



ÇANKAYA UNIVERSITY

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

**DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
MASTER'S THESIS**

**RELATIONSHIPS OF CHILD EXPOSURE TO DOMESTIC
VIOLENCE WITH BULLYING, SILENCING THE SELF BEHAVIORS,
RESILIENCE AND SELF-EFFICACY: MODERATING ROLES OF
STRESS COPING STRATEGIES AND FRIENDSHIP QUALITY**

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ABSTRACT

RELATIONSHIPS OF CHILD EXPOSURE TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE WITH BULLYING, SILENCING THE SELF BEHAVIORS, RESILIENCE AND SELF-EFFICACY: MODERATING ROLES OF STRESS COPING STRATEGIES AND FRIENDSHIP QUALITY

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Children have been exposed to domestic violence all over the world and the number of children being victimized continues to increase. Previous studies investigated the associations of child exposure to domestic violence (CEDV) with externalizing and internalizing behaviors. However, to our knowledge, no studies up to now has examined the effects of CEDV on externalizing and internalizing symptoms as well as on resilience in a comprehensive study and moderating processes involved in these relationships were ignored. In order to fill this void, the present study aimed to investigate the relationships of CEDV with (1) bullying, (2) silencing the self behaviors (STS), (3) resilience and (4) self efficacy within the frameworks of Social Learning Theory, Attachment Theory, and Silencing the Self Theory. In addition, moderating effects of friendship quality and stress-coping strategies in the relationships of CEDV with bullying, STS, resilience and self-efficacy were examined. Data was collected from 569 high school students whose ages ranged between 14 and 17. The results showed that, CEDV as well as the subdimensions of CEDV were positively correlated with bullying and STS and they were negatively correlated with resilience, overall self-efficacy, and with the subdimensions of academic and emotional self-efficacy. In addition, the results of the moderation analyses showed that, optimistic style and seeking social support

moderated the relationship between CEDV and resilience. Also, self-confident style, seeking social support and optimistic style moderated the associations between CEDV and self-efficacy. Finally, friendship quality moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy. These results suggest that moderating variables can provide buffering effects that may weaken the negative effects of CEDV on adolescents. Findings are discussed in terms of theoretical and practical contributions as well as directions for future research.

Keywords: Child exposure to domestic violence; bullying; silencing the self behaviors; self-efficacy; friendship quality; stress coping strategies.



ÖZET

AİLE İÇİ ŞİDDETE MARUZ KALMA İLE ZORBALIK, KENDİNİ SUSTURMA DAVRANIŞI, PSİKOLOJİK SAĞLAMLIK VE ÖZ-YETERLİK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLER: STRESLE BAŞA ÇIKMA TARZLARI VE ARKADAŞLIK KALİTESİNİN DÜZENLEYİCİ ROLLERİ

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Çocuklar tüm dünyada aile içi şiddete maruz kalmış olup, bu şiddete maruz kalan çocuk sayısı ise her geçen gün artmaya devam etmektedir. Önceki çalışmalar, çocukların aile içi şiddete maruz kalmasının dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirme davranışlarıyla olan ilişkilerini araştırmıştır. Ancak, bilgimiz dahilinde şimdiye kadar yapılan hiçbir çalışma, çocukların aile içi şiddete maruz kalmasının etkilerini, içselleştirme ve dışsallaştırma belirtilerinin yanı sıra psikolojik sağlamlığı dahil ederek kapsamlı bir çalışmada incelememiştir ve düzenleyici roller bu ilişkilerde göz ardı edilmiştir. Mevcut çalışma, literatürdeki bu boşluğu doldurmak için, Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı, Bağlanma Kuramı ve Kendini Susturma Teorisi çerçevesi dahilinde, çocukların aile içi şiddete maruz kalmasını zorbalık, kendini susturma davranışları, psikolojik sağlamlık ve öz yeterlik arasında olan ilişkilerini incelemeyi hedeflemiştir. Ek olarak, arkadaşlık kalitesi ve stresle başa çıkma tarzlarının düzenleyici etkileri, aile içi şiddete maruz kalmanın, zorbalık, kendini susturma davranışları, psikolojik sağlamlık ve öz yeterlik ilişkileri ile olan ilişkilerinde incelenmiştir. Veri, yaşları 14-17 arasında değişen 569 lise öğrencisinden

toplanmıştır. Sonuçlar, aile içi şiddete maruz kalmanın ve alt boyutlarının zorbalık ve kendini susturma davranışları ile pozitif, psikolojik sağlamlık, genel öz yeterlik ve akademik ve duygusal öz yeterliğin alt boyutlarıyla ise negatif korelasyona sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Ek olarak, düzenleyici değişken analizlerinin sonuçları, iyimser yaklaşım ve sosyal destek aramanın aile içi şiddete maruz kalma ve psikolojik sağlamlık arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rol üstlendiğini göstermektedir. Ayrıca, kendine güvenli yaklaşım, sosyal destek arama ve iyimser yaklaşımın, aile içi şiddete maruz kalma ve öz yeterlik arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici roller üstlenmiştir. Son olarak, arkadaşlık kalitesi ise aile içi şiddete maruz kalma ve öz yeterlik arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rol üstlenmiştir. Bu sonuçlar, düzenleyici roller üstlenen değişkenlerin aile içi şiddete maruz kalmanın yarattığı negatif etkileri zayıflatabilecek tampon etkileri sağlayabileceğini göstermiştir. Bulgular, teorik ve pratik katkıların yanı sıra gelecekteki araştırmalara yönelik yol göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Aile içi şiddete maruziyet; zorbalık; kendini susturma davranışı; öz-yeterlik; arkadaşlık kalitesi; stresle başa çıkma tarzları.

I dedicate this thesis to my dear sister Nilsu and all the children around the world

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AT	: Attachment Theory
CBCL	: Child Behavior Checklist
CEDV	: Child Exposure to Domestic Violence
CFI	: Comparative Fit Index
KSGM	: Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü
NFI	: Normed Fit Index
PTSD	: Post-traumatic Stress Disorder
RMSEA	: Root Mean Square Residual
SEM	: Structural Equation Modeling
SES	: Socio-economic Status
SLT	: Social Learning Theory
STS	: Silencing the Self
SPSS	: Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TLI	: Tucker-Lewis Index
TÜİK	: Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu
WHO	: World Health Organization

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Domestic violence can be defined as a pattern of offensive and compelling behaviors which include physical, verbal, sexual and psychological assault as well as economic force applied by adults or adolescents toward their intimate spouse (Unicef, 2006). According to the Unicef's report (2020), every year approximately 1 billion children, in other words half of the children in the world, were exposed to physical, sexual, psychological violence and because of it; they are injured, disabled or they lose their lives. In addition, it was also found 13.867 children got service from Child Under Organization Care (Kuruluş Bakımı Altında Bulunan Çocuk) in Turkey (T.C. Aile, Çalışma ve Sosyal Hizmetler Bakanlığı Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü (KSGM), 2019). Moreover, these numbers reflect only the cases that were officially processed and there are many other cases which are not officially recorded. In other words, it can be proposed that these reported numbers are far less than actual cases.

According to the report which was prepared by U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (DHSS) (2010), in 2009, over 700.000 children were victims of abuse and neglect. Among these children 78.3 % of them were neglected, 17.8 % were physically abused, 9.5 % were sexually abused, 7.6 % psychologically abused, 2.4 % were medically neglected, 9.6 % were exposed to other types of mistreatment (0.3 % were reported as "unknown"). It is also reported that more than one kind of maltreatment can be experienced per child, so total percentages is more than 100 %. The perpetrators of child maltreatment were generally their parents (80.9 %), other relatives (6.3 %), unmarried partners or parents (4.3 %) (US Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, 2010).

Child exposure to domestic violence has progressively become a main focus of study for researchers. In the literature, many studies emphasized that there was a wide range of behaviors and consequences related with exposure to domestic

violence (Edleson, Ellerton, Seagren, Kirchberg, Schmidt, & Ambrose, 2007). Nearly 100 published studies reported that there was an association between exposure to domestic violence and exposed children's or adults' problems in later life (Gewirtz & Edleson, 2004). In the past several years, numerous studies were conducted to investigate the effects of witnessing domestic violence on negative personal and relational outcomes, and it was found that child exposure to domestic violence was related to a wide range of psychological, behavioral, social, emotional, and academic problems (Fantuzzo & Lindquist, 1989; Jaffe, Moffitt, Caspi, Taylor, & Arseneault, 2002). In the present study, the phrase "child exposure to domestic violence" is used to refer to several experiences of children where one or more family member(s) use different forms of violence including verbal-psychological, physical, and economic violence at home.

Gewirtz and Edleson (2004) mentioned that there were several risk factors for child exposure to domestic violence and they were related to increased possibilities of poor physical and behavioral consequences. For instance, risk factors can contain premature birth, parental conduct problems, self-exposure to violence, and homelessness. In addition, it was also found that children who were exposed to domestic violence, had higher levels of negative psychosocial consequences (i.e., negative outcomes) compared to children who did not experience any type of domestic violence (Meltzer, Doos, Vostanis, Ford, & Goodman, 2009). The impacts of exposure to domestic violence may have several developmental effects on children, those may begin as early as childhood and they are likely to be carried on to adulthood period and continuity of the effects largely depends on intensity of the exposed trauma (Curran, 2013). Yet, the effects of exposure to domestic violence may have differential effects on children depending on a number of factors including personality traits, quality of interpersonal relationships, and contextual variables.

As it was mentioned above, all children do not give same reactions after exposure to domestic violence. Cicchetti and Rogosch (1996) emphasized that "Multifinality states that the effect on functioning of any one component's value may vary in different systems" (p. 598). In the literature, there are limited number of studies that examined the moderating effects of psychological, relational and contextual variables in the relationships of child exposure to domestic violence with internalizing and externalizing behaviors. The present study aimed to make both

theoretical and practical contributions by investigating the direct effects of child exposure to domestic violence (CEDV) on bullying, silencing the self behaviors, resilience, and self-efficacy (i.e., social, academic, and emotional self-efficacy) as well as moderating effects of stress coping strategies (i.e., optimistic style, self-confident style, submissive style, helpless style, and seeking social support) and friendship quality in the above mentioned relationships among adolescents.

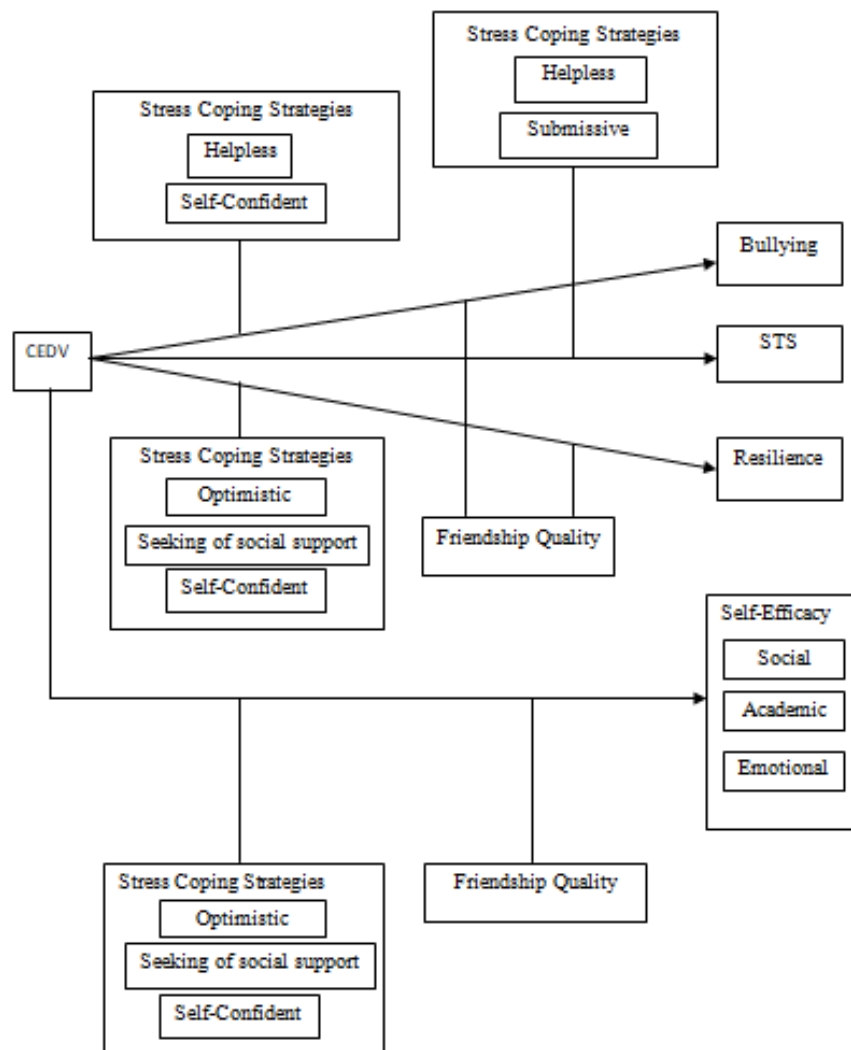


Figure 1. Proposed Model of the Study Variables

1.1. DEFINITION AND TYPES OF VIOLENCE

In today's world, violence affects everyone's lives either directly or indirectly, and it poses danger to public health across the globe (Polat, 2019). In the literature, the terms abuse, violence and aggression can be used interchangeably

while some investigators point out to differences between them (Van der Dennen, 1980). Although violence has different definitions in the literature, World Health Organization (WHO) defined violence as “The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation” in the World Report on Violence and Health (WRVH, 2002, p. 4).

Furthermore, WRVH divides the general description of violence into three categories according to victim-perpetrator association. These three categories consist of self-directed violence, interpersonal violence, and collective violence. Self-directed violence means that victim and perpetrator are the same person, and it contains suicide and self-abuse. Interpersonal violence refers to violence between people, and it consists of community violence, family violence and intimate partner violence. Lastly, collective violence refers to violence treated by larger groups of people, and it contains political, economic and social violence (WHO, 2002).

The World Health Organization Consultation on Child Abuse Prevention (WHO, 2006) defined child abuse/maltreatment as a form of violence which “... constitutes all forms of physical and/or emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse, neglect or negligent treatment or commercial or other exploitation, resulting in actual or potential harm to the child’s health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust or power” (p. 38).

One of the most widely accepted definition about types of maltreatment was done by Barnett, Manly, and Cicchetti (1993). The authors proposed four types of maltreatment which were physical, sexual, psychological/emotional abuse and neglect. They also defined neglect as failure to ensure fundamental necessities (i.e., not providing adequate food or medical care), and it is the most common form of maltreatment. Consistently, Yılmaz and Karakuş (2019) mentioned that showing inadequate physical and emotional attention can be classified under the heading of neglect.

Graham-Bermann and Howell (2011) suggested that the fifth category which is exposure to domestic violence should be added to Barnett and colleagues’ (1993) classification. Indeed, Hamby, Finkelhor, Turner, and Ormrod (2010) found that exposure to violence at home was correlated with higher risk for other types of maltreatment. Consistently, Kerig, Ludlow and Wenar (2012) mentioned

that in general different types of maltreatment are likely to co-occur. This is known as “polyvictimization”. For instance, when a child was exposed to psychological/emotional violence, s/he is also likely to become a victim of other types of maltreatment such as physical violence.

1.1.1. Physical Violence

The type of physical violence can range from actions which cause minor injuries to murder (Yalçın, 2014). Polat (2019) mentioned that physical violence refers using physical force to give pain, harm or physical misery to the victim. Also, Bozkurt Şener (2011) defined physical violence as using any methods which gives physically harm against others in order to punish them.

Slapping, beating, throwing things, assaulting, kicking, hitting, pinching, biting, dragging, pushing, stabbing, scratching, spanking, threatening or using a knife, firearms or any other weapon are some examples of physical violence.

Fantuzzo and Mohr (1999) mentioned that between 45-70 % of children who were exposed to domestic violence were also victims of physical harassment. In a study which conducted with 41 families, it was found that 85 % of children were physically at home while their mothers were being exposed to violence in some way or another, and 71 % of them witnessed their mother being physically abused (McGee, 2000).

In addition, according to the European Report on Preventing Child Maltreatment, the results of the surveys conducted with samples from European and non-European countries around the world revealed that prevalence rate of physical violence among children was 22.9 % (Sethi, Bellis, Hughes, Gilbert, Mitis, & Galea, 2013).

1.1.2. Psychological / Verbal Violence

In the literature, it is emphasized that verbal and psychological violence are closely related. Psychological violence includes verbal violence within domestic violence against women. Emotional/psychological violence may involve some actions such as secluding woman, interfering what to wear, interfering with whom to meet with or who to see (KSGM, 2008, 2013). Verbal violence involves making women feel emotionally and psychologically bad. For instance, swearing and humiliating can be classified within the scope verbal violence, however, it can also

be evaluated as an example of emotional/psychological violence, because saying bad words makes the person feel psychologically abused and demoralized (Yılmaz & Karakuş, 2019).

Polat (2019) stated that psychological violence refers to use of numerous acts intended to affront and control other person in private or public domains. Name calling, blackmailing, and constantly criticizing can be given as examples of psychological violence.

Psychological/verbal violence includes saying insulting words, teasing with someone's weaknesses, making excessive humiliating generalizations (i.e., "you are always like this", "you always do this"), blaming, swearing/using bad language, humiliating, insulting, intimidating, threatening someone or their relatives, screaming, scaring, disconnecting direct communication, louting, not talking directly, preventing to express his/her thoughts, limiting someone's social life with strict rules, breaking someone's connection with environment, and restricting access to friends and family (Otaran, Şener, & Karataş, 2008; Owen and Owen, 2008).

Because psychological violence is the most difficult type to detect, it's rate are generally lower than other rates of maltreatment. It was found that approximately 7% of confirmed matreatment cases in the USA was classified as psychological violence (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). On the other hand, the results of the "Research on Domestic Violence against Women in Turkey" done in 2014 revealed that 44 % of women were subjected to psychological violence meaning that approximately one out of two women were exposed to psychological violence in our country (KSGM, 2014).

Prevalance rates of psychological violence towards children in Turkey are not precisely known. However, the findings of the European Report on Preventing Child Maltreatment, which was based on surveys conducted with samples from European and non-European countries around the world have revealed that prevalance rate of psychological violence among children was 18.4 % (Sethi et al., 2013).

1.1.3. Sexual Violence

Sexual violence is a crime of violence which committed through compelling and destructive sexual behaviors. The perpetrator's purpose is not only to take

advantage of the victim's sexuality, but also to control, embarrass, force, harm and subjugate to the victim. Sexual assault is a crime that can be occurred in all age groups and without gender discrimination. Victims can be everyone including women, children, elders, people with physical and mental disabilities, and men. However, it is seen that mostly women and children are exposed to sexual assault (e.g., Polat,2016).

As it is mentioned in the brochure of “Combating Violence Against Women in Turkey” that using sexual expressions against will, forcing a person to have sexual intercourse, to get pregnant, to give birth or not to give birth, to prostitution, to child marriage, to female genital mutilation as well as incest and rape are all in the category of sexual violence (KSGM, 2008, 2013).

Sexual violence which is seen as a private taboo in the society, is often a hidden phenomenon. Hence, most of the time it is hard to detect, because women who are exposed to sexual violence have difficulty to talk about it and they may be unwilling to take legal action (Bozkurt Şener, 2011).

The results of the “Research on Domestic Violence against Women in Turkey” conducted in 2014 revealed that 12 % of women were subjected to sexual violence (KSGM, 2014). In addition, it was also found that approximately 9.5 % of confirmed maltreatment cases in the USA consisted of children who were exposed to sexual violence (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2010).

Again, the findings of the European Report on Preventing Child Maltreatment, which was based on surveys conducted with samples from European and non-European countries around the world have revealed that prevalence rate of sexual violence among children was 19.1 % (i.e., 13.4 % for girls, 5.7 % for boys) (Sethi et al., 2013).

1.1.4. Economic Violence

Economic violence consists of actions such as not providing money for household expenditures, not giving sufficient money to family members, restricting work life, taking away money, and criticizing money management (Owen & Owen, 2008). Forcing someone to work, preventing someone from working, becoming indebted, and taking others' income are also in the category of economic violence. The results of the “Research on Domestic Violence against Women in

Turkey”(2014) revealed that 30 % of women were subjected to economic violence by their partners in any time period of their lives (KSGM, 2014).

In the literature, at least to our knowledge, there is not a study focused on frequency or prevalence rates of economic violence towards children. However, it was emphasized that single parenthood, parental work status (i.e., unemployment and/or being part-time employed) and low socio-economic status might be risk factors that increase likelihood of child maltreatment in terms of economic violence (Paxson & Waldfogel, 1999).

1.2. A FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING VIOLENCE

Nowadays, while explaining the underlying cause of violence, “Ecological Framework” is one of the most widely used approaches. This model is based on the explanation of personal, situational and socio-cultural factors that contribute to violence. According to this model, violence (especially against women) results from the interaction of these factors. Ecological Framework model can be visualized as four circles which are concentric. From the innermost circle to the outermost circle the levels are named as individual perpetrator/level, relationship level, community level, and society level, respectively. The innermost circle which is individual level includes witnessing parental violence as a child, being abused as a child, having an absent father or a rejecting father, and using alcohol or drugs frequently. Relationship level includes marital conflict and dominance of male power in decision making processes in the family. Therefore, the second circle represents the immediate context in which abuse takes place, frequently the family or other intimate or acquaintance relationships. The third circle represents the institutions and social structures, both formal and informal, such as neighborhood, workplace, social networks, and peer groups. The fourth and the outermost circle is the economic and social environment, including cultural and societal norms as well as political climate.

