımamasının nedeni flört ilişkisinin daha görünür bir biçimini yansıtmamasıdır. İntihar girişiminde bulunmakla tehdit etmek, kıskançlık nedeniyle sık sık tartışmak, karşı tarafı kontrol altına almak için giyimine, kararlarına müdahale etmek ve karşı tarafı korkutacak kadar öfkelenmek gibi davranışlar, flört şiddetinin daha az görünür tarafını “psikolojik saldırganlığı” oluşturur. Bu olayda olduğu gibi fiziksel şiddete çoğu zaman psikolojik saldırganlık da eşlik eder (O’Leary, 1999). Bu olayda görülmemekle birlikte cinsel şiddet de flört şiddetinin bir alt biçimidir.

Flört şiddeti, flört yaşantısındaki birçok şiddet türünü kapsayan bir şemsiye kavram olarak kullanılmaktadır. Örneğin, Andersen ve Danis (2007) flört şiddetini “bir flört ilişkisinde eşlerden birinin diğerini tehdit veya eylem yoluyla fiziksel, cinsel ya da sözel (psikolojik) olarak istismar etmesi” (s. 88) olarak tanımlamaktadır. Flört şiddetinin fiziksel boyutu “bir şey fırlatmak, itmek, dirsek atmak, elini kolunu bükmek, saçını çekmek, tokat atmak, yumruk atmak, dövmek, tekme atmak, yakmak, boğmak, bıçak ve silah kullanmak” gibi davranışları içermektedir (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy ve Sugarman, 1996). Makepeace’in (1981) fiziksel şiddet ile ilgili öncül çalışmasından bu yana yapılan çok sayıda çalışma üniversite öğrencilerinin flört ilişkisinde fiziksel şiddete başvurma oranının ortalama olarak %30 ile %40 arasında değiştiğini göstermektedir (Chan, Straus, Brownridge, Tiwari ve Leung, 2008; Straus, 2004; Toplu ve Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011; White ve Koss, 1991). Flört şiddetinin cinsel boyutunu “kondom kullanmadan cinsel ilişkiye zorlamak, anal, oral ve/ya vajinal ilişki için tehdit etmek, anal, oral ve/ya vajinal ilişkiye zorlamak” gibi

davranışlar oluşturmaktadır (Straus ve ark., 1996). Cinsel şiddete başvurma oranları ise ortalama olarak %20 ile %30 arasında değişmektedir (Chan ve ark., 2008; Fisher, Cullen, ve Turner, 2000; Harned, 2001; Hines ve Saudino, 2003; Murray ve Kardatzke, 2007; Toplu ve Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011; White ve Smith, 2004).

Flört şiddetinin bir alt boyutu olarak araştırılmaya başlanan psikolojik flört şiddeti, son yıllarda alan yazında “psikolojik saldırganlık” başlığı altında gelişmektedir. Konunun öncülleri de “şiddet” ya da “duygusal istismar” yerine “psikolojik saldırganlık” denmesini önermektedir (Murphy ve Cascardi, 1993; Murphy ve O’Leary, 1989; O’Leary, 1999; Follingstad, 2007). Psikolojik saldırganlık “bir kişinin partnerini küçük düşürme ve onu suçlu, üzgün, eksik/yetersiz hissettirerek özsaygısını zedeleme gibi amaçlarla dalga geçme, sözlü tehditler, partneri ailesinden ve arkadaşlarından soyutlama ve partneri kontrol etmek çabası” olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Lawrence, Yoon, Langer ve Ro, 2009, s. 20). Psikolojik saldırganlık çok boyutlu bir kavramdır. “*Kontrol*” boyutu eşin eylemlerini ve sosyal ilişkilerini tecrit etmeye, kısıtlamaya, gözlemeye ve kontrol etmeye ve/ya eşin kendine bağımlılığını attırmak amaçlı sahiplenme ve kıskançlık sergilemeye yönelik davranış ve eylemleri içermektedir (Murphy ve Hoover, 1999). “*Aşağılama*” boyutu aşağılamalar ve küçümsemeler yolu ile eşin öz güvenini zedelemeye yönelik eylemleri ve sözel saldırıları içermektedir (Murphy ve Hoover, 1999). “*Düşmanca/Duygusal Geri Çekilme*” boyutu bir çatışma sırasında soğuk ve cezalandırıcı biçimde uzak kalma, duygusal temastan kaçınma gibi eşi cezalandırma ya da ilişki ile ilgili kaygı ve güvensizlik yaratma amacı ile gösterilen davranışları içermektedir (Murphy ve Hoover, 1999). “*Gözdağı*” boyutu ise daha yoğun sözel şiddet uygulama, ona ait bir mala zarar verme ya da tehdit etme gibi yolları kullanarak eşte korku ve boyun eğme yaratmayı amaçlayan davranışlardan oluşmaktadır (Murphy ve Hoover, 1999). Flört ilişkisinde psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma oranının ortalama olarak %70 ile %80 arasında değiştiği ve hatta %90'lara kadar ulaştığı bilinmektedir (Harned, 2001; Hines ve Saudino, 2003; Jenkins ve Aube, 2002; Leisring, 2013; Munoz-Rivas, Gomez, O’Leary ve Lozano, 2007; Neufeld, McNamara ve Ertl, 1999; Toplu ve Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011).

Psikolojik saldırganlık, flört şiddeti içinde en yaygın görülen türdür. Araştırmalar, genç yetişkinlik dönemindeki psikolojik saldırganlığın, şimdiki ve sonraki flört ilişkisinde cinsel ve fiziksel şiddetin habercisi olduğunu (Frieze, 2000; Murphy ve O’Leary, 1989) ve hatta evlilikteki şiddetin güçlü bir yordayıcısı olduğunu göstermektedir (White, Merrill ve Koss, 2001). Psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma sadece mağdur değil, fail üzerinde de olumsuz etkilere neden olmaktadır (Shorey, Cornelius ve Bell, 2012). Yaygınlığına ve yıkıcı etkilerine rağmen psikolojik saldırganlık, diğer şiddet türleri ile karşılaştırıldığında, üniversite öğrencileri tarafından önemsenmemekte ve hatta normalleştirilmektedir. Bu durum, üniversite öğrencilerinin psikolojik saldırganlığı bir problem olarak algılamamasına, “sevgi, kıskançlık, aşk” adı altında kabullenici tutumlar geliştirmesine ve uzun vadede bu davranışlara başvurmaya neden olabilir.

Bugüne dek psikolojik saldırganlık konusunda yürütülen çalışmalar çok değerli bilgiler sağlamışsa da psikolojik saldırganlığın nedenleri anlamak için daha sistematik çalışmalara ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır. Son yıllarda, psikolojik saldırganlığı daha iyi anlamak için tek bir kuramdan bakmak yerine, birkaç farklı kuramdan yararlanarak modeller test edilmeye başlanmıştır (Alexander, Moore ve Alexander, 1991; Bell ve Naugle, 2008; Follingstad, Bradley, Helff ve Laughlin, 2002; Karakurt, Keiley ve Posada, 2013; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001). Bu modellerde yararlanılan kuramlar, Feminist Kuram (Dobash ve Dobash, 1979), Çatışma Kuramı (Straus, 1979), Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı (Bandura, 1971) ve Bağlanma Kuramı (Bowlby, 1969) gibi büyük ölçüde bilinen ve evlilik ilişkisinde şiddet alanyazımından devşirilmiş kuramlardır..

Bu çalışmada da üniversite öğrencileri arasında psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma davranışını açıklamak için benzer bir yol izlenmiştir. Modelin kuramsal çerçevesine karar vermek için bilimin toplumun ihtiyaçlarından beslendiği düşüncesi, Türk toplumunun ve ailesinin ataerkilliği (Arat, 1994; Kağıtçıbaşı 1982; Okman-Fişek 1982; Sakallı, 2001), ve ilgili alanyazın gibi ölçütler göz önüne alınmıştır. Bu ölçütlere dayanarak psikolojik flört saldırganlığını anlamak için öncelikle “toplumsal” ve “ailesel” (Woodin ve O’Leary, 2009) nedenlere odaklanmaya ihtiyaç



olduđu düşünölmüştür. Bu bağlamda modelin kuramsal çerçevesi olarak Feminist Kuram ve Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı'nca önerilen varsayımlardan yararlanılmıştır. Çok kısaca, Feminist Kurama göre (Dobash ve Dobash, 1979) yakın ilişkilerdeki şiddetin nedeni, bireylerin ataerkil bir toplumda doğmaları ve önceden belirlenmiş cinsiyet rollerine göre yetiştirilmeleridir. Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramına (Bandura, 1973) göre ise, yakın ilişkilerdeki şiddetin nedeni bireylerin şartlı ve edimsel koşullanma yolu ile ve/ya bilişsel süreçler ile şiddete doğrudan ve dolaylı olarak tanıklık etmeleri ya da şiddeti deneyimlemeleridir.