1.2.1. Domestic Violence

According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2000), domestic violence is a crime and it affects millions of individuals every year. Domestic violence influences individuals who are exposed, victims, perpetrators, and individuals (especially children) who witness domestic violence. Domestic violence is

universal problem, and it affects individuals regardless of race, gender, and socio-economic class (Joseph, Govender, & Bhagwanjee, 2006). Domestic violence can be defined as violence among partners and other family members at home (Arin, 1996). Zara-Page and İnce (2008) mentioned that eventhough “domestic violence” is predominantly perceived as violence performed by man against woman at home, it may also occur among other family members. Consistently, Summers (2006) mentioned that the term “domestic” referred to “within the household”so domestic violence could contain violence between parents, siblings, and family violence against children. Hester, Pearson and Harwin (2000) explained domestic violence as any type of abusive behavior (it may include several types of abuse like physical, verbal, sexual, psychological, financial, emotional) which is applied by one person to another at home.

1.2.1.1. Child Exposure to Domestic Violence (CEDV)

A child does not need to see violence with his/her eyes to be exposed to domestic violence (Meltzer et. al., 2009) and many researchers prefer to use the term “to be exposed to” for childrens’ experiences of domestic violence rather than using the term “to witness”(Rossman, Hughes, & Rosenberg, 2000). Indeed, Hester and colleagues (2000) mentioned that there are several controversial definitions about what comprises witnessing and McGee (2000) mentioned that children may clearly define traumatic events at home which they heard even though they have never seen the real acts of violence.

Violence against women, children, and older adults are not always reported to the police or other related agencies (e.g., social services) which makes it difficult to determine accurate numbers of abuse. In the findings of the Global Status Report on Violence Prevention, it was mentioned that statistical information about violence against women, children and elders were based on specialized studies and population surveys. These studies demonstrate that sexual, physical and psychological abuse are very common, and violence damages well-being and health of millions of women, children and elders all over the world (WHO, 2014). As mentioned in the same report, child maltreatment was defined as an abuse or neglect of children who are under 18 years. It may include neglect, physical, verbal, psychological and sexual abuse which can result with potential or actual harm to child’s biopsychosocial development. Based on the reports, the youngest children

are most vulnerable to maltreatment, because they can not protect themselves from danger or they may not be aware what violence is. In National Statistics on Child Abuse (2019), it was emphasized that 37 % of children between ages of 0 and 6, 37 % of children between ages of 7 and 12, and 26 % of children between ages of 13 and 17 were victims of violence in the U.S. (WHO, 2020).

According to World Health Organization (2020), one out of two children aged between 2 and 17 suffered violence, and 12 % of children were physically abused in the past year. Also, one out of four adults was physically abused as a child. One out of five women and one out of thirteen men reported having been sexually abused as a child. In National Statistics on Child Abuse (2019), it was mentioned that approximately 1,670 children died from abuse and neglect in 2015, in the USA. Nearly, 700.000 children are victimized annually in the U.S.A. (WHO, 2020). According to Social Services and Child Protection Agency's "Child Abuse and Domestic Violence Research" in Turkey (2010) among children between ages of 7 and 18, 56 % was physically abused, 49 % was psychologically abused, 10 % was sexually abused, and 25 % was neglected (KSGM, 2013).

Polat (2018) mentioned that according to the TÜİK's results, the numbers of child victims of abuse increased from 74.064 in 2014 to 83.552 in 2016.

In other words, this finding demonstrates that, unfortunately, the numbers of child victims have increased over the past few years and these results emphasizes the importance of investigating both antecedents and consequences of CEDV as well as moderating processes that would weaken the negative effects of CEDV on negative outcomes.

1.2.1.2. Impact of Witnessing Domestic Violence as a Child

The impact of domestic violence is multidimensional. Exposure to domestic violence can have various effects on physical, emotional and social development of children. It was emphasized that these effects may begin even before the child is born because of the distress the mother of a child who is exposed violence is likely to have prenatal effects as well (Howell, Barnes, Miller, & Graham-Bermann, 2016). Prenatal stress is associated with low birth weight, premature birth and attachment problems (Howell et al., 2016). Women who are exposed to physical violence during pregnancy are more likely to use tobacco and drugs, and chances

of giving birth to a baby with low birth weight may increase (Campbell & Lewandowski, 1997).

Not surprisingly, exposure to domestic violence can cause negative effects on child's physical development and children who were exposed to domestic violence were more likely to have health problems (Chamberlain, 2001). Infants who were exposed to domestic violence were more likely to experience feeding and sleeping disorders that may result in poor weight (McFarlane, Groff, O'Brien, & Watson, 2003). Children may be injured during violence, they may experience poor nutrition, and they are at risk for temporary or permanent disabilities when they witness and/or are exposed to domestic violence. In addition, children who were exposed to domestic violence usually were reported to have headaches, bedwetting, sleep problems, vomiting, and diarrhea or growth retardation (Attala, Bauza, Pratt, & Vieira, 1995; Jaffe, Wolfe, Wilson, & Zak, 1986).

Furthermore, Summers (2006) mentioned that problematic consequences because of exposure to domestic violence may be categorized as physical, social, behavioral, cognitive, psychological, emotional, long term impacts and indirect effects. More specifically, some children can demonstrate multiple problems immediately, some of them may not demonstrate any immediate problems but experience indirect effects as they grow up and some others may develop resilience despite of the negative effects of being exposed to domestic violence. Scheeringa, Zeanah, Drell, and Larrieu (1995) mentioned that children who perceived any kind of threat to their primary caregiver were more likely to experience negative emotional and behavioral consequences than other kinds of childhood stressors. Also, these children were more likely to have shame, fear, hyper arousal, and aggressive behaviors towards peers compared to those who had not experienced exposure to any type of domestic violence. Similarly, children who were exposed to domestic violence were found to be more likely to have negative behavioral outcomes compared to children who did not have such an exposure (Meltzer et al., 2009).

Pingley (2017) mentioned that child who were exposed to domestic violence were more likely to have delayed cognitive and emotional development. Also, they were found to be more likely to have both internalizing and externalizing behavioral problems such as depression, anxiety, somatic complaints and aggressive, rule-breaking behaviors (Antle, Barbee, Yankeelov, & Bledsoe, 2010). They can

experience fear, anger, sadness, depression, feelings of weakness/defenseless and withdrawal from social activities (McGee, 2000). Chemtob and Carlson (2004) reported that 13% of children who were exposed to domestic violence met the full diagnostic criteria for PTSD.

Briere (1992) emphasized that exposure to domestic violence can damage a child's "sense of fair and safe world". That is, such children are likely to think that "the world is not a safe place", "adults are not capable to protect", or "events are not predictable or controlled". Stone (1992) mentioned that a child who was exposed to domestic violence was more likely to experience blame, shame and guilt. Other studies revealed that children exposed to domestic violence were more likely to have low levels of self-esteem self-efficacy than those who were not exposed to domestic violence (Janoff-Bulman, 1985; 1992). In addition, children who are exposed to domestic violence in childhood are likely to develop personality or behavioral disorders. Also, adults are more likely to demonstrate aggressive behaviors towards their children when they are exposed to domestic violence as a child (Güleç, 2012; Vahip, 2002). Consistently, Ehrensaft and Cohen (2003) reported that exposure to domestic violence as a child was the predictor of domestic violence in adulthood. Lichter and McCloskey (2004) also mentioned that 30% of adolescents who were exposed to domestic violence as a child had flirting violence in their future relationships (either as perpetrator or as the victim). Therefore, it is proposed that domestic violence mostly follows a repeating cycle in current and future relationships and this is one of the main reasons of why studying the direct effects of child exposure to domestic violence on psychological, behavioral, and attitudinal outcomes as well as moderating processes in these relationships which may act as buffers and provide guidance for researchers and practitioners.

1.3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS FOR UNDERSTANDING THE EFFECTS OF EXPOSURE TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

1.3.1. Attachment Theory

John Bowlby is the main founder of attachment theory (AT). Bowlby (1969) analyzed attachment as part of continuous transactions between child and his/her primary caregiver. He also (1982) proposed that child's attachment experiences end up expectations or internal representations about caregivers' responsiveness and

availability. Child's emotion regulation ability and stress coping strategies are affected by attachment, and in turn, it affects future relationships and behaviors of children (Wicks-Nelson & Israel, 2014). Bowlby (1988) defined attachment as the relationship of a newborn formed with the primary caregiver. Depending on the nature of this relationship, a baby or an infant develops two kinds of representations of self and others known as "model of self" and "model of others". "Model of self" includes perceived value of the self through someone else's eyes. "Model of others" is shaped depending on level of satisfaction from caregiver's responsiveness to the needs and demands of newborn and refers to perceived responsiveness and trustworthiness of others. Four dimensions of attachment which are secure, preoccupied, fearful, and dismissing differ from each other in terms of models of self and others and preoccupied, fearful, and dismissing attachment styles are defined as "insecure" attachment styles. Secure attachment includes positive models of both self and others whereas preoccupied or anxious/ambivalent attachment includes negative model of self and positive model of others. On the other hand, fearful attachment is characterized by negative models of both self and others while dismissing or avoidant attachment consists of positive model of self and negative model of others (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Infants who have secure attachment style are more confident about availability of their caregivers, they are more likely to believe that others are trustworthy and dependable, and that world is a safe and predictable place than infants who had preoccupied (anxious/ambivalent), fearful and/or dismissing (avoidant) attachment styles. By proposing that insecure attachment, which is more likely to be developed when the primary caregiver is an abusive one, may be a risk factor for future behavioral and psychological problems, this theory provides better understanding about psychological mechanism underlying the effects of child exposure to domestic violence on negative outcomes. Besides Bowlby's (1969) Attachment Theory, Bandura's Social Learning Theory (1961) provides another conceptual framework for this search.

1.3.2. Social Learning Theory

Albert Bandura (1977) mentioned that people might learn automatically based on observation rather than personal experience. Consistently, Pingley (2017) mentioned about the importance of modeling and both verbal/non-verbal

communication on child development. The author emphasized that based on many studies and experiments which were conducted, it was determined that children can easily model behaviors of others around them. Social learning theory had become the focus of interest after the famous study conducted by Albert Bandura in 1961, which was known as “Bobo Doll Experiment”. In this experiment, children watched investigators’ aggressive behaviors against the doll. Afterwards, children stayed alone with the doll, and it was observed that they imitated the unknown adult’s behaviors and demonstrated aggression against other toys as well (Cooper & Lesser, 2011). Robinson and Suarez (2015) mentioned that the social learning theory helped to understand how children’s acts might be affected by exposure to domestic violence and provided a framework for underlying learning mechanisms of negative behaviors such as, aggression, defiance, manipulation, or acting out.

1.3.3. Silencing the Self Theory

As the founder of silencing the self theory, Jack (1991) mentioned that individuals can inhibit their self-expressions or actions to avoid any disagreement and possibility of losing current relationships and they may prefer not to express crucial parts of their self-identity to keep harmony in their intimate relationships.

In the literature, there are many studies which compared children who were exposed to domestic violence to non-exposed control groups. Some of these studies found that there were significant differences among the treatment and control groups regarding internalizing behaviors. To illustrate, it was found that children who were exposed to domestic violence demonstrated more internalizing behaviors such as withdrawal than non-exposed groups (Diamond & Muller, 2004; Moore & Pepler, 1998). In the present study, it is suggested that silencing the self theory may help to understand why (at least some) children who were exposed to domestic violence demonstrate internalized behaviors, become more introvert or avoid to make self-expressions.

Exposure to domestic violence may be associated with emotional and cognitive dysregulations for exposed children. In APA Dictionary of Psychology, dysregulation is defined as “any excessive or otherwise poorly managed mechanism or response”. Pingley (2017) mentioned that dysregulation may be defined as difficulty sustaining normative functioning. Also, children who were exposed to domestic violence can have difficulties in cognitive functions such as organizing or

task completion. In emotional functioning, children who were exposed to domestic violence may have difficulty about sustaining their friendships and they may show isolation behaviors at high level (Howell et al., 2016). Furthermore, Hester and colleagues (2000) found that children who were exposed to domestic violence could show problems in trusting other people, and that they were likely to have social isolation and poor social skills. Also, it was found that such children had lower scores on verbal ability tests than the non-exposed control group (Huth-Bocks, Levendosky, & Semel, 2001).

1.4. BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES OF EXPOSURE TO DOMESTIC VIOLENCE ON CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Every child can experience separate and multiple symptoms as a consequence of exposure to domestic violence. Many studies found that children exposed to domestic violence were more likely to have negative behavioral and psychosocial consequences (Herrenkohl, Sousa, Tajima, Herrenkohl, & Moylan, 2008; Sternberg, 2006). Mabanglo (2002) found that exposed children demonstrated higher levels of both internalizing and externalizing problems than children who were not exposed to domestic violence. Maikovich, Jaffee, Odgers and Gallop (2008) mentioned that previous parent-child physical aggression (PCPA) was a stronger predictor of externalizing behaviors while intimate partner violence (IPV) was more strongly related with internalizing behaviors in future. In addition, Pesenti-Gritti, Spatola, Fagnani, Ogliari, Patriarca, Stazi, and Battaglia (2008) mentioned that internalizing and externalizing behaviors frequently co-occur.

1.4.1. Externalizing Behaviors

Pingley (2017) mentioned that externalizing behaviors can be described as negative behaviors which focused outward like bullying, aggression, and violence in peer relationships. Children exposed to violence directly or indirectly may perform externalizing behaviors like aggression, hyperactivity, and behaviors related to conduct problems. Also, they are likely to have deficiency in social skills and competencies, difficulties at school (i.e., absenteeism, low academic success), bullying, screaming and/or clinging behaviors, speech disorders and eating disorders (KSGM, 2014). In addition, Loeber and Burke (2011) defined

externalizing behaviors as acts that cause “difficulties primarily directed outward, such as conduct problems or aggression” (p.9).

Dutton (2000) mentioned that children may experience temper tantrums and they are likely to have fights with their peers and siblings after exposure to domestic violence. When children were exposed to parental conflict accompanied with negative behaviors (e.g., physical aggression), they were more likely to demonstrate aggressive acts (Cummings, Goeke-Morey, & Papp, 2004). In another study, it was proposed that children had higher scores on externalizing behaviors scale when they were exposed to physical and verbal aggression by parents compared to the control group (Fantuzzo, DePaola, Lambert, Martino, Angerson, & Sutton, 1991). On the other hand, the authors also found that children who lived in shelters and witnessed physical violence, showed higher levels of internalizing behaviors (Fantuzzo et. al., 1991).

1.4.1.1. Bullying

The term “bullying” is a complex concept which affects lives of many children each year. Olweus (1993) defined bullying as being exposed to continuously and over time to negative actions by one or more peers at school. Brank, Hoetger and Hazen (2012) mentioned that relationship of bully and victim was described by an unbalance of power based on age, strength, social status or physical capacity. In addition, Wolke and Lereya (2015) defined bullying as intentionally repeated aggressive behaviors and/or harm by peers. Bullying doesn’t only affect victims and bullies, but also affects bystanders (Fekkes, Pijpers, & Verloove-Vanhorick, 2005).

Wolke and colleagues (2015) emphasized the differences among “directly bullying”, “relational bullying” and “cyberbullying”. The authors defined “directly bullying” as “harming others by directly getting at them” and “relational bullying” as destroying relationships between friends (i.e., ignoring someone, telling stories or rumours about someone). Also, “cyberbullying” was defined as trying to distress and harm someone by using electronic tools (e.g., mobile phones or social media). Fekkes and colleagues (2005) mentioned that direct bullying included physical (i.e., kicking, pushing, hitting), and verbal (i.e., giving a name/nickname, making threats) acts and indirect bullying may include behaviors such as socially excluding someone.

In the literature, it was found that there are a number of factors related to being a bully. Farrington and Baldry (2010) mentioned that children who had high levels of hyperactivity and impulsivity were more likely to be bullies. In the same study, it was found that children who had low empathy levels and lower IQs scores on nonverbal tasks were more likely to bully their peers. In addition, Perren and Alsaker (2006) found that children who had high levels of leadership skills had a tendency to bully their peers. Also, Glew, Rivara and Feudtner (2000) found that bullies were generally aggressive towards their parents, teachers and peers. Similarly, in the literature it was found that there were some factors associated with being a victim. It was found that children who were more socially anxious (Karna, Voeten, Poskiparta, & Salmivalli, 2010) and children who were more withdrawn and submissive were more likely to be victimized (Perren et al., 2006). In addition, it was found that children who had education at large-scale schools were more likely to be victimized than children who had education at smaller schools (Bowes, Arseneault, Maughan, Taylor, Caspi, & Moffit, 2009).

It was found that one out of every three children was reported to be victim of bullying at some point in their lives. Also, it was found that % 10-14 of them were subjected to chronic bullying which lasted more than six months (WHO, 2012; Wolke, Lereya, Fisher, Lewis, & Zammit, 2014). In a more recent study, Lesne and Yonez (2016) emphasized that more than one out of every five students were reported to be bullied/victimized.

Regarding the gender differences in bullying, there are some controversial findings in the literature. It was reported that boys were more likely to be involved direct bullying (i.e., physical) than girls, and girls were more likely to be involved indirect bullying (i.e., relational) than boys (Powell & Jenson, 2010; Wang, Iannotti, & Nansel, 2009). However, in another study, it was found that there was no significant gender differences in bullying (Fekkes et al., 2005).

Both witnessing and experiencing bullying may result short and long term negative effects on children (Brank et al., 2012). Being the victim of bullying may lead to low self-esteem (Esbensen & Carson, 2009; Nation, Vieno, Perkins, & Massimo, 2008; Pişkin & Ayas, 2005), low levels of self-efficacy (Esbensen and colleagues, 2009), high levels of depression and even to suicidal attempts (Klomek, Marrocco, Klienmen, Schonfeld, & Gould, 2007). Also, it was found that being the

victim of bullying may lead to low attachment to school and low academic performance (Brown & Taylor 2008; Rothon, Head, Klineberg, & Stansfeld, 2010).

In short, exposure to bullying during school years can create risk factors for childrens' later life. Ttofi, Farrington and Lösel (2012) mentioned that meta-analytic studies emphasized that victims were more likely to experience violence in future. Therefore, understanding underlying causes of bullying and preventing factors for bullying is very important for theoretical improvements and developing more effective practical intervention strategies.

1.4.1.2. Effects of CEDV on Bullying

In the literature, many studies emphasized that there was a positive association between CEDV and bullying. For instance, it was found that if a child's family members have committed a crime, they were more likely to bully their peers (Farrington et al., 2010). Supporting the findings of this study, it was also found that children who were exposed to domestic violence had been found to have a tendency to bully others at school (Bowes et al., 2009).

Dauvergne and Johnson (2001) mentioned that Canadian National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth found a significant correlation between CEDV and maladjustment which showed that children who witnessed their mothers' exposed to violence by their partners were three times more likely to take up a quarrel at school (i.e., bullying, threatening peers, fighting) compared to who did not witness such acts (i.e., 28.1 % vs. 11.3 %). In same study, it was also found that children who witnessed their mothers' exposure to violence were more than twice as likely to join in indirect bullying (i.e., spreading gossips about someone, excluding peers from a group). In addition, Mohapatra, Irving, Paglia-Boak, Wekerle, Adlaf and Rehm (2010) mentioned that if there was a history of parent inclusion with Child Protective Services, these children had tendency to be a bully.

1.4.2. Internalizing Behaviors

Pingley (2017) mentioned that internalizing behaviors can be described as negative behaviors which focused inward such as anxiety, depression or somatic complaints. Consistently, Achenbach and Rescorla (2000) emphasized that internalizing behaviors are inner-directed and they include social isolation, anxiety, withdrawal and depression. Children exposed to domestic violence directly or

indirectly are likely to experience internalizing problems like anxiety, distractibility, social withdrawal, depression, and having suicidal ideas (e.g., Herrenkohl, Sousa, Tajima, Herrenkohl, & Moylan, 2008; KSGM, 2014; Pingley, 2017; Summers, 2006). In addition, Loeber and Burke (2011) defined internalizing behaviors as actions that may lead to “difficulties primarily directed inwards, in terms of the individual's own functioning, such as depression or anxiety” (p.9).

Hester and colleagues (2000) found that children who were exposed to violence were likely to show sadness, behaviors of self-harm and depression. Moreover, Pelcovitz, Kaplan, DeRosa, Mandel and Salzinger (2000) found that children who witnessed domestic violence were in the risk group for anxiety, depression and substance abuse. In addition, it was found that 23 % children of battered women met the clinical criteria for depression and anxiety (Grych, Jouriles, McDonald, Norwood, & Swank, 2000). In the present study, another internalizing behavioral problem, namely silencing the self behaviors, which was found to be related to negative personal and relational outcomes (Göncü & Sümer, 2011) but has not been investigated as an outcome variable of child exposure to domestic violence yet, was investigated as one of the consequences of exposure to domestic violence.

1.4.2.1. Silencing the Self-Behaviors (STS)

Jack and Dill (1992) suggested that overall concept of “silencing the self” consisted of four categories which were externalized self-perception, care as self-sacrifice, silencing the self and the divided self. The concept was derived from a longitudinal study conducted with clinically depressed women. Externalized self-perception refers to judgment of the self based on external standards. Care as self sacrifice means putting others’ needs before those of the self. Silencing the self refers to inhibiting self expressions to avoid losing current relationships. Finally, divided self was defined as “the experience of presenting an outer compliant self to live up to feminine role imperatives while the inner self grows angry and hostile” (Jack & Dill, 1992, p. 98).

Kurtiş (2010) mentioned that women had pressure to conform to social norms, and they inhibited their self expressions when there is disagreement in their close relationships. Also, Harper, Dickson and Welsh (2006) mentioned that self-silencing individuals suppress their opinions in order to sustain their close

relationships. This inhibition of opinions can end up with individual's "fall in self-esteem" and "loss of self" within a relationship. In addition, Jack and Dill (1992) mentioned that self-silencing behaviors can increase tendency to depression for women. Gratch, Bassett and Attra (1995) mentioned that self-silencing was positively correlated with depression for women who stayed in shelters. However, they also found that men had higher silencing the self scores than women.