Türkiye ataerkilliğın egemen olduđu bir toplumdur ve bireylerin egemen kültürel değerlerden etkilenmemeleri olası görölmemektedir (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982). Modelin Feminist Kuram'dan esinlenen toplumsal değişkenlerinden biri olan ataerkilliğın psikolojik saldırganlık ile bağlantısı ise araştırmacıların ilgisini yeni çekmektedir. Bu nedenle sınırlı sayıda çalışma vardır. Araştırmacılar, ataerkilliğın yansıması olarak, cinsiyete ilişkin kurgular (Jenkins ve Aube, 2002), erkeklik (Franchina, Eisler ve Moore, 2001), tehdide karşı duyarlılık (Hammock ve O'Hearn, 2002), kontrol isteğı (Dye ve Davis, 2003), tahakküm (Karakurt ve Cumbie, 2012), güç ve güç doyumunu (Hatipoğlu-Sümer ve Toplu, 2011) gibi değişkenlerle psikolojik saldırganlığın ilişkisini incelemişlerdir. Bu çalışmalar, ilgili değişkenlerle psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasında pozitif bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir.

Ailelerin de egemen değerlerden etkilenmeleri kaçınılmazdır (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982). Bu etki bağlamında da bireyler, hangi düşünce, duygu ve davranışların kendi cinsiyet rollerine uygun olup olmadığına ilişkin olarak doğdukları andan itibaren ailelerinden sürekli mesajlar almaktadır. Cinsiyet toplumsallaşması, bu araştırmada sınıanan modelin Feminist Kuramdan esinlenen bir diğeri toplumsal değişkenidir. Cinsiyet toplumsallaşması daha çok cinsiyet çatışması (gender conflict, Epstein, 2008) alanının araştırma konusu olduğundan, alanyazında psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma ile arasındaki ilişkileri inceleyen çalışmalara henüz rastlanmamıştır.

Ataerkilliğın egemen olduđu toplumda ve ailelerde büyüyen ve büyürken oldukça fazla cinsiyetçi mesajlar alan bireyler, ebeveynlerinin birbirlerine psikolojik

saldırganlık içeren davranışlar göstermesine de maruz kalabilirler. Bu araştırmada önerilen modelin Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı'ndan esinlenen ebeveyne ilişkin değişkenlerinden biri olan ana-baba arasındaki psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkileri inceleyen çalışma sayısı oldukça fazladır. Bazı çalışmalar bu ilişkilerin doğrudan (Avakame, 1998; Black, Sussman ve Unger, 2010; Cui, Durtschi, Donnellan, Lorenz ve Conger, 2010; Karakurt ve ark., 2013; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001; White ve Humprey, 1994) bazıları da tutumlar (Alexander ve ark., 1991; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001, psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul (Aloia ve Solomon, 2013) ve flört şiddetini kabul (Clarey, Hokoda ve Ulloa, 2010; O'Keefe, 1998; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001) gibi değişkenler üzerinden dolaylı olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Toplumsal ve ebeveyne ilişkin değişkenler ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki doğrudan ilişkiler alanyazındaki birçok çalışma tarafından ortaya konmuşsa da, neden böyle bir toplumda doğan ve ebeveynlerinin birbirlerine şiddet uygulamasına tanıklık eden her bireyin kendi flört ilişkisinde psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurmadığı açıklanamamaktadır. Bu noktada bazı kuramlar (Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı, Sosyal Bilgiyi İşleme Modeli, Planlanmış Davranış Kuramı) kişisel bilişsel değişkenlerin rolünü vurgulamaktadır. Bu kuramlara göre bireyler, nasıl davranacaklarına kendileri karar verirler ve karar verme aşamasında bilişsel süreçlerden geçerler.

Psikolojik saldırganlık alanyazınında kuramlara dayanarak ya da kuramlardan bağımsız kişisel bilişsel değişkenlerin "aracı" rolüne odaklanan çok sayıda çalışma vardır. Araştırmacılar, cinsiyetçi inançlar (Archer ve Graham-Kevan, 2003; Karakurt ve Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt ve ark., 2013; Lisco, Parrott ve Teten Tharp, 2012; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001), eşitlikçi tutumlar (Karakurt ve Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt ve ark., 2013), şiddetin meşrulaştırılması (Eriksson ve Mazerolle, 2015), muhafazakar tutumlar (Alexander ve ark., 1991), şiddeti kabul (Aloia ve Solomon, 2013; Capezza ve Arriaga, 2008; Clarey ve ark., 2010; O'Hearn ve Margolin, 2000; O'Keefe, 1998; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001; Straus, 2004; White ve Humprey), kadına yönelik tutum (Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001; Shook, Gerrity, Jurich ve

Segrist, 2000), şiddete yönelik tutum (Nabors ve Jasinski, 2009), eş dövmeğe yönelik tutumlar (Eriksson ve Mazerolle, 2015) ve tecavüz mitlerini kabul (Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001) gibi birçok kişisel bilişsel değişkenin aracı rolünü incelemiştir. Değişkenlerle yapılan çalışmaların sayısı ve anlamlılığı, psikolojik saldırganlık ile çalışılıp çalışılmadığı, çalışmanın kuramsal çerçevesi tarafından desteklenip desteklenmediği ve kültürün cinsiyetçi yapısı (Abadan-Unat, 1982; Sakallı, 2001) göz önüne alınarak, psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul ve cinsiyetçi inançlar bu çalışmada sınanan modelin kişisel bilişsel aracı değişkenleri olarak seçilmiştir.

Psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişki oldukça çok sayıda araştırmaya konu olmuştur. Bu araştırmaların bulguları iki değişkenin istikrarlı ilişkisini çarpıcı bir biçimde gözler önüne sermektedir. Üniversite öğrencileri örnekleminde psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme, psikolojik flört saldırganlığına başvurma riskini arttırmaktadır (örn; Aloia ve Solomon, 2013; Capezza ve Arriaga, 2008; Fincham, Cui, Braithwaite ve Pasley, 2008; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001). Psikolojik saldırganlığı kabulün, toplumsal ve ebeveyne ilişkin değişkenler ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkilerdeki aracı rolü de alanyazınca desteklenmektedir (örn, O’Hearn ve Margolin, 2000; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001).

Bir diğer kişisel bilişsel değişken olan cinsiyetçi inançlar ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişki, psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişki kadar istikrarlı olmasa da, cinsiyetçi inançlara sahip olmak, üniversite öğrencileri arasında, psikolojik flört saldırganlığına başvurma riskini arttırmaktadır (Forbes, Adam-Curtis, Pakalka ve White, 2006; Forbes, Adam-Curtis, ve White, 2004; Karakurt ve Cumbie, 2012; Karakurt ve ark., 2013; Rojas-Solis ve Raimundez, 2011; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001). Cinsiyetçi inançlara sahip olmanın, toplumsal ve ebeveyne ilişkin değişkenler ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkilerdeki aracı rolü de alanyazınca desteklenmektedir (örn; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001).

Sonuç olarak, bu arařtırmada, flört iliřkisi olan üniversite öğrencileri arasında psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma davranışını anlamak için, Feminist Kuram'dan esinlenerek oluşturulan toplumsal deęişkenler (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallařması), Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı'nın varsayımlarından esinlenerek oluşturulan ebeveyne iliřkin algılanan deęişkenler (ana-baba arasındaki psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme) ve kiřisel biliřsel deęişkenler (psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul ve cinsiyetçi inançlar) harmanlanarak bir model tasarlanmıřtır (Şekil 1.1).

Psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma ve cinsiyet arasındaki iliřki karmařıktır. Örnekleme kadın ve erkek olarak ikiye ayırarak yapısal iliřkileri test eden çalışmalar beklenen yönde cinsiyet farklılıkları rapor etmektedir (Gormley ve Lopez, 2010; Gover, Kaukinen, ve Fox., 2008; Hammock ve O'Hearn, 2002; Sharpe ve Taylor, 1999). Bu çalışmada, yapısal iliřkilerde “gerçek” bir cinsiyet farkı olup olmadığını anlamak için, çok örneklemlili yapısal eşitlik modellemesi analizi seçilmiřtir (Byrne, 2004; Kline, 2005; Schumacker ve Lomax, 2004). Çok örneklemlili yapısal eşitlik modellemesinde, modeldeki yapısal iliřkilerin alt örneklemliler için (bu çalışmada kadın-erkek) farklılařıp farklılařmadığı alt örneklemlilerde eş zamanlı olarak deęerlendirilir ve bu řekilde örneklemin kadın ve erkek olarak ikiye bölünerek test edilmesinden doęan Tip I hatanın önüne geçilmesi amaçlanır.

Türkiye'de psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma konusunda yürütölen çalışmaların sayısı oldukça azdır ve bunların büyük bir çoęunluğu betimsel ve korelatif (iliřkisel) çalışmalardan oluřmaktadır. řimdiye kadar yapılan çalışmalarda psikolojik saldırganlığın güç algısı ve güç doyumunu (Hatipoęlu-Sümer ve Toplu, 2011; İnan-Arslan, 2002) ve psikolojik flört saldırganlığına yönelik tutumlarla (Yumuřak, 2013) iliřkisi arařtırılmıřtır. Psikolojik flört saldırganlığını deęerlendirmede kullanılabilecek ölçek ihtiyacını gidermek amacıyla ölçek uyarlama (Duygusal Taciz Ölçeęi, Karakurt, Ergüner-Tekinalp ve Terzi, 2009; Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeęi, Toplu-Demirtař ve Hatipoęlu-Sümer, 2013) ve ölçek geliřtirme (Romantik İliřkiyi Deęerlendirme Ölçeęi, Kılınçer ve Tuzgöl-Dost, 2013) çalışmaları gerçekteřirilmıřtir. Bunların yanı sıra, flört iliřkisi olan üniversite öğrencileri arasında psikolojik flört saldırganlığına başvurma davranışının sıklığına yönelik

çalışmalar da yapılmıştır (Toplu ve Hatipoğlu-Sümer, 2011; İnan-Arslan, 2002). İlgili alanyazında, herhangi bir kuramsal çerçeveye dayanan ve yapısal ilişkileri test eden bir çalışmaya ise henüz rastlanmamıştır.

## **1.2 Araştırmanın Amacı**

Bu çalışmanın amacı, flört ilişkisi olan üniversite öğrencileri arasında, kişisel bilişsel değişkenlerin (psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme ve cinsiyetçi inançlar) toplumsal (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) ve ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenler (anneden babaya ve babadan anneye psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme) ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmedeki rolünü incelemektir (Şekil 1.1). Bu amaç doğrultusunda, bu çalışmada, aşağıdaki sorulara yanıt aranmıştır.

1. Toplumsal (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması), ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan (anneden babaya ve babadan anneye psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme) ve kişisel bilişsel değişkenlerden (psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme ve cinsiyetçi inançlar) oluşturularak önerilen model flört ilişkisi olan üniversite öğrencileri arasında psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma davranışlarını ne ölçüde açıklamaktadır?

2. Önerilen model cinsiyete göre farklılaşmakta mıdır?

## **1.3 Araştırmanın Hipotezleri**

Yukarıda belirtilen amaç doğrultusunda aşağıdaki hipotezler test edilmiştir.

1. Toplumsal değişkenler (ataerkillik, cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasında bir ilişki vardır.

2. Toplumsal değişkenler ile kişisel bilişsel değişkenler (psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul, cinsiyetçi inançlar) arasında bir ilişki vardır.

3. Kişisel bilişsel değişkenler ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasında bir ilişki vardır.

4. Ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenler (ana baba arasındaki psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme) ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasında bir ilişki vardır.

5. Ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenler ile kişisel bilişsel değişkenler arasında bir ilişki vardır.

6 ve 8. Toplumsal değişkenler ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma, a. psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul ve b. cinsiyetçi inançlar aracılığı ile dolaylı olarak ilişkilidir.

7 ve 9. Ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenler ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma, a. psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul ve b. cinsiyetçi inançlar aracılığı ile dolaylı olarak ilişkilidir.

#### **1.4 Araştırmanın Önemi**

Psikolojik saldırganlık, dünyada fiziksel ve cinsel flört şiddetine kıyasla araştırmacıların ilgisini yeni yeni çekmeye başlamıştır ve bu durum psikolojik saldırganlığı kavramayı ve kuramsallaştırmayı geciktirmiştir. Feminist Kuram'dan alınan toplumsal ve Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı'ndan alınan ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan ve kişisel bilişsel değişkenler ile oluşturulan bu modelin test edilmesiyle elde edilen bulguların ulusal ve uluslararası alanyazına konunun kavramsallaştırılması ve kuramsallaştırılması açısından katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Toplulukçu ve ataerkilliğin egemen olduğu bir kültürde elde edilen bulgular, psikolojik flört saldırganlığını anlamada neyin kültüre özgü ya da evrensel olduğunu anlamaya da yardımcı olacaktır. Ayrıca, çalışmanın bulgularının, üniversite öğrencilerinde psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma davranışının engellenmesine ilişkin oluşturulacak farkındalık kazandırma gibi önleyici ya da müdahale edici/iyileştirici programlara ışık tutması beklenmektedir.

Türkiye’de psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma konusunda yapılan çalışmalar oldukça kısıtlıdır. Bunun nedenlerinden biri de geçerliği ve güvenilirliği kanıtlanmış ölçme araçlarının eksikliği olabilir. Bu çalışma kapsamında Çatışma Yöntemleri Ölçeği-Yetişkin Hatırlama Formu (Straus, Hamby, Finkelhor, Bonney-McCoy ve Sugarman, 1995) ve Yakın İlişkilerde Şiddete Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği-Gözden Geçirilmiş Formu (Fincham, Cui, Braithwaite ve Pasley, 2008) Türkçe’ye uyarlanmış ve psikometrik özellikleri değerlendirilmiştir. Ayrıca Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği’nin (Murphy ve Hoover, 1999) geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olduğu bir kez daha ortaya konmuştur. Tüm bu ölçeklerin bu alanda, bundan sonra başlayacak olan çalışmalara öncülük etmesi beklenmektedir. Dahası bu ölçekler kültürlerarası karşılaştırmalı çalışmalara da olanak sağlayacaktır.

Bu çalışmada çok örneklemlili Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli (YEM) analizi kullanılmıştır. Bu yöntemin, önerilen modelin kadın ve erkek örnekleminde ayrı ayrı test edilmesi yerine tek bir örnekleimde test edilmesine ve modelin cinsiyete göre değişkenlik gösterip göstermediğinin anlaşılmasına yardımcı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

## **2. YÖNTEM**

### **2.1 Araştırmanın Deseni**

Bu çalışmanın amacı, flört ilişkisi olan üniversite öğrencileri arasında, kişisel bilişsel değişkenlerin toplumsal ve ebeveynle ilişkin algılanan değişkenler ve psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmedeki rolünü incelemektir. Bu bağlamda bu araştırma ilişkisel bir araştırma desenine sahiptir (Fraenkel, Wallen ve Huyn, 2012).

### **2.2 Örneklem**

Bu araştırmanın örneklemini Ankara’daki dört devlet ve dört vakıf üniversitesinde lisans ve lisansüstü düzeyde eğitimlerini sürdüren, hâlihazırda bir flört ilişkisi olan,

1015 öğrenci oluşturmuştur. Örneklem, kolay ulaşılabirlik yöntemi ile seçilmiştir. Katılımcıların 706'sı (%69.9) kadın, 304'ü (%30.0) erkektir (Tablo 3.1). Katılımcıların yaşları 17 ile 35 yaş (*Ort.* = 13.03, *Ss* = .95) arasında değişmektedir. Eğitim düzeylerine göre dağılım incelendiğinde ise 702'sinin (%69.2) lisans ve 313'ünün (%30.8) lisansüstü öğrenci olduğu görülmektedir. Katılımcıların flört ilişkilerinin süresi, 1 ve 126 ay arasında değişmektedir (*Ort.* = 22.47, *Ss* = .22.81).

### 2.3 Veri Toplama Araçları

Bu çalışmada; Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği (ÇBDİÖ; Murphy ve Hoover, 1999), Ataerkillik Ölçeği (AÖ; Burt, 1980), Toplumsal Cinsiyet Oluşumu Ölçeği (TCOÖ; Epstein, 2008), Çatışma Yöntemleri Ölçeği-Yetişkin Hatırlama Formu (ÇYÖ-YHF; Straus ve ark., 1995), Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği (ÇDCÖ; Glick ve Fiske, 1996), Yakın İlişkilerde Şiddete Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği-Gözden Geçirilmiş Formu (YİŞTÖ-GG; Fincham ve ark., 2008) ve Katılımcı Bilgi Formu veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılmıştır.

#### 2.3.1 Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği (ÇBDİÖ)

Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği (Murphy ve Hoover, 1999) (ölçek için *bnkz* Ek A), flört ilişkisi olan bireyler arasındaki saldırganlığa başvurma davranışlarını belirlemek amacıyla kullanılan, her boyutu yedi maddeden oluşan, dört boyutlu (Kontrol, Aşağılama, Düşmanca Geri Çekilme, Gözdağı ) ve 28 maddelik, bir kendini değerlendirme ölçeğidir. Her bir madde "son 6 ay içinde" ölçekteki davranışların ne sıklıkta olduğunu ölçmeye çalışmaktadır. "1" son bir yıl içinde olayın sadece bir kere olduğunu, "2" iki kere, "3" üç-beş kere, "4" altı-on kere, "5" on bir-yirmi kere, "6" yirmi kereden fazla olduğunu, "7" son altı ay içerisinde olmadığını fakat ondan önce olduğunu, "0" ise hiç olmadığını belirtir. Katılımcıların ilgili alt ölçeklerden aldıkları yüksek puanlar psikolojik saldırganlık içeren davranışların fazlalığını gösterir.