Harper, Dickson and Welsh (2006) mentioned that there were limited numbers of studies conducted with adolescents about the association between silencing the self and psychological functioning. In their study the authors found that girls who had higher scores on self-silencing behaviors were more likely to have depression compared to all other adolescents. Unexpectedly, another study revealed that adolescent boys had higher scores on silencing the self behaviors than girls in their close relationships (Harper, Welsh, Grello, & Dickson, 2002).

Haemmerlie, Montgomery, Williams, and Winborn (2001) found that self-silencing behaviors were strongly related to declines in physical, psychological and intellectual functioning. For instance, it was found that self-silencing behaviors among college students were associated with lower adjustment to college environment. Also, it was found that adolescents who had high scores on self-silencing behaviors were more likely to have academic, interpersonal and familial difficulties as well as difficulties about career decisions.

1.4.2.2. Effects of CEDV on STS

Only a limited number of studies investigated the relationship between CEDV and STS behaviors among adolescents. In the literature, it was found that there was a positive correlation between CEDV and internalizing behaviors. For instance, Summers (2006) found that there was a positive association between exposure to domestic violence and overall internalizing behaviors (i.e., withdrawal, anxiety, and depression). Similarly, Hester and colleagues (2000) emphasized that the impacts of exposure to domestic violence contained self-blame, withdrawal, low self-esteem, guilt, feeling insecure and fear.

1.4.3. Externalizing Behaviors vs. Internalizing Behaviors

As mentioned above, in the literature, it was found that children who were exposed to domestic violence were more likely to demonstrate externalizing and

internalizing behaviors than children who were not exposed to domestic violence. Furthermore, Cummings, Pepler, and Moore (1999) found that there were significant differences in both externalizing behaviors and internalizing behavioral problems on the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) among children who were exposed to violence and those in the control group. In addition, Grych, Jouriles, McDonald, Norwood and Swank (2000) found that 30% of children who lived in shelters and who were exposed to domestic violence developed internalizing and externalizing behaviors. The authors also found that 21 % of them showed externalizing behaviors while 9 % of them demonstrated internalizing behaviors.

In the present study, in light of the theoretical background and findings of the previous research it is suggested that adolescents who score high on exposure to domestic violence are more likely to score high on both bullying (i.e., an externalizing behavioral problem) and on STS (i.e., an internalizing behavioral problem) than those who score low on exposure to domestic violence. However, it is also expected that effects of CEDV on bullying is stronger than its effects on STS. Therefore, the first set of hypotheses and the second hypothesis are generated as follows:

Hypothesis 1a: CEDV is positively associated with bullying.

Hypothesis 1b: CEDV is positively associated with STS behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between CEDV and bullying is stronger than the relationship between CEDV and STS behaviors.

1.5. RESILIENCE

When individuals encounter unfavorable life circumstances, some of them resist to adversities while others give up or do not resist at all. Luthar (2006) defined resilience as “relatively positive adaptation despite experiences significant adversity or trauma”(p. 742). Also, Luthar, Cicchetti and Becker (2000) defined resilience as “dynamic process encompassing positive adaptation within the context of significant adversity”(p. 260). Similarly, Ingram and Price (2010) and Rutter (2006) mentioned that resilience demonstrates individual differences in response to risk, and it is an ability to resist negative life circumstances. Also, Zautra, Hall, and Murray (2010) defined resilience as a consequence of successful adaptation to difficulty.

Wicks-Nelson and colleagues (2015) emphasized that there were developmental tasks, and resilience played a crucial role when individuals met these developmental tasks despite adverse life circumstances. Masten and Coatsworth (1998) gave some examples of developmental tasks for young individuals. Academic achievement, forming close friendships within and across gender and forming a cohesive sense of self-identity are among the examples of developmental task for adolescences.

1.5.1. Effects of CEDV on Resilience

Masten (2001) used the term “ordinary magic” for defining children who survived hard and abusive house environments. Summers (2006) mentioned that children exposed to domestic violence could demonstrate either internalizing or externalizing behaviors while others might not display any behavioral problems and rather develop resilience after exposure to domestic violence.

On the one hand, as mentioned above, there are many studies which focused on negative effects of CEDV on children. On the other hand, there are some studies which emphasized that not all children were affected by CEDV in the same direction. Hughes and Luke (1998) mentioned that some children could have difficulties after exposure to domestic violence, while others might show little or no distress. Wicks-Nelson and colleagues (2015) found that genetic factors might play crucial roles in determining how an individual responded to stress, however, there were also other factors which were not related to biological or genetic background. These factors consist of problem solving skills, perceived self-efficacy, quality of relationships with friends and/or romantic partners, stress coping strategies and relationships with family members other than the perpetrator of violence (Cicchetti, 2010; Sapienza, & Masten, 2011).

However, Zautra and colleagues (2010) mentioned that there were some other factors which would negatively affect resilience. These factors were categorized as biological (e.g., genetic factors related with anxiety), individual (e.g., history of depression, brain injury), interpersonal/family (e.g., history of abuse, childhood trauma), and communal/social (e.g., violent crime rates in society) factors. It was also found that amount of exposure to violence and its severity might affect a child’s future maladjustment (Wolfe, Crooks, Lee, McIntyre-Smith, & Jaffe, 2003). Zahradnik, Stewart, O’Connor, Stevens, Ungar and Wekerle (2010)

found that CEDV and PTSD symptoms were positively associated; however, adolescents who had high levels of resilience demonstrated lower levels of PTSD symptoms than those who scored low on resilience. In the present study, the direct effect of CEDV is expected to be in negative direction. However, it is also proposed that this negative relationship is moderated by relational and psychological factors which are explained in the following sections.

Hypothesis 3: CEDV is negatively associated with resilience.

1.6. SELF-EFFICACY

Schunk and Pajares (2002) defined self-efficacy as “beliefs that one is able to learn or perform specific tasks; self-concept comprises perceptions of one’s competence in general or in a given domain” (p. 17) and self-efficacy scores on particular behavioral tasks are known as good predictors of performance on those tasks (Eastman & Marzillier, 1984). Consistently, Margolis and McCabe (2006) showed that students who had low self-efficacy were likely to have motivational problems and that when students believed that they could not achieve on particular tasks, they were likely to avoid those tasks or give up.

Telef and Karaca (2012) argues that three subdimensions represent overall self-efficacy. The first subdimension is social self-efficacy and it is related with adolescents’ peer relationships and awareness about their assertiveness ability. Gecas (1989) also defined social self-efficacy as an individual’s beliefs about his or her ability to initiate social communications and to make new friendships. The second subdimension is academic self-efficacy which is related to belief in one’s own ability to accomplish academic issues, actualize his or her own academic expectations and to manage his or her own learning behaviors. Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2002) also defined academic self-efficacy as an individual's beliefs about accomplishing academic tasks at a specified level. The third and the last subdimension is emotional self-efficacy which is related to perceived ability to cope with negative emotions. In addition, emotional self-efficacy can be defined as an individual’s perceived confidence about his or her ability to regulate negative emotions when s/he is in difficult situations (Caprara, Giunta, Eisenberg, Gerbino, Pastorelli, & Tramontano, 2008; Muris, 2002).

1.6.1. Effects of CEDV on Self-Efficacy

In the literature, it was found that CEDV was negatively associated with overall self-efficacy. Jamner and Stokols (2000) mentioned that exposure to violence could result in decreased self-efficacy and motivation. Similarly, Cheever and Hardin (1999) found that after adolescents experienced traumatic events, their efforts to seek social support as well as their self-efficacy levels were declined.

In the previous studies, in general, it was focused on the relationships between CEDV and overall self-efficacy among children. At least to our knowledge, no studies up to now has focused on associations between social self-efficacy and CEDV. Children who were exposed to domestic violence, may have low levels and quality of social interactions with others because of experienced trauma, and they can have difficulties to communicate and sustain their current relationships. Consistently, children exposed to domestic violence are expected to have lower level of social self-efficacy than those who are not exposed to domestic violence.

On the other hand, a few number of studies focused on the relationship between exposure to violence and academic achievement; however, the findings were relatively inconsistent. For instance, Strom, Thoresen, Wentzel-Larsen and Dyb (2013) found that children who were exposed to violence were likely to bully others and that they demonstrated weak performance at school. In contrast, other studies revealed that some children exposed to domestic violence might not have weak academic performance. To illustrate, Chanmugam and Teasley (2014) mentioned that while some of such children might perceive school like the main field of their lives where they could have control and feel comfortable; others could have struggles in academic life and might have difficulties making new friends as a consequence of stressors at home. It was also found that children who became connected to academic life were often more resilient than children who connected less to academic life (Alvord & Grados, 2005). Since children spend most of their time at school, teachers and academic life context might have positive effects on their lives. Yet, exposure to domestic violence is likely to negatively affect children and adolescents' academic self-esteem both directly by creating adverse conditions for academic study (e.g., by giving direct physical harm, diminishing time and/or morale to study, and/or actively preventing studying) and decreasing actual

academic performance, and indirectly by diminishing their generalized sense of control and confidence.

In the literature, as mentioned above, although a number of studies focused on the associations between CEDV and overall self-efficacy among children, at least to our knowledge, no studies has investigated the relationship between CEDV and emotional self-efficacy. Yet, it is argued here that children who were exposed to domestic violence are more likely to experience difficulties in regulating their emotions and to have lower levels of emotional self-efficacy than non-exposed children. One of the reasons may be that they are exposed to role models (i.e., perpetrators and other victims at home) who frequently use maladaptive emotion regulation strategies. In addition, their own emotion regulation strategies are likely to fail as long as violence at home as well as suffer they experience continues and this may lead their belief in their own emotion regulation capacity to decrease. Therefore, CEDV is expected to be negatively associated with emotional self-efficacy.

Up to now, relatively limited number of studies investigated the relationship between CEDV and specific subdimensions of self-efficacy (i.e., social, academic, and emotional) among adolescents. In line with the theoretical propositions and findings of previous studies, CEDV is proposed to have negative relationships with social, academic, and emotional self-efficacy and these effects are tested separately in the proposed regression model in order to explore the differential relationships of CEDV with each subdimension of self-efficacy. Therefore, the next of hypotheses of the present study is generated as follows:

Hypothesis 4a: CEDV is negatively associated with social self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 4b: CEDV is negatively associated with academic self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 4c: CEDV is negatively associated with emotional self-efficacy.

1.7. DEFINITION OF STRESS AND STRESS COPING STRATEGIES

Lazarus (1966) made one of the earliest definitions of stress and mentioned that “it arises when individuals perceive that they can’t adequately cope with the demands being made on them or with threats to their well-being” (p.19). Later on Folkman and Lazarus (1991) defined stress as “particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by a person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being” (p. 19). Stress is a concept

that has been associated with various psychological problems since the 1960s (Hovanitz, 1986). Holmes and Rahe (1967) mentioned that death of spouse, divorce, personal injury, marriage and change of school are some examples for stressful life events. For adolescents, there are common stressors which are bullying by peers, having academic difficulties, and problems with parents, siblings, and/or teachers (Donaldson, Prinstein, Danovsky, & Spirito, 2000; Williamson, Birmaher, Ryan, Shiffrin, Lusky, & Protopapa, 2003).

Folkman and Lazarus (1984) mentioned that appraisal of an event we experience as stressful or not depends on our perception. Primary appraisal refers to an initial decision about whether the event is dangerous or not, and secondary appraisal refers to perceptions about our own ability to cope with that event (Lilienfeld, Lynn, Namy, Woolf, Jamieson, Marks, & Slaughter, 2014). Different events evoke different levels of stress for individuals and people also differ in coping mechanisms they use to deal with the same stressors.

In the literature, there are several definitions about stress-coping, but one of the clearest definitions was proposed by Lazarus in 1974. Lazarus (1974) defined stress-coping as “problem-solving efforts made by an individual when the demands he/she faces are highly relevant and tax his/her adaptive resources” (p.29). As mentioned above, there are various stress-coping strategies (e.g., problem-focused, emotion-focused) and it was suggested that most people used mostly one of these strategies while others may use some kind of combinations (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984; Patterson & McCubbin, 1987). Lilienfeld and colleagues (2014) defined problem-focused coping as “coping strategy by which we problem solve and tackle life’s challenges head on”. Also, the authors defined emotion-focused coping as “coping strategy that features a positive out-look on feelings or situations accompanied by behaviors that reduce painful emotions”. For instance, problem-focused coping can contain aggressive behaviors to change the situation, as well as appropriate efforts to solve problems. On the other hand, emotion-focused stress coping may contain avoidance or seeking social support (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986).

Stress coping behaviors are also classified into four categories (Ayers, Sandler, West, & Roosa, 1996; Seiffge-Krenke, 1995; Zimmer-Gembeck & Locke, 2007). The first category contains problem-solving and trying to understand the problem. The second category includes minimizing stress or avoidance (i.e., trying

not to think about that stressful event). The third category includes emotional/social support and the last category includes becoming helpless and withdrawal.

Şahin and Durak (1995) developed shorter Coping Style Scale which was derived from the Ways of Coping Inventory developed by Folkman and Lazarus in 1980. The authors mentioned that the scale reflected two stress-coping dimensions or styles which were problem oriented-effective style and emotion oriented-ineffective style. These two dimensions further divided into five subdimensions which were self-confident style, optimistic style, submissive style, helpless style and seeking social support. Şahin and Durak (1995) found that self-confident and optimistic styles were negatively correlated with depression, anxiety and aggression. In contrast, it was found that helpless and submissive styles were positively associated with depression, anxiety and aggression. However, there were no significant correlations between seeking social support and depression, anxiety and aggression. In addition, it was found that optimistic and self-confident styles were negatively correlated with tendency to stress. On the other hand, helpless and submissive styles were positively associated with tendency to stress. Finally, Şahin and Durak (1995) found that helpless and submissive styles were positively associated with academic problems.

1.7.1. Relationships between CEDV and Stress-Coping Strategies

Flannery, Singer and Wester (2003) mentioned that adolescents who were exposed to violence had tendency to use either negative or maladaptive stress-coping strategies. For instance, adolescents exposed to violence can demonstrate asocial (i.e., depression) and antisocial (i.e., aggression) coping strategies (Blechman, Dumas, & Prinz, 1994). Consistently, Flannery, Singer, Williams, and Castro (1998) and Flannery and colleagues (2003) found that adolescents who were exposed to violence were more likely to use maladaptive coping strategies. When they were in bad mood, both male and female adolescents were more likely to yell at others; male adolescents were more likely to say bad words to others and were more likely to use drugs and alcohol than females.

1.7.2. Moderating Roles of Stress-Coping Strategies in the Proposed Relationships of CEDV with the Outcome Variables

Zimmer-Gembeck and Skinner (2010) mentioned that many adolescences who were faced with common stressors might experience behavioral and mental health problems. It was also found that stressors which adolescents have may cause depression and anxiety, as well as externalizing behaviors like antisocial acts and aggressive behaviors (Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001). Also, Hess and Copeland (2001) found that stressful life situations were associated with negative or wrong decisions about education life (e.g., school dropout) and low academic performance. Cohen, Janicki-Deverts and Miller (2007) found that stress can contribute clinical depression, cardiovascular disease (CVD), human immunodeficiency virus (HIV/AIDS), and cancer. Also, stress can have a direct effect on suicidal ideas. However, high levels of optimism and self-efficacy were found to weaken the association between stress and suicidal ideas (Feng, Li, & Chen, 2015). Zimmer-Gembeck and colleagues (2010) found that when stressors were inescapable (e.g., parental conflict, health problems), adolescents were more likely to be withdrawn or to seek social support from others.

In the present study, moderating effects of five stress-coping strategies (i.e., self-confident style, optimistic style, helpless style, submissive style, and seeking social support) in the relationships of CEDV with bullying, STS, and resilience were investigated. Specifically, it is proposed that problem-focused and more positive stress-coping strategies (i.e., self-confident style, optimistic style, and seeking social support) can weaken the positive effects of CEDV on bullying and STS and the negative effects of it on resilience and overall self-efficacy. On the other hand, it is expected that negative and relatively ineffective or maladaptive stress-coping strategies (i.e., helpless style and submissive style) can enhance or strengthen the positive effects of CEDV on bullying and STS and the negative effects of it on resilience and overall self-efficacy. Therefore, the next set of hypotheses of the present study is generated as follows:

Hypothesis 5a: Self-confident style moderates the relationship between CEDV and bullying in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on bullying is weaker among those who scored high on self-confident style than those who scored low on self-confident style.

Hypothesis 5b: Helpless style moderates the relationship between CEDV and bullying in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on bullying is stronger among those who scored high on helpless style than those who scored low on helpless style.

Hypothesis 6a: Helpless style moderates the relationship between CEDV and STS in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on STS is stronger among those who scored high on helpless style than those who scored low on helpless style.

Hypothesis 6b: Submissive style moderates the relationship between CEDV and STS in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on STS is stronger among those who scored high on submissive style than those who scored low on submissive style.

Hypothesis 7a: Optimistic style moderates the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience is weaker among those who scored high on optimistic style using than those who scored low on optimistic style.

Hypothesis 7b: Seeking social support moderates the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience is weaker for those who scored high on seeking social support than those who scored low on seeking social support.

Hypothesis 7c: Self-confident style moderates the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience is weaker among those who scored high on self-confident style than those who scored low on self-confident style.

Hypothesis 8a: Optimistic style moderates the relationship between CEDV and overall self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on overall self-efficacy is weaker among those who scored high on optimistic style than those who scored low on optimistic style.

Hypothesis 8b: Seeking social support moderates the relationship between CEDV and overall self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on overall self-efficacy is weaker among those who scored high on seeking social support style using than those who scored low on seeking social support.

Hypothesis 8c: Self-confident style moderates the relationship between CEDV and overall self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on

overall self-efficacy is weaker among those who scored high on self-confident style than those who scored low on self-confident style.

1.8. FRIENDSHIP QUALITY

Berndt (1996) defined good friendships as “friendships high in quality” (p.7) and Berndt (2002) found that high quality of friendship was positively associated with intimacy and prosocial acts, and that it was negatively correlated with conflicts and competition.

In adolescence social support, understanding and approval from peers are very important aspects of everyday life and high quality friendships play crucial role for adolescents’ healthy development (Hiatt, Laursen, Mooney, & Rubin, 2015). In general, adolescents communicate with their peers more than their family members to satisfy their social and emotional needs (Smith, 2015). Therefore, adolescents spend most of their time with their peers (Doğan, Karaman, Çoban, & Çok, 2012).

1.8.1. Relationship between CEDV on Friendship Quality

In the literature, it was found that there was a negative association between CEDV and friendship quality. For instance, McCloskey and Stuewig (2001) mentioned that children who witnessed or were exposed to domestic violence had difficulty in peer relationships. Similarly, it was found that children who were exposed to physical violence demonstrated peer-related difficulties. For example, children exposed to violence in middle childhood were less likely to be nominated as friends by their peers in class (Salzinger, Feldman, Hammer, & Rosario, 1993). Also, it was found that children who witnessed domestic violence were lonelier and had higher levels of peer-related problems than those who were not exposed to violence at home (McCloskey & Stuewig, 2001).

1.8.2. Moderating Roles of Friendship Quality in the Proposed Relationships

In the literature, it was mentioned that high-quality friendships had positive effects on adolescents. For instance, it was found that self-esteem and social adjustment levels of children who had high quality friendships were more likely to increase than those who did not have high quality friendships. In addition, such children’s abilities to cope with stress was also improved (Hartup & Stevens, 1999).

Consistently, Berndt and Keefe (1995) mentioned that high levels of perceived friendship quality were positively associated with high self-esteem. It was also found that friendship quality was negatively associated with delinquency and depression in adolescence (Windle, 1994).

On the other hand, children who have high levels of anxiety are likely to have lower levels of friendship quality than those who have low levels of anxiety (Muris & Meesters, 2002). Masten and Coatsworth (1998) proposed that resilience could be associated with peer relationships. Indeed, research has showed that any kind of positive and supportive relationships outside of the parental relationships might be a benefactor in feeding resilience (Alvord et al., 2005). In addition, Davidson and Demaray (2007) found that social support can provide a buffering effect for the relationship between victimization of bullying and internalizing behaviors. Similarly, Hodges, Boivin, Vitaro and Bukowski (1999) found that peer victimization was related to internalizing behavior problems for children who did not have enough social support. In another study, it was found that relational victimization among ethnically diverse adolescents was associated with externalizing behavior problems for adolescents who had less perceived social support from their peers (Prinstein, Boergers, & Vernberg, 2001).

Although there was no previous study that investigated the moderating effects of friendship quality in the relationships of CEDV with bullying, resilience, and self-efficacy, in line with the relevant literature it is proposed in the present research that positive effects of CEDV on bullying and negative effects of CEDV on resilience and self-efficacy are likely to be weakened by high quality friendships for adolescents. Therefore, the final set of hypotheses of the present study were generated as follows:

Hypothesis 9a: Friendship quality moderates the relationship between CEDV and bullying in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on bullying is weaker among those who scored high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who scored low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships).

Hypothesis 9b: Friendship quality moderates the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience is weaker among those who scored high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have

high-quality friendships) than those who scored low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships).

Hypothesis 9c: Friendship quality moderates the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy is weaker among those who scored high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who scored low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships).