Ölçek Toplu-Demirtaş ve Sümer-Hatipoğlu (2013) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanmış, psikometrik özellikleri incelemiştir. İlk bulgular ölçeğin flört ilişkisi olan üniversite öğrencilerinin psikolojik saldırganlık içeren davranışlarını ölçmede geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olduğuna dair kanıtlar sunmaktadır.

Ölçeğin bu çalışmada elde edilen iç tutarlık katsayıları Kontrol, Aşağılama, Düşmanca/Duygusal Geri Çekilme ve Gözdağı boyutları için sırasıyla .79, .83, .88, ve .81 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

### **2.3.2 Ataerkillik Ölçeği (AÖ)**

Ataerkillik Ölçeği (Burt, 1980) (ölçek için *bnz* Ek B), ataerkil düşünceleri ölçmek için geliştirilmiş, 9 maddelik, tek boyutlu bir kendini değerlendirme ölçeğidir. Katılımcılar, her bir maddenin kendi görüşlerini ne derecede yansıttığını kesinlikle katılmıyorum (1) ile kesinlikle katılıyorum (6) aralığında derecelendirilmiş, 6'lı Likert tipi ölçek üzerinden değerlendirmektedir. Ölçekten elde edilen puanların yüksek olması kişinin ataerkil düşüncelerinin fazlalığına işaret etmektedir.

Ölçeğin Türkçe uyarlaması Beydoğan (2001) tarafından gerçekleştirilmiş ve elde edilen bulgular ölçeğin Türkçe formunun, orijinal ölçeğin psikometrik özelliklerini taşıyan ve tek boyutlu, geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olduğunu göstermiştir.

Ölçeğin bu çalışmada elde edilen iç tutarlık katsayısı .83 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

### **2.3.3 Toplumsal Cinsiyet Oluşumu Ölçeği (TCOÖ)**

Toplumsal Cinsiyet Oluşumu Ölçeği (Epstein, 2008) (ölçek için *bnz* Ek C), insanların büyürken ailelerinden toplumsal cinsiyete ilişkin ne gibi mesajlar aldıklarını ölçmek için geliştirilmiş bir kendini değerlendirme ölçeğidir. Katılımcıların yanıtları 0'dan 4'e doğru derecelendirilmiş "hiç, çok az, biraz, çok" olarak tanımlanmış, 4'lü sıklık ölçeği ile ölçülmektedir Yüksek puanlar eşitlikçi ve/veya geleneksel rollere ilişkin mesajların daha fazla alındığını göstermektedir.

Ölçek Türkçe'ye Arıcı (2011) tarafından uyarlanmış ve geçerlik güvenirlik çalışmaları yine Arıcı (2011) tarafından gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu çalışmalar sonucunda ölçeğin 19 maddelik “Geleneksel Cinsiyet Roller (14 madde)” ve “Eşitlikçi Cinsiyet Roller (5 madde)” olmak üzere 2 boyutlu bir yapı gösterdiği sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Ölçeğin bu çalışmada elde edilen iç tutarlık katsayısı Geleneksel Cinsiyet Roller boyutu için .87 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

#### **2.3.4 Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği (ÇDCÖ)**

Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği (Glick ve Fiske, 1996) (ölçek için *bnz* Ek D), kadına ve erkeğe yönelik cinsiyetçi tutumları ölçmek için geliştirilmiş, her boyutu 11 maddeden oluşan, iki boyutlu (Korumacı Cinsiyetçilik ve Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik) ve 22 maddelik bir kendini değerlendirme ölçeğidir. Ölçekte her bir madde 1 = kesinlikle katılmıyorum'dan 6 = kesinlikle katılıyorum'a doğru derecelendirilmiş, 6'lı Likert tipi ölçek üzerinden puanlanmaktadır. Alt ölçeklerden alınan puanların yüksekliği, katılımcının korumacı ya da düşmanca cinsiyetçi tutumlarının da arttığını göstermektedir.

Ölçeğin Türkçe uyarlaması Sakallı-Uğurlu (2001) tarafından gerçekleştirilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular, ölçeğin Türkçe formunun, orijinal ölçeğin psikometrik özelliklerini taşıyan, benzer alt boyutları içeren, geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olduğunu göstermiştir.

Ölçeğin bu çalışmada elde edilen iç tutarlık katsayısı Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik alt boyutu için .90 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

### **2.3.5 Yakın İlişkilerde Şiddete Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği-Gözden Geçirilmiş Formu (YİŞTÖ-GG)**

Yakın İlişkilerde Şiddete Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği-Gözden Geçirilmiş Formu (Fincham ve ark., 2008) (ölçek için *bknz* Ek E), flört ilişkilerinde yaşanan psikolojik ve fiziksel şiddete yönelik üniversite öğrencilerinin tutumlarını ölçmek için geliştirilmiş, 3 boyuttan (İstismar-8 madde, Kontrol-5 madde ve Şiddet-4 madde) ve 17 maddeden oluşan bir kendini değerlendirme ölçeğidir. Ölçek, tutumları 1 = Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum'dan 5 = Kesinlikle Katılıyorum'a doğru derecelendirilmiş, 5'li Likert tipi ölçek ile ölçmektedir. Ölçekten alınan yüksek puanlar, psikolojik ve fiziksel saldırganlığa yönelik tutumların da arttığını ifade etmektedir.

Ölçeğin Türkçe'ye uyarlanması, geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması bu tez kapsamında yapılmıştır. Ölçeğin orijinal formundan farklı olarak İstismar boyutundaki bir madde Kontrol boyutuna yüklenmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular ölçeğin üniversite öğrencilerinin flört ilişkilerinde yaşanan psikolojik ve fiziksel şiddete yönelik tutumlarını ölçmede geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olduğuna dair kanıtlar sunmaktadır.

Ölçeğin bu çalışmada elde edilen iç tutarlık katsayısı İstismar alt boyutu için .64 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

### **2.3.6 Çatışma Yöntemleri Ölçeği- Yetişkin Hatırlama Formu (ÇYÖ-YHF)**

Çatışma Yöntemleri Ölçeği- Yetişkin Hatırlama Formu (Straus ve ark., 1995) (ölçek için *bknz* Ek F), bireylerin çocukluklarında ebeveynleri arasında yaşanan psikolojik saldırganlık davranışlarına ne ölçüde tanıklık ettiklerini ölçmek amacıyla geliştirilmiş bir kendini değerlendirme ölçeğidir. Ölçeğin "Psikolojik Saldırganlığı" ölçen alt boyutu 7 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Aynı maddeler babadan anneye ve anneden babaya olmak üzere iki kez sorulmaktadır. Ölçekteki maddeler, kişi "büyürken" belirtilen davranışların ne sıklıkta gözlemlendiğini ölçmeye çalışmaktadır. "1" büyüyen olayın sadece bir kere olduğunu, "2" iki kere, "3" üç-beş kere, "4" altı-on kere, "5" on bir-yirmi kere, "6" yirmi kereden fazla olduğunu, "0"

ise hiç olmadığını belirtir. Katılımcıların ilgili alt ölçekten aldıkları yüksek puanlar, anne-baba arasındaki saldırganlık içeren davranışlara tanıklık ettikleri durumların fazla olduğunu gösterir.

Ölçeğin maddeleri Turhan, Guraksın ve İnandı (2006) tarafından Türkçe'ye çevrilmiştir. Ancak, ölçeğin yukarıda ifade edilen biçimde kullanımı ve psikometrik özelliklerinin incelenmesi bu tez kapsamında gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Ölçeğin bu çalışmada elde edilen iç tutarlık katsayısı Psikolojik Saldırganlık alt boyutu için babadan anneye ve anneden babaya sırasıyla .86 ve .82 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

### **2.3.7 Katılımcı Bilgi Formu**

Katılımcı Bilgi Formu, katılımcıların kişisel, eğitimsel ve ilişkisel durumuna ilişkin demografik soruları içeren, araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanmış bir formdur (Form için *bkz* Ek G).

### **2.4 Veri Toplama Süreci ve İşlem**

Araştırmada öncelikle ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan ve eş zamanlı olarak diğer üniversitelerin etik kurullarından gerekli etik izinler alınmıştır. Uygulamalar 2013-2014 eğitim öğretim yılı bahar döneminde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ana çalışma için veriler sanal ortamda toplanmıştır.

Sanal ortamda veri toplama sürecinde ise birkaç farklı yol izlenmiştir. Çalışmada kullanılacak olan ölçekler, MetuSurvey kullanılarak, sanal ortama aktarılmıştır. Sanal ortama aktarıldığında elde edilen bağlantı (link), uygulama izni veren üniversitelerdeki öğrencilerin elektronik posta adreslerine bir açıklama yazısı ve gönüllü katılım formuyla birlikte gönderilmiştir. Açıklama yazısında, çalışmanın amacı ve katılım koşulları (18 yaşının üzerinde olmak, hâlihazırda bir flört ilişkisine sahip olmak, Ankara'daki bir üniversitede lisans ve lisansüstü öğrenci olmak ve

gönüllülük) yer almıştır. Gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul eden öğrenciler, ilgili bağlantıya yönlendirilmiş ve bilgilendirme formunu okuduklarını onayladıktan sonra anket maddelerini yanıtlamışlardır. Bu yöntem için izin vermeyen üniversitelerin öğrencilerine, üniversitelerin resmi ve resmi olmayan sosyal medya hesaplarından, kampüste öğrencilerin yoğun olarak buldukları noktalara üzerinde QR kodu bulunan el ilanlarından ve üniversitelerin resmi web sitelerindeki duyurulardan ulaşılmıştır. Ölçekleri yanıtlama süresi ortalama 18 dakika 59 saniyedir.

## **2.5 Veri Analizi**

Bu çalışmanın amacı üniversite öğrencilerinin flört ilişkilerinde psikolojik saldırganlık davranışlarını açıklamayı amaçlayan bir model geliştirmek ve modelin geçerliğini test etmektir. Bir diğer amaç ise önerilen modelin kadın erkek örnekleminde farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını araştırmaktır. Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda önerilen modeli test etmek için temel analiz metodu olarak AMOS paket programı kullanılarak, çok örneklemlili Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi (YEM) yapılmıştır.

## **2.6 Çalışmanın Sınırlılıkları**

Bu araştırmaya özgü bazı sınırlılıklar vardır. Bunlardan ilki, çalışmada tek bir kişiden (mono method bias; Heppner, Kivlighan ve Wampold, 1992), öz-bildirim ölçekleri kullanılarak veri toplanması ve katılımcılardan geçmişe yönelik bilgileri hatırlamalarının istenmesidir. Psikolojik saldırganlık araştırmalarında toplumsal beğenirlik yönünde cevap verme ve saldırganlık davranışlarını hatırlamama riskleri olasıdır. Bir diğer sınırlılık ise, bu çalışmanın katılımcılarının, Ankara'daki üniversitelerin lisans ve lisansüstü öğrencileri arasından, kolay örnekleme yöntemiyle seçilmesidir. Bundan dolayı, çalışma bulgularının üniversite eğitimlerine devam eden lisans ve lisansüstü öğrencilerine genellenip genellenemeyeceği açık değildir. Son olarak, ilişki odaklı araştırmalara katılım konusunda kadınların daha istekli olması, örnekleme cinsiyet yanlılığına neden olmuş olabilir. Zira bu çalışmanın katılımcılarının % 70'i kadın, % 30'u ise erkektir.

### 3. BULGULAR

YEM analizinin çalışma verilerine uygunluğunu değerlendirmek için kullanılan model uyum iyiliği indeksleri Tablo 3.5 ve Tablo 3.6'da verilmiştir. Çok örneklemlili yapısal eşitlik modellemesi sonuçları (Tablo 4.8), önerilen modelin cinsiyete göre değişmediğini göstermiştir ve model tek bir örnekleme test edilmiştir.

Tek örneklemlili YEM analizi sonuçları modelin veriye uyum sağladığını ve uyum iyiliği indekslerinin kabul edilebilir düzeyde olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Modelin kare/serbestlik derecesi oranı 3.31, CFI ve TLI değerleri .94, SRMR değeri .04 ve RMSEA değeri .05 olarak bulunmuştur.

Modelde önerilen doğrudan ve dolaylı yolların anlamlılığını değerlendirmek için, bootstrapping metodu ile elde edilmiş standardize edilmiş beta yükleri ( $\beta$ ) kullanılmıştır. Beta yüklerine göre, önerilen 14 doğrudan yolun 10 tanesi istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmuştur (Şekil 4.4). Anlamlı yollar arasındaki en yüksek ilişki ataerkillik ile cinsiyetçi inançlar arasında (.67), en düşük ilişki ise cinsiyet toplumsallaşması ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındadır (.11).

Ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşmasından psikolojik flört saldırganlığını kabul ve cinsiyetçi inançlar ve psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurmaya giden tüm yollar olumlu yönde anlamlıdır. Psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul ve cinsiyetçi inançlardan psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurmaya giden yollardan ilki olumlu, ikincisi ise olumsuz yönde anlamlıdır. Psikolojik şiddeti kabul, toplumsal değişkenler ile (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) psikolojik saldırganlık arasındaki ilişkilere kısmi olarak aracılık etmiştir. Psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul, ebeveyne ilişkin değişkenlerden sadece anneden babaya psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme ile psikolojik saldırganlık arasındaki ilişkide bir ara değişken görevi görmektedir. Diğer aracı değişken olan cinsiyetçi inançların, toplumsal ve ebeveyne ilişkin değişkenler ile psikolojik saldırganlık arasındaki ilişkide herhangi bir dolaylı etkisi yoktur (Tablo. 4.14).

Babadan anneye psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme, psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma üzerinde toplam bir etkiye de sahip değildir. Bu değişken doğrudan, dolaylı ve toplam olarak herhangi bir etkiye sahip değildir. Bunun dışındaki dışsal değişkenlerin psikolojik saldırganlık üzerindeki toplam etkileri ise anlamlıdır (Tablo 4.14).

Tablo 4.12’de gösterilen  $R^2$  sonuçları ve regresyon eşitliklerine göre ataerkillik, toplumsal cinsiyet toplumsallaşması ve anneden babaya psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme, psikolojik flört saldırganlığını kabul etme, cinsiyetçi inançlara ilişkin varyansın sırasıyla %18’ini ve %49’unu ve bu değişkenler hep birlikte psikolojik flört saldırganlığına başvurmaya ilişkin toplam varyansın %31’ini açıklamıştır.

## **4. TARTIŞMA**

### **4.1 Araştırma Bulgularının Tartışılması**

Bu çalışmanın amacı, flört ilişkisi olan üniversite öğrencileri arasında, kişisel bilişsel değişkenlerin (psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme ve cinsiyetçi inançlar) toplumsal (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) ve ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenler (ana-baba arasındaki psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme) ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmedeki rolünü incelemektir. Bu bağlamda kuramsal çerçeve olarak Feminist Kuram ve Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı temel alınarak bir model oluşturulmuştur (Şekil 1.1) ve bu modelin cinsiyete göre farklılaşp farklılaşmadığı çok örneklemlili YEM kullanılarak test edilmiştir.

#### **4.1.1 Cinsiyet ve Modele İlişkin Tartışma**

Analiz sonuçları modelin cinsiyete göre farklılaşmadığını göstermiştir. Bu bulgu, modelin kadın-erkek örnekleminde ayrı ayrı test edildiği çalışmaların bulgularıyla tutarlı değildir (Karakurt ve ark.,2013; Karakurt ve Cumbie; 2012); ancak, tek bir örnekleminde test eden çalışmaların bulgularıyla tutarlıdır (Cui ve ark., 2010; Dye ve Davis, 2003). Ayrıca, cinsiyet farkı bulunmaması, Johnson’ın (1995) ileri sürdüğü

tipolojiyle de uyumludur. Tipolojiye göre klinik olmayan örneklerde (üniversite öğrencileri gibi) saldırganlık davranışları (psikolojik saldırganlık dâhil), eşler arasında karşılıklıdır (cinsiyet farkı yoktur), yaygındır fakat daha küçük çaplıdır. Johnson'ın (1995) tipolojisi ve daha güçlü bir istatistiksel analiz olan çok örneklemli YEM sonuçları birlikte düşünüldüğünde cinsiyet farkının bulunmaması anlamlı bir bulgudur.

Tek bir örnekte gerçekleştirilen YEM bulguları, Feminist Kuram ve Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı temel alınarak önerilen psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma modelinin, flört ilişkisi olan üniversite öğrencileri örnekleminde elde edilen verilerle desteklendiğini göstermektedir. Modelde önerilen 14 yoldan 10'u anlamlıdır. Babadan anneye psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etmeden psikolojik saldırganlığı kabule, cinsiyetçi inançlara ve psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurmaya giden tüm yollar istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Bir diğer istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmayan yol ise, anneden babaya psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etmeden cinsiyetçi inançlara giden yoldur. Önerilen 8 dolaylı ilişkiden 3'ü anlamlıdır. Psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme, ataerkillik, cinsiyet toplumsallaşması ve anneden babaya psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmiştir. Model psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma'nın %31'ini açıklamaktadır.