CHAPTER II

METHOD

2.1. PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURE

The data were collected from 600 high school students in Ankara, Turkey. 19 of the participants who did not give answers to at least two of the scales were excluded from the data set. In addition, 12 of the participants were identified as outliers in the data screening analyses. Therefore, at the end of the data screening process and after deleting outliers, the final set of data included 569 participants whose data were included in the main analyses. Of the 569 participants, 286 were girls (50.3 %), 265 were boys (46.6 %), and 18 (3.2 %) did not specify their gender. 175 (30.8 %) participants were in the ninth grade, 231 (40.6 %) were in the tenth grade, 96 (16.9 %) were in the 11th grade, 33(5.8 %) were in the 12th grade, and 34 (6.0 %) students did not indicate the class they were studying. The average age of the participants was 15.54 (SD = .98).

As a first step, ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Social and Humanities Ethics Committee of Çankaya University. Secondly, permissions for data collection from high school students were obtained from Ministry of National Education by following formal processes. Six different high schools which were selected for data collection according to their education types in the Turkish national education system. The schools represented Anatolian high schools, vocational and technical Anatolian high schools, science high schools, and private high schools. More specifically, Altındağ Ankara Vocational and Technical Anatolian High School was selected as a representative of vocational and technical anatolian high schools. Cumhuriyet Science High School was selected as a representative of science high schools. Çankaya Kocatepe Mimar Kemal Anatolian High School, Leyla Turgut Anatolian High School and 75.Yıl Anatolian High School were selected as representatives of Anatolian high schools. Sınav Private High School was selected as a representative of private high schools. Directors of six representative high schools were contacted by the researcher and all of them

agreed to let the researcher contact with their students and to allow her to distribute the survey packages to those who volunteered.

115 (20.2 %) of the participants were Ankara Altındağ Vocational and Technical Anatolian High School students, 189 (33.2 %) of Çankaya Kocatepe Mimar Kemal Anatolian High School students, 48 of them (8.4 %) were Leyla Turgut Anatolian High School students and 71 (12.5 %) of the participants were 75.Yıl Anatolian High School students. 64 (11.2 %) of the participants were Cumhuriyet Science High School students, 82 (14.4%) of the participants were Sınav Private High School students (Table 1).

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Age	<i>M</i>	15.54
	<i>SD</i>	.98
CGPA	<i>M</i>	71.92
	<i>SD</i>	15.66
Gender (%)	Male	48.1
	Female	51.9
Mother's Education (%)	Primary education	26.4
	High school	38.6
	University	27.4
	Master's degree	6.5
	Doctoral degree	1.1
Father's Education (%)	Primary education	17.0
	High school	35.2
	University	38.7
	Master's degree	6.6
	Doctoral degree	2.6
Class (%)	9 th grade	32.7
	10 th grade	43.2
	11 th grade	17.9
	12 th grade	6.2

2.2. MEASURES

The survey package included measures of exposure to domestic violence, bullying, silencing the self behaviors, resilience, self-efficacy, friendship quality, and stress-coping strategies, and also a demographic section in which information about gender, age, number of siblings, class, CGPA, socio-economic status, type of location (i.e., metropolitan, city, town, village) that the participants spent most of

their life times, and parental education levels were asked. High scores received from each of the measures refers to high occurrence of the measured construct.

2.2.1. The Domestic Violence Scale for Secondary School Students

The domestic violence scale for secondary school students, which was developed by Yıldırım and Kızmaz (2018) was used to measure exposure to domestic violence. The scale consists of 28 items and the participants answer questions using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Never, 5 = Always). The scale assesses exposure to domestic violence in three sub-dimensions which are physical, verbal/psychological, and economic violence. Yıldırım and Kızmaz (2018) reported the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the subscales as .84 for physical violence, .85 for verbal/psychological, .71 for economic violence, and as .91 for the overall scale. Physical violence subscale includes 9 items and a sample item is "I am exposed to physical violence at home when I did not study my lessons". Verbal/psychological violence subscale consists of 13 items and a sample item is "My family members use foul/obscene language while talking to each other". Economic violence dimension subscale includes 6 items and a sample is "I'm afraid to ask money from my family when I need it".

2.2.2. Revised Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire

In order to measure bullying, the Revised Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire which was developed by Olweus in 1996 (Solberg & Olweus, 2003) was used. The original scale includes 40 items and measures perpetration/victimization related to seven types of bullying (exclusion, physical, verbal, rumors, personal stuffs stolen or damaged, threats, and harassment associated to race). The scale was adapted to Turkish by Dölek (2002). Dölek (2002) developed and added 9 items to the scale and therefore, the Turkish version of the scale consists of 49 questions in total which measure the presence and frequency of bullying behavior and victimization. The participants answer questions using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Never happened during this semester, 5 = Happened several times a week during this semester). In the current study, only 8 items which were related to bullying behaviors were used. The internal consistency was reported as .80 or higher for the original scale (Sacco, 2002). In a study conducted in Turkey, the internal consistency coefficients of the Turkish scale

were found to be .71 for victimization and .75 for bullying (Atik, 2006). The participants are asked frequency of the bullying behaviors directed to their school mate(s) listed in the items and a sample item is “I threatened them to give their money, I took their stuff or I damaged to their stuff”.

2.2.3. Silencing the Self Subscale

Silencing the self-behaviors scale, which was developed by Jack and Dill (1992) and adapted to Turkish by Göncü and Sümer (2011) was used to measure the silencing the self-behaviors of the participants. The scale consists of 9 items and the participants give their responses using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = I strongly disagree, 5 = I strongly agree). The original version of the scale includes the self-silencing behaviors that individuals exhibit in their close relationships and includes 31 items that represent four sub-dimensions which are externalized self-perception, care as self-sacrifice, silencing the self and the divided self. In the present study, silencing the self subscale which includes 9 items was used and a sample item is “I don’t speak my feelings in an intimate relationship when I know they will cause disagreement”. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of the silencing the self subscale was reported as .85 for the Turkish version of the subscale (Göncü & Sümer, 2011).

2.2.4. The Brief Resilience Scale (BRS)

The brief resilience scale, which was developed by Smith, Dalen, Wiggins, Tooley, Christopher and Bernard (2008) was used to measure the level of resilience. The scale is unidimensional and consists of 6 items and the participants give their answers using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree). The scale was adapted to Turkish by Doğan (2015). A sample item is “I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times”. Smith and colleagues (2008) reported that the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of the subscales vary between .80 and .91. Doğan (2015) reported the internal consistency coefficient of the Turkish version of the scale as .83.

2.2.5. The Self-Efficacy Scale for Children

The self-efficacy scale, which was developed by Muris (2001) was used to measure self-efficacy levels of children aged between 14-17. The scale consists of 21 items and participants give their responses using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Not

at all, 5 = Very well). This scale was adapted to Turkish by Telef and Karaca (2012). It was used to measure social, academic and emotional self-efficacy of adolescents. Academic self-efficacy dimension includes 7 items and a sample item is “How well do you succeed in finishing all your homework every day?”. Social self-efficacy dimension includes 7 items and a sample item is “How well do you succeed in staying friends with other children?”. Emotional self-efficacy dimension includes 7 items and a sample item is “How well do you succeed in becoming calm again when you are very scared?”. Muris (2002) reported the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of the subscales as .85 for social self-efficacy, .88 for academic self-efficacy, .88 for emotional self-efficacy, and as .88 for the overall scale. Telef and Karaca (2012) reported the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of the subscales as .64 for social self-efficacy, .84 for academic self-efficacy, .78 for emotional self-efficacy, and as .86 for the overall scale.

2.2.6. Friendship Quality

Participants’ friendship quality levels were measured by friendship quality scale which was developed by Thien, Razak, and Jamil (2012), and adapted to Turkish by Akin, Karduz Adam, and Akin (2014). The scale consists of 21 items and participants give their answers using a 6-point Likert scale (1 = Totally disagree, 6 = Totally agree). The scale consists of four sub-dimensions which are closeness, help, acceptance, and safety. Closeness dimension includes 6 items and a sample item is “I would not feel shy when performing something humorous in front of my friends”. Help dimension consists of 3 items and a sample item of the subscale is “My friends always help me when I have problems in completing my homework.” Acceptance dimension includes 4 items and a sample item is “My friends forgive me easily.” Safety dimension consists of 8 items and a sample item is “I feel safe when the precious belongings are kept by my friends”. Thien and colleagues (2012) reported the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of the subscales as .83 for closeness, .81 for help, .84 for acceptance, .88 for safety, and as .91 for the overall scale. Akin and colleagues (2014) reported the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of the subscales as .75 for closeness, .81 for help, .77 for acceptance, .82 for safety, and as .91 for the overall Turkish scale.

2.2.7. Stress-Coping Strategies Scale

The “Ways of Coping Inventory”, which was developed by Folkman and Lazarus (1980) was used to measure stress coping strategies. The original scale includes 66 items. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Şahin and Durak (1995). The authors created a shorter version of the inventory and they named the scale as “Stress-Coping Strategies Scale”. This scale consists of 30 items and it is scored between 0-3 (0 = %0, 1 = %30, 2 = %70, 3 = %100). Participants give their responses by evaluating each item as to what extent the behaviors presented in each item is appropriate for them when they have a problem. Therefore, they are presented an incomplete sentence of “when I have a problem...” at the beginning of the scale and then, they are asked to give their responses to each item in the scale. The scale has five subscales which are self-confident style, optimistic style, submissive style, helpless style and seeking social support. Self-confident style subscale includes 7 items and a sample item is “I try to solve the problem/problems step by step”. Optimistic style subscale contains 5 items and a sample item is “I try to be optimistic”. Helpless style subscale includes 8 items and a sample item is “I feel like trapped”. Submissive subscale contains 6 items and a sample item is “I believe that I can do nothing about it”. Seeking social support subscale includes 4 items and a sample item is “I consult others to understand the real reason of the problem”. Şahin and Durak (1995) reported the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of the subscales as .80 for self-confident style, .68 for optimistic style, .73 for helpless style, .70 for submissive style, and as .47 for seeking social support.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1. OVERVIEW

Analyses conducted in this study are presented in five sections. In the first section data cleaning and data screening processes are presented. The second section includes reliability analyses of the study measures. The third section consists of descriptive statistics, bivariate, and partial correlations among the study variables. The fourth section includes hypothesis testing results. The final section consists of additional analysis for explanatory purposes.

Data were analyzed by using Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22.0 (IBM Corp, 2015). In order to conduct the moderation analyses of the study, PROCESS Macro 3.3. for SPSS which was developed by Hayes (2017) was used. Also, Structural Equation Modeling was used in order to test the hypothesized heuristic model by using AMOS 25.0 (Arbuckle, 2013).

3.2. DATA SCREENING AND DATA CLEANING

Out of 600 participants, 19 participants did not fill at least one of the scales. Therefore, 19 participants were eliminated at the beginning of the data analysis. The data including 581 participants were screened for missing scores. There were seven scales in the questionnaire which included a total of 123 items. Out of 71463 data points, there were 382 missing data points (0.5 %) excluding the demographic variables. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), replacement method can be used to handle the missing values if the missing data point's ratio over the total data points is smaller than 5%. So, to keep the sample size as large as possible, the mean replacement method was employed.

Outlier analysis was performed, after replacing the mean values. To detect multivariate outliers in the data, Mahalanobis distance was used. Mahalanobis distance analyses revealed that 12 participants were multivariate outliers and they

were excluded from the data set. Therefore, the final sample included 569 participants.

3.3. RELIABILITY ANALYSES OF THE STUDY MEASURES

Since all of the scales used in the present study were validated scales, that is, since there were no recently developed measures and translated/back translated measures in the present study, only the Cronbach's alpha was used as the estimate of internal reliability.

3.3.1. Child Exposure to Domestic Violence (CEDV)

Child exposure to domestic violence scale includes 28 items and 3 dimensions. These subscales are physical violence (9 items), verbal/psychological violence (13 items), economic violence (6 items). The Cronbach's alpha value of the scales were found to be $\alpha = .82$, $\alpha = .78$, and $\alpha = .61$, respectively. However, in the reliability analysis of the economic violence dimension it was revealed that item 4 in the economic violence subscale ("My family strictly controls where I spend my money") had low item-total correlation (i.e., .25). In addition, the Cronbach's alpha value of the 5-item economic violence subscale after removing item 4 would be .64. Therefore, a decision was made to remove this item. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the overall CEDV scale which included 27 items was .88.

3.3.2. Bullying

8 items of the 40-item Revised Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire was used to measure instigated bullying of adolescents in the current study. The Cronbach's alpha reliability of bullying subscale was at acceptable level ($\alpha = .73$).

3.3.3. Silencing the Self-Behaviors

Silencing the self-behaviors subscale includes 9 items and the Cronbach's alpha reliability of the subscale was found as .73.

3.3.4. Resilience

The brief resilience scale consists of 6 items. The Cronbach's alpha reliability of the scale was found as .83.

3.3.5. Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy scale includes 21 items and 3 dimensions. These subscales are academic self-efficacy (7 items), social self-efficacy (7 items), and emotional self-efficacy (7 items). The Cronbach's alpha value of the subscales were found to be $\alpha = .79$, $\alpha = .70$, and $\alpha = .80$ for academic, social, and emotional self-efficacy, respectively. The overall reliability of the self-efficacy scale was .83.

3.3.6. Friendship Quality

Friendship quality scale consists of 21 items and 4 dimensions which are safety (8 items), closeness (6 items), acceptance (4 items), and help (3 items). The Cronbach's alpha value of the subscales were found to be $\alpha = .77$, $\alpha = .66$, $\alpha = .62$, and $\alpha = .64$, respectively. Although internal reliability coefficients of the closeness, acceptance, and help subscales were below the acceptable level of .70, none of the items in these subscales had item-total correlations lower than .30 and excluding items in these subscales would not increase the Cronbach's alpha reliabilities. In addition, overall friendship quality score was used during hypothesis testing in the present study and the overall reliability of the friendship quality scale was .87.

3.3.7. Stress-Coping Strategies

Stress-coping strategies scale consists of 30 items and 5 dimensions which are self-confident style (7 items), optimistic style (5 items), submissive style (6 items), helpless style (8 items), and seeking social support (4 items). The Cronbach's alpha values of the subscales were found to be $\alpha = .82$, $\alpha = .72$, $\alpha = .68$, $\alpha = .78$, $\alpha = .63$, respectively. However, in the reliability analysis of submissive style subscale it was revealed that item 3 in the submissive style dimension ("I make a vow to solve the problem") was observed to have low item-total correlation (i.e., $r = .20$). Therefore, a decision was made to remove this item. The Cronbach's alpha value of submissive style subscale after removing item 3 was found to be .71. In seeking social support subscale, total item correlations of two very similar reverse coded items were negative ($r = -.07$ and $r = -.12$, respectively). However, excluding these items was not found to make a significant increase in the reliability coefficient (i.e., The Cronbach's alphas if item deleted were both .64) and the common problem with these items were thought to be their reverse coded nature. Therefore, the scale

score for the seeking social support subscale was calculated by including all of the 4 items.

3.4. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, BIVARIATE AND PARTIAL CORRELATIONS AMONG THE STUDY VARIABLES

Means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values of study variables are presented in Table 2. Bivariate correlations among the study variables and the internal reliability coefficients are presented in Table 3. The findings revealed that CGPA was positively associated with age ($r = .09, p < .05$), and mothers' education level was positively correlated with CGPA ($r = .25, p < .05$). Fathers' education level was positively associated with gender (i.e., boys reported higher levels of fathers' education), CGPA, and mothers' education level ($r = .16, p < .01; r = .31, p < .01; r = .59, p < .01$, respectively). Family income was positively correlated with gender (i.e., boys reported higher levels of family income), CGPA, mothers' education and fathers' education levels ($r = .22, p < .01; r = .31, p < .01; r = .44, p < .01, r = .47, p < .01$; respectively).

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations; Minimum and Maximum Values of Study

Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.	Rating Scale
Age	15.54	0.98	13.0	19.0	-
CGPA	71.92	15.66	25.0	99.0	-
Mothers' Education	2.17	0.93	1.00	5.00	1-5
Fathers' Education	2.42	0.93	1.00	5.00	1-5
FamilyIncome	3.55	1.47	1.00	6.00	1-6
Class	9.97	9.97	9.00	12.00	-
CEDV	1.48	.047	1.00	3.93	1-5
PhysicalViolence	1.26	.044	1.00	4.56	1-5
V/P Violence	1.73	.062	1.00	5.77	1-5
EconomicViolence	1.24	.045	1.00	3.80	1-5
Bullying	1.36	.046	1.00	3.75	1-5
STS	3.53	1.01	1.00	6.78	1-7
Resilience	3.10	.089	1.00	5.00	1-5
Self-efficacy	3.12	.057	1.43	4.71	1-5
Social self-efficacy	3.43	.071	1.00	5.00	1-5
Academic self-efficacy	2.95	.076	1.00	5.00	1-5
Emotional self-efficacy	2.96	.087	1.00	5.00	1-5
SC/Self-Confident	2.06	.058	.00	3.00	0-3
SC/Optimistic	1.78	.063	.20	3.00	0-3
SC/Helpless	1.40	.063	.00	3.00	0-3
SC/Submissive	0.95	.065	.00	3.00	0-3
SC/Seekingsocialsupport	1.76	.065	.00	3.00	0-3
FriendshipQuality (FQ)	4.06	.080	1.62	6.00	1-6
Safety	3.68	.094	1.00	6.00	1-6
Closeness	4.42	.093	1.33	6.00	1-6
Help	3.89	1.19	1.00	6.00	1-6
Acceptance	4.40	.096	1.00	6.00	1-6

Gender was negatively associated with verbal/psychological violence ($r = -.01, p < .01$). That is, boys reported lower levels of verbal/psychological violence than girls. In addition, gender was positively correlated with economic violence ($r = .12, p < .01$) meaning that boys reported higher levels of economic violence than girls. As expected, gender was positively associated with bullying behaviors ($r =$

.14, $p < .01$). That is, boys reported higher levels of instigated bullying than girls. Unexpectedly, gender was positively correlated with STS ($r = .11, p < .01$) meaning that boys reported higher levels of STS than girls. Gender was also positively associated with resilience ($r = .16, p < .01$). That is, boys reported higher levels of resilience than girls. In addition, gender was positively associated with overall self-efficacy ($r = .13, p < .01$) and emotional self-efficacy ($r = .22, p < .01$) meaning that boys reported higher levels of overall and emotional self-efficacy than girls. Also, gender was positively correlated with self-confident style ($r = .10, p < .05$) and optimistic style ($r = .12, p < .01$) meaning that boys reported higher levels of self-confident and optimistic styles than girls. However, it was found that gender was negatively correlated with seeking social support ($r = -.09, p < .05$) meaning that boys reported lower levels of seeking social support than girls.

Table 3
Bivariate Correlations between Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
1. Gender	-																					
2. Age	.01	-																				
3. CGPA	.07	.09*	-																			
4. Mother's Education	.09	-.02	.25*	-																		
5. Father's Education	.16**	-.02	.31**	.59**	-																	
6. Income	.22**	-.01	.31**	.44**	.47**	-																
7. CEDV	.03	.01	-.11*	.01	.01	-.01	(.88)															
8. Physical Violence	.06	-.00	-.12**	.00	.02	-.04	.84**	(.82)														
9. V/P Violence	-.01*	.02	-.09*	.01	.00	-.00	.94**	.65**	(.78)													
10. Economic Violence	.12**	.00	-.08	.02	.03	-.02	.74**	.66**	.55**	(.61)												
11. Bullying	.14**	.10*	-.02	.02	.06	.11**	.38**	.36**	.33**	.33**	(.73)											
12. STS	.11**	-.00	-.14**	-.06	-.05	-.13**	.12**	.11**	.10*	.12**	-.03	(.73)										
13. Resilience	.16**	-.00	.11*	.03	.03	.12**	-.14**	-.09*	-.15**	-.08*	-.02	-.22**	(.83)									
14. Self-efficacy	.13**	.00	.25**	.14**	.17**	.20**	-.27**	-.17**	-.28**	-.19**	-.05	-.22**	.56**	(.83)								
15. Social self-efficacy	.04	.08	.07	.15**	.11**	.17**	-.13**	-.08	-.12**	-.15**	.07	-.31**	.25**	.70**	(.70)							
16. Academic self-efficacy	-.00	-.07	.35**	.05	.12**	.05	-.29**	-.19**	-.31**	-.19**	-.14**	-.08*	.26**	.70**	.25**	(.79)						

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
17. Emotional self-efficacy	.22**	.01	.12**	.11**	.14**	.20**	.17**	-.11**	-.18**	-.10*	-.04	-.10**	.68**	.79**	.35**	.31**	(.80)				
18. SC /Self-Confident	.10*	.12**	.08	.11**	.08	.07	-.22**	-.16**	-.21**	-.21**	-.08*	-.21**	.40**	.58**	.43**	.35**	.48**	(.82)			
19. SC/Optimistic	.12**	-.00	.02	.04	.02	.00	-.21**	-.12**	-.24**	-.12**	-.12**	.06	.39**	.48**	.21**	.33**	.50**	.57**	(.72)		
20. SC/Helpless	-.07	.04	-.09*	-.03	-.00	-.11*	.30**	.17**	.32**	.22**	.11**	.27**	-.48**	-.36**	-.16**	-.26**	-.35**	-.35**	-.19**	(.78)	
21. SC/Submissive	.03	.00	-.11**	-.01	-.05	-.10*	.24**	.17**	.22**	.26**	.15**	.30**	-.28**	-.24**	-.12**	-.22**	-.19**	-.28**	-.11**	.54**	(.68)

Table 3
Continued

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
22. SC/Seeking social support	-.09*	-.01	.06	.06	-.01	-.00	-.19**	-.13**	-.20**	-.14**	-.08	-.22**	.07	.22**	.26**	.20**
23. Friendship Quality (FQ)	-.21**	.07	-.01	.05	-.06	-.02	-.17**	-.16**	-.14**	-.13**	-.05	-.04	-.01	.21**	.36**	.09*
24. FQ –Safety	-.14**	-.03	.01	.03	-.06	-.04	-.17**	-.15**	-.17**	-.09*	-.08*	.04	-.06	.14**	.22**	.13**
25. FQ –Closeness	-.21**	.21**	-.04	.05	-.04	.02	-.07	-.12**	-.02	-.10*	.05	-.13**	.05	.20**	.43**	-.02
26. FQ – Help	-.23**	.00	.00	.03	-.06	-.09*	-.09*	-.10*	-.08	-.05	-.06	.03	-.08*	.09*	.17**	.07
27. FQ –Acceptance	-.10*	.08*	-.02	.05	-.01	.01	-.20**	-.17**	-.18**	-.17**	-.07	-.07	.07	.25**	.38**	.09*

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Gender was coded as “1” for females and “2” for males.
SC = stress-coping strategies V/P = verbal/psychological violence

Table 3
Continued

Variable	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
22. SC/Social Seeking	.04	.17**	.14**	.13**	.16**	(.63)					
23. Friendship Quality (FQ)	.04	.17**	.08	.06	.08	.21**	(.87)				
24. FQ –Safety	-.01	.10*	.06	.07	.09*	.20**	.88**	(.77)			
25. FQ –Closeness	.08*	.18**	.03	.03	.04	.14**	.81**	.56**	(.66)		
26. FQ – Help	-.03	.10**	.07	.10**	.07	.11**	.69**	.53**	.42**	(.64)	
27. FQ –Acceptance	.11**	.19**	.12**	-.01	.03	.18**	.78**	.59**	.59**	.44**	(.62)

As expected, gender was negatively correlated with overall friendship quality ($r = -.21, p < .01$) as well as with all of the subdimensions of friendship quality meaning that boys reported lower levels of friendship quality than girls.

Age was positively correlated with instigated bullying ($r = .10, p < .05$), self-confident style ($r = .12, p < .01$), closeness dimension of friendship quality ($r = .21, p < .01$), and with acceptance dimension of friendship quality ($r = .08, p < .05$).

As expected, CGPA was negatively associated with CEDV, physical violence and verbal/psychological violence ($r = -.11, p < .05$; $r = -.12, p < .01$; $r = -.09, p < .05$; respectively). Also, CGPA was negatively correlated with STS ($r = -.14, p < .01$) while it was positively correlated with resilience ($r = .11, p < .05$). CGPA was also positively associated with overall self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy and emotional self-efficacy ($r = .25, p < .01$; $r = .35, p < .01$; $r = .12, p < .01$; respectively); but it was not significantly correlated with social self-efficacy. CGPA was negatively correlated with helpless style and submissive style ($r = -.09, p < .05$; $r = -.11, p < .01$; respectively).

Mothers' education level was positively correlated with overall self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, and emotional self-efficacy ($r = .14, p < .01$; $r = .15, p < .01$; and $r = .11, p < .01$; respectively). Also, mothers' education level was positively correlated with adolescents' self-confident style ($r = .11, p < .01$). Similarly, fathers' education level was positively associated with overall self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy and emotional self-efficacy ($r = .17, p < .01$; $r = .11, p < .01$; $r = .12, p < .01$; and $r = .14, p < .01$; respectively).

Family income level was positively associated with bullying behaviors ($r = .11, p < .01$) while it was negatively correlated with STS ($r = -.13, p < .01$). Also, family income level was positively associated with resilience ($r = .12, p < .01$) and overall self-efficacy ($r = .20, p < .01$). More specifically, family income level was positively associated with social self-efficacy and emotional self-efficacy ($r = .17, p < .01$; $r = .20, p < .01$; respectively). Family income level was negatively associated with helpless and submissive styles ($r = -.11, p < .05$; $r = -.10, p < .05$; respectively) as well as with help dimension of friendship quality ($r = -.09, p < .05$).

The findings revealed that, as expected, overall CEDV score as well as the subdimensions of CEDV (i.e., physical violence, verbal/psychological violence, and economic violence) were positively correlated with bullying and STS, and they were negatively correlated with resilience, overall self-efficacy, and with the

subdimensions of academic and emotional self-efficacy (Table 3). However, it was found that physical violence subdimension of CEDV was not significantly associated with social self-efficacy (i.e., $r = -.08$).

Since gender, age, CGPA of the students, mothers' and fathers' education levels and family income level were significantly associated with the main study variables, partial correlations were calculated by controlling for these variables and presented in Table 4. As can be seen in Table 4, after controlling for all these demographic variables, the correlations among the study variables were very similar to the bivariate correlations.

As can be seen in the partial correlations table (Table 4), among the stress coping strategies, helpless style was negatively associated with resilience ($r = -.47$, $p < .01$), and it was negatively correlated with overall self efficacy ($r = -.33$, $p < .01$), and with the subdimensions of social, academic and emotional self-efficacy ($r = -.16$, $p < .01$; $r = -.23$, $p < .01$, $r = -.34$, $p < .01$; respectively). Submissive style was negatively correlated with resilience and self-efficacy ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$; $r = -.21$, $p < .01$; respectively). Also, it was negatively associated with social, academic and emotional self-efficacy ($r = -.10$, $p < .05$; $r = -.18$, $p < .01$, $r = -.19$, $p < .01$; respectively). Surprisingly, the correlations of seeking social support with resilience and emotional self-efficacy were found to be non-significant (i.e., $r = .08$, and $r = .05$; respectively). Also, surprisingly, the correlation between overall friendship quality and resilience was found to be non-significant (i.e., $r = .02$). In addition, it was found that resilience was not significantly associated with safety, closeness and help dimensions of friendship quality (i.e., $r = -.04$, $r = .08$, $r = -.01$; respectively). However, it was found that resilience was significantly correlated with acceptance dimension of friendship quality ($r = .10$, $p < .05$).

Table 4

Partial Correlations between Study Variables Controlling for Demographic Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. CEDV	-																	
2. Physical violence	.82**	-																
3. V/P violence	.94**	.63**	-															
4. Economic violence	.71**	.58**	.54**	-														
5. Bullying	.33**	.31**	.30**	.23**	-													
6. STS	.15**	.10*	.15**	.09*	-.05	-												
7. Resilience	-.22**	-.15**	-.22**	-.14**	-.06	-.25**	-											
8. Self-efficacy	-.29**	-.18**	-.29**	-.22**	-.05	-.23**	.55**	-										
9. Social self-efficacy	-.10*	-.04	-.11*	-.12**	.12**	-.30**	.26**	.71**	-									
10. Academic self-efficacy	-.29**	-.18**	-.30**	-.20**	-.14**	-.03	.26**	.69**	.26**	-								
11. Emotional self-efficacy	-.24**	-.17**	-.24**	-.16**	-.09	-.17**	.66**	.79**	.35**	.32**	-							
12. SC/ Self-confident	-.25**	-.16**	-.24**	-.23**	-.09*	-.22**	.37**	.58**	.43**	.37**	.48**	-						
13. SC/ Optimistic	-.22**	-.12**	-.23**	-.16**	-.14**	.00	.36**	.50**	.22**	.38**	.48**	.57**	-					
14. SC/ Helpless	.33**	.18**	.36**	.23**	.13**	.30**	-.47**	-.33**	-.16**	-.23**	-.34**	-.36**	-.20**	-				
15. SC/ Submissive	.20**	.09*	.21**	.20**	.12**	.27**	-.28**	-.21**	-.10*	-.18**	-.19**	-.25**	-.11*	.55**	-			
16. SC/Seeking social support	-.14**	-.08	-.16**	-.06	-.00	-.21**	.08	.22**	.27**	.18**	.05	.14**	.14**	-.10*	-.11*	-		
17. Friendship Quality (FQ)	-.09*	-.10*	-.09	-.03	.01	.00	.02	.26**	.39**	.11*	.09*	.21**	.09*	.03	.07	.22**	-	
18. FQ –Safety	-.13**	-.12**	-.13**	-.02	-.03	.08	-.04	.17**	.23**	.14**	.02	.13**	.06	.05	.08	.21**	.88**	-

Table 4
Continued

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
19. FQ -Closeness	.00	-.03	.02	.00	.12*	-.11*	.08	.26**	.46**	-.00	.12**	.20**	.04	.02	.07	.15**	.81**	.56**	-		
20. FQ – Help	-.03	-.06	-.03	.02	.00	.09*	-.01	.14**	.19**	.09	.04	.15**	.11*	.05	.04	.12**	.67**	.49**	.41**	-	
21. FQ –Acceptance	-.13**	-.09*	-.13**	-.11*	-.03	-.04	.10*	.30**	.38**	.13**	.16**	.21**	.13**	-.04	.02	.20**	.77**	.57**	.58**	.40**	-

Note. * p < .05. ** p < .01.

SC = stress-coping strategies V/P = verbal/psychological violence

3.5. HYPOTHESES TESTING

The main aim of the current study was to investigate the direct effects of CEDV on bullying, STS, resilience and self-efficacy (i.e., social, academic and emotional) among adolescents. In addition, moderating effects of stress coping strategies (i.e., self-confident style, optimistic style, helpless style, and seeking social support) and friendship quality in the proposed relationships of CEDV with above mentioned outcome variables were examined. Each of the hypothesized direct relationships were tested by Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) path analysis procedure by using AMOS 23.0 software (Arbuckle, 2013). The error terms of the dependent variables of bullying, STS, resilience, and the dimensions of self-efficacy (i.e., social, academic and emotional) were allowed to correlate in the model testing. The proposed model provided good fit to the data (χ^2 (N = 569, df = 5) = 6.85, TLI = .99, CFI = .99, NFI = .99, RMSEA = .03; $p = .23$). The analyses of the standardized estimates of the paths revealed that, the paths from CEDV to bullying ($\beta = .39, p < .001$) was positive and significant. In addition, the paths from CEDV to resilience ($\beta = -.14, p < .001$), STS ($\beta = .12, p = .003$), social self-efficacy ($\beta = -.14, p = .001$), academic self-efficacy ($\beta = -.30, p < .001$), and emotional self-efficacy ($\beta = -.17, p < .001$) were also significant (Figure 2). Therefore, Hypotheses 1a which suggested that CEDV would be positively associated with bullying; Hypothesis 1b which proposed that CEDV would be positively correlated with STS; Hypothesis 2 which suggested that the relationship between CEDV and bullying would be stronger than the relationship between CEDV and STS; and Hypothesis 3 which proposed that CEDV would be negatively associated with resilience were all fully supported. In addition, Hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c, which proposed that CEDV would be negatively correlated with social, academic and emotional self-efficacy, were also fully supported.

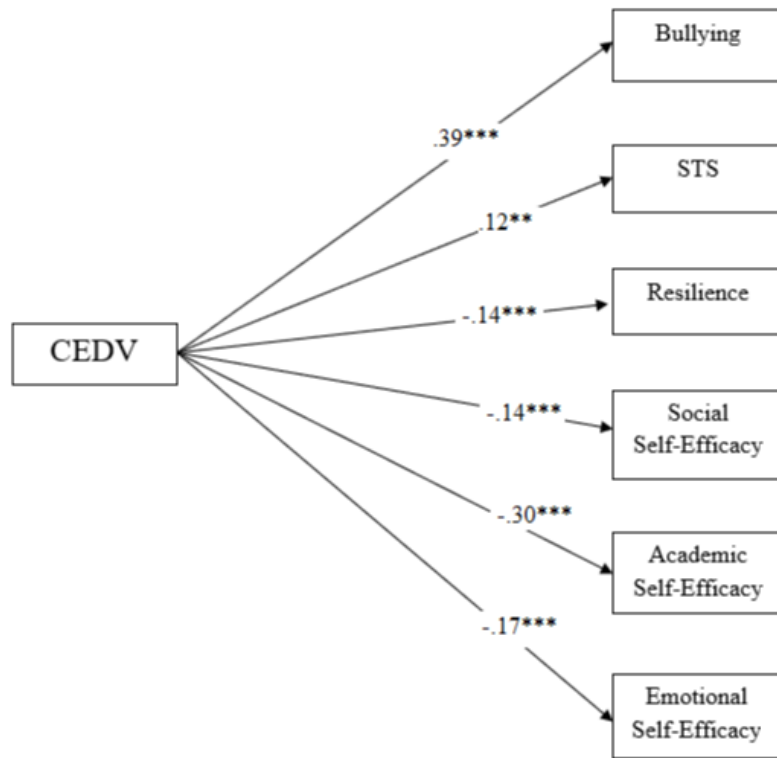


Figure 2. The Standardized Parameter Estimations of the Proposed Model

To test the moderating effects of stress coping strategies and friendship quality in the relationships between CEDV and the dependent variables, a series of regression analyses were conducted. To avoid the problem of multicollinearity with the interaction term, CEDV scores and scores of the moderating variables were centered and the interaction term was created by multiplying the centered scores. In each of the moderation analyses, firstly, hierarchical regression analysis was used. In the first step, CEDV was entered. In the second step, moderating variable was entered in the analysis. In the third step, interaction term was included in the regression.

The results of the PROCESS MACRO analyses showed that the interaction effect of CEDV and self-confident style on bullying was not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 5a which suggested that positive effects of CEDV on bullying would be weaker among those who scored high on self-confident style than those who scored low on self-confident style was not supported. The interaction effect of CEDV and helpless style on bullying was also not significant.

Therefore, Hypothesis 5b which proposed that positive effects of CEDV on bullying would be stronger among those who scored high on helpless style than those who scored low on helpless style was not supported.

Moderation analyses revealed that the interaction effect of CEDV and helpless style on STS was not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 6a which suggested that positive effects of CEDV on STS would be stronger among those who scored high on helpless style than those who scored low on helpless style was not supported. In addition, the interaction effect of CEDV and submissive style on STS was not found to be significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 6b which proposed that positive effects of CEDV on STS would be stronger among those who scored high on submissive style than those who scored low on submissive style was also not supported.

The results revealed that the interaction effect of CEDV and optimistic style on resilience was found to be significant ($\Delta R^2 = .015$, $\beta = -.126$, $p = .001$). After determining the significant effect of the interaction term, conditional levels of optimistic style were calculated via subtracting and adding standard deviation of optimistic style to centered optimistic style scores. The significance of simple slope lines for both high and low levels of optimistic style were tested by multiple regression analyses. To determine the moderating roles of the high levels of optimistic style, multiple regression analysis was conducted. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on resilience with high levels of optimistic style was negative and significant, $\beta = -.183$, $p = .001$. The same analysis was conducted for the low levels of optimistic style. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on resilience with low levels of optimistic style was negative and significant, $\beta = -.151$, $p = .001$. According to the results, optimistic style moderated the effects of CEDV on resilience in such a way that, resilience levels of individuals who scored high on optimistic style were dramatically lower than those who scored low on optimistic style. Therefore, Hypothesis 7a which suggested that, optimistic style would moderate the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience would be stronger for those who scored high on optimistic style than those who scored low on optimistic style, was fully supported (Figure 3).

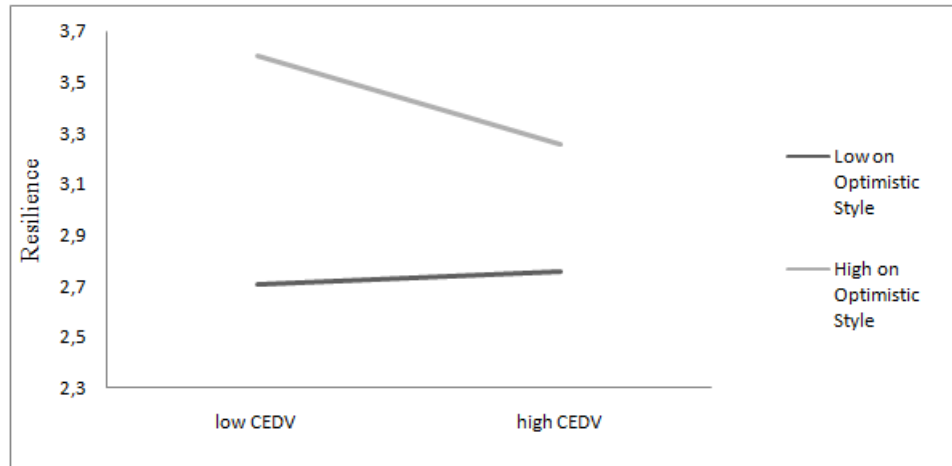


Figure 3. Moderating Roles of Optimistic Style in the Link between CEDV and Resilience

Moderation analyses revealed that the interaction effect of CEDV and seeking social support on resilience was found to be significant ($\Delta R^2 = .009$, $\beta = -.099$, $p = .020$). After determining the significant effect of the interaction term, conditional levels of seeking social support were calculated via subtracting and adding standard deviation of seeking social support to centered seeking social support scores. The significance of simple slope lines for both high and low levels of seeking social support were tested by multiple regression analyses. To determine the moderating roles of the high levels of seeking social support, multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the equation was determined. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on resilience with high levels of seeking social support was negative and significant, $\beta = -.153$, $p = .020$. The same analysis was done for the low levels of seeking social support. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on resilience with low levels of seeking social support was negative and significant, $\beta = -.121$, $p = .020$. According to the results, seeking social support moderated the effects of CEDV on resilience in such a way that the negative link between CEDV and resilience was stronger for individuals who scored low on seeking social support than it was for individuals who scored high on seeking social support. Therefore, Hypothesis 7b which suggested that negative effects of CEDV on resilience would be weaker for those who scored high on seeking social support

than those who scored low on seeking social support was fully supported (Figure 4).

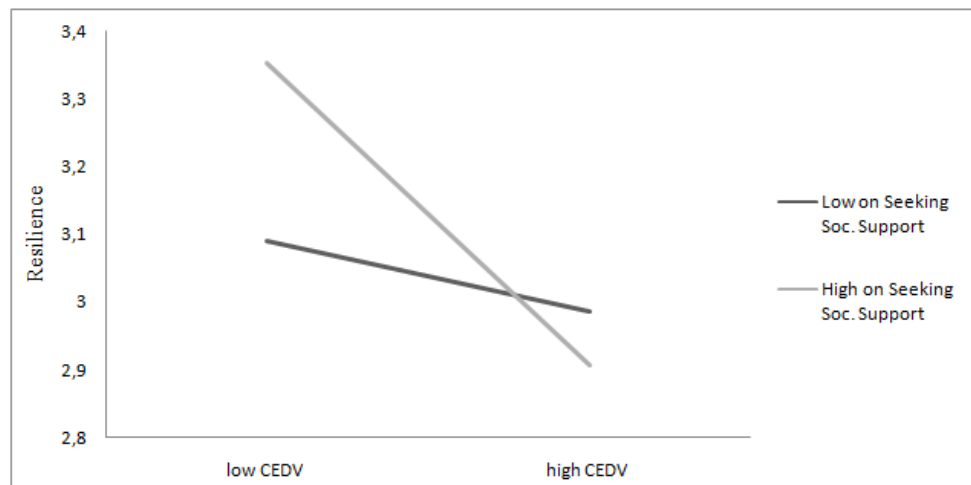


Figure 4. Moderating Roles of Seeking Social Support in the Link between CEDV and Resilience

The results revealed that the interaction effect of CEDV and self-confident style on resilience was not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 7c which suggested that negative effects of CEDV on resilience would be weaker among those who scored high on self-confident style than those who scored low on self-confident style was not supported.

In addition, the results revealed that the interaction effect of CEDV and optimistic style on self-efficacy was found to be significant ($\Delta R^2 = .013$, $\beta = -.118$, $p = .001$). After determining the significant effect of the interaction term, conditional levels of optimistic style were calculated via subtracting and adding standard deviation of optimistic style to centered optimistic style scores. The significance of simple slope lines for both high and low levels of optimistic style were tested by multiple regression analyses. To determine moderating roles of high levels of optimistic style, multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the equation was determined. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on self-efficacy with high levels of optimistic style was negative and significant, $\beta = -.171$, $p = .001$. The same analysis was conducted for the low levels of optimistic style. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on self-efficacy with low levels of optimistic style was negative and significant, $\beta = -.141$, $p = .001$. According

to the results, Hypothesis 8a which suggested that, optimistic style would moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy would be weaker among those who scored high on optimistic style than those who scored low on optimistic style, was fully supported (Figure 5).

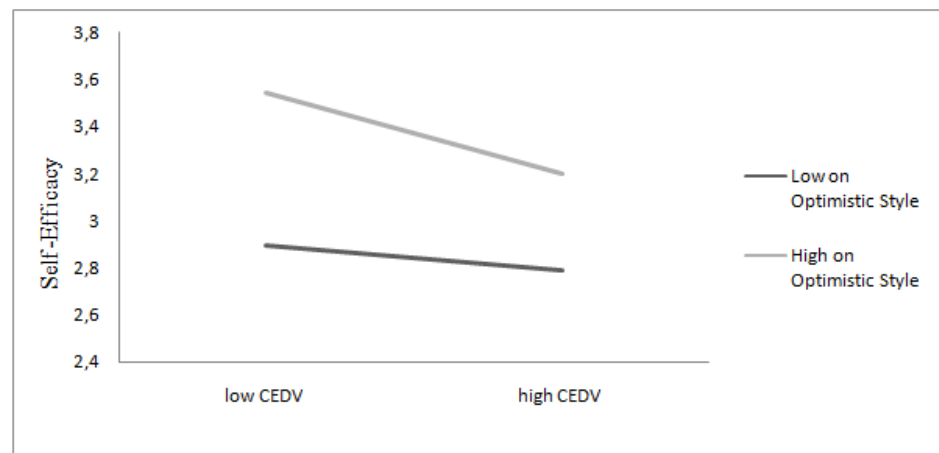


Figure 5. Moderating Roles of Optimistic Style in the Link between CEDV and Self-Efficacy

Moderation analyses revealed that the interaction effect of CEDV and seeking social support on self-efficacy was also found to be significant ($\Delta R^2 = .010$, $\beta = -.100$, $p = .014$). After determining the significant effect of the interaction term, conditional levels of seeking social support were calculated via subtracting and adding standard deviation of seeking social support to centered seeking social support scores. The significance of simple slope lines for both high and low levels of seeking social support were tested by multiple regression analyses. To determine moderating roles of the high levels of seeking social support, multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the equation was determined. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on self-efficacy with high levels of seeking social support was negative and significant, $\beta = -.155$, $p = .014$. The same analysis was done for the low levels of seeking social support. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on self-efficacy with low levels of seeking social support was negative and significant, $\beta = -.122$, $p = .014$. Therefore, Hypothesis 8b

which suggested that, seeking social support would moderate the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy would be weaker among those who scored high on seeking social support than those who scored low on seeking social support, was fully supported (Figure 6).