#### **4.1.2 Hipotezlere İlişkin Tartışma**

Bu çalışmanın bulguları, üniversite öğrencileri arasında psikolojik flört saldırganlığına başvurma ile toplumsal değişkenler (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) arasında olumlu yönde ve doğrudan ilişkiler olduğunu göstermiştir (Hipotez 1) ve bu bulgu genel olarak alanyazınla tutarlıdır (Dye ve Davis, 2003; Follingstad ve ark., 2002; Hammock ve O'Hearn, 2002; Karakurt ve Cumbie; 2012; Hatipoğlu-Sümer ve Toplu, 2011). Bu bulgu, psikolojik saldırganlığın, toplumun düşünce sisteminin bir yansıması olarak ataerkillikten ve büyürken ana babadan alınan cinsiyetçi iletilerden etkilendiğini göstermektedir.



Toplumsal deęişkenler (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) aynı zamanda kişisel deęişkenlerle de (psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul ve cinsiyetçi inançlar) olumlu yönde ve doğrudan ilişkilidir (Hipotez 2). Alanyazınla paralel olarak, bu çalışmanın bulguları da, toplumsal ataerkillikten etkilenen daha geleneksel bireylerin psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etmeye (Capezza ve Arriaga, 2008) ve daha cinsiyetçi inançlar sergilemeye yatkın olduklarını ortaya koymaktadır (Forbes ve ark., 2004; Franchina ve ark., 2001; Karakurt ve ark., 2013; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001). Ayrıca, bu bulgu, hem bireysel hem de toplulukçu kültürlerdeki çalışmalarla tutarlık göstermektedir (Yamawaki, Ostenson ve Brown, 2009; Sakallı, 2001).

Kişisel deęişkenler ile (psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul ve cinsiyetçi inançlar) psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkiler de modelde önerildięi gibi anlamlıdır (Hipotez 3). Psikolojik saldırganlığı destekleyen düşüncelere sahip üniversite öğrencileri psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurmaya daha eğilimlidir ve bu bulgu alanyazın tarafından da büyük ölçüde desteklenmektedir (Aloia ve Solomon, 2013; Capezza ve Arriaga, 2008; Fincham ve ark., 2008; Forbes ve ark., 2006; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001). Ancak, ilginçtir ki, bu çalışmada cinsiyetçi inançlar ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişki olumsuz yönde bulunmuştur. Bir başka deęişle, daha cinsiyetçi inançlara sahip üniversite öğrencileri daha az saldırganlık davranışı göstermektedir ve genel olarak bu bulgu alanyazınla çelişmektedir (Forbes ve ark., 2004; Forbes ve ark., 2006; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001; Rojas-Solis ve Raimundez, 2011). Burada toplumsal (ya da ebeveyne ilişkin) deęişkenlerden biri, cinsiyetçi inançlar ile psikolojik saldırganlık arasındaki ilişkide baskılayıcı (suppressor) deęişken işlevi görerek, aslında var olan bir ilişkiyi maskeleyebilir. Bu çalışmada cinsiyetçi inançlar “Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik” ölçeęi ile ölçülmüştür ve bu denli düşmanca cinsiyetçi inançlara sahip bireyler psikolojik saldırganlık yerine örneğin fiziksel saldırganlığa başvuruyor ya da psikolojik saldırganlığı önemsiz algıladıkları (Yamawaki ve ark., 2009) için daha az rapor ediyor olabilirler.

Ebeveyne ilişkin deęişkenlerden babadan anneye psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişki istatistiksel olarak

anlamsız, anneden babaya psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişki anlamlı ve olumlu yönde bulunmuştur (Hipotez 4). Literatürde bu bulguları destekleyen ve desteklemeyen çalışmalar vardır. İlginç olan, iki bulgu arasındaki farklılıktır. Bu farklılığın birkaç nedeni olabilir. İlki, psikolojik saldırganlığa kadınların başvurduğu genel algısı olabilir (Williams, South-Richardson, Hammock ve Janit, 2012). Hipotez 5'in bulguları ile birlikte düşünüldüğünde ise bir diğer neden, anneden babaya saldırganlığın kabul edilebilir olduğu algısıdır ve bu algı davranışa dönüşüyor olarak görülmektedir. Nedeni ne olursa olsun, ana-baba arasındaki saldırganlığa tanıklık etmenin psikolojik saldırganlıkla ilişkisi, baba ve anne için değişkenlik göstermektedir.

Benzer şekilde, ebeveyne ilişkin değişkenler ile kişisel değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler de farklılık göstermektedir (Hipotez 5). Babadan anneye psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme ile kişisel değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Anneden babaya psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme ile psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul arasındaki ilişki anlamlı, cinsiyetçi inançlar arasındaki ilişki anlamsızdır. Literatür de bu ilişkiler konusunda net değildir. Ancak, bu çalışmanın bulguları, psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul konusunda babadan ziyade annenin etkisine işaret etmektedir. Türk kültüründe çocuk bakımı konusunda annenin ağırlığı ve anne-çocuk arasındaki yoğun ve güçlü ilişki (Hortaçsu, 2015) bu sonucun nedeni olarak öne sürülebilir. Bu ilişki, kadınların psikolojik saldırganlık gösterebileceği algısı ile birleşince, saldırganlığı olumluyor olabilir. Cinsiyetçi inançlar konusunda ise, literatür, ebeveynlerden çok akranlara dikkat çekmektedir (Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001).

Kişisel değişkenlerden psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme, toplumsal (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) değişkenler ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkiye kısmi olarak aracılık etmiştir (Hipotez 6). Alanyazında bu ilişkiyi inceleyen bir çalışmaya henüz rastlanmamıştır. Ancak, bu bulgu, Feminist Kuram'ın ataerkil bir toplumda doğan ve önceden belirlenmiş cinsiyet rollerine göre yetiştirilen bireylerin ilişkilerde şiddeti kabul etmeye yönelik düşünceler geliştirmeye yatkın olduğu, bunun da kişinin şiddete başvurmasına neden olduğu varsayımı ile paraleldir

(Dobash ve Dobash, 1979 ) ve bu varsayımı toplulukçu bir kültürde de destekler niteliktedir.

Kişisel değişkenlerden psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme, ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenlerden anneden babaya psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkiye kısmi olarak aracılık etmiştir (Hipotez 7). Bu bulgu -tanıklığı ebeveynler arası olarak ayırmadan incelese de- büyük oranda alanyazınla tutarlıdır (Aloia ve Solomon, 2013; Alexander ve ark., 1991; Clarey ve ark., 2010; O’Hearn ve Margolin, 2000; O’Keefe, 1998; Reitzel-Jaffe ve Wolfe, 2001). Ancak, babadan anneye olan tanıklık için aracılık etkisi bulunmamıştır. Bu bulgu, aynı zamanda, Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı’nın anne-baba arasındaki psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etmenin, psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme riskini arttırdığı, bunun da kişilerin kendi ilişkilerinde saldırganlığa başvurmalarına yol açtığı varsayımı ise paraleldir (Bandura, 1793) ve varsayımı toplulukçu bir kültürde de anne üzerinden destekler niteliktedir.

Psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etmenin aksine cinsiyetçi inançlar, toplumsal (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) değişkenler ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkilere aracılık etmemiştir (Hipotez 8). Araştırmacı, alanyazında doğrudan bu ilişkiyi inceleyen bir çalışmaya rastlamamıştır. Kullanılan ölçek (Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik) ilişkisizliğe dair bir neden olabilir. Ölçek, bu çalışmada, kişisel bilişsel bir değişkeni ölçme amacıyla kullanılmıştır. Ancak, Forbes ve ark. (2004) bu ölçeğin, sadece “bilişsel şemaları” değil “duyuşsal yapıları” da ölçtüğünü, bu durumun sonuçları yorumlamada karışıklığa neden olabileceğini öne sürmektedir (s. 252). Bir diğer neden de –bu çalışmada olduğu gibi- böyle bir aracı değişken ilişkisinin olmama durumu olabilir.

Kişisel değişkenlerden cinsiyetçi inançlar ise, ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenler (anne-baba arasındaki psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etme) ile psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmemiştir (Hipotez 9) ve bu bulgu -kısıtlı da olsa- mevcut alanyazınla tutarlıdır (Karakurt ve ark., 2013; Eriksson ve Mazerolle, 2015). Bunun nedeni daha önce tartışılan ölçeğin bilişsel ve duyuşsal

yapıları ayırt edememesi, cinsiyetçi inançları ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenlerden ziyade akran ilişkilerinin anlamlandırması, ya da böyle dolaylı bir etkinin var olmaması olabilir.