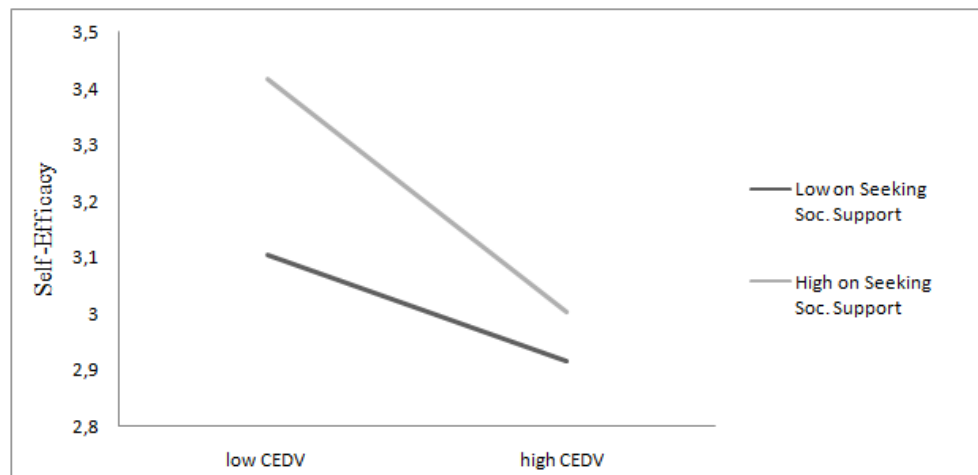


Figure 6. Moderating Roles of Seeking Social Support in the Link between CEDV and Self-Efficacy

The results also revealed that the interaction effect of CEDV and self-confident style on self-efficacy was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .010$, $\beta = -.100$, $p = .014$). After determining the significant effect of the interaction term, conditional levels of self-confident style were calculated via subtracting and adding standard deviation of self-confident style to centered self-confident style scores. The significance of simple slope lines for both high and low levels of self-confident style was tested by multiple regression analyses. To determine moderating roles of high levels of self-confident style, multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the equation was determined. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on self-efficacy with high levels of self-confident was negative and significant, $\beta = -.155$, $p = .014$. The same analysis was done for the low levels of self-confident style. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on self-efficacy with low levels of self-confident was negative and significant, $\beta = -.122$, $p = .014$. Therefore, Hypothesis 8c which suggested that, self-confident style would moderate the

relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy would be weaker among those who scored high on self-confident style than those who scored low on self-confident style, was also fully supported (Figure 7).

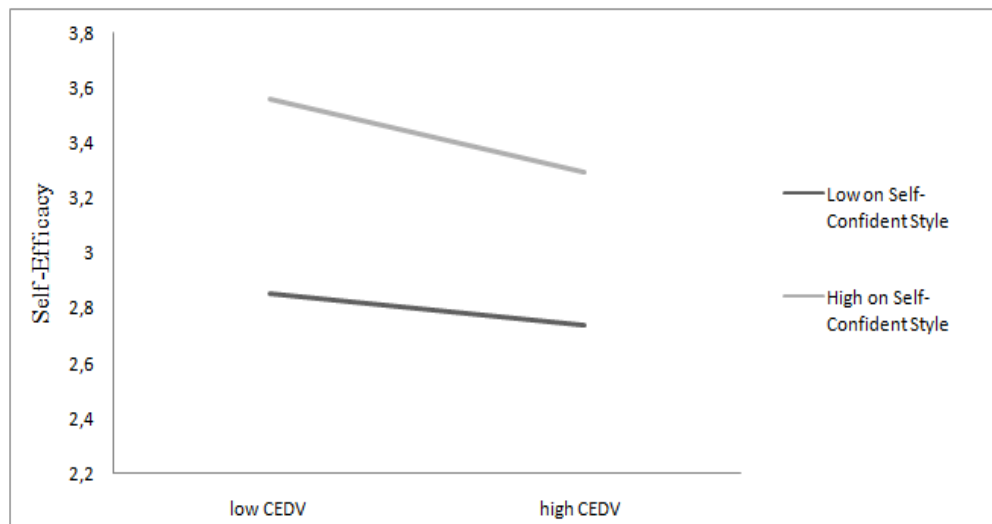


Figure 7. Moderating Roles of Self-Confident Style in the Link between CEDV and Self-Efficacy

The findings showed that the interaction effect of CEDV and friendship quality on bullying was not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 9a which suggested that positive effects of CEDV on bullying would be weaker among those who scored high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who scored low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships) was not supported.

In addition, the interaction effect of CEDV and friendship quality on resilience was not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 9b which proposed that negative effects of CEDV on resilience would be weaker among those who scored high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who scored low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships) was not supported.

The results also revealed that the interaction effect of CEDV and friendship quality on self-efficacy was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .008$, $\beta = -.096$, $p = .021$). After determining the significant effect of the interaction term, conditional levels of

friendship quality were calculated via subtracting and adding standard deviation of friendship quality to centered friendship quality scores. The significance of simple slope lines for both high and low levels of friendship quality were tested by multiple regression analyses. To determine moderating roles of the high levels of friendship quality, multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the equation was determined. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on self-efficacy with high levels of friendship quality was negative and significant, $\beta = -.148$, $p = .021$. The same analysis was done for the low levels of friendship quality. It was found that the slope of the regression line of CEDV on self-efficacy with low levels of friendship quality was negative and significant, $\beta = -.111$, $p = .021$. According to the results, friendship quality moderated the effects of CEDV on self-efficacy, in such a way that self-efficacy levels of individuals who scored high on friendship quality was higher than individuals who scored low on friendship quality even under high CEDV condition. Therefore, Hypothesis 9c which suggested that, friendship quality would moderate the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy would be weaker among those who scored high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who scored low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships), was fully supported (Figure 8).

The summary of the hypotheses and the results are presented in Table 5.

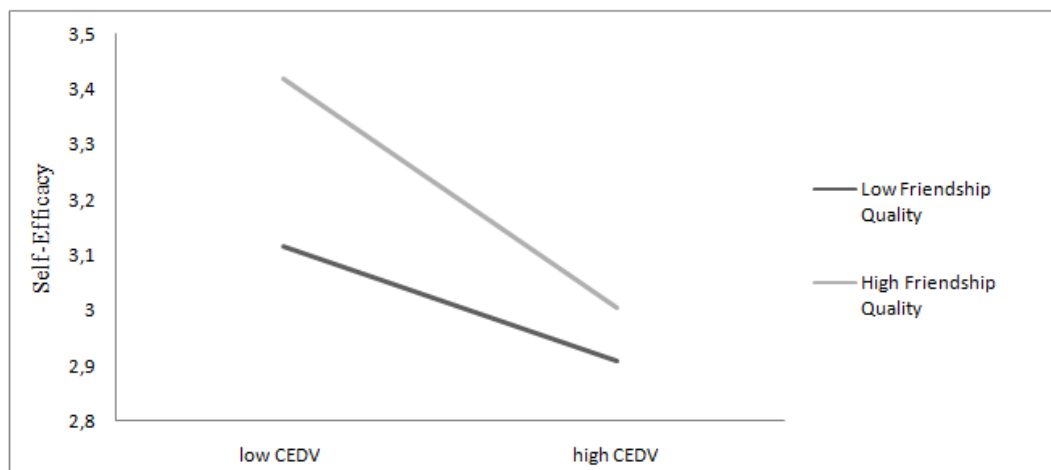


Figure 8. Moderating Roles of Friendship Quality in the Link between CEDV and Self-Efficacy

Table 5

Summary Table for the Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Result
1a: CEDV is positively associated with bullying.	S
1b: CEDV is positively associated with STS behaviors.	S
2: The relationship between CEDV and bullying is stronger than the relationship between CEDV and STS behaviors.	S
3: CEDV is negatively associated with resilience.	S
4a: CEDV is negatively associated with social self-efficacy.	S
4b: CEDV is negatively associated with academic self-efficacy.	S
4c: CEDV is negatively associated with emotional self-efficacy.	S
5a: Self-confident style moderates the relationship between CEDV and bullying in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on bullying is weaker among those who score high on self-confident style than those who score low on self-confident style.	NS
5b: Helpless style moderates the relationship between CEDV and bullying in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on bullying is stronger among those who score high on helpless style than those who score low on helpless style.	NS
6a: Helpless style moderates the relationship between CEDV and STS in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on STS is stronger among those who score high on helpless style than those who score low on helpless style.	NS
6b: Submissive style moderates the relationship between CEDV and STS in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on STS is stronger among those who score high on submissive style than those who score low on submissive style.	NS
7a: Optimistic style moderates the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience is weaker among those who score high on optimistic style using than those who score low on optimistic style.	S
7b: Seeking social support style moderates the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience is weaker for those who score high on seeking social support than those who score low on seeking social support.	S
7c: Self-confident style moderates the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience is weaker among those	NS

who score high on self-confident style than those who score low on self-confident style.	
8a: Optimistic style moderates the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy is weaker among those who score high on optimistic style than those who score low on optimistic style.	S
8b: Seeking social support moderates the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy is weaker among those who score high on seeking social support style using than those who score low on seeking social support.	S
8c: Self-confident style moderates the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy is weaker among those who score high on self-confident style than those who score low on self-confident style.	S
9a: Friendship quality moderates the relationship between CEDV and bullying in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on bullying is weaker among those who score high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who score low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships).	NS
9b: Friendship quality moderates the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience is weaker among those who score high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who score low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships).	NS
9c: Friendship quality moderates the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy is weaker among those who score high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who score low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships).	S

Note. S = Supported, NS = Not supported

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The current study aimed to investigate the direct relationships of CEDV with bullying, STS, resilience and self efficacy (i.e., social, academic, emotional) and moderating effects of friendship quality and stress-coping strategies on proposed the relationships among adolescents. By this way, it was aimed to contribute to theoretical literature regarding the effects of exposure to violence directly or indirectly experienced and/or witnessed at home on adolescents. In addition, by revealing the moderating effects of friendship quality and different stress-coping strategies in the relationships between CEDV and the outcome variables, the study contributed to our understanding of buffering effects of interpersonal and psychological processes which may guide future research as well as practice. In general, the finding supported the proposed theoretical model. In the following sections, firstly, the relationships between demographic variables and the study variables are discussed. Second, the results of the analyses conducted for testing of the hypothesized relationships are summarized along with their theoretical contributions and suggestions for future studies. Third, practical implications of the findings are explained. Finally, limitations of the study are presented along with suggestions for future research.

4.1. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND THE OTHER STUDY VARIABLES

Regarding the relationships of demographic variables with the main variables of the study, it was found that CPGA was positively associated with age. One reason for this positive relationship may be that older students may have better study skills and higher academic motivations than younger students. Furthermore, older adolescents are likely to have higher levels of “crystallized intelligence”

which contains knowledge based on past learning or experiences (Cattell, 1963). In other words, relatively older students can have higher levels of accumulated knowledge and experiences than younger students which may contribute to their higher CGPAs (Powell & Haden, 1984).

In addition, it was also found that CGPA was positively correlated with mother's and father's education levels. There may be two explanations of these relationships. Firstly, parents who had higher education levels may have better academic skills to help their children with their lectures and academic responsibilities than parents who have lower education levels (i.e., parents can solve and teach some academic problems which their child could not). Secondly, parents who had higher education levels can better monitor their child's academic processes, and they may provide better academic guidance to their children. In other words, these parents may observe and know which lectures are more challenging than others for their children, so they can provide proper academic support.

Regarding the relationships of demographic variables with the main variables of the study, it was found that gender was negatively associated with verbal/psychological violence which contain threats to harm, criticizing favorite clothes, and isolating from their peers or others by using force (Connolly & Morris, 2012). More specifically, boys reported lower levels of verbal/psychological violence than girls did. This finding was consistent with the previous studies. To illustrate, it was found that boys were more likely to be exposed to physical violence at home while girls were more likely to be exposed to psychological violence more at home (Kerig et al., 2012). Similarly, it was also found that men were more likely to be exposed to physical violence during their childhood than women (Thompson, Kingree & Desai, 2004).

In fact, previous literature revealed that girls generally reported that they were abused in their families more frequently than boys. On the contrary, gender was positively correlated with economic violence meaning that boys reported higher levels of economic violence than girls. One reason for this positive relationship may be based on gender roles in society. For instance, boys can be forced to work to make contribution to the family budget even if they don't want to work more frequently than girls. Supporting this argument, TÜİK's Child Labor Survey Results (2020) revealed that there were among approximately 16 million

and 457 thousand children in the age group of 5-17 in Turkey, 720 thousand of them were working. 79.7 % of working children were in the age group of 15-17. In addition, it was also reported that 70.6 % of these child workers were boys while 29.4 % of working children were girls. However, in the present study the data were collected from students attending to both private and public schools meaning that socio-economic status distribution of the participants was relatively equivalent. Therefore, another explanation may be that boys may be more likely to perceive economic resources provided to them by their parents as insufficient than girls do and this may be the underlying reason for them to report high levels of perceived economic violence.

Another finding related to the demographic variables was that, gender was positively associated with bullying behaviors. Specifically, boys reported higher levels of instigated bullying than girls. This finding was consistent with the previous studies which revealed that boys were more likely to be both the targets and the instigators of bullying than girls. In addition, boys reported higher levels of direct bullying compared to girls, and girls reported higher levels of indirect bullying like social exclusion from the group (Baldry, 2003). One reason for this finding may be related to the fact that boys are more likely to show externalizing behaviors and overt aggression than girls while girls are more likely to demonstrate internalizing acts (Loukas, Paulos, & Robinson, 2005). Similarly, it was also found that boys were more likely to demonstrate overt aggression compared to girls (Prinstein, Boergers, & Vernberg, 2001). This pattern is also consistent with traditional gender roles. Traditional gender role identity assigns femininity for girls and masculinity for boys, and this plays a significant role on adolescents' development (Kohlberg, 1966; Mussen, 1969). Bem (1974) mentioned that boys were expected to be more dominant, confident, and independent according to traditional gender roles. In contrast, girls were expected to be nurturant, caring, and to give priority to others' needs above theirs. In the previous studies, it was emphasized that learning of traditional gender roles started at young ages long before the adolescence period. For instance, Berk (2010) mentioned that even before children had skills about labeling their own sex, they started to learn common relations regarding expected gender roles such as "boys should be sharp" and "girls should be soft". In other words, the author mentioned that around age 2, children begun to use words like

boys, girls, man and lady. When gender categories were established, children analyzed their gender based on behaviors and activities. It was found that preschoolers may associate gender with toys, games, occupations, and colors. For instance, boys think that they should prefer blue color and want to be a cop when they grow up, and girls start to think that they should prefer pink color and want to be teacher when they grow up (Giles & Heyman, 2005).

Unexpectedly, it was also found that gender was positively correlated with STS meaning that boys reported higher levels of STS than girls. Even though this finding was consistent with the findings of the previous studies, it was unexpected result for this study and also for the previous studies. One possible explanation may be that, boys may be more likely to hide their feelings than girls and may not be likely to prefer overt self-expressions again because of traditional gender roles assigned to them. In addition, although at least to our knowledge, the present study is the first attempt to investigate STS among adolescents, this finding is consistent with previous studies in which the samples were adults. Perhaps boys' silence comes from not having a language to truly self-express their lack of acceptance of their true emotions and/or feelings (Balswick, 1988; Rabinowitz & Cochran, 1994; O'Neil, 1982). Nevertheless, future studies can focus on STS among adolescents, and they are also proposed to examine the possible reasons behind gender differences in STS in more detail by employing qualitative designs.

Another finding related to the demographic variables was that, gender was also positively associated with resilience meaning that boys reported higher levels of resilience than girls. One possible explanation may be associated with social desirability. That is, boys might want to seem like they are more powerful than girls, so they preferred to answer resilience questions accordingly. Therefore, future studies which may aim to replicate the findings are suggested to include social desirability as a control variable.

In addition, it was also found that gender was positively associated with overall self-efficacy and emotional self-efficacy meaning that boys reported higher levels of overall and emotional self-efficacy than girls. One possible explanation may be that, as mentioned above, based on traditional gender roles, especially in collectivist cultures, boys are expected to be more resilient, stronger and to demonstrate higher levels of self-efficacy than girls. In the literature, there are

contrary findings about the relationship between gender and overall self-efficacy. Some studies found significant gender differences in overall self-efficacy while others found that overall self-efficacy did not differ significantly by gender among adolescents (e.g., Keskin & Orgun, 2006). To illustrate, Telef and Karaca (2011) found that overall self-efficacy did not differ depending on adolescents' genders; however, girls have reported higher academic and social self-efficacy scores than boys. The authors also found that boys have reported higher emotional self-efficacy scores than girls. In contrast to adolescents, significant gender differences in overall self-efficacy were reported for adults. For instance, Netz and Raviv (2004) found that male adults had higher levels of overall self-efficacy than female adults. It is plausible to suggest that significant gender differences may be more likely among adolescents for specific domains of self-efficacy such as emotional and academic self-efficacy. Yet, this proposition should be empirically investigated by studies that would compare adult and adolescent samples in order to reach more robust conclusions.

Regarding the relationships of demographic variables with the main variables of the study, it was also found that gender was positively correlated with self-confident and optimistic stress-coping styles meaning that boys reported higher levels of self-confident and optimistic styles than girls. It was also found that gender was negatively correlated with seeking social support meaning that boys reported lower levels of social support seeking than girls. As mentioned above, based on gender specific roles, these results were also consistent with the previous findings and expectations. To illustrate, Şahin and Durak (1995) found that girls were more likely to use seeking social support as a stress-coping strategy than boys. However, these authors did not report gender differences in optimistic style. In addition, Aydın (2003) found that girls were more likely to use self-confident style, optimistic style and seeking social support than boys; however, there was no significant differences between genders when it comes to helpless and submissive styles.

In addition, it was also found that gender was negatively correlated with overall friendship quality as well as with all of the subdimensions of friendship quality meaning that boys reported lower levels of friendship quality than girls.

One possible explanation may be that, girls and boys can have different expectations from their friendships with peers (Berndt, 1982). Consistent to the

other findings, Thomas and Daubman (2001) found that girls described their friendships as being stronger than boys. Also, the authors mentioned that girls spent more time to develop and sustain their close relationships than boys. In addition, in the same study, it was also found that boys reported lower levels of intimacy in their friendships than girls, so friendship quality may be higher for girls than boys. In addition, Wright (2006) mentioned that females reported higher levels of friendship quality than males, because they engage in shared activities with their friends more frequently than males. In other words, the other possible explanation can be that girls may have stronger social networks with their peers, and they may be more likely to make emotional sharing than boys.

Regarding the relationships of demographic variables with the main variables of the study, it was found that age was positively correlated with instigated bullying, self-confident style, and with closeness and acceptance dimensions of friendship quality. One possible explanation may be that, relationships in younger age groups may be based on more childish and more innocent foundations and more core and close groups of friends might be formed as friendships evolve into adolescence years. Also, relationship patterns in existing friendships may change as age and effects of adolescence increases. On the other hand, the positive relationships between age and instigated bullying may be implying that competitiveness and comparative judgments may increase in adolescence. Hence, conflict of interest may become more visible and important in friendship relationships or in general interpersonal relationships. In addition, with increase in body awareness in adolescence, judgments and criticisms based on physical body features and characteristics also may be increasing among adolescents which may contribute to increase in conflict and bullying. In addition, these two findings related to age (i.e., increase in closeness and acceptance dimensions of friendship quality as well as in bullying others) may indicate that in-group and out-group distinctions are sharpened with age. When it is thought that bullying is done to out-group members in general, this finding also supports the positive association between age and bullying which was found as significant. These propositions which are derived from Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) may be important in terms of understanding psychological and social processes underlying the relationships of age with bullying as well as for developing intervention strategies for bullying and

wait for future research. Finally, as expected, age was positively correlated with self-confident stress-coping style. One possible explanation may be that, when age increases, older children or adolescents may become more self-confident when they confront difficulties, because they have more experience in and time to learn how to cope with various stressors than younger ones.

It was also found that CGPA was negatively correlated with CEDV, and specifically with physical and verbal/psychological violence. This finding was also expected, because it may demonstrate that children' academic success was affected badly from negative home environments (i.e., CEDV). Similarly, it was also found that academic performance and exposure to violence was negatively associated (Warner & Weist, 1996).

Another finding related to the demographic variables was that, CGPA was negatively correlated with STS while it was positively correlated with resilience. One possible explanation may be that, internalizing and externalizing behaviors can be negatively correlated with academic performance. It is likely that internalizing as well as externalizing symptoms may make adolescents lower performers at school depending on various reasons such as decreased probability of seeking help from others or low levels of motivation to study. However, this study has cross-sectional design, so the associations which were found in the current study do not show causal relationships. In addition, there may be a third variable that explain the relationship between CGPA, STS, and resilience such as self-esteem, generalized cognitive ability or availability of help from mentors. Therefore, future studies are suggested to investigate the proposed relationships by employing longitudinal designs.

In addition, it was also found that CGPA was positively associated with overall self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy and emotional self-efficacy, but it was not significantly correlated with social self-efficacy and these findings were also expected. Previous studies consistently revealed that overall self-efficacy was associated with better academic performance (e.g., Lane & Lane, 2001). Therefore, intervention strategies are suggested to target increasing self-efficacy in order to improve academic performance. Furthermore, in the previous literature, there are limited studies which investigated the association between emotional self-efficacy and academic performance (Galla & Wood, 2012) and future studies may benefit

from investigating the relationships between academic performance and specific dimensions of self-efficacy.

Furthermore, it was also found that CGPA was negatively correlated with helpless style and submissive stress-coping styles. One possible reason can be associated with depression. For instance, Elsenberg (2009) found that depression and academic performance was negatively related. Also, Şahin and Durak (1995) found that helpless and submissive styles were positively correlated with depression. Adolescents who use maladaptive stress-coping strategies such as helpless and submissive styles may be likely to fail in their attempts to cope with stressors in their lives, which may further contribute to their low performance at school. Since adaptive stress-coping strategies may be thought to individuals, these findings should also be taken into consideration while designing studies that aim to develop effective intervention strategies for adolescents who are exposed to domestic violence and/or poor performers at school.

Another finding related to the demographic variables was that, mothers' education level was positively associated with overall self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, and emotional self-efficacy. Also, mothers' education level was positively associated with adolescents' self-confident stress-coping style. Similarly, fathers' education level was positively associated with overall self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy and emotional self-efficacy. Furthermore, it was also found that both mothers' and fathers' levels of education were positively associated with adolescents' overall self-efficacy and CGPA. However, mothers' education level had a more significant association with adolescents' overall self-efficacy and CGPA than fathers' education level (i.e., $r = .44$ for mothers' education level, $r = .37$ for fathers' education level) and this finding, which reveals the importance of maternal education level, was consistent with the results of previous studies (e.g., Hortaçsu, 1995). Future studies may further investigate the proposed relationships in order to reveal whether or not these associations differ among different age groups or in time by employing various research designs.

It was also found that family income level was positively correlated with bullying behaviors while it was negatively associated with STS. Also, family income level was found to be positively correlated with resilience and overall self-efficacy, social self-efficacy and emotional self-efficacy. In addition, it was

negatively associated with helpless and submissive stress-coping styles as well as with help dimension of friendship quality. In the previous studies, there are controversial findings about the associations between family income levels and bullying behaviors. Whitney and Smith (1993) found that there was a negative correlation between bullying behaviors and socio-economic status (SES) of families. Also, bullying is occurred frequently in countries which had high economic inequalities than other countries which had low economic inequalities (Elgar, Craig, Boyce, Morgan, & Vella-Zarb, 2009). One possible explanation can be that the relationship between bullying and family income level may be curvilinear (i.e., U shaped). In other words, children from families with both extremely high and extremely low income levels may be more likely to demonstrate bullying behaviors than children who had middle income levels and this may be depending on different reasons (Christie-Mizell, 2004). That is, on the one hand, children and/or adolescents from families with extremely high income levels may be likely to bully others because they can “get away with it” or because they are extremely spoiled so that they think others are inferior to them. On the other hand, those from families with extremely low income levels may be likely to bully others because bullying exemplifies strategies that they learn to deal with others in their poor-quality environments characterized by bad role models, violence, and hostility. Yet, these speculations wait for future investigations that will compare samples from families with extremely high-income levels.

4.2. THE RESULTS OF THE MAIN ANALYSES, THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As expected, overall CEDV score and the subdimensions of CEDV (i.e., physical, economic and verbal/psychological violence) were positively associated with bullying. This finding was also consistent with the literature (Bowes et al., 2009, Dauvergne & Johnson, 2001; Farrington et al., 2010). One possible explanation can be derived from the social learning theory (SLT; Bandura & Walters, 1977). According to SLT, children imitate behaviors of a model, without even the presence of an obvious reinforcement (Bandura & Walters, 1977). In other words, children who are exposed to domestic violence, can imitate aggressive behaviors from their parents and may be more likely to use violence against their

peers than those who are not exposed to such treatment. Therefore, as expected, when CEDV increased, bullying behaviors were also increased.

In addition, it was also found that overall CEDV score as well as the subdimensions of CEDV (i.e., physical violence, verbal/psychological violence, and economic violence) were positively correlated with STS. This association can be explained with the silencing the self theory which emphasizes that people may inhibit their self-expressions to avoid any disagreement and not to lose current relationships (Jack, 1991). In other words, when CEDV increases, STS among adolescents also increases.

Furthermore, as expected, it was also found that the relationship between CEDV and bullying was stronger than the relationship between CEDV and STS behaviors. This finding was also consistent with the findings of previous studies. For instance, it was found that children who were exposed to domestic violence had higher scores on externalizing behaviors than internalizing behaviors (Fantuzzo et al., 1991; McCabe, Lucchini, Hough, Yeh, & Hazen, 2005). As mentioned above (i.e., SLT), one possible reason can be related to imitation, meaning that children who were exposed to domestic violence, may imitate aggression and demonstrate more destructive behaviors towards others, and especially towards those who have equal or less power than they have. Also, another reason can be a “defense mechanism” called “displacement”. McLeod (2019) mentioned that Freud emphasized “ego-defense mechanisms” which protected individuals from their feelings and anxiety. These mechanisms help individuals remove unpleasant feelings and provide well-being. The author defined displacement as “the redirection of an impulse (usually aggression) onto a powerless substitute target” (p.3). In other words, children exposed to domestic violence may be more likely to show aggressive acts to animals, toys and/or peers who are less powerful than themselves.

As expected, it was also found that CEDV was negatively associated with resilience and that optimistic stress-coping style moderated the relationship between CEDV and resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience was weaker among those who scored high on optimistic style using than those who scored low on optimistic style. Beside optimistic style, it was also found that seeking social support style moderated the relationship between CEDV and

resilience in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on resilience was weaker for those who scored high on seeking social support than those who scored low on seeking social support. In the previous studies, it was mentioned that when individuals were faced with negative life circumstances, some of them resist to difficulties while others chose to give up. Supporting these propositions, some studies found that children who were exposed to domestic violence might show great resilience (Masten, 2001), while some of them did not (Hughes et al., 1998). The current study is suggested to provide important contributions to the relevant literature by revealing that, adolescents who were more likely to use optimistic stress coping style and seeking social support were less likely to be negatively affected by CEDV compared to those who used these strategies to low extent and/or those who used other stress coping strategies. In other words, optimistic style and seeking social support seem to be buffering or protective stress coping strategies for adolescents who experience or witness domestic violence.

It was found that friendship quality did not moderate the relationship between CEDV and resilience. This finding is unexpected and also interesting, because as mentioned above, current study found moderating effects of seeking social support on the association between CEDV and resilience. There are two possible explanations for this result. One possible explanation can be that children who were exposed to domestic violence did not take social support from friends and rather they got social support from other same-age or more probably older family members. Second possible explanation can be that children who are exposed to domestic violence may hesitate to talk about their traumatic experiences (i.e., being exposed to domestic violence) with their peers because they are ashamed or embarrassed both on part of themselves and their families. At least to our knowledge, this is the first study which investigated the moderating effects of stress-coping strategies and friendship quality in the associations between CEDV and resilience. Further studies can use different and inclusive measurements to analyze seeking social support behaviors among adolescents who were exposed to domestic violence. To illustrate, further studies can add the questions of “When you seek social support, from who do you prefer to get support?” in their attempts to measure seeking social support behaviors among adolescents or they can develop other multiple choice questions. By doing this, further studies can contribute to our

understanding about moderating effects of seeking social support as well as friendship quality in the relationships between CEDV and resilience.

Furthermore, as expected, it was found that CEDV was negatively associated with social, academic and emotional self-efficacy among adolescents. These results can be associated with attachment theory which was proposed by Bowlby (1969) and social learning theory which was proposed by Bandura (1961). More specifically, children who have insecure attachment (i.e., avoidant, anxious-ambivalent and fearful) may have difficulties in communication and sustaining high quality relationships with others. In addition, children who were exposed to domestic violence can learn maladaptive communication patterns because of witnessing violence. These children can try to sustain their relationships with others by imitating learned maladaptive communication strategies which lead them to usually fail. This in turn, is expected to lead them to have low emotional and social self-efficacy. On the other hand, academic self-efficacy levels of the children who are exposed to domestic violence may be affected directly or indirectly from exposure to violence. In other words, children who are exposed to domestic violence, may not have appropriate home environments to study, they may get injured from violence and these children may fail to study their lectures because of psychological problems and/or physical injury. Another explanation can be that children who were exposed to domestic violence can be forced to work outside (i.e., they can also be exposed to economic violence) and, hence their academic performance as well as academic self-efficacy may decrease.

As mentioned above, this is the first study which investigated the relationships between CEDV and self-efficacy and subdimensions of self-efficacy (i.e., academic, social, emotional) among adolescents and the strongest negative association was found between CEDV and academic self-efficacy followed by emotional and social self-efficacy. One explanation for this finding may be that participants who were exposed to violence might have given high or inflated scores to emotional and social self-efficacy questions because of social desirability while they might have evaluated their academic self-efficacy in a more realistic way. Therefore, future studies are suggested to replicate this study by including valid social desirability measurements and controlling for social desirability problem. Another suggestion for future studies is to test the proposed model with different

age groups (i.e., 10-17 vs. 14-17). Finally, future research may benefit from investigating the proposed relationships by employing longitudinal design. By doing this, they can detect whether the negative effect of CEDV on academic self-efficacy maintains or decline over time. By doing this, future studies can also reveal whether CEDV has more negative effects on emotional and social self-efficacy than it has on their academic self-efficacy when children or adolescents grow up.

Unexpectedly, it was found that self-confident style did not moderate the relationship between CEDV and bullying in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on bullying was not weaker among those who scored high on self-confident stress-coping style than those who scored low on self-confident style. Also, it was found that helpless style did not moderate the relationship between CEDV and bullying in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on bullying was not stronger among those who scored high on helpless style than those who scored low on helpless style. In addition, it was also found that friendship quality did not moderate the relationship between CEDV and bullying in such a way that, positive effects of CEDV on bullying was not weaker among those who scored high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who scored low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships). It was also found that CEDV had the highest positive correlation with bullying compared to other dependent variables (resilience, STS, self-efficacy and its subdimensions). One possible reason for insignificant moderation effects can be that CEDV has strong positive effect on bullying, and any moderator variables which was proposed in this study was not strong enough to buffer the effects of CEDV on bullying. On the other hand, one possible reason of the unexpected finding related to the Hypothesis 9a can be that if bullies have other bullies as friends, friendship quality does not prevent them from bullying; in contrast, high friendship quality can even reinforce their bullying behaviors. Consistent with this argument, friendship quality was found to be moderated by friends' characteristics. That is, if an individual's friends have antisocial acts, these acts can increase with friendship quality (Berndt, 2002). In other words, future studies can benefit from investigating not the "friendship quality", but the "quality of friends" in their attempts to study the moderating effects of friendship patterns in the relationships of CEDV with bullying.

To sum up, as least to our knowledge, this is the first study which investigated the moderating variables that can provide buffering effects on the relationship between CEDV and bullying. Future studies should replicate this study with different samples of the same age group as well as with individuals from different age groups. In addition, future studies should continue to investigate other moderators (i.e., spare time activities, hobbies, and sports) which may have buffering effects on negative outcomes of CEDV. For instance, sports and hobbies may distract children and adolescents who are exposed to domestic violence from bullying and lead them to direct their energy to more beneficial activities. Consistently, in the literature some studies found that extracurricular activities may protect children from being victim of their peers' bullying behaviors (Peguero, 2008). Similarly, bullying was reported to be higher among adolescents who did not join sports (Jankauskiene, Kardelis, Sukys, & Kardeliene, 2008).

It was found that helpless style did not moderate the relationship between CEDV and STS and that submissive style did not moderate the relationship between CEDV and STS. One possible reason for this can be that STS may be related with other personality traits and more enduring characteristics than stress-coping strategies. For instance, Göncü and Sümer (2011) found that attribution style had powerful effects on STS. More specifically, unstable self-esteem and rejection sensitivity were found to be both directly and indirectly related to STS via their effects on attribution styles. Future studies can focus on different personality traits and attribution styles as moderating processes involved in the relationships of CEDV and STS.

As expected, it was found that optimistic style moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy was weaker among those who scored high on optimistic style than those who scored low on optimistic style. Also, it was found that seeking social support moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy was weaker among those who scored high on seeking social support style using than those who scored low on seeking social support. In addition, it was also found that self-confident style moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy was weaker among those who scored

high on self-confident style than those who scored low on self-confident style. Lastly, it was found that friendship quality moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy in such a way that, negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy was weaker among those who scored high on friendship quality (i.e., those who have high-quality friendships) than those who scored low on friendship quality (i.e., those who have low-quality friendships). As far as we know, this is the first study which demonstrated the moderating effects of optimistic and self-confident styles, seeking social support and friendship quality on the relationship between CEDV and overall self-efficacy. In the literature, the important effects of self-efficacy among children and adolescents are usually emphasized and self-efficacy is known to be positively associated with psychological adjustment as well as physical health (Maddux, 2002). Individuals who had low self-efficacy were found to have more tendency for depression, maladaptive anxiety and avoidant behaviors. In addition, self-efficacy plays significant role on individuals' physical health, because it helps change and sustain healthy behaviors (i.e., safe sex, diet, smoking, drug and alcohol abuse) (Bandura, 1997). In other words, adolescents who had lower self-efficacy, may have tendency to have bad habits like smoking or drug and alcohol abuse. The present study aimed to contribute to the literature by revealing the harmful effects of CEDV on self-efficacy among adolescents and by exploring the moderating processes that may weaken these effects.

4.2.1. Practical Implications of the Findings

The current study has a number of contributions to the literature and also implications for practice. Firstly, it contributed to the literature and practice by demonstrating moderating effects of optimistic style on the association between CEDV and resilience. In other words, this study showed buffering effects of optimistic style on the proposed relationship. Negative effects of CEDV on resilience was weaker among those who scored high on optimistic style using than those who scored low on optimistic style. Secondly, it was found that seeking social support moderated the relationship between CEDV and resilience. In other words, this study showed buffering effects of seeking social support on the proposed relationship. The negative effects of CEDV on resilience was weaker for those who scored high on seeking social support than those who scored low on seeking social

support. In addition, it was also found that optimistic style moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy. Furthermore, current study demonstrated buffering effects of optimistic style on the proposed relationship. That is, the negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy was weaker among those who scored high on optimistic style than those who scored low on optimistic style.

Also, it was found that seeking social support moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy. In other words, this study showed buffering effects of seeking social support on the proposed relationship. Furthermore, it was found that self-confident style moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy. Lastly, the results revealed that friendship quality moderated the relationship between CEDV and self-efficacy and showed that the negative effects of CEDV on self-efficacy was weaker among those who scored high on friendship quality than those who scored low on friendship quality.

In line with these findings, future studies can develop intervention programs which include mentioned moderator variables or other variables for suppressing the negative effects of CEDV on adolescents. Also, future studies can investigate other moderator variables such as sports activities, hobbies, and extracurricular activities which may weaken the negative effects of CEDV among adolescents.

In addition, this study contributed to the practice by demonstrating the positive associations between CGPA and overall self-efficacy as well as academic self-efficacy. It may be the case that children who are high performers at school and have high CGPAs may generalize their confidence in academics, and high grades may contribute to increase in the levels of other types of self-efficacy (i.e., social and emotional). Therefore, intervention strategies are suggested to target academic self-efficacy especially among adolescents.

Moreover, it was also found that helpless style and submissive stress-coping styles were negatively associated with CGPA. Adolescents can use maladaptive stress-coping strategies or may not know which stress-coping strategies are better and lack of ability in problem solving and stress-coping seems to negatively affect their school performance. In line with this finding, future studies are suggested to develop intervention strategies or training programs that aim to help adolescents learn and use better stress-coping strategies.

In the literature, it was emphasized that many risk factors play crucial roles in emergence of violence (Heise, 1998). In other words, there are multiple factors (i.e., social, economic, individual and legal issues) that may contribute to prevention of domestic violence. In the report of the World Health Organization (2002), it was mentioned that attempts to prevent domestic violence can be evaluated under three categories. Primary precautions include interventions before violence occurs. For instance, according to Zare-Page and İnce's study (2008) organizing educational studies to inform students about domestic violence, anger control and conflict resolution methods, and informing public about domestic violence are among primary precautions. Secondary precautions contain efforts and attempts to reduce frequency of violence when the first clues of violence appear. For example, executing intervention programs for individuals who had experienced violence or individuals who may have risk of violence by spouse or others are among these precautions. The third type of precautions includes interventions in situations where violence is quite frequent and has potential risk to harm an individual. These precautions can include determined helping plans for individuals who were exposed to domestic violence and also contain punishment for violence offenders.

Children who were exposed to domestic violence, have interactions not only with their family members, but also with their peers, schools, and the community. Potential interactions in these contexts should be considered while designing effective prevention and intervention strategies (Pepler, Catallo, & Moore, 2000). Similarly, it was emphasized that supportive interventions should contain family, community and cultural contexts (e.g., parent-child interventions and nurse home visitation programs) (Masten & Gewirtz, 2006). Future studies are suggested to develop intervention programs for children who were exposed to domestic violence. For instance, educational seminars about domestic violence and stress-coping strategies can be given to mothers of children who are victims of violence. Such efforts can provide benefits not only for those mothers, but also for children who were exposed to domestic violence, because children can monitor their mothers' reactions and stress-coping techniques at the moment of or after exposure to violence. Also, educational seminars about anger management and effective communication skills can be given to fathers of children who are victims of violence. In addition, further studies can develop intervention programs about

friendship quality and adaptive stress-coping strategies at schools. Moreover, specific intervention programs can be developed for children who suffered from violence and stayed in shelters with their mothers. These intervention programs can include gender roles, emotion and its regulation, stress and coping techniques, and other activities which aim to increase awareness about self, boundaries, privacy of body, effective communication skills and anger management. To sum up, parent-training programmes, home-visiting programmes, mother-child therapy for parents, school-based educational programmes can be developed to provide benefits for children who were exposed to domestic violence (MacMillan, Wathen, Barlow, Fergusson, Leventhal, & Taussig, 2009) and the findings of the study is hoped to provide guidance for such efforts in the field.

4.2.2. Limitations of the Study

No study is without limitations and the current study has also a few. Firstly, this study has a cross-sectional design and the data were collected at a single point in time. So, further studies can conduct studies by employing longitudinal design and may provide findings that may elicit more precise and causal conclusions. In addition, the sample size was relatively moderate ($N = 569$) and future studies should obtain larger sample sizes to improve external validity.

The third limitation is that data were collected from adolescents, and it was found that young individuals had higher scores on social desirability than middle-aged and older individuals (Kozma & Stones, 1988). There are social desirability scales which have long lists of items (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964). Even though there is short form (i.e., 10 items in total) of the social desirability scale which was developed by Crowne and Marlow in 1964, that scale has validity and reliability issues (Göncü, 2006). As mentioned before, adolescents who participated in the present study were presented a survey that consisted of 123 items in total and if a long social desirability scale was added, they could be bored because it would have been too long to complete all questions during the limited time provided to the researcher between class hours.

The fourth limitation is that data were collected from only high school students in Ankara, Turkey. In the literature, it was emphasized that there are more children who were exposed to domestic violence in Eastern Anatolia region than

Western Anatolia region in Turkey. For instance, Solak (2016) found that Southeastern Anatolia region had the highest frequency rate of children who were exposed to domestic violence. Future studies can collect data from different cities and regions in order to compare the findings. However, it should be noted that, even though data were not collected from other cities in Turkey, in order to minimize the effects of this limitation, data were collected from six different types of high schools (i.e., private vs. state schools) which were in different districts of Ankara that represents also different SES levels (i.e., Çankaya District vs. Altındağ District).



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

**APPROVAL OF THE SOCIAL AND HUMANITIES ETHICS
COMMITTEE OF ÇANKAYA UNIVERSITY**



ÇANKAYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
REKTÖRLÜK



Sayı : 80281877-050.99
Konu : Etik Kurul Raporu

FEN EDEBİYAT FAKÜLTESİ DEKANLIĞINA

İlgi : 09.08.2019 tarihli ve 76373453-605.01/00000042818 sayılı yazınız.

Fakülteniz Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim elemanlarından Doç. Dr. Aslı GÖNCÜ KÖSE'nin danışmanı olduğu "Aile İçi Şiddete Maruziyet ile Zorbalık, Kendini Susturma Davranışı ve Akademik Öz Yeterlilik Arasındaki İlişkiler: Psikolojik Sağlık, Bağlanma Stili ve Arkadaşlık Kalitesinin Düzenleyici Rollerini" başlıklı yüksek lisans tez araştırmasının Etik Kurul değerlendirilmesi talebi, Üniversitemiz Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulu tarafından değerlendirilmiş ve uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve ilgiliye bilgi verilmesini rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Can ÇOĞUN
Rektör

Ek: 22.08.2019 tarih ve 199 sayılı Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulu Proje Onay Formu

APPENDIX B

APPROVAL OF THE MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION



T.C.
ANKARA VALİLİĞİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü



E.0000051316

Sayı : 14588481-605.99-E.24436826
Konu : Araştırma İzni

09.12.2019

ÇANKAYA ÜNİVERSİTESİNE
(Rektörlük)

İlgi : a)MEB Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğünün 2017/25 nolu Genelgesi.
b)22.11.2019 tarihli ve 0000050165 sayılı yazınız.