#### **4.2 Kuram, Araştırma ve Uygulamaya Yönelik Çıkarımlar**

Teorik açıdan, bu çalışmanın bulguları, psikolojik saldırganlığın tek boyutlu değil, Murphy ve Hoover'in (1999) öne sürdüğü gibi, birbiriyle ilişkili fakat farklı yapılardan oluşan çok boyutlu bir kavram olduğunu bir kez daha ortaya koymuştur. Bu bulgu, Amerika (Murphy ve Hoover, 1999) ve İtalya'dan (Bonechi ve Tani, 2011) sonra, psikolojik saldırganlığın çok boyutluluğunun kültüre özgü olmaktan çok, evrensel olduğunu doğrular niteliktedir.

Bu çalışmada Feminist Kuram ve Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı'ndan alınan değişkenlerin entegre edilmesiyle önerilen psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma modeli test edilmiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları, Feminist Kuram'ın önerdiği gibi, toplumsal değişkenlerin (ataerkillik ve cinsiyet toplumsallaşması) psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma ile doğrudan ve kişisel bilişsel bir değişken olan psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul üzerinden dolaylı olarak ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Benzer bir şekilde bulgular, Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı'nın önerdiği gibi, ebeveyne ilişkin algılanan değişkenlerden anneden babaya psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etmenin, psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma ile doğrudan ve psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul üzerinden dolaylı olarak ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Elde edilen bu bulgular, genel olarak, ilgili kuramların psikolojik saldırganlığın nedenlerine yönelik varsayımlarını toplulukçu bir kültürde de destekler niteliktedir.

Araştırma açısından da bu çalışma bazı önemli çıkarımlar içermektedir. Psikolojik saldırganlık, fiziksel ve cinsel flört şiddetine kıyasla daha geç araştırılmaya başlanan bir konu olduğu için, konu üzerine yapılan bilimsel araştırmalar daha azdır. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmanın bulguları, psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma davranışının farklı değişkenlerle olan ilişkisi ve bu değişkenlerin psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma davranışını yordaması ile ilgili önemli ampirik bulgular ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Sonuçlar, ataerkilliğin, cinsiyet toplumsallaşmasının, anneden babaya psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etmenin, psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma üzerinden doğrudan ve psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme üzerinden dolaylı olarak etkilediğini ve bu bulguların cinsiyete göre farklılaşmadığını göstermiştir. Psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma davranışını etkileyen en güçlü değişken ise psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etmedir. Bir diğer ilginç bulgu, babadan anneye psikolojik saldırganlığa tanıklık etmenin doğrudan, dolaylı olarak ve toplamda psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma davranışı üzerinde hiçbir etkisinin olmamasıdır.

Türkiye’de ise psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma konusu henüz yeni yeni araştırmacıların ilgisi çekmeye başlamıştır ve konu ile ilgili bilimsel çalışmalar oldukça azdır. Bu nedenle, Türk kültüründe psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma kavramını tanıtmak ve konu ile ilgili araştırma yapmak oldukça gerekli ve önemli bir adımdır. Bu nedenle, bu araştırmanın, Türk kültüründe psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma araştırmalarına öncü olması umulmaktadır. Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği’nin bir kez da geçerliğin ortaya konmasının ve Çatışma Yöntemleri Ölçeği-Yetişkin Hatırlama Formu ve Yakın İlişkilerde Şiddete Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği-Gözden Geçirilmiş Formu’nun Türkçe’ye çevrilmesinin süreci hızlandıracağı varsayılmaktadır.

Yukarıda belirtilen bulguların, program geliştiricilere, üniversite psikolojik danışmanlarına, psikolojik danışman yetiştiren akademisyenlere, üniversite yöneticilerine ve politika belirleyicilere uygulamalarında ışık tutması beklenmektedir. Bu kısımda sadece program geliştiricilere ve üniversite psikolojik danışmanlarına yönelik çıkarımlar vurgulanmıştır.

Bu çalışmanın bulgularının üniversite öğrencilerine yönelik hazırlanacak önleyici ve iyileştirici programların içeriğinin belirlenmesi konusunda program geliştiricilere önemli katkılar sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Toplumdaki ataerkilliğin ve büyürken aileden alınan cinsiyetçi mesajların ve annenin babaya uyguladığı psikolojik saldırganlığa maruz kalmanın bireydeki yansıması olarak psikolojik saldırganlığı destekleyici düşünceleri -ve hayli ilişkili- cinsiyetçi düşünceleri değiştirecek içerikte

hazırlanacak programların, bu çalışmada elde edilen risk faktörlerine karşı önleyici ve iyileştirici bir etki yaratacağı düşünülmektedir.

Üniversite öğrencilerine yönelik hazırlanacak, özellikle, müdahale edici programların içeriğinin belirlenmesi konusunda da çalışmanın bulgularından yararlanılabilir. Müdahale edici programlarda yalnızca üniversite öğrencilerinin değil, ebeveynlerinin de yer almasının faydalı olacağı düşünülmektedir. Bu programlarda ebeveynlere, birbirlerine karşı gösterdikleri psikolojik saldırganlık içeren davranışlara çocuklarının maruz kalmasının çocukları üzerindeki olumsuz etkiye yol açtığı vurgulanmalıdır.

Bu çalışmada modelin cinsiyete göre farklılaşmadığı bulunmuştur ve bulgu psikolojik flört saldırganlığı alanyazınınca da desteklenmektedir. Program geliştiriciler ve psikolojik danışmanlar, uygulanacak önleyici ve müdahale edici programlarda kadın ve erkek öğrencileri birlikte, tek bir hedef kitle olarak düşünebilirler.

Üniversite öğrencilerinin flört ilişkisinde yaşanan psikolojik saldırganlığı önemsiz olarak algıladıkları ve bunu kabul etmeye yatkınlıkları bilinmektedir (Capezza ve Arriaga, 2008; Williams ve ark., 2008). Bu durum, üniversite psikolojik danışma merkezlerinde çalışan psikolojik danışmanların konuya ilişkin yeterli bilgisinin ve farkındalığının olmaması ile birleşince, psikolojik saldırganlık, psikolojik danışma sürecinde ele alınmamış, konuşulmamış ve üstü kapalı kalmış bir konu olarak kalmaktadır. Bu nedenle, psikolojik danışmanların psikolojik flört saldırganlığı, nedenleri ve sonuçları konusunda farkındalık kazanması oldukça önemlidir. Psikolojik danışmanların, kazanılan farkındalıkla, bireyi tanıma amaçlı yapılan ilk görüşmede psikolojik saldırganlığa yönelik de bilgi almasının ve bunun rutin hale getirilmesinin yararlı olacağı düşünülmektedir. Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği de bu amaçla kullanılabilir.

Müdahale aşamasında, durumun ciddiyetini ve risk faktörlerini keşfetmeye yönelik görüşme yapılması önerilmektedir. Bu görüşmelerde, içine doğulan ataerkil

toplumun kişideki yansımaları, çocuklukta ebeveynlerden alınan cinsiyetçi mesajlar, annenin babaya uyguladığı psikolojik saldırganlığa çocukluk döneminde maruz kalma, kişinin psikolojik saldırganlığı kabul etme yönündeki eğilimi ve bunun da psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma eğilimi ile ilişkisi konuşulabilir. Psikolojik şiddete başvuranlar için destek grupları oluşturulabilir.

Önleyici ve iyileştirici olarak psikoeğitim gruplarından yararlanılabilir ve bu gruplarda flört ilişkisine dair beklentiler ve mitler, cinsiyet rolleri, cinsiyetçi ve psikolojik saldırganlığı destekleyici düşüncelerin sorgulanması içerik olarak düşünülebilir.

#### **4.3 Gelecekteki Araştırmalar için Öneriler**

Türkiye’de psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma konusunda kuramsal temellere dayanan, sistematik çalışmalara gereksinim duyulmaktadır. Bu çalışma, psikolojik saldırganlığı, Feminist ve Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı değişkenleri çerçevesinde incelemiştir. Bunun yapılan ilk çalışma olduğu göz önünde bulundurularak, bu ve farklı kuramsal yaklaşımlar kullanılarak psikolojik saldırganlığın incelenmesinin, psikolojik saldırganlığı anlamak açısından aydınlatıcı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Bu çalışmada toplumsal ve ebeveyne ilişkin sadece ikişer değişken dâhil edilmiştir. Gelecekteki araştırmalarda güç, kontrol, tahakküm gibi toplumsal, büyürken ebeveynden çocuğa psikolojik saldırganlığı deneyimleme gibi ebeveyne ilişkin başka değişkenlerin de dâhil edilmesinin, psikolojik flört saldırganlığı davranışının anlaşılmasında yararlı olacağı düşünülmektedir. Ebeveyne ilişkin değişkenler bu çalışmadaki gibi anne ve baba olarak ayrı ayrı incelenebilir. Psikolojik saldırganlığa yönelik niyet ve psikolojik saldırganlığı meşrulaştırma gibi değişkenler de kişisel bilişsel değişkenler adı altında incelenebilir.