Üniversiteniz Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Psikoloji Anabilim Dalı Psikoloji tezli yüksek lisans programı öğrencilerinden Cansu KARAKUŞ'un "Aile İçi Şiddete Maruziyet ile Zorbalık, Kendini Susturma Davranışı ve Akademik Öz Yeterlilik Arasındaki İlişkiler" ve Zeynep Işıl DEMİRCİOĞLU'nun "Ergenlerde Bağlanma Stilleri Karanlık Üçlü Kişilik Özellikleri, Reddedilme Duyarlılığı ve Arkadaşlık Kalitesinin Sosyal Medya Bağlılığına Etkileri" konulu çalışmaları kapsamında İlimiz Çankaya, Yenimahalle, Mamak, Sincan ve Altındağ İlçelerine bağlı liselerde uygulama talebi ilgi (b) Genelge çerçevesinde incelenmiştir.

Yapılan inceleme sonucunda, söz konusu araştırmanın Müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen ölçme araçlarının; Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Anayasası, Milli Eğitim Temel Kanunu ile Türk Milli Eğitiminin genel amaçlarına uygun olarak, ilgili yasal düzenlemelerde belirtilen ilke, esas ve amaçlara aykırılık teşkil etmeyecek, eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerini aksatmayacak şekilde okul ve kurum yöneticilerinin sorumluluğunda gönüllülük esasına göre uygulanması Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Turan AKPINAR
Vali a.
Milli Eğitim Müdürü

APPENDIX C

THE STUDY SURVEY



Çankaya Üniversitesi

Psikoloji
Bölümü

Sayın katılımcı,

• Bu anket Çankaya Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü Öğretim Üyesi Doç. Dr. Aslı GÖNCÜ KÖSE danışmanlığında, Çankaya Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Örgütsel Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı Öğrencisi Psk. Cansu KARAKUŞ tarafından yürütülen yüksek lisans tez araştırması kapsamında yapılmaktadır. Söz konusu araştırmanın amacı, bireylerin sosyal ve kişisel tutumlarının aile ve arkadaşları ile olan ilişkilerini araştırmaktır.

• Lütfen her soruyu dikkatle okuyunuz ve hiçbir soruyu yanıtızsız bırakmayınız. Boş bırakılan maddelerin olduğu anketler geçersiz sayılacaktır.

• Hiçbir sorunun doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Sizin içtenlikle vereceğiniz cevaplar bizim için en yararlı olanlardır.

• Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Katılım sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmayı istediğiniz anda bırakmakta serbestsiniz.

• Verdiğiniz bilgiler gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler yalnızca bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılacak, kesinlikle hiçbir kişi veya kurumla paylaşılmayacaktır.

• Anketin cevaplanmasında süre sınırlaması yoktur; ancak anketin doldurulması, yaklaşık 10-15 dakika sürmektedir.

• Çalışmamıza katılımınız ve yaptığınız katkı bizim için çok değerlidir. Bu anketi doldurmak için zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Sayın Katılımcı;

Bu çalışma Çankaya Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyesi Doç. Dr. Aslı GÖNCÜ KÖSE danışmanlığında, Çankaya Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Örgütsel Psikoloji yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Cansu Karakuş tarafından yürütülen tez çalışması kapsamında yapılmaktadır. Söz konusu araştırmanın amacı, bireylerin sosyal ve kişisel tutumlarının aile ve arkadaşları ile olan ilişkilerini araştırmaktır.

Bu araştırma kapsamında vereceğiniz tüm bilgiler tamamen gizli kalacaktır. Çalışmanın objektif olması ve elde edilecek sonuçların güvenilirliği bakımından anket sorularında duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtmak üzere içtenlikle yanıtlamanız önemlidir. Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Katılım sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmayı istediğiniz anda bırakmakta serbestsiniz. **Verdiğiniz bilgiler gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler yalnızca bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılacak, kesinlikle hiçbir kişi veya kurumla paylaşılmayacaktır.** Katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Çankaya Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyesi Doç. Dr. Aslı GÖNCÜ KÖSE (agoncu@cankaya.edu.tr) veya Çankaya Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Örgütsel Psikoloji yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Cansu KARAKUŞ (cansukarakus2012@gmail.com) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.


Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğin bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz.)

Tarih:

İmza:

BÖLÜM 1:ARKADAŞLIK KALİTESİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuduktan sonra kendinizi değerlendirip sizin için en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Tamamen Katılmıyorum					Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Arkadaşlarımın verdiği her bilgiye inanırım.					
2. Her zaman arkadaşlarımla şakalaşırım.					
3. Arkadaşlarım ödevlerimdeki hatalarımı düzeltir.					
4. Arkadaşlarım beni kolayca affeder.					
5. Arkadaşlarım asla sözünden dönmez.					
6. Arkadaşlarımın ruh hallerini anlarım.					
7. Arkadaşlarım ödevlerimi tamamlamakta zorlandığımda bana her zaman yardımcı olur.					
8. Arkadaşlarımın sırlarımı sızdırmayacağına eminim.					
9. Farklı sınıflarda olsalar bile arkadaşlarımla her zaman sohbet ederim.					
10. Arkadaşlarımla fikir ayrılığına düştüğümüzde bunun üstesinde kolayca gelebiliriz.					
11. Arkadaşlarım bana asla yalan söylemez.					
12. Arkadaşlarım problemlerimi çözmemde bana yardımcı olur.					
13. Arkadaşlarım ve ben her zaman deneyimlerimizi paylaşırız.					
14. Arkadaşlarımın tavsiyelerini her zaman dinlerim.					
15. Arkadaşlarım bana iyi davranır.					
16. Değerli eşyalarım arkadaşlarımda olduğunda içim rahattır.					
17. Arkadaşlarımın geçmiş yaşantılarını bilirim.					
18. Bir arkadaşım okulda problemle karşılaşursa bu durumu hemen arkadaşlarıma bildiririm.					

19. Arkadaşlarımla kardeş gibiyiz.	
20. Arkadaşlarımın önünde komik duruma düşmek beni rahatsız etmez.	
21. Arkadaşlarım yanımdayken kendimi güvende hissederim.	

BÖLÜM 2:PSİKOLOJİK SAĞLAMLIK ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda çeşitli durumlara ilişkin ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen ifadeyi okuduktan sonra size uyma derecesini sağ taraftaki kutucuklardan birini işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

		Hiç Uygun Değil	Uygun Değil	Biraz Uygun	Uygun	Tamamen Uygun
1.	Sıkıntılı zamanlardan sonra kendimi çabucak toparlayabilirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.	Stresli olayların üstesinden gelmekte güçlük çekerim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3.	Stresli durumlardan sonra kendime gelmem uzun zaman almaz.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4.	Kötü bir şeyler olduğunda bunu atlatmak benim için zordur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5.	Zor zamanları çok az sıkıntıyla atlatırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6.	Hayatımdaki olumsuzlukların etkisinden kurtulmam uzun zaman alır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

BÖLÜM 3:ÖZ-YETERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıdaki soruları dikkatlice okuyup, sizin duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtan her soru için sadece bir cevabı işaretleyiniz. Aşağıdaki sorulara cevabınız “Hiç” ise 1’i, “Biraz” ise 2’yi “Oldukça iyi” ise 3’ü, “İyi” ise 4’ü “Çok iyi” ise 5’i işaretleyiniz.

		Hiç	Biraz	Oldukça iyi	İyi	Çok iyi
1.	Sınıf arkadaşlarınız sizinle aynı görüşte olmadığı zaman kendi görüşlerinizi ne kadar iyi ifade edebilirsiniz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

2.	Olumsuz bir olay karşısında kendi kendinize moralinizi yükseltmeyi ne kadar iyi başarabiliyorsunuz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3.	Yapılacak başka ilgi çekici şeyler olduğunda dersinizi ne kadar iyi çalışabiliyorsunuz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4.	Çok korktuğunuzda yeniden sakinleşebilmeyi ne kadar iyi başarabiliyorsunuz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5.	Çevrenizdeki diğer çocuklarla arkadaşlık kurmada ne kadar iyisiniz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6.	Sınav için hazırlanmanız gereken bir üniteye ne kadar iyi çalışabiliyorsunuz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7.	Tanımadığınız bir kişi ile sohbet etme konusunda ne kadar iyisiniz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8.	Sinirlerinize ne kadar iyi hâkim olabilirsiniz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9.	Her gün ev ödevlerinizi tamamlama konusunda ne kadar başarılısınız?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10.	Sınıf arkadaşlarınız ile ne kadar uyumlu çalışabiliyorsunuz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11.	Duygularınızı ne kadar iyi kontrol edebiliyorsunuz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12.	Her dersinizde ders boyunca dikkatinizi ne kadar iyi toparlayabiliyorsunuz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13.	Çevrenizdeki diğer çocuklara sizin hoşlanmadığınız bir şeyi yaptıklarımı ne kadar iyi anlatabilirsiniz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14.	Kendinizi iyi hissetmediğinizde kendi kendinize moral vermede ne kadar iyisiniz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15.	Okuldaki derslerin tümünü anlamayı başarma konusunda ne kadar iyisiniz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16.	Komik bir olayı bir öğrenci grubuna ne kadar iyi anlatabilirsiniz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

17.	Okuldaki çalışmalarınızla ailenizi memnun etmeyi ne kadar başarabiliyorsunuz?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18.	Diğer çocuklarla arkadaşlığınızı sürdürebilme konusunda ne kadar başarılısınız?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19.	Sizi rahatsız eden düşüncelerinizi bastırma konusunda ne kadar başarılısınız?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20.	Herhangi bir sınavı geçme konusunda ne kadar başarılısınız?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21.	Olması muhtemel şeyler için endişe etmeme konusunda ne kadar başarılısınız?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

BÖLÜM 4: AİLE İÇİ ŞİDDETE MARUZ KALMA ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda çeşitli durumlara ilişkin ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen ifadeyi okuduktan sonra size uyma derecesini sağ taraftaki kutucuklardan birini işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

		Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
1.	Evimizde çocuklar birbirlerine fiziksel şiddet (tekme, tokat, saç çekme, bir şey fırlatma vb.) uygular.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
2.	Evimizde başkalarının çocuklarıyla kıyaslama yapılır.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
3.	Aile bütçesine katkı için istemediğim halde zorla bir işte çalıştırıldığım oldu.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
4.	Evde annem ile çocuklar arasında fiziksel şiddet yaşanır.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
5.	Evimizde bireyler arasında 'alaya alma' durumları görülür.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
6.	İhtiyacım olduğunda ailemden para istemekten korkarım.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
7.	Evde babam ile çocuklar arasında fiziksel şiddet yaşanır.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

		Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
8.	Benim kimlerle arkadaş olacağıma sadece ailem karar verir.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
9.	Ailemin durumu iyi olsa bile bana yeterince harçlık vermez.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
10.	Evde annem ile babam arasında fiziksel şiddet yaşanır.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
11.	Aile fertleri birbirleriyle uzun süre küs kalırlar.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
12.	Ailemde erkek ve kız çocukları arasında ayrımcılık yapılır.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
13.	Ailem benim harçlığımı nereye harcadığımı sıkı bir şekilde denetler.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
14.	Ailem, yanlış bir davranışımı gördüğünde beni fiziksel şiddetle cezalandırır.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
15.	Ailemin okuduğum okulu tercih etmemde isteğim dışında müdahalesi oldu.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
16.	Eve geç gittiğim için ailede dayak yediğim oldu.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
17.	Ailemde bireyler arasında küfürlü konuşmalar olur.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
18.	Ailem, fiziksel şiddet kullanarak üzerimde baskı kurmaya çalışır.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
19.	Ailemde bireyler birbirlerine üstünlük kurmak için birbirlerini tehdit eder.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
20.	Okul başarısızlığım yüzüme vurulur.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
21.	Ailemdeki bireyler kırdıklarında birbirlerine bir şeyler fırlatırlar.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
22.	Ailemizde harcama yapılmasın diye aile bireyelerine para verilmez.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
23.	Ailemde bireyler birbirlerine lakap takarlar.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
24.	Evdeki bireyler isteklerini birbirlerine bağırarak kabul ettirirler.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

		Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
25.	Aile bireylerinin kazandıkları paralara aile reisi tarafından el konulur.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
26.	Ailemde bireyler arasında kavgaya varan sert tartışmalar olur.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
27.	Derse çalışmadığım için fiziksel şiddete maruz kalırım.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
28.	Ailemizde bireylerin kılık kıyafetine karışılır.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

BÖLÜM 5: ZORBALIK ÖLÇEĞİ

Bu anket formunda okuldaki yaşamınıza ilişkin sorular yer almaktadır. Her sorunun karşısında birkaç cevap bulunmaktadır. Her cevabın önünde bir harf vardır. Cevaplardan birinin önündeki harfi yuvarlak içine alarak ilgili soruyu cevaplayınız. Bu sorulara ne cevaplar verdiğinizi hiçkimse bilmeyecektir.

Fakat soruları dikkatlice ve gerçekte ne hissediyorsanız o şekilde cevaplamanız önemlidir. Bazen ne cevap vereceğinize karar vermek zor olur. Böyle durumlarda sadece nasıl olduğunu düşünüyorsanız öyle cevap veriniz. Sorunuz varsa elinizi kaldırınız.

Soruların büyük bir kısmı bu dönemdeki, yani yarıyıl tatilinden sonra okulların açıldığı Şubat ayından itibaren bugüne kadarki süre içindeki okul yaşamınıza ile ilgilidir. Cevaplarınızı işaretlerken, sadece şimdi nasıl olduğunu değil, bu öğretim yılında (son birkaç ay..) nasıl olduğunu düşünerek cevap veriniz.

Bu dönem okulda başka bir öğrenciye veya öğrencilere aşağıda yer alan zorbaca davranışlarda (biri veya birkaçı) bulundun mu ?

- 1.Okulda diğer öğrencilere karşı ne kadar sık zorbaca davranışlarda bulundun veya zorbaca davranan bir grupta yer aldın?
- A Okulda bu dönem diğer öğrencilere karşı zorbaca davranışlarda bulunmadım.
B Sadece bir veya iki kere
C Arada sırada
D Haftada bir
E Haftada birkaç kez

A B C D E

	Bu dönem Sadece hiç olmadı bir iki kez	Ayda iki veya üç kez	Yaklaşık haftada bir kez	Hafta birkaç kez	
2. Kötü isimler taktım, kırıcı şekilde alay ettim.	A	B	C	D	E
3. Bilerek bir veya birkaç öğrenciyi olayların dışında tuttum.	A	B	C	D	E
4. Onu veya onları itip kaktım, dövdüm ve tehdit ettim.	A	B	C	D	E
5. Bir veya birkaç öğrenciyle ilgili yalanlar söyledim, dedikodu yaptım ve başkalarının da onu veya onları sevmemesi için uğraştım.	A	B	C	D	E
6. Para vermeleri için tehdit ettim, eşyalarını aldım veya eşyalarına zarar verdim.	A	B	C	D	E
7. Görünüşleri veya konuşmaları ile alay ettim.	A	B	C	D	E
8. Başka biçimlerde zorbaca davranışlara bulundum.	A	B	C	D	E

BÖLÜM 6: KENDİNİ SUSTURMA DAVRANIŞI ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen aşağıdaki her maddeyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra o maddede yer alan ifadeye ne derecede katıldığınızı aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1.	(Ailemle, arkadaşlarımla olan) yakın ilişkilerimde tartışma yaşama riskini almaktansa, sessiz kalmayı tercih ederim.					
2.	(Ailemle, arkadaşlarımla olan) yakın ilişkilerimde sorun ya da görüş ayrılıklarına yol açacağımı bilsem de duygularımı dile getiririm.					
3.	(Ailemle, arkadaşlarımla olan) yakın ilişkilerimde sorunlara yol açacağımı düşündüğüm zaman hislerimi içime gömerim.					
4.	(Ailemle, arkadaşlarımla olan) yakın ilişkilerimde görüş ayrılığına sebep olacağını bildiğim durumlarda gerçek duygularımdan bahsetmem.					
5.	Aile üyelerimin ya da arkadaşlarımla istekleri veya düşünceleri benimkilerle uyuşmadığında, kendi görüşümü kabul ettirmeye çalışmak yerine genellikle onlarla hemfikir olurum.					
6.	Aile üyelerimin ya da arkadaşlarımla istekleri veya düşünceleri benimkilerle çatıştığında kendiminkileri her zaman açıkça dile getiririm.					
7.	Aile üyelerimin ya da arkadaşlarımla çatıştığı durumlarda, duygularımı kendime saklamanın daha iyi olacağını düşünürüm.					
8.	Bana yakın olan kişilere öfkemi çok nadir gösteririm.					
9.	(Ailemle, arkadaşlarımla olan) yakın ilişkilerimde bazı ihtiyaçlarımla karşılanamaması ihtimali olduğunda, genellikle onların zaten çok da önemli olmadıklarını düşünürüm.					

BÖLÜM 7: STRESLE BAŞA ÇIKMA TARZLARI ÖLÇEĞİ

Bu ölçek kişilerin yaşamlarındaki sıkıntılar ve stresle başa çıkmak için neler yaptıklarını belirlemek amacıyla geliştirilmiştir. Lütfen sizin için sıkıntı ya da stres oluşturan olayları düşünerek bu sıkıntılarımızla başa çıkmak için genellikle neler yaptığımızı hatırlayınız ve aşağıdaki davranışların sizi tanımlama ya da size uygunluk derecesini işaretleyiniz. Herhangi bir davranış size uygun değilse %0'ın altına, çok uygun ise %100'ün altına işaret koyunuz.

		%0	%30	%70	%100
	<i>Bir sıkıntım olduğunda...</i>				
1.	Olayın değerlendirmesini yaparak en iyi kararı vermeye çalışırım.	()	()	()	()
2.	Ne olursa olsun direnme ve mücadele etme gücünü kendimde bulurum.	()	()	()	()
3.	Mutlaka bir yol bulabileceğime inanır, bu yolda uğraşırım.	()	()	()	()
4.	Her şeye yeniden başlayacak gücü kendimde bulurum.	()	()	()	()
5.	Problemi adım adım çözmeye çalışırım.	()	()	()	()
6.	Hakkımı savunabileceğime inanırım.	()	()	()	()
7.	Bir kişi olarak iyi yönde değiştiğimi ve olgunlaştığımı hissederim.	()	()	()	()
8.	Bir mucize olmasını beklerim.	()	()	()	()
9.	Kendimi kapana sıkışmış gibi hissederim.	()	()	()	()
10.	Olanları kafama takıp sürekli düşünmekten kendimi alamam.	()	()	()	()
11.	Her şeyin istediğim gibi olamayacağına inanırım.	()	()	()	()
12.	Sorunun benden kaynaklandığını düşünürüm.	()	()	()	()
13.	Keşke daha güçlü bir insan olsaydım diye düşünürüm.	()	()	()	()
14.	Benim suçum ne diye düşünürüm.	()	()	()	()

		%0	%30	%70	%100
	<i>Bir sıkıntım olduğunda...</i>				
15.	Hep benim yüzümden oldu diye düşünürüm.	()	()	()	()
16.	Başta gelen çekilir diye düşünürüm.	()	()	()	()
17.	İş olacağına varır diye düşünürüm.	()	()	()	()
18.	Problemin çözümü için adak adarım.	()	()	()	()
19.	Elimden hiçbir şeyin gelmeyeceğine inanırım.	()	()	()	()
20.	Mücadeleden vazgeçerim.	()	()	()	()
21.	Olanlar karşısında kaderim buymuş derim.	()	()	()	()
22.	İyimser olmaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()
23.	Olayları büyütmeyip, üzerinde durmamaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()
24.	Sakin kafayla düşünmeye, öfkelenmemeye çalışırım.	()	()	()	()
25.	Kendime karşı hoşgörülü olmaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()
26.	Olaylardan olumlu bir şey çıkartmaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()
27.	Bir sıkıntım olduğunu kimsenin bilmesini istemem.	()	()	()	()
28.	İçinde bulunduğum kötü durumu kimsenin bilmesini istemem.	()	()	()	()
29.	Sorunun gerçek nedenini anlayabilmek için başkalarına danışırım.	()	()	()	()
30.	Bana destek olabilecek kişilerin varlığını bilmek beni rahatlatır.	()	()	()	()

BÖLÜM 8: DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ FORMU

1. Cinsiyetiniz:

- Kız
 Erkek

2. Yaşınız: _____

3. Okuduğunuz lise: _____

4. Sınıfınız: _____

5. Not ortalamanız: _____

6. Annenizin eğitim durumu (mezun olduğu son okul/aldığı son derece):

- İlköğretim
 Lise
 Üniversite
 Yüksek lisans
 Doktora

7. Babanızın eğitim durumu (mezun olduğu son okul/aldığı son derece):

- İlköğretim
 Lise
 Üniversite
 Yüksek lisans
 Doktora

8. En uzun süre yaşadığınız yerleşim yerinin türü:

- Köy
 Kasaba
 Şehir
 Büyükşehir

9. Hanenize giren yaklaşık aylık gelir:

- < 2.020,90 TL
 2.020,90 TL-4.000 TL
 4.000 TL-6.000 TL
 6.000 TL-8.000 TL
 8.000 TL-10.000 TL
 > 10.000 TL

APPENDIX D
CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Last name, Name : Karakuş, Cansu
Nationality : T.C.
BirthDate/Place : 19/06/1993, Ankara
Telephone Number : +905326603763
E-mail : cansukarakus2012@gmail.com

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Graduation year
Undergraduate	Çankaya University	2016
Highschool	Cumhuriyet Highschool	2011

CAREER

Year	Institution	Position
2017-still working	Ankara Aile, Çalışma ve Sosyal Hizmetler Bakanlığı, Şiddet Önleme ve İzleme Merkezi (ŞÖNİM)	Psychologist

Foreign Languages

Advanced English