Toplumsal, ebeveyne ilişkin ve kişisel bilişsel değişkenler dışında, farklı kuramsal çerçevelerden demografik (ilişkinin süresi ve ciddiyeti), ilişkisel (bağlılık, doyum), kişisel (psikolojik saldırganlığı meşrulaştırma gibi bilişsel ve öfke kontrolü, duygu

düzenleme gibi davranışsal), içsel (bağlanma), kişilerarası (akran etkisi) ve durumsal (madde/alkol kullanımı) birçok değişkenin, psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma ile ilişkisinin incelenmesinin yararlı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Bu çalışmada, flört ilişkisindeki tek partnerden öz-bildirim yolu ile veri toplanmıştır. Gelecekteki çalışmalarda, diğer partnerden de veri toplanmasının, sosyal beğenirlik ve veri toplama tekli yöntem yanlılığını azaltmak açısından daha sağlıklı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Psikolojik saldırganlığa başvurma ve cinsiyet ilişkisi oldukça karmaşıktır. YEM analizlerinde modellerin kadın-erkek örnekleminde test edilmesi bu karmaşıklığı daha da arttırmaktadır. Cinsiyet farkı olup olmadığını test etmek için bundan sonraki araştırmalarda da çok örneklemlili YEM analizlerinin kullanılması önerilmektedir.

Bu araştırmanın örneklemini, kolay ulaşılabilirlik yöntemi ile seçilen, Ankara'daki devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerinde eğitim gören ve bir flört ilişkisi olan lisans ve lisansüstü öğrenciler oluşturmuştur. Sonuçların genellenebilirliğini arttırmak açısından bundan sonraki çalışmalarda, seçkisiz örnekleme yönteminin kullanılmasının ve farklı örneklemlerle bu ilişkilerin tekrarlanmasının yararlı olacağı düşünülmektedir. Üniversite eğitimi almayan benzer yaş grubundaki bireylerle çalışmalar uluslararası alanyazında da oldukça sınırlıdır. Bu yaş grubuyla gerçekleştirilecek çalışmalar özellikle önerilmektedir. Boylamsal araştırmalar da çalışmanın değişkenleri arasında neden-sonuç ilişkilerinin kurulabilmesine katkı sağlayacaktır.



## Appendix P: Curriculum Vitae

### PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Toplu Demirtaş, Ezgi  
Nationality: Turkish (TC)  
Date and Place of Birth: 26 June 1982, Akhisar  
Marital Status: Married  
Phone: +90 312 210 4046  
Fax: +90 312 210 7967  
email: [ezgi@metu.edu.tr](mailto:ezgi@metu.edu.tr); ezgitoplu@hotmail.com

### EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
PhD	METU, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Ankara	2015
BS	Ege University, Classroom Teaching, İzmir	2005
High School	Suphi Koyuncuoğlu High School, İzmir	2000

### WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2005- Present	METU, Educational Sciences	Research Assistant

### RELATED TO PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2011-2012	University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Department of Psychology, NC, USA	Visiting Scholar

### FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English

### PUBLICATIONS

1. Toplu-Demirtaş, E., Dolunay-Cug, F., & Tezer, E. (2014). Aldatmaya yönelik tutum ölçeği'nin Türkçe uyarlaması: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışmaları. *Türk Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi*, 5(42), 184-194.

2. Toplu-Demirtaş, E., Hatipoğlu-Sümer, Z., & White, J. W. (2013). The relation between dating violence victimization and commitment among Turkish college women: Does the Investment Model matter? *International Journal of Conflict and Violence*, 7(2), 203-215.
3. Toplu-Demirtaş, E., & Tezer, E. (2013). Aldatmaya yönelik niyet ölçeği'nin Türkçe uyarlaması: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışmaları. *Türk Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi*, 4(39), 37-45.

## **PRESENTATIONS**

1. Toplu-Demirtaş, E., & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, Z. (September, 2013). *Psychometric properties of the Turkish adaptation of multidimensional measure of emotional abuse (MMEA) scale*. Paper presented at the meeting of İstanbul 2013 World Congress of Psychological Counseling and Guidance. Boğaziçi University, İstanbul.
2. Toplu-Demirtaş, E., & Tezer, E. (September, 2013). *Attitudes toward infidelity: Gender differences in emotional versus sexual infidelity*. Paper presented at the meeting of İstanbul 2013 World Congress of Psychological Counseling and Guidance. Boğaziçi University, İstanbul.
3. Abbey, A., Bazon, M., Cook, S. L., D'Abre, L., Krahe, B., Kuyper, L., Tomaszewska-Jedrysiak, P., Toplu-Demirtaş, E. (2012, July). Predicting sexual victimization among Turkish college women using the Investment Model. In White, J. (Chair), *In search of cultural similarities and differences in sexual victimization risk factors*. Symposium conducted at the meeting of XXth ISRA World Meeting 2012, Luxembourg.
4. Toplu, E., & White, J. (2012, February). *Women's patterns of inter-partner violence and gendered attributes in adolescence*. Poster presented at the 58th Annual Meeting of the Southeastern Psychological Association (SEPA) 2012, New Orleans, Louisiana, USA

5. Hatipoğlu-Sümer, Z., & Toplu, E. (2011, September). *Relational predictors of dating violence among university students*. Paper presented at the meeting of the European Conference on Educational Research 2011, Berlin, Germany.

Capa-Aydin, Y., Aksoz, I., Gelmez-Burakgazi, S., & Toplu, E. (2011, September). *Exploring the predictors of doctoral students' academic satisfaction*. Paper presented at the meeting of the European Conference on Educational Research 2011, Berlin, Germany.

6. Hatipoğlu-Sümer, Z., & Toplu, E. (2011, October). *Flört ilişkisinde şiddete maruz kalma ve şiddet uygulama: Güç algısı ve güç doyumunun rolü (Dating Violence Victimization and Perpetration: the Role of Power Perception and Power Satisfaction)*. Paper presented at the meeting of the XI. Ulusal Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Kongresi (XI. National Congress of Counseling and Guidance, 2011, Izmir, Turkey).

7. Toplu, E., & Hatipoğlu-Sümer, Z. (2011, October). *Flört ilişkisinde şiddetin yaygınlığı ve türleri (Prevalence and Types of Dating Violence)*. Paper presented at the meeting of the XI. Ulusal Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Kongresi (XI. National Congress of Counseling and Guidance, 2011, Izmir, Turkey).

8. Toplu, E., Erdur-Baker, O. (2009, July). *The traditional ways of coping with postnatal psychological symptoms: A qualitative study*. Paper presented at the meeting of the 11th European Congress of Psychology, Oslo, Norway.

## **RESEARCH PROJECTS**

1. Project Name: Dating Violence: Prevalence, Types, and Predictors among University Students (Flört İlişkisinde Şiddet: Üniversite Öğrencileri Arasında Yaygınlığı, Türleri ve Yordayıcıları)

Project Coordinator: Assist. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer

Project Duty: Researcher

Financial Supporter: Middle East Technical University – Scientific Research Projects  
(ODTU – BAP)

2. Project Name: Çok Boyutlu Duygusal İstismar Ölçeği'nin Uyarlanması ve  
Psikometrik Özelliklerinin İncelenmesi

Project Coordinator: Assist. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoglu Sumer

Project Duty: Researcher

Financial Supporter: Middle East Technical University – Scientific Research Projects  
(ODTU – BAP)

## **HOBBIES**

Reading, watching movies (award winning festival movies), football, outdoor activities (trekking, biking), traveling, windows shopping, home decorating, chapulling.

## Appendix R: Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu

### ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü

Enformatik Enstitüsü

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

### YAZARIN

Soyadı : TOPLU DEMİRTAŞ

Adı : EZGİ

Bölümü : EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ

**TEZİN ADI** (İngilizce) : PSYCHOLOGICAL AGGRESSION PERPETRATION AMONG DATING COLLEGE STUDENTS: THE INTERPLAY OF SOCIETAL, PARENTAL AND PERSONAL FACTORS

**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 veya elektronik kopyası kütüphane aracılığıyla ODTÜ dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.)
3. Tezim bir (1) yıl süreyle erişime kapalı olsun. (Bu seçenekle tezinizin fotokopisi veya elektronik kopyası kütüphane aracılığıyla ODTÜ  dışına dağıtılmayacaktır.)

Yazarın İmzası .....

Tarih .....